The apoplastic space of two wheat genotypes provide highly different environment for pathogen colonization: Insights from proteome and microbiome profiling

Carolina Sardinha Francisco[1,2], Mohammad Abukhalaf[3], Clara Igelmann[1], Johanna Gustke[1], Michael Habig[1], Liam Cassidy[3], Andreas Tholey[3], Eva Holtgrewe Stukenbrock[1,2]

[1] Environmental Genomics, Kiel University, Kiel, Germany

[2] Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Biology, Plön, Germany

[3] Systematic Proteomics and Bioanalytic, Kiel University, Kiel, Germany

Corresponding author: estukenbrock@bot.uni-kiel.de and csardinha@bot.uni-kiel.de

ABSTRACT

The intercellular space comprising the plant apoplast harbors a diverse range of

microorganisms. The apoplastic interface represents the main compartment for

interactions between proteins produced and secreted by the plant and the microbial

endophytes. The outcomes of these interactions can play a role in plant cell wall

metabolism, stress tolerance, and plant-pathogen resistance. So far the underlying

factors that determine microbiota composition in the apoplast are not fully understood.

However, it is considered that cell wall composition, nutrient availability, and the plant

immune system are main determinants of microbiota composition. The plant immune

system is considered to play a crucial role in modulating microbiota composition

through the recognition of specific microbe-associated molecular patterns and the

activation of defense responses. Hereby the plant may restrict non-beneficial microbial

members and facilitate the propagation of beneficial ones. In this study, we

investigated changes in the apoplastic environment during pathogen invasion using

wheat as a model system. Infection of wheat with Zymoseptoria tritici, a fungal

pathogen, resulted in notable alterations in the apoplast composition, reduced

microbial diversity, and the accumulation of antimicrobial defense metabolites.

Intriguingly, certain core microbial members persisted even in the presence of

pathogen-induced immune responses, indicating their ability to evade or tolerate host

immune defenses. To further explore these dynamics, we developed a protocol for

extracting apoplastic fluids from wheat leaves and conducted proteome analyses to

characterize the dynamic environment of the wheat leaves. Our findings uncovered a

highly variable apoplastic environment that selects for microbes with specific

adaptations. Notably, a core microbial community enriched in the resistant wheat

cultivar exhibited antagonistic activity against Z. tritici, suggesting a potential role in

conferring pathogen defense. This study advances our understanding of the dynamic

interactions and adaptations of the wheat apoplastic microbiota during pathogen

invasion, emphasizing the pivotal role of microbial interactions in pathogen defenses.

Introduction

Plants are hosts to complex communities of microorganisms that function together in symbiotic relationships that define the "plant metaorganism" (1, 2). Detailed studies of microbial communities in below and above ground tissues have demonstrated that different plant compartments host distinct microbial communities (reviewed in (3)). A large diversity of microorganisms colonizes the surface of plant tissues, while some microorganisms have adapted to colonize the interior of plant tissues. Hereby, also the apoplastic compartment, which is the intercellular space within plant tissues, hosts a diverse range of microorganisms, including both bacteria and fungi. The composition of the apoplastic microbiota can vary depending on the tissue type and the developmental stage of the plant, but it is considered to play a role in plant cell wall metabolism and stress tolerance, including pathogen resistance (4, 5).

As distinct plant compartments represent very different environments for microbial propagation, they may select for microbes with particular adaptations. In the apoplastic compartment, factors which may select for particular microbial partners include cell wall composition, nutrient availability and the host immune system. For example, experimental studies using mutants of *Arabidopsis* affected in cuticle synthesis showed a pronounced influence on microbiota composition (6). Moreover, the apoplast is generally a nutrient-poor environment, and therefore favors microorganisms that can utilize complex plant compounds and effectively scavenge nutrients (7). Importantly, the apoplast is the main compartment for interactions between proteins produced and secreted by the plant and the microbial endophytes. How these factors jointly shape the plant microbiota during the lifetime of a plant remains poorly understood. Yet, understanding how the apoplastic environment

shapes microbial diversity is crucial to our understanding of plants as metaorganisms

as well as to the development of synthetic microbial communities intended to

strengthen plant health in production systems.

Genetic and experimental studies of plant-microbiota interactions have demonstrated

a fundamental role of the plant immune system in shaping microbiota composition. For

example, mutants of *A. thaliana* impaired in different immune-related signaling

pathways showed altered composition of their microbiota (e.g., (8, 9). Likewise,

activation of systemic immune responses in wheat, *Triticum aestivum*, by an avirulent

pathogen, conferred a significant shift in microbiota composition correlating with the

production of defense related metabolites (10). The evident function of the plant

immune system in shaping microbiota composition leads to the general assumption

that plants, via immune signaling, can regulate microbiota composition by selecting for

beneficial microbial partners and eliminating non-beneficial, pathogenic microbes.

Conceptually, these different types of microbial regulations have been termed

"recognition and tolerance" and "recognition and defense" responses (3, 11). At the

core of these interactions are pattern recognition receptors (PRR proteins) which are

embedded in plant membranes and act to recognize and distinguish particular microbe

associated molecular patterns (MAMPs) produced by microorganisms (12, 13). The

activation of defense signaling involves the production of reactive oxygen species

(ROS) and specific antimicrobial metabolites, modification of cell wall compositions,

and eventually local cell death. Such "recognition and defense responses" may lead

to the elimination of certain microorganisms, while simultaneously selecting for other

microorganisms that can tolerate a higher abundance of plant defense compounds

(9). This scenario invokes that core members of the plant metaorganism have adapted

to tolerate defense-related plant compounds, which are recurrently induced by

invading non-beneficial and pathogenic microorganisms.

In this study, we set out to investigate the plant apoplastic space as an environment

for microbial colonization. We specifically addressed how induced immune responses

alter the abiotic and biotic composition of the apoplast. Furthermore, we investigated

signatures of microbial adaptation to the apoplastic environment by growth assays of

plant-associated microbes in the presence of plant immune compounds. We used

wheat as a model system to dissect changes in apoplastic fluid compositions. Wheat

is one of the most important crops grown world-wide. In recent years, research has

focused on the wheat microbiome considering the putative potential of microbiota-

manipulation in plant growth promotion and stress tolerance (e.g., (14-16). In this

regard, insights into the dynamics of microbiota composition are scarce, hindering our

ability to predict the stability of beneficial microbes in the field.

In our study, we used wheat as a plant model system to uncover variation in the

apoplast environment. Wheat can be infected by the ascomycete fungus

Zymoseptoria tritici, a hemibiotrophic pathogen that invades leaf tissues via stomatal

openings. Several quantitative and qualitative resistance loci have been mapped in

wheat using quantitative trait locus analyses and genome wide association studies

(17-21). Among these resistance loci the best characterized is *Stb6*, which confers

resistance towards *Z. tritici* isolates by the secretion of the AvrStb6 protein (17, 22,

23). In resistant wheat varieties harboring *Stb6*, the recognition of AvrStb6 in *Z. tritici*

isolates occurs via guard-cell located in the stomata, preventing fungal invasion and

colonization (24). Hereby, recognition of *Z. tritici* induces a strong up-regulation of local

and systemic defense responses involving the production of ROS and other defense

related compounds, as well as lignin accumulation (10). In susceptible wheat however,

the fungus efficiently suppresses defense signaling to colonize the mesophyll tissue.

In a previous study, we compared the impact of microbiota composition in wheat

leaves after inoculation with spores of *Z. tritici* (10). We showed that the fungal

pathogen greatly influences microbiota composition in both resistant and susceptible

wheat. We speculate that the microbiota composition may change in response to both

direct interactions with the fungus as well as indirect effects conferred by the altered

apoplast environment.

An interesting observation is the fact that microbial diversity overall is reduced in a

resistant wheat cultivar upon infection with *Z. tritici* (10). The reduced microbial

diversity correlates with a strong accumulation of antimicrobial defense metabolites

which are induced by the invading pathogen. One component of the microbial

community however persists during the pathogen-induced immune response

suggesting that these microbes are capable of avoiding or tolerating host immune

responses.

In the present study, we set out to further explore the dynamic of abiotic and biotic

conditions in a wheat metaorganism. We notably considered changes in the apoplastic

space during pathogen invasion and explored the diversity and adaptations of core

metaorganisms members. To this end, we developed a protocol for extraction of

apoplastic fluids from wheat leaves. We used the apoplastic fluid samples for

proteome analyses and for isolation of the microbial communities inhabiting the

particular intercellular space of the wheat mesophyll.

Our study reveals a highly variable environment, selecting for microbes with particular

adaptations. We observed a portion of microbes that are specifically enriched in the

resistant cultivar Chinese Spring (which harbors *Stb6*), and we hypothesize that they

compose a core microbial community. We further observed that several of these core

microbes show antagonism against *Z. tritici* and may therefore also play a role in

pathogen defense.

Material and methods

Fungal and plant material

The Dutch *Z. tritici* IPO323 (internally named Zt244) strain producing the effector

protein AvrStb6 was used in this study (Wageningen University, Netherlands) (17, 22,

25). Additionally, the Zt05 strain isolated in Denmark (26), and Zt10 strain isolated in

Iran (27), were used in the *in-vitro* confrontation assays. The fungal cells, stored in

glycerol at -80°C, were recovered in 50 mL of YMS medium (yeast malt sucrose broth,

4 g/L yeast extract, 4 g/L malt extract, 4 g/L sucrose, pH 6.8) incubated at 18 °C for 4

days. The susceptible wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L) cultivar Obelisk (without the

resistance gene *Stb6*) was obtained from Wiersum Plant Breeding BV (the

Netherlands), and the resistant landrace Chinese Spring (with the resistance gene

Stb6) was kindly provided by Bruce McDonald from ETH Zürich.

Plant growth conditions

Seeds from both Obelisk and Chinese Spring wheat genotypes were surface washed

for 5 min with 1x phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; 8 g/L NaCl, 0.2 g/L KCl, 1.44 g/L

Na2HPO4, 0.24 g/L KH2PO4, pH 7.4) supplemented with 0.02% (v/v) of Tween 20,

followed by three times (1 min each) with sterile deionized water. Twelve seeds of

each wheat genotype were sown in square pots (9 x 9 x 9.5 cm) containing peat soil

(HAWITA GmbH, Vechta, Germany). Subsequently, each pot was inoculated with 100

mL of agricultural soil slurry by diluting 10 g of soil collected from the experimental

farm Hohenschulen (54°18'53.7" N – 9°58'44.1" E) of the Christian-Albrechts

University of Kiel in Germany in 1L of sterile deionized water. Plants were grown during

the entire experiment in the greenhouse under constant conditions of 16/8 h light/dark

cycle at 22°C (day) and 20°C (night) and 80% relative humidity.

Fungal infection

Plant inoculations were performed as previously described (28). In brief, the IPO323

strain was grown in 50 mL of YMS medium in a rotary shaker for five days at 18°C.

After the incubation, blastospore suspensions were filtered through sterile cheesecloth

and pelleted at 3750 rpm for 15 min at 4°C. The supernatant was discarded and the

cells were resuspended in sterile deionized water. The concentration of the

blastospore suspensions were determined using KOVA Glasstic counting chambers

(KOVA International Inc., USA) and adjusted to a final concentration of 10^7

blastospores/mL in 30 mL of sterile water supplemented with 0.1% (v/v) Tween 20.

We sprayed 14-day old plants until run-off and placed for three days in sealed plastic

bags to keep humidity at 100%. The plastic bags were then removed, and the plants

were kept in the greenhouse until the end of the experiments. Mock-treated plants

were sprayed with sterile water. To ensure the success of fungal infection, second

leaves of additional infected plants were harvested at 14 days-post inoculation (dpi).

Wheat apoplastic fluids extraction

Apoplastic fluids (AFs) was obtained according to the method of R. T. Nakano et al.

(29) with slight modifications (Fig. S1A). Ten 1st and 2nd fully expanded wheat leaves

were harvested at 8 dpi from plants growing in separated pots. Three biological

replicates containing 20 leaves (the 10 first and 10 second wheat leaves) were pooled

for the AF extraction. Leaves were surface washed two times (5 min each time) with

1x PBS, and 1x PBS supplemented with 0.02% (v/v) of Tween 20, followed by three

times (1 min each) with sterile deionized water. The washed leaves were submerged

in 400 mL of infiltration buffer (5 mM sodium acetate, 0.2 M calcium chloride, pH 4.3)

containing two dissolved cOmplete^{TM} EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail tablets

(Roche Applied Science, Penzberg, Germany) and vacuum-infiltrated at 900 mbar for

10 min. Subsequently, the vacuum was released gently for approximately 30 min. The

vacuum step was carried out 2-3 times to reach a maximum saturation of the infiltration

buffer in the apoplastic space. The excessive buffer was dried quickly between two

sheets of soft paper towel, and the leaves were placed into a 20 mL blunt-end

needleless syringe (without the plunger). The syringe was introduced into a 50 mL

falcon tube and then centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 4 minutes at 4 °C. The centrifugation

step was repeated up to three times to extract a maximum amount of the apoplastic

liquid. A summary of the methodology used for the apoplastic fluid isolation is given in

Fig. S1A. Two 500 µL aliquots of AFs were lyophilised overnight, followed by

resuspension in 200 µL of 100 mM ammonium acetate, and then stored at -20° until

required for proteomic or Western blot analyses. Additionally, 1 mL of AFs were kept

on ice until plated on different media for microbial isolation.

Western blot analysis

Western blotting was performed with three biological replicates of each treatment to

identify any contamination of the apoplastic fluid samples by intracellular proteins. The

cytoplasmic protein Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (so-called

RubisCO, RbcL) was used as a marker for intra-cellular contamination of the

apoplastic fluid samples. Since different eukaryotes colonize the apoplast, including

Z. tritici for the wheat infected plants, we furthermore used the Histone H3 protein as

a general eukaryote positive marker. One microgram of protein from the apoplastic

fluids and a quantitative rubisco positive standard control (Agrisera, Vännäs, Sweden)

were electrophoretic separated on Mini-PROTEAN TGX Precast Gels (8-16%

polyacrylamide, Bio-Rad Laboratories, California, USA) at 70V for 15 min, and then

increased to 100V for 60 min, followed by blotting to PVDF membranes (Bio-Rad

Laboratories, California, USA). Membranes were overnight blocked with 1x TBS-T

(Tris-buffered saline with Tween-20) containing 4% of non-fat dry milk at 4°C with

agitation. Blots were then incubated in the primary antibodies against Histone H3 (H3,

Agrisera, Vännäs, Sweden) (1:5'000) or RuBisCo large subunit (RbcL, Agrisera,

Vännäs, Sweden) (1:10'000) for 1h at room temperature with agitation. After washing,

the blots were incubated in 1x TBS-T containing 2% of non-fat dry milk in which the

secondary antibodies conjugated to horseradish peroxidase (anti-rabbit, 1:20'000 from

Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, USA; or anti-chicken, 1:25'000 from Agrisera,

Vännäs, Sweden) for 1h at room temperature. The blots were detected using ECL-

Select Western Blotting detection reagent (Cytiva, München, Germany) according to

the manufacture's instruction, and images were obtained using the CCD imager

Documentation System (Bio-Rad Laboratories, California, USA).

Proteome analysis by liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS)

Protein concentrations in the apoplast samples were determined using the micro BCA

assay (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Germany). 50 µg total protein of each sample were

reduced with 10 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) at final concentration for 1h at 56°C. Samples

were then alkylated with 50 mM Chloroacetamide (CAA) for 30 min at 25°C in the dark,

followed by overnight digestion with trypsin (enzyme to protein ratio of 1:100)

(Promega, Germany) at 37 °C. Digestion was stopped by acidification using 5% formic

acid (FA) and samples were subsequently desalted on a C18 solid phase extraction

cartridge (SepPak C18, 1cc, 50 mg) (Waters, Eschborn, Germany) following

manufacturer's instructions. Peptides were eluted from the cartridges with 60%

acetonitrile (ACN) supplemented with 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), and dried via

vacuum centrifugation (Concentrator Plus, Eppendorf).

Dried peptides were resuspended in 3% ACN and 0.1% TFA and then separated

employing a Dionex U3000 nanoHPLC system (Dreieich, Germany) equipped with an

Acclaim Pepmap100 C18 column (2 µm, 75 µm x 500 mm). The eluents used were

eluent A: 0.05% FA, and eluent B: 80% ACN/ 0.04% FA. A programmed 123 min run

at 300 nl/min was performed as follows: 2 min at 4% eluent B, 90 min linear gradient

4% to 50% eluent B, 5 min linear gradient 50% to 90% eluent B, 10 min at 90% eluent

B, followed by equilibration for 16 min at 4% eluent B. Eluted peptides were analyzed

online on a QExactive™ Plus mass spectrometer (Thermo, Bremen, Germany). A

top15 data acquisition method was applied with a full MS scan (350-1400 m/z,

resolution 70,000, AGC 3e6, Max IT 50 ms), followed by HCD fragmentation and

MS/MS scans of the 15 most intense ions (NCE 27.5, resolution 17,500, AGC 1e5,

Max IT 100 ms). A 20 s dynamic exclusion and a lock mass of 445.12003 were applied.

Each sample was injected twice.

Proteomic data analysis

MS raw data were analyzed using the Uniprot reference proteomes of *Triticum aestivum* (130,673 proteins), *Z. tritici* strain IPO323 (10,972), *Acidovorax sp.* (5,416), *Curtobacterium flaccumfaciens* (3,574), *Pseudomonas anguilliseptica* (4,385), *Pseudomonas rhodesiae* (5,708), *Flavobacterium sp* (3,029) *Plantibacter flavus* (3,813), and known contaminants (cRAP) were determined using the Sequest HT search engine linked to Proteome Discoverer™ 2.5 (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Germany). Enzyme specific was set to Trypsin, and two missed cleavages were allowed. Precursor and fragment ion tolerances were set to 10 ppm and 0.02 Da, respectively. Carbamidomethylation of cysteine was set as a fixed modification and oxidation of methionine as a variable modification. The INFERYS rescoring node was incorporated into the processing workflow. Strict parsimony criteria were applied with 1% false discovery rate (FDR) cutoff used for both peptides and proteins. A label-free quantification method, based on the intensities of the precursor ions, was performed using Minora detection with match between runs. Only proteins with high combined FDR confidence were considered. Moreover, *T. aestivum* proteins were filtered to contain at least two identified peptides; proteins of other organisms were considered underrepresented in the samples.

Protein groups and their respective raw intensities were exported and further analyzed using the software Perseus v.1.6.15.0 (30). For quantitative analysis, intensities of two technical injections per sample were averaged and then normalized by median based normalization. Normalized intensities were $\log_2$ transformed and grouped per condition (*e.g.*, Obelisk Mock or Chinese Spring Mock). Proteins were filtered to

contain at least three values in one group, and imputation of missing values from

normal distribution was performed separately for each column (Perseus default

values, Width 0.3 and down shift 1.8). Principal component analysis (PCA) plots were

generated in Perseus and the volcano graphs were plotted with bioinfokit (31) using a

custom made Python script.

Gene enrichment analysis and predictions

Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis was performed with the webserver DAVID

2021 (32, 33). All of the identified wheat proteins were searched against the default

background and functional annotation charts with GOTERM_BP_DIRECT,

GOTERM_CC_DIRECT and GOTERM_MF_DIRECT categories (EASE 0.1). Up to

five GO terms with lowest Benjamini Hochberg corrected p-values (<0.05) were

plotted. GO enrichment of the differentially expressed proteins in the volcano plots

were performed in a similar way; however, identified proteins were used as a

background and up to three GO terms with lowest Benjamini Hochberg p-values

(<0.05) were plotted for each category.

For prediction of apoplastic proteins, a FASTA file of the identified proteins was

analyzed using AploplastP 1.0 (34) and SignalP 6.0 (Organism: Eukarya, Model mode:

Fast) (35). Proteins predicted to be apoplastic by the program ApoplastP or having a

signal peptide predicted by the SignalP software were considered as predicted

apoplastic proteins. Venn diagrams were plotted using Venny 2.1 program (36).

Establishment of a wheat-enriched endophytic community-based culture

collection

Using the apoplastic fluid samples, we further isolated a collection of bacteria and

fungi. The culture collection represents the microbial community which is enriched in

the inter-cellular space of wheat leaves. The culture collection was obtained using

freshly extracted AFs from mock and IPO323 infected Obelisk or Chinese Spring

wheat plants. To optimize the isolation of microorganisms we used a set of different

media. 100 μL of both undiluted or 1:10 dilution of AF samples were plated on three

different media, including as Trypticase Soy agar (TSA; 7.5 g/L BBL Trypticase Soy

Broth (TSB); Becton Dickinson and Company, NJ, USA; 15 g/L agar) used as a non-

selective growth medium for bacteria; Reasoner's 2A agar (R2A; 18.1 g/L R2A-Agar;

Carl Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany) a medium that favors slow-growing bacteria; and

Pseudomonas syringae medium (PSM; 15 g/L sucrose, 3.75 g/L peptone, 0.38 g/L

K2HPO4, 0.1 g/L MgSO4, 15 g/L agar) recommended to

isolate *Pseudomonas* species. Three technical replicate plates were prepared per

treatment and media combinations. Plates were incubated for four days at 22°C or

until the appearance of visible fastidious colonies. For microbial singularization,

individuals exhibiting diversity colony morphotypes (*e.g.,* distinct size, shape, texture,

or pigmentation) were transferred onto a new agar plate and incubated for additionally

four days at 22°C. This procedure was repeated twice in at similar way. The

individualized colonies were then transferred to canonical tubes containing 25 mL of

TSB medium and incubated on a rotary shaker at 145 rpm for seven days at 22°C.

Finally, cryostocks were prepared by mixing 1 mL of the liquid cultures with 1 mL of

50% (v/v) YMS glycerol medium.

DNA extraction, species identification and phylogenetic analysis

Cells of individualized colonies were scratched from the agar and dissolved in 250 μL

of sterile deionized water. 50 μL of the cell suspensions were lysed by adding 100 μL

of TE lysis buffer (1 mM EDTA and 10 mM TrisHCl, pH 8 + 0.1 % Triton X 100) and

incubated at 99 °C for 10 min. Subsequently, the samples were centrifuged at 13'000

x g for 10 min. The supernatant was transferred to a new tube and used as DNA

template for PCR amplification. In order to identify the bacterial or fungal species,

PCRs using the partial 16S rRNA and the ITS (internal transcribed spacer) regions

were conducted, respectively (37, 38). The 16S rRNA V3-V7 gene region was PCR-

amplified (94°C/2 min; 94°C/30 sec; 57°C/30 sec; and 72°C/1 min for 25 cycles, and

final extension 72°C/10 min) using the forward primer 341F (5' - CCT ACG GGA GGC

AGC) and the reverse primer 1192R (5' - ACG TCA TCC CCA CCT). Additionally, the

ITS region was PCR-amplified (95°C/2 min; 95°C/30 sec; 55°C/30 sec; and 72°C/20

sec for 25 cycles, and final extension 72°C/10 min) using the forward primer ITS1F (5'

- CTT GGT CAT TTA GAG GAA GT) and the reverse primer ITS1R (5' - GCT GCG

TTC TTC ATC GAT GC). The PCR products were purified using the Wizard™ SV Gel

and PCR Clean-Up System (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) following the manufactures

instructions. The obtained purified PCR products were submitted for Sanger

sequencing (Institute of Clinical Molecular Biology, Kiel, Germany) using the

abovementioned forward primer sequences. To identify the microbial species, the

nucleotide sequences were analyzed using the SILVA database with the incorporated

SILVA ACT service (39) for homology searches, sequence alignment and taxa

identification. Furthermore, individual sequences were blasted against the NCBI

(National Center for Biotechnology Information) database. The nucleotide sequences

were aligned using MEGA software (40). The best-fit model of nucleotide evolution

was the GTR+G also determined by MEGA. The phylogeny reconstruction was

computed by maximum likelihood (ML) using 500 bootstraps using RAxML program

(41).

Jaccard similarity index and phylogenetic analysis

The β-diversity (variation between treatment groups) was measured using the non-

phylogenetic-based approach Jaccard index (42). Jaccard is a qualitative index that

utilizes the presence-absence data of the species, as follows: the S_i, S_j, and S_{ij} denote

the number of species (OTUs) present in Samples i, j, and both i and j samples,

respectively, the Jaccard distance between Sample i and j is represented as: $Jac_{(i,j)} =$

$\frac{Si+Sj}{Si+Sj+Sij}$. Distance matrices were constructed based on the percentage of dissimilarity

of community-based culture collection.

A dataset containing the nucleotide sequences of all identified species was used for

phylogenetic analysis. The two fungal species *Rhizopus arrhizus* and *Mucor*

kunryamgriensis from the Mucoroycota were used as outgroups. The best-fit model of

nucleotide evolution was the GTR+G model determined by MEGA v.11 (40). The

nucleotide alignment was performed in MEGA v.11 using the Clustal W multiple

sequence alignment (43), followed by a Maximum Likelihood method for phylogenetic

reconstruction using 500 bootstraps performed in the RAxML v.8 (41, 44). The graphic

display of the phylogenetic tree was adapted with the online tool iTOL v.5 (45).

Confrontation assays

The potential antagonistic activities among the wheat-enriched endophytic microbes

and *Z. tritici* were accessed by confrontation of co-cultures on Petri dishes.

Considering the extensive genetic variation in *Z. tritici*, we included additionally two *Z.*

tritici isolates in the assay allowing us to identify general and isolate-specific

interactions of *Z. tritici* with wheat microbiome members. In addition to the Dutch

isolate IPO323, we included two additional field isolates of *Z. tritici;* Zt05 from

Denmark, and Zt10 from Iran both isolated from wheat (46).

To evaluate the antagonistic activity of the wheat-associated microbes against *Z. tritici*,

the blastosporulation of the three tested *Z. tritici* strains was recovered on 50 mL of

YMS liquid medium incubated at 18°C for six days. The 20 mL of soft agar medium

was prepared using 15 mL of sterile deionized water, 5 mL of boiling Fries 3 agar

medium supplemented with trace elements (as previously described), and fungal

inoculum which gives a final concentration of 1.88×10^5 blastospores/mL. The wheat-

associated microbes were then recovered in Fries 3 liquid medium for three or four

days before the assays on a rotary shaker (200 rpm) at 23°C. Microbial cell densities

were measured and adjusted to OD^{600} of 0.2 at 600 nm. Finally, drops of 3.5 µL of

each tested wheat endophyte were spotted onto three independent Fries 3 plates

amended with *Z. tritici* spores. Plates containing solely Fries 3 medium were used as

control. Nine different isolates placed 3.5 cm apart were tested per Petri dish. Each

isolate was tested three times on independent plates. 1.5 µL of Hygromycin B (at a

final concentration of 19.61 mg/L) was used as positive control for fungal growth

inhibition. Plates were incubated in the dark at 23 °C and photographed after three or

four days of incubation. Digital images were processed using the ImageJ software (47)

for the quantification of the inhibition zones. A Kruskal-Wallis test was performed to

determine the differences between the size of inhibition for the three tested *Z. tritici*

strains. The Dunn's test was then used to define the significance difference between

each independent group. The association between the percentage of isolates that

shown growth promotion or inhibition by each tested *Z. tritici* strain and the treatment

from where the wheat-associated microbes were isolated was examined using

Fisher's exact test.

Response to plant immune-related compounds

To investigate adaptations of the endophyte to the apoplastic environment, we

conducted an *in vitro* assay with different plant-stress related molecules. We included

both bacteria and basidiomycete yeasts in the assay. Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and

three different secondary metabolites, including cinnamyl alcohol (CA), quinic acid

(QA), and nonanoic acid (NA) were used to determine the tolerance of the wheat-

associated microbes to plant immune responses. H_2O_2 accumulates in the apoplast

and is widely used to mimic ROS burst upon Microbe-Associated Molecular Patterns

(MAMPs) perception (48): CA, QA, and NA were previously demonstrated to be highly

abundant in the Chinese Spring, but not in Obelisk upon *Z. tritici* infection (49). We

consider these metabolites to be defense-related metabolites which are induced

specifically in *Z. tritici* resistant wheat. To test for microbial tolerance, the microbes

were recovered in Fries 3 liquid medium (5 g/L $C_4H_{12}N_2O_6$, 1 g/L NH_4NO_3, 0.5 g/L

$MgSO_4*7H_2O$, 1.3 g/L KH_2PO_4, 2.6 g/L K_2HPO_4, 1 g/L yeast extract, 30 g/L sucrose)

for 24h on a rotary shaker (200 rpm) at 23°C. Microbial cell densities were measured

and adjusted to OD^{600} of 0.2 at 600 nm. The ROS assays were performed on Fries 3

agar plates (16 g/L agar) supplemented with 2 mL of trace elements (167 mg/L LiCl,

227 mg/L $CuSO_4.5H_2O$, 34 mg/L H_2MoO_4, 72 mg/L $MnCl_2.4H_2O$, 80 mg/L

$CoCl_2.6H_2O$). Drops of 3.5 µL of each tested wheat endophyte were plated on three

independent Fries 3 plates amended with 0.5, 1, or 2 mM of H_2O_2. Plates containing

only Fries 3 medium were used as control. Plates were incubated 23 °C and

photographed at 5 dpi. The colony diameter was calculated from digital images of

colonies formed in three independent Petri dishes using ImageJ software (47). The

percentage of growth inhibition or promotion in response to the presence of H_2O_2 was

calculated based on the colony diameter of the colonies growing on control plates.

These percentages were then plotted in a bubble plot using ggplot2 package from R

(50).

The plant secondary metabolite assays were conducted on microtiter plates containing

200 µL of Fries 3 liquid medium supplemented with trace elements and 1 mg/mL at

final concentration of CA, or 4 mg/mL at final concentration of NA or QA (all

compounds from Sigma, Missouri, USA). The doses were pre-defined in a previous

experiments using 10 microbial strains (data not shown). The secondary metabolites

CA and NA were solubilized in ethanol, while QA was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide

(DMSO). Therefore, microtiter wells containing solely Fries 3 medium and Fries 3

supplemented with ethanol or DMSO were used as controls. Each tested wheat

endophyte was adjusted to a final OD^{600} of 0.1. Eight and twelve technical replicates

were performed for the controls and each secondary metabolites per microbial strains,

respectively. Plates were incubated on a rotary shaker (190 rpm) at 23°C and OD^{600}

measurements were taken after 24, 48, 72, 96 and 168h of incubation. The growth

ratio of each microbial strain was assessed by dividing the mean OD in the presence

of each secondary metabolite by the mean OD of the corresponding control culture at

each time point. This ratio represents the relative growth of microbial strains in the

presence of CA, NA, and QA compared to the control. An OD ratio $\geq$ 1.1 indicates that

the compound promoted microbial growth, while OD ratio $\leq$ 0.9 suggests that the

compound inhibited the microbial growth. We considered stable bacterial growth if the

OD ratio between 0.9 and 1.1. The histogram containing the relative growth ratio

distribution was plotted using ggplot2 in R (50). The number of microbial strains

showing growth promotion, inhibition, or non-affected growth (ratio between 0.9 and

1.1) in the presence of each secondary metabolite and time point were plotted in an

alluvial plot using ggplot2 in R (50).

Results

LC-MS/MS analyses reveal qualitative and quantitative effects of *Z. tritici*

infection on the wheat apoplastic proteome

To identify the proteins expressed during the compatible and incompatible

interactions, we firstly conducted an infection assay with the susceptible wheat cultivar

Obelisk (without the resistance gene *Stb6*) and the resistant landrace Chinese Spring

(with the resistance gene *Stb6*) inoculated with the IPO323 *Z. tritici* strain, which

produce the effector protein AvrStb6 (17, 22, 23, 51). We isolated the apoplastic fluids

at 8 dpi, which represents the onset of more extensive fungal intracellular growth, but

still at the symptomless biotrophic phase (46, 52). We then confirmed the success of

infection at 14 dpi by showing that the IPO323 strain was able to infect and reproduce

in leaves of Obelisk, but the infection was aborted in leaves of the resistant Chinese

Spring (Fig. S2), corroborating with previous studies (10, 17, 22, 46).

In order to unveil the proteins involved in the wheat immune response against *Z. tritici*,

we applied a bottom-up proteomic analysis on the apoplastic fluid extracts (Fig. 1A).

A total of 2'455 protein sequences (Fig. S1B, Fig. 1A, and Table S1) were identified,

of which 956 (39%) were predicted as apoplastic proteins using SignalP 6.0 and

ApoplastP 1.0 (Fig. 1A). Although RuBisCo was not detected in the apoplastic fluids

using Western blot analysis (Fig. S1D), it is not surprising that cytosolic proteins such

as ribosomal, mitochondrial and chloroplast proteins were identified due to the high

sensitivity of the LC-MS/MS approach (Table S2). Some proteins that were not

predicted as apoplastic might be secreted by non-conventional secretion mechanisms.

Moreover, non-apoplastic proteins may be critical components of plant cells and play

a variety of role in plant growth, development, and stress responses (53-55), thus we

included these proteins in the further analysis.

***Z. tritici* infection causes substantial change in the apoplastic proteome of the**

susceptible wheat genotype

We compared the proteome data of Obelisk and Chinese Spring to identify the

differences between genotypes and between mock-treated and pathogen-infected

plants. The wheat genotypes explained the major difference as seen in the PCA plot

(Fig. 1B). Intriguingly, when comparing mock-treated and infected plants, we found

that fungal infection did not cause a large shift in the Chinese Spring apoplast

proteome, but it resulted in a substantial change in the Obelisk cultivar (Fig. 1B).

We further performed pairwise comparisons to identify the differentially abundant

proteins in Obelisk and Chinese Spring plants during fungal infection. To this end, we

assessed the fold-change of protein accumulation by comparing the mock-treated and

IPO323 infected samples from the same wheat genotype. A total of 248 and 87

proteins were higher in abundance in the infected Obelisk and Chinese Spring,

respectively (Table S2). On the other hand, 305 and 46 proteins showed a higher

abundance in mock treated apoplast of Obelisk and Chinese Spring, respectively

(Table S2). Of the measured proteins in Obelisk, about 36% showed a down-

regulation in *Z. tritici*-infected samples (242 proteins, Obelisk mock vs infected), while

only 13% of proteins in Chinese Spring were down-regulated in the *Z. tritici* infected

leaves (86 proteins, Chinese Spring mock vs infected) (Table S2). We hypothesize

that these results reflect the extensive physiological and cellular changes which are

caused by colonization of *Z. tritici* in the apoplastic space of the susceptible wheat. In

Chinese Spring, hyphae of *Z. tritici* do not extent further than the substomatal cavity.

Proteomic analysis unveils conserved defense-related signatures in *Triticum*

***aestivum* against *Z. tritici* infection**

We next aimed to identify common defense proteins associated with *Z. tritici* infection.

We compared the proteins in the two wheat genotypes which showed different

abundance in the presence of *Z. tritici*, a total of 673 proteins. We identified a set of

24 upregulated proteins shared between infected Obelisk and Chinese Spring plants

(Fig. 1C and Table S3). These proteins are predicted to have different biological roles,

as cell wall components (*e.g.,* expansins, leucine-rich-repeat extensins, and pectin

acetylesterases), in carbohydrate metabolism (*e.g.,* thiamine thiazole synthase and

beta-fructofuranosidase), in lipid metabolism (*e.g.,* non-specific lipid transfer proteins

(ns-LTPs) and GDSL esterase/lipase), as proteases (*e.g.,* aspartyl protease), and as

catalytic enzymes (*e.g.,* peptidases and peroxidases), and as proteins involved in key

processes of plant defense responses, such as the cysteine-rich receptor-like kinase

(CRK) and leucine-rich repeat (LRR) motif-containing protein. The two identified CRK

proteins harbor a Stress-antifungal domain, which is an extracellular domain that

consists of the conserved cysteine-rich motif (C-X8-C-X2-C) that possesses antifungal

and salt-stress responsive activities (56, 57). Additionally, in plants LRR domains are

well-known to be involved in protein-protein interactions, as well as in development

and defense processes (58). We conducted a blastp analysis to further predict the

functional relevance of the proteins. Hereby we find that the LRR-motif-containing

proteins are, polygalacturonase-inhibiting protein (PGIPs) containing LRR-motifs.

PGIPs were previously shown to be involved in defense against fungi by inhibiting the

activity of polygalacturonases, enzymes secreted by fungal pathogens to degrade

pectin in the plant cell wall. Interestingly, pectin degradation by polygalacturonases

leads to an accumulation of short-chain oligogalacturonides (OGs) that may be

recognized as damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) and elicit plant

defense responses (59, 60).

We performed Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis on the significantly different

proteins (mock vs infected) in Chinese Spring and Obelisk (Fig. 1D-G), and found that

six out of seven previously described ns-LPTs (protein IDs A0A3B6AZK3,

A0A3B6C6Z8, A0A3B6EM77, A0A3B6RLW5, A0A3B6SLE4, V9I0Q4, Table S3) were

annotated to the GO term systemic acquired resistance (SAR) (Tables S4). The role

of ns-LTPs in SAR relates to their participation in the intercellular transport of lipids,

which serves as crucial signaling molecules in the induction and propagation of

defense responses (61). We also pinpoint that the fungus causes a significantly

increase in several stress/defense-related proteins in the susceptible Obelisk including

endo-chitinases and chitinases (GO cell wall and chitin processes), Bowman-Birk type

proteinase inhibitor B5, pectin acetylesterases, Nepenthesin-like aspartic proteinases,

and expansins (GO extracellular region), glucan-endo-1,3-beta glucosidase (GO

plasma membrane component), peroxidases (GO extracellular region and plant-type

cell wall), serine carboxypeptidase (GO serine-type carboxypeptidase activity) (Figs.

1D-F and Table S4). Interestingly, the resistant Chinese Spring also show an increase

in the abundance of expansins and peroxidases (GO extracellular region) (Table S4),

but the set of proteins is different from Obelisk as we also find an enrichment of

proteins of another category of ns-LTPs (GO lipid transport and integral component of

membrane), defensins and thaumatin (GO defense response), aspartyl proteases (GO

extracellular region and aspartic-type-endopeptidase activity), and GDSL

esterase/lipase proteins (GO hydrolase activity) (Figs. 1E-G and Table S4). In

summary, our proteome data provide a conserved protein catalog associated with an

immune response of *Triticum aestivum* against *Z. tritici* infection, and thereby a novel

set of proteins to be functionally validated in future studies.

Impact of fungal infection on the photosynthesis apparatus and general plant

physiological processes

We found that *Z. tritici* infection strongly impacts the abundance of proteins associated

with plant physiological processes. First of all, we observed a downregulation of

proteins involved in ribosome biogenesis (*e.g.,* 40S and 60S ribosomal proteins) in

both Obelisk and Chinese Spring infected plants (Figs. 1E-G and Table 5). The

interferences in the translation machinery may be attributed to several direct and

indirect consequences of fungal infection, including the activity of fungal effector

molecules that may directly target ribosome functions and reduce overall translation

(62-64); or it may be attributed to hormone signaling pathways (*e.g.,* salicylic acid and

jasmonic acid) involved in defense responses but also affecting ribosomal protein

expression (65). Additionally, the downregulation of 40S and 60S ribosomal proteins

may be caused by the reallocation of resources involved in the synthesis of specific

defense-related proteins and other components necessary for combating the fungal

infection (66). We also observed that *Z. tritici* infection interferes with photosynthesis

processes in the susceptible Obelisk wheat (Figs. 1D-F and Table S5). During this

compatible interaction, we observed the downregulation of the 30S and 50S

chloroplast ribosomal proteins, and proteins involved in chloroplast thylakoid luminal,

photosynthesis I and II (*e.g.,* PsbP-like proteins) Figs. 1D-F and Table S5. Contrarily,

the presence of the *Z. tritici* does not affect the expression of photosynthesis-related

proteins in the Chinese Spring (Figs. 1D-F and Table S5). This finding aligns with a

previous study demonstrating that the interaction between AvrStb6 and Stb6 proteins

in resistant wheat preserves the efficacy of the photosynthesis apparatus (24). Our

findings provide novel evidence for the impact of *Z. tritici* on basal physiological

processes, beyond defense, in the infected plant tissue during biotrophic colonization

of the fungus.

Apoplast proteome data reveals three novel *Z. tritici* proteins as candidates to

fungal biology and pathogenesis regulation

Although several peptides match to protein sequences of the pathogen databases, we

consider it more likely that identified peptides have a plant origin. This is due to the

fact, that the amount of plant biomass during biotrophic colonization is much higher

than the amount of fungal biomass. Despite this, we successfully identified three

proteins with peptides exclusively matching the *Z. tritici* database (Table. S6). The

absence of N-terminal signal peptides in both proteins (35), may suggest that they

either were extracted from *Z. tritici* cells during in the apoplastic fluid or that they are

proteins secreted by the fungus by non-conventional secretion mechanisms. The three

fungal proteins include a chorismate synthase (Zt09_12_00295) and a

cryptochrome/photolyase (Zt09_1_00976) protein, which are both upregulated in

Obelisk. The cryptochrome/photolyase protein is also upregulated in Chinese Spring.

The gene encoding the cryptochrome/photolyase protein has previously been

identified as a pathogenicity related factor, as it found to be significantly upregulated

in an RNA-seq-based transcriptome dataset of IPO323 strain infecting another

susceptible wheat cultivar, 'Riband' (67). Analysis of the protein sequence by

EffectorP 3.0 (68) predicts cryptochrome/photolyase protein to be a cytoplasmic

effector further suggesting a relevance of the protein for host infection. The third fungal

protein that we identified, belongs to the glycoside hydrolase family 5

(Zt09_11_00165), and was found to be downregulated during fungal infection in

Obelisk. Further functional studies are required to elucidate the potential roles of these

three novel proteins during the wheat-*Z. tritici* interaction.

Isolation and characterization of wheat-apoplast microbial communities in

Chinese Spring and Obelisk

Above we show that *Z. tritici* infection triggers the secretion of various proteins with

antimicrobial properties. These proteins may directly impact the microbial community

residing within the wheat apoplastic space. Moreover, the recognition of DAMPs or

microbe-associated molecular patterns (MAMPs) within the apoplast compartment

can activate pattern-triggered immunity (PTI) and/or effector-triggered immunity (ETI),

and these immune responses may also promote the biosynthesis of plant metabolites

and compounds possessing antimicrobial activity. Thus, we next hypothesized that

these immune-related proteins/compounds could have a direct and/or indirect effect

on the plant-associated microbiota leading to the prevalence of specific microbial taxa

that tolerate wheat defense responses. To test this hypothesis, we firstly cultured and

purified microbial isolates from the apoplastic fluids of mock-treated and IPO323

infected Obelisk and Chinese Spring wheat plants (Fig. S1C-D). In total, we picked

667 isolates cultured from PSM (n= 221, 33.1%), R2A (n= 225, 33.7%), and TSA (n=

221, 33.1%) (Fig. 2A), suggesting a similar cultivation success for the different media.

The wheat-enriched endophytic community-based culture collection is composed of

188 purified and archived isolates which we also classified taxonomically using 16S

rRNA gene sequencing (Table S7). The 16S rRNA data allowed us to group strains

belonging to the same species. Thereby we find that the collection represents 59

species from 21 bacterial families in the phyla Actinobacteria (n= 42; 13 species),

Bacteriodetes (n= 8; 6 species), Firmicutes (n= 1; 1 specie), and Proteobacteria (n=

124; 36 species). We also isolated fungi including Ascomycetes (n= 9; representing

the re-isolation of *Z. tritici* from Obelisk and Chinese Spring infected plants) and

Basidiomycetes (n= 4; 3 species) (Figs. 2A-B and D, and Table S7). Importantly, *Z.*

tritici was exclusively re-isolated from infected Obelisk and Chinese Spring plants,

confirming i) the presence of *Z. tritici* in the apoplast of infected plants and ii) the

absence of cross-contamination between mock and inoculated plants. Overall, the

predominant phyla in the culture collection were Proteobacteria (65.9%), followed by

Actinobacteria (22.3%), Ascomycetes (4.7%), Bacteroidetes (4.2%), Basidiomycetes

(2.1%), and Firmicutes (0.5%).

Z. tritici infection does not affected microbial species richness in resistant host,

but leads to more stochastic microbial communities in a susceptible host

A previous study showed that IPO323 infection promoted a significant reduction in

community richness in Chinese Spring, but the fungal infection had no significant effect

on community composition of the susceptible cultivar Obelisk (10). With our culture-

based approach we obtain a similar number of OTUs (23) from mock- and *Z. tritici*

infected Chinese Spring plants. For Obelisk we isolated 14 and 17 OTUs from mock

and *Z. tritici* infected plants, respectively. Although, the culture-based approach does

not provide the complete diversity of apoplast-associated microbes, we considered

the culture collections as proxies for the complete diversity. Hereby, we compared the

composition of microbes isolated from the different conditions and used the Jaccard

index (JI) to compare the dissimilarity between microbial communities based on their

species richness (Fig. 2C). Comparing the effects of *Z. tritici* infection in the two wheat

genotypes, we find the highest dissimilarity between Chinese Spring-mock and

Chinese Spring-infected microbial communities (JI=0.86) The dissimilarity between

Obelisk mock and infected communities was considerably lower (JI=0.91). This

observation is in agreement with our previous study which likewise showed the

strongest impact of *Z. tritici* infection in the resistant wheat Chinese Spring (10). This

observation correlated with an excess of defense related metabolites in pathogen

infected leaves.

Identification of core microbes which show increased resilience to wheat

defense responses

The microbes recovered from mock-treated Obelisk plants showed a predominance

of Proteobacteria (70.3%), followed by Actinobacteria (24.3%) and Bacteroidetes

(5.4%). However, a distinct shift in microbial composition was observed in infected

Obelisk plants, with Actinobacteria dominating 60.4%, while Proteobacteria accounted

for only 11.6%. Actinobacterial species have been extensively studied for their plant-

beneficial roles in disease suppression and as keystone taxa in plant microbial

communities (69-72). Within our culture collection, all Actinobacterial representatives

belonged to the *Microbacteriaceae* family; however, we observed variations at the

genus level between mock-treated and infected Obelisk plants. While *Curtobacterium*

and *Leifsonia* were identified in mock-treated plants, infected Obelisk plants were

colonized by the genera *Curtobacterium*, *Kineococcus*, *Frigoribacterium*,

Microbacterium, and *Plantibacter*. Interesting, when comparing the associated

microbes of Obelisk, we found that *Curtobacterium* and *Sphingomonas* were the only

genera recovered from both uninfected and infected (Fig. 2B), suggesting their

resilience to the plant defense responses triggered by *Z. tritici* infection in this

susceptible wheat cultivar or the antimicrobial compounds produced by the fungus

itself.

We next evaluated the recovered microbial communities associated with Chinese

Spring (Fig. S3 and Table S7). Proteobacteria was the most predominant phylum in

both mock-treated (83.7%) and infected (81.3%) plants, followed by Actinobacteria

(8.1% and 11.8%, respectively) and Bacteroidetes (8.1% and 3.4%, respectively).

Additionally, the phylum Firmicutes (1.7%) was identified solely in Chinese Spring

infected plants. When comparing Proteobacteria at the genus level, *Pseudomonas*

was the predominant genus in both mock-treated and infected plants (60.9% and

79.1%, respectively). As a point of comparison, *Pseudomonas* species accounted for

53.8% of the recovered microbiota from mock-treated Obelisk plants compared to only

20% in this susceptible cultivar infected with *Z. tritici*. Finally, by comparing the

associated microbes of Chinese Spring, we found that *Curtobacterium*, *Acidovorax*,

and *Pseudomonas* were the three genera recovered from both uninfected and infected

plants (Fig. 2B), indicating their resilience to the plant defense responses triggered by

Z. tritici infection in this resistant wheat genotype or the antimicrobial compounds

produced by the fungus itself. In summary, *Z. tritici* infection in the susceptible host

resulted in a shift towards Actinobacteria dominance and a decrease in Proteobacteria

members, while *Pseudomonas* predominated in other host conditions. These findings

highlight the interplay between host susceptibility and microbial community

composition, underscoring the potential importance of Actinobacteria and

Pseudomonas in plant defense responses and disease outcomes.

Microbial *in-vitro* confrontation assays identify antagonists of *Z. tritici* in the

wheat apoplast

We next sought to characterize the interaction response of recovered microbes and

Z. tritici in an in vitro assay. Briefly, we conducted confrontation co-cultures to explore

the antagonistic potential of wheat endophytic microbes against three geographically

distinct *Z. tritici* isolates, including the Dutch isolate IPO323, the Danish Zt05, and the

Iranian Zt10. Scheme illustrating the plates is shown in Fig. 3A, and the overall

inhibitory phenotypes summarized in Figs. S4-6.

Six wheat-associated microbes did not show visible growth (*e.g.,* Fig. 3B), and were

therefore excluded from the analysis. In general, we did not observe any substantial

difference in the inhibitory activity among fungal isolates suggesting that sensitivity

and tolerance to plant-associated bacteria overall are conserved mechanisms in *Z.*

tritici, at least under the conditions tested here (Fig. 3C and S7A). The assay revealed

an inhibitory effect in 15 out of 72 microbes against at least one of the tested *Z. tritici*

isolates. Twelve isolated inhibited all the three *Z. tritici* isolates, while the

Paraoerskovia marina affected negatively the growth of Zt05, and *Variovorax*

beijingensis and *Pseudomonas fluorescens* inhibited growth exclusively for Zt10.

Although the size of inhibition zones greatly ranged from 21 cm² for *Pseudomonas*

brassicacearum to 0.09 cm² for *Paraoerskovia marina*, we found no statistical

differences for the size of inhibition zones among the three *Z. tritici* isolates for the

individual bacterial associations (Fig. 3C and S7A)*.*

We further asked whether the antagonistic interactions with *Z. tritici* included specific

microbial families. Among the 19 microbial families representing the members from

wheat-associated microbes, six families were capable of inhibiting at least one of the

Z. tritici strains, such as *Comamonadaceae*, *Cellulomonadaceae*,

Pseudomonadaceae, *Rhizobiaceae*, *Weeksellaceae*, and *Yersiniaceae*, the

Pseudomonadaceae being the most prevalent inhibitory bacterial family. Other less

represented families, such as *Yersiniaceae* and *Weeksellaceae*, also caused strong

Z. tritici growth inhibition (Fig. 3E). We also find that a significant majority of the

microbes inhibiting the three tested *Z. tritici* isolates are gram-negative bacteria (Fig.

S7B). Interestingly, we noticed a pattern in the proportion of antagonistic microbes

based on the wheat genotype and infection condition from which they were isolated.

Microbes isolated from the infected susceptible Obelisk plants were the lesser

inhibitors of *Z. tritici* compared to the other treatments (Fig. 3D). In fact, only

Pseudomonas fluorescens inhibited Zt10, while none of the microbes isolated from *Z.*

tritici-infected Obelisk inhibited Zt05 or IPO323. Contrarily, the significant proportions

of antagonistic microbes were isolated from both mock-treated Obelisk and Chinese

Spring, and from the incompatible interaction (Fig. 3D). Here, we identified wheat

endophytic microbes with antagonistic potential against different *Z. tritici* isolates,

suggesting the necessity of further investigation to elucidate their specific mechanisms

in controlling fungal growth.

Effect of defense-related plant compounds on apoplast-associated microbes

The defense response of plants to biotic stresses includes the production of ROS and

defense-related secondary metabolites. While triggered by pathogenic microbes, the

plant defense response may also impact the diversity of commensal microbes

colonizing plant tissues (73). To investigate the specific adaptations of the apoplast

microbes isolated from Obelisk and Chinese Spring, we phenotyped 69 microbes,

including the pathogen *Z. tritici*, for their tolerance or susceptibility to four

representative exogenous sources of plant defense compounds (H_2O_2, CA, QA, and

NA). The phenotyping consisted of growth measures (i) on solid medium at a single

timepoint and (ii) in microtiter plates over a time series.

In the first assay based on microbial growth on solid medium amended with H_2O_2, we

found a significant variation in growth across different bacterial genera and species

(Fig. 4). For example, all members from the genera *Acidovorax* and *Brevundimonas*

were fully inhibited at 0.5 µM of H_2O_2, while bacteria belonging to the genera *Rahnella*

and *Enterobacter* only were inhibited at 1 µM. All tested microbes were inhibited at 2

µM, except for *Z. tritici* and one *Pseudomonas anguilliseptica* (AF0034) isolated from

mock-treated Obelisk plants. Genes associated with increased tolerance to H_2O_2 were

previously identified in *Z. tritici* based on a GWAS study (74); but the ROS-scavenging

mechanism for *P. anguilliseptica* remains unknown. Furthermore, we also observed

within species variation in the tolerance levels to H_2O_2 including a comparison of

different strains of *Pseudomonas spp.* and *Flavobacterium spp.* (Fig. 4). While the

growth of *Pseudomonas anguilliseptica* or *Flavobacterium hydatis* were promoted at

0.5 and 1 µM, the *Pseudomonas brassicacearum* and *Flavobacterium pectinovorum*

were inhibited at 0.5 µM (Fig. 4). Interestingly, strains of Actinobacteria showed a

higher tolerance to H_2O_2 by showing either a slight growth promotion or a slight

inhibition compared to the rest of the wheat-associated microbes Fig. 4). In our study,

the majority of Actinobacterial strains were obtained from Z. tritici-infected Obelisk

leaves (Fig. S3B). This observation indicates a more efficient, and potential adaptive,

ROS-scavenging mechanism in Actinobacteria allowing these bacteria to cope with

the oxidative stress induced during Z. tritici infection. Finally, the fungal isolates also

displayed high tolerance to H_2O_2. Our assay included fungal species belonging to the

genera *Apiotrichum*, *Cystobasidium*, and *Vishniacozyma*. The enhanced ability of

fungi to tolerate oxidative stress is known to be attributed to their intricate antioxidant

machinery and repair mechanisms, enabling them to survive in environments with high

oxidative potential (74-77)

In the second assay, we determined microbial growth based on estimates from

microtiter plates. Hereby, we assessed the impact of CA, QA, and NA on microbial

growth. Also, we measured growth promotion, growth inhibition and no-effect on

growth across all 69 apoplast-associated microbes over five timepoints (24, 48, 72, 96

and 168 hours). Considering the entire course of the experiment, each of the 69

microbes were evaluated five times, resulting in 345 measurements. We initially noted

a variation in the frequency of microbial isolates that showed inhibition, promotion and

stable (no change compared to control) phenotypes across compounds and

timepoints (Fig. 5 and Table S8).

Overall, the compound CA exhibited the highest levels of inhibition with 86% of the

measurements showing a growth inhibition (297 inhibitions out of 345), followed by

NOA with 67,8% of measurements (234 inhibitions out of 345), and QA with the lowest

levels of inhibition, 46,3% (160 inhibitions out of 345) (Fig. 5 and Table S8). These

observations were consistent across all time points with the compound CA displaying

the highest levels of inhibition (Fig. 5 and Table S8). Interestingly, we highlight intrinsic

differences of individual microbes to the three tested compounds, whereas a given

individual may show inhibition or promotion of growth according to different

compounds.

We next investigated in more detail how individual microbes varied in susceptibility to

each compound overtime (from 24 to 168 hours post incubation). For CA,

Pseudomonas kilonensis (AF0006), *Enterobacter sp* (AF0002), and *Curtobacterium*

oceanosedimentum (AF0066) exhibited more growth promotion than any other strain,

while *Sphingobium bisphenolicum* (AF0048), *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (AF0129),

Acidovorax sp (AF0089), *Pseudomonas sp* (AF0130), *Brevundimonas sp* (AF0072),

and *Pseudomonas brassicacearum* (AF0120) were the most inhibited strains (Table

S9). Remarkably, none of those abovementioned strains were isolated from Chinese

Spring infected plants.

For NA, *Pararheinheimera sp* (AF0141), *Pseudomonas hunanensis* (AF0142), *Baliella*

marina (AF0012*), Flavobacterium hydatis* (AF0027), *Microbacterium sp* (AF0077),

Bacillus thuringiensis (AF0154), and *Caulobacter sp* (AF0118) were the most

promoted strains, while *Acidovorax sp* (AF0089), *Curtobacterium flaccumfaciens*

(AF0165), *Variovorax beijingensis* (AF0128), *Curtobacterium oceanosedimentum*

(AF0004), *Kineococus sp* (AF0060), *Pseudomonas anguilliseptica* (AF0162),

Rhizobium sp (AF0164), and *Leifsonia shinshuensis* (AF0088) were the most inhibited

strains (Table S9). The microbes AF0141, AF0142, AF0154, AF0162, AF0164, and

AF0165 were isolated from *Z. tritici*-infected Chinese Spring plants, and we

hypothesized that *Pararheinheimera sp, Pseudomonas hunanensis,* and *Bacillus*

thuringiensis may benefit from the accumulation of nonanoic acid in the apoplast and

these microbes may potentially play a role in the plant-pathogen interaction. On the

other hand, *Pseudomonas anguilliseptica, Rhizobium sp,* and *Curtobacterium*

flaccumfaciens may be sensitive to the pathogen-induced immune response.

Finally, for QA, we observed that *Pseudomonas putida* (AF0171), *Pseudomonas*

hunanensis (AF0142), *Pararheinheimera sp* (AF0141), *Pseudomonas umsongensis*

(AF0144), *Chrysepbacterium taeanense* (AF0131), *Pseudomonas anguilliseptica*

(AF0138), *Acidovorax facilis* (AF0014), and *Pseudomonas rhodesiae* (AF0111 and

AF0139) were the most promoted strains, while *Pseudomonas sp* (AF0130),

Agrobacterium tumefaciens (AF0129), *Pseudomonas frederiksbergensis* (AF0191),

Pseudomonas brassicacearum (AF0029, AF0102, and AF0120), *Sphingobium*

bisphenolicum (AF0048), and *Microbacterium proteolyticum* (AF0059) were the most

inhibited strains (Table S9). The microbes AF0171, AF0138, AF0139, AF0141,

AF0142, AF0144, and AF0191 were isolated from *Z. tritici*-infected Chinese Spring

plants, and we hypothesized that different *Pseudomonas* and *Pararheinheimera*

species may benefit from the production of quinic acid during the induced defense

response. Contrarily, *Pseudomonas frederiksbergensis* appears to be sensitive to the

defense related compound.

In summary, *Pseudomonas hunanensis* (AF0141) and *Pararheinheimera sp* (AF0142)

were the two bacteria isolated from *Z. tritici*-infected Chinese Spring plants which

showed growth promotion when exposed to both NA and QA, while *Agrobacterium*

tumefaciens (AF0129), *Acidovorax sp* (AF0089), and *Pseudomonas brassicacearum*

(AF0120) isolated from the mock-treated Chinese Spring plants were the most

inhibited microbes (Table S9). The 10 most promoted and inhibited microbes over the

time course of the experiment are summarized in Table S9. These findings

demonstrate a remarkable variation in the tolerance of apoplast-associated microbes

to plant compounds previously shown to be induced during *Z. tritici* infection. Future

studies should address the molecular mechanism underlying the growth inhibition and

promotion and their impact for plant health and pathogenesis.

DISCUSSSION

In their natural environment, plants are constantly challenged by pathogenic

organisms which attempt to invade below and above ground tissues. Pathogenic

organisms can induce immune responses conferring significant alterations in the

composition of molecules which are secreted into the apoplastic space. In response,

plants produce and secrete a variety of antimicrobial proteins and metabolites to

hamper pathogen invasion. How do commensal microorganisms that inhabit the

apoplastic space cope with recurrent biotic stress responses? We addressed this

question in our study by characterizing fluctuations in biotic conditions in wheat

apoplast and by investigating specific adaptations of apoplast-associated microbes.

We successfully isolated apoplastic fluids from the two wheat genotypes, Obelisk and

Chinese Spring, allowing us to characterize the biochemical environment between

cells in the leaf mesophyll. The two wheat genotypes are genetically different; Obelisk

is an inbred cultivar while Chinese Spring is a landrace known to have a broader

resistance spectrum towards pathogens (78). In our comparative proteome analysis,

first of all, we observed a considerable differentiation in protein composition between

the two wheat genotypes. The different genetic-make up of these two wheat genotypes

may to some extent explain differences in proteome content; however, we cannot

exclude that the two genotypes also differ in the amenability of protein extraction.

Obelisk and Chinese Spring differ in their resistance towards the *Z. tritici* isolate

IPO323. This is due to the production of the cell wall associated immune receptor Stb6

in Chinese Spring; a receptor that is activated by the secreted protein AvrStb6 that is

produced by IPO323. We previously showed that the abundance of immune-related

metabolites is significantly up-regulated in Chinese Spring during early invasion of *Z.*

tritici (10). In contrast, the production of immune-related metabolites is suppressed in

Obelisk during IPO323 invasion. Proteome analyses of infected Obelisk and Chinese

Spring leaves showed a common response to fungal invasion, suggesting a conserved

initial response to fungal invasion (Fig. 1C). The ns-LPTs (containing bifunctional

inhibitor/plant lipid transfer protein/seed storage helical domain), for example, have

been implicated in the regulation of plant defense responses against various

pathogens (61). Additionally, peroxidases are upregulated in both wheat genotypes

during *Z. tritici* infection. Peroxidases are enzymes are known to play a crucial role in

the generation of reactive oxygen species, an initial defense response conferring

downstream immune signaling and local plant cell death (79, 80). Although Obelisk is

susceptible to the invasion of the *Z. tritici* isolate IPO323, we recognize several

defense related responses reflected in an upregulation of endochitinases, chitinases,

and a serine carboxypeptidase, each consistent with the activation of defenses against

fungal pathogens (81-83). Endochitinases and chitinases are enzymes involved in the

degradation of chitin, a component of fungal cell walls, while serine carboxypeptidases

have been implicated in the defense against fungal pathogens by cleavage off

essential amino acids from fungal cell walls. In contrast, proteins that are specifically

upregulated in Chinese Spring reflect a different mechanism of defense responses

(*e.g.,* defensins, thaumatin, aspartyl proteases, and GDSL esterase/lipase). Defensins

are small cysteine-rich peptides with antifungal activity, while thaumatin is known to

have antifungal and antibacterial properties (84-86). Aspartyl proteases play a role in

plant cell death and the degradation of invading pathogens, while GDSL

esterase/lipases are involved in the regulation of plant defense responses against

various pathogens (87, 88). We also observe an upregulation of ns-LTPs in Chinese

Spring, which may be an important component of the systemic acquired resistance

(SAR) induced by *Z. tritici* in the resistant cultivar (10). In *Arabidopsis*, the ns-LTPs are

induced by immune signaling and secreted into the apoplast where they participate in

the intercellular, long-distance transport of lipids, acting as crucial signaling molecules

in the induction and propagation of defense responses (89). This systemic lipid

transfer is believed to prime uninfected tissues, enabling a robust defense response

upon subsequent pathogen attack. Furthermore, ns-LTPs have been implicated in

enhancing the stability of lipid rafts in the plasma membrane, which act as signaling

platforms for immune receptors and downstream defense-related signaling molecules

(89, 90). In summary, the proteome data presented here provides an accurate and

novel catalogue of conserved and genotype specific apoplast proteins, including

shared and specific defense-related proteins. We specifically identify components of

systemic immune signaling in Chinese Spring, which may be considered in future

breeding strategies. Interestingly, *Z. tritici* appear to be tolerant to a variety of defense

related proteins which are upregulated in the susceptible Obelisk, but without effect

on pathogen propagation.

From the apoplasic fluid samples we also isolated endophytic bacteria and fungi. Such

broader approach allowed us to characterize not only microbial diversity, but also the

footprints of microbial adaptations to varying wheat defense responses. Importantly,

our studied was designed in a way that the two wheat genotypes were grown in the

same soil and thereby provided with the same source of microbial communities. We

recognize that the culture-based approach allows us to characterize only a subset of

the complete microbiota diversity. Thereby, we can neither make conclusive

statements about differences between wheat genotypes or conditions as the sampling

efficacy may be biased by our ability to isolate and cultivate specific microbes. In total

we isolate 667 microbes comprising 59 different taxa. In our study, we observed that

the wheat-recovered microbes were predominantly composed of

Gammaproteobacteria within the Proteobacteria phylum. This result is consistent with

previous studies reporting the enrichment of Gammaproteobacterial class in various

wheat genotypes and plant compartments (91-93). However, we identified a clear and

significant shift from Proteobacteria to Actinobacteria specifically during the

compatible interaction, where Obelisk wheat was infected by *Zymoseptoria tritici*. This

shift suggests that the defense responses elicited by Obelisk may have a detrimental

effect on Proteobacteria endophytes. The transition from Proteobacteria to

Actinobacteria can have profound implications for the ecosystem's functioning and

plant health. The capacity of Actinobacteria to degrade complex organic compounds,

such as cellulose and lignin, can influence nutrient cycling and organic matter

decomposition, thereby impacting ecosystem processes. Proteobacteria, particularly

Alpha- and Gamma-Proteobacteria, contribute to plant growth promotion, nitrogen

fixation, and biocontrol activities, while Actinobacteria are known to assist in plant

defense against pathogens (94, 95). Consequently, a shift from Proteobacteria to

Actinobacteria may disrupt these beneficial interactions, potentially compromising

plant growth, disease resistance, and overall plant health. Furthermore, this shift could

lead to reduced functional redundancy and decreased resilience within the microbial

community, rendering it more susceptible to environmental disturbances. Additionally,

alterations in microbial interactions can occur, influencing the dynamics of the entire

microbial community. To comprehensively understand the consequences of the

Proteobacteria to Actinobacteria shift, context-specific studies are needed to unravel

its effects on ecosystem processes and plant-microbe interactions.

1007

In terms of microbiota disappearance and resilience, we unveiled that *Pseudomonas*

were eliminated during the compatible interaction, while *Curtobacterium* and

Sphingomonas were the only two genera resilient to defense responses of the

susceptible Obelisk. In fact, we observed that *Curtobacterium* and *Sphingomonas*

species were highly tolerant when challenged against exogenous H_2O_2 in our *in vitro*

assays. These findings are in agreement with a previous study that demonstrated

extensive ROS production *in planta* in a susceptible interaction (96). ROS, generated

by plants as defense mechanisms against pathogens and environmental stresses, can

significantly influence the colonization and behavior of endophytes. Elevated ROS

levels may impede endophytic colonization or induce alterations in microbial gene

expression and metabolic pathways. Nevertheless, certain endophytic microbes have

evolved mechanisms to tolerate or exploit ROS as signaling molecules (73). Thus, we

postulated that the Obelisk-infected associated microbes were more resilient to H_2O_2

due to their previous adaptation to cope with oxidative stress generated during wheat

development and/or abiotic/biotic stress. Regarding *Pseudomonas*, we observed *in*

vitro that this bacterial genus, overall, show a lower tolerance to exogenous H_2O_2.

Pseudomonas was also the dominant genus recovered from the incompatible

interaction. A previous study showed that in an incompatible interaction of Stb6-

AvrStb6 free radicals such H_2O_2 are neutralized at the biotrophic phase, preventing

the oxidative burst (24). Therefore, we hypothesized that the lower concentration of

apoplastic H_2O_2 in the incompatible interaction enabled *Pseudomonas* species to

colonize the apoplastic space of the resistant Chinese Spring plants. However, when

evaluating *Pseudomonas* species against three exogenous wheat secondary

metabolites, we observed that this bacterial genus displayed the highest tolerance

levels among all microbial species. These three secondary metabolites were

previously found to be enriched *in planta* during the wheat incompatible interaction

(10). Plant-produced secondary metabolites, including phytochemicals and

antimicrobial compounds, can impact endophytic microbial communities by either

inhibiting or stimulating their growth and activity. We then hypothesized that the

predominance of *Pseudomonas* genus in Chinese Spring plants is due to the reduced

H_2O_2 and higher tolerance to secondary metabolites in the apoplast space. These

reciprocal interactions among ROS, secondary metabolites, and endophytic microbes

constitute a complex and dynamic relationship that profoundly shapes the composition

and functionality of the endophytic microbiome. Another evidence of this complexity is

reflected in the high potential of *Pseudomonas* species to inhibit *Z. tritici* growth *in*

vitro, while this bacterial genus is depleted in the compatible interaction.

1044

Our findings provide novel evidence for the impact of *Z. tritici* on defense responses

and physiological processes in the infected plant tissue. We provided evidences that

specific components of plant-immune responses shape microbial profiles leading to

the prevalence of microbes adapted to oxidative stress or secondary metabolites,

depending on the outcome of the host-pathogen interaction responses. Further

studies will be necessary to address the impact of the apparent shift in dominance

from Proteobacteria to Actinobacteria in the susceptible Obelisk, as well as the direct

endophytic-triggered inhibition of *Z. tritici* growth during plant colonization and the

onset of disease.

1054

1055 **Data availability:**

1056 Proteome data is made available upon request.

1057 Wheat-associated microbes are stored at -80C in the lab of EHS, CAU Kiel and are

1058 available upon request.

1059

Author contributions:

Conceptualization: CSF, EHS

Methodology: CSF, MA, LC, MH

Formal analyses and investigation: CSF, MA, CI, and JG

Resources: EHS and AT

Writing of original draft: CSF, EHS

Review and editing: All authors

Funding acquisition: EHS, AT

1068

Acknowledgements:

This research was funded by the German Research Foundation in the framework of

the collaborative research center "Origin and Function of Metaorganisms", CRC1182,

sub-project A3 and Z3. We thank Dr. Danilo A. dos Santos Pereira and Dr. Marco

Alexandre Guerreiro for sharing R scripts. We also thank Susanne Braun for the

remarkable technical support.

1075

References

1.   Muller DB, Vogel C, Bai Y, Vorholt JA. 2016. The Plant Microbiota: Systems-Level
Insights and Perspectives. Annu Rev Genet 50:211-234.
2.   Hassani MA, Ozkurt E, Seybold H, Dagan T, Stukenbrock EH. 2019. Interactions and
Coadaptation in Plant Metaorganisms. Annu Rev Phytopathol 57:483-503.
3.   Trivedi P, Leach JE, Tringe SG, Sa T, Singh BK. 2020. Plant-microbiome interactions:
from community assembly to plant health. Nat Rev Microbiol 18:607-621.
4.   Turner TR, James FK, Poole PS. 2013. The plant microbiome. Genome Biology 14.
5.   Hardoim PR, van Overbeek LS, Berg G, Pirttila AM, Compant S, Campisano A, Doring
M, Sessitsch A. 2015. The Hidden World within Plants: Ecological and Evolutionary
Considerations for Defining Functioning of Microbial Endophytes. Microbiol Mol Biol
Rev 79:293-320.
6.   Bodenhausen N, Bortfeld-Miller M, Ackermann M, Vorholt JA. 2014. A synthetic
community approach reveals plant genotypes affecting the phyllosphere microbiota.
PLoS Genet 10:e1004283.
7.   Muller DB, Schubert OT, Rost H, Aebersold R, Vorholt JA. 2016. Systems-level
Proteomics of Two Ubiquitous Leaf Commensals Reveals Complementary Adaptive
Traits for Phyllosphere Colonization. Mol Cell Proteomics 15:3256-3269.
8.   Lebeis SL, Paredes SH, Lundberg DS, Breakfield N, Gehring J, McDonald M, Malfatti S,
Del Rio TG, Jones CD, Tringe SG, Dangl JL. 2015. Salicylic acid modulates colonization
of the root microbiome by specific bacterial taxa. Science 349:860 - 864.
9.   Pfeilmeier S, Petti GC, Bortfeld-Miller M, Daniel B, Field CM, Sunagawa S, Vorholt JA.
2021. The plant NADPH oxidase RBOHD is required for microbiota homeostasis in
leaves. Nat Microbiol 6:852-864.
10.   Seybold H, Demetrowitsch TJ, Hassani MA, Szymczak S, Reim E, Haueisen J, Lubbers
L, Ruhlemann M, Franke A, Schwarz K, Stukenbrock EH. 2020. A fungal pathogen
induces systemic susceptibility and systemic shifts in wheat metabolome and
microbiome composition. Nat Commun 11:1910.
11.   Couto D, Zipfel C. 2016. Regulation of pattern recognition receptor signalling in
plants. Nat Rev Immunol 16:537-52.
12.   Bjornson M, Pimprikar P, Nurnberger T, Zipfel C. 2021. The transcriptional landscape
of Arabidopsis thaliana pattern-triggered immunity. Nat Plants 7:579-586.
13.   Fan L, Frohlich K, Melzer E, Pruitt RN, Albert I, Zhang L, Joe A, Hua C, Song Y, Albert
M, Kim ST, Weigel D, Zipfel C, Chae E, Gust AA, Nurnberger T. 2022. Genotyping-by-
sequencing-based identification of Arabidopsis pattern recognition receptor RLP32
recognizing proteobacterial translation initiation factor IF1. Nat Commun 13:1294.
14.   Latz MAC, Kerrn MH, Sorensen H, Collinge DB, Jensen B, Brown JKM, Madsen AM,
Jorgensen HJL. 2021. Succession of the fungal endophytic microbiome of wheat is
dependent on tissue-specific interactions between host genotype and environment.
Sci Total Environ 759:143804.

15. Rojas EC, Jensen B, Jørgensen HJL, Latz MAC, Esteban P, Ding Y, Collinge DB. 2020. Selection of fungal endophytes with biocontrol potential against Fusarium head blight in wheat. Biological Control 144.

16. Hone H, Mann R, Yang G, Kaur J, Tannenbaum I, Li T, Spangenberg G, Sawbridge T. 2021. Profiling, isolation and characterisation of beneficial microbes from the seed microbiomes of drought tolerant wheat. Sci Rep 11:11916.

17. Zhong Z, Marcel TC, Hartmann FE, Ma X, Plissonneau C, Zala M, Ducasse A, Confais J, Compain J, Lapalu N, Amselem J, McDonald BA, Croll D, Palma-Guerrero J. 2017. A small secreted protein in Zymoseptoria tritici is responsible for avirulence on wheat cultivars carrying the Stb6 resistance gene. New Phytol 214:619-631.

18. Karlstedt F, Kopahnke D, Perovic D, Jacobi A, Pillen K, Ordon F. 2019. Mapping of quantitative trait loci (QTL) for resistance against Zymoseptoria tritici in the winter spelt wheat accession HTRI1410 (Triticum aestivum subsp. spelta). Euphytica 215.

19. Mahboubi M, Talebi R, Mehrabi R, Mohammad Naji A, Maccaferri M, Kema GHJ. 2022. Genetic analysis of novel resistance sources and genome-wide association mapping identified novel QTLs for resistance to Zymoseptoria tritici, the causal agent of septoria tritici blotch in wheat. J Appl Genet 63:429-445.

20. Yang N, Ovenden B, Baxter B, McDonald MC, Solomon PS, Milgate A. 2022. Multi-stage resistance to Zymoseptoria tritici revealed by GWAS in an Australian bread wheat diversity panel. Front Plant Sci 13:990915.

21. Amezrou R, Audeon C, Compain J, Gelisse S, Ducasse A, Saintenac C, Lapalu N, Louet C, Orford S, Croll D, Amselem J, Fillinger S, Marcel TC. 2023. A secreted protease-like protein in Zymoseptoria tritici is responsible for avirulence on Stb9 resistance gene in wheat. PLoS Pathog 19:e1011376.

22. Kema GHJ, Mirzadi Gohari A, Aouini L, Gibriel HAY, Ware SB, van den Bosch F, Manning-Smith R, Alonso-Chavez V, Helps J, Ben M'Barek S, Mehrabi R, Diaz-Trujillo C, Zamani E, Schouten HJ, van der Lee TAJ, Waalwijk C, de Waard MA, de Wit P, Verstappen ECP, Thomma B, Meijer HJG, Seidl MF. 2018. Stress and sexual reproduction affect the dynamics of the wheat pathogen effector AvrStb6 and strobilurin resistance. Nat Genet 50:375-380.

23. Saintenac C, Lee WS, Cambon F, Rudd JJ, King RC, Marande W, Powers SJ, Berges H, Phillips AL, Uauy C, Hammond-Kosack KE, Langin T, Kanyuka K. 2018. Wheat receptor-kinase-like protein Stb6 controls gene-for-gene resistance to fungal pathogen Zymoseptoria tritici. Nat Genet 50:368-374.

24. Ghiasi Noei F, Imami M, Didaran F, Ghanbari MA, Zamani E, Ebrahimi A, Aliniaeifard S, Farzaneh M, Javan-Nikkhah M, Feechan A, Mirzadi Gohari A. 2022. Stb6 mediates stomatal immunity, photosynthetic functionality, and the antioxidant system during the Zymoseptoria tritici-wheat interaction. Front Plant Sci 13:1004691.

25. Kema GHJ, Cor HVS. 1997. Genetic Variation for Virulence and Resistancein the Wheat-Mycosphaerella graminicola PathosystemIII. Comparative Seedling and Adult Plant Experiments. Phytopathology 87:266-272.

26. Thygesen K, Jørgensen LN, Jensen KS, Munk L. 2008. Spatial and temporal impact of fungicide spray strategies on fungicide sensitivity of Mycosphaerella graminicola in winter wheat. European Journal of Plant Pathology 123:435-447.

27. Stukenbrock EH, Banke S, Javan-Nikkhah M, McDonald BA. 2007. Origin and domestication of the fungal wheat pathogen Mycosphaerella graminicola via sympatric speciation. Mol Biol Evol 24:398-411.

28.   Francisco CS, Zwyssig MM, Palma-Guerrero J. 2020. The role of vegetative cell
fusions in the lifestyle of the wheat fungal pathogen *Zymoseptoria tritici*. bioRxiv
doi:10.1101/2020.01.26.918797.
29.   Nakano RT, Ishihama N, Wang Y, Takagi J, Uemura T, Schulze-Lefert P, Nakagami H.
2020. Apoplastic Fluid Preparation from Arabidopsis thaliana Leaves Upon
Interaction with a Nonadapted Powdery Mildew Pathogen. *In* J. J-N, L. V, M. C, Rey
MD (ed), Plant Proteomics Methods in Molecular Biology, vol 2139. Humana, New
York.
30.   Tyanova S, Temu T, Sinitcyn P, Carlson A, Hein MY, Geiger T, Mann M, Cox J. 2016.
The Perseus computational platform for comprehensive analysis of (prote)omics
data. Nat Methods 13:731-40.
31.   Bedre R. 2020. eneshbedre/bioinfokit: Bioinformatics data analysis and visualization
toolkit. Zenodo doi:http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3698145.
32.   Sherman BT, Hao M, Qiu J, Jiao X, Baseler MW, Lane HC, Imamichi T, Chang W. 2022.
DAVID: a web server for functional enrichment analysis and functional annotation of
gene lists (2021 update). Nucleic Acids Res 50:W216-21.
33.   Huang da W, Sherman BT, Lempicki RA. 2009. Systematic and integrative analysis of
large gene lists using DAVID bioinformatics resources. Nat Protoc 4:44-57.
34.   Sperschneider J, Dodds PN, Singh KB, Taylor JM. 2018. ApoplastP: prediction of
effectors and plant proteins in the apoplast using machine learning. New Phytol
217:1764-1778.
35.   Teufel F, Almagro Armenteros JJ, Johansen AR, Gislason MH, Pihl SI, Tsirigos KD,
Winther O, Brunak S, von Heijne G, Nielsen H. 2022. SignalP 6.0 predicts all five types
of signal peptides using protein language models. Nat Biotechnol 40:1023-1025.
36.   Oliveros JC. 2007-2015. Venny. An interactive tool comparing lists with Venn's
diagrams.
37.   Marchesi JR, Sato T, Weightman AJ, Martin TA, Fry JC, Hiom SJ, Wade WG. 1998.
Design and Evaluation of Useful Bacterium-Specific PCR Primers That Amplify Genes
Coding for Bacterial 16S rRNA. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 64:795-799.
38.   Bellemain E, Casrlsen T, Brochmann C, Coissac E, Taberlet P, Kauserud H. 2010. ITS as
an environmental DNA barcode for fungi- an in silico approach reveals potential PCR
biases. BMC Microbiology 10:1-9.
39.   Pruesse E, Peplies J, Glockner FO. 2012. SINA: accurate high-throughput multiple
sequence alignment of ribosomal RNA genes. Bioinformatics 28:1823-9.
40.   Tamura K, Stecher G, Kumar S. 2021. MEGA11: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics
Analysis Version 11. Mol Biol Evol 38:3022-3027.
41.   Stamatakis A. 2014. RAxML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-
analysis of large phylogenies. Bioinformatics 30:1312-3.
42.   Anderson MJ, Crist TO, Chase JM, Vellend M, Inouye BD, Freestone AL, Sanders NJ,
Cornell HV, Comita LS, Davies KF, Harrison SP, Kraft NJ, Stegen JC, Swenson NG.
2011. Navigating the multiple meanings of beta diversity: a roadmap for the
practicing ecologist. Ecol Lett 14:19-28.
43.   Larkin MA, Blackshields G, Brown NP, Chenna R, McGettigan PA, McWilliam H,
Valentin F, Wallace IM, Wilm A, Lopez R, Thompson JD, Gibson TJ, Higgins DG. 2007.
Clustal W and Clustal X version 2.0. Bioinformatics 23:2947-8.
44.   Dhar A, Minin VN. 2016. Maximum Likelihood Phylogenetic Inference, p 499-506,
Encyclopedia of Evolutionary Biology doi:10.1016/b978-0-12-800049-6.00207-9.

45.   Letunic I, Bork P. 2021. Interactive Tree Of Life (iTOL) v5: an online tool for
1211   phylogenetic tree display and annotation. Nucleic Acids Res 49:W293-W296.
1212   46.   Haueisen J, Moller M, Eschenbrenner CJ, Grandaubert J, Seybold H, Adamiak H,
1213   Stukenbrock EH. 2019. Highly flexible infection programs in a specialized wheat
1214   pathogen. Ecol Evol 9:275-294.
1215   47.   Schneider CA, Rasband WS, Eliceiri KW. 2012. NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of
1216   image analysis. Nature Methods 9:671.
1217   48.   Nishad R, Ahmed T, Rahman VJ, Kareem A. 2020. Modulation of Plant Defense
1218   System in Response to Microbial Interactions. Front Microbiol 11:1298.
1219   49.   Seybold H, Demetrowitsch T, Hassani MA, Szymczak S, Reim E, Haueisen J,
1220   Rühlemann M, Franke A, Schwarz K, Stukenbrock EH. 2019. Hemibiotrophic fungal
1221   pathogen induces systemic susceptibility and systemic shifts in wheat metabolome
1222   and microbiome composition. bioRxiv doi:10.1101/702373.
1223   50.   Wickham H. 2009. ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. Use R. Springer-
1224   Verlag, New York.
1225   51.   Chartrain L, Brading PA, Brown JKM. 2005. Presence of the Stb6 gene for resistance
1226   to septoria tritici blotch (Mycosphaerella graminicola) in cultivars used in wheat-
1227   breeding programmes worldwide. Plant Pathology 54:134-143.
1228   52.   Palma-Guerrero J, Ma X, Torriani SF, Zala M, Francisco CS, Hartmann FE, Croll D,
1229   McDonald BA. 2017. Comparative Transcriptome Analyses in Zymoseptoria tritici
1230   Reveal Significant Differences in Gene Expression Among Strains During Plant
1231   Infection. Mol Plant Microbe Interact 30:231-244.
1232   53.   Mamaeva A, Taliansky M, Filippova A, Love AJ, Golub N, Fesenko I. 2020. The role of
1233   chloroplast protein remodeling in stress responses and shaping of the plant
1234   peptidome. New Phytol 227:1326-1334.
1235   54.   Zhou Y, Wang B, Yuan F. 2022. The Role of Transmembrane Proteins in Plant Growth,
1236   Development, and Stress Responses. Int J Mol Sci 23.
1237   55.   Xiong W, Lan T, Mo B. 2021. Extraribosomal Functions of Cytosolic Ribosomal
1238   Proteins in Plants. Front Plant Sci 12:607157.
1239   56.   Hussain A, Asif N, Pirzada AR, Noureen A, Shaukat J, Burhan A, Zaynab M, Ali E, Imran
1240   K, Ameen A, Mahmood MA, Nazar A, Mukhtar MS. 2022. Genome wide study of
1241   cysteine rich receptor like proteins in Gossypium sp. Sci Rep 12:4885.
1242   57.   Vaattovaara A, Brandt B, Rajaraman S, Safronov O, Veidenberg A, Luklová M,
1243   Kangasjärvi J, Löytynoja A, Hothorn M, Salojärvi J, Wrzaczek M. 2019. Mechanistic
1244   insights into the evolution of DUF26-containing proteins in land plants.
1245   Communications Biology 2.
1246   58.   de Lorenzo G, D''Ovidio R, Cervone F. 2001. The role of polygalacturonase-inhibiting
1247   proteins (PGIPs) in defense against poathogenic fungi. Annual Review of
1248   Phytopathology 39:313-315.
1249   59.   Wei W, Xu L, Peng H, Zhu W, Tanaka K, Cheng J, Sanguinet KA, Vandemark G, Chen
1250   W. 2022. A fungal extracellular effector inactivates plant polygalacturonase-
1251   inhibiting protein. Nat Commun 13:2213.
1252   60.   Federici L, Di Matteo A, Fernandez-Recio J, Tsernoglou D, Cervone F. 2006.
1253   Polygalacturonase inhibiting proteins: players in plant innate immunity? Trends Plant
1254   Sci 11:65-70.

61. Gao H, Ma K, Ji G, Pan L, Zhou Q. 2022. Lipid transfer proteins involved in plant-
pathogen interactions and their molecular mechanisms. Mol Plant Pathol 23:1815-
1829.

62. Soprano AS, Smetana JHC, Benedetti CE. 2018. Regulation of tRNA biogenesis in
plants and its link to plant growth and response to pathogens. Biochim Biophys Acta
Gene Regul Mech 1861:344-353.

63. Moeller JR, Moscou MJ, Bancroft T, Skadsen RW, Wise RP, Whitham SA. 2012.
Differential accumulation of host mRNAs on polyribosomes during obligate
pathogen-plant interactions. Mol Biosyst 8:2153-65.

64. Camborde L, Kiselev A, Pel MJC, Le Ru A, Jauneau A, Pouzet C, Dumas B, Gaulin E.
2022. An oomycete effector targets a plant RNA helicase involved in root
development and defense. New Phytol 233:2232-2248.

65. Ahn CS, Cho HK, Lee DH, Sim HJ, Kim SG, Pai HS. 2016. Functional characterization of
the ribosome biogenesis factors PES, BOP1, and WDR12 (PeBoW), and mechanisms
of defective cell growth and proliferation caused by PeBoW deficiency in
Arabidopsis. J Exp Bot 67:5217-32.

66. Ramesh P, Bajire SK, Kanichery A, Najar MA, Shastry RP, Prasad TSK. 2022. 6-
Methylcoumarin rescues bacterial quorum sensing induced ribosome-inactivating
stress in Caenorhabditis elegans. Microb Pathog 173:105833.

67. Rudd JJ, Kanyuka K, Hassani-Pak K, Derbyshire M, Andongabo A, Devonshire J,
Lysenko A, Saqi M, Desai NM, Powers SJ, Hooper J, Ambroso L, Bharti A, Farmer A,
Hammond-Kosack KE, Dietrich RA, Courbot M. 2015. Transcriptome and metabolite
profiling of the infection cycle of Zymoseptoria tritici on wheat reveals a biphasic
interaction with plant immunity involving differential pathogen chromosomal
contributions and a variation on the hemibiotrophic lifestyle definition. Plant Physiol
167:1158-85.

68. Sperschneider J, Dodds PN. 2022. EffectorP 3.0: Prediction of Apoplastic and
Cytoplasmic Effectors in Fungi and Oomycetes. Mol Plant Microbe Interact 35:146-
156.

69. Lee SM, Kong HG, Song GC, Ryu CM. 2021. Disruption of Firmicutes and
Actinobacteria abundance in tomato rhizosphere causes the incidence of bacterial
wilt disease. ISME J 15:330-347.

70. Snelders NC, Boshoven JC, Song Y, Schmitz N, Fiorin GL, Rovenich H, van den Berg
GCM, Torres DE, Petti GC, Prockl Z, Faino L, Seidl MF, Thomma B. 2023. A highly
polymorphic effector protein promotes fungal virulence through suppression of
plant-associated Actinobacteria. New Phytol 237:944-958.

71. Carlstrom CI, Field CM, Bortfeld-Miller M, Muller B, Sunagawa S, Vorholt JA. 2019.
Synthetic microbiota reveal priority effects and keystone strains in the Arabidopsis
phyllosphere. Nat Ecol Evol 3:1445-1454.

72. Gómez-Pérez D, Schmid M, Chaudhry V, Velic A, Maček B, Kemen A, Kemen E. 2022.
Proteins released into the plant apoplast by the obligate parasitic protist Albugo
selectively repress phyllosphere-associated bacteria. bioRxiv
doi:10.1101/2022.05.16.492175.

73. Sahu PK, Jayalakshmi K, Tilgam J, Gupta A, Nagaraju Y, Kumar A, Hamid S, Singh HV,
Minkina T, Rajput VD, Rajawat MVS. 2022. ROS generated from biotic stress: Effects
on plants and alleviation by endophytic microbes. Front Plant Sci 13:1042936.

74. Zhong Z, McDonald BA, Palma-Guerrero J. 2021. Tolerance to oxidative stress is
associated with both oxidative stress response and inherent growth in a fungal
wheat pathogen. Genetics 217.
75. Hashem A, Alqarawi AA, Radhakrishnan R, Al-Arjani AF, Aldehaish HA, Egamberdieva
D, Abd Allah EF. 2018. Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi regulate the oxidative system,
hormones and ionic equilibrium to trigger salt stress tolerance in Cucumis sativus L.
Saudi J Biol Sci 25:1102-1114.
76. Fountain JC, Bajaj P, Nayak SN, Yang L, Pandey MK, Kumar V, Jayale AS, Chitikineni A,
Lee RD, Kemerait RC, Varshney RK, Guo B. 2016. Responses of Aspergillus flavus to
Oxidative Stress Are Related to Fungal Development Regulator, Antioxidant Enzyme,
and Secondary Metabolite Biosynthetic Gene Expression. Front Microbiol 7:2048.
77. Singh Y, Nair AM, Verma PK. 2021. Surviving the odds: From perception to survival of
fungal phytopathogens under host-generated oxidative burst. Plant Commun
2:100142.
78. International Wheat Genome Sequencing C. 2018. Shifting the limits in wheat
research and breeding using a fully annotated reference genome. Science 361.
79. Daudi A, Cheng Z, O'Brien JA, Mammarella N, Khan S, Ausubel FM, Bolwell GP. 2012.
The apoplastic oxidative burst peroxidase in Arabidopsis is a major component of
pattern-triggered immunity. Plant Cell 24:275-87.
80. Tripathy BC, Oelmuller R. 2012. Reactive oxygen species generation and signaling in
plants. Plant Signal Behav 7:1621-33.
81. Burchacka E, Pieta P, Lupicka-Slowik A. 2022. Recent advances in fungal serine
protease inhibitors. Biomed Pharmacother 146:112523.
82. Fraser CM, Rider LW, Chapple C. 2005. An expression and bioinformatics analysis of
the Arabidopsis serine carboxypeptidase-like gene family. Plant Physiol 138:1136-48.
83. Bishop JG, Dean AM, Mitchell-Olds T. 200. Rapid evolution in plant chitinases:
Molecular targets of selection in plant-pathogen coevolution. PNAS 97:5322-5327.
84. Jiao W, Li X, Zhao H, Cao J, Jiang W. 2018. Antifungal Activity of an Abundant
Thaumatin-Like Protein from Banana against Penicillium expansum, and Its Possible
Mechanisms of Action. Molecules 23.
85. Misra RC, Sandeep, Kamthan M, Kumar S, Ghosh S. 2016. A thaumatin-like protein of
Ocimum basilicum confers tolerance to fungal pathogen and abiotic stress in
transgenic Arabidopsis. Sci Rep 6:25340.
86. Gorjanović S, Beljanski MV, Gavrović-Jankulović M, Gojgić-Cvijović G, Pavlović MD,
Bejosano F. 2007. Antimicrobial Activity of Malting Barley Grain Thaumatin-Like
Protein Isoforms, S and R. Journal of the Institute of Brewing 113:206-212.
87. Gao M, Yin X, Yang W, Lam SM, Tong X, Liu J, Wang X, Li Q, Shui G, He Z. 2017. GDSL
lipases modulate immunity through lipid homeostasis in rice. PLoS Pathog
13:e1006724.
88. Shen G, Sun W, Chen Z, Shi L, Hong J, Shi J. 2022. Plant GDSL Esterases/Lipases:
Evolutionary, Physiological and Molecular Functions in Plant Development. Plants
(Basel) 11.
89. Maldonado AM, Doerner P, Dixon RA, Lamb CJ, Cameron RK. 2002. A putative lipid
transfer protein involved in systemic resistance signalling in Arabidopsis. Nature
419:399-403.

90. Wang C, Gao H, Chu Z, Ji C, Xu Y, Cao W, Zhou S, Song Y, Liu H, Zhu C. 2021. A
nonspecific lipid transfer protein, StLTP10, mediates resistance to Phytophthora
infestans in potato. Mol Plant Pathol 22:48-63.
91. Hassani MA, Özkurt E, Franzenburg S, Stukenbrock EH. 2020. Ecological Assembly
Processes of the Bacterial and Fungal Microbiota of Wild and Domesticated Wheat
Species. Phytobiomes Journal 4:217-224.
92. Ozkurt E, Hassani MA, Sesiz U, Kunzel S, Dagan T, Ozkan H, Stukenbrock EH. 2020.
Seed-Derived Microbial Colonization of Wild Emmer and Domesticated Bread Wheat
(Triticum dicoccoides and T. aestivum) Seedlings Shows Pronounced Differences in
Overall Diversity and Composition. mBio 11.
93. Chen J, Sharifi R, Khan MSS, Islam F, Bhat JA, Kui L, Majeed A. 2021. Wheat
Microbiome: Structure, Dynamics, and Role in Improving Performance Under Stress
Environments. Front Microbiol 12:821546.
94. Boukhatem ZF, Merabet C, Tsaki H. 2022. Plant Growth Promoting Actinobacteria,
the Most Promising Candidates as Bioinoculants? Frontiers in Agronomy 4.
95. Conn VM, Walker AR, Franco CMM. 2008. Endophytic Actinobacteria Induce Defense
Pathways in Arabidopsis thaliana. Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions 21:208-218.
96. Shetty NP, Mehrabi R, Lutken H, Haldrup A, Kema GH, Collinge DB, Jorgensen HJ.
2007. Role of hydrogen peroxide during the interaction between the hemibiotrophic
fungal pathogen Septoria tritici and wheat. New Phytol 174:637-47.
1366

1367 **Figure legend**

1368

Figure 1. Proteomic analysis to study the impact of the *Zymoseptoria tritici* on

the apoplastic proteome of the susceptible and resistant wheat genotypes. (A)

Scheme showing the quantitative proteomics used in this study. The pie chart

demonstrated the 2'455 total proteins identified in the wheat apoplastic fluids. (B)

Principal component analysis (PCA) of apoplastic proteomes of mock-treated and

infected Obelisk and Chinese Spring plants. (C) Venn diagrams of 673 differentially

expressed proteins in response to *Z. tritici* infection and shared between groups. In

highlight, the 24 upregulated proteins exclusively found in Obelisk and Chinese Spring

infected plants. (D) Volcano plot of differentially expressed proteins in the susceptible

Obelisk. Light orange points represented the 242 proteins that were up-regulated in

Obelisk infected plants (adjusted p-value <0.01; FC >2). The dark orange points

represented the 299 proteins that were down-regulated in Obelisk during fungal

infection (adjusted p-value <0.01; FC >2). (E) Volcano plot of differentially expressed

proteins in the susceptible Chinese Spring. Light green points represented the 86

proteins that were up-regulated in Chinese Spring infected plants (adjusted p-value

<0.01; FC >2). The dark green points represented the 46 proteins that were down-

regulated in Chinese Spring during fungal infection (adjusted p-value <0.01; FC >2).

(F) Gene ontology (GO) enrichment terms for down-regulated (dark orange) and up-

regulated (light orange) proteins in the susceptible Obelisk plants during fungal

infection, respectively. (G) Gene ontology (GO) enrichment terms for down-regulated

(dark green) and up-regulated (light green) proteins in the resistant Chinese Spring

plants during fungal infection, respectively.

1391

Figure 2. Wheat-enriched endophytic community-based culture. (A) Scheme

showing the microbial isolation procedure used in this study. The pie chart

demonstrated the 667 microbes isolated from the wheat apoplastic fluids, and the

respective number of isolates per groups (mock-treated or infected Obelisk and

Chinese Spring). (B) Wheat-enriched endophytic community-based culture collection

is composed of 188 purified and archived isolates which were classified taxonomically

using partial 16S rRNA and ITS sequences. These 188 microbes represent 59

species. Venn diagrams showing the number of shared OTUs between groups. (C)

Heatmap showing Jaccard index to compare the dissimilarity between microbial

communities based on their species richness. (D) A reference phylogenetic tress of

59 microbial species used in this study. Bar colors represent the corresponding phyla

in all figures in this study. Black star indicates the ancestral of each phylum. Circles

and squares represent the wheat genotypes and treatment from where the microbes

were isolated. Dark or light orange circles indicated the microbe isolated from mock-

treated or *Z. tritic*i infected Obelisk plants, respectively. Dark or light green squares

indicated the microbe isolated from mock-treated or *Z. tritic*i infected Chinese Spring

plants, respectively.

1409

Figure 3. The apoplast of wheat plants harbor an arsenal of potential

antagonistic endophytes against *Zymoseptoria tritici*. (A-B) Scheme and

exemplification of the antagonistic assay performed *in vitro.* Plates containing solely

Fries 3 medium were used as control to ensure microbial growth. Hygromycin B was

used as positive control for fungal growth. (C) Three *Z. tritici* isolates were used in this

study, such as the Dutch isolate IPO323, the Danish Zt05, and the Iranian Zt10.

Roughly 20% of the wheat-recovered microbes were able to inhibited at least one of

the *Z. tritici* isolates. Black points represent antagonistic microbes. Isolated that did

not inhibited *Z. tritici* were excluded. The size of inhibition zones did not differ among

the three tested *Z. tritici* isolates based on the Kruskal-Wallis statical analysis. (D)

Proportion of microbes isolated from different wheat genotypes varying in the inhibitory

activity against *Z. tritici*. (E) Composition of the wheat-enriched endophytic community-

based culture (left) and the microbes inhibiting the three different *Z. tritici* isolates

(right). Microbes were colored based on their respective family classification.

1424

Figure 4. Phylogenetic tree depicting the evolutionary relationship of all

retrieved microbial species and assessment of reactive oxygen species (ROS)

sensitivity. The phylogenetic tree was reconstructed based on partial 16S rRNA and

ITS sequences. Nodes are supported based on 500 bootstraps performed in RAxML.

Two fungal species *Rhizopus arrhizus* and *Mucor kunryamgriensis* from the

Mucoroycota were used as outgroups in the tree. Three doses of hydrogen peroxide

(H$_2$O$_2$) were used in solid growth media for assessing the growth sensitivity of 69

endophytic strains retrieved from wheat. The percentage of growth inhibition and

promotion is based on the ratio between colony diameter under H$_2$O$_2$ and colony

diameter of colonies growing on control plates. Phenotyping performed at 5 days post

inoculation.

1436

Figure 5. Phenotyping of 69 strains for growth inhibition, promotion, and

stability across five time points and three tested exogenous plant secondary

metabolites. A total of 69 isolates representing 59 species were tested in this study.

The three used plant secondary metabolites are cinnamyl alcohol (CA), quinic acid

(QA), and nonanoic acid (NA). The five time points are 24, 48, 72, 96 and 168 hours

after inoculation of microtiter plates. In the alluvial plot, the three strata represent each

phenotype per plant metabolites within a time point, and the connections illustrate the

phenotype of a given microbe between strata. Phenotypes were defined by dividing

the OD of a given strain growing under a plant metabolite by its OD when growing in

the control media. An OD ratio $\geq$ 1.1 indicates growth promotion, $\leq$ 0.9 growth inhibition

and in between stable growth.

1448

1449 **Supplemental Material**

1450

1451 **Figure S1. Validation of apoplastic fluids to isolate proteins and microbes**

1452 **associated with the apoplast compartment of wheat plants.** (A) Scheme showing

1453 the methodology used for isolation of apoplastic fluids from mock-treated and infected

1454 Obelisk and Chinese Spring plants. Apoplastic fluids were then used for microbial

1455 isolation and proteomic analysis. (B) A total of 2'455 proteins were identified in the

wheat apoplastic fluids. Bar plots illustrate the total proteins isolated from the three biological and two technical replicated for each wheat genotype and treatment. Dark and light orange bars indicate proteins isolated from mock-treated and infected Obelisk plants, respectively. Dark and light green bars indicate the proteins isolated from mock-treated and infected Chinese Spring plants, respectively. (C) A total of 667 microbes were isolated from the apoplastic fluids. Bar plots illustrate the microbes isolated from each wheat genotype and treatment. Dark and light orange bars indicate microbes isolated from mock-treated and infected Obelisk plants, respectively. Dark and light green bars indicate the proteins isolated from mock-treated and infected Chinese Spring plants, respectively. (D) Western blot analysis for the abundance of the Rubisco large subunit was used as a marker for intra-cellular contamination of the apoplastic fluid samples. Histone H3 protein as a general eukaryote positive marker. (E) Colony morphologies grown on Petri dishes exemplify the microbial diversity recovered from the apoplastic fluids of each wheat genotype and treatment.

Figure S2. Contrasting susceptibility or resistance of wheat against _Zymoseptoria tritici_ is due to the resistant gene Stb6 and the effector protein AvrStb6. Representative asymptomatic leaves at 8 days post-inoculation (dpi) show the biotrophic phase of _Z. tritici_ in both the susceptible Obelisk (without the resistant gene _Stb6_) and the resistant Chinese Spring (with the resistant gene _Stb6_) wheat plants. Representative leaves at 14 dpi show typical symptoms of _Z. tritici_ infection in the susceptible Obelisk, including the chlorosis, necrosis, and the onset of asexual reproduction demonstrating by the pycnidial formation. On the other hand, Chinese Spring plants display a resistant phenotype due to Stb6-AvrStb6 interaction in this wheat genotype.

1481

Figure S3. Composition of the wheat-enriched endophytic community-based culture. Wheat-enriched endophytic community-based culture collection is composed of 188 purified isolates which were classified taxonomically using partial 16S rRNA and ITS sequences. (A-C) Bar charts show the phyla-, classes- and families-level profiles obtained for the microbial diversity recovered from the apoplastic fluids of mock-treated and infected Obelisk and Chinese Spring wheat genotypes. (D-F) Venn diagrams showing the number of shared OTUs between groups and for the different taxonomical classifications (phylum, class, and family). Dashed black circles indicated the OTU commonly found among the treatments. (D) Proteobacteria and Actinobacteria were the commonly identified phyla. (E) Actinomycetia, Alphaproteobacteria and Gammaproteobacteria were the commonly identified classes. (F) Microbacteriaceae and Psedomonadaceae were the commonly identified families.

1495

Figure S4. Overview of antagonistic effect of the wheat-associated microbes against the Dutch IPO323 *Zymoseptoria tritici* isolate. Species names are displayed in the bottom right corner (read from left to right). Microbes that did not grow are listed but were excluded from the data analysis. Three independent Petri dishes were performed per microbial endophyte.

1501

Figure S5. Overview of antagonistic effect of the wheat-associated microbes against the Danish Zt05 *Zymoseptoria tritici* isolate. Species names are displayed in the bottom right corner (read from left to right). Microbes that did not grow are listed

1505 but were excluded from the data analysis. Three independent Petri dishes were

1506 performed per microbial endophyte.

1507

1508 **Figure S6. Overview of antagonistic effect of the wheat-associated microbes**

1509 **against the Iranian Zt10 *Zymoseptoria tritici* isolate.** Species names are displayed

1510 in the bottom right corner (read from left to right). Microbes that did not grow are listed

1511 but were excluded from the data analysis. Three independent Petri dishes were

1512 performed per microbial endophyte.

1513

Figure S7. Overview on the antagonistic activity of microbial organisms against

three *Zymoseptoria tritici* strains and inhibition phenotypes. (A) Venn diagram

comparing the count of antagonistic microbes against the three different *Z. tritici*

isolates in the confrontation assays. Each color refers to a different Z. tritici isolate,

such as the Dutch IPO323, the Daish Zt05, and the Iranian Zt10. (B) Portions of gram-

negative or -positive bacteria that inhibited *Z. tritici* isolates in the confrontation assays.

Fisher's exact tests were used to examine the association between the percentage of

isolates inhibiting the *Z. tritici* isolate and the gram stain of the bacteria. (C) The

phylogenetic tree was reconstructed based on partial 16S rRNA and ITS sequences.

Nodes are supported based on 500 bootstraps performed in RAxML. Two fungal

species *Rhizopus arrhizus* and *Mucor kunryamgriensis* from the Mucoroycota were

used as outgroups in the tree. Antagonistic microbes and their interaction with the

three tested *Z. tritici* isolates. The size of the circles is proportionate to the size of the

inhibition zones. Values in the circle correspond to the average size in cm^2 of the three

technical replicates. Red circles represent the antagonistic microbes; white circles

indicate the microbes that did not inhibit *Z. tritici*, and black circles demonstrated the microbes not tested in these antagonistic assays.

Table S1. Overview of the proteomics data of mock-treated and infected Obelisk and Chinese Spring wheat genotypes with *Zymoseptoria tritici* IPO323 strain.

Table S2. The differentially expressed proteins in the Obelisk and Chinese Spring wheat genotypes at 8 days-post incubation.

Table S3. The common 24 overexpressed during *Zymoseptoria tritici* IPO323 strain infection in Obelisk and Chinese Spring wheat genotypes.

Table S4. The most abundant Gene ontology (GO) enrichment terms for the upregulated proteins (mock vs infected) in Obelisk and Chinese Spring wheat genotypes.

Table S5. The most abundant Gene ontology (GO) enrichment terms for the downregulated proteins (mock vs infected) in Obelisk and Chinese Spring wheat genotypes.

Table S6. Proteomic analysis identified two up-regulated proteins and one down-regulated protein from Zymoseptoria tritici during plant-pathogen interaction.

Table S7. 188 microbes represent the wheat-enriched endophytic community-based culture collection used in this study.

1554

1555 **Table S8.** Frequency of each phenotype within five time points and total phenotype

1556 frequency from the microtiter plate experiment.

1557

1558 **Table S9.** Overview on select top 10 bacterial strains with the highest and the lowest

1559 OD ratio per plant compound within each time point.