A metabolic modeling-based framework for predicting trophic dependencies in native rhizobiomes of crop plants

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Abstract

The exchange of metabolites (i.e., metabolic interactions) between bacteria in the rhizosphere determines various plant-associated functions. Systematically understanding the metabolic interactions in the rhizosphere, as well as in other types of microbial communities, would open the door to the optimization of specific pre-defined functions of interest, and therefore to the harnessing of the functionality of various types of microbiomes. However, mechanistic knowledge regarding the gathering and interpretation of these interactions is limited. Here, we present a framework utilizing genomics and constraint based modeling approaches, aiming to interpret the hierarchical trophic interactions in the soil environment. 243 genome-scale metabolic models of bacteria associated with a specific disease suppressive vs disease conducive apple rhizospheres were drafted based on genome resolved metagenomes, comprising an *in-silico* native microbial community. Iteratively simulating microbial community members' growth in a metabolomics-based apple root-like environment produced novel data on potential trophic successions, used to form a network of communal trophic dependencies. Network-based analyses have characterized interactions associated with beneficial vs non-beneficial microbiome functioning, pinpointing specific compounds and microbial species as potential disease supporting and suppressing agents. This framework provides a means for capturing trophic interactions and formulating a range of testable hypotheses regarding the metabolic capabilities of microbial communities within their natural environment. Essentially, it can be applied to different environments and biological landscapes, elucidating the conditions for the targeted manipulation of various microbiomes, and the execution of countless predefined functions.

Introduction

The rhizosphere serves as a hotspot for a diversity of interactions spanning from the secretion of organic compounds by plant roots to their uptake by the adjacent soil microbial community[1,2]. These interactions form a complex network of metabolic exchanges whose structure and function has a considerable impact on plant health[3]. Targeted secretion of exudates from plant roots' into the environment is fundamental to the recruitment of specific microbes and the assembly of a plant-selected community (i.e., the rhizobiome)[4–6]. Each plant has a unique profile of exudates guiding the formation of a specialized rhizobiome that is adapted to support its mineral absorption[7–9], secret plant growth supporting compounds[10–12], and provide protection against soil-borne microorganisms that are detrimental to its health[13–15]. A comprehensive understanding of the dynamics within the rhizosphere, considering both plant-microbe and microbe-microbe interactions, can guide the targeted assembly and maintenance of plant-beneficial soil microbial systems[16–19]. The development of such microbiome-based, plant-beneficial strategies presents ecologically sound alternatives to conventional, chemical-based solutions in supporting plant health and productivity.[20,21].

`Omics data in general and specifically metagenomics data analyses can potentially provide keys for unraveling the black box of plant-microbe and microbe-microbe interactions in complex ecosystems such as the soil[22–25]. Sequence-based analyses are, however, typically limited in terms of functional interpretation of community dynamics[26]. Constraint based modeling (CBM) is an approach that allows for the simulation of bacterial-metabolic activity in a given environment based on the constraints imposed by the annotated microbial genomes[22,27]. This approach has long been used for studying the physiology and growth of single cells, represented as Genome Scale Metabolic Models (GSMM), under varying conditions[28,29]. Applying CBM over a GSMM can be used to assess the uptake and secretion of metabolites in the environment under study[27]. Accordingly, when CBM is applied over multiple GSMMs, metabolite exchange profiles (secretion into and consumption from the environment) become interconnected. This sheds light on conditions supporting the growth of different bacterial groups within the community as well as their functional potential in the trophic network formed[16,30].

Advancement of sequencing technologies alongside the development of automatic pipelines for GSMM construction[31,32] has promoted an increased use of CBM for the modeling of communities with growing complexity[22–24,26,33,34]. The relevance of CBM to the study of microbiomes has been demonstrated in a variety of ecosystems and recent works have shown that CBM-based predictions can guide the development of strategies for microbiome management[34–37]. An accurate representation of microbial metabolic networks depends on the origin of the genomes analyzed. To date, most studies attempting to model the microbiome of specific ecosystems by GSMM represent native species using corresponding genome sequences from public depositories, a process which is usually referred to as 16S-based genome imputation[26,36,38]. Genome recovery, or genome-resolved metagenomes, often referred to as Metagenome Assembled Genomes (MAGs) allows one to obtain full genomes directly from metagenomes[39,40]. Constructing GSMMs based on MAGs derived from a specific biological sample[26] or directly from a native community[33], is fundamentally superior to using 16S-based genome imputation, for this approach enables a genuine view of the metabolic activities carried out *in situ*. Such an *in silico* representation of a native community (with respect to its environment) can be used to decrypt the myriad interconnected uptake and secretion exchange fluxes transpiring within the root-associated microbiome, spanning from root exudates to altered organic forms.

The current study describes the recovery of 395 unique MAGs from metagenomes constructed for the native rhizosphere community of apple rootstocks cultivated in orchard soil affected by apple replant disease (ARD)[41,42]. Soils were amended with *Brassicaceae* seed meal, or were not amended, supporting the development of either disease-suppressive or disease-conducive root microbiomes, respectively[41,42]. MAGs were recovered from metagenomics data collected from these apple rhizosphere microbiomes. GSMMs constructed for the MAGs provide an *in-silico* representation of highly abundant species in the native rhizosphere community. CBM simulations were then conducted in a rhizosphere-like environment, where microbial uptake-secretion fluxes were connected to form a directional trophic network. The aims of this study were twofold: first, to provide a general framework for delineating inter-species interactions occurring in the rhizosphere environment (Fig. 1) and second, to characterize the metabolic roles specific groups of bacteria fulfill in seed meal-amended (disease-suppressive) vs non-amended (disease-conducive) apple rhizobiome communities.

Results & Discussion

1. Assembly of a collection of MAGs representing a native microbial community from a soil agroecosystem

Metagenomic sequencing obtained from the rhizosphere of apple rootstocks grown in orchard soil with a documented history of replant disease resulted in a total of approximately 2 billion quality reads (after filtration) at a length of 150 bp, as described in Berihu et al[42]. Independent metagenomics assemblies of six different treatments yielded 1.4–2 million contigs longer than 2 kbp[42]. Here, assemblies were binned using MetaWRAP[40] into 296-433 high quality MAGs for each of the six treatments (Supp. Data 1; completion and contamination thresholds were set to 90/5, respectively[43]). De-replication (the process of combining highly similar genomes into a single representative genome) requiring 99% average nucleotide identity (ANI) of the overall 2233 MAGs yielded a collection of 395 unique MAGs (Fig. 2). Across samples, 30-36% of the raw reads were mapped to the MAG collection (Supp. Table 1), in comparison to 61–71% mapped to the non-binned contigs[42]. Using GTDB-Tk[44], taxonomic annotations were assigned at the phylum, order, genus and species level for 395, 394, 237 and three of the de-replicated MAGs, respectively, reflecting the genuine diversity of the rhizosphere community, which include many uncharacterized species[45]. Estimates of completion and contamination, total bin length and taxonomic affiliation for the MAG collections derived from each of the six assemblies, as well as the de-replicated MAGs, are provided in Supp. Data 1.

As in previous reports[1,46], Proteobacteria, Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria and Bacteroidetes were identified as the dominant phyla in the apple rhizosphere (Fig. 2A). Overall, the taxonomic distribution of the MAG collection corresponded with the profile reported for the same samples using alternative taxonomic classification approaches such as 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing and gene-based taxonomic annotations of the non-binned shotgun contigs (Fig. 2B). At the genus level, MAGs were classified into 143 genera in comparison to approximately 3000 genera that were identified for the same data based on gene-centric approaches[42] and approximately 1000 genera based on amplicon sequencing[41] of the same data.

The functional capabilities of the bacterial genomes in the apple rhizosphere were initially assessed based on KEGG functional annotations of their gene catalogue (Supp. Data 2, Supp. Fig. 1). The ten most frequent functional categories across the MAG collection were involved in primary metabolism, e.g., carbohydrate metabolism, and the biosynthesis of essential cellular building blocks such as amino acids and vitamins. Specialized functional categories included those associated with autotrophic nutrition such as carbon fixation and metabolism of nitrogen, sulfur and methane. Functional diversity was found to exist also when considering ubiquitous functions. For instance, though all bacteria are in need of the full set of amino acids, most genomes lack the full set of relevant biosynthesis pathways. The prevalence of biosynthetic pathways across MAGs (requiring at least a single relevant enzyme) ranges from 99.5% (e.g. glycine; missing in only two genomes) to 21% (e.g. tyrosine; detected in only 83 MAGs). Notably, the diversity of metabolic pathway completeness regarding amino acids and other essential cellular components suggests that the majority of bacterial soil species rely on an external supply of at least some of their obligatory nutritional demands.

2. Construction of a simulation system for exploring environment-dependent metabolic performances and growth of rhizosphere bacteria

Categorical classifications of discrete gene-entities, such as pathway completeness analyses, have several inherent limitations as an approach for the contextualization and functional interpretation of genomic information. First, categorical classifications may underestimate the completeness of robust pathways with multiple redundant routes resulting in low pathway completeness. Second, pathway completeness analyses do not take into consideration the directionality and continuity of a biosynthetic process whose full conductance requires the availability of a specific environmental resource together with the required successive series of genes/reactions. Although functional potential can be inferred based on the static set of genes and enzymes present, actual metabolic performances of bacterial species in soil are dynamic and reflect multiple factors, including the availability of different nutritional sources. Such sources can be environmental inputs like root exudates or downstream exchange metabolites secreted by cohabiting bacteria.

To better understand environment-dependent metabolic activity occurring in a native rhizosphere, a set of 395 GSMMs was constructed for the entire collection of the rhizosphere-bacterial community MAGs. All models were systematically subjected to validity and quality tests using MEMOTE[47], leaving a total of 243 GSMMs whose stoichiometric consistency was confirmed (Supp. Data 3). On average, GSMMs included 1924 reactions, from which 203 were exchange reactions (specific reactions carrying out extracellular import and secretion of metabolites) and 1312 metabolites (Supp. Data 4). Altogether, the GSMM set held 5152 unique metabolic reactions, 597 exchange reactions, and 2671 different compounds. The distribution of key model attributes (reactions, metabolites and exchanges) across phyla is shown in Supp. Fig. 2. Model features were scalable with those reported by Basile et al[26] and Heinken et al[34]. Additionally, comparison of GSMM scales indicated that the metabolic coverage (i.e., the number of reactions, which denote the potential of executing a metabolic function) of our data is within the same order of magnitude as described in recent large-scale automatic reconstructions[26,34].

Next, species-specific rich (optimal) and poor (suboptimal) media were defined for each model in order to broadly assess GSMM growth capacity. A rich environment was defined as a medium containing all metabolites for which the model encodes an exchange reaction. A poor environment was defined as the minimal set of compounds enabling growth (see Methods). Essentially, poor environments contained species-specific carbon, nitrogen and phosphorous sources together with other trace elements. In addition to the two automatic media, we aimed to design a realistic simulating environment to explore the impact of the root exudates on the native community. To this end, metabolomics data from a set of studies which characterized the root exudates of Geneva 935 (G935) or Malling 26 (M26) rootstock cultivars[48,49] - related to the G210 and M26 rootstocks whose rhizobiome was characterized here, were used to specify an array of apple root-derived compounds (Table 1). The list of secreted compounds was consistent with other reported profiles of plant root-exudates[1,50].

The growth of each of the 243 GSMMs was simulated in each of the three species-specific environments (rich, poor, poor + exudates; exudates were added to corresponding poor media to ensure the exudates have a feasible effect). As expected, growth performances were higher on the poor medium supplemented with exudates in comparison to growth on the poor medium alone but lower than the growth in rich medium (Supp. Fig. 3). Notably, GSMM growth patterns were not phylogenetically

conserved and were inconsistent between related taxa. Moreover, ranking of models' growth rate were inconsistent in the three different media (i.e., some models' growth rates were markedly affected by the simulated media whereas others did not; Supp. Fig. 3). This inconsistency indicates that the effect of exudates on community members is selective and differs between species (i.e., exudates increase the growth rates of some species more than others), as was previously reported[1,5,51]. The number of active exchange fluxes in each medium corresponds with the respective growth performances displaying noticably higher number of potentially active fluxes in the rich enviroenment (also when applying loopless FVA) (Supp. Fig. 4). Overall, Simulations confirmed the existence of a feasible solution space for all the 243 models as well as their capacity to predict growth in the respective environemnt (Supp. Data 5).

      As a next step towards conducting simulations in a genuine natural-like environment, we aimed to define a single "rhizosphere environment" in which growth simulations for all models would take place. Unlike the species-specific root media (poor medium + exudates) which support growth of all models by artificially including multiple carbon sources that are derived from the automatic specifications of the poor medium, including such that are not provided by the root, this simulation environment was based on the root exudates (Table. 1) as the sole carbon sources. By avoiding the inclusion of non-exudate organic metabolites, the true-to-source rhizosphere environment was designed to reveal the hierarchical directionality of the trophic exchanges in soil, as rich media often mask various trophic interactions taking place in native communities[52]. Additionally, the rhizosphere environment also included an array of inorganic compounds used by the 243 GSMMs, which includes trace metals, ferric, phosphoric, and sulfuric compounds. Overall, the rhizosphere environment was composed of 60 inorganic compounds together with the 33 root exudates (Supp. Table 2). The rhizosphere environment supported the growth of only a subset of the GSMMs that were capable of using plant exudates (Supp. Fig. 3).

3. Simulating growth succession and hierarchical trophic exchanges in the rhizosphere community

      To reflect the indirect effect of the root on the native community, (i.e., to capture the effect of root-supported bacteria on the growth of further community members), we

constructed the Microbial Community Succession Module (MCSM), a CBM-based   275
algorithm aimed at predicting community-level trophic successions. Unlike tools   276
designed for modelling microbial interactions[53,54], MCSM bypasses the need for   277
defining a community objective function as the growth of each species is simulated   278
individually. Trophic interactions are then inferred by the extent to which compounds   279
secreted by bacteria could support the growth of other community members. The   280
module iteratively grows the GSMMs in a defined environment, sums up their   281
individual secretion profiles, and updates the initial simulation environment with those   282
secreted compounds (Fig. 3A). Applying this algorithm to a microbiome in its native   283
environment allows delineating the potential metabolic dependencies and interactions   284
between bacterial species in a native community.   285

Application of MCSM over the "rhizosphere environment" (i.e., 1st iteration,   286
Root exudates and "inorganic compounds", Supp. Table 2) supported the growth of 27   287
GSMMs (Supp. Fig. 3, Fig. 3B). Then, the initial environment was updated with 145   288
additional compounds predicted to be secreted by the growing community members.   289
The 2nd iteration supported the growth of 33 additional species whose growth was   290
supported by compounds predicted to be secreted by bacteria that grew in the 1st 291
iteration. Following the 2nd iteration, 25 new secreted compounds were added to the   292
rhizosphere environment. The 3rd iteration supported the growth of 11 additional   293
GSMMs, with one additional compound secreted. After the 3rd iteration, the updated   294
environment did not support the growth of any new species. Overall, iterative growth   295
simulations resulted in the successive growth of 71 species (Fig. 3B; iterations 1-3).   296

To enlarge the array of growing species, we tested the effect of the addition of   297
organic phosphorous sources. Organic phosphorous is typically a limiting factor in   298
soil[55] and its utilization varies greatly between microbial species (i.e., different P   299
sources were shown to have a selective effect on different microbial groups[56]). The   300
initial rhizosphere environment contained only inorganic phosphorous. During 1st -3rd 301
MCSM simulations, nine organic P compounds were secreted to the simulation   302
medium, which was updated accordingly. At the beginning of the 4th iteration, 31   303
additional organic P compounds were identified by screening the species-specific poor   304
medium and were added to the medium (Supp. Table 2; organic Phosphorous   305
compounds). The additional organic P compounds supported the growth of nine   306
additional GSMMs (Fig. 3B) and led to the secretion of 13 new compounds, which   307
were added to the environment. The 5th iteration supported the growth of four additional   308

GSMMs and two new compounds were secreted. Final simulations in the cumulative rhizosphere environment were composed of all secreted compounds and led to the same secretion and growth profile as the previous iteration. Therefore, no further growth iterations were conducted.

Overall, the successive iterations connected 84 out of 243 native members of the apple rhizosphere GSMM community via trophic exchanges. The inability of the remaining bacteria to grow, despite being part of the native root microbiome, possibly reflects the selectiveness of the root environment, which fully supports the nutritional demands of only part of the soil species, whereas specific compounds that might be essential to other species are less abundant[45]. It is important to note that the specific exudate profile used here represent a snapshot of the root metabolome as root secretion-profiles are highly dynamic, reflecting both environmental and plant developmental conditions. A possible complementary explanation to the observed selective growth might be the partiality of our simulation platform, which examined only plant-bacteria and bacteria-bacteria interactions while ignoring other critical components of the rhizosphere system such as fungi, archaea, protists and mesofauna, as well as less abundant bacterial species, components all known to metabolically interact[57]. Finally, the MAG collection, while relatively substantial, represents only part of the microbial community. Accordingly, the iterative growth simulations represent a subset of the overall hierarchical-trophic exchanges in the root environment, necessarily reflecting the partiality of the dataset.

In terms of the phylogenetic distribution of the models, 27 bacterial species grew on the 1st iteration (in which root exudates served as the sole organic sources). These bacteria represented 14 of the 17 phyla included in the initial model collection (consisting of 243 GSMMs) and maintained a distribution frequency similar to the original community. As in the full GSMM data set (Community bar, Fig. 3C), most of the species which grew in the 1st iteration belonged to the phyla *Acidobacteriota*, *Proteobacteria,* and *Bacteroidota*. This result concurred with findings from the work of Zhalnina et al, which reported that bacteria assigned to these phyla are the primary beneficiaries of root exudates[1]. Species from three out of the 17 phyla that did not grow in the first iteration - *Elusimicrobiota, Chlamydiota*, and *Fibrobacterota,* did grow on the 2nd iteration (Fig. 3C). Members of these phyla are known for their specialized metabolic dependencies. Such is the case for example with members of the

Elusimicrobiota phylum, which include mostly uncultured species whose nutritional preferences are likely to be selective[58].

At the order level, bacteria classified as *Sphingomonadales* (class *Alphaproteobacteria*), a group known to include typical inhabitants of the root environment[59], grew in the initial Root environment. In comparison, other root-inhabiting groups including the orders *Rhizobiales* and *Burkholderiales*[59], did not grow in the first iteration. *Rhizobiales* and *Burkholderiales* did, however, grow in the second and third iterations, respectively, indicating that in the simulations, the growth of these groups was dependent on exchange metabolites secreted by other community members (Supp. Fig. 5).

Overall, 158 organic compounds were secreted throughout the MCSM simulation (from which 12 compounds overlapped with the original exudate medium). These compounds varied in their distribution and were mapped into 12 biochemical categories (Fig. 3D). Whereas plant secretions are a source of various organic compounds, microbial secretions provide a source of multiple vitamins and co-factors not secreted by the plant. Microbial-secreted compounds included siderophores (staphyloferrin, salmochelin, pyoverdine, and enterochelin), vitamins (pyridoxine, pantothenate, and thiamin), and coenzymes (coenzyme A, flavin adenine dinucleotide, and flavin mononucleotide) – all known to be exchange compounds in microbial communities[60,61]. In addition, microbial secretions included 11 amino acids (arginine, lysine, threonine, alanine, serine, phenylalanine, tyrosine, leucine, glutamate, isoleucine, and methionine), also known as a common exchange currency in microbial communities[62]. Some microbial-secreted compounds, such as phenols and alkaloids, were reported to be produced by plants as secondary metabolites[63,64]. Additional information regarding mean uptake and secretion degrees of compounds classified to biochemical groups is found in Supp. Fig. 6.

Conceptually, the rhizosphere microbiota can be classified into two trophic groups: primary exudate consumers, comprising microbial species that are direct beneficiaries from the root exudates, and secondary consumers, comprising microbial species whose growth may be provided directly via the uptake of metabolites secreted by other members of the soil microbial community. In the iterative MCSM simulations, compounds secreted by some of the primary consumers largely sustained the growth of secondary consumers, which were not able to grow otherwise. The full information on the secretion profiles and models' growths is provided in Supp. Data 6.

To validate the ability of MCSM to capture trophic dependencies and 376
succession, we further tested whether it can track the well-documented example of 377
cellulose degradation - a multi-step process conducted by several bacterial strains that 378
go through the conversion of cellulose and its oligosaccharide derivatives into ethanol, 379
acetate and glucose, which are all eventually oxidized to CO_2[65]. Here, the simulation 380
followed the trophic interactions in an environment provided with cellulose 381
oligosaccharides (4 and 6 glucose units) on the 1st iteration (Supp. Table 3). The formed 382
trophic successions detected along iterations captured the reported multi-step process 383
(Supp. Fig. 7). 384

4. Associating trophic exchanges with soil health 386

The MAG collection analyzed in this study was constructed from shotgun libraries 388
associated with apple rootstocks cultivated in orchard soil with a documented history 389
of apple replant disease (ARD) and healthy/recovered (seed meal-amended) soils, 390
providing a model system for disease-conducive vs disease-suppressive rhizosphere 391
communities[41]. Briefly, rhizobiome communities obtained from apple rootstocks grown 392
in replant orchard soil leading to symptomatic growth (non-amended samples) were 393
termed 'sick', whereas samples in which disease symptoms were ameliorated following 394
an established soil amendment treatment[66], were termed 'healthy'. Both sick and 395
healthy plants were characterized by distinct differences in the structure and function 396
of their rhizosphere microbial communities in the respective soil samples[15,41,42,66]. In 397
order to correlate microbial metabolic interactions with soil performance, GSMMs 398
were classified into one of three functional categories based on differential abundance 399
(DA) patterns of their respective MAGs: predominantly associated with "healthy" soil 400
(H), predominantly associated with "sick" soil (S) and none-associated (NA) (Supp. 401
Data 7). 402

The functionally classified GSMMs (H, S, NA) were consolidated into a 403
community network of metabolic interactions by linking their potential uptake and 404
secretion exchange profiles (as predicted along growth iterations in Fig. 3). The 405
network was built as a directed bipartite graph, in which the 84 feasible GSMM nodes 406
and the 203 metabolite nodes (27 root exudates, 146 microbial-secreted compounds, 407
and 30 additional organic-P compounds) were connected by 9773 directed edges, 408

representing the metabolic exchanges of organic compounds in the native apple 409
rhizosphere community (Fig. 4A). Further information regarding node degrees is found 410
in Supp. Data 8. 411

The directionality of the network enabled its untangling into sub-network motifs 412
stemming from a root exudate to exchange interactions, and ending with an 413
unconsumed end-metabolite. Two types of sub-networks were detected (Fig. 4C): 3- 414
component (PM; Plant-Microbe) plant exudate – microbe – microbial secreted 415
metabolite; and 5-component (PMM; Plant-Microbe-Microbe) plant exudate – microbe 416
– intermediate microbial secreted metabolite – microbe – microbial secreted metabolite. 417
Overall, the network included 45,972 unique PM paths and 571,605 unique PMM paths. 418
Participation of GSMMs in PM paths ranged from 272 to 896 occurrences (Supp. Fig. 419
8A). GSSM participation in PMM paths ranged from 398 to 50,628 in the first microbe 420
position (primary exudate consumer) and 1,388 to 19,738 occurrences in the second 421
microbe position (secondary consumer). Frequency of GSMMs in the first position in 422
PMM sub-network motifs was negatively correlated with the frequency of presence in 423
second positions, possibly indicating species-specific preferences for a specific 424
position/trophic level in the defined environment (Pearson=-0.279; p-value=0.009, 425
Supp. Fig. 8B, C, D). 426

In order to explore the trophic preferences of bacteria associated with the 427
different rhizosphere soil systems, the frequency of healthy (H), sick (S) or non- 428
associated (NA) GSMMs in the PM and PMM sub-networks was compared (Supp. Data 429
9). GSMMs classified as S initiated a significantly higher number of PMM sub- 430
networks (located in the first position) than GSMMs classified as NA and H (Fig. 5A). 431
H classified PMM paths (first position) initiated a significantly higher number of sub- 432
networks with GSMMs classified as NA compared to S-classified GSMMs, but no more 433
than H-classified GSMMs (second position). Other PMM types did not show a 434
significant effect at the second position. The higher number of trophic interactions 435
formed by the S-classified primary exudate consumers in the PMM sub-network motifs 436
suggests that non-beneficial bacteria may have a broader spectrum in terms of their 437
utilization potential of root-secreted carbon sources compared to plant-beneficial 438
bacteria. This might shed light on the dynamics of ARD, in which S-classified bacteria 439
become increasingly dominant following long-term utilization of apple-root exudates, 440
resulting in diminished capacity of the rhizosphere microbiome to suppress soil-borne 441
pathogens[66,67]. 442

In order to predict exchanges with potential to support/suppress dysbiosis, the frequency of DA GSMM types (i.e., H or S) associated with metabolites (either consumed or secreted) in the PM paths was assessed (Supp. Data 10). Considering consumed metabolites (root exudates), three and six compounds were found to be significantly more prevalent in H and S-classified PM paths, respectively (Fig. 5B). Notably, the S-classified root exudates included compounds reported to support dysbiosis and ARD progression. For example, the S-classified compounds gallic acid and caffeic acid (3,4-dihidroxy-trans-cinnamate) are phenylpropanoids – phenylalanine intermediate phenolic compounds secreted from plant roots following exposure to replant pathogens[68]. Though secretion of these compounds is considered a defense response, it is hypothesized that high levels of phenolic compounds can have autotoxic effects, potentially exacerbating ARD. Additionally, it was shown that genes associated with the production of caffeic acid were upregulated in ARD-infected apple roots, relative to those grown in γ-irradiated ARD soil[69,70], and that root and soil extracts from replant-diseased trees inhibited apple seedling growth and resulted in increased seedling root production of caffeic acid[71].

As to the microbial-secreted compounds, a total of 79 unique compounds were found to be significantly overrepresented in either S (42 compounds) or H (41 compounds) classified PM paths (Fig. 5C). Several secreted compounds classified as healthy exchanges (H) were reported to be potentially associated with beneficial functions. For instance, the compounds L-Sorbose (EX_srb__L_e) and Phenylacetaladehyde (EX_pacald_e), both over-represented in H paths (Fig. 5C), have been shown to inhibit the growth of fungal pathogens associated with replant disease[72,73]. Phenylacetaladehyde has also been reported to have nematicidal qualities[74].

Combining both exudate uptake data and metabolite secretion data, the full H-classified PM path 4-Hydroxybenzoate; GSMM_091; catechol (Fig. 4C; the consumed exudate, the GSMM, and the secreted compound, respectively) provides an exemplary model for how the proposed framework can be used to guide the design of strategies which support specific, advantageous exchanges within the rhizobiome. The root exudate 4-Hydroxybenzoate is metabolized by GSMM_091 (class *Verrucomicrobiae*, order *Pedosphaerales*) to catechol. Catechol is a precursor of a number of catecholamines, a group of compounds which was recently shown to increase apple tolerance to ARD symptoms when added to orchard[42,75]. This analysis (PM; Fig 4C), leads to formulating the testable prediction that 4-Hydroxybenzoate can serve as a

selective enhancer of catecholamine synthesizing bacteria associated with reduced ARD symptoms, and therefore serve as a potential source for indigenously produced beneficial compounds.

Conclusions

In this study, we present a framework combining metagenomics analyses with CBM, which can be used to gain a deeper understanding of the functionality, dynamics and division of labor among rhizosphere bacteria, and link their environment-dependent metabolism to biological significance. This exploratory framework aims to illuminate the black box of interactions occurring in the rhizospheres of crop plants and is based on the work of Berihu et al. 2022, in which a gene-centric analysis of metagenomics data from apple rhizospheres was conducted[42].

We recovered high-quality sets of environment-specific MAGs, constructed the corresponding GSMMs, and simulated community-level metabolic interactions. By including authentic apple root exudates in the models, we were able to begin untangling the highly complex plant-bacterial and bacterial-bacterial interactions occurring in the rhizosphere environment. More specifically, we used the framework to investigate a microbial community via examining its hierarchical secretion-uptake exchanges along multiple iterations (Fig. 3). These analyses, which linked community-derived secretion profiles with the growth of other community members, demonstrated the successive, trophic-dependent nature of microbial communities. These interactions were elucidated via construction of a community-exchange network (Fig. 4). Possible connections between root exudates, differentially abundant bacteria, their secreted end-products, and soil health were explored using the data derived from this network. From these analyses, we were able to associate different metabolic functionalities with diseased or healthy systems, and formulate new hypotheses regarding the general function of differentially abundant bacteria in the community.

The framework we present is currently conceptual. Dealing with a highly complex system such as the rhizobiome inevitably comes with limitations. These limitations include the usage of automatic GSMM reconstruction, inherent caveats of CBM and the use of single-species GSMMs, the lack of transcriptomic and spatial-chemo-physical data, and the exclusion of competition over all its forms. Furthermore, a

portion of the metabolomics data used in this framework was taken from a different 511

source (different rootstock genotype), possibly introducing further bias to the analyses. 512

This potential factor is due to the inherent discrepancy between the conditions from 513

which genomics and metabolomics data were collected[1,4]. Also not considered in this 514

framework is the role of eukaryotes in the microbial-metabolic interplay. Moreover, the 515

use of an automatic GSMM reconstruction tool (CarveMe[31]), though increasingly used 516

for depicting phenotypic landscapes, is generally less accurate than manual curation of 517

metabolic models[32]. This approach typically neglects specialized functions involving 518

secondary metabolism[16] and introduces additional biases such as the overestimation of 519

auxotrophies[76,77]. Nevertheless, manual curation is practically non-realistic for 520

hundreds of MAGs, an expected outcome considering the volume of sequencing 521

projects nowadays. As the primary motivation of this framework is the development of 522

a tool capable of transforming high-throughput, low-cost genomic information into 523

testable predictions, the use of automatic metabolic network reconstruction tools was 524

favored, despite their inherent limitations, in pursuit of addressing the necessity of 525

pipelines systematically analyzing metagenomics data. 526

       For these reasons, among others, the framework presented here is not intended 527

to be used as a stand-alone tool for determining microbial function. The framework 528

presented is designed to be used as a platform to generate educated hypotheses 529

regarding bacterial function in a specific environment in conjunction with actual carbon 530

substrates available in the particular ecosystem under study. The hypotheses generated 531

provide a starting point for experimental testing required to gain actual, targeted and 532

feasible applicable insights[38,42]. While recognizing its limitations, this framework is in 533

fact highly versatile and can be used for the characterization of a variety of microbial 534

communities and environments. Given a set of MAGs derived from a specific 535

environment and environmental metabolomics data, this computational framework 536

provides a generic simulation platform for a wide and diverse range of future 537

applications. 538

       In the current study, the root environment was represented by a single pool of 539

resources (metabolites). As genuine root environments are highly dynamic and 540

responsive to stimuli, a single environment can represent at best a temporary snapshot 541

of the conditions. Conductance of simulations with several sets of resource pools (e.g., 542

representing temporal variations in exudation profile) can add insights on their effect 543

on trophic interactions and community dynamics. In parallel, confirming predictions 544

made in various environments will support an iterative process that will strengthen the predictive power of the framework and improve its accuracy as a tool for generating testable hypotheses. Similarly, complementing the genomics-based approaches done here with additional layers of 'omics information (mainly transcriptomics & metabolomics) can further constrain the solution space, deflate the number of potential metabolic routes and yield more accurate predictions of GSMMs' performances[33].

To summarize, we have constructed a framework enabling the analysis of interactions between microbes and between microbes and their hosts in their natural environment. Where recent studies begin to apply GSMM reconstruction and analysis starting from MAGs[33,78], this work applies the MAGs to GSMMs approach to conduct large-scale CBM analysis over high-quality MAGs derived from a native rhizosphere and explore the complex network of interactions in light of the functioning of the respective agro-ecosystem.

The application of this framework to the apple rhizobiome yielded a wealth of preliminary knowledge about the metabolic interactions occurring within it, including novel information on putative functions performed by bacteria in healthy vs. replant-diseased soil systems, and potential metabolic routes to control these functions. Overall, this framework aims to advance efforts seeking to unravel the intricate world of microbial interactions in complex environments including the plant rhizosphere. The framework is provided as a three stage-detailed pipeline in https://github.com/FreilichLab/Trophic_interactions_predicting_framework.

Methods

Recovery of Metagenomics Assembled Genomes MAGs from metagenomics data constructed for apple rhizosphere microbiomes

High coverage shotgun metagenomics sequence data were obtained from microbial DNA extracted from the rhizosphere of apple rootstocks cultivated in soil from a replant diseased orchard[42]. The experimental design included sampling of six different soil/apple rootstock treatments with five biological replicates each, as described in Somera et al. 2021[41]. Two different apple rootstocks (M26, ARD susceptible; G210, ARD tolerant) were grown in three different treatments: 1) orchard soil amended with *Brassica napus* seed meal, 2) orchard soil amended with *Brassica*

juncea/*Sinapis alba* seed meal (BjSa) and 3) no-treatment control soil (NTC) (see Supp. Table 1). Microbial DNA was extracted from rhizosphere soil and metagenomics data were assembled as described in[42]. In each assembly contigs were binned to recover MAGs using MetaWRAP pipeline (v1.3.1), which utilizes several independent binners[40]. The MAGs recovered by the different binners were collectively processed with the Bin_refinement module of metaWRAP, producing an output of a refined bin collection. A count table was constructed by mapping raw reads data of each assembly (e.g., BjSa; G210) to the bins, using BWA-MEM mapping software (version 0.7.17) with default parameters. Differential abundance (DA) of the reads associated with the respective bins in each assembly across the respective replicates was determined using the edgeR function implemented in R, requiring FDR adapted *p* value< 0.05. Read mapping information is shown in Supp. Table 1. Based on DA, MAGs were classified either as associated with healthy soil (H; BjSa differentially abundant), sick soil (S; NTC differentially abundant), or not associated with either soil type (NA; not differentially abundant at any treatment site).

Gene calling and annotation was performed with the Annotate_bins module of MetaWRAP. Pathway completeness was determined with KEGG Decoder v 1.0.8.2[79] based on the KO annotations extracted from Annotate_bins assignments. The quality of the genomes was determined with CheckM[80]. For phylogenomic analyses and taxonomic classification of each bacterial and archaeal genome, we searched for and aligned 120 bacterial marker genes of the MAGs using the identity and align commands of GTDB-Tk v1.5.0[44]. MAGs were dereplicated using dRep v2.3.2[81] using the default settings and MAGs from the six assemblies were clustered into a single non-redundant set. Phylogenomic trees were rooted by randomly selecting a genome from the sister lineage to the genus as determined from the topology of the bacterial and archaeal GTDB R06-RS202 reference trees. Closely related GTDB taxa identified with the "classify_wf" workflow were filtered using the taxa-filter option during the alignment step. Overall, a set of 395 high-quality genomes (≥90% completeness, <5% contamination) was used for downstream analyses.

Genome Scale Metabolic Model (GSMM) reconstruction, analysis and characterization of the MAG collection

GSMMs were constructed for each of the 395 MAGs using CarveMe v 1.5.1 [31], a python-based tool for GSMM reconstruction. Installation and usage of CarveMe was done as suggested in the original CarveMe webpage (https://carveme.readthedocs.io/en/latest/). The solver used for GSMM reconstruction is Cplex (v. 12.8.0.0). All GSMMs were drafted without gap filling as it might mask metabolic co-dependencies[52]. Stoichiometric consistency of all GSMMs was systematically assessed via the standardized MEMOTE test suite, a tool for GSMM quality and completion assessment[47]. GSMMs not stoichiometrically balanced were filtered out, as they might produce infeasible simulation results.

Analyses and simulations of GSMMs, as well as retrieval of model attributes (reactions, metabolites and exchanges, etc.), were conducted via the vast array of methods found in COBRApy[82], a python coding language package for analyzing constraint-based reconstructions. For each GSMM, initial growth simulations took place in three different model-specific environments: rich medium, poor medium and poor medium + exudates. The rich medium was composed of all the exchange reactions (i.e., exchange reaction for specific compounds) a model holds, gathered by the "exchanges" attribute found in each model. The poor medium was composed of the minimal set of compounds required for a specific GSMM/species to grow at a fixed rate. This set of compounds was identified using the minimal_medium module from COBRApy (minimize components=True, growth rate of 0.1 biomass increase hour^{-1}). Poor medium + exudates was defined as the poor medium with the addition of an array of apple root exudates. These compounds were retrieved from two metabolomics studies characterizing the exudates of apple rootstocks grown in Lane Mountain Sand (Valley, WA)[48,49]. Exudate compounds were aligned with the BIGG database[83] in order to format them for use in COBRApy. For each media type, GSMM growth rates were calculated by solving each model using the summary method in COBRApy, which utilizes Flux Balance Analysis (FBA) for maximizing biomass.

Construction of a common root environment medium and application of the Microbial Community Succession Module (MCSM)

In order to simulate the dynamics of the rhizosphere community in the root environment, a fourth growth medium representing a natural-like environment was defined and termed the "rhizosphere environment". The rhizosphere environment was

composed of two arrays of compounds: 1) the exudates (as described above) and 2)   646
inorganic compounds essential for sustaining bacterial growth. This array was   647
determined according to the minimal set of compounds identified for each GSMM (also   648
described above). Rhizosphere environment components are provided in Supp. Table   649
2. Both sets of compounds were then consolidated into one array in which further   650
simulations were conducted.   651

      The MCSM (which is the first module out of three comprising this   652
computational framework) simulates the growth of a microbial community by   653
iteratively growing the GSMMs in the community and adding compounds "secreted"   654
by the growing species to the simulation-environment (i.e. the medium), thus enriching   655
the medium/environment and supporting further growth. Unlike Flux Balance Analysis   656
(FBA), which is used for gathering an arbitrary solution regarding non-optimized   657
fluxes, the MCSM uses Flux Variability Analysis (FVA) to determine exchange   658
fluxes[84]. FVA gathers the full range of exchange fluxes (including both secretion and   659
uptake) that satisfy the objective function of a GSMM (i.e., biomass increase). The   660
FVA fraction of optimum was set to 0.9 (sustaining the objective function at 90%   661
optimality, allowing a less restricted secretion profile). Secretion compounds added to   662
the updated medium in each iteration were set to be given in optimal fluxes in next   663
iteration, to ensure a metabolic effect based on the presence of specific metabolites in   664
the environment, rather than their quantity. Flux boundaries of updated medium   665
components were set to 1000 mmol/ gDW hour (for a specific exchange compound;   666
gDW gram Dry Weight).   667

      MCSM was initially simulated in the rhizosphere environment medium. After   668
each growth iteration, GSMM growth-values and the compounds secreted by the   669
species growing were collected, where the latter were added to the medium for the next   670
iteration as described above. Growth iterations continued until no new compounds were   671
secreted and no additional GSMMs had grown. After the 3rd iteration, a set of organic   672
phosphorous compounds (containing both carbon and phosphorous) was added to the   673
environment. These compounds were gathered from the pool of model-specific   674
minimal compounds selected for use in the poor medium. Information regarding the   675
chemical formula of these compounds was gathered with the formula attribute of each   676
compound object in COBRApy. Along MCSM iterations, secreted metabolites were   677
classified into biochemical categories based on BRITE annotations[85] or, in the absence   678
of classification, manually. MCSM was further applied to inspect the framework's   679

ability to tracing cellulose degradation using cellulose medium (Supp. Table 3). The
tutorial for the MCSM stage of the framework workflow is found at the GitHub page,
along with the GSMMs and media files. Instructions for conducting the analysis are in
the   README.md   file
https://github.com/FreilichLab/Trophic_interactions_predicting_framework.

Construction of the exchange network and its untangling for screening sub-network motifs

For each GSMM, a directed bipartite network representing all potential metabolic
exchanges occurring within the rhizosphere community was constructed based on
uptake and secretion data derived from MCSM iterations. Edges in the network were
connected between GSMM nodes and metabolite nodes, with edge directionality
indicating either secretion or uptake of a metabolite by a specific GSMM. The network
was constructed with the networkx package, a python language package for the
exploration and analysis of networks and network algorithms. Network-specific
topography was obtained using the Kamada-kawai layout[86]. Information regarding the
degree and connectivity of the different node types was acquired from the graph object
(G). Code for the network construction module in the framework is found at the
project's GitHub page under the name NETWORK.py.

Untangling the exchange network into individual paths (i.e. sub-network
motifs) was done using the all_shortest_paths function in networkx[86], applied over the
exchanges network. Briefly, the algorithm screens for all possible shortest paths within
the network, specifically screening for paths starting with an exudate node and ending
secreted metabolite nodes (secreted by bacterial species but not consumed). This
algorithm yielded two types of paths: 1) plant-microbe paths (PM) in which node
positions one, two, and three represented exudate, microbe and secreted metabolite,
respectively, and 2) plant-microbe-microbe paths (PMM). PMM paths (length of five
nodes) were constructed based on PM paths (length of three nodes), in which positions
four and five displayed unique (i.e. not found in PM paths) microbe and metabolite
nodes, respectively. Code for the network untangling module in the framework is found
at the project's GitHub page under the name PATHS.py.

Associating PM and PMM sub-network motifs features with soil health

Sub-network motifs (PM and PMM) were functionally classified as associated with healthy soil (H), sick soil (S), or not-associated with either soil type (NA) based on differential abundance of the corresponding MAGs (PM) or MAGs combination (PMM) in the sub-network. Next, the GSMMs in both PM and PMM sub-networks were characterized according functional classification. For PMMs, the distribution of counts of classified sub-networks, at the different positions, was compared using the ANOVA test, followed by a Tukey test to significantly distinguish the groups. GSMM classifications were further projected on uptake and secreted metabolites in the pathway motifs. For simplification, the analysis focused only on PM paths because PMM paths incorporate PM paths, and exchanges within a PMM path do not directly reflect the effect of an exudate on the secreted end-product (but over the intermediate compound). On that account, start/end metabolites in PM paths were associated with H/S/NA paths based on one-sided hypergeometric test, comparing the frequency of each compound in a functionally characterized path type (either H or S) vs. its frequency in NA classified paths and the reciprocal data set.

Data availability

A reproducible workflow for central computational analyses was deposited in https://github.com/FreilichLab/Trophic_interactions_predicting_framework, including all GSMMs. Raw metagenome sequences used in this study have been deposited in NCBI under BioProject accession number PRJNA779554 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA779554). MAGs FASTA sequences generated and used in this work are located in https://github.com/FreilichLab/Ginatt_MAGs.

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regarding the conductance of quality control tests over the genome scale metabolic models. We would also like to thank Maya Bar Yehuda for graphical design.

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Rhizosphere

Microorganism

Metagenome

Microbial DNA extraction

Genome recovery

MAGs

GSMM reconstruction

GSMMs

root metabolomics data

Root exudates

Microorganism

Secreted compounds

Rhizosphere

Metabolic interplay characterization

Exchange metabolites

Constraint Based Modeling (CBM)

Elucidation of microbial metabolic interactions

Fig. 1 | A framework for interpreting and characterizing the network of metabolic interactions of root associated bacteria. Going from obscure rhizosphere (upper circle) to the elucidated rhizosphere (lower circle): Microbial genomic DNA extracted from rhizosphere soil serves the construction of a rhizosphere-derived metagenome and the recovery of rhizosphere community Metagenome Assembled Genomes (MAGs). For each MAG, a Genome Scale Metabolic Model (GSMM) is built, representing a specific species in the microbial community. Apple-root exudate profiles based on metabolomics data are used for the construction of a simulation environment. Via Constraint Based Modelling (CBM), applied on GSMMs, interactions are characterized in the simulated root environment, yielding predictive information regarding potential trophic exchanges within the native rhizosphere microbial community.

Phyla

- Acidobacteriota
- Actinobacteriota
- Armatimonadota
- Bacteriodota
- Chlamydiota
- Chloroflexota
- Desulfobacterota_B
- Eisenbacteria
- Elusimicrobiota
- Fibrobacterota
- Gemmatimonadota
- Myxococcota
- Nitrospirota
- Omnitrophota
- Planctomycetota
- Proteobacteria
- Verrucomicrobiota
- N/A
- Others

A

B

Binned-SG

Non-binned SG

16S rRNA amplicon

% Relative Abundance

Treatment 1
Treatment 2
Treatment 3
Treatment 4
Treatment 5
Treatment 6

Treatment 1
Treatment 2
Treatment 3
Treatment 4
Treatment 5
Treatment 6

Treatment 1
Treatment 2
Treatment 3
Treatment 4
Treatment 5
Treatment 6

Sample

Fig. 2 | Phylogenomic surveys of the genomic collection assembled from sequence data derived from apple rhizosphere samples. A. A phylogenomic tree constructed from 395 de-replicated MAGs extracted from the metagenomes. The tree is based on concatenated marker proteins according to GTDB-Tk[44]. B. Relative abundance of bacterial taxa at the phylum level as inferred from different phylogenomic classification approaches applied for the same samples: Binned-SG (MAGs derived from shotgun metagenomics); Non-binned SG (contigs derived from shotgun metagenomics); 16S rRNA amplicon derived from the same samples. Taxonomic classifications of rRNA amplicon data and non-binned-SG sequences are taken from Somera et al.[41] and Berihu et al.[42], respectively. Shotgun metagenomics data from Berihu et. al was used here for construction of MAGs catalogue. "Treatments 1 – 6" relate to six specific combinations of rootstock and soil amendment as detailed in Supp. Table 1. Relative abundance was calculated as the average value in five replicates conducted for each treatment.

A

Root environment compounds (Exudates)

Microorganisms growing in the initial root environment

Rhizosphere medium updated with microbial secretions

Secreted compounds

i=1

i=2

i=n

B

Iteration 1   N=27
Iteration 2   N=60
Iteration 3   N=71
Iteration 4   N=80
Iteration 5   N=84

Growth rate (biomass * hour⁻¹)

C

N=243   N=27   ΔN=33   ΔN=11   ΔN=9   ΔN=4

Prevalence in Iteration (%)

Community   i=1   i=2   i=3   i=4   i=5

Phylum

- Acidobacteriota
- Actinobacteriota
- Armatimonadota
- Bacteriodota
- Chlamydiota
- Chloroflexota
- Desulfobacterota_B
- Eisenbacteria
- Elusimicrobiota
- Fibrobacterota
- Gemmatimonadota
- Myxococcota
- Nitrospirota
- Omnitrophota
- Planctomycetota
- Proteobacteria
- Verrucomicrobiota

D

N=33   ΔN=111   ΔN=25   ΔN=3   ΔN=12   ΔN=2

Prevalence in Iteration (%)

Root exudates   i=1   i=2   i=3   i=4   i=5

Metabolite Classification

- Alkaloids
- Amines
- Amino acids
- Urea
- Fatty acyls
- Monosaccharides
- Nucleic acids
- Organic acids
- Other carbohydrates
- Phenols
- Sugar alcohols
- Vitamins and cofactors

Fig. 3 | Microbial Community Succession Module (MCSM), and characterization of trophic dynamics in the community along iterations. A. An illustration of the iterative microbial community growth module, representing the growth of community members along iterations starting in the "Rhizosphere environment" and updated with microbial secretion outputs. B. Growth rate characterization of GSMMs in the community along iterations. Each column in the heat-map represents a different GSMM (only models which have grown in the rhizosphere environment are presented); growth rate is indicated by the color bar. Iterations are represented by rows. Blank spaces indicate models not growing at that specific iteration. N is the total number of species that grew after each iteration. C. Distribution of GSMMs growing along iterations at the phylum level. D. Distribution of organic compounds secreted along iterations, classified into biochemical groups. Root exudates bar (far left) represents the classification of organic compounds in the initial "Rhizosphere environment". Numbers on top of bars in both C, and D (designated by N) denotes the number of new entries in a specific iteration, with respect to the previous iteration.

B

N = 84

S 31%
H 19%
NA 50%

C

4-Hydroxybenzoate   GSMM_091   Catechol

(PM)

D

3,4- dihidroxy   GSMM_306   Ornithine   GSMM_380   glycero-phospho-
trans-cinnemate   glycerol

(PMM)

Legend:
- S (red)
- H (green)
- NA (yellow)
- Metabolite (grey)

Fig. 4 | Trophic interactions based on community exchange fluxes predicted along iterations in the simulated rhizosphere environment. A. Network representation of potential metabolite exchanges between rhizosphere community members. Edges in the network are directional; arrowhead from a grey node (metabolite) pointing towards a colorful node (GSMM) indicates uptake; arrowhead from a colorful node (GSMM) pointing towards a grey node (metabolite) indicates secretion. Node colors correspond to differential abundance classification of GSMMs in the different plots; H, S, NA are Healthy, Sick, Not-Associated, respectively. Metabolites found in the center of the network are of a higher connectivity degree (i.e., are involved in more exchanges). Only organic compounds are included in the network. Grey rectangles illustrate a zoom-in to specific 5 and 3 partite sub-networks (C, D). **B.** Pie chart distribution of GSMMs classified according to differential abundance of reads mapped to the respective MAGs; N is the total number of GSMMs in the network. **C, D.** Examples of specific sub-network motifs derived from the community network; PM (a three component sub-network motif, upper); PMM (a five component sub-network motif, lower), respectively. The full list of PM and PMM sub-network motifs is found in Supplementary data 9.

Fig. 5 | Characterization of PM and PMM sub-network motifs' features associated with differentially abundant (DA) GSMMs. **A.** Count distribution of PMM sub-networks determined by GSMMs in the first microbial position classified as either healthy (H), sick (S), or non-associated (NA). Boxes extend from first quantile to the third quantile, middle line represents the median; dots outside whiskers indicate outliers. Distinction of groups was determined using ANOVA followed by the Tukey post-hoc test. Asterisks indicate significance of test (*** <= 0.005 ** <= 0.01 * <= 0.05) **B.** Bar plot indicating the number of exudates significantly associated with H or S-classified PM sub-networks (Hypergeometric test; FDR <= 0.05; green: healthy-H, red: sick-S). **C.** Bar plots indicate the number of secreted compounds in PM sub-networks, which are significantly associated with H-classified (upper, colored green), or S-classified (lower, colored red) (Hypergeometric test; FDR <= 0.05). Compound name identifiers were taken from the BIGG database (X-axes). Venn diagram on the right represents the intersection of secreted compounds derived from both S and H classified PM sub-networks.

Table. 1 | Apple root exudates adopted from the works of Leisso et al.[48,49], included in the rhizosphere environment.	
	L-asparagine
	L-aspartate
Amino acids	*L-cysteine*
	L-valine
	Beta-Alanine
	Rhamnose
	Glycerate
Monosaccharides	*Ribose*
	Galactose
	Xylose
	Erythrose
	Sorbitol
Sugar-alcohols	*Galactitol*
	Glycerol
	3,4-Dihydroxybenzoate
	3,4-Dihydroxy-trans-cinnamate
	4-Hydroxybenzoate
	Benzoate
	Esculin
Other carbohydrates	*Ferulate*
	Gallic acid
	Quinate
	Salicin
	Trans-Cinnamate
	D-Galacturonate
	D-Lactate
	D-Malate
Organic acids	*Malonate*
	Oxalate
	Pyruvate
	Succinate
Carbamides	*Urea*
Fatty acyls	*Octadecanoic acid*

Supplementary information

A metabolic modeling-based framework for predicting trophic dependencies in native rhizobiomes of crop plants

Ginatt et al.

List of Content

Supplementary Figure 1. Metabolic pathway completion analysis of community de-replicated MAGs. The presented cluster map links the MAGs with different metabolic pathways based on completion values of a specific metabolic pathway. Values are concluded based on the ratio between the count of EC numbers present in a MAG, which correspond to a specific pathway (derived from annotated genes), and the total EC numbers in that specific KEGG pathway. Left axis represent the KEGG KO of a set of specific functions, which are indicated on the right axis. Top and bottom color bars on the upper axis represent the taxonomic annotation of the MAGs (phylum and class, respectively), which are indicated on the bottom axis.

Supplementary Figure 2. Distribution of GSMM attributes at the phylum level. Subplots of reactions, metabolites and exchanges presenting the distribution of the respective attributes for each group of bacteria, affiliated with a specific phylum.

Supplementary Figure 3. Bacterial growth rates in different environments. Each row represents the growth rate (biomass increase hour-1) of species in a specialized medium; from top to bottom: poor medium, poor medium supplemented with root exudates, root environment medium and rich medium. Each column represents a GSMM. Models are sorted by their growth score in the root environment medium. Poor, Rich, and Poor + exudates media are model specific, thus sustain growth of all models. The horizontal color bar on top of the plot represents the phyla of the corresponding GSMM. Actual growth values are provided in Supp. Data 5.

Supplementary Figure 4. **FVA performances of GSMMs in different environments** (Supp. Fig. 3, Supp. Data 5).
A. Distribution of potentially active exchange reactions (non-zero minimum FVA flux) in the different environments . Solid line inside each violin indicates the interquartile range (IQR). White point in IQR indicates the median value. Whiskers extending from the IQR indicate the range within 1.5 times the IQR from the quartiles. Violin width at a given value represents the density of data points at that value. **B**. Loopless FVA scores compared to regular FVA for models in the 3 different environments. Bars indicate the count of active fluxes (non-zero minimum FVA flux). Only a subset of models was used for this analysis.

Supplementary Figure 5**.** P**hylogenetic distribution of models growing along iterations at the order level.** Bars represent the taxonomic distribution of the community (i.e., overall models that grew along iteration, with respect to the corresponding iteration). Colors are indicative of different orders. Orders with insufficient nomenclature were classified as "Others".

Supplementary Figure 6. Uptake **and secretion degrees of biochemically-classified metabolite nodes, as inferred from the communal interaction network.** Values indicate mean amount of links between community GSMMs and nodes classified to the corresponding category. Biochemical classification was conducted both based on BRITE database and manually.

Supplementary Figure 7. Application of MCSM over the process of cellulose decomposition as described by Kato et al[1]. 5-partite network exhibiting the uptake of cellulose oligomers (4 and 6 units of connected D-glucose) by primary decomposers, through secretion of intermediate compounds and their metabolization by secondary decomposers to CO2. Distribution of phyla of primary and secondary decomposers is denoted by pie charts. Though MAGs were notconstructed for the original species as in Kato et al., among the primary consumers, species corresponding to the Acidobacteria (Acidobacteriales)[2], Actinobacteria[3], Bacteriodetes[4], Proteobacteria (Xanthomonadales)[5] and Verrucobacteria[6] groups are found to be capable of degrading cellulose compounds via enzymatic mechanisms.

Supplementary Figure 8. **Community GSMM-centric characterization of plant-microbe** P**M) and plant- microbe-microbe** (P**MM) motifs. A, B, C**. Frequency of community GSMMs in) PM, PMM (first/second position) in subnetwork motifs, respectively. **D.** correlation of GSMMs position frequency in PMM subnetworks; Pearson, P value=0.009.

Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1. Summary table of the mapping of reads to MAGs across treatments. Treatment types are fully descriebd in Berihu et al[7].

Treatment	Sample	#reads	#mapped reads vs. Bins	mapping rates
1	BjSa_G210_1	318,022,594	112,624,412	35.41
1	BjSa_G210_2	281,761,476	99,921,545	35.46
1	BjSa_G210_3	416,038,372	145,599,092	35
1	BjSa_G210_4	282,301,036	95,304,805	33.76
1	BjSa_G210_5	447,141,566	160,309,647	35.85
2	BjSa_M26_1	376,878,959	135,763,911	36.02
2	BjSa_M26_2	347,182,908	122,895,292	35.4
2	BjSa_M26_3	416,564,165	144,390,674	34.66
2	BjSa_M26_4	665,109,915	236,939,650	35.62
2	BjSa_M26_5	467,544,898	162,091,275	34.67
3	Can_G210_1	337,813,971	109,814,240	32.51
3	Can_G210_2	326,790,059	105,115,075	32.17
3	Can_G210_3	290,305,045	94,566,244	32.57
3	Can_G210_4	467,206,263	153,295,356	32.81
3	Can_G210_5	317,179,883	98,665,507	31.11
4	Can_M26_1	346,489,491	116,381,526	33.59
4	Can_M26_2	332,022,731	107,875,006	32.49
4	Can_M26_3	281,669,999	93,377,935	33.15
4	Can_M26_4	352,892,914	114,191,672	32.36
4	Can_M26_5	423,521,175	142,376,677	33.62
5	NTC_G210_1	322,470,447	101,793,678	31.57
5	NTC_G210_2	381,163,976	116,560,703	30.58
5	NTC_G210_3	394,506,571	128,257,851	32.51
5	NTC_G210_4	289,809,167	88,881,030	30.67
5	NTC_G210_5	440,239,346	132,706,841	30.14
6	NTC_M26_1	359,395,622	106,970,231	29.76
6	NTC_M26_2	567,592,079	177,868,308	31.34
6	NTC_M26_3	619,940,510	189,976,498	30.64
6	NTC_M26_4	371,318,086	108,134,325	29.12
6	NTC_M26_5	340,890,336	102,616,038	30.1

Supplementray Table 2. Table of compounds used throughout iterations in the MCSM

inorganic compounds	Root exudates	Organic phosphoroic compounds
Sodium	Pyruvate	AMP C10H12N5O7P
Hydrogen peroxide	Benzoate	CMP C9H12N3O8P
Inorganic triphosphate	L-Cysteine	DTMP C10H13N2O8P
Chromate	Urea	D-Glucose 1-phosphate
Iron (Fe3+)	Gallic acid	Glycerophosphoserine
Diphosphate	D-Galacturonate	UDPglucose
Cadmium	L-Asparagine	Coenzyme A
2 Hydroxylamino 4 6 dinitrotoluene	Quinate	D-Mannose 1-phosphate
Copper	L-Valine	2(alpha-D-Mannosyl-6-phosphate)-D-glycerate
Nitrite	L-Aspartate	UDP-N-acetyl-3-O-(1-carboxyvinyl)-D-glucosamine
Copper	Succinate	2',3'-Cyclic AMP
Arsenite	Galactitol	2',3'-Cyclic CMP
Nickel	4-Hydroxybenzoate	2',3'-Cyclic GMP
Mercury	Beta-Alanine	Guanosine 3 phosphate C10H12N5O8P
Hydrogen	D-Galactose	D-Fructose 6-phosphate
Ammonia	Trans-Cinnamate	Glycerophosphoglycerol
Ammonium	Ferulate	NMN C11H14N2O8P
Potassium	D-Sorbitol	Phosphate
Silver	D-Malate	Diphosphate
Reduced ferredoxin	D-Ribose	Alpha,alpha'-Trehalose 6-phosphate
Oxidized ferredoxin	D-Lactate	3 AMP C10H12N5O7P
Polyphosphate 50	3,4-Dihydroxy-trans-cinnamate	Sn-Glycero-3-phosphocholine
Hydrogen sulfide	D-Xylose	Sn-Glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine
Zinc	Glycerate	Sn-Glycero-3-phospho-1-inositol
Arsenate	Malonate	D-Glucuronate 1-phosphate
Phosphonate	Oxalate	Glycerol 2-phosphate
Magnesium	D-Erythrose	O-Phospho-L-serine
Manganese	Glycerol	Alpha-D-Ribose 5-phosphate
Nitrous oxide	Octadecanoic acid	UMP C9H11N2O9P
Sulfur	Salicin	Undecaprenyl diphosphate
Fe2+ mitochondria	Esculin	2-Phosphoglycolate
H2O	Rhamnose	Propanoyl phosphate
3Fe-4S] damaged iron-sulfur cluster	3,4-Dihydroxybenzoate	Beta D glucose 6 phosphate C6H11O9P
Molybdate		3 CMP C9H12N3O8P
4Fe-4S] iron-sulfur cluster		3 UMP C9H11N2O9P
Chloride		Glycerol 3-phosphate
Superoxide anion		GMP C10H12N5O8P
Sulfate		UDP-N-acetyl-D-glucosamine
Nitrogen		2-Aminoethylphosphonate
Cobalt		Undecaprenyl phosphate
Tetrathionate		
2 Hydroxylamino 4 6 dinitrotoluene		
4 Hydroxylamino 2 6 dinitrotoluene		
Trithionate		
Selenate		
Calcium		
Nitric oxide		
Phosphate		
Thiosulfate		

Supplementary Table 3. Initial medium compounds used in MCSM Cellulose degradation process

BIGG_identifier	Name	elements
EX_cell4_e	Cellulose - 4 glucose units	['C', 'H', 'O']
EX_cell6_e	Cellulose - 6 glucose units	['C', 'H', 'O']
EX_3amp_e	3-Adenosine-monophosphate	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O', 'P']
EX_3cmp_e	3-Cytosine-monophosphate	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O', 'P']
EX_3gmp_e	3-Guanine-monophosphate	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O', 'P']
EX_ade_e	Adenine	['C', 'H', 'N']
EX_agm_e	Agmitine	['C', 'H', 'N']
EX_amp_e	Adenosine-monophosphate	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O', 'P']
EX_arg__L_e	Arginine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_asn__L_e	Aspargine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_ca2_e	Calcium	['Ca']
EX_cl_e	Cholrine	['Cl']
EX_cmp_e	Cytidine-monophosphate	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O', 'P']
EX_coa_e	Co-enzyme A	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O', 'P', 'S']
EX_cobalt2_e	Cobalt	['Co']
EX_cu2_e	Copper	['Cu']
EX_cyst__L_e	Cysteine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O', 'S']
EX_fe2_e	Fe2+	['Fe']
EX_fe3_e	Fe3+	['Fe']
EX_fe3dcit_e	Fe3+ di-citrate	['C', 'Fe', 'H', 'O']
EX_fe3pyovd_kt_e	Pyoverdine	['C', 'Fe', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_feenter_e	Enterobactin	['C', 'Fe', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_gln__L_e	Glutamine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_his__L_e	Histidine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_hom__L_e	Homoserine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_ile__L_e	Isoleucine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_k_e	Potassium	['K']
EX_leu__L_e	Leucine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_lys__L_e	Lysine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_mg2_e	Magnesium	['Mg']
EX_mn2_e	Manganese	['Mn']
EX_nh4_e	Ammonium	['H', 'N']
EX_nmn_e	Nicotine-mononucleotide	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O', 'P']
EX_no2_e	Nitrite	['N', 'O']
EX_no3_e	Nitrate	['N', 'O']
EX_o2_e	Oxygen	['O']
EX_orn__L_e	Ornithine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_phe__L_e	Phenylalanine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_pi_e	Phosphate	['H', 'O', 'P']
EX_ppi_e	Diphosphate	['H', 'O', 'P']
EX_pro__L_e	Proline	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_salchs4fe_e	Salmochelin	['C', 'Fe', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_so4_e	Sulafte	['O', 'S']
EX_thm_e	Thiamin	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O', 'S']
EX_thr__L_e	Threonine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_tol_e	Toluene	['C', 'H']
EX_trp__L_e	Tryptophan	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_tsul_e	Thiosulfate	['O', 'S']
EX_tyr__L_e	Tyrosine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_ump_e	Uracil-monophosphate	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O', 'P']
EX_val__L_e	Valine	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_zn2_e	Zinc	['Zn']
EX_tet_e	Tetrathionate	['O', 'S']
EX_fe3dhbzs3_e	2-3-dihydroxybenzoylserine	['C', 'Fe', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_cu_e	Copper	['Cu']
EX_fcmcbtt_e	Carboxymyobactin	['C', 'Fe', 'H', 'N', 'O']
EX_tton_e	Trithionate	['H', 'O', 'S']
EX_fol_e	Folate	['C', 'H', 'N', 'O']

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