

# 1 Deconstructing *taxa x taxa x environment* interactions in the microbiota: A 2 theoretical examination

3

4 Yitbarek, Senay<sup>1</sup>, Guittar, John<sup>2,3</sup>, Knutie, Sarah A.<sup>4,5</sup>., Ogbunugafor, C. Brandon<sup>6,7</sup>

5

6 1. Department of Biology, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC 27599,  
7 USA

8 2. Department of Microbiology and Molecular Genetics, Michigan State University, East Lansing,  
9 MI 48824 USA

10 3. Kellogg Biological Station, Michigan State University, Hickory Corners, MI 49060, USA

11 4. Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT 06269,  
12 USA

13 5. Institute for Systems Genomics, University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT, 06269, USA

14 6. Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Yale University, New Haven, CT 06520

15 7. Vermont Complex Systems Center, University of Vermont, Burlington, VT 05405

16

## 17 Abstract

- 18 1. A major objective of microbial ecology is to identify how the composition of gut  
19 microbial taxa shapes host phenotypes. However, most studies focus solely on  
20 community-level patterns and pairwise interactions and ignore the potentially  
21 significant effects of higher-order interactions involving three or more component  
22 taxa.
- 23 2. Studies on higher-order interactions among microbial taxa are scarce for many  
24 reasons, including experimental intractability, daunting diversity and complexity of  
25 many microbial systems, and the potential confounding role of the environment.  
26 Moreover, we still lack the empirical and statistical tools to isolate and understand  
27 the role of higher-order interactions on the host.
- 28 3. Here, we apply a mathematical approach to quantifying the effects of higher-order  
29 interactions among taxa on host infection risk. To do so, we adapt the Hadamard-  
30 Walsh method recently used in evolutionary genetics to quantify the nonlinear  
31 effects of mutations on fitness. We apply our approach to an *in silico* dataset built to  
32 resemble a population of insect hosts with gut-associated microbial communities at  
33 risk of infection from an intestinal parasite. Critically, we examine these  
34 interactions across a breadth of environmental contexts, using nutrient content of  
35 the insect diet as a model for context.
- 36 4. We find that the effect of higher-order interactions is considerable and can change  
37 appreciably across environmental contexts. Strikingly, the relative eminence of  
38 different orders (pairwise vs. third order, fourth order, and fifth order) changes as a  
39 function of environmental context. Furthermore, we show– in our theoretical  
40 microcosm– that higher-order interactions can stabilize community structure  
41 thereby reducing host susceptibility to parasite invasion.
- 42 5. Our approach illustrates how incorporating the effects of higher-order interactions  
43 among gut microbiota across environments can be essential for understanding their  
44 effects on host phenotypes. We conclude that higher-order interactions among taxa  
45 can profoundly shape important organismal phenotypes, and they deserve greater  
46 attention in host-associated microbiome studies.

47 **Keywords: Higher-order interactions, insect microbiota, microenvironments, network**  
48 **theory**

49

50

## 51 **Introduction**

52 Animal guts contain complex microbial communities whose structure and function depend upon the  
53 interactions among microbes and the host. Gut microbiota serves as key actors in host health, impacting  
54 development, metabolism, and the immune system (Brugman et al., 2018; McFall-Ngai et al., 2013). The  
55 development of axenic and gnotobiotic model hosts has made it possible to experimentally study how the  
56 microbiota influences host traits of interest (Douglas, 2018). However, most studies rely on correlations  
57 between the relative abundances of individual microbial taxa and host traits (e.g. immune function), and  
58 also community-level patterns at family level taxonomic resolutions, ignoring the potential influence of  
59 higher-order interactions among taxa within the community (Hooper et al., 2012; Knutie et al., 2017;  
60 Macpherson & Harris, 2004; Round & Mazmanian, 2009).

61

62 The field of complex systems is increasingly interested in understanding the emergent properties of  
63 higher-order interactions (Battiston et al., 2020). Higher order interactions have been the object of  
64 relatively rigorous inquiry in the realm of genetics, where they are discussed in terms of epistasis, or non-  
65 linear interactions between genes and mutations (Mackay & Moore, 2014; Weinreich et al., 2013, 2018a).  
66 A useful non-technical definition of epistasis is “surprise at the phenotype when mutations are combined,  
67 given the constituent mutations’ individual effects” (Weinreich et al., 2013). In particular, higher-order  
68 epistasis is of interest, as these interactions comprise all of the complexity and challenges of  
69 understanding and studying higher-order interactions in other systems, and even in microbes (Gould et al.,  
70 2018). Not unlike genomes, communities or neural circuits, insect gut microbiomes are complex systems  
71 defined by the interaction between individual entities or parcels of information (in this case, component

72 taxa in the microbiota). Consequently, we might predict that higher-order interactions between taxa in the  
73 microbiota might underlie microbiota-associated organismal phenotypes.

74

75 A long-standing goal of ecology is to capture the vast diversity of multispecies interactions—the  
76 unpredictable effects that arise when multiple species are present in an ecosystem (Barabás et al., 2016;  
77 Chesson, 2000; Hutchinson, 1961; Mayfield & Stouffer, 2017; Vandermeer, 1969). For example, animals  
78 harbor diverse microbial communities that are variable in their composition, governed by stochastic  
79 processes, which influences the overall behavior of the system (Douglas, 2018). This problem has more  
80 recently become the object of inquiry in communities of microbes (Enke et al., 2019; Guittar et al., 2019;  
81 Mickalide & Kuehn, 2019; Sanchez-Gorostiaga et al., 2018). Many ecological studies involving complex  
82 network structures typically focus on pairwise interactions (Kareiva, 1994; Levine et al., 2017; Mayfield  
83 & Stouffer, 2017). Only very recently has the literature demonstrated that higher-order interactions are at  
84 play in these systems, an important area for further inquiry, given how they may potentially complicate  
85 (or even undermine) simple models of microbial community function (Sanchez-Gorostiaga et al., 2018).

86

87 Higher-order interactions in the gut microbiota of *Drosophila species* impact lifespan, fecundity,  
88 development time, and community composition (Gould et al., 2018). With a gut community comprising  
89 five core taxa, Gould et al. found that three-way, four-way, and five-way interactions accounted for 13-  
90 44% of all possible cases depending on the host trait. Yet, lower-order interactions (2-pairs) still  
91 accounted for at least half of all the observed phenotypes in the system. Work by Sanchez-Gorostiaga et  
92 al. (2018), examined the contributions of multispecies interactions to determining community function  
93 (i.e. amylase expression). In the presence of higher-ordered interactions, the predictive power of the  
94 additive null model (absence of interactions) in predicting community function decreases. However, by  
95 accounting for both behavioral and population dynamics effects into their null model, higher-order  
96 interactions did provide good predictions for community function. Higher-order interactions can have  
97 important implications for the predictive power of bottom-up approaches to designing complex

98 communities and determining their functional traits (Sanchez-Gorostiaga et al., 2018). The  
99 aforementioned studies provide examples of how higher-order interactions can be measured and suggest  
100 that they are relevant for understanding how microbial taxa influence certain phenotypes. While the  
101 importance of diversity and host interactions is clear, to our knowledge no studies have attempted to  
102 specifically disentangle effects of higher-order interactions across environmental contexts.

103  
104 One major barrier to more of these studies is the paucity (or non-existence) of the datasets structured like  
105 those in an evolutionary genetics framework, such that existing statistical methods might be used to  
106 resolve interactions (Tekin et al., 2017; Wood et al., 2012). For example, the problem of constructing a  
107 set of insects that each carry a different combination of constituent taxa of interest grows exponentially  
108 with the number of taxa. And unlike some genetic systems, constructing a different insect with a different  
109 set of bacterial taxa (corresponding with the possible combinations of taxa) is currently a non-trivial  
110 technical challenge. Nonetheless, the use of combinatorial complete datasets—insects containing all  
111 combinations of taxa (even few in number)—to explore higher-order interactions (beyond a single taxon  
112 or pairwise interactions) could help to inform how taxa interact in framing organismal phenotypes.  
113 Higher-order interactions could, in principle, be used to examine how our predictions for taxa-taxa  
114 interactions will be contingent on the host context in which a certain distribution of taxa exists.

115  
116 In this study, we reframe how we consider higher-order interactions in an insect gut using theoretical  
117 approaches. We apply a relatively simple mathematical method called the Walsh-Hadamard transform  
118 (WHT), which has been used to demonstrate how higher-order interactions between mutations influence  
119 fitness or other organismal traits (Poelwijk et al., 2016; Weinreich et al., 2013, 2018b). We use this  
120 method to explore how higher-order interactions among gut taxa can influence host fitness, across micro-  
121 environments. In this study, we use it to quantify higher-order interactions in an *in silico* dataset  
122 resembling the type of data that can be collected, presently in genetic systems, and plausibly in the future  
123 in microbiota experimental systems.

124 We have chosen to consider the nutritional environment of the host, as resources can vary due to  
125 spatial and temporal differences, and in terms of the quantity and quality of required resources. A key  
126 component of resource availability is nutrition, which is likely to influence host resistance to natural  
127 enemies. In microbial systems, increased resource availability resulted in greater host resistance to  
128 parasites (Gómez et al., 2015; Lopez-Pascua & Buckling, 2008). Lower resource levels have been found  
129 to be costly for resistance to parasites in *Drosophila melanogaster* (McKean et al., 2008). Nutritional  
130 content (quality and quantity) is a well-known stressor for insect microbes in many settings, including the  
131 gut microbiota (Engel & Moran, 2013; Gurung et al., 2019; Mereghetti et al., 2017; Skidmore & Hansen,  
132 2017). However, experimental studies involving model systems rely on high nutritional diets to  
133 understand factors affecting susceptibility to infectious diseases (Roberts et al., 2019). In this work, we  
134 consider how varying nutritional environments influence host susceptibility to disease risk.

135  
136 Using this framework, we are able to examine underappreciated aspects of the microbiota: questions  
137 surrounding the notion that the microenvironment of the insect gut may shape higher-order interactions  
138 between taxa, with important consequences for host health and fitness. Our study examines the  
139 consequences of higher-order microbial interactions for host susceptibility (i.e. phenotype of interest) to  
140 disease risk. We hypothesize that higher-order interactions underlie host microbiome robustness to  
141 intestinal parasite invasion, reducing host susceptibility to disease risk, and that these interactions are  
142 highly dependent on environmental context. While this study is designed to address standing questions  
143 about interactions within the microbiota, it also offers future directions. We introduce this approach with  
144 the hope that it, or a related method may eventually be applied to a tractable experimental system for real-  
145 world validation and believe that insect systems are among the most promising candidates for these  
146 examinations.

147

148

149

150 **Methods**

151 **Data source**

152 The data used in this study arise from raw data used to generate theoretical fitness landscapes, composed  
153 of five-bit strings that were generated from an *in silico* data set introduced in a prior study (Meszaros et  
154 al., 2019). The data set was originally generated in order to provide large empirical data sets that could be  
155 used to study advanced topics in population genetics, including higher-order epistasis. The datasets are  
156 constructed such that they can serve as an exploratory space for any theoretical set of interactors, and  
157 therefore, is well-structured for the study of interacting microbial taxa. That is, there is nothing about the  
158 datasets that renders it a better fit for any one biological problem than another: these data could just as  
159 well be used to study interacting genes as taxa or any parcel of information. The data are defined as  
160 strings of information (e.g. 01011 or 11001), each with a corresponding “phenotype” value. Therefore,  
161 this data is equipped for the analyses as proposed in this study. Here, we use it to generate theoretical  
162 microbiota in an insect gut. For more information on the data set and its origin, see Meszaros et. al 2019  
163 and the Supplementary Information.

164  
165 For the purpose of this study, it is important that we are transparent with regards to the data source, the  
166 notation, and the method for transforming the data into a microcosm for taxa in an *in silico* insect  
167 microbiota. In this study, our hypothetical insect guts are encoded as strings of bits. Bits can either be 0 or  
168 1. 1 indicates the presence (+) of a taxa. 0 indicates absence (-) of a taxon. For example, we can write a  
169 string of 0 and 1 corresponding to an insect gut with five interacting taxa (A-D) as demonstrated in Table  
170 1.

171

172

173

174

175

176

<b>Taxa</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>E</b>
<b>Presence (+) or absence (-)</b> <b>)</b>	+	-	+	+	-
<b>Binary representation</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>

177

**Table 1.** Data structure of a hypothetical insect gut.

178

179 As we can see, the “10110” string corresponds to an insect gut where taxa A is present, B is absent, C is  
180 present, D is present, and E is absent. The data set that we are mining, originally derived for studying  
181 combinatorial data sets that are common in the study of fitness landscapes, offers tens of thousands of  
182 combinatorial sets that correspond to a hypothetical insect gut with interacting taxa (Meszaros et al.,  
183 2019). We have randomly chosen one such set, containing five individual bits, to explore the central  
184 biological concepts of interest in this study: the measurement of higher-order interactions between taxa,  
185 and how these interactions might be influenced by the environmental context.

186

187 The data set that we will use is a five-bit string (a string of five numbers), combinations of presence and  
188 absence (+ or -) of five taxa (A-D). The combinatorial possibility corresponds to  $2^5 = 32$  theoretical  
189 combinations of taxa across four different insect environments. In Table 1, we show the “fitness” (host  
190 infection risk in our study) values for all 32 *in silico* combinations of taxa across four different insects.

191

## 192 **Calculating the strength of interactions**

193 As mentioned in the introduction, there are myriad methods for resolving higher-order interactions, and  
194 many such methods have been explored in genomic studies (Crona, 2020; Domingo et al., 2018; Guerrero  
195 et al., 2019; Otwinowski et al., 2018; Poelwijk et al., 2016; Sailer & Harms, 2017). A full treatment of the  
196 strengths and weaknesses of every method would require a review that is beyond the scope of our study,  
197 but some existing work has interrogated multiple methods in the study of epistasis (Poelwijk et al., 2016).

198 In describing the methods as applied in this study, we have erred on the side of redundancy in our  
199 explanations. We believe that this is appropriate, given that our method of choice – the Walsh Hadamard  
200 Transform – has never been applied to the study of the microbiota and so could benefit from further  
201 explanations.

202

### 203 **The Walsh-Hadamard Transform**

204 The Walsh-Hadamard Transform allows one to quantify the eminence of interaction effects among  
205 potentially interacting objects or parcels. Its main output is a Walsh coefficient, which communicates the  
206 magnitude (how large the interaction is) and sign (positive interaction or negative direction) for a given  
207 interaction. The method implements phenotypic (host infection risk in our study) values in the form of a  
208 vector, before reformatting it into a Hadamard matrix (and is then scaled by a diagonal matrix). The  
209 output is a collection of coefficients which correspond to the strength of interaction between taxa.

210 For example, we can define the Walsh Hadamard coefficient for the following:

211 \*B\*DE

212 The asterisks ( \* ) correspond to taxa that could either be present or absent. This can reencoded in binary  
213 as:

214

215 01011

216

217 This Walsh Hadamard coefficient for this string would correspond to the magnitude of the interaction  
218 between the B, D and E taxa. Importantly, we would label the interaction between B, D and E as a “third  
219 order” interaction, as the calculation provides the average strength of interaction between three different  
220 taxa: B, D and E. Understanding the different orders of interaction is the key to gaining a perspective on  
221 “higher-order” interactions. In a gut containing five taxa that we are interested in understanding the  
222 interaction between, there are five different “orders” of potential interaction.

223



224 For example:

225 0<sup>th</sup> (zeroth) order interaction would be the insect containing none of the taxa of interest (A-E) present.

226 First order interactions correspond to the influence of individual taxa on the infection risk. There are five

227 such first order terms in this theoretical insect microbiota:

228 A\*\*\*\*

229 \*B\*\*\*

230 \*\*C\*\*

231 \*\*\*D\*

232 \*\*\*\*E

233

234 Similarly, there are ten second order coefficients, ten third order, five fourth order, and one fifth order

235 (corresponding to the interaction between all five taxa; ABCD or 11111). These Walsh Hadamard

236 coefficients can be summed within an order. Consequently, a whole theoretical “insect gut” can be

237 described in terms of the overall magnitude of its 0 – 5<sup>th</sup> order interactions. For example, we can examine

238 the strength of third-order interactions (in sum) and compare them to the strength of fourth order

239 interactions.

240

241 The Walsh Hadamard coefficient describes the magnitude to which an interaction map is linear, or second

242 order, third, and so forth. We refer interested readers to two published manuscripts—Poelwijk et al.

243 (2016) and Weinreich et. al. (2013)—that outline and apply the method in good detail. Also, see the

244 Supplementary Information for a brief primer.

245

246 The Walsh-Hadamard Transform relies on the existence of combinatorial data sets, where the objects for

247 which we are interested in understanding the interactions between (taxa in this study) are constructed in

248 all possible combinations. Another limitation of the Walsh-Hadamard Transform is that it can only

249 accommodate two variants per site, that is, two states per actor. In the case of taxa, we can think of this in

250 terms of the presence/absence of a certain taxon, and we can encode this in terms of 0 (absence) or 1  
251 (presence). For each hypothetical insect with a different presence/absence combination, we have a  
252 corresponding phenotypic measurement (e.g. host infection risk). For example, if we wanted to measure  
253 the higher-order interactions between 4 taxa within an insect with regards to their role in parasite load (as  
254 a model phenotype), we would need  $2^L = 16$  individual measurements (insects in this case), with  $L$   
255 corresponding to the number of different taxa whose effects we were interested in disentangling. We can  
256 encode this combination of 4 taxa in bit string notation (see Figure 1).

257

258 As described above (Methods section), each site (0 or 1) in the string corresponds to the presence or  
259 absence of a given taxa in a given insect. This notation allows us to keep a mental picture of which taxa  
260 are in which insect for which we have a phenotypic measurement and can be used to construct a vector of  
261 values. Again, the string 01011 corresponds to an insect with the pattern of absent (0), present (1), absent  
262 (0), present (1), present (1). The full data set includes a vector of phenotypic values for all possible  
263 combinations of taxa—(see Table 1). Note, again, that these can be divided into different classes based on  
264 the “order” of the interaction. This vector of phenotypic values for the 32 will be multiplied by a (32 x 32)  
265 square matrix, which is the product of a diagonal matrix  $V$  and a Hadamard matrix  $H$ . These matrices are  
266 defined recursively by:

$$V_{n+1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & -V_n \end{pmatrix}, V_0 = 1 \quad [1]$$

$$H_{n+1} = \begin{pmatrix} H_n & H_n \\ H_n & -H_n \end{pmatrix}, H_0 = 1 \quad [2]$$

267

268

269  $n$  is the number of loci ( $n = 4$  in this hypothetical example). This matrix multiplication gives an output:

270  
271

$$\gamma = VHx$$

272 Where  $V$  and  $H$  are the matrices described in [1] and [2] above, and  $\gamma$  is the Walsh coefficient, the  
273 measure of the interaction between parcels of information in a string. Using this, we compute  $\gamma$  values for  
274 every possible interaction between bits in a given string. These methods measure every one of these  
275 interactions (e.g. all ten 2nd order interactions) between taxa. While our use of a five-bit string structure  
276 (as opposed to an three or fifteen bit string) is arbitrary, it communicates the nature of the higher-  
277 interaction problem: Even if we suspect that only five taxa in an insect microbiota are meaningfully  
278 influencing a phenotype of interest (Cagnolo et al., 2011; Ferrari & Vavre, 2011; McLean et al., 2016),  
279 the possible ways that these species are interacting, and the number of measurable coefficients between  
280 them can be meaningful.

281 Having outlined the method used to quantify higher-order interactions above, it is important to directly  
282 explain the presumptive biological interpretation of the values. The Walsh Hadamard Transform returns  
283 a Walsh coefficient for each “order” of interaction. This corresponds to the relative strength or importance  
284 of that “order” in the phenotype being measured. Therefore, the Walsh-Hadamard Transform can help to  
285 interpret the overall presence and eminence of higher-order interactions between taxa in a microbiota.

286

### 287 **The theoretical environment of the insect gut microbiota**

288 Here, we explore how varying nutrient diets influence host susceptibility to parasites in the gut  
289 microbiota. We chose to focus on the nutrient diet content in our study design because the resource  
290 environment is highly relevant to the insect gut microbiota. In insects, nutrition content of the host’s food  
291 can be controlled by the addition of methyl cellulose (an indigestible bulk agent) in the standard food  
292 medium (Boots & Begon, 1994). Resource-levels varying from high-quality diets (containing no methyl  
293 cellulose in the food medium) to lower-quality diets (replacing 10%, 20%, 30%, 40%, 50%, 60%, 70%,  
294 80%, 90% of the food medium with methyl cellulose) have been utilized to empirically study the role of  
295 varying nutrition environments to parasite resistance in lepidopteran pest species (Boots et al., 2011). In

296 our theoretical study, we define “nutrient content” as a diet compromising a range of nutrients in a  
297 standard insect diet. A diet of 0 % would correspond to an extremely low nutrition diet, and 100% to a  
298 high-quality diet composed of the standard food amount for insects. Consequently, the nutrient gradient 0  
299 – 100% represents varying degrees of resource availability.

300

## 301 **Results**

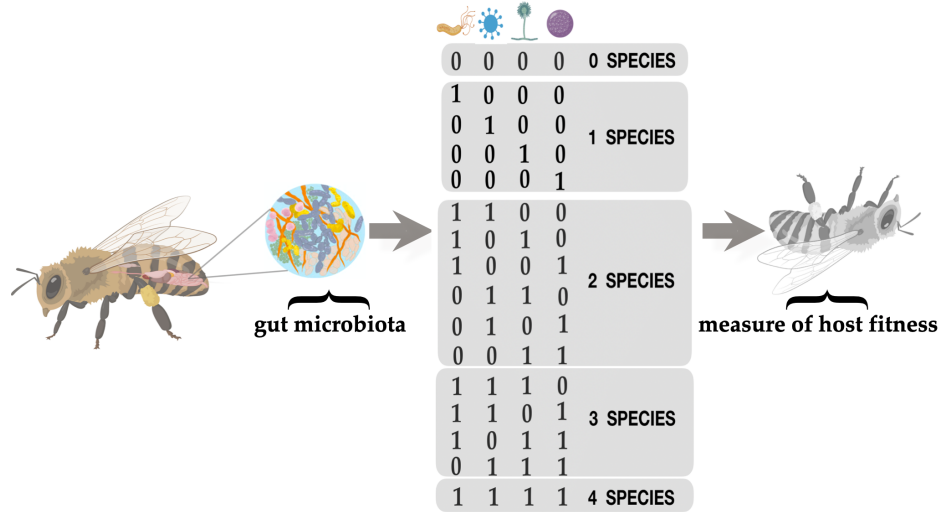
302

303 *Norm of reaction.* The norm of reaction demonstrates that two insect guts, corresponding to 00000 (no  
304 taxa) and 11111 (the presence of taxa of every kind) have the largest parasite loads relative to other insect  
305 microbiota combinations. The high parasite load pattern is consistent across the nutrient content that  
306 insects consume (Fig. 2). In contrast, we find that parasite load is drastically reduced for all other insect  
307 microbiota combinations (examples include combinations 001100; 11011; 11101).

308

309 *Comparison of the orders of interactions among taxa across microenvironments.* Figure 3 demonstrates  
310 the sum of the absolute values of the interaction coefficients. Here, we can observe the raw magnitude  
311 (whether positive or negative in sign) of higher-order interactions as a function of interaction order. Note  
312 how the eminence of the higher-order effects changes as a function of nutrient content. At low nutrient  
313 contents, fourth order effects are the most impactful on the overall parasite load. At approximately 20%,  
314 the fifth order effects (corresponding to the five-way interaction of taxa in the *in silico* insect gut  
315 represented by 11111). The change in order of eminence also applies to the second order (pairwise) and  
316 third order interactions. At low nutrient contents, the pairwise interactions exert a more meaningful  
317 influence on the parasite load than the three-way interactions. At approximately 20% nutrient content--not  
318 far from that nutrient percentage where a switch between fourth and fifth order effects manifests--the  
319 three-way interactions supplant the pairwise effects in their overall influence on parasite load. Note that  
320 all of these values—the *in silico* parasite load data, the interaction coefficients for all individual  
321 interactions, and the scaled, absolute value coefficients—can be found in the Supplementary Material.

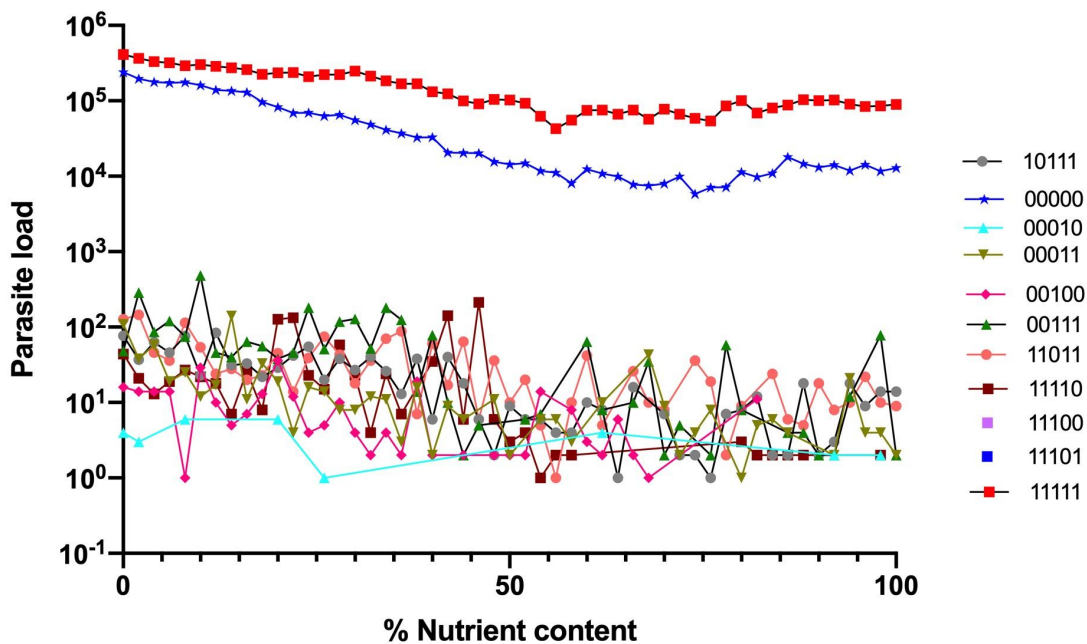
322



323

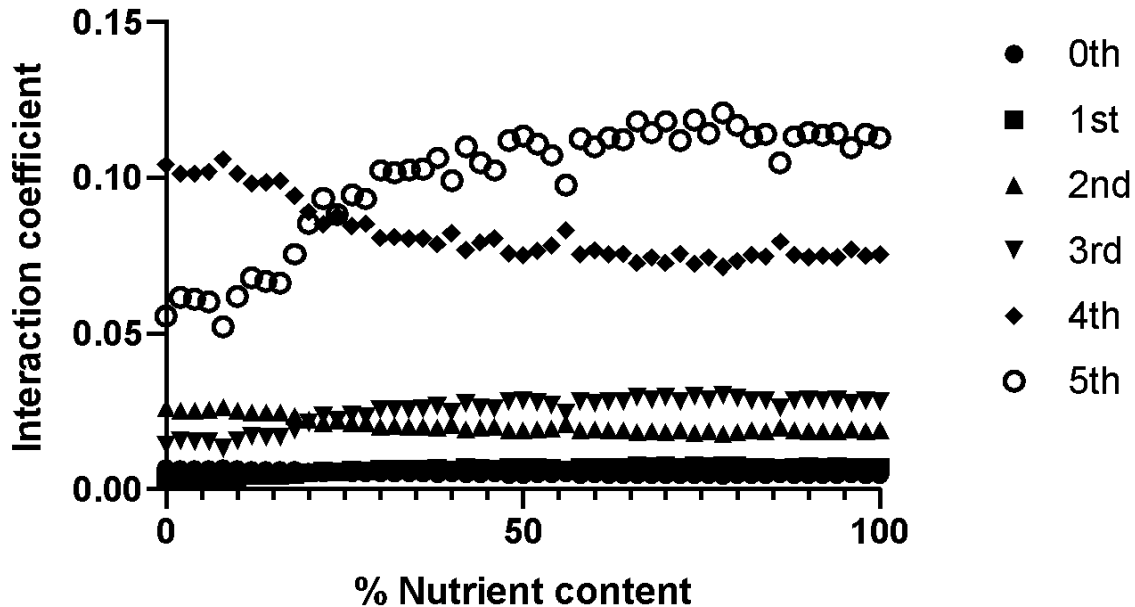
324 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of higher-order interactions in the insect gut microbiota. We represent  
 325 the presence of microbial species in the gut similarly to the presence of a genetic locus. Species  
 326 composition of gut microbiota is represented in binary strings. In this configuration, the combination  
 327 0011 represents both the presence and absence of two species. For each string combination, we associated  
 328 a phenotypic measurement, such as infection risk. We quantify “epistatic” interactions between microbes  
 329 in  $n$  dimensional space, where  $n$  represents the number of species interacting.

330  
 331  
 332  
 333  
 334  
 335



336

337 **Figure 2.** A Norm of reaction representing the parasite load of *in silico* insect guts as a function of  
338 nutrient microenvironment. The x-axis represents the nutrient content that insects consume, ranging from  
339 0% (deprived) to 100% (a full, standard nutrient content. Individual data points correspond to insect guts  
340 containing different combinations of taxa. The y-axis represents the parasite load, a proxy for the  
341 susceptibility of a given insect to infection by parasites. Note that only a subset of the 32 taxa are  
342 represented in this, as many of the *in silico* insect guts have parasite loads that are very low. The data for  
343 all 32 can be found in the supplementary material.  
344  
345  
346



347 **Figure 3.** The magnitude of higher-order interaction between taxa as a function of environment (nutrient  
348 content). Absolute value, averaged magnitude interactions across interaction orders. The purpose of this  
349 depiction is to illustrate how the magnitude (not sign) of the interactions change with interaction order. Of  
350 special note is how importance of the order of interactions changes as a function of nutrient content (x-  
351 axis). In this scenario, there is a nutrient content threshold (~20%) where the patterns of the interactions  
352 change. In our theoretical insect microbiota system, we define “nutrient content” as a diet comprising a  
353 range of nutrients in a standard insect diet. In insect populations, the nutrient content of the host’s food  
354 can be controlled by the addition of methyl cellulose (an indigestible bulk agent) in the standard food  
355 medium (Boots & Begon, 1994). In our model, a diet of 0 % would correspond to an extremely low  
356 nutrition diet, and 100% to a high-quality diet composed of the standard food amount for insects.  
357 Consequently, the nutrient gradient 0 – 100% represents varying degrees of nutrient content.  
358  
359  
360

361  
362  
363

## 364 **Discussion**

365           In this study, we explore the possibility of higher-order interactions between taxa that compose an  
366 insect gut microbiota. Using *in silico* and mathematical approaches, we demonstrate how higher-order  
367 interactions can be measured in a complex system of interacting microbial taxa. In our theoretical  
368 scenario, higher-order interactions are present and generally increase in relevance with the order of  
369 interaction. Notably, the environment (nutrient content in this case) has a meaningful influence on how  
370 higher-order interactions among taxa manifest. This result highlights an aspect of higher-order  
371 interactions that is so far largely under-appreciated: that the environment and context in which taxa exist  
372 can have a meaningful impact on how taxa interact. Consequently, simply noting that non-linear and  
373 higher order interactions between taxa may exist is no longer sufficient in how the insect microbiota is  
374 discussed: we must consider, and measure, how environments may influence how interactions manifest.  
375 Though our results arise from a theoretical examination of *in silico* insect microbiota, they are results  
376 nonetheless (Goldstein, 2018) and highlight the potentially vast scope of the higher-order interaction  
377 problem that could define the true dynamics of gut microbiota. Specifically, the outlining of a method that  
378 can be used to deconstruct higher-order interactions in biological systems, across environmental contexts,  
379 represents a potentially useful contribution to the study of the microbiota.

380

381 Though empirical data of the size and scope used in this study are currently challenging to generate, this  
382 intractability may be temporary, and future methods may permit the generation of data similar in structure  
383 to those explored in our theoretical examination. Note that the calculations of higher-order interactions,  
384 and their dynamic nature, can be considered without knowing the specific mechanism that underlies the  
385 nature of these interactions, determining the magnitude of coefficients provides relevant information on  
386 the eminence of a given order in the microbiota. One additional benefit of these results is that they can  
387 identify those settings (combinations between microbiota and a given microenvironment) that should be  
388 the focus on mechanistic study. For example, by identifying the taxa involved in large pairwise

389 interactions, one can then examine the mechanistic basis underlying this pairwise interaction through  
390 manipulative experiments.

391  
392 Our results are consistent from recent findings, where diverse communities are more effective at resisting  
393 invasions including *E. coli* invasion of soil communities (Elsas et al., 2012), plant root bacterial  
394 communities (Wei et al., 2015), and experimental invasions in bacterial communities (Lu et al., 2018).  
395 Collectively these studies show that outcome of invasions are determined by available resources in the  
396 microbiota. Our main result showing that higher-order microbial interactions limits the invasion of  
397 parasites across nutrient environments is in agreement with studies that interactions are mediated by  
398 underlying resource dynamics. The nutritional status of the gut microbiome plays an important role in the  
399 health of hosts. Simple gut microbiotas have been engineered to provide hosts with novel functions, such  
400 as the ability to use more complex nutrient sources and to fight against pathogens. Recent work by Sun et  
401 al. 2020 shows that in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, the colonization of cellulolytic bacteria enables *C. elegans*  
402 to utilize cellulose, an otherwise indigestible carbon substrate. At the community level, cellulolytic  
403 bacteria can also support resident bacterial species with additional functional roles, such as the protection  
404 by *Lactobacillus* in the gut against *Salmonella* infection (Sun et al., n.d.). To test our model, insect gut  
405 microbiota could be engineered to explore how higher-order microbial endosymbiont interactions protect  
406 against pathogen infection by enhancing the nutritional status of the host.

407  
408 The mathematical approach used in this study—the Walsh-Hadamard Transform—has been previously  
409 used by theoretical population geneticists to measure non-linear interactions between mutations  
410 (Weinreich et al., 2013). Several empirical data sets in genetics and genomics have demonstrated that the  
411 sign of interaction effects can change readily with the identity of the interacting parcels (Guerrero et al.,  
412 2018; Weinreich et al., 2013, 2018a). Given this, we predict that the taxa that compose the gut microbiota  
413 might be similarly defined by higher-order interactions, and that these interactions will change  
414 appreciably with insect microenvironment. The capacity for measuring the effects of higher-order



415 interactions on host fitness is an important step towards understanding the effects of microbiota on their  
416 host.

417

418 The impact of higher-order interactions in the gut microbiota on host fitness may result from a range of  
419 possible interactions, ranging from competitive to mutualistic (Fast et al., 2018; Ludington & Ja, 2020;  
420 Newell & Douglas, 2014). To test the full suite of all possible combinatorial interactions and their  
421 associated effects on host traits, it is important to experimentally manipulate microbial communities. For  
422 example, the fruit fly (*Drosophila melanogaster*) is an attractive model system for designing  
423 combinatorial studies due to relative ease of rearing gnotobiotic flies and modularity of its microbiome  
424 (Ludington & Ja, 2020). For example, combinatorial designs of microbial communities in *D.*  
425 *melanogaster* revealed that emerging higher-order effects composed of 3, 4, and 5-way interactions  
426 impacted aspects of host fitness such as life span and fecundity (Gould et al., 2018). While the relative  
427 simplicity and tractability of fly microbiomes facilitates the study of host-microbe interactions,  
428 underlying mechanisms can provide insights for more complex mammalian gut microbiomes. In *D.*  
429 *melanogaster*, stable gut colonizers favor specific regions of the foregut, which like mammals, suggest  
430 specific niches for gut colonizers (Pais et al., 2018). Therefore, strategies that invertebrates and their  
431 microbes employ to form stable associations might be informative for mammalian gut microbiomes  
432 (Ludington & Ja, 2020).

### 433 **Conclusion**

434 Recent theoretical work suggests that higher-order modeling approaches are able to capture volumes of  
435 rich data arising from complex ecological interactions (Battiston et al., 2020). We have adapted  
436 approaches from evolutionary genetics to the study of host-associated microbiota. In the future, applying  
437 these methods to the analysis of experimental data will yield important insight into microbiome dynamics,  
438 towards a richer understanding of just how peculiar the microbiota is, and the many meaningful  
439 interactions that it embodies.

440

#### 441 **Acknowledgements**

442 We wish to acknowledge the support of organizers and participants of the 2017 RCN-IDEAS arbovirus  
443 workshop held in New Orleans. SY acknowledges funding support from NSF Postdoctoral Fellowship  
444 award number 1612302. CBO acknowledges funding support from NSF RII Track-2 FEC award number  
445 1736253. The authors would like to thank Victor Meszaros and Miles Miller-Dickson for their input on  
446 the *in silico* data, figures and Walsh-Hadamard primer, and Daniel Weinreich for helpful discussion on  
447 topics relevant to this study. The authors would like to thank the Associate Editor of *Journal of Animal*  
448 *Ecology* and two anonymous reviewers for thoughtful feedback on the manuscript. Finally, the authors  
449 would like to thank Lawrence Uricchio for helpful feedback on the manuscript.

450

#### 451 **Data Availability**

452 The *in silico* data used in this study and code used to generate them can be found on github:

453 <https://github.com/OgPlexus/MicrobeTaxa1>

#### 454 **Supplemental Information**

455 The authors can find data, code and other information on: <https://github.com/OgPlexus/MicrobeTaxa1>.

456 This also includes a short mathematical primer on the Walsh-Hadamard Transform as applied to binary  
457 datasets (also available at <https://github.com/OgPlexus/MicrobeTaxa1>). For a more rigorous  
458 understanding, readers are encouraged to engage the works cited in this manuscript.

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466 **Literature cited**

- 467 Barabás, G., J. Michalska-Smith, M., & Allesina, S. (2016). The Effect of Intra- and Interspecific  
468 Competition on Coexistence in Multispecies Communities. *The American Naturalist*,  
469 188(1), E1–E12. <https://doi.org/10.1086/686901>
- 470 Battiston, F., Cencetti, G., Iacopini, I., Latora, V., Lucas, M., Patania, A., Young, J.-G., & Petri,  
471 G. (2020). Networks beyond pairwise interactions: Structure and dynamics. *Physics*  
472 *Reports*, 874, 1–92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physrep.2020.05.004>
- 473 Boots, Michael, & Begon, M. (1994). Resource limitation and the lethal and sublethal effects of a  
474 viral pathogen in the Indian meal moth, *Plodia interpunctella*. *Ecological Entomology*,  
475 19(4), 319–326. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2311.1994.tb00248.x>
- 476 Boots, Mike, Jokela, A. E. J., & Shaw, E. R. G. (2011). The Evolution of Resistance to a  
477 Parasite Is Determined by Resources. *The American Naturalist*, 178(2), 214–220.  
478 <https://doi.org/10.1086/660833>
- 479 Brugman, S., Ikeda-Ohtsubo, W., Braber, S., Folkerts, G., Pieterse, C. M. J., & Bakker, P. A. H.  
480 M. (2018). A Comparative Review on Microbiota Manipulation: Lessons From Fish,  
481 Plants, Livestock, and Human Research. *Frontiers in Nutrition*, 5.  
482 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnut.2018.00080>
- 483 Cagnolo, L., Salvo, A., & Valladares, G. (2011). Network topology: Patterns and mechanisms in  
484 plant-herbivore and host-parasitoid food webs. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 80(2), 342–  
485 351. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2656.2010.01778.x>
- 486 Chesson, P. (2000). Mechanisms of Maintenance of Species Diversity. *Annual Review of*  
487 *Ecology and Systematics*, 31(1), 343–366.  
488 <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.31.1.343>
- 489 Crona, K. (2020). Rank orders and signed interactions in evolutionary biology. *ELife*, 9, e51004.  
490 <https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.51004>
- 491 Domingo, J., Diss, G., & Lehner, B. (2018). Pairwise and higher-order genetic interactions

- 492 during the evolution of a tRNA. *Nature*, 558(7708), 117–121.  
493 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-018-0170-7>
- 494 Douglas, A. E. (2018). *Fundamentals of Microbiome Science: How Microbes Shape Animal*  
495 *Biology*. Princeton University Press.
- 496 Elsas, J. D. van, Chiurazzi, M., Mallon, C. A., Elhottová, D., Křišťůfek, V., & Salles, J. F. (2012).  
497 Microbial diversity determines the invasion of soil by a bacterial pathogen. *Proceedings*  
498 *of the National Academy of Sciences*, 109(4), 1159–1164.  
499 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1109326109>
- 500 Engel, P., & Moran, N. A. (2013). The gut microbiota of insects – diversity in structure and  
501 function. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews*, 37(5), 699–735. [https://doi.org/10.1111/1574-](https://doi.org/10.1111/1574-6976.12025)  
502 [6976.12025](https://doi.org/10.1111/1574-6976.12025)
- 503 Enke, T. N., Datta, M. S., Schwartzman, J., Cermak, N., Schmitz, D., Barrere, J., Pascual-  
504 García, A., & Cordero, O. X. (2019). Modular Assembly of Polysaccharide-Degrading  
505 Marine Microbial Communities. *Current Biology*.  
506 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2019.03.047>
- 507 Fast, D., Kostiuk, B., Foley, E., & Pukatzki, S. (2018). Commensal pathogen competition  
508 impacts host viability. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(27), 7099–  
509 7104. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1802165115>
- 510 Ferrari, J., & Vavre, F. (2011). Bacterial symbionts in insects or the story of communities  
511 affecting communities. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London.*  
512 *Series B, Biological Sciences*, 366(1569), 1389–1400.  
513 <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2010.0226>
- 514 Goldstein, R. E. (2018). Are theoretical results ‘Results’? *ELife*, 7, e40018.  
515 <https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.40018>
- 516 Gómez, P., Bennie, J., Gaston, K. J., & Buckling, A. (2015). The Impact of Resource Availability  
517 on Bacterial Resistance to Phages in Soil. *PLOS ONE*, 10(4), e0123752.

- 518 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0123752>
- 519 Gould, A. L., Zhang, V., Lamberti, L., Jones, E. W., Obadia, B., Korasidis, N., Gavryushkin, A.,  
520 Carlson, J. M., Beerenwinkel, N., & Ludington, W. B. (2018). Microbiome interactions  
521 shape host fitness. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, *115*(51),  
522 E11951–E11960. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1809349115>
- 523 Guerrero, R. F., Scarpino, S., Rodrigues, J. V., Hartl, D. L., & Ogbunugafor, C. B. (2018).  
524 Proteostasis environment shapes higher-order epistasis operating on antibiotic  
525 resistance. *BioRxiv*, 470971. <https://doi.org/10.1101/470971>
- 526 Guerrero, R. F., Scarpino, S. V., Rodrigues, J. V., Hartl, D. L., & Ogbunugafor, C. B. (2019).  
527 Proteostasis Environment Shapes Higher-Order Epistasis Operating on Antibiotic  
528 Resistance. *Genetics*, genetics.302138.2019.  
529 <https://doi.org/10.1534/genetics.119.302138>
- 530 Guittar, J., Shade, A., & Litchman, E. (2019). Trait-based community assembly and succession  
531 of the infant gut microbiome. *Nature Communications*, *10*(1), 512.  
532 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-08377-w>
- 533 Gurung, K., Wertheim, B., & Salles, J. F. (2019). The microbiome of pest insects: It is not just  
534 bacteria. *Entomologia Experimentalis et Applicata*, *167*(3), 156–170.  
535 <https://doi.org/10.1111/eea.12768>
- 536 Hooper, L. V., Littman, D. R., & Macpherson, A. J. (2012). Interactions Between the Microbiota  
537 and the Immune System. *Science*, *336*(6086), 1268–1273.  
538 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1223490>
- 539 Hutchinson, G. E. (1961). The Paradox of the Plankton. *The American Naturalist*, *95*(882), 137–  
540 145. <https://doi.org/10.1086/282171>
- 541 Kareiva, P. (1994). Special Feature: Higher Order Interactions as a Foil to Reductionist Ecology.  
542 *Ecology*, *75*(6). JSTOR. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1939613>
- 543 Knutie, S. A., Wilkinson, C. L., Kohl, K. D., & Rohr, J. R. (2017). Early-life disruption of

- 544 amphibian microbiota decreases later-life resistance to parasites. *Nature*  
545 *Communications*, 8(1), 86. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-00119-0>
- 546 Levine, J. M., Bascompte, J., Adler, P. B., & Allesina, S. (2017). Beyond pairwise mechanisms  
547 of species coexistence in complex communities. *Nature*, 546(7656), 56–64.  
548 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature22898>
- 549 Lopez-Pascua, L. d C., & Buckling, A. (2008). Increasing productivity accelerates host-parasite  
550 coevolution. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology*, 21(3), 853–860.  
551 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1420-9101.2008.01501.x>
- 552 Lu, N., Sanchez-Gorostiaga, A., Tikhonov, M., & Sanchez, A. (2018). Cohesiveness in microbial  
553 community coalescence. *BioRxiv*, 282723. <https://doi.org/10.1101/282723>
- 554 Ludington, W. B., & Ja, W. W. (2020). Drosophila as a model for the gut microbiome. *PLOS*  
555 *Pathogens*, 16(4), e1008398. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1008398>
- 556 Mackay, T. F., & Moore, J. H. (2014). Why epistasis is important for tackling complex human  
557 disease genetics. *Genome Medicine*, 6(6), 42. <https://doi.org/10.1186/gm561>
- 558 Macpherson, A. J., & Harris, N. L. (2004). Interactions between commensal intestinal bacteria  
559 and the immune system. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, 4(6), 478–485.  
560 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nri1373>
- 561 Mayfield, M. M., & Stouffer, D. B. (2017). Higher-order interactions capture unexplained  
562 complexity in diverse communities. *Nature Ecology & Evolution*, 1(3), 0062.  
563 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-016-0062>
- 564 McFall-Ngai, M., Hadfield, M. G., Bosch, T. C. G., Carey, H. V., Domazet-Lošo, T., Douglas, A.  
565 E., Dubilier, N., Eberl, G., Fukami, T., Gilbert, S. F., Hentschel, U., King, N., Kjelleberg,  
566 S., Knoll, A. H., Kremer, N., Mazmanian, S. K., Metcalf, J. L., Nealson, K., Pierce, N. E.,  
567 ... Wernegreen, J. J. (2013). Animals in a bacterial world, a new imperative for the life  
568 sciences. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 110(9), 3229–3236.  
569 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1218525110>

- 570 McKean, K. A., Yourth, C. P., Lazzaro, B. P., & Clark, A. G. (2008). The evolutionary costs of  
571 immunological maintenance and deployment. *BMC Evolutionary Biology*, 8(1), 76.  
572 <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2148-8-76>
- 573 McLean, A. H. C., Parker, B. J., Hrček, J., Henry, L. M., & Godfray, H. C. J. (2016). Insect  
574 symbionts in food webs. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological  
575 Sciences*, 371(1702), 20150325. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2015.0325>
- 576 Mereghetti, V., Chouaia, B., & Montagna, M. (2017). New insights into the microbiota of moth  
577 pests. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 18(11), 2450.
- 578 Meszaros, V. A., Miller-Dickson, M. D., & Ogbunugafor, C. B. (2019). Lexical landscapes as  
579 large in silico data for examining advanced properties of fitness landscapes. *PloS One*,  
580 14(8), e0220891.
- 581 Mickalide, H., & Kuehn, S. (2019). Higher-order interaction inhibits bacterial invasion of a  
582 phototroph-predator microbial community. *BioRxiv*, 564260.  
583 <https://doi.org/10.1101/564260>
- 584 Newell, P. D., & Douglas, A. E. (2014). Interspecies Interactions Determine the Impact of the  
585 Gut Microbiota on Nutrient Allocation in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Applied and  
586 Environmental Microbiology*, 80(2), 788–796. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.02742-13>
- 587 Otwinowski, J., McCandlish, D. M., & Plotkin, J. B. (2018). Inferring the shape of global  
588 epistasis. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(32), E7550–E7558.  
589 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1804015115>
- 590 Pais, I. S., Valente, R. S., Sporniak, M., & Teixeira, L. (2018). *Drosophila melanogaster*  
591 establishes a species-specific mutualistic interaction with stable gut-colonizing bacteria.  
592 *PLoS Biology*, 16(7). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2005710>
- 593 Poelwijk, F. J., Krishna, V., & Ranganathan, R. (2016). The Context-Dependence of Mutations:  
594 A Linkage of Formalisms. *PLOS Computational Biology*, 12(6), e1004771.  
595 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1004771>

- 596 Roberts, K., Meaden, S., Sharpe, S., Kay, S., Doyle, T., Wilson, D., Bartlett, L. J., Paterson, S.,  
597 & Boots, M. (2019). The genomic basis of evolved virus resistance is dependent on  
598 environmental resources. *BioRxiv*, 666404. <https://doi.org/10.1101/666404>
- 599 Round, J. L., & Mazmanian, S. K. (2009). The gut microbiota shapes intestinal immune  
600 responses during health and disease. *Nature Reviews Immunology*, 9(5), 313–323.  
601 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nri2515>
- 602 Sailer, Z. R., & Harms, M. J. (2017). Detecting High-Order Epistasis in Nonlinear Genotype-  
603 Phenotype Maps. *Genetics*, 205(3), 1079–1088.  
604 <https://doi.org/10.1534/genetics.116.195214>
- 605 Sanchez-Gorostiaga, A., Bajić, D., Osborne, M. L., Poyatos, J. F., & Sanchez, A. (2018). High-  
606 order interactions dominate the functional landscape of microbial consortia. *BioRxiv*,  
607 333534. <https://doi.org/10.1101/333534>
- 608 Skidmore, I. H., & Hansen, A. K. (2017). The evolutionary development of plant-feeding insects  
609 and their nutritional endosymbionts. *Insect Science*, 24(6), 910–928.  
610 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1744-7917.12463>
- 611 Sun, Q., Vega, N. M., Cervantes, B., Mancuso, C. P., Mao, N., Taylor, M., Collins, J. J., Khalil,  
612 A. S., & Gore, J. (n.d.). *Colonization with heterologous bacteria reprograms a*  
613 *Caenorhabditis elegans nutritional phenotype*. 11.
- 614 Tekin, E., Savage, V. M., & Yeh, P. J. (2017). Measuring higher-order drug interactions: A  
615 review of recent approaches. *Current Opinion in Systems Biology*, 4, 16–23.  
616 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coisb.2017.05.015>
- 617 Vandermeer, J. H. (1969). The Competitive Structure of Communities: An Experimental  
618 Approach with Protozoa. *Ecology*, 50(3), 362–371. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1933884>
- 619 Wei, Z., Yang, T., Friman, V.-P., Xu, Y., Shen, Q., & Jousset, A. (2015). Trophic network  
620 architecture of root-associated bacterial communities determines pathogen invasion and  
621 plant health. *Nature Communications*, 6(1), 8413. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms9413>



- 622 Weinreich, D. M., Lan, Y., Jaffe, J., & Heckendorn, R. B. (2018a). The Influence of Higher-Order  
623 Epistasis on Biological Fitness Landscape Topography. *Journal of Statistical Physics*,  
624 172(1), 208–225. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10955-018-1975-3>
- 625 Weinreich, D. M., Lan, Y., Jaffe, J., & Heckendorn, R. B. (2018b). The Influence of Higher-Order  
626 Epistasis on Biological Fitness Landscape Topography. *Journal of Statistical Physics*,  
627 172(1), 208–225. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10955-018-1975-3>
- 628 Weinreich, D. M., Lan, Y., Wylie, C. S., & Heckendorn, R. B. (2013). Should evolutionary  
629 geneticists worry about higher-order epistasis? *Current Opinion in Genetics &*  
630 *Development*, 23(6), 700–707. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gde.2013.10.007>
- 631 Wood, K., Nishida, S., Sontag, E. D., & Cluzel, P. (2012). Mechanism-independent method for  
632 predicting response to multidrug combinations in bacteria. *Proceedings of the National*  
633 *Academy of Sciences*, 109(30), 12254–12259. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1201281109>