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1	Uncovering microbial food webs using machine learning
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16	
17	Authorship: JMB and VEJJ contributed equally to the project. VEJJ had the original idea. VEJJ and
18	JMB conceived the study in close consultation with OLP. JMB assembled the database of microbial
19	feeding links with the help of VEJJ. VEJJ provided the case study data. VEJJ and JMB developed the
20	modelling framework with the help of AG and OLP. VEJJ performed the statistical analyses with the
21	help of JMB. VEJJ wrote the manuscript in close consultation with JMB and OLP. All authors
22	contributed to the final form of the manuscript.

23 Abstract

24 Microbial trophic interactions are an important aspect of microbiomes in any ecosystem. They can 25 reveal how microbial diversity modulates ecosystem functioning. However, uncovering microbial feeding interactions is a challenge because direct observation of predation is difficult with classical 26 approaches such as behaviour and gut contents analyses. To overcome this issue, recent developments 27 28 in trait-matching and machine-learning approaches are promising for successfully inferring microbial feeding links. Here, we tested the ability of six machine-learning algorithms for predicting microbial 29 30 feeding links, based on species traits and taxonomy. By incorporating organism speed, size and abundance into the model predictions, we further estimated the probability of feeding links occurring. 31 We found that the boost-regression trees predicted feeding links between microbes best. Sensitivity 32 analyses showed that feeding predictions were robust against false feeding links and faulty predictors 33 in the training set, and capable of predicting feeding links for empirical datasets containing up to 50% 34 35 of new taxa. We cross-validated our predictions using an empirical dataset from a Sphagnumdominated peatland with direct feeding observations for two dominant testate amoeba predators. The 36 37 feeding habits of the two testate amoeba species were comparable between microscopic observations and model predictions. Machine learning thus offers a means to develop robust models for studying 38 microbial food webs in ecosystems. They offer a route to combine traditional observations with DNA-39 40 based sampling strategies to upscale soil biodiversity research along ecological gradients.

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Keywords: microbiomes, feeding habits, predation, food web modelling, micro-eukaryotes, feeding
 link strength, peatlands

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Microorganisms are the biogeochemical engineers of life on Earth (Falkowski et al., 2008). Their activity cycles major elements, such as H, C, N, O, S, and P, supporting life in higher trophic levels. In particular, 46 microorganisms govern terrestrial carbon cycling through their role in greenhouse gas emissions (Singh 47 et al., 2010), carbon cycling (Schimel and Schaeffer, 2012; Liang et al., 2017), plant growth (Guo et al., 48 2022), and primary productivity (Schimel and Schaeffer, 2012; Jassey et al., 2022). In light of current 49 and future climate predictions, understanding and predicting the response of microorganisms- from 50 bacteria to protists— and the ecosystem services they provide to environmental change has never been 51 52 more important (Singh et al., 2010; Jansson and Hofmockel, 2020; Naylor et al., 2020; Guerra et al., 2022). 53

High-throughput sequencing and global analyses have been fundamental in revealing the 54 broad diversity of microorganisms across terrestrial systems (Tedersoo et al., 2014; de Vargas et al., 55 56 2015; Delgado Baquerizo et al., 2018; Oliverio et al., 2020; Singer et al., 2021; Xiong et al., 2021). In 57 addition to the essential bacterial and fungal diversity, these studies particularly highlighted an 58 unexpected diversity of predators (Oliverio et al., 2020; Petters et al., 2021; Xiong et al., 2021), suggesting the importance of predation in shaping microbial diversity in soils. Predation is indeed 59 increasingly recognized as a dominant driver of bacterial and fungal community structures in soils (Gao 60 et al., 2018; Amacker et al., 2022; Pierce and Dutton, 2022), and hence, of key ecosystem processes 61 such as nutrient and carbon cycling and plant health (Séneca et al., 2021; Amacker et al., 2022). 62 Uncovering microbial food webs to reveal the feeding interactions among organisms and characterizing 63 64 their specific contribution to ecosystem processes across space and time is thus a clear next step to 65 advance our ability to construct accurate predictive models for global carbon flux under climate change 66 (Geisen, 2021). However, our knowledge of microbial feeding interactions is mostly based on broad functional groups and/or a few model species (Geisen et al., 2016; Mestre et al., 2022). With the 67 growing awareness that even closely related microbial species may differ in their feeding habits (Jassey 68 69 et al., 2012a, 2013b) comes the question of how to identify and quantify the feeding interactions of the hundreds of species coexisting in a single gram of soil (Pierce and Dutton, 2022). Indeed, microbial 70 71 consumers exhibit a large variety of morphologies, feeding habits, and life strategies (e.g. mixotrophy) 72 that can influence their feeding interactions with other organisms (Potapov et al., 2022), and their impact on the food web structure and ecosystem functions (Jassey et al., 2013b, 2015; Mieczan et al.,2015).

75 Understanding how microbes interact with each other within a system is challenging. Recently, 76 co-occurrence networks have been increasingly used to explore the spatial or temporal patterns of co-77 occurrence between pairs of taxa, and relate shifts in their properties to ecosystem changes (Faust and 78 Raes, 2012; de Vries et al., 2018). Although informative and very useful to extract simple patterns from 79 complex datasets, these networks are often misused (Goberna and Verdú, 2022) and cannot in any circumstance reflect trophic interactions between organisms. Because direct observation of microbial 80 feeding interactions is extremely difficult, researchers had to use alternative solutions. For instance, 81 they used correlation-based analyses of microbiome sequencing datasets to infer feeding interactions 82 (Seppey et al., 2017). Other studies used either feeding trials (Amacker et al., 2022), stable isotopic 83 tracing in the microbial biomass (Jassey et al., 2013b; Mieczan et al., 2015) and in the DNA (Morriën et 84 al., 2017), metatranscriptomics (Petters et al., 2021), or gut content analysis (Lo et al., 2022). The latter 85 86 is extremely challenging for small microbes. While these analyses have been powerful hypothesis-87 generators, they also have a number of limitations, including biases toward the collection of enough 88 individuals to obtain reliable measurements (stable isotopes, gut content), detection of strong symmetric interactions (correlation-based inferences), and/or inability to distinguish species-specific 89 interactions (stable isotopes). Moreover, with large numbers of species and/or food webs to resolve 90 91 within studies, these approaches become cumbersome or unfeasible to apply. To overcome these limitations, researchers have pooled microorganisms into broad feeding groups to construct food 92 webs. Although this is an established approach to quantifying energy flows (Holtkamp et al., 2011; 93 Koltz et al., 2018), lumping species together can create large errors particularly when species with 94 95 divergent behaviours are combined (Buchkowski and Lindo, 2020).

As an alternative, several statistical methods based on machine learning could be used to infer microbial feeding interactions (Faisal et al., 2010; Desjardins-Proulx et al., 2017; Pichler et al., 2020). Previous work on fishes and invertebrates showed that predator-prey interactions can be successfully inferred using either phylogenetic relationships (Gray et al., 2015) or the trait-matching approach (Gravel et al., 2013; Laigle et al., 2018a; Pomeranz et al., 2019). Inferences based on foraging traits such as body size have been shown to be successful in predicting feeding links (Gravel et al., 2013; Laigle et al., 2018b; Pecuchet et al., 2020), although machine learning models trained with both traits

and phylogenetic predictors should be preferred (Pomeranz et al., 2019). Whilst traits can serve as reliable proxies for the inference of species interactions, phylogeny and/or taxonomy can substitute unmeasured traits (Morales-Castilla et al., 2015), and even recommend links that have not been observed empirically before (Desjardins-Proulx et al., 2017).

107 Here, we propose to use a composite machine learning model trained with both phylogenetic 108 predictors and traits to provide a potential framework for predicting microbial feeding interactions, 109 allowing for a greater understanding of the mechanisms underlying trophic interactions, community structure, and ecosystem functioning. As we have no a priori trait-matching and phylogenetic rules, we 110 used a systematic assessment of the performance of different machine learning (ML) techniques to infer 111 microbial feeding interactions. To inspect to what extent the resulting species pairs could have arisen 112 from chance, we further cross-validated the predicted feeding interactions from the best-performing 113 ML model using an array of sensitivity analyses. Then, we applied the best ML model to twelve 114 previously published species lists from peatland (Jassey et al., 2012a; Reczuga et al., 2018) to 115 116 reconstruct microbial food webs from these empirical data. Following species feeding pairs inferences, 117 we further cross-validated the predicted interactions with direct feeding observations from the case study data (Jassey et al., 2012a). Finally, we developed a new method to estimate the strength of the 118 predicted links according to the abundance and motility of microbial species, going beyond a simple 119 binary network prediction. This newly developed framework permits the analysis of microbial food webs 120 121 in soils and other ecosystems, which will allow researchers to incorporate microbial food web analyses 122 in their studies and better understand the relationships between microbial food web properties and ecosystem functions. 123

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125 **2. Material and methods**

126 **2.1** Training datasets preparation and description

To train our machine learning algorithms, we built an extensive meta food web documenting feeding links between 164 microbial taxa that potentially inhabit peatlands, ranging from bacteria to metazoans (Data available at https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23669019.v1). Most of the species included in the registry are identified at the species level, with the exception of some biological entities that are described at the functional group level (e.g. bacteria and fungi). The feeding link registry was first 132 documented from peer-reviewed publications, specialized literature and personal communication with experts, and spanned the period 1902 to 2021. In total, 733 trophic links were extracted from tables, 133 134 figures, the main text, and/or supplementary materials from 40 sources (see Table S1). Of these 40 135 sources, 19 covered soils, 15 freshwater systems and 6 peatlands. Next, we added a list of microbial 136 taxa regularly —but not exclusively—found in peatlands by merging the species lists from our previous 137 work (Jassey et al., 2011, 2015; Reczuga et al., 2018; Sytiuk et al., 2021). Since not all trophic 138 interactions were readily available for these peatland taxa, we retrieved the missing links from the published generic links using the WebBuilder function in R (Gray et al., 2015). The outputs were 139 thoroughly checked and, where needed, corrected based on literature, personal observation, and 140 expert opinion (see Table S1 for details). The resulting meta food web comprised 164 taxa, including 141 cyanobacteria (10), microalgae (35), flagellates (12), ciliates (26), testate amoebae (59), rotifers (20), and 142 nematodes (1), and 27,060 rows documenting 3,590 positive links (feeding) and 23,470 negative links 143 (non-feeding). Each resource-consumer pair was further associated with information on 17 potential 144 145 feeding link predictors for both the consumer and resource (34 predictors in total for each resource-146 consumer pair; Pecuchet et al., 2020). These predictors included six taxonomic variables (Species, 147 Genus, Family, Order, Phylum, and Kingdom) and eleven traits (Organism type, Nourishment, Feeding group, Morphology, Lifestyle, Locomotion, Movement, Feeding strategy, Body length, Body width, 148 and Biovolume; see Table S2 for details). 149

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151 2.2 Predicting microbial feeding links using machine learning algorithms

We compared six machine learning algorithms (ML) for predicting microbial feeding links based on 152 taxonomic and trait information (Fig. 1; Table S3): Random Forest (RF), Boosted regression trees (BRT), 153 154 k-nearest-neighbor (kNN), neural networks (NN), Generalized linear model (GLM), and Bayesian GLM 155 (BGLM). These algorithms were selected because they (1) are suitable for classification tasks, (2) are known to perform well in predicting species interactions, and (3) represent various classes of ML 156 algorithms (Table S3). We partitioned our a priori meta food web into a Training set (70% of the data, 157 used to train the models) and a Test set (30% of the data, used to test model performance) in which 158 the ratios between feeding and non-feeding links was conserved. We iteratively varied the set of 159 160 predictors across ten runs for each ML algorithm and evaluated model strength using sensitivity analyses (see below). This approach allowed us to select the best-performing model that had high 161

162 predictive strength, and optimize predictor selection while taking into account issues related to multicollinearity. For each run, we resampled the predictors from 12 clusters of strongly covarying 163 predictors. Quantitative and qualitative predictors were hierarchically clustered using the ClustOfVar 164 165 package in R (Chavent et al., 2012). As we did not have a specific number of clusters defined a priori 166 to use as parameters for the clustering procedure, we tested a range of cluster numbers (that is 5 to 167 20) into the ClustOfVar function (van den Hoogen et al., 2019). Inspection of the cluster dendrograms 168 revealed that the predictor variables were most homogeneous grouped in12 clusters (Fig. S1, Table S4). In summary, each run of the six ML algorithm was trained with twelve predictors randomly selected 169 across the 36 predictors grouped into twelve clusters (Table S4). The relevance of the predictors for 170 each run was assessed using the varImp function in the caret R package (scaling 0-100) (Kuhn, 2008). 171 Since varImp is model dependent and our approach includes a randomized set of predictors for each 172 run, we ranked predictor importance for each run and each trained model from 1 (most important) to 173 12 (less important) to compare model outputs. 174

175 To assess and compare the ML model's predictive performance, we calculated three 176 performance indices using the Test set. The area under the receiver operating characteristic curve 177 (AUC, range 0 to 1) was used as an indication of the model's ability to distinguish between feeding and non-feeding links regardless of the classification method (AUC \geq 0.5 has a \geq 50% chance of being 178 correct) (Manel et al., 2001). The proportion of correct predictions was used as a measure of Accuracy, 179 while the true skill statistic (TSS, range -1 to +1) normalizes the overall accuracy of the model for the 180 accuracy occurring by chance (Allouche et al., 2006). A TSS of -1 is expected if predictions are random, 181 1 if predictions are perfect, and 0 if they are the opposite of observations. We considered the 182 performance of an algorithm to be good when AUC, Accuracy, and TSS values were close to one. 183 184 Related indices, including the receiver operating characteristic (ROC), sensitivity (rate of true positives 185 among all positive predictions), and specificity (rate of true negatives among all negative predictions), were also calculated and used for selecting the best ML algorithm. Machine learning analyses were 186 performed in R (R Core Team, 2020) using the caret suite packages (Kuhn, 2008), and custom R codes. 187

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192 2.3 Sensitivity analyses of microbial feeding link predictions

Following ML model selection, we subjected the 'best-performing model among the ten runs of the best-performing ML algorithm to further sensitivity analyses in order to inspect the quality of the predictions and their sensitivity to false predictors and poor species taxonomy (Fig. 1) (Jassey et al., 2022). In other words, the 'best-performing model' was our best identified ML algorithm trained with the twelve best predictors identified from the ten runs with randomized sets of predictors of that particular ML algorithm.

The first sensitivity analysis (i.e. *k*-fold 'Predictor Variable Shuffling (PVS) SA') tested the influence of poorly identified predictors on feeding link predictions, a plausible situation especially when working on microbial traits (Escalas et al., 2019). To do so, we iteratively and randomly shuffled 1, 3, and 6 predictors to break any structure in the relationship between feeding links and some taxonomic and/or trait predictors before training our best-performing ML model. PVS SA was run 10 times (k = 10) for each variable shuffling condition (a total of 30 runs) to cover as many as possible combinations of predictor variables shuffling.

206 The second sensitivity analysis covered the influence of species that are new or poorly 207 characterized at the taxonomic level (i.e. k-fold 'Poorly Taxonomic' (PT) SA). For instance, such an effect is likely to happen if the empirical dataset for which to predict feeding links contains species that are 208 'new' and not represented in the Training set used to train the ML model. To simulate this potential 209 bias, we randomly selected 1%, 2.5%, and 5% of the Training set in which 75% of the taxa (resource or 210 consumer) at the species level were set as 'Unknown' before training the best-performing ML model. 211 Among this 75% of species, 50% of them were further set as 'Unknown' at the genus level, and 25% at 212 the family level. Each condition (1%, 2.5% and 5% of the Training set) was run 10 times (k = 10; in total 213 214 30 runs). One run with the conditions 10%, 25% and 50% was further computed to identify at which 215 percentage our best ML model is no longer trustworthy.

For each sensitivity analysis, we assessed the predictive performance of the models for each run using the Test set and generated sensitivity statistics, namely Accuracy, AUC, and TSS. All sensitivity analyses were performed in *R* using the *caret* suite packages and custom *R* codes.

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222 2.4 Case study — Inferring microbial feeding links in a Sphagnum-dominated peatland

As a case study for inferring microbial feeding links in ecosystems, we used a well-studied empirical 223 224 dataset from a Sphagnum-dominated peatland situated in the Jura Mountains, France (The Forbonnet 225 peatland, 46°49'35" N, 6°10'20" E; Jassey et al. 2011a, 2012b, 2013a). The dataset comprises twelve 226 microbial species lists, including microbial abundances, from twelve independent plots spread across 227 the peatland (more details can be found in Jassey et al. 2011). Because of the wet conditions, peat 228 mosses support diverse microbial communities (Gilbert and Mitchell, 2006) including bacteria, cyanobacteria, fungi, protists and metazoan covering diverse feeding behaviours (saprotrophy, 229 autotrophy, mixotrophy and heterotrophy). In summary, the case study dataset contained a total of 108 230 species: bacteria, (1 group level), fungi (2 groups level), microalgae (18 taxa), cyanobacteria (10 taxa), 231 flagellates (9 taxa), ciliates (24 taxa), testate amoebae (28 taxa), rotifers (11 taxa), and nematode (1 232 taxon). Of these 108 species, 15 were not listed in the Training set used to train the ML models. Among 233 these 15 taxa, 50% were 'new' at the genus level when referring to the Training set, and 25% of them 234 235 were 'new' at the family level. These new taxa were classified as 'Unknown' to allow the predictions 236 with the selected ML model, while such bias in predictions has been tested beforehand in sensitivity 237 analyses (see above). The same traits were available in the case study data as in the Training set used to train the ML models. More details about the methods used to identify microbial species and quantify 238 their abundance and morphological traits can be found in the Supplementary method. 239

We used the best-performing ML model to predict the binary food web from each species list 240 (i.e. presence/absence of feeding links between species and/or generic group, hereafter 'binary food 241 web'). Next, we accounted for population dynamics that could lead to significant deviations from the 242 binary food web. For example, the abundance of a consumer may greatly exceed that of its potential 243 244 resource, making the occurrence of that feeding link unlikely. We took such potential bias into account 245 using an abductive rule and abundance data of each taxon. Every predicted feeding link where the abundance of the predator was higher than the abundance of the prey was considered unlikely and 246 removed. The pruned binary food webs were further quantified, with links strengths expressed as the 247 probability of a consumer capturing a resource based on its swimming speed and size, and the 248 abundance of the prey (hereafter 'link-strength food web'). All details about link strength calculations 249 250 are given in the supplementary method and Fig. S6 and Table S6.

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252 2.5 Validating feeding habit predictions from the case study data

We cross-validated the feeding link predictions from ML in the case study data using the feeding habit data from two testate amoebae species— *Hyalosphenia papilio* and *Nebela tincta*. We used these two species in particular because we had detailed information of their feeding habit in the same plots at the same sampling date (see Jassey *et al.* 2012 for details). These two focal species were chosen because they are dominant microbial predators in peatlands and their high abundance allowed robust and reliable feeding habit quantification. 1,240 individuals have been observed to establish feeding habits (see details Jassey et al., 2012), thus giving reliable feeding habits.

To validate the feeding predictions for these two species with their respective feeding habits, 260 we used two approaches. First, we calculated sensitivity and specificity indices; two metrics based on 261 a confusion matrix which evaluate model performance to properly assign trophic links. Sensitivity 262 measures the capacity of the model to predict observed feeding links well (trues positives), while 263 specificity measures the capacity of the model to predict non-observed feeding links (false positives). 264 265 Second, we reconstructed the diet of the two focal testate amoebae species quantitatively using the 266 predicted feeding links. To do so, we made the comparison based on the predicted link-strength food 267 web as our binary food webs cannot count the number of times a predator feeds on a prey item. For each focal species and in each food web, we extracted the feeding links predicted by the ML model 268 and calculated the proportion of link strength by main prey type (i.e. microalgae, cyanobacteria, 269 ciliates, ...). For the observed feeding links, we calculated link strength, as explained above, as well as 270 the proportion of link strength by main prey type. Finally, we compared the predicted link strength 271 proportion per prey type to those observed. We removed the feeding link towards bacteria beforehand 272 as they could not be directly observed under the microscope. 273

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275 2.6 Food web metrics

To assess the structure of the predicted food webs and quantify the benefits of link strength, we measured seven unweighted, topology-based, food web metrics to characterize the structure of the food webs, including the number of species (S), connectance (C), generality (G), vulnerability (V), shortest path length (SPL), short-weighted trophic level (TL), the degree of omnivory (OI), averaged food chain length (FCL), and the proportion of basal (Ba), intermediate (Int) and top species (Pred), as well as vulnerability SD and generality SD (Kortsch et al., 2019, 2021). The selected food web metrics 282 were chosen because they cover diverse and ecologically relevant aspects of the food web structure (Ledger et al., 2013; Kortsch et al., 2015, 2021) (Table S7). In particular, they relate to the vertical 283 284 (trophic level, omnivory) and the horizontal (generality, vulnerability) dimensions of food webs and to 285 their complexity (species richness, connectance). Although these unweighted metrics can unveil the 286 topological structure of the food webs, they are also limited by the fact that in real food webs the links 287 may have different capacities or intensities or flows of information or strengths (Barrat et al., 2004). 288 Therefore, we calculated weighted metrics using link strength, namely the average strength of links (st), the average strength distribution among links (ps), the weighted shortest path length (dist w), the 289 transitivity (trans), the average strength of each node's connection (neigh), the modularity (mod), the 290 sum of link weights (flow), and the global efficiency (eff) (Table S7). 291

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293 2.7 Statistical analyses

We tested the differences in algorithm performance and sensitivity analyses by running generalized 294 295 linear models (GLM) per indicator with the algorithm as the explanatory variable, using the nlme 296 package (Pinheiro et al., 2016). Varldent variance structure was applied to account for 297 heteroscedasticity (Zuur et al., 2010). Assumptions on normality and homogeneity of variances were verified using diagnostic plots. Pairwise differences between the algorithms were tested with Tukey 298 post-hoc test. We performed a multivariate principal component analysis (PCA) on all food web metrics 299 to investigate the main differences in food web structure and function between binary and link-strength 300 food webs, and to assess whether unweighted and weighted food web approaches (calculated for the 301 link-strength food webs) highlight different (or similar) aspects of the microbial food web in peatlands. 302 vegan R package was used to perform the PCAs (Oksanen, 2011). Analysis of similarities (ANOSIM) was 303 304 used to test statistically whether there are significant differences between binary and link-strength food 305 web topologies, as well as weighted and unweighted link-strength food web topologies. We further calculated the network dissimilarity between PA and LS food webs using the betalink R package (Poisot 306 et al., 2012). Differences in species feeding interactions between networks (WN) was calculated. We 307 further calculated whether these differences originated from differences in species composition of food 308 webs (S), differences in feeding interactions in food webs as response to species turnover (ST) or 309 310 because shared species between food webs had different feeding interactions (OS). To compare the observed and predicted feeding habits of both testate amoeba species, we used a PCAs to compare 311

the distribution and variability of feeding habits and ANOSIMs to test statistically whether observedand predicted feeding habits were similar.

All computations and statistical analyses were performed in *R* (R Core Team, 2020) using customwritten codes and available *R* packages. Several of the food web metrics including the food web graph were performed using the *igraph* package (Csardi et al., 2006).

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318 **3. Results**

319 3.1 Predictive performance and sensitivity

All ML models achieved high AUC (> 0.80), TSS (> 0.50) and Accuracy (> 0.90) values. More particularly, 320 Tree-based (BRT, RF) and neural networks (NN) achieved higher AUC (0.85-0.96), TSS (0.60-0.93), and 321 Accuracy (0.94-0.98) than parametric (GLM), distance-based (kNN) and probabilistic classifiers (BGLM) 322 models (Fig. 2a, b, and c; Table S8). Among the three best ML algorithms, NN performance was 323 comparable to BRT and RF with regard to AUC and TSS, but its overall Accuracy was lower. BRT showed 324 325 a lower variability in its performance than RF with lower standard deviations in regard to AUC, TSS, and Accuracy (Fig. 2a, b, and c). Feeding link predictions were driven by the same clusters of predictive 326 variables in most ML models (Fig. 2d), with clusters 1 (i.e. variables related to the body size of the prey), 327 4 (i.e. Feeding types of the prey) and 7 (i.e. body size of the consumers) being the most important. As 328 BRT overall performed better and provided robust predictions using the same clusters of predictors as 329 other ML models, we selected BRT to create predictive microbial food webs. 330

Rigorous sensitivity analyses further revealed that feeding link predictions from BRT were robust to the falsity of certain predictors (PVS-SA), and/or the inclusion of 'new' species in the taxa list (PT-SA; Fig. S3). BRT predictions remained relatively good (AUC > 0.80, TSS > 0.80, Accuracy > 0.90) when one to three predictors were wrongly referenced to species but strongly decreased when six predictors did not correctly represent species (PVS-SA: AUC < 0.80, TSS < 0.80, Accuracy < 0.90; Fig. S3a). Finally, the inclusion of up to 50% 'new' species in the database did not impair feeding link predictions through BRT, with AUC, TSS, and Accuracy values remaining >0.90 in all cases (PT-SA; Fig. S3b, Table S9).

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339 3.2 Inferring the microbial food web for *Sphagnum*-dominated peatland

We inferred the feeding links and calculated link strength for the twelve peatland plots (Fig. S4). The binary metaweb (i.e. summary of all species interactions across all plots) had a total of 847 links, for a 342 connectance of 0.10 (Fig. 3a). The binary metaweb is also highly nested (nestedness = 0.96), indicating that specialist species feed on a subset of prey of the most generalist species. Approximately 30% of 343 344 the pairwise interactions across the twelve food webs had a link strength <0.1, indicating that some 345 link inferences are possibly weak. We, therefore, pruned the binary food webs according to link 346 strength. We iteratively removed feeding links in each food web with a strength of >0.1 to >0.99 and 347 found two thresholds, at 0.1 and 0.99, respectively (Fig. S5). The number of links strongly decreased 348 when links with a strength <0.1 were dropped (-82 links on average; Fig. S5a) while the mean link strength of the food webs increased from 0.62 to 0.86 on average (Fig. S5b). The removal of links with 349 a strength <0.1 also influenced food web properties, which diverged from food webs with all links (Fig. 350 S5c, d). Removing links with a strength between 0.2 and 0.9 only slightly influenced the food web's 351 species interactions (food web *B*-diversity ranged between 0.22 and 0.28; Fig. S5c), whilst keeping only 352 very strong links (>0.99) in the food webs significantly reduced the number of links by 65% (Fig. S5a) 353 and drastically changed food web properties (Fig. S5c, d). Hence, we refined our food webs with a link 354 355 strength >0.1.

Overall, the refined food webs had 627 links and a connectance of 0.07 (Fig. 3a). Refined food webs based on link strength differed from binary food webs, especially in terms of species interactions (food web *B*-diversity OS ~0.14; Fig. 3b). The PCA analysis further showed that refined link-strength food webs had higher stability (SPL) and higher mean number of predators per prey (V, sdV, and Pred) compared to binary food webs (ANOSIM, P = 0.018, R = 0.17; Fig. 3c).

The inclusion of link strength in the food webs clearly highlighted the main flows within the food 361 webs, highlighting the main predation routes in the food webs and/or the most important predators in 362 the network (Fig. 3a, Fig. S4). The inclusion of weighted metrics in addition to unweighted metrics in a 363 364 PCA analysis extended our comprehension of the food web topological structures (ANOSIM, P = 0.001, 365 R = 0.38; Fig. 3d). Weighted link-strength food webs showed a higher connectance (C), efficiency (eff), and average connectivity (neigh) than unweighted link-strength food webs. Food chains (FCL) also 366 lengthened in weighted LS food webs, while the importance of omnivory (OI) and intermediate species 367 (Int) was more prevalent than in unweighted food webs (Fig. 3d). Finally, weighted link-strength food 368 webs better defined the importance of top predators in the network as shown by higher vulnerability 369 (V, sdV) and proportion of predators (Pred). 370

371 Our model predicted well the feeding and non-feeding interactions of the two testate amoeba species. Both species showed high sensitivity values (*H. papilio* = 1; *N. tincta* = 0.87 on average; Fig. 372 373 4a) but null specificity values (specificity = 0 for both species). This shows that our model predicted 374 non-observed feeding links for these two species. Moreover, PCAs showed that the feeding habits of 375 the two testate amoeba species were relatively similar between microscopic observations and ML 376 predictions, though predicted feeding habits were less variable than those observed (Fig. 4b, d). Both 377 microscopic observations and ML predictions showed that *H. papilio* primarily fed on microalgae, fungi, ciliates, and testate amoebae (ANOSIM, P = 0.3, R = 0.033; Fig. 4c). On the opposite, observed feeding 378 habits of N. tincta slightly differed from predicted one, mostly because ML predicted predation on 379 testate amoebae and rotifers in all plots while those feeding interactions were not always observed 380 381 (ANOSIM, P = 0.02, R = 0.26; Fig. 4d). Nevertheless, the overall feeding habits of N. tincta was very similar between observed and predicted conditions, with microalgae, cyanobacteria, and fungi as the 382 main prey resources (Fig. 4e). 383

384

385 **Discussion**

Understanding the structure and functioning of microbial food webs is of both fundamental and applied 386 interest considering their role in ecosystems (Geisen, 2021). This paper shows that it is possible to infer 387 microbial feeding links with satisfying accuracy using a robust and repeatable machine learning 388 approach based on microbial traits and taxonomy. The data required to perform this methodology are 389 relatively simple to obtain, though more effort is required to acquire the absolute abundance data of 390 391 species to extend the reconstruction of the basic food web by incorporating feeding links strength. 392 Besides the calculation of link strength, our method can help generate baseline expectations about the 393 microbial food web structure in ecosystems (binary food webs) and thereby overcoming laborious sampling and laboratory efforts required for traditional food web construction. In addition, we show 394 that the use of link strength provides an estimation of the main routes in the food web, which could be 395 396 relevant for testing basic microbial ecology theory (van Altena et al., 2016) and biodiversity-function 397 relationships (Thompson et al., 2012; Geisen, 2021; Berlinches de Gea et al., 2022; Gaüzère et al., 398 2022). In summary, this approach will help guide new empirical research aimed at developing 399 mechanistically informed predictions about the magnitudes of microbial effects on ecosystem functions 400 (Hunt et al., 1987; De Ruiter et al., 1993; Thompson and Townsend, 2005; Grass et al., 2020). Recent 401 studies demonstrated the importance of food web's topology-based metrics and energy fluxes 402 between species in driving ecosystem functions, while species richness had only weak effects (Kortsch 403 et al., 2021; Jassey et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2023). These results clearly show that the assessments of 404 microbial feeding interactions in soils using our approach will be key for understanding the 405 consequences of soil biodiversity for the maintenance of ecosystem functions and services that are 406 critical for ecosystem sustainability.

407 Using recently described approaches for inference of species interactions in ecological networks (Laigle et al., 2018a; Pichler et al., 2019; Pontarp et al., 2019; Pecuchet et al., 2020), we assessed the 408 ability of six ML models to predict microbial feeding interactions based on taxonomy and traits. We 409 found that the performance of the tree- and neuron-based models, namely BRT, RF, and NN, exceeded 410 411 the distance- and parametric-based models (kNN, BGLM, and GLM respectively) performances for predicting microbial feeding links (Fig. 2). BRT was the best-performing ML algorithm with a low 412 sensitivity to model and predictor stochasticity (Fig. 2). It predicted 98% of the microbial feeding links 413 414 correctly, with a narrow variability between runs (Fig. 2). This is a very encouraging result and supports 415 previous findings on the inference of trophic interactions between soil fauna (Laigle et al., 2018a). 416 Another important point is that BRT (AUC >0.9) by far out-performed naïve random models, for example, when feeding interactions were not tied to traits (AUC of 0.8; Fig. S3). Moreover, we 417 acknowledge that BRT can exhibit noticeable overfitting on some datasets, especially in case of 418 overlapping classes (Vezhnevets and Barinova, 2007). However, this is never the case of RF in which 419 collinearity decreases performance rather than leading to an overfit (Lesmeister, 2019). Because RF 420 performed almost as good as BRT (Fig. 2, Table S8), this clearly shows that there were no 421 multicollinearity nor overfitting problems in our model training and resulting feeding predictions. 422 423 Further, these results are in line with earlier findings on species interactions in other ecosystems (e.g. 424 Pichler et al. 2019; Pomeranz et al. 2019) and confirm the importance of the trait-matching approach to infer biotic interactions between species (Gravel et al., 2013; Olito and Fox, 2015; Laigle et al., 425 2018a; Pichler et al., 2019; Pomeranz et al., 2019; Pecuchet et al., 2020). 426

427 Our results showed that inferences of feeding interactions between microorganisms were 428 strongly determined by traits related to body size (i.e., cluster 7; Fig. 2, Table S4). This is in agreement 429 with the food web theory (Brose et al., 2019; Brose, 2020) and previous findings on soil fauna (Laigle 430 et al., 2018a) and aquatic food webs (Pecuchet et al., 2020). Notable exceptions to the average ratio

431 of predator-to-prey body mass can exist when microorganisms cooperate to feed on larger prey (e.g. 432 pack hunters; Geisen et al. 2015). However, the use of additional traits overcomes such potential bias 433 in the predictions (Laigle et al., 2018a), as shown by our results. Traits related to feeding habits 434 (nourishment) were the second most important cluster of predictors in our model training, followed by 435 taxonomy (i.e. kingdom; Fig. 2). Indeed, the kingdom of the prey (resource) and the general diet of the 436 consumers is a general way to approximate the backbone of microbial food webs (Geisen et al., 2016). 437 More particularly, kingdom and diet help to identify trivially prohibited interactions (Morales-Castilla et al., 2015), such as microalgae not feeding on algivores. Based on the growing interest in applying trait-438 based concepts to predict the microbial mechanisms driving global biogeochemical cycles (Malik et 439 al., 2020), one could expect rapid progress in increasing the quality of microbial trait information further 440 441 improving predictions of microbial feeding interactions using the trait-matching approach.

By applying our method to case study data, we inferred microbial food webs with 232 to 388 442 feeding links for peatland microbial communities of 41 to 53 taxa. Cross-validation of feeding 443 444 inferences with feeding habit observations of two testate amoeba species performed in the same plots 445 was satisfying. While our model predicted well the observed feeding and non-feeding links of the two 446 testate amoeba species, it also predicted non-observed feeding links for these two species. For example, all inferred food webs systematically predicted feeding interactions between N. tincta and 447 other testate amoebae, while such feeding interactions were not observed in every plot. This result is 448 not surprising. It is extremely difficult to document all realized feeding links at a specific site even when 449 sampling effort is high (Woodward et al., 2005). This is particularly true for microorganisms where 450 identifying feeding interactions is always a challenge (Antoniewicz, 2020). Furthermore, the inference 451 of predicted but not observed empirically links is encouraging as it may refine the current 452 453 understanding of microbial interactions in ecosystems.

Approximately 27% of the inferred links had a very low strength (<0.1), suggesting that these links were weak and unlikely given the abundance of resources and the moving speed of the consumers. This indicates that the link strength calculation is an effective approach to discriminating against links that may not occur empirically while retaining those that do. Another potential advantage of calculating link strength is the ability to identify the main routes in the food web, rather than inferring a simple binary network (Laigle et al., 2018a; Pomeranz et al., 2019; Pecuchet et al., 2020). Unweighted (binary) food webs treat all links as if they are equally important to the food web. However, it is very

461 common in food webs that feeding rates vary considerably in magnitude between predators and/or among prey of the same predator (Jassey et al., 2012a; Mieczan et al., 2015). Our results showed that 462 463 approximately 65% of the inferred links were of weak to intermediate strength. This pattern 464 corroborates previous findings on interaction strengths in natural food webs (Paine, 1992; McCann et 465 al., 1998; Neutel et al., 2002) showing that interaction strengths are usually characterized by many weak 466 interactions and a few strong ones. This is an encouraging result. Furthermore, weighted food web 467 properties based on link strength significantly differed from unweighted food webs, especially in terms of connectance. Hence, link strength can be used to refine our predictive food webs, aiding in our 468 ability to infer microbial food web properties. Connectance based on weighted links captures well food 469 web stability (van Altena et al., 2016), suggesting that our method, in addition to predicting food web 470 structures, could be used to measure food web stability in ecosystems. Estimating microbial food web 471 stability is relevant because it is often at this level of multitrophic microbial communities that questions 472 regarding the fragility of ecosystem structure and functioning under environmental change are most 473 474 pressing (Naylor et al., 2020; Geisen, 2021).

475 Our approach has some limitations and therefore paves the way for future research. First, the 476 taxonomic resolution of basal species or groups (i.e. bacteria and fungi) was low and consequently influenced the number of species and links in each food web. This limitation does not impact the 477 analysis of trophic interactions between basal species and predators, but certainly hides some 478 479 important routes in the food web as well as some variability among sites. For instance, competition between fungi and bacteria shapes their community structures (Bahram et al., 2018), which in return 480 most likely influence feeding interactions and food web structure (Morriën et al., 2017). Moreover, 481 predation pressure on basal species is likely unequal between the various bacterial and fungal species 482 483 as a result of a combination of differential prey defence strategies and/or predator traits (Gao et al., 484 2018; Amacker et al., 2022). Some bacteria can, for instance, produce antimicrobial compounds to repel predators (Mazzola et al., 2009; Jousset and Bonkowski, 2010; Hamard et al., 2019). Therefore, 485 increasing our knowledge of feeding interactions between basal species and their respective predators 486 will certainly improve our understanding of the microbial food web structure and functioning. Second, 487 feeding link inferences are somewhat limited to taxa present in the training data set. Our training, test 488 489 and Case study data sets were comparable in terms of traits distribution, although significantly different (Fig. S7). It may limit feeding link predictions if the number of taxa not documented in the training set 490

491 increases drastically. However, our sensitivity analysis revealed that the inclusion of 'new' taxa (up to 492 50% at the species level) does not impair feeding link inferences (Fig. S3, Table S9). This shows that 493 our model is robust and could easily be applied in other systems. Nevertheless, continuing efforts to 494 document microbial traits and feeding interactions is imperative for the reliable application of 495 predictive modelling.

496 So far, microbial food webs have been mostly considered at broad functional group levels 497 (Mestre et al., 2022). The concepts of integrating taxonomic diversity in food webs have been overlooked (Geisen et al., 2016; Glibert and Mitra, 2022), mostly because of methodological limitations 498 499 (Geisen and Bonkowski, 2018). We offer a new approach to constructing highly resolved gualitatively 500 and quantitatively microbial food webs using species lists, taxonomy, and traits. Despite some 501 limitations, we showed how microbial trait composition and values, and taxonomy, determine both the distribution of feeding interactions in a microbial community and identify the main routes in the food 502 web. The growing interest in multitrophic microbial interactions in soils (Geisen et al., 2016; Amacker 503 504 et al., 2022; Potapov et al., 2022) will likely improve the documentation of microbial feeding 505 interactions and traits, and thereby the precision of future inferences of microbial food webs using our 506 approach. The next challenge will be to relate microbial food web functioning and properties to 507 ecosystem functioning such as carbon and nutrient cycling (Geisen, 2021). Future integrated work combining traditional methods (trait and feeding habit documentation), molecular techniques (DNA-508 based high-throughput species identification) and food web inference in different environmental 509 settings offer the opportunity of upscaling soil ecological studies. 510

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515

516 Data and codes accessibility

The microbial feeding link registry used to train the machine learning models is available from FigShare 517 in .csv format (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23669019.v1). The species lists, traits and inferred 518 microbial feeding links from the Case Study are available from FigShare in .zip format 519 (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24081102.v1). The feeding habit data on the two testate amoeba 520 species used to validate feeding inferences are available from FigShare in .csv format 521 522 (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24081435.v1). The R codes used in this article are available from FigShare (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24081480). All Data and R codes related to this paper 523 are available from the Collection Data and R codes from Uncovering microbial food webs using 524 machine learning https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.c.6814071. 525

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867 **Figure captions**

Figure 1. Conceptual diagram showing the workflow followed to infer microbial food webs.

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Figure 2. Identification of the best-performing ML modelling to infer microbial feeding interactions. (a) 870 871 Performance of six algorithms in predicting microbial feeding links guantified as (a) Area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC), (b) true skill statistic (TSS), and (c) overall accuracy. 872 Different letters indicate significant differences (P < 0.05) between algorithms based on GLMs and 873 Tukey-HSD post hoc test. (d) Importance of clusters of predictors based on variable importance across 874 all models (see Fig. S2 and Table S4 for details on the clusters), (e) across all Boosted Regression Tree 875 (BRT) models. Predictors included in the best-performing BRT model are given in (f). These predictors 876 were used for sensitivity analyses and application to case study data. For the ML algorithm's 877 abbreviations see Table S3. 878

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Figure 3. Microbial feeding inferences and food web properties of Case study data. (a) Meta-webs 880 (binary and link-strength based) summarizing the feeding interactions within the 12 microbial 881 communities from the Forbonnet peatland. (b) Network beta-diversity indices of the pairwise 882 comparison between the P/A food webs and those pruned according to link strength. OS = Dissimilarity 883 between of feeding interactions established between species common to both food webs; S = 884 dissimilarity in the species composition of the food webs; ST = dissimilarity of feeding interactions due 885 to species turnover in food webs; WN = dissimilarity of feeding interactions between food webs. (c) 886 Principal component analysis (PCA) comparing the food web properties of simple binary food webs 887 888 (PA) and those pruned according to link strength (AB). (d) PCA comparing of unweighted (UnW) and 889 weighted (W) food web properties for the inferred link-strength food webs.

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Figure 4. Cross-validation of feeding link inferences for two testate amoeba species. (a) Sensitivity values evaluating the ML model's ability to predict true feeding links for the two testate amoeba species (Hp: *Hyalosphenia papilio*; Nt: *Nebela tincta*). (b, d) PCAs comparing the observed and predicted feeding habits of the two testate amoeba species. (c, e) Overall comparison of the general feeding habit of *Hyalopshenia papilio* and *Nebela tincta* across the 12 food webs following direct microscopic observations (Observed) and ML predictions (Predicted).









PCA axis 1 (50.5%)