1 Title: Microbial community function increases host plant leaf growth in a pitcher plant experimental system

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Abstract

Across diverse ecosystems, bacteria and their host organisms engage in complex relationships having negative, neutral, or positive effects. However, the specific effects of leaf-associated bacterial community functions on plant growth are poorly understood. This study investigated mechanistic relationships between bacterial community function and host plant growth in a carnivorous plant that relies on microbes to break down insect prey via extracellular hydrolytic enzymes. Sterile, freshly opened leaves (pitchers) of purple pitcher plants (*Sarracenia purpurea*) were inoculated with three functionally distinct bacterial communities to test the effects of bacterial function on plant growth and leaf nutrient content. Bacterial community composition and function were measured using physiological assays, metagenomics, and metatranscriptomics. Distinct bacterial functions affected plant traits, with a bacterial community enriched in decomposition and secondary metabolite production traits leading to leaves with almost double the biomass of control pitchers. Functional differences in bacterial communities, measured by physiological assays, were supported by metatranscriptomic analysis; for example, the bacterial community with the highest chitinase activity had greater relative abundance of transcripts associated with chitinase enzymes. The bacterial community associated with larger pitchers also had increased differential expression of transcripts linked to microbially-produced plant hormones. The direct relationship between bacterial community function and plant growth observed, indicates specific mechanisms for host-associated bacterial functions to support plant health and growth.

Keywords

microbial community function; metatranscriptomics; microbial; phyllosphere; microbe-plant interactions; host health; metagenomics; pitcher plant; *Sarracenia purpurea*

Introduction

Microbiomes have strong effects on the health and fitness of their hosts (1,2). Host plant growth and physiology are affected by the presence of leaf-associated (phyllosphere) microbes, with microbial taxa acting as mutualists, commensals, and antagonistic pathogens (3–6). Phyllosphere microbes live in complex microecosystems (7,8) performing functions that drive plant nutrient acquisition, phytohormone production, and stress tolerance (3). For

37 example, the addition of synthetic phyllosphere communities has been shown to increase fruit production in
38 greenhouse-grown tomatoes (6) and increase leaf sugar content and metabolic diversity in field-grown *Agave*
39 *tequilana* (9). Plants reap many benefits by hosting microbial communities (3,9). Nutrient cycling interactions
40 between microbes and plants can occur directly, e.g., via bacterial nitrogen fixation, and indirectly, e.g., via
41 increased bacterial growth that influences host plant metabolism (3,10). The majority of bacteria that engage in
42 plant-microbe interactions also have pathways to produce phytohormones, like auxins or cytokinins, which
43 support plant cell metabolism and growth (3,11–15). Plant growth-promoting bacteria can also mediate host stress
44 responses, including increasing drought tolerance, thermotolerance, and UV protection (3,16,17). Despite these
45 demonstrated benefits to host plants, we still lack research directly connecting bacterial community function with
46 host physiological functions and benefits. We define bacterial community function as the collective activities and
47 metabolic processes of all the individual bacterial species within a community. This study addresses this gap by
48 examining both bacterial and plant physiology, using metabarcoding, metagenomics, and metatranscriptomics of
49 bacterial communities and measuring plant responses over time.
50
51 The carnivorous pitcher plant, *Sarracenia purpurea*, uses water-filled, cup-shaped leaves to trap and digest insects
52 to supplement nutrient acquisition that it is unable to obtain from low nutrient soils (18,19). These leaves or
53 'pitchers' host an aquatic micro-ecosystem composed of microbes, fungi, protists and invertebrates (8,20,21). The
54 microbes, in particular, are thought to provide critical ecosystem functions to the host plants by mediating insect
55 prey digestion through the production of extracellular hydrolytic enzymes. It is likely that the bacterial production
56 of protease and chitinase enzymes that digest protein and chitin-rich insect prey are especially important for this
57 carnivorous plant species (22–24). *Sarracenia purpurea* pitcher plants do not produce chitinase enzymes (22), thus
58 they may rely heavily on the bacterial extracellular enzymes to catalyze decomposition of insect prey and support
59 the mineralization of carbon, nitrogen, and other nutrients for the host plant and the whole micro-ecosystem. This
60 is an ideal system to examine bacterial functions in controlled experiments, serving as an analog for other systems
61 like the gut microbiome, where experimentation is more challenging. Although previous research has hypothesized
62 that pitcher plant leaf-associated bacterial communities benefit the host plant (18,25,26), no studies have yet
63 demonstrated or measured a direct benefit.

To connect the effects of bacterial function to plant growth, we designed a manipulative experiment using pitcher plant leaves and bacterial communities with different physiological functional profiles, measured as different levels of activity across critical functions. These community physiological functions, including hydrolytic enzyme activity, carbon substrate use, and respiration rates, were characterized prior to inoculation, and the effects of these functionally distinct bacterial communities on host plants was examined over eight weeks. We use the term high-functioning community to highlight communities that are highly efficient at critical functions in our system, such as high rates of chitinase activity. We asked four specific questions: (1) Do bacterial communities with different functional profiles have differential effects on plant traits, such as leaf growth and nutrients? (2) Are there specific functions, e.g., hydrolytic enzyme activity or carbon substrate use, that drive these effects on host plants? (3) Are there taxonomic characteristics of these bacterial communities that can explain the observed functional differences? (4) Can bacterial functions directly measured *in planta* be linked with differential gene expression (metatranscriptomics) to better understand the mechanisms of bacterial impacts on their host? For question 4, we hypothesized that communities with higher physiological functional measurements would show higher transcription of genes associated with degradative functions, allowing bacterial functions measured *in planta* to be linked with differential gene transcription and mechanisms underlying bacterial-host interactions.

Methods (See supplement for additional methods)

Experimental design

Prior to experiment initiation, mature greenhouse-grown *S. purpurea* plants were surface-sterilized, repotted in twice-autoclaved soil, and transferred to plant growth chambers (Hoffman Mfg. Inc. Corvallis, OR USA, SG2-22). The three distinct bacterial communities (CommA, CommB, and CommC) used for inoculation were previously collected from wild *S. purpurea* pitcher plants (27), reconstituted from cryogenic culture, and stabilized in culture (acidified cricket media, ACM) prior to the experiment. There were five treatment groups: CommA, CommB, CommC, ACM only (control), and sterile deionized (DI) water only (control) (Fig. 1). Ten individual pitcher plants were randomly assigned to each bacterial treatment group and six for each control group, for a total of 42 individual plants. On each plant, one new, unopened pitcher was manually opened using sterile gloved hands and

91 carefully inoculated with a bacterial community culture in ACM (experimental groups), or sterile ACM media or
92 sterile water (control groups, no bacteria). The single pitcher on each plant that received one of the five
93 treatments was the target pitcher (pitcher 1). All other pitchers on each plant received sterile water for the
94 duration of the experiment. For some plant trait measurements, data was also collected on the second newest
95 pitcher (pitcher 2). Pitcher volume varied with the size of the new pitcher, but bacterial culture concentrations
96 were maintained across all experimental group pitchers (i.e., each pitcher got a 1:10 ratio of bacterial culture to
97 new media at day 0 of experiment regardless of pitcher volume). Samples were collected weekly: starting one day
98 after inoculation (day 1), 4 mL was collected (full details in Supplement) from each pitcher using sterile technique
99 and aliquoted for amplicon sequencing, metagenomic/metatranscriptomic analysis, bacterial physiological assays,
100 and culture preservation. All preserved samples were stored at -80°C until nucleic acid extraction.
101
102 **Bacterial Physiological Assays**
103 Chitinase and protease activities were quantified weekly on a sample from each treatment pitcher using
104 fluorometric assays in black 96-well microplates (24,28). Fluorescence emission was measured every five minutes
105 for one hour using a microplate reader (Biotek Synergy Mx Multi-Mode Microplate Reader). Of three types of
106 chitinases found in the bacterial communities of *S. purpurea* pitchers, chitobiosidase activity was selected for
107 quantification because preliminary data showed higher activity potential than β-N-acetylglucosaminidase and
108 triacetyl chitotriosidase. Cumulative enzyme activity potential was calculated by summing the weekly enzyme
109 activity for each pitcher over eight weeks. The "functional fingerprint" for each bacterial community was measured
110 by examining the community's capacity to use 31 carbon substrates. These measurements were conducted on the
111 first and last day of the experiment (day 1 and 55) using Biolog EcoPlates that were read with a microplate reader
112 after 72 hours of incubation at room temperature (29). See the supplemental methods for other bacterial
113 functional measurements, including bacterial growth rates and respiration.
114
115 **Plant functional traits**
116 Pitcher morphological traits, including length, width, and aperture (30) were measured weekly for eight weeks. For
117 each plant, the number of mature leaves was recorded at the beginning and end of the experiment. After eight

118 weeks, wet and dry biomass were measured for pitchers 1 and 2 from each plant. Plant physiological capacity was
119 measured as photosynthetic CO_2 assimilation rate on day 55 using a LICOR-640 and using chlorophyll *a*
120 fluorescence. Nutrient acquisition was assessed in plant tissue after drying at 65°C for 72 hours, stored dry before
121 homogenization for CN elemental analysis (Thermo-Electron Flash EA1112). See supplementary methods for
122 details on plant measurements.
123
124 **16S rRNA sequencing and analysis**
125 To characterize bacterial community composition, DNA was extracted for all samples (day 8, 15, 22, 29, 36, 43, 50,
126 55, n=310) using the DNAdvance Genomic DNA Isolation Kit (Beckman Coulter A48705). DNA was quantified using
127 AccuClear Ultra HS dsDNA kit (Biotium #31028). 16S rRNA gene amplification and library preparation and
128 sequencing was conducted by the Environmental Sample Preparation and Sequencing Facility at Argonne National
129 Laboratory on a 151 bp x 12 bp x 151 bp Illumina MiSeq run targeting the V4 region of 16S rRNA using the 515F
130 and 806R primers (31).
131
132 We used QIIME2 (version 2022.8) on the Boise State University computing cluster (Borah) to demultiplex amplicon
133 sequences using no golay error correction, and the DADA2 plugin to denoise sequences and generate amplicon
134 sequence variants (ASVs) of 150 bp length (32,33). Taxonomy was assigned using the classify-sklearn method
135 which is a Native Bayes classifier, and a pre-trained classifier made with Silva v. 138 database containing 99%
136 amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) from 515F/806R region (34). The phylogenetic tree was built using multiple-
137 sequence alignment via MAFFT and phylogenetic reconstruction via FastTree, both via a QIIME2 plugin (35,36).
138 Taxonomy and ASV tables were migrated to R for further analysis (see supplement for full methods) and
139 visualization using qiime2R, picante, and phyloseq (37–39).
140
141 **Metagenomic and metatranscriptomic sequencing and analysis**
142 The pitcher fluid from three of the 10 pitchers in each treatment group were selected from three time points (3
143 plants x 3 treatments x 3 timepoints, n=27) for simultaneous DNA/RNA extractions for metagenomic and
144 metatranscriptomic sequencing using the Qiagen AllPrep Bacteria DNA/RNA/Protein Kit (Cat 47054), according to

145 manufacturer directions. Nucleic acids were quantified using a fluorometer (Qubit, Invitrogen). Metagenomic
146 libraries were prepared for a subset of these DNA samples (3 plants x 3 treatments x 2 timepoints, n=18) using
147 NEBNext Ultra II FS DNA library prep kit for Illumina (NEB#78055). Libraries were prepared for the full 27 RNA
148 samples using NEBNext rRNA Depletion Kit (NEB#E7850) and NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA library prep kit for
149 Illumina (NEB#E7760) using manufacturer protocols. Sequencing was done on a NovaSeq partial lane to a
150 sequencing depth of 55 Gb per library at Novogene Co. (Sacramento, CA USA).
151
152 Shotgun metagenomic and metatranscriptomic sequences were processed on BSU's Borah cluster. Adapters and
153 low quality sequences were trimmed using Trimmomatic (0.39) and viewed with MultiQC (v1.6) quality reports
154 (40,41). Metatransciptomic sequences were further processed to remove ribosomal RNA using the default settings
155 in Ribodetector (42). Two co-assemblies were produced (metagenomic and metatransciptomic) using MEGAHIT
156 (v1.2.9) (43,44). For the metagenomic analysis, the "sketch", "gather", and "tax annotate" functions within
157 sourmash (version 4.8.2) (45) using kmer=31 were used to assign and quantify taxonomy using the full GTDB
158 database (R08-RS214 403k) (46). Contigs in the coassembly and paired-end reads were binned using MAXBIN2
159 (2.2.7), CONCOCT (1.1.0), and Metabat2 (2.12.1), consensus bins were produced using DASTool (1.1.6) (47–50).
160 Completeness and contamination of each metagenome assembled genome (MAG) were calculated using the
161 presence of single-copy marker genes with CHECKM2 v.1.0.11 (51). Comparisons and dereplication of MAGs
162 employed dREP v.2.2.1 (52). Taxonomy was assigned to the quality-controlled MAGs using the full GTDB database
163 within sourmash. Bins were quality ranked according to their completeness and contamination (53,54). For
164 metatranscriptomic analyses, read mapping was conducted using Bowtie2 (2.5.1) (55). Samtools (1.6) (56) was
165 used to calculate mapping statistics and further process the contig files for downstream analysis. Open reading
166 frames (ORFs) were predicted using Prodigal (v2.6.3) (57). Transcript abundance quantification was done in Kallisto
167 (v1.9.0) and resulted in transcripts per million (TPM) (58). KOFAMSCAN (1.3.0) was used to bin ORFs into KOs using
168 the full KEGG database (59).
169
170 **Statistical analyses**

171 All statistical analyses were conducted in R version 4.2.2 (60). Alpha diversity metrics (Hill Number 1) were
172 calculated using the *vegan* package (61) and additional processing used *tidyverse* and *janitor* (62–64). For ASV-level
173 differential abundance explained by the treatment groups, we did an analysis of compositions of microbiomes with
174 bias correction (*ANCOMBC*, (65)). Significantly differentially abundant ASVs were visualized with boxplots and a
175 heatmap (66) by transforming the normalized reads: (log2(read count+0.5)).
176
177 Community similarity in ASVs and EcoPlate carbon substrate use among samples in each treatment group was
178 determined using the vegan package in (61). Compositional differences (beta diversity) and changes across the
179 three bacterial community treatments from day 8 to 55 were assessed using phylogenetic methods (unweighted
180 UniFrac, 67)). Mantel tests (61) assessed correlations between bacterial composition and hydrolytic enzyme
181 activity or pitcher biomass. To visualize the similarity in EcoPlate carbon substrate use among samples and
182 treatments, a *metaMDS* analysis with Bray-Curtis distance at two dimensions (k=2) was utilized. In both cases, non-
183 metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS, 61)) visualized the dissimilarities calculated between each pitcher fluid
184 sample. A non-parametric multivariate analysis of variance test (*PERMANOVA*, *adonis2* function, by="margin") was
185 used to assess any differences between treatments, and *pairwise adonis* was used to assess the effects of
186 treatment and time, while accounting for repeated measures for each pitcher (61). Dispersion, or the homogeneity
187 in dispersion between treatments, was calculated using the *betadisper* function (permutations compared using a
188 post-hoc Tukey test, 61).
189
190 Metatranscriptomic statistical analyses began with a matrix of filtered genes (length>500bp), samples were
191 normalized using the *calcNormFactors* function in the *variancePartition* package (1.28.9). Differential transcript
192 abundance was quantified using *Dream* within the *variancePartition* package (68). In order to link specific taxa to
193 differentially expressed functions, significantly differentially abundant contigs were mapped to the MAGs using a
194 custom database built from the MAG contigs and *BLAST* (2.14.0) (69).
195
196 To isolate the impact of functionally distinct bacterial communities on plant traits (after 8 weeks *in planta*,
197 Questions 1 and 2), we developed Bayesian generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) using variables based on the

198 causal assumptions of directed acyclic graphs (DAGs). Directed acyclic graphs help identify which observed and
199 unobserved variables to condition upon to remove non-causal associations between variables and isolate
200 mechanisms of interest, under the assumption that the depicted pathways between variables in a research design
201 are accurate . Therefore, GLMMs contained a variable set designed to isolate the effects of treatment and
202 enzymatic activity from the other unspecified and unrecorded impacts of our bacterial treatments (Fig. S1) (70,71).
203 Pitcher biomass was selected to represent the morphometrics and growth, along with leaf nitrogen content
204 representing leaf nutrient acquisition. To consider non-independence of repeated measures of pitchers over time,
205 models included a random intercept for pitcher identity.
206
207 Bayesian hierarchical models using a gamma (log-link) GLM were fit using the *brms* package (72) and visualized
208 using *bayesplot*, *ggeffects*, and *tidybayes* (73–75). The continuous predictor variables were standardized and mean
209 centered using the *standardize* package (76,77). Default uninformative priors were used, convergence and mixing
210 of chains and unimodality in posterior predictions were visually assessed, and all R-hat values were close to 1.0
211 (78). The model fit was evaluated using the posterior predictive check function in *brms* (72).
212
213 **Results**
214 **Starting communities were functionally distinct**
215 Initial communities were functionally different in their chitinase activity, protease activity, bacterial respiration,
216 and EcoPlate substrate use profiles (Fig. 1, Fig. S2). CommB had the highest chitinase activity and lowest protease
217 activity prior to inoculation (Fig. 1A, B, statistical differences shown in Fig. S2). Chitinase and protease activity
218 increased for all treatments except the water control throughout the experiment (Fig. S4). Bacterial respiration
219 was initially lower in CommB, but there were no respiration rate differences among the communities by day 55
220 (Fig. S2). There were strong differences in substrate use profiles among three bacterial community groups,
221 sampled 24 hours after pitcher inoculation (Table S1, Fig. 1C), which remained distinct and increased in dispersion
222 within over time (Fig. S3, Table S1). Bacterial community composition was taxonomically different on day 8 (Table
223 S2; Fig. 1D). There were no measured differences in bacterial community growth rates between our treatments at
224 any time point.

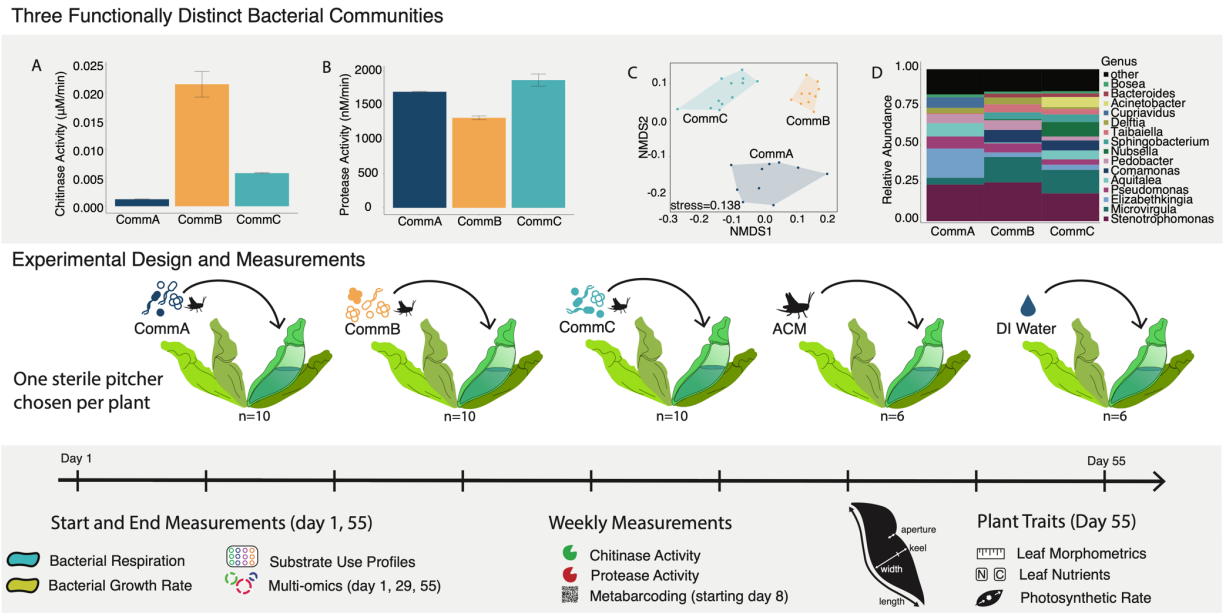


Figure 1. **Experimental design and initial functions of starting bacterial communities.** Three functionally distinct bacterial communities growing in acidified cricket media (ACM) were inoculated into sterile pitchers and incubated in growth chambers for eight weeks. ACM or sterile deionized (DI) water were added to additional pitchers as experimental controls. Bacterial communities had different physiological functions measured before inoculation: **A** CommB had higher chitinase activity and **B** lower protease activity than CommA and CommC. **C** As visualized with the NMDS (k=2, stress=0.138) of EcoPlate functional fingerprints using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, the three starting communities had different substrate use profiles (n=31, PERMANOVA p=0.001) (statistical differences shown in Fig. S2). **D** These three communities also had distinct community compositions. Bacterial community function was characterized prior to inoculation (**A,B**), then weekly after inoculation, starting on day 1 *in planta* and continuing until day 55. Bacterial data collected included: chitinase and protease activity, community respiration, growth rate, substrate use profiles, and samples for metagenomics and metatranscriptomics. Plant functional traits assessed include morphometric measurements of pitchers, as well as end of experiment measures of leaf biomass, leaf nutrient content, and photosynthetic rate.

Bacterial function affects plant traits

To address Question 1, we assessed the effect of community function on the response of specific plant traits (pitcher biomass and nitrogen content) after hosting a bacterial community for 8 weeks. Pitchers hosting bacterial communities with different functional profiles differed in their final biomass. Specifically, hosting a bacterial community with higher chitinase activity at the start of the experiment resulted in leaves with higher biomass (Fig. 2A). Pitchers hosting the high chitinase CommB, had 1.7 times the biomass (mean biomass = 0.468 g) of pitchers with ACM only (mean biomass = 0.275 g) and double the biomass of water-only control plants (mean biomass = 0.235 g). The estimated probability of a positive effect on pitcher biomass for each group compared to the cricket media (ACM) control was 81.04% for CommA, 99.73% for CommB, and 84.32% for CommC (Fig. 2B). We saw

249 similar effects of treatment on all leaf morphological measures (which were correlated, Fig. S5); for example,
250 pitchers that hosted the high chitinase bacterial community also had longer leaves and higher pitcher carbon
251 content than other treatments (Fig. S7). Additionally, there was a positive effect of the CommC treatment on total
252 plant growth (measured as the net production of leaves effect; 96.55% greater than 0, although the 95% CIs cross
253 zero), plants in the CommC group had an estimated 1.4 greater net pitcher mass production than the ACM control
254 over eight weeks (Sig. S7).
255
256 The estimated effect of the bacterial function on the total pitcher nitrogen content (Fig. 2C and 2D) showed the
257 probability of a pitcher having increased nitrogen content was greatest when hosting a bacterial community
258 compared to the water-only treatment; our 95% CIs cross zero (ACM baseline) but we did see a weak positive
259 directional effect and estimated a 74% probability that bacterial treatments had a positive effect on pitcher
260 nitrogen. There was no difference between the bacterial communities in terms of pitcher nitrogen content
261 (mg/pitcher, estimated N content for the three communities; CommA=5.04 mg, CommB=4.9 mg, CommC=4.7 mg).
262 There was a strong negative effect of N content in pitchers containing water only (estimated N content = 2.11 mg,
263 95% CIs= -1.057 -0.433, Fig. 2C and 2D). No other differences between the treatments were observed, including no
264 differences in photosynthetic rates or photosynthetic quantum yield (F_v/F_m) between pitchers in the five
265 treatments (Fig. S7).
266
267 To investigate specific functions driving differences in plant traits (Question 2), there were no independent effects
268 of chitinase (95% CIs=-0.212, 0.074) or protease activity (95% CIs=-0.288, 0.146) on pitcher nitrogen content (Fig.
269 S6C).

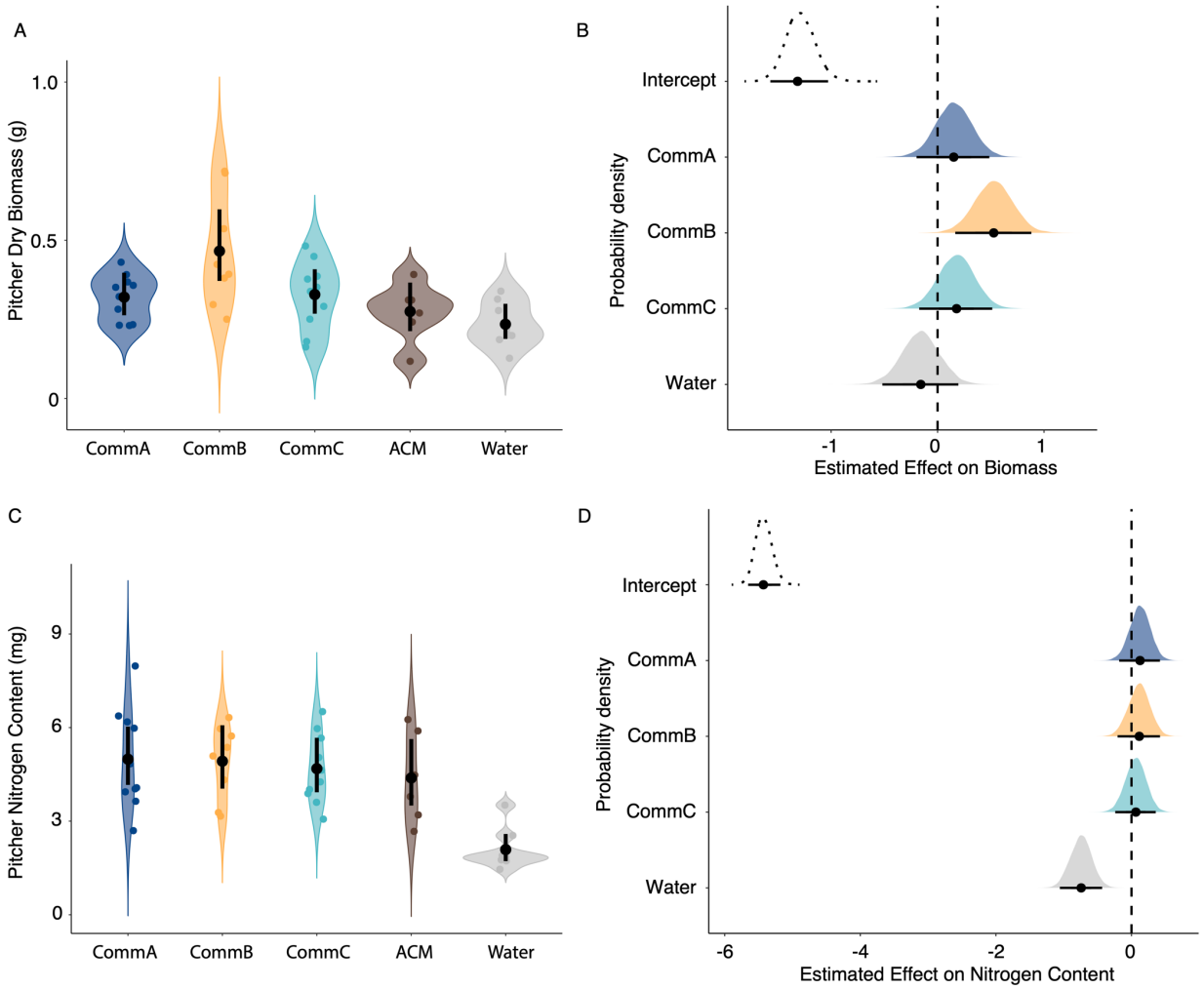


Figure 2. **Bacterial community treatment affects plant traits. A** Marginal effect of treatment on target pitcher biomass vary in relation to community function. The density distributions of pitcher biomass data used to calculate estimated effects are represented by the violin plot with colored points behind the marginal effect estimates. The predicted effects of treatment (while holding all other covariates at their means) are represented by the black line range. This point is the median and the line represents the 95% credible intervals (CIs). **B** Predicted effects of functionally distinct community treatments on pitcher biomass. Black points represent median estimates, lines represent the 95% CIs, and color-coded (by treatment) density plots indicate the full posterior. The intercept (dashed posterior) is set as the ACM baseline. **C** The density distributions of pitcher nitrogen content are shown in violin plots and points. The marginal effect estimates (while holding all other covariates at their means) are represented by the black line range, the black point is the median and the line represents the 95% credible intervals (CIs). **D** Predicted effects of functionally distinct community treatments on pitcher nitrogen (N). As with (B), black points represent median estimates, lines represent the 95% CIs, and color-coded (by treatment) density plots indicate the full posterior probability densities, and the Intercept (dashed posterior) is set as the ACM baseline.

Compositional differences between the three communities

16S Metabarcoding results

289 After quality control and rarefaction, 917 ASV were recovered and in a community matrix across 310 samples (6-10
290 pitchers x 5 treatment groups x 8 weekly timepoints) these represented 26 bacterial phyla, 192 families, and 286
291 genera. Of the top 20 genera averaged across pitchers within a treatment at a single time point, three were highly
292 abundant, comprising almost 25% of total reads: *Microvirgula* (14.2%), *Stenotrophomonas* (12.4%), and
293 *Pedobacter* (11.3%) (Fig. 3A).
294
295 **Community Diversity and Differential Abundance**
296 Addressing Question 3, we observed differences in alpha diversity between three treatments (CommA, CommB,
297 and CommC) after one week *in planta* (Fig. 3B, Fig. S9). Between day 8 and 55, the effective number of ASVs
298 increased (mean gain of 7.5 ASVs per sample) but community treatment differences in ASV numbers disappeared
299 by day 55 (Fig. 3B, Fig. S9). Some bacterial ASVs were present in control treatments, with a higher alpha diversity in
300 the ACM treatment than water controls, but all control treatment samples had lower alpha diversity than those
301 with inoculated communities (ENS_{ACMwk8}=17.2, $ENS_{WATERwk8}$=12.2).
302
303 We found a significant difference in beta diversity (the turnover in community composition) between the three
304 community treatments (PERMANOVA; R^2=0.262, $F_{2, 214}$=37.92, p=0.001) using unweighted UniFrac distances,
305 shown as clear clustering of treatments in NMDS visualization (Fig. 3C) and significant pairwise differences over
306 time (Table S2). Mantel tests (Spearman's rank correlation rho) showed significant correlations between the
307 unweighted UniFrac distances and chitinase activity (r=0.227, p=0.001) and final pitcher length (r=0.117, p=0.001),
308 but no significant relationship with protease activity (r=0.032, p=2.17). Using ANCOM-BC, 19 differentially
309 abundant ASVs were identified across CommA, CommB, and CommC at day 8 and 37 ASVs at day 55. Among these
310 ASVs, there were stronger patterns in presence and abundance between the three community treatment groups
311 than between day 8 and day 55 (Fig. 3D).

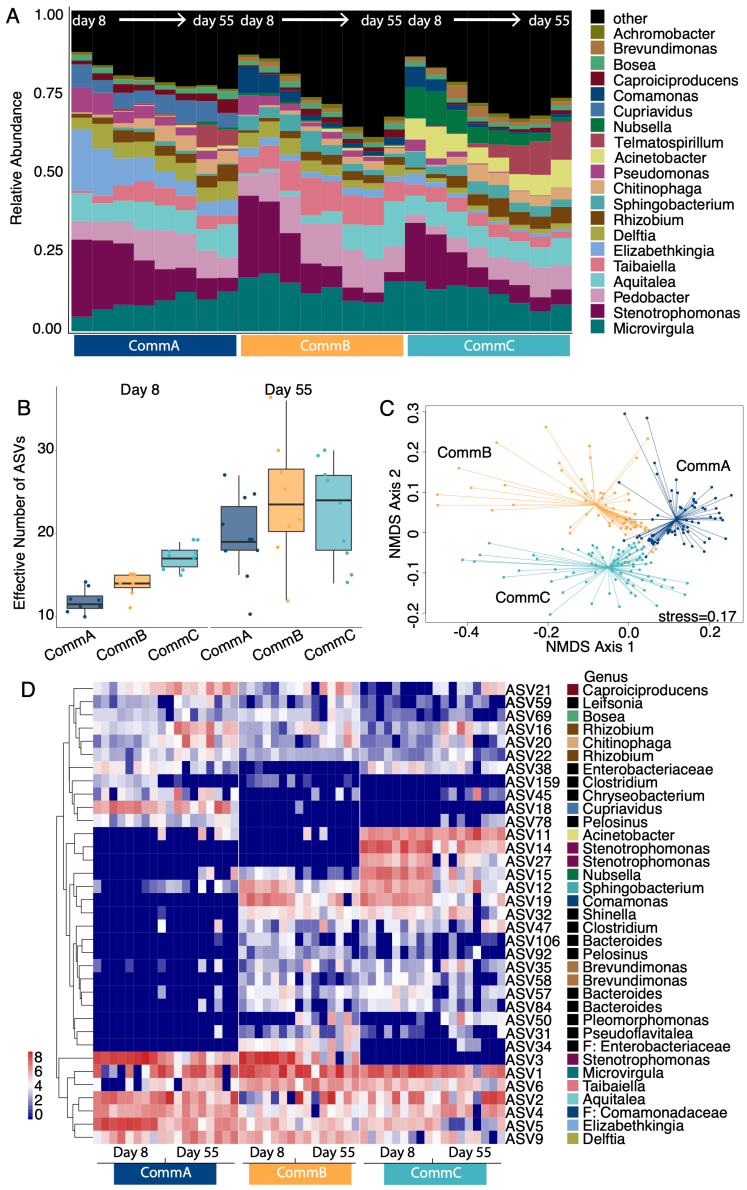


Figure 3. **Metabarcoding (16S) compositional differences between the three bacterial community treatments. A** Relative abundance of the top 20 most abundant genera from day 8 to 55, with biological replicates averaged for each timepoint. **B** Effective number of ASVs (Hill number 1) within each treatment at day 8 and day 55; each point represents a pitcher sample. **C** Composition-based NMDS calculated using unweighted Unifrac for all samples within each of the three treatments from day 8 to 55, stress=0.17, k=2. **D** Heatmap showing the abundance (log2(reads+0.5)) of significantly differentially abundant ASVs calculated using ANCOMBC at day 8 and 55, ASVs color coded according to genus in **A**.

Identifying bacterial physiological functions using metatranscriptomics

After processing, there were 83,977 transcripts from 27 metatranscriptomic samples (3 pitchers for each of 3 bacterial treatments and 3 time points). Of these, 5,732 transcripts were significantly differentially abundant across three community treatments, and 2,394 of these were associated with the KEGG "L1" level of bacterial

326 metabolism. We used this data to address question 4, can bacterial functions measured *in planta* be linked with
327 differential gene expression in bacterial communities. Metatranscriptomic analysis revealed CommB had
328 significant differential expression of transcripts (including increased abundance, log2(TPM+0.5)) mapping to
329 chitinase enzyme production and transport (endochitinase, chitinase, endo-chitodextinase, and chitobiose
330 transport systems, Fig. 3C). Because the metatranscriptomic analysis only involved a subset of the samples, in
331 order to have a direct comparison we filtered the dataset containing the cumulative chitinase and protease results
332 to only those plants that also had paired metatranscriptomic data (n=9, three plants in each of the three bacterial
333 treatments). Based on our underpowered GLM, there was a weak difference in cumulative chitinase rate measured
334 *in planta* (95% CIs cross zero), with CommB having the highest mean rate (95% CIs=-0.051, 0.130, Fig. 4A).
335 Additionally, for the same subset of samples, *in planta* cumulative protease activity was different between the
336 treatments (Fig. 4B), with the CommA samples showing higher cumulative protease activity than CommB and
337 CommC (Fig. 4B). However, transcript abundances, which were mapped to eight different aminopeptidase KOs,
338 were higher in CommB, than the other two treatments (Fig. 4C). Thus, there was a mismatch between protease
339 activity measured *in planta* and expression profiles of aminopeptidase genes, and instead, the metatranscriptomic
340 data supported that CommB was the high functioning community with greater relative abundance of transcripts
341 coding for both types of hydrolytic enzymes.
342
343 When metatranscriptomics was related to carbon substrate-use profiles (Biolog EcoPlates) using pairwise
344 comparisons between CommB and either CommC or CommA (Fig. 4D, E) , CommB showed higher metabolism of
345 the substrates N-acetyl-D-glucosamine (GlcNAc), Beta Methyl D glucoside, and D-Cellobiose. Consistent with this,
346 differentially abundant transcripts for KOs associated with the metabolism of these substrates were higher in
347 CommB on day one for beta glucosidase (which degrades cellobiose) and for five of the six enzymes associated
348 with metabolism of GlcNAc (a chitin monomer, Fig. 4F). No differentially abundant KOs were identified for Beta-
349 methyl D-glucoside.
350
351 Metatranscriptomic results related to bacterial production of growth-associated plant hormones, also showed
352 CommB had the highest abundance of transcripts related to indolepyruvate decarboxylase (IPDC), tryptophan

synthase beta chain (TrpB), tryptophanase, and tryptophanyl tRNA synthetase (TrpRS) production (Fig. S8), all of which are related to IAA (indole-3-acetic acid) biosynthesis. CommC had a higher abundance of transcripts related to 4-hydroxy-phenylpyruvate dioxygenase (HDDP) (Fig. S8) which is linked to plastoquinones in photosynthetic electron transport (79). Both CommB and CommC had higher abundances of transcript for ACC-deaminase (Fig. S8), involved in ethylene regulation, important for plant growth, stress tolerance and nutrient uptake (80).

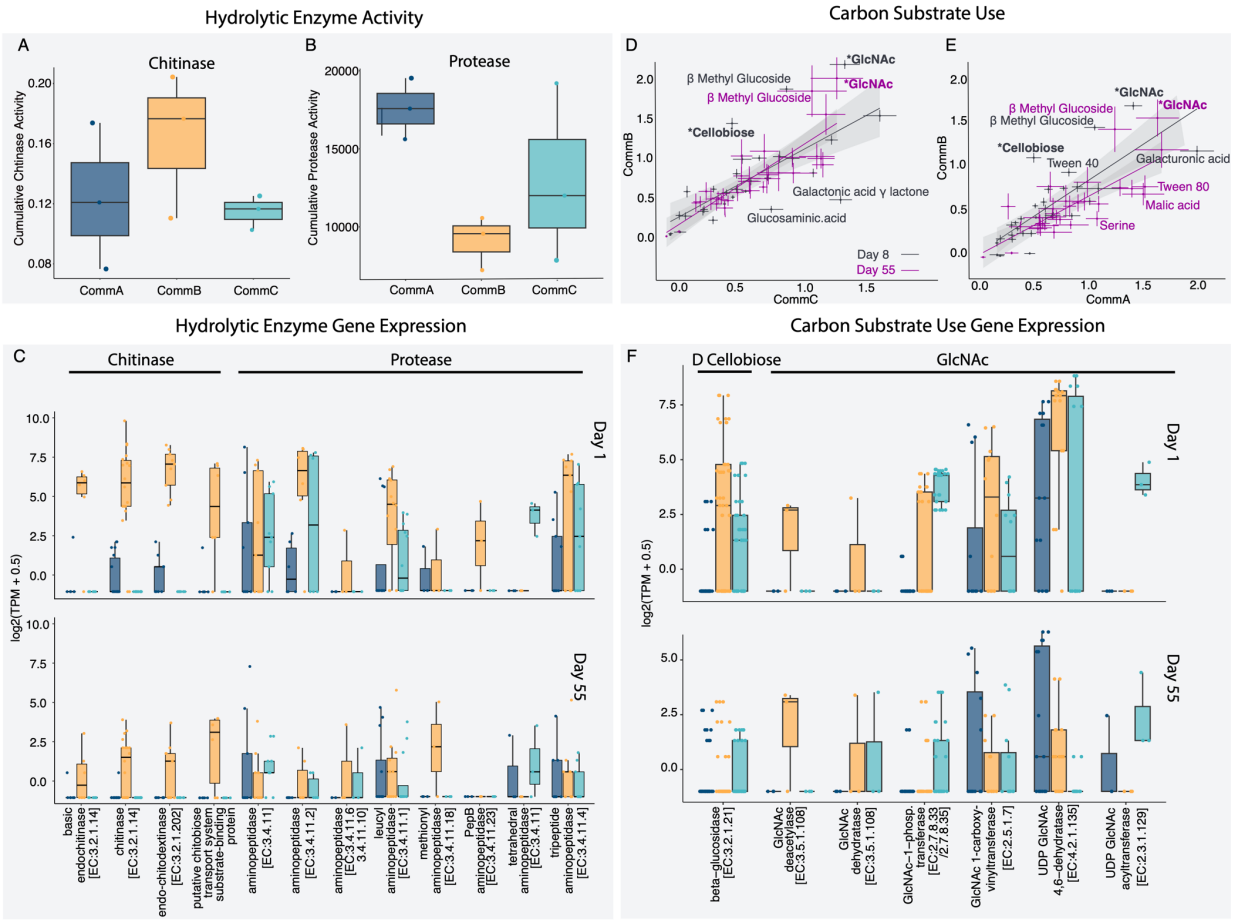


Figure 4. **Functional assays generally matched well with metatranscriptomic results. A** Cumulative chitinase activity (summed over the 8 weekly measurements) showing data from the nine pitcher fluid samples that underwent downstream metatranscriptomic analysis. **B** Cumulative protease rates for those same nine pitcher fluid samples. **C** Transcript abundance per million (TPM) filtered to those transcripts that were differentially abundant between our three bacterial community treatments (colored according to Fig 3A x-axis), then filtered and clustered based on functions related to chitinase and aminopeptidase activity, with day one on top and day 55 below. **D** Differential substrate use (EcoPlate) physiological profiles between CommB and CommC, color coded by day (gray= day 8, pink= day 55). Each point is the mean absorbance for that substrate within samples and bars indicate standard error, gray shaded areas are 95% confidence intervals, substrates falling outside those CI are significantly different between communities. **E** Differential substrate (EcoPlate) profiles between CommB and CommA, color coded by day (gray= day 8, pink= day 55). **F** Transcript abundance filtered as described above and clustered based on enzymes associated with the substrates cellobiose and GlcNAc, with day 1 on top and day 55 below.

372

373 **Linking targeted and agnostic functional differences**

374 For the 83,977 predicted transcripts, the model identified the differentially expressed transcripts for each
375 treatment compared to the mean expression of the other two treatments combined. Compared to CommA and
376 CommC, CommB had higher expression in pantetheine-phosphate adenylyltransferase (PanC), large subunit
377 ribosomal proteins, and OmpA-OmpF porins from gram negative membranes (Fig. 5A). PanC is a bacterial enzyme
378 involved in biosynthesis of coenzyme A, an essential cofactor for lipid synthesis/oxidation and amino acid
379 metabolism, so it may contribute to the high functioning of CommB. Transcript abundances were mapped to 359
380 functional categories (KEGG L4) identified in each sample, and our three bacterial treatments differed in overall
381 function based on the significantly differentially expressed transcripts identified by our model (Fig. 5B). Of the
382 transcripts differentially expressed in CommB, a number relate to enzymes involved in chitin and GlcNAc
383 degradation (Fig. 5B inset), corroborating our targeted analysis (Fig. 3F).

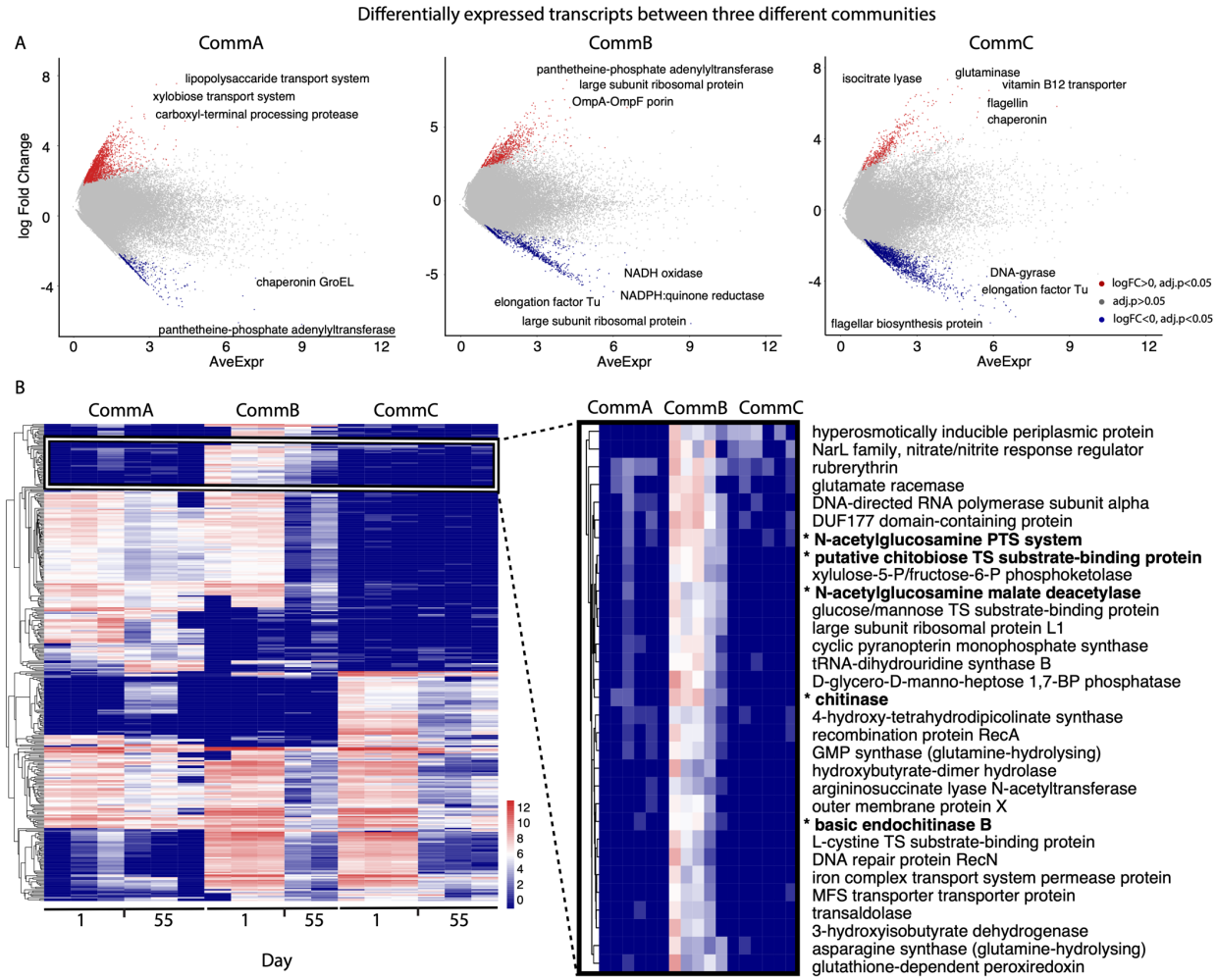
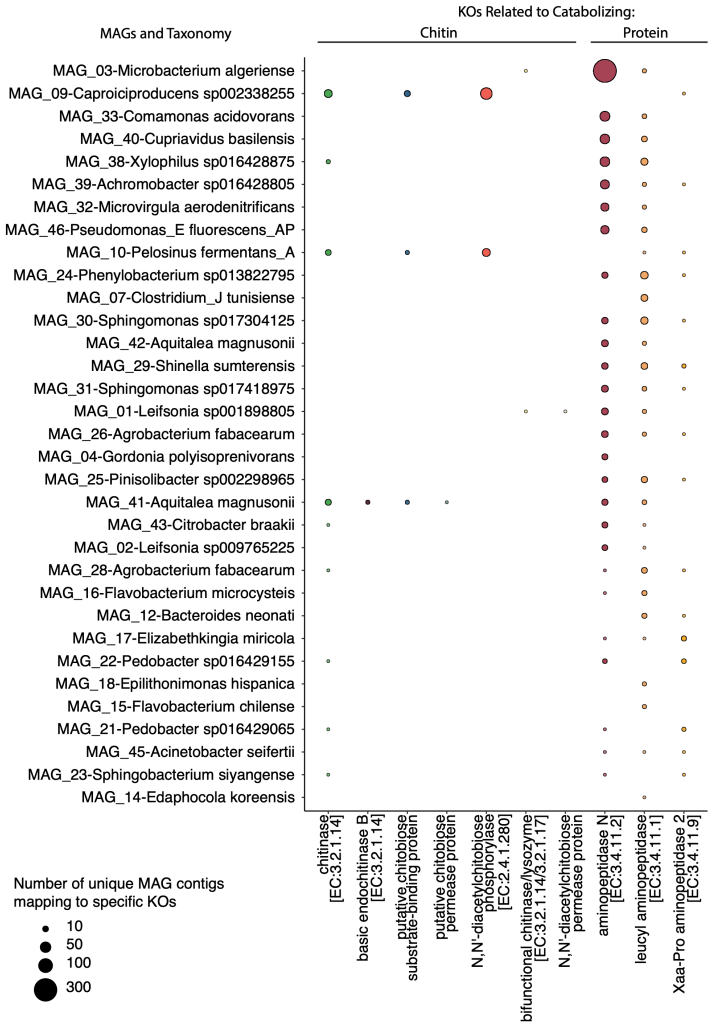


Figure 5. **Treatment communities had distinct patterns of differential gene expression. A, B** Total transcript abundance (points represent expressed genes with at least one read count) color coded by significant differential transcript abundance. **A** Red points show more highly expressed transcripts (positive log2 fold change) and blue points (negative log2 fold change) are less abundant, with p adj. < 0.05, gray are p adj > 0.05. From left to right: CommA vs. the mean of CommB and CommC, CommB vs. the mean of CommA and CommC, and CommC vs. the mean of CommA and CommB. All transcripts with |log2 fold| change greater than 6 and/or a mean of normalized counts greater than 6 were labeled when KO functional annotation was available. **B** Heatmap showing KO L4 functional pathway annotation for the significantly differentially abundant transcripts between CommA, CommB, CommC (|logFC|>4) from metatranscriptomic samples day 1 and day 55. The inset shows the subset of functions with increased transcript abundance in CommB at greater resolution (* indicates functions related to the breakdown of chitin and GlcNAC).

Connecting relevant functions to metagenome-assembled genomes

We aimed to investigate taxa with high hydrolytic enzyme production capabilities, because they might be important for pitcher plant growth. Metagenomic samples collected on day one and day 55 *in planta* (from 3 representative plants per community treatment, n=18) were taxonomically similar to 16S amplicon results, with

some differences likely due to different databases used for each dataset (Fig. S10). After quality filtering and dereplication of the initial 48 bins,36 metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) were recovered. Of these, 26 MAGs were high quality, eight were medium quality, and two MAGs were discarded because they had a redundancy >10% (Table S3). To investigate specific functions, we mapped the mRNA functional transcripts to the MAGs and then filtered the KOs to those associated with chitinase activity or aminopeptidase (proteinase) activity (Fig. 6). MAG_09 (*Caproiciproducens* sp.) had the highest number of functional KOs associated with chitinase activity, followed by MAG_41 (*Aquitalea* sp.) and MAG_10 (*Pelosinus* sp.). Protease activity was more well-represented across the MAGs, with the highest abundance of aminopeptidase-related KOs associated with MAG_03 (*Microbacterium algeriense*), followed by MAG_38 (*Xylophilus* sp.), MAG_40 (*Cupriavidus* sp.), and MAG_33 (*Comamonas acidovorans*).



412 **Figure 6**. **MAGs enriched in functions related to chitin and protein metabolism**. The size of the bubble represents
413 the number of unique MAG contigs mapped to functional transcripts grouped by KO (x-axis) and filtered to include
414 only those KOs associated with targeted hydrolytic enzyme functions (chitin metabolizing KOs and aminopeptidase
415 metabolizing KOs).
416
417 **Discussion**

418 **Bacterial community functioning influences plant traits**

419 This study clearly demonstrates a positive impact of bacterial community function on host pitcher growth. The
420 presence of a high-functioning bacterial community, characterized by robust chitinase activity, was associated with
421 increased pitcher growth and plant nutrient uptake. The second highest functioning community in terms of
422 hydrolytic enzyme activity and plant hormone production was associated with a greater number of leaves.
423 Conversely, the absence of leaf-associated bacterial inoculum was associated with lower hydrolytic enzyme activity
424 and carbon content and resulted in reduced host plant growth. The impact of phyllosphere microbial communities
425 have been demonstrated in other systems (e.g., 6, 90), but there has been limited research on the mechanistic
426 effects of microbial function on host plants, partly due to challenges of sterile plant cultivation and culturing
427 complex bacterial communities. This research utilized the unique *S. purpurea* system to compare effects of
428 functionally distinct bacterial communities on initially sterile pitchers. These communities caused differential
429 effects on leaf biomass and leaf number, and pitcher carbon content. These effects were measured after
430 inoculation *in planta* over just 8 weeks, which is a rapid response for these slow-growing, long-lived plants.
431

432 **Targeted bacterial functions influence plant traits**

433 Bacterial communities can enhance nutrient cycling via secreted enzymes to decompose complex substrates and
434 increase the availability of nutrients for host plants. The hydrolytic enzyme activity in pitcher fluid increases prey
435 decomposition efficiency, transforming complex organic nutrient sources like protein and chitin into simpler, plant-
436 available forms (24). Strong differences in chitinase and protease activity between bacterial communities
437 measured *in planta* did not explain the measurable benefit to plant biomass and pitcher nutrients alone, but they
438 likely contributed to the whole-community treatment effect.
439

440 We identified increased capacity to metabolize complex carbohydrates present in insect prey and other detritus
441 through the screening of carbon substrate use. Two examples include GlcNAc and cellobiose. GlcNAc is a monomer
442 of chitin, chitobiose, or chitotriose and is used for many critical metabolic functions within bacterial cells (82–84),
443 while cellobiose is a metabolic precursor to glucose and interacts with β-glucosidase to yield two glucose
444 molecules used in glycolysis (85). The high chitinase activity of CommB, coupled with high functional capacity for
445 GlcNAC and cellobiose metabolism, suggests a clear role for CommB in the nutrient cycling of pitcher ecosystems.
446 This study establishes a direct link between bacterial metabolic activity and host productivity, highlighting the role
447 of bacterial communities in shaping nutrient dynamics within microbe-host partnerships.
448
449 **Relationship between bacterial composition and function**
450 The three bacterial communities had clear functional differences despite many shared ASVs. However, some
451 compositional differences remained. For example, *Comamonas*, which had many aminopeptidase genes (Fig. 6C),
452 dominated CommB, while *Elizabethkingia* was more abundant in CommA (Fig. 4A). In lake microbial communities,
453 functional differences were only weakly related to taxonomic composition (86). In wild pitcher plants, profound
454 functional differences were associated with modest differences in bacterial composition following manipulation of
455 mosquito larvae abundance (Arellano, Young, Coon in review). Additionally, recent modelling work highlights
456 specific conditions that lead to negative biodiversity ecosystem functioning relationships, where higher functioning
457 can occur at lower species richness (87). Our results suggest that functions are not solely related to composition in
458 these bacterial communities, but rather combinations of taxa and differential regulation of gene expression led to
459 communities with different functional profiles.
460
461 Plants host high bacterial biodiversity, providing complex habitats and resources that create bacterial niches (88).
462 The relatively stochastic bacterial colonization of pitcher plants results influenced by season, dispersal agents, host
463 characteristics, and nutrient inputs (26,89,90). This study demonstrates that relatively small differences in bacterial
464 composition within pitchers can have functional consequences for nutrient cycling from captured prey and
465 nutrient supply to host plants. Similar patterns are emerging from human microbiome research, where surgery or
466 drug dosage can alter gut bacterial composition, causing cascading shifts in bacterial functions which influence

467 host health (91). These findings underscore the relationship between bacterial community composition and
468 function, and that functional differences are not solely dictated by composition.
469
470 **Bacterial gene expression and plant growth**
471 Using bacterial metatranscriptomics, we targeted specific genes related to known functions of interest, but also
472 employed an agnostic approach to identify important bacterial functions that we may not have identified *a priori*.
473 Higher expression of transcripts related to targeted chitinase, and protease enzymes were identified in CommB
474 compared to CommA and CommC, supporting the functional measurements for chitinase related metabolism *in*
475 *planta*. Protease activity was not so clearly related to transcripts of related functions. However, diverse functions
476 of proteases unrelated to prey breakdown could complicate the relationship for proteases, along with factors
477 including protein stability or post-transcriptional regulation (92).
478
479 Beyond nutrient transformation, bacterial communities also transcribed genes related to hormones that affect
480 plant growth; elevated expression of genes and pathways for indole acetic acid (IAA), ACC-deaminase, cytokinins,
481 and pectinesterase were observed in CommB. Bacterial synthesis of hormones has been shown to increase
482 biomass (93), root growth (94), and fruit production in host plants (95). ACC-deaminase is involved in transporting
483 and lowering ethylene levels (important for bog plants) and increasing plant growth (80) and was identified with
484 higher expression in CommC. Bacterial production of plant growth promoting compounds may support more
485 growth and nutrients in those pitchers.
486
487 Agnostic transcript abundance analysis allows for a more comprehensive view of the functional potential, which
488 may be especially valuable in complex communities where diverse bacterial species are interacting. Our agnostic
489 analysis supported functional distinctions between the three communities, and reinforced the higher expression in
490 CommB of certain genes that might support the observed increase in pitcher growth: PanC has a crucial role in lipid
491 and amino acid metabolism (96) so could promote N acquisition. Furthermore, higher expression of enzymes
492 involved in the degradation and transport of chitin, chitobiose, and GlcNAc were also confirmed in CommB,
493 complementing the targeted approach and the enzyme activity measurements.

494

495 **Conclusions**

496 In this controlled study, plant growth was mediated by bacterial community function. The most growth was
497 observed in pitchers hosting bacterial communities with high hydrolytic enzyme activity and elevated plant
498 hormone gene expression. Bacterial community functions were characterized using complementary approaches
499 and identified direct mechanistic relationships between bacterial functions, expression of genes associated with
500 these functions, and the support of plant leaf growth and nutrient acquisition. Plant-microbe interactions are
501 complex, and benefits to host productivity are likely not driven by a single functional parameter, or even a single
502 taxon expressing a function of interest. This bacterial community analysis sheds light on how measurable
503 functional traits can identify relevant bacterial effects in phyllosphere communities. Identification of these specific
504 mechanistic relationships contribute increased knowledge of the direct effects of bacterial communities on plant
505 traits and can inform other systems with applications in agriculture, conservation, and restoration.

506

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513

514 **Data Availability Statement**

515 Scripts and data associated with this manuscript are available at: https://github.com/jessibernardin/microbial-
516 function-plant_trait (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10055295). The raw reads for 16S rRNA amplicon
517 sequencing, raw reads for whole genome shotgun sequencing, whole genome metatranscriptomic sequencing, and
518 nucleotide sequences of MAGs have been deposited in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI)
519 under the project number PRJNA1028624.

520

Competing Interests

Authors have no competing interests to declare.

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