**Experimental manipulation of selfish genetic elements links genes to microbial community function**

Steven D. Quistad[*1], Guilhem Doulcier[1] and Paul B. Rainey[*1,2]

[1]Laboratoire de Génétique de l'Evolution, Ecole Superieure de Physique et de Chimie Industrielles de la Ville de Paris (ESPCI Paris Tech), CNRS UMR 8231, PSL Research University, 75231 Paris, France.

[2]Department of Microbial Population Biology, Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Biology, Plön 24306, Germany.

[*]Corresponding authors: steven.quistad@gmail.com and rainey@evolbio.mpg.de

**Abstract**

Microbial communities underpin earth's biological and geochemical processes, but their

complexity hampers understanding.  Here we draw upon predictions from the theory concerning

selfish genetic elements (SGEs), combined with approaches from experimental evolution,

comparative metagenomics and biochemistry, and show how naturally occurring SGEs can be

used to manipulate genes that underpin community function.  Communities comprising hundreds

of bacterial genera established from garden compost were propagated with bi-weekly transfer for

one year in nitrogen-limited minimal medium with cellulose (paper) as sole carbon source.  At

each transfer, SGEs from one set of independent communities were collected, pooled and

redistributed among this same set of communities (horizontal treatment).  A control was included

in which SGEs never moved beyond the community in which they were originally present

(vertical treatment).  SGEs along with genes of ecological relevance were rapidly amplified

across horizontal communities and their dynamics tracked.   Enrichment of genes implicated in

nitrogen metabolism, and particularly ammonification, prompted biochemical assays that showed

a significant functional difference between communities subject to horizontal versus vertical

treatments.  This simple experimental strategy offers a powerful new approach for unravelling

dynamical processes underpinning microbial community function.

**Introduction**

Microbial communities underpin all major biological and biogeochemical processes (Widder et al. 2016). Appropriate functioning of communities has direct implications for health of people (Knight et al. 2017; Gilbert et al. 2018), terrestrial (Tyson et al. 2004; Allison and Martiny 2008), marine (Fuhrman et al. 2015) and freshwater (Anantharaman et al. 2016) ecosystems and even global climate (Bardgett et al. 2008). While the species composition of many communities have been exhaustively documented (Venter et al. 2004; Quince et al. 2017), the link between genes and community function is poorly understood (Widder et al. 2016).

New strategies for investigation are required that are process-focused (Koskella et al. 2017). Ideally such approaches will provide knowledge on the complex interconnections between community members, their combined effects, including feedbacks that shape the evolution of community members (Hug and Co 2018). Recent advances draw upon new strategies for linking patterns of sequence diversity in metagenomic data sets to population genetic processes (Truong et al. 2017; Garud et al. 2019). Knowledge of such processes provides a link between variation and the likelihood that particular traits fix.

Equally desirable are approaches that provide a link between genes, their spatial and temporal dynamics, and community function, achieved using strategies that leave as far as possible the natural complexity of communities undisturbed. Here we show this can be achieved via an experiment in which we combine theory governing the behaviour of selfish genetic elements (Doolittle and Sapienza 1980; Orgel and Crick 1980; Bergstrom et al. 2000; Burt and Trivers 2006) (SGEs) with experimental evolution (Elena and Lenski 2003; Rainey et al. 2017), comparative metagenomics (Maltez Thomas et al. 2018) and functional assay.

**Results**

*Manipulating the fate of SGEs*

SGEs including bacteriophages and plasmids are abundant in microbial communities (Aminov 2011; Hall et al. 2017). Typically capable of autonomous replication — or able to exploit mobilisation genes provided in *trans* — SGEs can disseminate across diverse hosts with

movement often coincidental with genes of ecological significance to which, by chance, they

become linked.  Long-term persistence requires occasional exposure to new hosts: frequent

exposure to new hosts is expected to drive rapid spread and evolution of SGEs and linked genes

(Burt and Trivers 2006).

Recognising that SGEs are naturally adept at mobilising not only themselves, but also

ecologically significant genes, and that their activity is fuelled by exposure to new hosts, we

reasoned that promoting the activity of SGEs would bring about changes in the abundance and

distribution of the genetic determinants of fitness, allow tracking of dynamics and even

measurement of impacts on community function.

A set of ten independent experimental communities were established from 1 g samples of kitchen

/ garden compost and propagated with bi-weekly transfer in static nitrogen-limited minimal M9

medium with cellulose (paper) as the sole carbon source.  After one month, each of the ten

communities was used to found two new communities, giving a total of 20 paired communities.

One of each pair was assigned to the "horizontal regime", while the remainder were assigned to

the "vertical regime" (Fig. 1).  The terms *horizontal* (H) and *vertical* (V) indicate the imposed

transfer regime: the former is expected to enhance the evolutionary success of SGEs, the latter to

castrate.

From the moment of the initial split (time point $T_0$) and for the ensuing 48 weeks (24 transfers

($T_{24}$)) 1 ml of each community, including the slurry of any remaining paper, was transferred to a

fresh mesocosm containing 19 ml of M9 medium plus fresh paper.  This ensured serial passage

of microbes plus SGEs from each mesocosm.  Half of these mesocosms (one of each pair),

labelled vertical communities (VCs), received no further treatment other than continued serial

passage on a bi-weekly basis.

The remaining ten horizontal communities (HCs) received — at the time of serial transfer — an

aliquot of a "SGE cocktail" that was a pooled sample of SGEs derived from each horizontal

mesocosm (Fig. 1).  This was prepared by taking a sample from from each of the ten

communities, followed by centrifugation and passage of the supernatant through a 0.22 μm filter.

After pooling the filtrate from each of the ten horizontal treatments a 1ml aliquot of the mixture

was placed in each HC.

*Detection of SGE activity*

To determine whether the horizontal regime promoted movement of SGEs, total DNA was

extracted from each $T_0$ community and each of the 20 $T_1$ communities (two weeks after the split

of communities into vertical and horizontal treatments) and sequenced (Fig. 1 and

Supplementary Table 1).  Analysis was straightforward given the paired experimental design.

For each set of $T_0$ and descendant HCs and VCs (e.g., $T_0$-1 and descendants $T_1$V-1 and $T_1$H-1)

DNA sequence data were interrogated to identify reads found solely in (and therefore unique to)

the horizontal mesocosm (e.g., $T_1$H-1).  Such unique reads are likely to stem from SGEs, or be

associated with SGE activity, originating from an allopatric community.

Analysis of the sequences unique to each horizontal community resulted in identification of ~26

million unique reads from a total of ~152 million reads across all ten communities, with an

average of ~2.6 million unique reads per community (Supplementary Table 2).  Assembly of

reads into contigs revealed an average of 3,352 contigs per HC greater than 1 kb in length.  The

mean maximum contig size per assembly was 82 kb (Supplementary Table 2).

After extracting Open Reading Frames (ORFs), interrogation of the Conserved Domain Database

(CDD) (Marchler-Bauer et al. 2015) showed 1,279 ORFs predicted to encode phage-associated

proteins involved in capsid formation, baseplate assembly, and phage-induced lysis of bacterial

cells (Supplementary Table 3).  An example of a contig ($T_1$H-1_35969) containing numerous

genes characteristic of phages is shown in Supplementary Fig. 1a.

The distribution and abundance of contig $T_1$H-1_35969 and 19 other representative phage-like

entities (Supplementary Table 3) across independent mesocosms was determined by mapping

total reads from each horizontal and vertical metagenome onto each of the 20 phage-like contigs

(Fig. 2).  The predominance of these contigs in HCs is evidence of rapid amplification and

dissemination of genetic material. $T_1$H-1_35969, originally assembled from the unique set of

sequences from $T_1$H-1, is also present in both $T_1$H-2 and $T_1$V-2 and was therefore likely present

in the founding community ($T_0$-2).  Within two weeks this contig has amplified and spread to

horizontal communities 1, 5 and 6 (Fig. 2). Contig T1H2_39307 is below the level of detection

in all vertical treatments, but two weeks after imposition of the horizontal treatment, this contig

was detected in seven of the independent HCs (Fig. 2, Supplementary Table 3).  From the

community perspective, less than four of the 20 phage-like contigs were detected on average per

VC, whereas the mean number of contigs per HCs was 11 (Fig. 2).

In addition to phage-like contigs, assemblies of the unique sequences from HCs contained genes

predicted to encode traits of likely ecological significance (Supplementary Fig. 2).  These

include genes implicated in cellulose degradation, defence against SGE invasion and nitrogen

metabolism (Supplementary Table 4) (Seed et al. 2013; Ramisetty and Santhosh 2016;

Bustamante and Iredell 2017).  Particularly notable is enrichment of reads mapping to $\beta$-

glucosidase genes that define the rate-limiting step in cellulose degradation (Singhania et al.

2013).  On occasion these ecological significant genes were linked to genes encoding features

found on SGEs (Supplementary Table 5), but often these contigs lacked such features

(Supplementary Fig. 1b). Nonetheless they were amplified and disseminated through the course

of the selection experiment with the same dynamic as expected of a mobile genetic element (see

below).

*Diversity and dynamics*

Given evidence indicative of the amplification and dissemination of DNA via the horizontal

treatment, combined with ability to detect such sequences, communities were allowed to evolve

for a total of 48 weeks with, at each transfer, the HCs experiencing exposure to a new cocktail of

SGEs.  Continuance was in part motivated by the expectation that movement of DNA —

particularly that encoding genes of ecological relevance — mediated by SGEs would result in a

measurable change in the function of HCs relative to VCs. To complement existing DNA

sequence from $T_0$ and $T_1$, DNA was extracted from all HCs and VCs at time points $T_2$, $T_3$, $T_4$,

$T_{10}$, $T_{16}$, $T_{20}$ and $T_{24}$ yielding a total of 180 metagenomes (5.2 billion reads, each ~150 bp).

The extraordinary flux of DNA detected within two weeks of establishing the horizontal

treatment regime likely relies upon a minimum threshold of community-level diversity.  Given

propagation of communities on minimal medium with a single recalcitrant (cellulose) carbon

source, we firstly interrogated the metagenomic data for sequences mapping to 16S rDNA to

determine whether diversity was maintained (Supplementary Table 6). Communities at $T_0$

harboured on average ~140 bacterial genera (SD $\pm$ 23). At $T_{24}$ the number of genera detected

increased in all communities to an average of ~200 (SD $\pm$ 32), indicating an increase in

abundance of rare types (Supplementary Table 6, Supplementary Fig. 3a). No significant

difference was observed between HCs and VCs (Supplementary Fig. 3a-c). Rank abundance

distributions from pooled HCs and VCs at T1 and T24 are shown in Fig. 3 and reveal the tail of

the $T_{24}$ distribution to be markedly flatter in both cases, consistent with an overall tendency for

rare types to increase during the course of the year long selection. Rank abundance distributions

for each $T_1$ and $T_{24}$ HC and VC, plus the rank order (and change therein) of the most common

genera are shown in Supplementary Figs 4a and 4b. Overall communities differed markedly in

genera composition. Among the most abundant genera, only two harbour species commonly

associated with cellulolytic ability (Wilson 2011) (*Cytophaga* and *Cellvibrio*), while others are

better known for roles in ammonification (Simon 2002) (*Azospirillum* and *Paenibacillus*

(nitrogen fixation); *Rhodanobacter* and *Pseudomonas* (dissimilatory nitrate reduction /

denitrification)) (Supplementary Figs 4a and 4b). Single celled eukaryotes were also present in

all mesocosms with several even maintaining populations of nematodes through the 48-week

selection period following the horizontal / vertical split.

The 180 metagenomic data sets (nine time points, 20 communities per time point

(Supplementary Table 1)) spread across 48 weeks allowed the abundance and distribution of

SGEs and associate genes to be determined by read mapping. The spatial and temporal

dynamics of two phage-like contigs and two contigs encoding $\beta$-glucosidases are shown in Fig.

4a-d.

**Ecologically significant genes**

To determine whether the horizontal transfer regime affected the abundance and distribution of

functional genes, the MG-RAST database was interrogated with sequence reads from all $T_0$ and

all $T_{24}$ HCs and VCs (Supplementary Table 7). The relative abundance of reads assigned to 13

of 28 functional categories at Subsystems Level 1 (Overbeek et al. 2005), including genes

involved in virulence, motility and nitrogen metabolism, changed significantly during the course

of the year (Supplementary Fig. 5a). HCs and VCs did not always change to the same extent, or

in same direction (Supplementary Figs 5a and 5b). No significant change occurred in the overall

category of carbohydrate metabolism (Supplementary Fig. 5b), but a significant increase in $\beta$-

glucosidase metabolism — the rate limiting step in cellulose degradation — was detected in both

HCs and VCs (Supplementary Fig. 5a)

The nitrogen-limited nature of the culture medium, combined with evidence of selection

favouring genes involved in nitrogen metabolism, led to closer focus on this essential resource.

The MG-RAST database was again interrogated, but this time at Subsystems Level 2 (Overbeek

et al. 2005), which provides information on functional categories within the broader category of

nitrogen metabolism (Fig. 5a). Significant changes were observed in the relative abundance of

reads mapping to genes involved in both ammonia assimilation and dissimilation

(ammonification). Such changes are consistent with the nature of the selective environment.

This prompted a query of the extent to which these changes may have been influenced by

movement of genes via SGEs.

A modified version of the bioinformatic pipeline developed to identify sequences unique to HCs

(Methods) was applied to the $T_{24}$ metagenomes. $T_{24}$ HC metagenomes were compared to their

paired $T_{24}$ VC metagenomes as well as to all metagenomes from VCs from earlier time points

(Supplementary Fig. 6a, Supplementary Table 8, Supplementary Methods Fig. 1). This showed a

greater number of unique sequences in the HCs, but also showed a fraction of unique sequences

present in VCs. The latter is to be expected given that $T_0$ communities must contain rare

sequences that through the course of the selection experiment became common — and is

consistent with data on changes in abundance of genera (Fig. 3). To see whether it was possible

to reduce this signal, genomic DNA samples from $T_0$ were sequenced on the HiSeq platform

resulting in additional 320 million reads per community. The effect of increasing depth of

sequence made minimal impact on detection of unique sequences (Supplementary Fig. 6b).

Nonetheless, the "deep" $T_0$ metagenomes were used in all subsequent analyses.

To determine the fraction of unique reads that mapped to genes involved in nitrogen metabolism,

the final sets of unique reads were obtained from HCs and VCs; they were assembled, ORFs

identified and functionally categorised using the CDD. HCs contained significantly more unique

ORFs predicted to be involved in nitrogen metabolism compared to VCs (Supplementary Fig. 7).

HCs were enriched in several functional classes of gene, especially those with predicted roles in

regulation and ammonification (Fig. 5b, Supplementary Table 9).

To link to function, we asked whether there was evidence of an effect of the horizontal treatment

on a measurable community property. To this end, and with focus on the process of

ammonification (production of ammonia through either fixation, or reduction of nitrate / nitrite)

the concentration of nitrate, nitrite, and ammonia were determined in the $T_{24}$ HCs and VCs at the

end of the two-week period immediately prior to serial passage. The concentration of ammonia

was significantly higher in HCs (Fig. 6a, Supplementary Table 10). To check the robustness of

this finding the concentration of ammonia was measure during the course of a two-week period.

Despite substantive variability in composition of the independent communities (Supplementary

Fig. 4a and 4b), a significantly greater concentration of ammonia was detected in HCs at each

one of nine sampling occasions throughout the two week period (Fig. 6b, Supplementary Table

11). A comparison between T0 communities and T24 VCs showed no change (Supplementary

Fig. 8) supporting the conclusion that movement of ecologically significant genes via SGEs was

responsible for the functional difference between horizontal and vertical communities.

**Discussion**

Microbial communities are dynamical systems defined by complex ecological interactions and

evolutionary feedbacks (Widder et al. 2016). The challenges associated with understanding this

complexity are immense. Here we have demonstrated the utility of a new approach in which we

have used naturally occurring SGEs to manipulate the abundance and distribution of genes of

ecological significance, shown that the dynamics of these genes can be followed, and established

that the magnitude of effect is sufficient to allow links to community function to be made.

Central to the strategy is a simple manipulation that promotes the evolutionary success of SGEs.

That this involves nothing more than frequent exposure of SGEs to new hosts, combined with

routine metagenomic analysis, means that it is readily transferable to a wide range of microbial

communities, from experimental constructs as here, through microbiomes of plants and animals,

to naturally occurring marine and terrestrial communities.

The study delivered numerous surprises. Among these, ability to maintain exceptionally diverse

communities through the course of a year-long selection experiment was particularly notable.

The transfer regime, involving passage of 1/20th of the two-week culture into fresh medium,

meant possibility for resource partitioning and cross-feeding, but to witness diversity in all

replicate mesocosms increase over the course of the experiment was unexpected (Rainey et al.

2000). Although barely touched in our analysis so far, cycles for replenishing all major nutrients

were established within each mesocosm, with that involving nitrogen being most evident. Each

community harboured a single dominant free-living nitrogen-fixing bacterium, but the identity

— even at the genus level — differed between mesocosms. Attempts to establish such complex

communities by choosing key players before the fact, would likely fail. That such diversity and

stability can arise from a single gram of compost speaks to an abundance of redundancy in these

natural systems (Rosenfeld 2002; Louca et al. 2018).

A second surprise was the speed and magnitude of the response of communities to the mixing

regime. Within just two weeks of implementation, ~17 % of DNA sequence reads within HCs

were derived from allopatric communities. That these reads could be assembled into contigs

containing genes of ecological relevance, including those involved in cellulose degradation,

emphasises the dynamism of processes driven by SGEs. Ability to so clearly detect movement

of this DNA via comparative metagenomic approaches was an additional, but critical, bonus.

The association established between genes involved in nitrogen metabolism and enhanced

activity of SGEs in HCs is correlative, but is nonetheless linked to horizontally transferred

sequences that map to genes with predicted roles in ammonification. The association is further

linked to data that demonstrate a significant effect of the experimental treatment on

concentrations of ammonia in HCs (Fig. 6), but no effect (compared to $T_0$ communities) in VCs

(Supplementary Fig. 8). Additionally, increased ammonia in the HCs is consistent with the

prediction that horizontal movement of DNA will increase the rate at which community function

improves.

The two processes that generate ammonia: nitrogen fixation and nitrate ammonification, both

require environments devoid of oxygen (or mostly so in the case of nitrate ammonification)

(Simon 2002; Lam and Kuypers 2011). It is possible that enhanced metabolic activity associated

with cellulose degradation causes lower oxygen conditions at the paper surface (where

community members grow as biofilms) compared to the VCs, leading to enhanced production of

ammonia. Intriguingly, the cattle industry promotes addition of ammonia to feed because of

beneficial effects on digestibility of plant matter in the rumen (Givens et al. 1988). This raises

an alternate possibility, which is that elevated ammonia levels are similarly beneficial to

digestion of cellulose in the experimental mesocosms, and reflect a more rapid response to

selection in the HCs.

The genomic era has done much to resolve controversy surrounding the importance of horizontal

gene transfer as a driver of evolutionary change (Goldenfeld and Woese 2007; Koonin 2009;

Boto 2010). Direct evidence of gene transfer events — many facilitated by SGEs — from one

organism to another are common (Ochman et al. 2000; Werren 2011), but the possibility that the

process assumes far greater evolutionary significance when operating within communities, has,

to the best of our knowledge, been little considered, let alone directly studied. That the vast

diversity of DNA sequence encompassed within complex microbial communities might exist in

fluid association with SGEs generating permutations of effects significantly beyond those

observed through study of individual SGEs and their hosts, is both interesting and plausible.

**Methods**

**Establishment of cellulose-degrading microbial communities**

Microbial communities were initially established by placing ten independent 1 g samples of fresh

compost into 20 mL of M9 minimal media supplemented with a 4 cm$^2$ piece of cellulose paper

(Whatman cellulose filter paper). All incubations were performed in 140 mL sterile glass bottles

with loosened screw caps allowing for gas exchange between the community and the

environment. Incubation was at room temperature without shaking. Compost was sampled from

the Square Theodore-Monod compost heap (Paris, France) in February 2016. During the primary

incubation period of 2 weeks the piece of cellulose was suspended by a wire from the screw cap

into the media allowing for paper colonization. After two weeks, the community was transferred

by moving the wire-suspended cellulose paper into 20 mL of fresh M9 minimal media that also

contained a new 4 cm$^2$ piece of cellulose paper in suspension. Two more weeks of incubation

provided the opportunity for colonization of the new piece of suspended cellulose paper thus

eliminating the need for a wire-suspended community for each transfer. All community transfers

were performed by vortexing each bottle at maximum speed until the cellulose fibres were

dissolved into a slurry.

**Horizontal and vertical transfer regimes**

Vertical and horizontal transfers were performed at the exact same time every two weeks. Before

each transfer aliquots of the community were taken for glycerol stocks, DNA extraction, and

phage storage. Glycerol stocks were created by mixing 500 µl of cellulose-microbial slurry with

500 µl of 80% glycerol and stored at -80 ºC. For DNA extractions 2 mL of cellulose-microbial

slurry was centrifuged at 13,000 g for 10 min and the pellet was stored at -80 ºC for later

processing. DNA was extracted from the founding $T_0$ communities (before the horizontal /

vertical split) as well as transfers 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 16, 20, 24 ($T_1$, $T_2$, $T_3$, $T_4$, $T_{10}$, $T_{16}$, $T_{20}$, $T_{24}$) using

the soil DNA extraction kit (Norgen Biotek). DNA sequencing was performed using the MiSeq

and NextSeq platforms for all time points and $T_0$ communities with additional deep sequencing

of the $T_0$ communities using the HiSeq platform.

Transfers at two-week intervals were performed as described in Fig. 1. The "SGE-cocktail" was

prepared by mixing 1 mL of homogenized community (n=10) followed by centrifugation and

passage through a 0.22 µm filter to remove microbial cells. Recognising the possibility that ultra

micro-bacteria might escape sedimentation and pass through the filter, metagenomic sequence

reads were recruited to seven available reference genomes. A maximum of 0.018 % of reads

across all horizontal and vertical mesocosms at 48 weeks matched these reference genomes

(Supplementary Fig. 9).

324
**Bioinformatic analysis**

DNA sequences were demultiplexed using bcl2fastq, paired ends were joined using FLASh

(Magoc and Salzberg 2011) and initial fastq files were generated. Preprocessing of fastq files

was performed using PrinSeq (Schmieder and Edwards 2011) with a minimum length of 100

base pairs, minimum quality score of 25, and a maximum percentage of N's of 10%. All

metagenomes were uploaded to the MG-RAST metagenomic analysis server and are publicly

available (Supplementary Table 1). Gene category abundances (Supplementary Fig. 4) and genus

identifications (Supplementary Table 6) were determined using the MG-RAST pipeline (Wilke

et al. 2016). Sequence matches were determined using BLASTn (Altschul et al. 1990) with a

minimum e-value threshold of 1E-05, minimum alignment length of 100 base pairs, and a

minimum percentage identity of 90%. "Unique" Horizontal and Vertical sequences were

assembled using MEGAHIT (Li et al. 2015), ORFs with a minimum length of 100 amino acids

were extracted using getORF (Rice et al. 2000), compared to the Conserved Domain Database

(CDD) (Marchler-Bauer et al. 2015) using RPS-BLAST, and top domain hits were extracted

(Supplementary Table 4). Phage-like contigs were classified based on phage-specific protein

domains (Supplementary Table 3) and their distribution was determined using Fr-Hit (Niu et al.

2011). Sequences matches to phage-like contig were based on a minimum alignment length of

100 base pairs with a percentage identity of at least 90%. Nitrogen-related genes were based on

gene function classifications and descriptions with a total of 136 domains (Supplementary Table

9).  To identify unique sequences a custom bioinformatic pipeline was developed

(Supplementary Methods Fig. 1). Each Horizontal metagenome was compared to the founding $T_0$

metagenome (before the Horizontal vs. Vertical split) and the paired Vertical metagenome using

BLASTn. Horizontal-$T_0$ and Horizontal-Vertical sequence matches were removed, thus leaving a

set of unique Horizontal sequences that could not be identified in neither the founding $T_0$-

metagenome, nor the paired Vertical-metagenome. Sequence matches were determined using a

minimum e-value threshold of 1E-05, minimum alignment length of 100 base pairs, and a

minimum percent identity of 90%. The unique Horizontal sequences were then assembled, Open

Reading Frames (ORFs) were extracted, and predicted protein domains were determined through

comparison to the Conserved Domain Database (CDD).  To determine the impact of increasing

the sequencing depth of the $T_0$ communities on the final percentage of unique sequences, $T_0$

metagenomes were sequenced using the HiSeq platform and reads from each mesocosm split

arbitrarily into eight metagenomes each consisting of about ~40 million sequences. The unique

analysis pipeline was then applied using the first arbitrary $T_0$ metagenome and any matching

sequences were removed. The process was repeated with all eight $T_0$ arbitrarily defined

metagenomes thus revealing the extent to which additional sequencing affected ability to detect

rare sequences.

**Nitrogen assays**

Vertical and Horizontal communities from the one-year time point (24 transfers, $T_{24}$) and $T_0$

were re-established by placing 100 µl of glycerol stock into 20 mL of M9 minimal media

supplemented with a 4 $cm^2$ piece of cellulose paper and incubated for two weeks. 1 mL of the

cellulose-community slurry was transferred to 19 mL of M9 Minimal Media with a fresh piece of

cellulose and incubated for an additional two weeks. 1 mL of the community was then

transferred to a new bottle and 100 µl of surrounding media was sampled at various time points

during the two-week incubation period to determine ammonia/ammonium, nitrate, and nitrite

concentrations. The concentrations of all three nitrogen species were determined using

fluorometric assay kits according the manufacturers protocol (Ammonia Assay Kit, Sigma-

Alrdrich, and nitrate/nitrite fluorometric assay kit) (Fig. 6 and Supplementary Table 11).

**Data availability**

All metagenomes are publicly available here: https://www.mg-

rast.org/mgmain.html?mgpage=project&project=mgp18485.  Supplementary Table 1 contains

metagenome descriptions and MG-RAST identifiers

All associated datasets are publicly available here: https://zenodo.org/record/3293312 and

Supplementary Table 12 contains file descriptions and associated metadata

**Supplementary files**

Supplementary Figure 1: contigs assembled from unique sequence reads.
384

385    Supplementary Figure 2: Ecologically significant genes.
386

387    Supplementary Figure 3: Changes in diversity.
388

389    Supplementary Figure 4: Changes in patterns of diversity seen in rank abundance plots
390

391    Supplementary Figure 5: Functional gene categories.
392

Supplementary Figure 6: Distinguishing sequences transferred by SGEs from rare sequences.

Supplementary Figure 7: Nitrogen-related genes are enriched in "unique" horizontal sequences.

Supplementary Figure 8: No change in function of communities subject to the vertical transfer
regime after 48 weeks.

Supplementary Figure 9: DNA sequence reads mapping to ultra-microbacteria reference
genomes.

Supplementary Methods Figure 1: Bioinformatic pipeline for identifying "unique" sequences.

Supplementary Table 1: MGRAST IDs and metadata associated with metagenomes.

Supplementary Table 2: Summary of unique sequences assembled from $T_1$ Horizontal
mesocosms.

Supplementary Table 3:  Sequences matching to phage-like contigs in Fig. 2;
annotation of phage-like contigs depicted in Fig. 2; all $T_1$ unique contigs containing an
ORF associated with bacteriophages.

Supplementary Table 4: Number of unique $T_1$ horizontal sequences containing an
ORF with a domain of interest depicted in Supplementary Fig. 2.

Supplementary Table 5: Full annotation of the two phage-like and two beta-
glucosidase contigs depicted in Fig. 4.

Supplementary Table 6: Genus abundance of all sequenced time points for all
mesocosms based on the MG-RAST annotation pipeline.

Supplementary Table 7: The relative abundance of functional gene categories in $T_0$,
$T_{24}$ vertical, and $T_{24}$ horizontal metagenomes based on the MG-RAST annotation
pipeline.

Supplementary Table 8: Summary of unique sequences assembled from $T_{24}$ horizontal
and $T_{24}$ vertical metagenomes.

Supplementary Table 9: Number of nitrogen-related ORFs assembled from unique
T24 horizontal sequences depicted in Fig. 5b; number of nitrogen-related ORFs
assembled from unique T24 horizontal sequences.

Supplementary Table 10: Nitrate, nitrite, and ammonia / ammonium concentrations of
$T_{24}$ horizontal and $T_{24}$ vertical mesocosms at the end of the two-week incubation
period depicted in Figure 6a.

Supplementary Table 11: Time series of ammonia / ammonium concentrations of $T_{24}$
horizontal and $T_{24}$ vertical mesocosms during the two-week incubation period.
440
441    Supplementary Table 12: Description of all associated datasets publicly available at
442    https://zenodo.org/record/3293312 .
443
444    Supplementary Table 13: P-values of statistical tests performed in study.
445

**References**

Allison, S. D. and J. B. Martiny. 2008. Colloquium paper: resistance, resilience, and redundancy
in microbial communities. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105 Suppl 1:11512-11519.
Altschul, S. F., W. Gish, W. Miller, E. W. Myers, and D. J. Lipman. 1990. Basic local alignment
search tool. J Mol Biol 215:403-410.
Aminov, R. I. 2011. Horizontal gene exchange in environmental microbiota. Front Microbiol
2:158.
Anantharaman, K., C. T. Brown, L. A. Hug, I. Sharon, C. J. Castelle, A. J. Probst, B. C. Thomas,
A. Singh, M. J. Wilkins, U. Karaoz, E. L. Brodie, K. H. Williams, S. S. Hubbard, and J. F.
Banfield. 2016. Thousands of microbial genomes shed light on interconnected
biogeochemical processes in an aquifer system. Nat. Commun. 7:13219.
Bardgett, R. D., C. Freeman, and N. J. Ostle. 2008. Microbial contributions to climate change
through carbon cycle feedbacks. ISME J 2:805-814.
Bergstrom, C. T., M. Lipsitch, and B. R. Levin. 2000. Natural selection, infectious transfer and
the existence conditions for bacterial plasmids. Genetics 155:1505-1519.
Boto, L. 2010. Horizontal gene transfer in evolution: facts and challenges. Proc Biol Sci
277:819-827.
Burt, A. and R. L. Trivers. 2006. Genes in Conflict: the Biology of Selfish Genetic Elements.
Belknap Press, Harvard, Cambridge, MA.
Bustamante, P. and J. R. Iredell. 2017. Carriage of type II toxin-antitoxin systems by the growing
group of IncX plasmids. Plasmid 91:19-27.
Doolittle, W. F. and C. Sapienza. 1980. Selfish genes, the phenotype paradigm and genome
evolution. Nature 284:601-603.
Elena, S. F. and R. E. Lenski. 2003. Evolution experiments with microorganisms: the dynamics
and genetic bases of adaptation. Nat Rev Genet 4:457-469.
Fuhrman, J. A., J. A. Cram, and D. M. Needham. 2015. Marine microbial community dynamics
and their ecological interpretation. Nat Rev Microbiol 13:133-146.
Garud, N. R., B. H. Good, O. Hallatschek, and K. S. Pollard. 2019. Evolutionary dynamics of
bacteria in the gut microbiome within and across hosts. PLoS Biol 17:e3000102.
Gilbert, J. A., M. J. Blaser, J. G. Caporaso, J. K. Jansson, S. V. Lynch, and R. Knight. 2018.
Current understanding of the human microbiome. Nat Med 24:392-400.
Givens, D. I., A. H. Adamson, and J. M. Cobby. 1988. The effect of ammoniation on the
nutritive value of wheat, barley and oat straws. II. Digestibility and energy value
measurements in vivo and their prediction from laboratory measurements. Anim Feed Sci
Tech 19:173-184.
Goldenfeld, N. and C. Woese. 2007. Biology's next revolution. Nature 445:369.

Hall, J. P. J., M. A. Brockhurst, and E. Harrison. 2017. Sampling the mobile gene pool:
innovation via horizontal gene transfer in bacteria. Phil Trans R Soc Lond B 372.
Hug, L. A. and R. Co. 2018. It takes a village: Microbial communities thrive through interactions
and metabolic handoffs. mSystems 3:e00152-00117.
Knight, R., C. Callewaert, C. Marotz, E. R. Hyde, J. W. Debelius, D. McDonald, and M. L.
Sogin. 2017. The microbiome and human biology. Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet 18:65-
86.
Koonin, E. V. 2009. Darwinian evolution in the light of genomics. Nucleic Acids Res 37:1011-
1034.
Koskella, B., L. J. Hall, and C. J. E. Metcalf. 2017. The microbiome beyond the horizon of
ecological and evolutionary theory. Nat Ecol Evol 1:1606-1615.
Lam, P. and M. M. Kuypers. 2011. Microbial nitrogen cycling processes in oxygen minimum
zones. Ann Rev Mar Sci 3:317-345.
Li, D., C. M. Liu, R. Luo, K. Sadakane, and T. W. Lam. 2015. MEGAHIT: an ultra-fast single-
node solution for large and complex metagenomics assembly via succinct de Bruijn graph.
Bioinformatics 31:1674-1676.
Louca, S., M. F. Polz, F. Mazel, M. B. N. Albright, J. A. Huber, M. I. O'Connor, M. Ackermann,
A. S. Hahn, D. S. Srivastava, S. A. Crowe, M. Doebeli, and L. W. Parfrey. 2018. Function
and functional redundancy in microbial systems. Nat Ecol Evol 2:936-943.
Magoc, T. and S. L. Salzberg. 2011. FLASH: fast length adjustment of short reads to improve
genome assemblies. Bioinformatics 27:2957-2963.
Maltez Thomas, A., F. Prata Lima, L. Maria Silva Moura, A. Maria da Silva, E. Dias-Neto, and
J. C. Setubal. 2018. Comparative Metagenomics. Methods Mol Biol 1704:243-260.
Marchler-Bauer, A., M. K. Derbyshire, N. R. Gonzales, S. Lu, F. Chitsaz, L. Y. Geer, R. C.
Geer, J. He, M. Gwadz, D. I. Hurwitz, C. J. Lanczycki, F. Lu, G. H. Marchler, J. S. Song,
N. Thanki, Z. Wang, R. A. Yamashita, D. Zhang, C. Zheng, and S. H. Bryant. 2015. CDD:
NCBI's conserved domain database. Nucleic Acids Res. 43:D222-226.
Niu, B., Z. Zhu, L. Fu, S. Wu, and W. Li. 2011. FR-HIT, a very fast program to recruit
metagenomic reads to homologous reference genomes. Bioinformatics 27:1704-1705.
Ochman, H., J. G. Lawrence, and E. A. Groisman. 2000. Lateral gene transfer and the nature of
bacterial innovation. Nature 405:299-304.
Orgel, L. E. and F. H. C. Crick. 1980. Selfish DNA: The ultimate parasite. Nature 284:604-607.
Overbeek, R., T. Begley, R. M. Butler, J. V. Choudhuri, H. Y. Chuang, M. Cohoon, V. de Crecy-
Lagard, N. Diaz, T. Disz, R. Edwards, M. Fonstein, E. D. Frank, S. Gerdes, E. M. Glass, A.
Goesmann, A. Hanson, D. Iwata-Reuyl, R. Jensen, N. Jamshidi, L. Krause, M. Kubal, N.
Larsen, B. Linke, A. C. McHardy, F. Meyer, H. Neuweger, G. Olsen, R. Olson, A.
Osterman, V. Portnoy, G. D. Pusch, D. A. Rodionov, C. Ruckert, J. Steiner, R. Stevens, I.
Thiele, O. Vassieva, Y. Ye, O. Zagnitko, and V. Vonstein. 2005. The subsystems approach
to genome annotation and its use in the project to annotate 1000 genomes. Nucleic Acids
Res. 33:5691-5702.
Quince, C., A. W. Walker, J. T. Simpson, N. J. Loman, and N. Segata. 2017. Shotgun
metagenomics, from sampling to analysis. Nat Biotechnol 35:833-844.
Rainey, P. B., A. Buckling, R. Kassen, and M. Travisano. 2000. The emergence and maintenance
of diversity: insights from experimental bacterial populations. Trends Ecol Evol 15:243-
247.

Rainey, P. B., P. Remigi, A. D. Farr, and P. A. Lind. 2017. Darwin was right: where now for
experimental evolution? Curr Opin Genet Dev 47:102-109.
Ramisetty, B. C. and R. S. Santhosh. 2016. Horizontal gene transfer of chromosomal Type II
toxin-antitoxin systems of Escherichia coli. FEMS Microbiol Lett 363.
Rice, P., I. Longden, and A. Bleasby. 2000. EMBOSS: the European Molecular Biology Open
Software Suite. Trends Genet. 16:276-277.
Rosenfeld, J. S. 2002. Functional redundancy in ecology and conservation. Oikos 98:156-162.
Schmieder, R. and R. Edwards. 2011. Quality control and preprocessing of metagenomic
datasets. Bioinformatics 27:863-864.
Seed, K. D., D. W. Lazinski, S. B. Calderwood, and A. Camilli. 2013. A bacteriophage encodes
its own CRISPR/Cas adaptive response to evade host innate immunity. Nature 494:489-
491.
Simon, J. 2002. Enzymology and bioenergetics of respiratory nitrite ammonification. FEMS
Microbiol Rev 26:285-309.
Singhania, R. R., A. K. Patel, R. K. Sukumaran, C. Larroche, and A. Pandey. 2013. Role and
significance of beta-glucosidases in the hydrolysis of cellulose for bioethanol production.
Bioresour Technol 127:500-507.
Truong, D. T., A. Tett, E. Pasolli, C. Huttenhower, and N. Segata. 2017. Microbial strain-level
population structure and genetic diversity from metagenomes. Genome Res 27:626-638.
Tyson, G. W., J. Chapman, P. Hugenholtz, E. E. Allen, R. J. Ram, P. M. Richardson, V. V.
Solovyev, E. M. Rubin, D. S. Rokhsar, and J. F. Banfield. 2004. Community structure and
metabolism through reconstruction of microbial genomes from the environment. Nature
428:37-43.
Venter, J. C., K. Remington, J. F. Heidelberg, A. L. Halpern, D. Rusch, J. A. Eisen, D. Y. Wu, I.
Paulsen, K. E. Nelson, W. Nelson, D. E. Fouts, S. Levy, A. H. Knap, M. W. Lomas, K.
Nealson, O. White, J. Peterson, J. Hoffman, R. Parsons, H. Baden-Tillson, C. Pfannkoch,
Y. H. Rogers, and H. O. Smith. 2004. Environmental genome shotgun sequencing of the
Sargasso Sea. Science 304:66-74.
Werren, J. H. 2011. Selfish genetic elements, genetic conflict, and evolutionary innovation. Proc
Natl Acad Sci U S A 108 Suppl 2:10863-10870.
Widder, S., R. J. Allen, T. Pfeiffer, T. P. Curtis, C. Wiuf, W. T. Sloan, O. X. Cordero, S. P.
Brown, B. Momeni, W. Shou, H. Kettle, H. J. Flint, A. F. Haas, B. Laroche, J. U. Kreft, P.
B. Rainey, S. Freilich, S. Schuster, K. Milferstedt, J. R. van der Meer, T. Grobetakopf, J.
Huisman, A. Free, C. Picioreanu, C. Quince, I. Klapper, S. Labarthe, B. F. Smets, H.
Wang, F. Isaac Newton Institute, and O. S. Soyer. 2016. Challenges in microbial ecology:
building predictive understanding of community function and dynamics. ISME J. 10:2557-
2568.
Wilke, A., J. Bischof, W. Gerlach, E. Glass, T. Harrison, K. P. Keegan, T. Paczian, W. L.
Trimble, S. Bagchi, A. Grama, S. Chaterji, and F. Meyer. 2016. The MG-RAST
metagenomics database and portal in 2015. Nucleic Acids Res. 44:D590-594.
Wilson, D. B. 2011. Microbial diversity of cellulose hydrolysis. Curr Opin Microbiol 14:259-
263.

570
571
572
**Acknowledgements**

We thank members of the Rainey lab at ESPCI and the MPI for Evolutionary Biology for

valuable discussion, Boris Shraiman and Daniel Fisher for fuelling interest in the intractability of

microbial communities, Sven Kuenzel for DNA sequencing, and Rob Edwards and Jeremy Barr

for comments on the manuscript.  S.Q. acknowledges receipt of funding from the European

Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under the Marie Skłodowska-

Curie grant agreement No 747527.

**581    Author information**

582    Concept & experimental design PBR & SQ, experimentation SQ & PBR, bioinformatic analysis

583    SQ and GD, writing PBR & SQ.

**Figures**

## Figure 1: Experimental setup.

Cellulose-degrading microbial communities were established by placing ten independent 1 gram samples of fresh compost into 20 mL of M9 Minimal Medium contained within a 100 ml glass sample bottle (mesocosm) with a 4 cm$^2$ piece of paper as the sole carbon source. Following four weeks of incubation at room temperature and without shaking, the communities were homogenized and divided in two. Thereafter — and for the next 48 weeks — one of each pair was subject to a "vertical" transfer regime and the other a "horizontal" transfer regime ("vertical" and "horizontal" refer to the regime affecting fate of selfish genetic elements (SGEs)). For the vertical transfer regime 1 mL of homogenized community was transferred to 19 mL of fresh M9 Minimal Medium (plus paper). In this treatment movement of SGEs is confined to a single community. For the horizontal transfer regime, 1 mL of homogenized community was transferred using the same method as for the vertical regime, but additionally, each horizontal mesocosm received 1 mL of "SGE-cocktail". The "SGE-cocktail" was prepared by sampling 1 mL of homogenized community from each of the ten horizontal communities. These independent samples were then centrifuged and the supernatant passed through a 0.22 µm filter to remove microbial cells. The ten SGE-containing samples were then pooled to produce the "SGE-cocktail". Under the horizontal transfer regime, SGEs repeatedly encounter hosts from other mesocosms. Paired horizontal and vertical communities were incubated for two weeks and total DNA was extracted for metagenomic sequencing. At each transfer samples were collected for DNA sequencing and glycerol stocks of each community were created and stored at -80 °C.

**Figure 2: Movement of phage-like elements between horizontal communities.**

Twenty phage-like contigs assembled from sequence reads unique to horizontal communities are listed on the y-axes. Each vertical line represents a single pair of mesocosms with communities subject to the horizontal and vertical regimes depicted in blue and orange, respectively. The x-axis of the butterfly plot is the number of reads mapping to each contig. Astrices denote the source community from which the contigs were assembled.

**Figure 3: Genus-level rank abundance curves.**

The blue line depicts the genus-level rank abundance curve at time point $T_1$ two weeks after the divide of founding communities into horizontal and vertical treatments. The red line is at time point $T_{24}$ (48 weeks). Because there were no differences between vertical and horizontal communities at $T_1$ or $T_{24}$ data from both regimes were combined. Data are means and standard deviations from 20 mesocosms.

**Figure 4: Dynamics of contigs unique to horizontal communities.**

The dynamics of two-phage like elements (**a**, **b**) and two elements containing predicted beta glucosidases (**c**, **d**) identified from assembling unique reads from horizontal communities at time point $T_1$. Each mesocosm is represented as a vertical line and dynamics were tracked through the course of the 48 week experiment. The butterfly plot depicts normalised abundance of sequence reads mapping to each of the representative contigs from horizontal and vertical mesocosms (blue and orange, respectively). Grey / white boxes above each figure depict presence / absence of sequences from each contig in the founding $T_0$ community (before the vertical / horizontal split).

**Figure 5: Enrichment of nitrogen metabolism genes in horizontal communities.**

**a,** Relative abundance of nitrogen metabolism gene categories based on sequence annotation using MG-RAST. Data are shown as box and whisker plots depicting median, inter quartile range (box) and full data spread from 10 replicate communities; * = $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$ (unpaired $t$-test). **b,** Total number of Open Reading Frames (ORFs) predicted to encode specific domains associated with ammonification, regulation of nitrogen metabolism, and other associated nitrogen metabolism genes in the assemblies of unique vertical and unique horizontal sequences. Data are shown as box and whisker plots depicting median, inter quartile range (box) and full data spread from 10 replicate mesocosms; * = $P < 0.05$ (unpaired $t$-test). 1, NifS; 2, NifE; 3, NapA; 4, nitrilase; 5, NtrA; 6, NifR3; 7, NtrY; 8, NifL; 9, PtsN; 10, NtrB; 11, NtrC; 12, NAC; 13, FixI; 14, FixG; 15 & 16 nitroreductases; 17, arginase; 18, cytochrome D1. Full descriptions of domains are provided in Supplementary Table 9.

**Figure 6: Enhanced ammonia production in horizontal communities.**

**a,** Concentrations of nitrate, nitrite, and ammonia / ammonium from mesocosms subject to horizontal and vertical regimes at 48 weeks ($T_{24}$). Data are shown as box and whisker plots depicting median, inter quartile range (box) and full data spread from 10 replicate communities; **$P < 0.01$ (unpaired *t*-test). **b,** Ammonia / ammonium concentrations measured at nine time points during the two-week incubation period for communities from horizontal and vertical regimes at 48 weeks. Data are shown as box and whisker plots depicting median, inter quartile range (box) and full data spread from 10 replicate communities (triplicate measures were obtained from each community on each occasion). Analysis of time series data using a mixed ANOVA design showed a significant effect of treatment (horizontal vs. vertical; $P = 1.96 \times 10^{-5}$) and a significant effect of time ($P = 2.7 \times 10^{-24}$, after Greenhouse & Geisser correction for sphericity). The interaction between treatment regime and time was not significant $P = 0.69$). Comparison between the vertical regime at 48 ($T_{24}$) and community function at the beginning of the experiment ($T_0$) showed no difference (see Supplementary Fig. 8).