Contribution Evenness: A functional redundancy metric sensitive to trait stability in microbial

communities

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Running title:

Measuring the functional redundancy of microbiomes

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Abstract

The concept of functional redundancy has received considerable attention in both the macroecology and microbial ecology literature. As a result, multiple metrics of functional redundancy have been proposed. These vary in how they weight trait levels, species abundance, functional richness, and species richness. Here we present a new functional redundancy metric tailored for community-aggregated traits, traits that quantified at the community level and are quantitatively partitioned among species. We call this metric contribution evenness (CE) because it measures how evenly species contribute to a community-aggregated trait. As CE is an evenness measurement, it ranges from 0 and 1, where 0 corresponds to a single species contributing to a community-aggregated trait and 1 corresponds to all species contributing equally. Using *in silico* extinction simulations, we demonstrated that CE reflects the resilience of an ecosystem function to species extinction, a hypothesized ecological consequence of functional redundancy. As a positive control and to illustrate how CE can be used with sequence data, we analyzed the functional redundancy of eight nitrogen-transforming pathways using 2,631 metagenome-assembled genomes from 47 marine sites. CE for marine nitrogen cycle marker genes was consistent with our conceptual understanding of which nitrogen pathways are more redundant in the ocean. We found that, on average, the NH_4^+ assimilation pathway was the most functionally redundant (0.44 ± 0.08) while dissimilatory nitrate reduction was the least redundant (0.005 ± 0.005). As demonstrated here, CE provides a promising framework for measuring trait redundancy resilience in microbiomes.

Introduction

Recent advances in sequencing technology and sampling coverage have facilitated the discovery that important ecological functions are frequently replicated across co-occurring species in an ecosystem (1). This phenomenon is referred to as "functional redundancy". The ecological implications of functional redundancy are not fully understood, but one hypothesized consequence of functional redundancy is increased function stability in a community. Numerous theoretical studies predict that traits held by multiple species are more resilient to species extinction, a property called "trait resilience" (2–5). In order to test hypotheses about the ecological or biogeochemical implications of functional redundancy, a quantitative and generally applicable metric is required.

Several metrics for functional redundancy exist in the literature. The diversity of metrics reflects the diverse sources of data used to calculate functional redundancy and the diverse purposes for how this concept has been applied. Functional redundancy has been measured as the ratio of community richness to the theoretical maximum number of functional entities (6), median metabolic overlap of genomic traits (7), expected variability in trait space among community members (8), the degree of covariance in functional diversity and biodiversity (e.g., Galand et al., 2018; Micheli & Halpern, 2005; Miki, Yokokawa, & Matsui, 2013), and the simple fraction of populations in a community that bear a given function (12–14). These different metrics treat community structure differently. For instance, some metrics are sensitive to species abundances (8, 9), richness (6, 10), or neither (7). The functional redundancy metrics above (except for the simple fraction of taxa bearing a function) represent ecological function in terms of niche, where a niche is thought of as a point in a hyperdimensional trait space (15).

Communities with higher taxa density in trait space are interpreted as being more functionally

redundant.

However, the large number of potential environmentally-relevant microbial functions and

the low phylogenetic conservation of genes for those functions often makes it impossible to

define niches and functional guilds in a meaningful and tractable way (1). Thus, it can be

challenging to apply existing functional redundancy metrics to microbial ecosystems. An

alternative approach is to evaluate functional redundancy with respect to individual functions

rather than with respect to niches. Here, we propose a community metric designed to quantify the

functional redundancy of individual functions in a microbial community, something that is

currently lacking in the literature. We focus on microbial traits represented as nucleic acid

sequences (DNA and RNA), i.e., gene and transcript sequences. These sequence traits are

regularly measured in microbial ecology studies, used to infer microbial metabolism, easily

compared in metacommunity analysis, and are easily integrated into trait-based models (16).

One approach to measure community-level processes is with community-aggregated

parameters. Community-aggregated parameters describe ecosystem processes observed on the

community level. The contribution of each species to an ecosystem-level process is calculated as

the contribution of individuals to the process, weighted by their species' abundance. Species

contributions are then summed to reflect the community-level processes (17). Here, we propose

leveraging community-aggregated parameters to measure community functional redundancy.

Although community-aggregated parameters are applicable to a diverse suite of traits (e.g.,

respiration, metabolite production, etc.), we opt to narrow the focus of this work to nucleic acid-

based traits—genes and transcripts. Such traits are widely used in the microbial community

literature as proxies for biogeochemistry and are easily comparable in metacommunity analysis

(18, 19). Using species contributions, we can calculate the relative contribution by species to an

observed community-level processes with an evenness measurement (20). Briefly, the "true

diversity" of contributors is calculated using species contributions and traditional diversity

metrics (21, 22). The observed diversity is normalized to a theoretical maximum diversity

(richness) and made "unrelated", in the sense used by Chao and Ricotta (20), to community

richness. Our approach can be understood as functional redundancy because it measures how

evenly species in a community contribute to an ecosystem process—the more evenly species

contribute to an ecosystem process, the more functionally redundant the community is with

respect to that process. Accordingly, we term our measure of functional redundancy

"contribution evenness" (CE).

To demonstrate the efficacy of CE, we first performed simulations to optimize the value

of a constant called diversity order to use in CE calculations (21, 22). Second, we performed an

in silico experiment to test how well CE captures trait resilience compared to other, existing

functional redundancy metrics. Finally, we demonstrate the applicability of CE with real-world

data by analyzing functional redundancy for eight nitrogen-transforming pathways found in

metagenomic data (23) in *TARA* Oceans draft metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) (24).

Overall, we found CE appealing because it is easily calculated from conventional shotgun

genomic sequence data sets, provides insights on the relative contribution by community

members to community-level processes, and is sensitive to the resilience of traits to species

extinction.

Methods and Theory

Definition of Functional Redundancy

Here, we define a microbial community, C, with S species, where the ith species has a

relative abundance, p_i. (For simplicity, we refer to ecological units as species, although it would

be possible to perform this analysis at other taxonomic levels – strains, say, or genera – or even

to perform the analysis at the level of guilds in order to evaluate resource competition among

guilds, e.g., sulfate-reducers competing with methanogens for hydrogen electrons). We therefore

represent C as:

$C = \{p | p_i > 0 \; \forall \; p_i; \sum_{i=1}^{S} p_i = 1\}$ (1

where p is the set of relative abundances of species, such that any given relative abundance for

the ith species is greater than zero and all species relative abundances sum to one. Equation 1

represents a traditional abundance distribution (25).

Our goal was to calculate how evenly different species in a community, C (equation 1),

contribute to a community-aggregated parameter, or ecosystem function, T, at a fixed time and

space. To do this, we first determined the relative contribution, τ_i, that the ith species makes

towards T such that:

$\tau_i = \dfrac{p_i t_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i t_i}$ 2)

where t_i is the species-specific contribution level and p_i is the relative abundance the ith species in

C. In equation 2, τ_i represents the relative contribution that the ith species contributes to a

community-aggregated parameter. We note that the functional analysis and preprocessing of

metagenomes and transcriptomes varies in the literature and public databases. For example, the

TARA Oceans metagenomes have been analyzed as assembled, un-binned metagenomes, where

individual genes were assigned taxonomy, annotation, and abundances (26), and as metagenome-

assembled genomes (24, 27). Although the fundamental meaning behind τ does not change

across these different datasets, the *in silico* approach to calculating τ may slightly differ

depending on how sequence data is preprocessed. For un-binned metagenomes, τ_i simply

corresponds to the proportion of reads associated with the ith species which map to function, *T*.

Similarly for transcriptomes, τ_i simply corresponds to the proportion of transcripts expressed by

the ith species which map to function, *T*. Assuming the community sequence spaces has been

randomly sampled, these scenarios implicitly account for the number of gene copies (*t*) and the

relative abundance (*p*) of the ith species. In the case of metagenome-assembled genomes, relative

contribution level can be calculated with equation 2 such that t_i is gene copies and abundance is

measured as the relative proportion of reads mapping to single-copy marker genes for the ith

species.

As an example, imagine that we have a metagenome that has been binned into MAGs.

Our hypothetical community has three species: a Cyanobacterium, Alphaproteobacterium, and a

Gammaproteobacterium. Mapping metagenome reads to single-copy marker genes reveals that

the Cyanobacteria, the Alphaproteobacterium and Gammaproteobacterium each represent 50%,

25%, and 25% of the community, respectively. We wish to calculate the functional redundancy

of this community with respect to the production of a secondary metabolite. We use the presence

of a gene, *xxxA*, as a proxy for an organisms' potential to produce this secondary metabolite. The

MAGs reveal that the Cyanobacterium and Alphaproteobacterium contain 5 copies of *xxxA* each,

while the Gammaproteobacterium lacks the *xxxA* gene. Thus, the relative contribution from each

species to secondary metabolite production, when using *xxxA* as a proxy, is $\tau=0.67$, $\tau=0.33$, and

$\tau=0$, respectively. Using these relative contribution values, we proceed to calculate how evenly

species contribute towards the secondary metabolite production.

To do this, we reformulate the abundance distribution for community, *C*, as an abundance

distribution with respect to τ (relative contribution distribution)*, such that:

$C_{\tau,all} = \{\tau | \tau_i \geq 0 \; \forall \; \tau_i; \sum_{i=1}^{n} \tau_j = 1\}$ (3.1

and

$C_{\tau} = \{\tau \in C_{\tau,all} | \tau_i > 0 \; \forall \; \tau_i; \sum_{i=1}^{\sigma} \tau_i = 1\}$ (3.2

where again, τ_i is the relative contribution by the ith species to *T*, such that all τ sum to equal 1.

The community represented by equation 3.1 includes species not contributing to the community-

aggregated parameter. The community represented by equation 3.2 is a subset of the one

represented by equation 3.1, where C_{τ} contains only species from $C_{\tau,all}$ contributing towards a

community-aggregated parameter, which we refer to as "contributors." As such, we adopted the

variable, σ, which represents the richness of contributors. The effective richness of contributors

towards *T* was calculated using equation 3.2 and the Tsallis entropy index (21) such that:

$D_q = \begin{cases} (\sum_{i=1}^{\sigma} \tau_i^{q})^{\frac{1}{(1-q)}} & q \neq 1 \\ exp(\sum_{i=1}^{\sigma} -\tau_i \log \tau_i) & q=1 \end{cases}$ (4

where τ_i is the relative contribution by i^{th} species in C_{τ} towards *T*, and D_q is the effective richness

of contributors, and *q* is the diversity order, which weights the importance of species contributing

more or less towards *T* when calculating D_q. This is analogous to diversity order weighting the

importance of rare versus abundant species when measuring diversity of species abundances

(22). With diversity order *q*=0, equation 4 simplifies to the number of contributors in equation

3.2 (i.e., σ). Diversity order q=0 removes any influence in the variability of τ when calculating

D_q. Increasing the diversity order subsequently decreases the perceived contribution of

contributors with smaller τ. Diversity orders $q=1$ and $q=2$ correspond to Shannon's index. and

Simpson's index.

We then normalize D_q by community richness S, which is equal to Ds if every species

were to contribute to T equally), and adjust evenness to account for the functional dependence

that the lower evenness bound has on community richness (20). As such, functional redundancy

spans the full range from 0 to 1, such that:

$CE = \frac{D_q - 1}{S - 1}$ (5

Here, functional redundancy, *CE*, indicates how evenly species contribute to a trait, *T*. For the

hypothetical community described above, the effective richness (D_q, $q=0.5$—see *Results*) of

species possessing *xxxA* was ~1.55, and the functional redundancy, with respect to *xxxA*, was

CE=0.47 (*q*=0.5; see *Results*).

Simulations of Functional Redundancy as a Function of Resilience to Species Extinction

In order to test the fidelity with which CE measures resilience of a community-

aggregated parameter, we simulated artificial communities with varying values of species

richness (*S*), richness of contributors (σ), and contribution levels by contributors (*t*). First, the

richness of contributors was randomly chosen from a uniformly distributed range of 1 to 100.

Next, the richness of species not contributing to the community-aggregated parameter was

randomly chosen from a uniformly distributed range of 0 to 100, so that some artificial

communities were dominated by contributors while others by non-contributors. The relative

abundance, *p*, of individual species was modeled log-normally (28, 29) such that:

$R(r) = R_0 e^{-a^2 r^2}$ (6

where R was the rth rank, R_0 was the maximum abundance, and a was the inverse width of the

lognormal distribution. Values of a were randomly selected according to a uniform distribution

from 0 (even) to 0.4 (more uneven), at 0.01 intervals. After establishing species relative

abundances, we randomly chose σ contributing taxa from our lognormally distributed

community. The contribution level, t, was then randomly assigned to these species from a

uniformly distributed range of 0.01 to 1, at intervals of 0.01. We generated and calculated R for

1,000 artificial communities.

The resilience of a community-aggregated parameter to extinction was tested by a

simulation in which resilience to extinction was quantified as the average fraction of species

richness (S) that must go extinct in order to decrease community-aggregated parameter by 99%.

Species were randomly removed from the community until summed τ was reduced to 1% of its

original level. This choice of threshold allowed for the evaluation of communities where all

species were contributors. In such communities, all species would have to go extinct to remove

100% of the ecosystem function. We think that it is also justified ecologically, because dormant

microbes in the rare biosphere can serve as a deep reservoir of traits, and it is not clear that fully

removing a trait from an ecosystem realistically happens (30). The extinction simulation was

performed 100 times for each of the individual 1,000 artificial communities. The resilience to

extinction generated from the 100 simulations were then averaged for each of the individual

1,000 artificial communities. We made no *a priori* assumptions about the optimal diversity order

(i.e., q) to use in equations 4 and 5. We performed the simulation described above varying

diversity orders from 0 to 2 at 0.1 intervals. The best diversity order was determined by fitting

generalized additive model (GAM) regressions between R and resilience to extinction, and then

choosing the diversity order which resulted in a GAM fit with the lowest mean absolute error

among residuals. All GAM fits were performed using the gam function from the R package

mgcv (31). Last, we performed the same simulations and calculated *R* using other methods

described in the literature. A summary of these measurements is provided in Table 1. An R

package which calculates functional redundancy (equations 1-5) and performs these simulations

is available at https://github.com/taylorroyalty/funfunfun. *A Case Study of Functional*

Redundancy in the Global Ocean Nitrogen Cycle

Draft metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) from Tully, Graham et al. (2018) were

downloaded from NCBI (32). Data on metagenome sequencing effort (number of short reads),

MAG relative abundance estimates (pre-corrected for genome size), ocean depths, and ocean

regions, defined in (24), were downloaded from Figshare

(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.5188273). MAG relative abundances from each site were

multiplied by the respective site's sequencing effort to convert relative abundances into

abundance count data. Abundance counts for all sites were normalized by the lowest abundance

(greater than 0) among all sites. MAG abundances were then rarefied using the rrarefy function

from the R package vegan (33). We chose a sampling effort of 14,265, as this sampling effort

corresponded to the site with lowest sampling effort (i.e., sequencing effort). We tabulated

nitrogen-cycle marker genes in individual MAGs by blasting MAG proteins against nitrogen-

cycle marker gene databases using the BLASTP algorithm (*E*-value=10^{-10}) (34). Nitrogen cycle

marker genes were categorized into eight categories: N_2 fixation (*nifH*), nitrification (*amoA*,

hao), NO_3 reduction (*napA*, *narG*), dissimilatory NO_3 reduction (*nrfA*), assimilatory NO_3/NO_2

reduction (*narB*, *nasA*, *nasB*, and *nirB*), NH_4^+ assimilation (*gdhA*, *glnA*), N remineralization

(*gltB*), and denitrification (*nirK*, *nirS*, *norB*, and *nosZ*) (23). Individual BLAST databases were

constructed for each nitrogen cycle category. Gene names associated with individual categories

were searched for in the Swiss-Prot database (35). All proteins matching gene names were

subsequently downloaded and used in BLAST database construction. Functional redundancy was

then calculated for individual stations, at individual depths, for each nitrogen cycle category

using equations 1-5. We used a diversity order, q=0.5, based on the GAM sensitivity analysis.

Table 2 contains protein names, gene names, corresponding EC, and entry name for all genes

used in the above analysis.

Results and Discussion

Representing microbial communities as species abundance, trait abundance, and relative

contribution distributions

CE represents functional redundancy using two distributions: the distribution of species

abundances within a community, and the distribution of contribution levels among species. Here,

we evaluate genomic traits because these are regularly adopted as proxies for microbially-

mediated biogeochemistry (18, 26, 36–40). Because trait levels are measured as non-negative,

real numbers (17), the relative contribution of individual species to a community-aggregated

parameter can be represented as a relative abundance distribution (Figure 1). We determined the

relative contribution of individual species to the community-aggregated parameter from the

product of species relative abundances and their respective trait abundance distributions

(equation 2). We refer to the distribution of the relative contribution of each species to total as

the relative contribution distribution (equation 3). Thus, an abundant species that expresses a

small amount of trait per cell, and a rarer species that expresses a large amount of trait per cell,

can contribute equally with respect to a community-aggregated parameter (Figure 1).

Defining, Quantifying Functional Redundancy, and Choosing a Diversity Order q

We measured functional redundancy as how evenly species in a community contribute to

a community-aggregated parameter and termed this metric as contribution evenness (CE). This

definition is consistent with descriptions of functional redundancy as multiple species sharing

similar ecological roles or functions (2, 3). The relative contribution by species towards a

community aggregated-parameter (equation 2) provides a framework to calculate the effective

number, or richness, of species that contribute to that community-aggregated parameter as an

ecological function. This effective richness is calculated with traditional diversity indices

(equations 3-4) (21, 22). To determine the effective proportion of a community contributing to

the community-aggregated parameter, the richness of contributors is normalized by species

richness (22). Last, to make meaningful comparisons of evenness between communities with

different levels of richness, we made our evenness metric unrelated to community richness

(equation 5) (20).

Numerous diversity indices have been proposed in the literature. Three common

measures of diversity include species richness, Shannon's diversity index, and Simpson's

diversity index, are manifestations of equation 4 when the q term—commonly referred to as the

diversity order—is $q=0$, $q=1$, and $q=2$, respectively. The diversity order changes the relative

weight placed on rare versus common species when determining the effective richness. We

found that GAM fits between functional redundancy and resilience to extinction followed

positive, monotonic functions for all diversity orders spanning $q=0$ to $q=2$. However, at $q \approx 0.5$,

CE was most tightly related to resilience to extinction, our benchmark for functional redundancy

efficacy (Figure 2; also compare Fig 3a to 3b). Therefore, we suggest that $q=0.5$ makes *CE* the

best indicator of how resilient traits are to species extinction. In that case, equation 4 simplifies

to:

$D_q = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\sigma} \sqrt{\tau_i} \right)^2$ (7

and CE becomes:

$CE = \dfrac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\sigma} \sqrt{\tau_i} \right)^2 - 1}{S - 1}$ (8

This is the formulation of CE that we recommend for general use.

Functional Redundancy and Trait Resilience to Species Extinction

A tangible ecological consequence of functional redundancy is resilience of an ecosystem

function to the extinction of species performing that function. When functions are more broadly

distributed across species, a function is less likely to disappear due to the extinction of any subset

of species. This interpretation is often highlighted in macro-ecological studies (2–4, 8, 41–43).

The conceptual relationship between functional redundancy and resilience of an ecosystem

function provides an opportunity to demonstrate the fidelity of CE. To do this, CE was calculated

for randomly generated communities. Individual species were randomly assigned relative

contribution levels towards a community-aggregated parameter. We simulated random species

extinction events in the artificial communities until >99% of the original ecosystem function was

removed from the community (see *Methods*).

It is important to emphasize that these simulations were not designed to mimic how

extinction occurs in nature. Instead, these simulations empirically demonstrate the degree to

which an ecosystem function is concentrated in species. The more widely an ecosystem function

is distributed across species, the more species must go extinct before the ecosystem function is

lost. We observed a positive, monotonic relationship between the resilience to random species

extinction events and CE (Figure 3A). When CE was ~0, resilience to species extinction was

~0.5, meaning ~50% of the community, on average, went extinct before an ecosystem function

was removed from the community. This is equivalent to only one species performing the

ecosystem function. When CE was ~1, resilience to species extinct was ~1, meaning that 100%

of the community, on average, had to go extinct to completely remove a function from an

ecosystem. In general, the relationship between CE and trait resilience to extinction resembled a

saturation curve—although we opted to use GAMs when calculating mean absolute error

(previous section) as we made no assumption about the true relationship between CE and

function resilience, other than it should be a positive, monotonic function.

Here, we recommend the form of CE described in equation 8, as it is optimized for our

intended use case, which is measuring relative resilience of traits to species extinctions within

communities. However, we can imagine other applications of the CE concept, for which other

values of q may be appropriate. Even for species diversity (i.e., equation 4), there is still

discussion over the merits of using Simpson's Index ($q=2$), Shannon's Index ($q=1$), and richness

($q=0$) in different situations (44–46). As such, it is important to be explicit about the implications

of behind choosing a trait and the diversity order.

CE Measures Resilience Differently than Other Functional Redundancy Metrics

Several methods for evaluating community-level functional redundancy exist in the

literature, as detailed in Table 1. While Table 1 certainly does not include all published metrics,

the highlighted metrics reflect the diversity in how traits, community properties (i.e., richness

and evenness), as well as the desired metric utility (by design) vary among different functional

redundancy metrics. Two of the metrics evaluate niche overlap, where niches are defined in

multivariate trait space (7, 8). In the case of Ricotta et al. (2016), functional redundancy weights

species abundance, leading to a measure of the expected niche dissimilarity from the mean

community niche. In contrast, Hester et al. (2019) evaluates the median metabolic overlap which

considers neither species abundance nor trait levels. One metric evaluates niche occupancy,

where niches are defined in multivariate trait space (6). In this approach, functional redundancy

is taken to be as the ratio of species richness to plausible number niches (unique combinations of

trait states), called functional entities. The last metric is informal but has been utilized by various

authors. In this approach, functional redundancy is simply interpreted as the proportion of

species in a community with a trait (e.g., 12–14).

To highlight the difference between our metric and the others described in Table 1, we

repeated the extinction simulations and compared all estimates of functional redundancy with

trait resilience to species extinction (Figure 3B-E). In these simulations, only one trait was

considered when calculating functional redundancy with all metrics. For the method presented in

Mouillot et al. (2014), we assumed there were two functional entities (trait absence and

presence). Generally, all functional redundancy metrics trended differently to resilience to

species extinction. This observation was not surprising, as most of these methods evaluate niche

overlap in some fashion. Among the metrics in Table 1, the fraction of the community

possessing a trait behaved most like CE (Figure 3B). We note that the fraction of the community

possessing a trait is a special case of CE, with diversity order $q=0$. Lastly, one inherent limitation

of CE is that it only evaluates single community-aggregated parameters at a time. To address

functional redundancy with respect to multiple traits perform dimensional reduction (e.g., PCA)

on multiple traits and use the resultant factors as trait levels in equation 2. Factors in this case

would be interpreted as different niches.

Case Study: Redundancy of Nitrogen Cycle Marker Genes in Marine Microbiomes

To demonstrate a real application and provide a positive control for CE results, we

measured CE in the marine nitrogen cycle using genomic data from the *TARA Oceans* project

(47). Recently, (24) published 2,361 draft metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) which

represent genomic content from seven oceanographic provinces, three different depths, and four

filter size fractions. Relative abundance data used here were reported in (24) and were

determined by the proportion of sequence reads mapping to assembled MAGs. For simplicity,

we limited our analysis to only MAGs identified in the bacterial size fraction (<3 μm), which

corresponds to free-living microbes. The nitrogen cycle was simplified to eight pathways (23)

and included N_2 fixation, nitrification, NO_3^- reduction, dissimilatory NO_3^- reduction, assimilatory

NO_3^-/NO_2^- reduction, NH_4^+ assimilation, N remineralization, and denitrification. A general

summary of the marker genes (downloaded from Swiss-Prot; see Methods) used for quantifying

nitrogen cycle pathways in MAGs is summarized in Table 2.

Overall, the functional redundancy for individual genomic traits was consistent with our

conceptual understanding of primary nitrogen-transforming pathways in the ocean (Figure 4). A

clear example was the low functional redundancy in the nitrification pathway. We expected this

observation as nitrification metabolisms in oceans are primarily restricted to *Crenarchaeota* (48).

Similarly, the N_2 fixation pathway, which is predominantly facilitated by a small group of

Cyanobacteria, exhibits low functional redundancy. Conversely, the uptake of inorganic N via

NH_4^+ and NO_3^-/NO_2^- assimilation are known to be broadly expressed traits (23), and accordingly

exhibit high CE. Last, the low functional redundancy in dissimilatory NO_3^- reduction and NO_3^-

reduction were not surprising considering these pathways occur in anaerobic and low-oxygen

environments, respectively (23).

Some variance existed across oceanographic provinces and depth for intra-pathway

functional redundancy. However, inter-pathway variance in functional redundancy was generally

larger than intra-pathway variance (Figure 4). This suggests that the marine nitrogen cycle

marker genes considered here are consistently distributed among communities for MAGs

retrieved in Earth's ocean at middle and lower latitudes. This was consistent with the lack of

relationship between the metagenome companion metadata (e.g., O_2, inorganic N, PO_4^{3-}, latitude,

longitude, etc.) and functional redundancy. The low intra-pathway variance in functional

redundancy was not particularly surprising, as saltwater biomes exhibit the lowest alpha-

diversity and small beta-diversity among free-living microbiomes (47, 49). Minor shifts in

community composition among lower taxonomic ranks (e.g., genus or species) will not

drastically alter redundancy in genomic traits as changes in genomic composition is buffered by

traits conserved at higher taxonomic ranks (e.g., phylum level) (50). This observation was in

agreement with an earlier analysis evaluating cluster of orthologous groups (COGs) composition

across *TARA Oceans* metagenomes (47).

The disproportionate number of lineages that lack cultured representatives highlights the

continued importance of nucleotide sequencing in microbial ecology and the interference of

microbial function (51). Here, we demonstrated that CE provides a framework to evaluate the

functional redundancy for these traits in a novel way. This approach represents an easy-to-apply,

quantitative metric for functional redundancy that faithfully represents the stability of traits to

extinctions of species within a community.

Data Availability

In order to facilitate the use of CE functional redundancy measurements, we created an R

package to calculate CE functional redundancy and run extinction simulations. The package is

available at https://github.com/taylorroyalty/funfunfun.

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Author Contribution

TMR designed the research, performed research, analyzed data, developed the R package, and

wrote the paper. ADS designed the research, developed the R package, and wrote the paper.

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Data Accessibility

We provided a function for calculating functional redundancy with CE and an example script at

https://github.com/taylorroyalty/functional_redundancy_script.

Author Contribution

TMR designed the research, performed research, analyzed data, and wrote the paper. ADS

designed the research, performed research, and wrote the paper.

Tables

Table 1. A summary of metrics of community-level functional redundancy.

Authors	Interpretation	Equation	Notes
Here	Effective proportion of species with a trait	$R = \dfrac{D_q - 1}{S - 1}$	• Accounts for species abundances • Continuous trait states • Individual traits • R spans 0 to 1
(8)	Expected trait dissimilarity among species in a community	$R = 1 - \dfrac{\sum_i p_i \sum_j p_j \delta_{ji}}{D_2}$; $\delta_{ji} = trait\ distance$; $D_2 = $ Taxonomic diversity order $(q = 2)$	• Accounts for species abundances • Continuous trait states • Individual or multivariate traits • Normalized by a maximum theoretical dissimilarity • R spans 0 to 1
(6)	Ratio of species to number of functional entities (states)	$R = \dfrac{S}{FE}$; FE = # of possible combinations of trait states for all traits under consideration	• Binary trait states • Individual or multivariate traits • R spans ~0 ($\lim\limits_{FE \to \infty} \dfrac{S}{FE} = 0$) to S
Various (see text for examples)	Fraction of species with a trait	$R = \dfrac{\nu}{S}$	• Binary trait states • Individual traits • R spans 0 to 1
(7)	Median overlap of traits between species	$R = med(O)$; $O = \{o \mid o_{i,j} = \lvert g_i \cap g_j \rvert; i \neq j\}$; $g = taxa$; O = set containing # of overlaps among species	• Binary trait states • $\lvert g_i \cap g_j \rvert$ represents the number of overlapping traits g between species i and species j • Individual and multivariate traits • R spans 0 to ∞

588   **Table 2. A summary of marker gene sequences used in the BLASTP analysis of *TARA***
589   ***Oceans* MAGs. All marker genes were downloaded from Swiss-Prot.**

Pathway	Gene Names	EC Number	# Marker Genes
N Remineralization	*gltB*	1.4.1.13	14
N Fixation	*nifH*	1.18.6.1	127
Nitrification	*amoA*	1.14.99.39	2
	hoa	1.7.2.6	1
NO_3^- Reduction	*napA*	1.9.6.1	136
	narG	1.7.5.1	13
Dissimilatory NO_3^- Reduction	*nrfA*	1.7.2.2	77
Assimilatory NO_3^-/NO_2^- Reduction	*narB*	1.7.5.1	3
	nasA	1.7.7.2	1
	nasB	1.7.1.4	3
	nirB	1.7.1.15	5
NH_4^+ Assimilation	*gdhA*	1.4.1.3	14
	glnA	6.3.1.2	173
Denitrification	*nirK*	1.7.2.1	7
	nirS	1.7.2.1; 1.7.99.1	4
	norB	1.7.2.5	2
	nosZ	1.7.2.4	11

Figures

Figure 1.

Community taxon abundance and relative contribution level are scalable and provide a measure

for the contribution that different species have towards a community-aggregated parameter. The

evenness of species-level contribution to the community-aggregated parameter is taken as the

functional redundancy.

Figure 2.

The sensitivity of mean absolute error between functional redundancy and trait resilience to

species extinction in response changing diversity order q in equation 4.

Figure 3.

A comparison of the relationship between selected different functional redundancy metrics and

trait resilience (see methods). Functional redundancy calculated with equation 5 (q=0.5) (**A**),

equation 5 (q=0) (**B**), methodology from Ricotta et al. (2016) (**C**), methodology from Mouillot et

al. (2014) (**D**), and methodology from Hester et al. (2019). Black lines in panels **A-D** correspond

to best fit GAMs. The stars in panel **E** correspond to the average trait resilience at R=0 and R=1.

The color scale corresponds to the fraction of a community with a trait versus.

Figure 4.

Boxplots showing functional redundancy calculated for eight nitrogen-transforming pathways in

TARA Oceans draft MAGs. Different colors correspond to sample depth. Whiskers correspond to

150% of the inter-quantile region.