Understanding How Microbiomes Influence The Systems They Inhabit: moving from a correlative to a causal research framework

Authors: Hall, E.K.^{1*}, Bernhardt, E.S², Bier, R.L.², Bradford, M.A.³, Boot, C.M.¹, Cotner, J.B.⁴, del Giorgio, P.A.⁵, Evans, S.E.⁶, Graham E. B^{2,7.8}, Jones, S.E.⁹, Lennon, J.T.¹⁰, Locey, K.J.¹⁰ Nemergut, D.², Osborne, B.B.¹¹, Rocca, J.D.^{1,2}, Schimel J.S.¹², Waldrop, M.P.¹³, Wallenstein, M.W.¹

Article Type: Perspectives Words in Abstract: 271 Words in Main Text: 5,167 2 Figures, 0 Tables, 53 References

Running Title: How microbiomes influence ecosystems Keywords: microbiome, microbial ecology, ecosystem ecology, emergent properties, community aggregated traits

Affiliations: ¹Colorado State University, Fort Collins CO (ed.hall@colostate.edu, claudia.boot@colostate.edu, matt.wallenstein@colostate.edu) ²Duke University, Durham, N.C. (ebernhar@duke.edu, ebgraham2@colorado.edu, jennifer.rocca@duke.edu) ³Yale University, New Haven, CT, Dept. of Forestry and Environmental Studies (mark.bradford@yale.edu), ⁴University of Minnesota, Saint Paul, MN (cotne002@umn.edu) ⁵Université du Québec à Montréal, Montréal, CA (del_giorgio.paul@uqam.ca) ⁶Michigan State University, Hickory Corners, MI (evanssar@gmail.com) ⁷Institute of Arctic and Alpine Research, University of Colorado at Boulder ⁸Pacific Northwest National Laboratory, Richland, WA, USA ⁹Notre Dame University, South Bend, IN (sjones20@nd.edu) ¹⁰Indiana University, Bloomington, IN (lennonj@indiana.edu, ken@weecology.org) ¹¹Brown University, Providence, RI (brooke_osborne@brown.edu) ¹²University of California, Santa Barbara, Santa Barbara, CA (mwaldrop@usgs.gov) Biological Sciences Division,

* **Corresponding Author**: Dr. Ed Hall, Department of Ecosystem Science and Sustainability, Natural Resource Ecology Laboratory Campus Delivery 1499, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO 80523, ed.hall@colostate.edu, 970-491-2162

Contribution: All listed authors have contributed to the conceptualization, writing, and preparation of the current manuscript.

1 Abstract

2 Translating the ever-increasing wealth of information on microbiomes (environment, 3 host, or built environment) to advance the understanding of system-level processes is proving to be an exceptional research challenge. One reason for this challenge is 4 5 that relationships between characteristics of microbiomes and the system-level 6 processes they influence are often evaluated in the absence of a robust conceptual 7 framework and reported without elucidating the underlying causal mechanisms. The 8 reliance on correlative approaches limits the potential to expand the inference of a 9 single relationship to additional systems and advance the field. In this perspective 10 piece we propose that research focused on how microbiomes influence the systems 11 they inhabit should work within a common framework and target known microbial 12 processes that contribute to the system-level process of interest. Here we identify 13 three distinct categories of microbiome characteristics (microbial processes, 14 microbial community properties, and microbial membership) and propose a 15 framework to empirically link each of these categories to each other and the broader system level processes they affect. We posit that it is particularly important to 16 17 distinguish microbial community properties that can be predicted from constituent 18 taxa (community aggregated traits, CATs) from those properties that are currently 19 unable to be predicted from constituent taxa (emergent properties, EPs). We discuss 20 how a series of existing methods in microbial ecology can be applied to more 21 explicitly elucidate properties within each of these categories and connect these 22 three categories of microbial characteristics with each other. We view this proposed 23 framework, gleaned from a breadth of research on environmental microbiomes and 24 ecosystem processes, as a promising pathway with the potential to advance 25 microbiome science across a broad range of disciplines.

26

27

Current Approaches Linking Microbial Characteristics and Ecosystem Processes

28 In all ecosystems, virtually all processes are influenced by microorganisms and 29 many processes are carried out primarily/exclusively by microorganisms. This has 30 sometimes led to the assumption that a better description of the microbiome 31 (including its associated transcripts, proteins, and metabolic products) should lead to 32 a better understanding and predictions of system level processes. However, such justifications assume that measureable characteristics of the microbiome (e.g. 16S 33 34 rRNA gene libraries, metagenomes, enzymatic activities) can inform our ability to 35 better understand and predict system-level processes. Unfortunately, additional information about the microbiome does not always provide a clearer understanding 36 37 of ecosystem processes beyond what can be predicted by environmental factors alone^{1,2}. 38

Two recent meta-analyses^{3,4} suggest that research at the intersection of 39 40 ecosystem science and microbial ecology often rely on assumed correlations 41 between microbiome characteristics and ecosystem processes and less frequently 42 test to see if those correlations are present. The first, an examination of 415 studies, found little evidence that protein-encoding genes (sometimes referred to as 43 44 "functional genes") or gene transcripts correlate with associated biogeochemical processes³. Although all studies attempted (or presumed) to link microbial genes or 45 46 transcripts with function, only 14% measured both the copy number of genes or 47 transcripts and the corresponding process (n = 59 studies, comprising 224 individual 48 effects as most studies had measured multiple gene-function relationships). Of the 224 effects where both characteristics were measured, only 38% exhibited a positive 49 50 relationship between molecular and process measurements that many assume to

51 exist. The effect size for the relationship between gene copy number and process rate had an approximately normal distribution with a mean near zero³. This result 52 53 was consistent whether functional gene or transcript abundance was used as the 54 response variable. The second study, compiled a separate dataset of 148 studies 55 that examined microbial membership and ecosystem processes in response to experimental manipulations⁴. Whereas 40% of included studies reported 56 57 concomitant changes in microbial membership and an ecosystem process, only one 58 third of those cases reported the relationship between microbial membership and an 59 ecosystem process. Interestingly, of the 53 studies that posed a hypothesis or 60 objective about links between microbial membership and ecosystem processes, 61 more than half (53%) did not test for a statistical structure-function link⁴. Microbiomes are the engines that power system-level processes⁵. However the 62 63 meta-analyses described above illustrate that the current approach to study the links 64 between microbiome characteristics and ecosystem processes are not well 65 formulated and relationships between microbiome characteristics and system level processes are rarely tested. When linkages are explicitly tested, significant 66 67 correlations between microbiome characteristics and ecosystem processes are sometimes present, but more frequently not present ^{3,4}. One reason for the ambiguity 68 69 between microbiome characteristics and system level processes is that many studies 70 are conducted in the absence of a conceptual framework that illustrates how different 71 measurable microbial characteristics relate to one another and to the system level 72 process of interest.

Microbial characteristics can range in resolution from cellular abundance to the
entire genetic potential of a species-rich community (i.e., a metagenome). Because
all measureable microbial characteristics do not exist within the same plane of detail,

76 a conceptual structure is required to clarify how various microbial characteristics are 77 related to each other and to the processes they affect. Identifying correlations between a microbial characteristic and an ecosystem process in the absence a 78 79 broader conceptual underpinning creates the potential for correlations to be 80 mediated by a third (or more) unaccounted variable(s). The absence of an underlying 81 mechanism also limits the potential for each result to be applied to additional 82 systems or to expand to broader spatial and temporal scales, for additional testing, replication, and confirmation. 83

84 Challenges in Linking Microbial Characteristics and Ecosystem Processes

85 A key challenge in linking microbial information to a system-level process is that conceptual research frameworks often do not effectively align with the methods 86 87 being applied or the data those methods generate. For example, environmental 88 factors act on the physiology of individual organisms, which alters their competitive ability, abundance, collective physiology, and ultimately their contribution to an 89 90 ecosystem process. However, designing an observational study or experiment from 91 this framework assumes that environmental and microbial characteristics are 92 measurable across multiple categories of ecological organization (i.e., individuals, 93 populations, and communities) at the temporal and spatial scales at which they 94 influence microorganisms (Figure 1a). In addition, the relationships between 95 environmental variables and microbial characteristics can be decoupled in both time and space⁴, and are often non-linear⁶. Recent immigration, phenotypic plasticity, 96 97 disequilibrium between the environment and the extant microbiome at the time of 98 sampling, functional redundancy, and dormancy can all mask the relationship 99 between measurable microbial characteristics and the processes microorganisms influence (Figure 1b). ^{4,7,8,9} As micrometer scale characteristics of microbiomes (10⁻⁶ 100

101 m) are scaled to the level of ecosystems (m to km), we assume that our conceptual 102 understanding is also scalable. However, each of the aforementioned confounding factors aggregate over multiple orders of magnitude often masking the very 103 104 relationships we seek to elucidate (Figure 1b). To formalize how measureable 105 microbiome characteristics are linked with system-level processes we have conceptually defined the intersection of microbial and ecosystem ecology and 106 107 identified three categories of microbial characteristics that illustrate the relationship 108 among each category of microbial characteristics and how they may contribute to an 109 ecosystem process (Figure 2).

110 Mapping Ecosystem Processes to Microbial Characteristics

111 Ecosystem processes are defined as a qualitative change in a pool or a flux from 112 one pool to another (e.g. NH_4^+ to NO_3^- or dissolved organic matter to CO_2). The first 113 step to understand how the microbiome influences an ecosystem process, is to 114 define the ecosystem process of interest and each sub-process that contributes to it 115 (i.e., the set of constituent reactions that combine to determine net flux). Few, if any 116 ecosystem processes involve a single metabolic pathway, or are carried out by a 117 single organism (e.g., a notable exception being the recent discovery of commamox which can independently carry out nitrification, the conversion of NH_4^+ to NO_3^-)^{10,11}. 118 119 Rather, ecosystem processes are composites of complementary or antagonistic sub-120 processes, carried out by phylogenetically and metabolically diverse 121 microorganisms¹². For example, net ecosystem productivity (NEP) is the balance 122 between antagonistic processes of C-fixation and C-mineralization. Each sub-123 process of NEP can be further partitioned into a series of metabolic pathways (e.g., chemoautotrophic nitrification and photoautotrophic C-fixation or heterotrophic 124 125 fermentation and aerobic respiration). Partitioning each ecosystem process in this

126 hierarchical manner can continue until the sub-processes maps directly to specific microbial metabolic pathways (e.g., acetoclastic methanogenesis). Subsequently 127 each of these metabolic pathways can be categorized as either phylogenetically 128 broad or narrow¹³. Broad processes are phylogenetically common (i.e., widely 129 130 distributed among taxa), whereas narrow processes are phylogenetically conserved 131 (i.e., limited to a specific subset of taxa). For example, denitrification and 132 photosynthesis are phylogenetically broad processes, while both methanogenesis 133 and methanotrophy are phylogenetically narrow processes (with at least one notable exception¹⁴). 134

135 The second step is to identify, the controls or constraints on each constituent subprocess. For example, the kinetics of a single metabolic pathway in a model 136 137 organism may help us understand the rate limiting steps of a narrow process, but 138 insights from model organisms are much less likely to capture the full spectrum of 139 responses of a broad process where phenotypic variation among phylogenetically diverse organisms is likely to be much greater^{15,16}. Defining the ecosystem process, 140 its critical sub-processes, and the known phylogenetic distribution of the metabolic 141 142 pathways that drive those sub-processes creates an explicit conceptual pathway that 143 links the ecosystem process to the microorganisms that contribute to it. Once the 144 ecosystem process has been conceptually partitioned into its component parts and 145 their primary controls, a concerted approach can be applied to investigate how 146 characteristics of the microbiome influence the ecosystem process of interest within 147 the complexity of a natural environment.

148 **Categories of Microbial Characteristics**

We propose that attempts to elucidate the microbial contribution to system-level
processes needs to explicitly identify three distinct categories of microbial

characteristics: 1) microbial processes, 2) microbial community properties, and 3) 151 152 microbial membership (Figure 2). The contribution of the microbiome to ecosystem 153 processes is exerted through aggregate community properties that are shaped by 154 both microbial membership and environmental factors. This proposed framework 155 allows the researcher to clearly identify how different measurements used to 156 characterize a microbiome interact with each other and identify the potential of each 157 characteristic to elucidate the microbial contribution to the system level process. 158 These categories are hierarchically connected (Fig. 2), but they represent distinct 159 degrees of aggregation that are not simply an additive function of the previous 160 category. Furthermore, each category is potentially subject to different modes of 161 regulation, and, each category has different putative linkages to system-level 162 processes (Fig. 2). All measureable characteristics of microbial communities (e.g., 163 abundance of cells, sequence of genes, transcripts, or proteins; enzyme expression 164 or activity) can be placed within one of the above categories, but most studies rarely 165 articulate how these measurements differ in their specificity (i.e., the level of 166 phylogenetic resolution at which they are applied), precision (i.e., the ability of the 167 method to repeatedly describe the characteristic of interest), or context (i.e., how a characteristic relates to other characteristics or the ecosystem within which they 168 169 were measured). This conceptual structure that orientates each microbial category 170 within a broader context creates the opportunity to improve the design of 171 observational and experimental studies in micobiome research. 172 *Microbial Processes* - Microbial processes are the collective metabolism of the 173 microbiome that contribute to changes in pools and fluxes of elements or compounds (i.e., Figure 2, Letter K). This is the level of microbial information that can most 174 175 readily be incorporated into system-level models because many microbial processes

176 represent the key sub-processes that contribute to a particular ecosystem process 177 (e.g., methanogenesis + methanotrophy ≈ methane efflux). Commonly measured 178 microbial processes in ecosystem science include nitrogen fixation, denitrification, 179 nitrification, phosphorus uptake and immobilization, carbon fixation, and organic 180 carbon mineralization. The rates of many microbial processes can be approximated 181 through physiological assays (e.g., biological oxygen demand to estimate microbial 182 community respiration), and while they do not open the "black box" of the microbial 183 community, they do directly quantify the microbial contribution (or at least the 184 potential contribution) to changes in resources moving through the box. Microbial 185 processes can be distinguished from other microbial characteristics because they are all rates (i.e., have time in the denominator) and require a bioassay to estimate. 186 187 Assays used to estimate microbial processes are often logistically challenging, 188 require manipulations that inevitably deviate from the *in situ* conditions, and often 189 depend on the environment from which the microbiome was sampled. For example, 190 the relationship between temperature and microbial processes such as enzyme activity and phosphorus use efficiency (PUE) vary across latitudinal gradients¹⁷ and 191 among seasons¹⁸. Thus, observations of the effect of temperature on either enzyme 192 193 activity or PUE depend on where (e.g., at what latitude) and when (e.g., during which 194 season) they were measured. In the absence of an understanding of the underlying 195 physiological mechanism (e.g., the physiological change that allows a community to 196 perform differently at different temperatures), the relationship between and 197 environmental driver (e.g., temperature) and a microbial process must be measured 198 through a direct assay at each location and at each time. This limits the inference 199 possible from relying only on measurements of microbial processes alone.

Microbial Community Properties - Microbial community properties include a broad 200 201 set of microbial characteristics such as community biomass or biomass elemental ratios (e.g., biomass C:N or C:P ratios) and the majority of phylogenetically 202 203 undifferentiated aggregate sequence based measurements (e.g., gene abundance, 204 metagenomes, transcriptomes). Microbial community properties (Figure 2) represent 205 an integrated characteristic of the microbiome that has the potential to predict or at 206 least constrain the estimates of microbial processes. For example, microbial 207 community biomass C:N (a community property) indicates a microbiome's potential to mineralize or immobilize N.¹⁹ Community biomass stoichiometry has been shown 208 209 to be a useful predictor of nutrient immobilization or mineralization during litter decomposition¹⁹, and in soils can predict both respiration and N-mineralization better 210 than microbial biomass alone²⁰. The power of biomass elemental ratios to explain 211 nutrient cycling has also been shown in freshwater²¹ and marine ecosystems²² 212 213 including the seminal paper that demonstrated the similarities between the 214 stoichiometry of marine algal biomass and that of the dissolved fraction of nutrients in the ocean²³. 215

216 Microbial community properties can be separated into two categories, emergent 217 properties (EPs) and community aggregated traits (CATs). Emergent properties have 218 been used to refer to a variety of phenomena in ecology, however here we use emergent properties as it has been defined by Salt (1979)²⁴: "An emergent property 219 220 of an ecological unit is one which is wholly unpredictable from observation of the components of that unit", which is consistent with its contemporary use in microbial 221 ecology.²⁵ For example, the potential importance of emergent properties to influence 222 ecosystem processes has been demonstrated in a series of experimental flow-223 through flumes that mimicked development and metabolism of stream biofilms²⁶. 224

225 Transient storage (i.e., an increase in residence time of the water and its solutes 226 near the biofilm relative to the flow around it) increased as the microbial biofilm density increased²⁶. Microbial biofilm formation is an EP²⁷ that affects the important 227 ecosystem process of hydrological transient storage²⁶. Another example of an 228 emergent property is the relative abundance of a certain traits within a microbiome. 229 230 Trait based approaches have a rich history in ecology and have been increasingly applied to address guestions in multiple areas of microbial ecology.²⁸ For example, 231 232 specific functions (i.e. uptake of an individual organic substrate) are associated with 233 traits which can involve multiple genes, among different taxa, all capable of performing the function albeit with differences in the underlying physiology 234 235 and efficiency. The distribution and expression of these functional gene variants 236 generates a trait structure among microbiomes, which determines the overall 237 performance of the microbiome for that given function (i.e. uptake of a given organic 238 substrate), but which cannot be predicted simply from the presence of the taxa that carry the genes conferring that trait.²⁹ While characterization of EPs may improve the 239 understanding of microbial processes (Figure 2, Letter G) they cannot, in principle, 240 241 be estimated or predicted on the basis of the constituent taxa (i.e. membership) 242 alone (Figure 2, Letter F), and thus must remain as an intermediary between environmental drivers (Figure 2, Letter C) and microbial processes (Figure 2, Letter 243 244 G).

Unlike EPs, CATs can potentially be estimated from characteristics of their constituents and provide a pathway to link microbial community membership to the community properties that drive microbial processes (Figure 2, Letter E)³⁰. For example, CATs may include commonly measured community properties such as functional gene abundance as estimated from qPCR (e.g., pmoA which encodes a

250 subunit of the enzyme involved in methane oxidation, can be used to estimate potential for methanotrophy and as a phylogenetic marker for methanotrophs)³¹. A 251 recent perspective article discussed the role of CATs in microbial ecology and noted 252 253 a series of additional CATs (e.g., maximum growth rate, dormancy, osmoregulation) that could be inferred from metagenomic data of the extant community³⁰. 254 255 Understanding when, and which, community properties that shape microbial 256 processes can be predicted by membership is a critical research question, and an 257 important step in understanding how the microbiome contributes to system level 258 processes. Whether or not a community property is an EP or a CAT is an exciting 259 area of research and provides an important framework to advance research at the 260 microbial-ecosystem nexus. New approaches, like studying higher-level interactions 261 in ecological communities could help understand how a microbiome's constituents interact to from emergent properties.³² This is not a trivial task, yet a suite of existing 262 263 methods, discussed below, already provides the ability to directly pursue this 264 challenge.

265 Microbial Community Membership - Although the now commonplace analysis of 266 community membership by sequencing phylogenetic marker genes (e.g., regions of the 16S, 18S, or ITS genes) or suites of phylogenetically conserved protein 267 sequences identifies constituent microbial taxa, the direct coupling of microbial 268 phylogeny to physiology and ecology remains elusive (Figure 2, Letter H).^{33,34,35} In 269 270 general the paucity of associated physiological data or information on population phenotypes that accompany phylogenetic sequence data limits the system-level 271 272 inference that is possible from analyses of community membership. This constrains our ability to attribute microbial processes to community membership of even 273 274 relatively simple environmental consortia. Whereas it is clear that microbial

populations are not randomly distributed in space and time³⁵, and that some
microbial traits are conserved at coarse taxonomic scales ^{28,36,37}, the physiological
mechanisms underlying non-random distributions of microbial taxa across
environmental gradients is often unknown. The limited understanding of the
metabolism of most bacterial phyla limits an explicit understanding between the
organism's abundance and its role in the microbial process that contributes to an
ecosystem process.

282 A Path Forward

283 We suggest that a challenging but necessary step for microbiome science is to 284 move away from identifying correlative relationships between characteristics of the 285 microbiome and system level processes, and towards identifying more causative and 286 mechanistic relationships. The conceptual diagram (Figure 2) is a road map to 287 organize and link the diverse suite of measureable microbial characteristics that are 288 currently available to researchers. Figure 2 does not represent how these 289 components necessarily interact in the environment; rather it is a map that identifies 290 potential links between measureable microbial and system-level characteristics that 291 can help structure our exploration of how microorganisms influence the systems they 292 inhabit. Ecosystem ecology has traditionally been confined to interactions between 293 environmental parameters and ecosystem processes (depicted within the horizontal 294 arrow, Figure 2). Similarly, microbial ecology (depicted within the vertical arrow, 295 Figure 2) has historically focused on phylogenetically undefined aspects of microbial 296 communities (e.g., bacterial abundance) and microbial processes (e.g., bacterial 297 production) or on the physiology of microbial isolates (e.g., sulfate reducing bacteria) or the collective physiology of highly reduced communities with known membership 298 299 (e.g., waste water treatment microbiome). The routine inclusion of sequence-based

300 approaches in studies of environmental microorganisms has lead to an increasingly 301 detailed description of the world's microbiomes and an increasing interest in how 302 constituents of those communities interact to influence the system as a whole. 303 The drive to include microbial characteristics into system-level science has led to a 304 range of approaches for linking characteristics of the microbiome to ecosystem 305 processes. Direct connections between microbial membership and ecosystem 306 processes (Figure 2, Letter I), or community properties and ecosystem processes (Figure 2, Letter J), have proven consistently difficult to establish^{3,4}. We propose 1) 307 308 identifying which microbial processes are likely to contribute to ecosystem-level 309 pools and fluxes a priori (Figure 2, Letter K), 2) determining which microbial 310 community properties best describe and predict these microbial processes (Figure 2, 311 Letter G), and 3) identifying whether the community properties that best describe 312 each process are a CAT or an EP (Community Properties, Figure 2). If the 313 community property is a CAT then exploring the link between microbial membership 314 and community properties may lead to further understanding and perhaps an 315 enhanced predictive power (Figure 2, Letter E). However, if the community property 316 is an EP elucidating the microbial membership that contributes to the EP is unlikely to improve understanding of the drivers of that community property (Figure 2, Letter 317 318 F) and understanding how environmental drivers structure the EP will be more 319 insightful. Formalizing microbiome research into a structured, conceptual framework 320 will allow the research community to better focus on potential links between 321 microbiome characteristics and system-level processes that are most likely to be 322 detected empirically. This approach will also allow researchers working in different 323 systems to test the same pathways among defined microbiome characteristics and 324 thus increase the possibility of understanding the casual mechanism (or absence of

325 causality) for observed correlations. Equally as important, we suggest that 326 attempting to link community membership (Figure 2, Letter I) or community 327 properties (Figure 2, Letter J) directly to ecosystem processes is by definition 328 correlative and therefore a less powerful approach to integrating microbiome 329 characteristics into system-level science. Thus future research endeavors will be 330 most powerful if they focus on elucidating connections through the complete path of 331 microbial ecology (Figure 2, blue arrow, Letters E, F, and G) and not direct 332 connections between microbial membership or community properties and ecosystem 333 processes (Figure 2, Letter I and J).

334 Applying and Testing the Proposed Framework

335 Applying and testing the proposed framework will depend on the ability to more 336 robustly evaluate each category of microbial characteristics and to directly measure 337 the arrows that connect each category (Figure 2). Both labeling/sorting approaches 338 and phenotypic description of isolates provide an opportunity to better understand 339 how microbial membership contributes to community properties (Figure 2, Letter E or F). Labeling and cell sorting approaches (e.g., fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) 340 coupled with flow cytometry cell sorting³⁸, or immunocapture such as with 341 bromodeosyuridine, BrdU)³⁹ provide powerful tools to constrain the complexity of the 342 343 microbiome and directly test hypotheses that link membership to community 344 properties or microbial processes. Labeling and sorting techniques allow the cells 345 that can be targeted with a stain or other label to be separated from the broader 346 community and then assayed for membership or phenotypes such as activity or 347 biomass composition. For example, a study of an Arctic Ocean bacterial community labeled the actively growing component of the community using BrdU and then 348 349 separated those populations from the rest of the community using an immunocapture

technique to better understand the portion of the microbiome that was driving
community dynamics³⁹. By simplifying the community, researchers were able to link
membership to secondary production (a microbial process, Figure 2, Letter H) and
begin to better understand which members of the community were contributing to
secondary production.

355 In addition, physiological studies of isolates from a broader distribution of 356 representative phyla are key to advancing our understanding of how membership 357 contributes to community properties (Figure 2, Letter E). Finding isolates that are 358 representative of important community properties has the potential to better 359 understand phenotypic plasticity and how constituent populations do (CATs) or do not (EPs) contribute to a community property¹⁵. For example, work on the marine 360 bacterioplankton SAR11 has led to an increased understanding of how this 361 362 ubiguitous member of the marine microbiome interacts with elemental cycles in the open ocean⁴⁰. Similarly, a rich body of work on multiple isolates of the comparably 363 364 ubiguitous photoautotroph Prochlorococcus has advanced our understanding of the ecology and physiology of one of the most abundant phototrophs on the planet⁴¹. 365 366 Detailed studies of isolates of common environmental OTUs have clearly demonstrated immense variation within a given OTU (i.e., "microdiversity") that in 367 part explains the challenge of linking membership to a community property¹⁶. For 368 369 example, work on Prochlorococcus has led to a better understanding of how 370 ecotypes within a single taxonomic unit (OTU) can lead to specialization in temperature and substrate affinity⁴¹. OTUs that form a substantial portion of the 371 372 microbiome's sequence abundance provide potential candidates for further investigation of possible phenotypic plasticity and or microdiversity¹⁶. For example, a 373 374 single phylotype of the class Spartobacteria within the phyla Verrucomicrobia was

found to be present in a broad range of soil ecosystems and comprised as much as 375 31% of all 16S sequences returned from prairie soils⁴², making it an excellent 376 candidate for targeted isolation and physiological studies. Whereas it is challenging 377 378 to isolate and culture many microorganisms from the environment, existing 379 approaches to isolation have been led to successful isolation of both abundant and 380 rare members of environmental microbiomes. A recent study isolated members of an 381 apple orchard soil microbiome where most isolates were from the least abundant members of the community⁴³. Previous studies have had success isolating members 382 383 of the pelagic marine microbiome by using filter-sterilized seawater with a dilution to extinction approach⁴⁴. Thus there is a potential to target both abundant^{40,41} and rare⁴³ 384 385 members of diverse microbiomes to learn more about their influence on community 386 level properties. Studies of environmental isolates are essential in building a broader 387 understanding of how community membership does or does not contribute to 388 community properties (H2, Letter E and F).

389 The most commonly measured microbial characteristics can be associated with one of the three categories of microbial characteristics defined here. However, the 390 391 key to moving from a correlative and descriptive approach to a causative and 392 mechanistic approach comes in measuring the arrows represented by letters in 393 Figure 2. There is a suite of powerful methods already being employed in microbial 394 ecology that can actively measure many of the arrows illustrated in Figure 2. These include: stable isotope probing of mixed communities⁴⁵, single cell methods that can 395 assay cells in the physiological state they occur in in the environment⁴⁶, and labeling 396 individual cells with stable isotopes for single cell analyses⁴⁶. Studies that use stable 397 isotope probing or any form of tracking stable isotopes into a population have been 398 399 successful in linking microbial membership to microbial processes (Figure 2, Letter

H). For example, a study of sulfate reduction in a Scottish peatland using SIP 400 401 revealed that a single species of Desulfosporosinus was most likely responsible for the totality of sulfate reduction within the peatland even though it only comprised 402 0.006% of the retrieved 16S rRNA gene sequences⁴⁷. In this case, the 403 404 Desulfosporosinus species represented the only known sulfate reducer within the 405 community and thus the kinetics of this organism seemingly defined the kinetics of 406 sulfate reduction for the entire system. Whereas this is a single example of using SIP 407 to link microbial membership to microbial processes (Figure 2, Letter H), there is a 408 suite of culture-free techniques (such as Raman microspectroscopy (MS), 409 NanoSIMS, or X-ray microanalysis, XRMA) that complement sequence-based 410 microbiome analyses by reporting on the physiological and phenotypic characteristics of individual cells *in situ*^{46,48,49}. For example, Raman MS has the 411 412 ability to elucidate the macromolecular composition of uncultured individual cells in *situ*⁴⁶. Incorporation of stable isotopes into a cell's macromolecules can be visualized 413 414 as a shift in the Raman spectra. This provides information not only on which cells are 415 incorporating the substrate but what macromolecular pool those substrates are being 416 allocated to. Similarly, NanoSims allows for visualization of isotopes within a cell, 417 and while it cannot be used to identify which macromolecule pool an isotopic label 418 went into, it can visualize which cells are actively incorporating isotopically labeled 419 substrates. Both Raman and NanoSims can be coupled with a range of in situ 420 hybridization techniques (e.g., fluorescent in situ hybridization, FISH) to identify 421 which populations are contributing to community properties (Figure 2, Letter E) or 422 microbial processes (Figure 2, Letter H). For example, the study of a microbial 423 consortia from the Sippewissett Salt Marsh on the coast of Massachusetts, USA 424 used a combination of FISH and NanoSIMs to confirm a syntrophic association

425 between a population of autotrophic purple sulfur bacteria and heterotrophic sulfate reducing bacteria (SRB)⁵⁰. Whereas several pieces of evidence pointed to a 426 syntrophic association, the authors confirmed the association by first using FISH to 427 428 visualize the physical association of each population. Further analysis with NanoSIMS after incubation with ³⁴S enriched sulfate and ¹⁴C enriched bicarbonate 429 430 confirmed the presence of carbon fixation by the purple photosynthetic bacteria with 431 sulfide as the electron donor was coupled to the reduction of sulfate by the SRB. 432 Using existing methods of confirmatory ecophysiology allows for direct 433 measurements of the arrows connecting membership with microbial processes in a 434 stable microbial consortia (in this case both carbon fixation and sulfate reduction, 435 Figure 2, Letter H). These approaches applied in concert with sequence-based 436 analyses have the potential to empirically link the categories of microbial information 437 defined here (Figure 2), moving microbiome science from a descriptive and 438 correlative approach to a mechanistic and causative approach. 439 These culture free approaches also create the potential to begin to determine which community properties are EPs, and which are CATs. For example, microbial 440 441 community biomass stoichiometry (e.g., biomass C:N or C:P) cannot currently be predicted (or even constrained) from a list of it's constituent taxa (Figure 2, Letter F). 442 However, microbial biomass stoichiometry is a community property with power to 443 predict the microbial contribution to nutrient cycling (Figure 2, Letter G).¹⁹⁻²² 444 Independently, the biomass stoichiometry of microbial isolates grown on the same 445 media has been shown to differ among different taxa suggesting a relationship 446 between an organisms' identity and the elemental composition of its biomass. ^{51,52} 447 However, there is an abundance of evidence that suggests that the biomass 448 449 stoichiometry of many isolates is a function of the stoichiometry of the media they

were cultured on⁵². Electron dispersal spectroscopy (EDS) has the power to 450 measure the C:N:P of individual bacterial cells growing *in situ* (i.e. not in culture)⁴⁹. 451 The potential to couple EDS analysis with a phylogenetic label presents the 452 453 opportunity to assay mixed microbial communities and assess the link between phylogenetic identity and biomass stoichiometry under natural conditions⁵³. Thus, 454 455 community biomass stoichiometry can potentially be deconstructed into the biomass stoichiometry of its constituent taxa⁵³. This approach would provide a direct link 456 457 between community membership and a community property (e.g., biomass C:N, 458 Figure 2, Letter E), that influences an important microbial process (i.e. nutrient 459 recycling).

460 **Designing microbiome research**

461 It is critical that we recognize the influence of the taxonomic and functional 462 composition of the microbiome is exerted through multiple pathways, some that are 463 direct and can be readily identified, some that are indirect, and mediated by complex 464 interactions at the community level. We must also recognize that the influence of microbiomes will vary depending on the system-level process in question, because 465 466 analysis of microbial characteristics may simply not improve the environmentallybased prediction of certain processes (Figure 2, Letter A), whereas other system-467 468 level processes may indeed benefit from the inclusion of microbial characteristics 469 including membership. For the latter, the challenge then is to determine which microbial category is the most relevant predictor of the system level process of 470 471 interest: microbial processes, community properties, or microbial membership. 472 Establishing the links between these microbial dimensions (Figure 2, Letters E, F, and G) further contributes to our understanding of the mechanistic underpinnings 473

that affect system level processes and thus will have greater explanatory power in abroader range of systems.

476 The framework presented here provides one approach to formalize inquiry across 477 microbiome science and encourages empirical linkages between the presence of organisms in a system and the processes that characterize that system. Whereas we 478 479 draw examples from environmental microbiomes and the ecosystems they inhabit, 480 this structured approach has the potential to benefit the analysis of microbiomes 481 associated with other systems such as host organisms and those of the built 482 environment. As important as establishing causal links among microbial 483 membership, community properties, microbial processes, and ecosystem processes, 484 is determining when these links are unlikely to be present. Research that indiscriminately seeks to identify correlations, which does not recognize the 485 486 hierarchy of effects, and that places all metrics on an equal plane are susceptible to 487 confirmation bias and will continue to yield conflicting and ambiguous results that not 488 only fail to provide new insight into ecosystem processes, but also blurs the 489 connections that do exist. We suggest that rather than looking for linkages among 490 microbiome membership and system-level processes in every study, research efforts 491 would benefit from strategically targeting the linkages and processes for which an a 492 priori understanding of microbial physiology should allow us to improve our 493 understanding of the ecosystem process.

494 Acknowledgements

- 495 This work is a product of the Next Generation of Ecosystem Indicators Working
- 496 Group, supported by the USGS John Wesley Powell Center for Synthesis and
- 497 Analysis. Preparation of this manuscript was supported by NSF DEB IOS #1456959
- 498 awarded to EKH. Chuck Pepe-Ranney and Ariane Peralta provided valuable
- 499 feedback on previous versions of this manuscript. This paper is dedicated to Diana
- 500 Nemergut, an integral part of our working group who passed away during the
- 501 preparation of this manuscript. She is one of a kind.

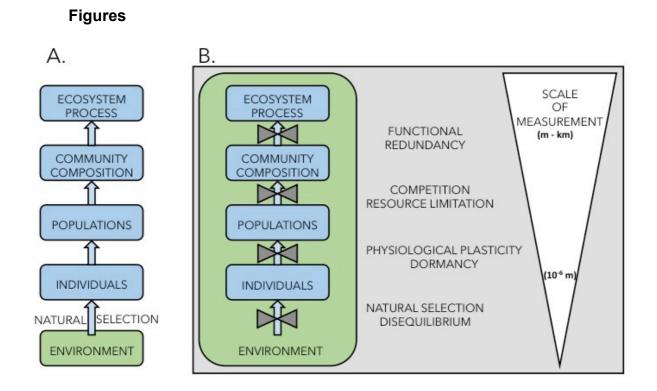


Figure 1 Diagram of microbial-ecosystem linkages A) how linkages are commonly conceptualized across levels of ecological organization and B) the series of ecological phenomena that create challenges when attempting to link metrics from one level of ecological organization to the other.

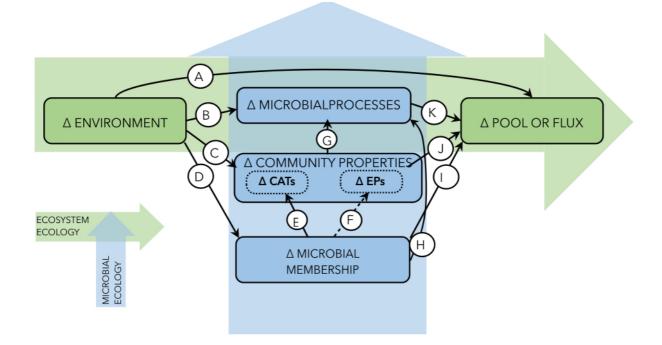


Figure 2 Shown is a conceptual map of the intersection between microbial (vertical) and ecosystem (horizontal) ecology with each of the three categories of microbial characteristics (microbial processes, community properties, and microbial membership) as defined in the text. We argue for an increased focus on studies that elucidate pathways E, F, and G. In addition, we note that pathways I and J are less likely to effectively incorporate microbiome characteristics into system-level science. The delta symbol in each category indicates an emphasis on how changes within a category may lead to a change in a connected category. The dotted arrow for letter F denotes that many emergent properties cannot currently be linked to membership and is an important area for active research.

References

- 1.Graham E. B., Wieder, W.R., Leff, J.R., Weintraub, S. W., Townsend, A.R., Cleveland, C.C., Philippot L., Nemergut D.R. (2014) Do we need to understand microbial communities to predict ecosystem function? A comparison of statistical models of nitrogen cycling processes Soil Biology and Biochemistry 68, 279–282
- 2.Graham E. B. et al. (2016) Microbes as engines of ecosystem function: when does community structure enhance predictions of ecosystem processes? Frontiers in Microbiology 7: 214 doi:10.3389/fmicb.2016.0021
- 3.Rocca J.D., Hall E.K., Lennon J.T., Evans S.E., Waldrop M.P., Cotner J.B., Nemergut D.R., Graham E.B., Wallenstein M.D. (2015) Relationships between protein-encoding gene abundance and corresponding process are commonly assumed yet rarely observed ISME J. 9: 1693–1699
- 4.Bier R.L., E.S. Bernhardt, CM Boot, EB Graham, EK Hall, JT Lennon, D Nemergut, B Osborne, C Ruiz-González, JP Schimel, MP Waldrop, MD. Wallenstein (2015) How are we forging conceptual, analytical, and mechanistic links between microbial community structure and ecosystem process? FEMS microbiology ecology FEMS microbiology ecology 91(10): fiv113
- 5. Falkowski, P.G., Fenchel, T., and DeLong, E.F. (2008) The microbial engines that drive earth's biogeochemical cycles Science 320: 1034-1038
- 6.Felip M., Pace M.L., Cole, J.J. (1996) Regulation of planktonic bacterial growth rates: The effects of temperature and resources. Microb. Ecol. 31(1): 15-28.
- 7. Lennon, J. T. and S. E. Jones (2011) Microbial seed banks: the ecological and evolutionary implications of dormancy. Nature Microbiology Reviews 9: 119-130.
- 8. Comte, J., Fauteux, L. and del Giorgio, P.A. (2013) Links between Metabolic Plasticity and Functional Redundancy in Freshwater Bacterioplankton Communities. Frontiers in Microbiology 4: 112. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2013.00112
- Adams, H. E., Crump, B.C. and Kling, G.W. (2014) Metacommunity Dynamics of Bacteria in an Arctic Lake: The Impact of Species Sorting and Mass Effects on Bacterial Production and Biogeography. Frontiers in Microbiology 5 (2014): 82. 10.3389/fmicb.2014.00082
- Daims, H., Lebedeva, E.V., Pjevac, P., Han, P., Herbold, C., Albertsen, M., Jehmlich, N., Palatinszky, M., Vierhellig, J., Bulaev, A., Kirkegaard, R. H., von Bergen M., Rattei, T., Bendinger, B., Nielsen, P.H., Wagner, M. (2015) Complete nitrification by Nitrospira bacteria Nature 528: 504-509 doi: 10.1038/nature16461
- 11. van Kessel, Jaartje A.H.J., Speth, D.R., Albertsen, M., Nielsen, P.H., Op den Camp, H.J.M., Kartal, B.,Jetten, M.S.M., Lueker, S. (2015) Complete nitrification by a single microorganism 528: 555-559 doi: 10.1038/nature16549
- Schimel, J.P., J. Bennett, and N. Fierer. (2005) Microbial community composition and soil N cycling: is there really a connection? In: Biological diversity and function in soils. Bardgett, R.D., D.W. Hopkins, and M.B. Usher (Eds.) Cambridge University Press. pp. 171-188
- Schimel, J.P. (1995) Ecosystem consequences of microbial diversity and community structure in Arctic and Alpine Biodiversity: Patterns, Causes and Ecosystem Consequences Ecological Studies Volume 113, pp 239-254
- Lenhart K., M. Bunge, S. Ratering, T. R. Neu, I. Schüttmann, M. Greule, C. Kammann, S. Schnell, C. Müller, H. Zorn & F. Keppler. (2012) Evidence for methane production by saprotrophic fungi Nature Comm. 3:1046

- Hagstroem, A., Azam, F., Berg, C., Zweifel U.L. (2017) Isolates as models to study bacterial ecophysiology and biogeochemistry Aquat. Microb. Ecol. 80:15-27
- Larkin, A.A, and Martiny, A. (2017) Microdiversity shapes the traits, niche space and biogeography of microbial taxa Environ. Microbiol. Rep. 9(2): 55-70 doi: 10.111/1758-2229
- 17. German D.P., Marcelo, K.R.B., Stone, M.M and Allison, S.D. (2012) The Michaelis-Menten kinetics of soil extracellular enzymes in response to temperature: a cross-latitudinal study Global Change Biology 18: 1468-1479
- 18. Hall, E. K., A. R. Dzialowski, S. M. Stoxen, and J. B. Cotner. (2009) The effect of temperature on the coupling between phosphorus and growth in lacustrine bacterioplankton communities. Limnol. and Oceanogr. 54: 880-889.
- 19.Manzoni, S., R. B. Jackson, J. A. Trofymow, and A. Porporato. (2008) The global stoichiometry of litter nitrogen mineralization. Science 321: 684-686.
- 20. Buchkowski, R.W., Schmitz, O.J., Bradford, M.A. (2015) Microbial stoichiometry overrides biomass as a regulator of soil carbon and nitrogen cycling. Ecology 96: 1139-1149.
- 21. Elser, J.J., Chrzanowski, T.H., Sterner, R.W., Schampel, J.H., Foster D.K. (1995) Elemental ratios and the uptake and release of nutrients by phytoplankton and bacteria in three lakes of the canadian shield Microbial Ecology 29: 145-162
- 22. Goldman, J.C., Caron, D.A., and Dennett, M.R. (1987) Regulation of gross growth efficiency and ammonium regeneration in bacteria by substrate C:N ratio Limnology and Oceanography 32 (6): 1239-1252
- 23. Redfield, A.C (1958) The biological control of chemical factors in the environment American Scientist 46 (3): 205-221
- 24.Salt, G.W. (1979) A comment on the use of the term emergent properties American Naturalist 113: 145-148
- 25. Konopka, A. (2009) What is microbial community ecology? ISME J., 3 (11): 1223-12230
- Battin, T., L. A. Kaplan, L. Newbold, X. Cheng, and C. Hansen. (2003) Effects of current velocity on the nascent architecture of stream microbial biofilms. Appl. and Env. Microbiol. 69: 5443-5452.
- Flemming, H-C., Wingender, J., Szewzyk, U., Steinberg, P., Rice, S.A., Kjelleberg, S. (2016) Biofilms: an emergent form of bacterial life Nature Reviews Microbiology 14: 563-575
- 28. Martiny JBH, Jones SE, Lennon JT, Martiny AC (2015) Microbiomes in light of traits: a phylogenetic perspective. Science 350: doi: 10.1126/science.aac9323
- 29. Ruiz-González, C., Niño-García, J. P., Lapierre, J. F., & del Giorgio, P. A. (2015) The quality of organic matter shapes the functional biogeography of bacterioplankton across boreal freshwater ecosystems. Global Ecology and Biogeography 24(12): 1487-1498.
- Fierer, N., A. Barberán, Laughlin, D. (2014) Seeing the forest for the genes: Using metagenomics to infer the aggregated traits of microbial communities. Frontiers in Microbiology 5: 614
- Judd, C.R., Koyama, A., Simmons, M.P., Brewer, P., and von Fischer, J.C. (2016) Co-variation in methanotroph community composition and activity in three temperate grassland soils Soil Biol. and Biochem. 95:78-86
- Grilli, J., Barabas G., Michalska-Smith, M.J., and Allesina, S. (2017) Higher-order interactions stabilize dynamics in competitive network models Nature. 2017 548: 210–213

- Newton, R. J, S. E. Jones, A. Eiler, K. D McMahon, Bertilsson, S. (2011) A guide to the natural history of freshwater lake bacteria. Microbiol. and Molec. Biol. Rev. 75:1, doi:10.1128/MMBR.00028
- Hug, L.A., Baker, B.J., Anantharaman, K., Brown, C.T., Probst, A.J., Castelle, C.J., Butterfield, C.N., Hernsdorf, A.W., Amano, Y., Ise, K., Suzuki, Y., Dudek, N., Relman, D.A., Finstad, K.M., Amundson, R., Thomas, B.C., Banfield, J.F. (2016) 1: 16048 doi: 10.1038/nmicrobiol.2016.48
- Martiny, J.B.H., B. Bohannan, J. Brown, R. Colwell, J. Fuhrman, J. Green, M.C. Horner-Devine, M. Kane, J. Krumins, C. Kuske, P. Morin, S. Naeem, L. Ovreas, A.-L. Reysenbach, V. Smith, J. Staley. (2006) Microbial biogeography: Putting microorganisms on the map. Nature Reviews Microbiology 4: 102-112
- 36. Lennon JT, Aanderud ZA, Lehmkuhl BK, Schoolmaster DR (2012) Mapping the niche space of soil microorganisms using taxonomy and traits. Ecology 93: 1867-1879
- 37. Treseder KK, Lennon JT (2015) Fungal traits that drive ecosystem dynamics. Microbiology and Molecular Biology Reviews 79: 243-262
- Czechowska, K., Johnson, D.R., van der Meer, J.R. (2008) Use of flow cytometric methods for single-cell analysis in environmental microbiology Curr. Opin. In Microbiol. 11:3, 205-212
- Galand P.E., L. Alonso-Sáez, S. Bertilsson, C. Lovejoy, and E. O. Casamayor (2013) Contrasting activity patterns determined by BrdU incorporation in bacterial ribotypes from the Arctic Ocean in winter Front Microbiol. (2013); 4: 118
- 40. Giovannoni S.J. 2017 SAR11 Bacteria: The most abundant plankton in the oceans. Annual Review Marine Science 9: 231-255
- 41. Biller, S.J., Berube, P.M., Lindell, D., Chisholm, S.W. (2015) *Procholorcoccus:* The structure and function of collective diversity Nature Reviews Microbiology 13:13-27
- Brewer, T.E., Handley, K.M., Carini, P., Gilbert, J.A., Fierer, N. (2016) Genome reduction in an abundant and ubiquitous soil bacterium 'Candidatus Udaeobacter copiosus' Nature Microbiology 2: 16198
- 43. Shade, A., Hogan, C.S., Klimowicz, A.K., Linske, M., McManus, P.S., and Handelsman, J. (2012) Culturing captures members of the soil rare bioshphere Environmental Microbiology 14(9): 2247-2252
- 44. Schut, F., De Vries, E.J., Gottschal, J.C., Robertson, B.R., Harder, W., Prins, R.A., Button, D.K. (1993) Isolation of typical marine bacteria by dilution culture: Growth, maintenance and characteristics of isolates under laboratory conditions Applied and Environmental Microbiology 59(7): 2150-2160
- 45. Neufeld J.D., Vohra J., Dumont M.G., Lueders T., Manefield M., Friedrich M.W., Murrell J.C. (2007) DNA stable-isotope probing. Nat Protoc. 2:4, 860-866
- 46. Wagner, M. (2009) Single cell ecophysiology of microbes as revealed by Raman microspectroscopy or secondary ion mass spectrometry imaging. Annu Rev Microbiol 63:411-429.
- Pester, M., Bittner, N., Deevong, P., Wagner, M., and Loy, A. (2010) A 'rare biosphere' microorganism drives sulfate reduction in a peatland. ISME J. 4:1591–1602.
- Behrens, S., Kappler, A., Obst M. (2012) Linking environmental processes to the in situ functioning of microorganisms by high-resolution secondary ion mass spectrometry (NanoSIMS) and scanning transmission X-ray microscopy (STXM) Env. Microbiol. 14:11, 2851-69

- 49. Norland S, Fagerbakke K, Heldel M. (1995) Light element analysis of individual bacteria by X-ray microanalysis. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 61:1357–62.
- Wilbanks, E.G., Jaekel, U., Salman, V., Humphrey, P.T., Eisen, J.A., Faciotti, M.T., Buckley, D.H., Zinder, S.H., Druschel, G.K., Fike, D.A., Orphan, V.J., (2014) Microscale sulfur cyclingin the photophrophic pink berry consortia of the Sippewissett Salt Marsh Environ. Micro 16: 3398-3415
- Mouginot, C., Kawamura, R., Matulich, K.L., Berlemont, R., Allison, S.D., Amend, A.S. and Martiny, A.C. (2014) Elemental stoichiometry of fungi and bacteria strains from grassland leaf litter Soil Biol. & Biochem. 76, 278-285
- 52. Godwin, C.M. and Cotner, J.B. (2015) Stoichiometric Flexibility in Diverse Aquatic Heterotrophic Bacteria Is Coupled to Differences in Cellular Phosphorus Quotas. Frontiers in Microbiology 6: doi:10.3389/fmicb
- 53. Hall, E.K., Maixner F., Franklin O., Daims, H., Richter, A. and Battin, T. (2011) Linking microbial and ecosystem ecology using ecological stoichiometry: A synthesis of conceptual and empirical approaches Ecosystems 14: 261-273