

1 Defining Microbiome Function

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3 Jonathan L Klassen \*

4 Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of Connecticut, Storrs, CT, USA

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6 \* Correspondence:

7 Dr. Jonathan L Klassen

8 [jonathan.klassen@uconn.edu](mailto:jonathan.klassen@uconn.edu)

## 9 **Abstract**

10           Why does a microbe associate with a host? What function does it perform? Such  
11 questions are difficult to unequivocally address and remain hotly debated. This is partially  
12 because scientists often use different philosophical definitions of “function” ambiguously and  
13 interchangeably, as exemplified by the controversy surrounding the ENCODE project. Here, I  
14 argue that research studying host-associated microbial communities and their genomes (i.e.,  
15 microbiomes) faces similar pitfalls and that unclear or misapplied conceptions of function  
16 underpin many controversies in this field. In particular, experiments that support  
17 phenomenological models of function can inappropriately be used to support functional models  
18 that instead require specific measurements of evolutionary selection. Microbiome research also  
19 requires uniquely clear definitions of “who the function is for”, in contrast to most single-  
20 organism systems where this is implicit. I illustrate how obscuring either of these issues can lead  
21 to substantial confusion and misinterpretation of microbiome function, using the varied  
22 conceptions of the holobiont as a current and cogent example. Using clear functional definitions  
23 and appropriate types of evidence are essential to effectively communicate microbiome research  
24 and foster host health.

## 25 **Introduction**

26           Microbiology has been revolutionized by observation that most macroorganisms are  
27 colonized by diverse communities of microbes, prompting many studies that seek to understand  
28 why such diversity exists<sup>1</sup>. Many initial studies of these microbial communities were primarily  
29 descriptive, prompted by the availability of new tools that revealed a much greater diversity of  
30 symbionts than was evident from using older culture-based approaches. This research paradigm  
31 has been astoundingly successful and continues to reveal the immense taxonomic and genomic  
32 diversity of the microbial world (i.e., the microbiome). However, describing microbial diversity  
33 is only the first stage of a broader program to understand not only which microbes have  
34 colonized a host but also their rationale for being there, i.e., their function<sup>2</sup>. The importance of  
35 this second priority is emphasized by a Google Scholar search for “microbiome AND function”  
36 that yielded ~109,000 results (searched July 11, 2017). Defining function is therefore a key goal  
37 of microbiome research.

38           All discussions of an entity’s function seek to understand the rationale for that entity  
39 occurring at a particular place and time. Studies of microbiome function therefore attempt to  
40 describe the significance of an association between microbes and a symbiotic host, focusing on  
41 host and microbial traits as the entities that bear such functions. Classically, microbiologists have  
42 used phenotypic tests to identify traits in cultured microbes. This approach has recently been  
43 extended using (meta)genomics to characterize genes within a host or microbiome as trait-  
44 encoding entities that might bear functions<sup>3</sup>. Unfortunately, these methods alone cannot provide  
45 a complete rationale for a microbe existing within a microbial community because they cannot  
46 entirely describe why a particular trait exists at a given time and place. Such “why” questions  
47 can confusingly be answered in multiple ways, causing “function” to mean different things to

48 different people depending on their perspective<sup>4</sup>. This ambiguity can cause different meanings of  
49 function to be inappropriately interchanged, leading to false claims about why microbes colonize  
50 their hosts and the consequences of these relationships.

51 In this essay, I will distinguish between different definitions of “function” and apply  
52 these definitions to microbiome research. Although I will primarily use examples from the  
53 human gut microbiome, these concepts can be applied to any host-microbe symbiosis. I will also  
54 discuss the consequences of confusing different definitions of function and argue that conceptual  
55 precision is crucial to avoid misdirected microbiome research.

## 56 **The Multiple Meanings of “Function”**

57 For over 40 years, philosophers have debated how to define the term “function” in ways  
58 that are both logically robust and that match how biologists actually use this term<sup>4-10</sup>. These  
59 debates have produced two unique and non-overlapping definitions of biological function,  
60 typically labelled as “causal role” (CR) and “selected effect” (SE) functions, respectively (Figure  
61 1). Philosophers agree that both CR and SE definitions of function are valid and reflect different  
62 conceptions of function that predominate in different biological fields<sup>4</sup>. Microbiome researchers  
63 must therefore be aware of these philosophical distinctions to avoid unintentionally confusing  
64 CR and SE functions when describing host-microbe symbioses.

65 A trait’s CR function is defined by how a larger system changes when that trait is  
66 removed, analogous to how an electrical component is defined in a circuit diagram<sup>4,6</sup>. For  
67 example, pumping blood is a CR function of the mammalian heart because heart failure stops  
68 circulation (the larger system). Loss-of-function experiments such as gene knock-outs and amino  
69 acid substitutions are common methods that microbiologists and molecular biologists use in a

70 similar manner to identify CR functions by observing how an organism or protein changes when  
71 one of its parts is modified.

72         Importantly, CR functions depend strongly on the nature of the system in which they are  
73 defined. For example, making a thumping noise is a CR function of the mammalian heart (in  
74 addition to pumping blood) because disrupting this sound will corrupt a system used to  
75 determine whether or not a mammal is alive. This does not supersede the heart's CR function of  
76 pumping blood, but rather allows multiple CR functions to be valid depending on the frame of  
77 reference in which they are considered (here, blood circulation versus a diagnostic test for being  
78 alive). Such frames of reference are less ambiguous for molecular biology experiments such as  
79 gene knock-outs, where the entire organism clearly comprises the relevant frame of reference. In  
80 summary, Causal Role functions are strictly phenomenological and mechanistically describe how  
81 parts contribute to a larger system that can be defined in multiple, non-exclusive ways.

82         In contrast to CR functions, the SE function of a trait is defined by the evolutionary  
83 rationale for that trait being maintained in an organism over time via selection<sup>5,7,8</sup>. For example,  
84 the SE function of the mammalian heart is to pump blood because heart failure causes a strong  
85 reduction in mammal fitness that is subject to negative selection. This contrasts with other  
86 attributes of the heart that do not impact fitness, such as making a thumping noise. Similarly,  
87 defining the SE function of a gene within a microbial genome requires understanding why  
88 selection has maintained that gene within that microbe. Consider a conserved gene that encodes  
89 for a cellulase enzyme. The conservation of this gene and its corresponding biochemical activity  
90 in both the native host and its relatives indicates that selection has acted on this gene to provide  
91 glucose for these hosts as an SE function. However, glucose provision would not be a SE  
92 function of this gene immediately after it is cloned into a heterologous host because evolution

93 has had no opportunity to select for this function in the heterologous host. This remains true even  
94 if the cellulase has measurable biochemical activity because it is selection, not activity, that  
95 defines an SE function. As another example, a gene that is no longer used by a pathogen  
96 undergoing genome reduction does not provide a SE function for that pathogen because this gene  
97 is no longer under selection, even if it has not yet been purged from the pathogen's genome. A  
98 trait with an SE function therefore both has been and currently remains adaptive for its host  
99 because the continued existence of that trait is due to evolutionary selection acting on fitness  
100 benefits that this trait confers upon its host<sup>11</sup>.

101           Because defining an SE function requires measuring active selection on a trait, such traits  
102 must be expressed and cause a phenotype on which selection can act. All SE functions are  
103 therefore also CR functions that can be analyzed phenomenologically following the CR  
104 paradigm (Figure 1). This can be seen in the above example where a cellulase in its native host  
105 exhibits both biochemical activity (a measurement of CR function) and evolutionary  
106 conservation (a measurement of SE function). Active selection also implies that traits with SE  
107 functions are under *direct* selection, versus *indirect* selection caused by covariance with a second  
108 trait under direct selection<sup>12,13</sup>. This can be understood by comparing the consequences of  
109 removing a target of direct vs. indirect selection, i.e., analyzing their respective CR functions.  
110 Imagine a non-essential gene (*geneA*) whose chromosomal location is immediately adjacent to a  
111 second gene (*geneB*) that is essential for host survival. Selection will directly act on *geneB*  
112 because it is essential. Selection may also act indirectly on *geneA* because recombination  
113 involving *geneA* risks disrupting the essential *geneB*. Stated differently, variation in the trait  
114 encoded by *geneA* correlates with host fitness (as expected for an SE function) only because  
115 *geneA* is chromosomally linked to *geneB*, the actual target of direct selection. Following the

116 logic used to identify CR functions, a precise knockout of *geneA* without any polar effects will  
117 not affect the function of *geneB*. However, a knockout of *geneB* will be lethal. Only the trait  
118 encoded by *geneB* therefore has both SE and CR functions, whereas the trait encoded by *geneA*  
119 lacks a CR function and therefore also a true SE function, despite its genetic linkage to *geneB*.  
120 This example highlights how SE functions can only be defined by measuring direct selection on  
121 a trait, which satisfies both the CR and SE definitions of function.

122         There is therefore an asymmetry between CR and SE functions: although all SE functions  
123 are also CR functions, the converse is untrue (Figure 1). Indeed, CR functions are useful for  
124 exactly this reason, and can be applied in situations where developmental complexity and/or  
125 epistasis makes precise measurement of selection difficult. This asymmetry has led some  
126 evolutionary biologists to emphasize the importance of SE functions over CR functions, e.g., to  
127 avoid “spandrel” traits that originated as unselected byproducts of processes unrelated to those  
128 traits’ current CR functions<sup>14</sup>. In an alternative approach, other biologists consider evolutionary  
129 considerations to be completely separate from mechanistic ones and only label mechanisms as  
130 functions<sup>15,16</sup>. These differences have led to substantial ambiguity and controversy regarding how  
131 to interpret experiments that describe trait function (e.g., Box 1). Clear definitions of CR and SE  
132 functions are therefore needed to avoid logical fallacies and wasted scientific effort, including in  
133 microbiome research.

### 134 **Causal Role Functions of the Microbiome**

135         Causal Role functions conceptualize the function of a trait as what happens to a system  
136 when that trait is removed<sup>6</sup>. When a gene’s CR function is determined by deleting that gene and  
137 observing changes in host phenotype, the host organism defines a system of which the studied  
138 gene is a part. Similarly, many microbiome studies compare the phenotypes of symbiotic hosts

139 that possess a microbiome to axenic hosts that do not<sup>17</sup> and thereby consider the host as a system  
140 of which the microbiome is a part. These phenotypic differences between colonized and axenic  
141 hosts define the CR functions of the microbiome for that host<sup>6</sup>. The CR functions of a single  
142 microbial gene or species can be determined similarly by comparing the phenotypes of hosts that  
143 contain those genes or species to those that lack them (e.g., ref 18). Given the widespread nature  
144 of such phenotypes, nearly all microbiomes can be said to provide CR functions for their  
145 symbiotic hosts<sup>1</sup>.

146         This conception of microbiomes as providing CR functions for their hosts treats microbes  
147 as component parts of their host. Indeed, there is a strong parallel between defining CR function  
148 by removing a mouse's heart and defining CR function by removing that mouse's microbiome,  
149 leading some to speculate that the microbiome can be thought of as a neglected host "organ"<sup>19</sup>.  
150 However, such a definition should be used cautiously given that the microbiome includes cells  
151 and genomes from multiple species instead of from a single species as in the traditional  
152 definition of an organ<sup>20</sup>. The CR approach to function makes no statement about microbiome  
153 assembly, persistence, or prevalence in other environments – all that matters is that the host  
154 phenotype changes when microbes are removed. It is therefore valid (if not always relevant) to  
155 conceive of symbiotic hosts as "holobionts" where the microbiome performs CR functions for a  
156 host as part of a single system that contains both the host and its microbial symbionts<sup>21</sup>.  
157 Structural definitions that treat symbiotic microbes as an "organ-like" component of their host or  
158 as part of a holobiont that is centered on the host are therefore consistent with the logical  
159 structures used by philosophers to define CR functions.

160         The above discussion has focused on the host as a larger system in which microbes are  
161 components with CR functions, mirroring the philosophical tradition of considering traits as



162 functional parts of larger organisms<sup>4,6</sup>. However, microbes are autonomous entities that might  
163 themselves be the beneficiaries of functions, analogous to selfish genetic elements that reside  
164 within a host genome<sup>9</sup>. For example, removing a host from an obligate intracellular microbial  
165 symbiont would cause that symbiont to become non-viable, giving this host the CR function of  
166 providing a home for that microbe. Although logical, this situation is likely to be poorly  
167 generalizable because most symbiotic microbes are also viable without their hosts<sup>22</sup> and can  
168 display identical phenotypes in both host and non-host environments (e.g., anaerobiosis). Thus, a  
169 “holobiont” centered on a microbe instead of a host may be logically valid but of limited use  
170 except for highly-intertwined relationships, e.g., obligate intracellular symbionts and  
171 pathogens<sup>23</sup>.

172 In summary, microbiomes and their constituent parts provide CR functions to their hosts  
173 that are defined by how host phenotypes change when microbes or their parts are removed. Such  
174 CR functions of a microbiome are consistent with microbiomes being “organ-like” entities that  
175 are part of a larger system defined by the host, i.e., a holobiont. In some cases hosts may also be  
176 conceived of as providing CR functions for a microbe but the generalizability of this process  
177 remains unclear.

## 178 **Selected Effect Functions of the Microbiome**

179 The Selected Effect function of a trait is defined by why that trait exists as an adaptation  
180 for its host<sup>5,7,8</sup>. This contrasts with CR functions that describe mechanisms but not how those  
181 mechanisms came to exist or if they are adaptive. Selection on a trait is measured as the  
182 correlation between the fitness that a trait confers upon a host and that host’s reproductive  
183 success, such that adaptive traits promote host fitness and therefore increase the absolute  
184 abundance of that host over time (Box 2). Microbiome experiments often work similarly by

185 measuring changes in microbial community composition that correlate with changes in host  
186 health. This assumes that microbial community composition can be considered a trait that is  
187 possessed by the host, and treats host health as a surrogate for reproductive fitness (which can be  
188 difficult to measure, especially for long-lived hosts such as humans). Whether these assumptions  
189 hold may be system-specific and require explicit tests for validation. Furthermore, whether  
190 microbes themselves should most appropriately be conceived of as traits that are possessed by  
191 the host or a means to realize some other trait such as nutrient acquisition remains unclear.

192 Mindful of these caveats, how might we measure selection on traits encoded by the  
193 microbiome as extended phenotypes of their host (i.e., selection acting on the host to maintain  
194 traits that are provided via its microbiome, regardless of selection on the microbes)? Selection  
195 depends both on how trait values change between host generations and the fidelity of  
196 intergenerational trait transmission (Box 2). Host mechanisms that maintain host-microbe  
197 interactions leading to the persistence of traits that are provided via the microbiome will  
198 therefore be selected if the improvements to host fitness that are provided by these traits  
199 outweigh the effects of imperfect microbial transmission between host generations, such as  
200 during horizontal or mixed-mode transmission<sup>24</sup>. Microbiome variability within a host's  
201 lifespan<sup>25</sup> can further disrupt the heritability of traits that are provided via the microbiome and  
202 weaken the potential for selection to act on these traits. On the other hand, the high redundancy  
203 of traits within a microbiome<sup>26</sup> may allow traits to be heritable without vertical transmission if  
204 hosts can continuously acquire microbes that provide the same trait via cultural practices such as  
205 cohabitation with family members and/or maintaining a consistent living environment<sup>27</sup>.  
206 Horizontal gene transfer is also common in host-microbe symbioses and might be another means  
207 for traits to be maintained in a microbiome without strict vertical transmission of symbionts<sup>28</sup>.

208 Determining the extent to which selection on the host can include traits that are provided via the  
209 microbiome despite imperfect transmission between host generations will be a fruitful area for  
210 future research.

211         Even if we accept that selection on hosts can include traits that are provided via the  
212 microbiome, disentangling direct and indirect modes of selection (that is, selection acting  
213 directly on a trait or indirectly on some second trait that is linked to the first; see above) remains  
214 problematic because traits that are provided via the microbiome can elicit multiple host  
215 phenotypes. For example, butyrate produced by mammalian microbiomes both provides energy  
216 for the host and regulates pathways that maintain low levels of nitrate and oxygen in the gut  
217 lumen<sup>29</sup>. In this example, host selection might act on the accumulation of butyrate as an energy  
218 source (regardless of its originating from microbial metabolism or some other source), the  
219 presence of particular microbes in the host gut to provide butyrate, or the presence of a particular  
220 host signaling pathway that has the side effect of enriching for butyrate-producing microbes.  
221 Here, the evolutionary path that was followed to achieve the present state remains unclear. Such  
222 mechanistic complexity in host-microbiome systems therefore makes it difficult to acquire  
223 evidence for direct selection acting on any particular trait, as required to define SE functions that  
224 are provided via the microbiome.

225         The preceding paragraphs (and the corresponding equations in Box 2) consider selection  
226 acting on a host that possesses traits that are provided via a microbiome. However, other possible  
227 targets of selection often exist that must be distinguished from selection acting on host traits that  
228 include the microbiome. Consider a pilus that promotes microbial adherence to a host. Selection  
229 may act on this pilus to maintain an interaction between a specific host-microbe pair, giving the  
230 pilus an SE function of mediating this specific host-microbe interaction. The host is not under

231 selection to maintain this interaction (selection is acting at the level of the microbe, of which the  
232 pilus is a part) but is instead an indispensable part of the interaction trait, i.e., without the host  
233 there is no possibility of an interaction and therefore no selection on the pilus as a trait to  
234 maintain that interaction. Thus, the host is in some sense a part of an SE trait of the microbe  
235 because selection is acting on an interaction that includes both partners, i.e., the host provides the  
236 necessary context in which selection on the microbe acts<sup>23</sup>. Other forces might alternatively  
237 explain the existence of this pilus without any host involvement. For example, the high  
238 replication rate of a microbe relative to its host might select for microbial adherence to its host to  
239 out-compete non-adherent microbes that are washed away by flow through the gut. This selective  
240 advantage would only occur in the presence of flow and would exist in the guts of alternative  
241 hosts and/or equivalent non-host environments where similar flows occur. Here, the host only  
242 provides an environmental context for pilus function and is not part of a specific interaction on  
243 which selection acts. Finally, a microbe might spend a considerable portion of its life cycle  
244 outside of a host such that selection acts primarily in that context<sup>22</sup>, e.g., a pilus that is under  
245 selection to adhere to an abiotic surface may also incidentally adhere to a host. Here, the host is  
246 entirely dispensable and plays no role in selection on the pilus. Determining when a microbiome-  
247 encoded trait is under selection as part of a microbe or a host, and the potential overlap between  
248 these modes of selection, remain significant challenges when identifying traits that provide SE  
249 functions in host-microbe symbioses.

250 In summary, traits that are provided via the microbiome might provide SE functions for  
251 their hosts depending on the fitness effects that they confer on these hosts and their heritability  
252 between host generations. Host-microbe symbioses can therefore be considered using standard  
253 evolutionary models that are agnostic to transmission mode, similar to traits that are transmitted

254 culturally<sup>13,30</sup>. Note that this discussion only considers selection acting at the level of hosts or  
255 microbes individually, and that additional tests are required to identify more integrated modes of  
256 selection<sup>13</sup>. Although imperfect symbiont transmission may obstruct host selection, this may be  
257 offset by trait redundancy within a microbiome. Critically, such functional models must  
258 differentiate between microbial traits that provide SE functions for the microbe versus those that  
259 provide SE functions for the host<sup>23</sup>. Experiments are currently lacking that explicitly measure  
260 selection, determine the targets of such selection, and contrast the strength of such selection to  
261 non-adaptive forces that may alternatively drive host-microbe relationships<sup>31</sup>. Some studies have  
262 used a constant laboratory environment to demonstrate the potential for selection to act on the  
263 host during such relationships<sup>32-34</sup>, and the next step will be to determine if such selection also  
264 occurs in the wild and its importance relative to non-adaptive forces. However, the complexity of  
265 such measurements may make it difficult to precisely and unambiguously identify SE functions  
266 in host-microbe symbioses, even if these microbiomes clearly provide their hosts with CR  
267 functions. Microbiome research may instead need to follow other fields such as anatomy that  
268 primarily use CR definitions of function because it remains intractable to demonstrate specific  
269 SE functions in such complex systems<sup>4</sup>.

## 270 **Is “Function” Misused in Microbiome Research, and does it Matter?**

271       Because “function” has different and non-synonymous meanings in biology, there is a  
272 high potential to confuse functional definitions and inappropriately conclude that an entity has a  
273 SE function based on phenomenological evidence that can only be used to define a CR function.  
274 This is exemplified by the controversy surrounding the ENCODE project (Box 1). Although  
275 controversies of a similar magnitude have yet to erupt among microbiologists, CR and SE  
276 functions may still be similarly confused in microbiome research. For example, the hologenome

277 concept of evolution rightly describes how microbes modulate many host phenotypes as CR  
278 functions<sup>20,21,35,36</sup>, and how symbiotic partners need to be considered when describing the  
279 evolution of host or microbial traits that mediate symbiotic interactions<sup>20,23</sup>. However, caution  
280 must be exercised when considering more complicated models of SE function (such as those that  
281 treat the holobiont/hologenome as a distinct level of selection<sup>36,37</sup>) without explicitly  
282 disambiguating direct and indirect selection resulting from linkage to other traits and/or lower-  
283 levels of selection<sup>13,38,39</sup>. Hypotheses of host-microbe coevolution may be a second area where  
284 CR functions are frequently misappropriated as SE functions. Although microbes clearly possess  
285 many traits with CR functions that allow them to co-exist with symbiotic hosts, evidence for the  
286 precisely defined SE functions of these traits on which selection acts remains minimal. Because  
287 evidence for the reciprocal evolution of host traits with SE functions that maintain symbiotic  
288 relationships (as necessitated by coevolution<sup>40</sup>) is even sparser, the widespread assertion that  
289 microbes and their hosts have coevolved may be another example of valid CR functions being  
290 misconstrued as SE functions without appropriate supporting evidence. Thus, examples exist  
291 where microbiome research at least implicitly confuses CR and SE definitions of function.

292 I suggest that confusing CR and SE functions of the microbiome matters for three  
293 reasons. First, using imprecise definitions of function weakens communication between  
294 researchers because different people use the same term to mean different things. This is  
295 particularly true when attempting to test precisely defined models, because different data are  
296 required to falsify different types of functional hypotheses (e.g., phenotypic vs. evolutionary).  
297 Without precise definitions, it can be too easy to test a functional hypothesis using experiments  
298 that are logically incompatible with that hypothesis, leading to confusion that inhibits progress.  
299 Second, using imprecise definitions of function weakens public trust in science by obscuring the

300 evidence-based link between theory and interpretation. This is particularly true in evolutionary  
301 biology, where some special interest groups are quick to exploit weak evolutionary claims,  
302 particularly those that involve humans (and by extension, their microbiomes). Microbiome  
303 researchers should therefore take care to avoid such vulnerabilities. Finally, confusing CR and  
304 SE functions might lead to the misapplication of therapeutics designed to alter host health via the  
305 microbiome. For example, the consequences of potentially losing human gut microbial diversity  
306 during industrialization<sup>41</sup> are likely to be much more severe if that diversity provides SE  
307 functions for the host versus CR functions, because only the former will necessarily have  
308 heritable fitness consequences for the host. Similarly, supplying traits that benefit a host via  
309 probiotics will likely require different degrees of personalization to achieve stable host  
310 colonization depending on whether those traits provide CR or SE functions and whether those SE  
311 functions are directed towards the host or the microbe. Specific definitions of function are  
312 therefore practically needed to understand the long term consequences of microbiome changes  
313 for the host and how any potential consequences of these changes might be modified.

314         In conclusion, microbiome researchers have much to gain from the extensive  
315 philosophical research that concretely defines the various meanings of the term “function”.  
316 Current practices in microbiome research can easily conflate CR and SE functions, thereby  
317 creating explanatory models of the microbiome that are based on weak evidence. Such  
318 misconstructions have acute implications for communicating microbiome research and guiding  
319 efforts to improve host health. I therefore join others<sup>42</sup> in advocating for stronger cross-  
320 disciplinary training in the basics of logic and philosophy as an essential means to advance  
321 rigorous and reproducible microbiome research.

322

## 323 **Box 1: Function and the ENCODE project**

324 In a technical tour-de-force, the Encyclopedia of DNA Elements (ENCODE) project  
325 consortium deployed a wide variety of methods to characterize every functional element present  
326 in the human genome, defining “functional element” as “a discrete genome segment that encodes  
327 a defined product (for example, protein or non-coding RNA) or displays a reproducible  
328 biochemical signature (for example, protein binding, or a specific chromatin structure)”<sup>43</sup>. This is  
329 clearly a CR approach to function where the identified genomic regions have functions relating  
330 to biochemical activities such as transcription or protein binding. The ENCODE authors found  
331 that >80% of the human genome was “functional” in this CR sense<sup>43</sup>, in contrast to a large body  
332 of literature indicating that at most 25% (and probably much less) of the human genome is under  
333 selection and therefore has an SE function<sup>10,44</sup>. Thus, two different philosophical approaches  
334 generated wildly different estimates of what percentage of the human genome was, in some  
335 sense, functional.

336 Unfortunately, the ENCODE authors did not explicitly differentiate between CR and SE  
337 approaches to function, and instead implied that the >80% of the human genome that they  
338 described as functional (in the CR sense) superseded previous estimates measuring the extent of  
339 SE function based on natural selection<sup>43</sup>. This elicited a strong reaction from evolutionary  
340 biologists, who clearly differentiated between these different philosophical definitions and  
341 advocated for the primacy of SE approaches<sup>9,10,45-47</sup> (see also ref 48 for a response). These  
342 evolutionary biologists considered most of the biochemical events observed by the ENCODE  
343 team to be incidental in nature and/or of little value to the survival and reproduction of the host,  
344 and concluded that the observed CR functions could not supersede previous perspectives based  
345 on SE definitions of function.



346           The analyses produced by the ENCODE consortium and the responses that they  
347 generated highlight how poorly differentiating between CR and SE functions can obscure  
348 scientific insight and lead to logical confusion that inhibits research advances. Clearly, the  
349 ENCODE project identified many genuine biochemical activities, and the reasons why these  
350 activities occur demand further explanation. However, it is a logical fallacy to infer that these CR  
351 functions exist because they provide some benefit to their host as selected effects, at least  
352 without further experiments designed to specifically test this hypothesis. Put another way,  
353 different experimental parameters need to be explicitly measured to identify SE functions (e.g.,  
354 the intensity of natural selection) versus CR functions (e.g., a biochemical activity), and these  
355 measurements cannot be substituted for each other. Doing otherwise can lead to conclusions that  
356 are, at best, logically tenuous or, at worst, incorrect.

357 **Box 2. Measuring selection**

358           Although natural selection is often discussed by microbiome researchers, only rarely is  
359 the strength of such selection actually measured. However, methods to measure selection are  
360 readily available and commonly applied throughout evolutionary biology. Among several  
361 approaches, one of the most prevalent uses the Price equation<sup>49</sup> to describe how trait or gene  
362 frequency changes over time:

$$363 \quad \Delta\bar{z} = Cov(\omega, z') + E(\Delta z) \quad (1)$$

364 (The formulation using relative fitness is shown — see ref 13 for other variants.) Here,  $\Delta\bar{z}$   
365 represents the change in the average value of a trait between generations,  $Cov(\omega, z')$  describes  
366 the covariation between relative host fitness ( $\omega$ ) and the average trait values possessed by its  
367 offspring ( $z'$ ), and  $E(\Delta z)$  describes the intergenerational change of this trait that is not due to  
368 selection. Phrased differently,  $Cov(\omega, z')$  represents the intergenerational change of a trait due to  
369 selection and  $E(\Delta z)$  represents the extent of biased transmission of this trait between host  
370 generations. The Price equation is therefore a concise method of partitioning intergenerational  
371 trait variation into one component that depends on selection and another that does not. This  
372 approach has been recognized as being particularly relevant for analyzing the eco-evolution of  
373 host-microbe symbioses<sup>50</sup>.

374           As a simplistic example of this approach, consider an experiment that tests if a host  
375 associates with a microbe due to selection on the host to maintain that interaction or due to non-  
376 adaptive forces that promote microbial colonization regardless of selection. Following Equation  
377 1, this experiment might measure the abundance of the target microbe in hosts from multiple  
378 generations to derive the average change in that microbe's abundance between host generations

379 ( $\Delta\bar{z}$ ) and the abundance of that microbe in host offspring ( $z'$ ). By also measuring the fitness of  
380 these host offspring relative to their parent hosts ( $\omega$ , e.g., by comparing their relative fecundity),  
381 the extent to which selection acts on the host to maintain the targeted host-microbe relationship  
382 ( $Cov(\omega, z')$ ) can be quantified. Finally, the importance of non-adaptive factors can be described  
383 by subtracting  $Cov(\omega, z')$  from  $\Delta\bar{z}$ . This approach will be strongest when multiple host  
384 generations can be observed so that  $Cov(\omega, z')$  can be estimated accurately, highlighting the  
385 usefulness of model hosts with relatively short lifespans (e.g., insects) for such experiments. It is  
386 also worth stressing that measuring fitness is only a part of measuring selection and not  
387 synonymous with it, as is sometimes inappropriately assumed. Although this example considers  
388 microbial abundance as a trait of a host, other variants can easily be envisioned using genes as  
389 the focal trait or microbes as the host organism. Such variation will undoubtedly leverage the  
390 many variants of the Price equation approach that have been deployed throughout eco-  
391 evolutionary research (e.g., ref 51).

392         Because  $z'$  describes the average trait values possessed by a host's offspring, the Price  
393 approach to measuring selection is explicitly intergenerational and thus directly relates to the  
394 heritability of the considered traits, i.e., the correlation between trait values possessed by  
395 offspring and those possessed by their parents. Importantly, this approach is formally agnostic to  
396 the origin of these traits (host or microbial) or whether the same trait is shared between different  
397 microbes. However, it does require defining a single host whose fitness is altered by the trait  
398 under consideration, i.e., either a host or a microbe. Extensions of this approach to include  
399 multiple levels of selection exist but require discriminating between direct selection acting at one  
400 level and indirect selection acting at one level that is caused by direct selection acting at another

401 level<sup>13</sup>. Approaches such as the Price equation are therefore important frameworks for measuring  
402 and modeling selection that can accommodate both host- and microbiome-encoded traits.

403         An alternative approach to identifying selection is to observe the historical effects of such  
404 evolutionary processes. For example, adaptive traits are often conserved among  
405 phylogenetically-related organisms because the historical loss of those traits generated fitness  
406 costs that eventually drove the organisms bearing those costs extinct<sup>52</sup>. Similarly, a low ratio of  
407 non-synonymous to synonymous substitutions can indicate negative selection acting to remove  
408 substitutions in a protein-coding gene that would deleteriously alter the amino acid composition  
409 of that protein<sup>53</sup>. Although such patterns can identify a past history of selection acting on a trait,  
410 they can only imperfectly infer if selection is currently acting on that trait as required to define  
411 an SE function. These methods (and approaches based on the Price equation) also cannot  
412 discriminate between direct and indirect modes of selection (as is also required to define an SE  
413 function) unless specific frameworks are used that can differentiate between these possibilities<sup>12</sup>.  
414 Even using such frameworks, it is formally impossible to exclude the possibility that unmeasured  
415 covariates might artificially cause the observed measurement of selection instead of direct  
416 selection acting on the trait of interest. The methodological difficulties of measuring current and  
417 direct selection remain significant obstacles to defining SE functions that are encoded by the  
418 microbiome.

419

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524 **Correspondence**

525 Jonathan L Klassen

526 jonathan.klassen@uconn.edu

527 University of Connecticut, Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, Storrs, CT, USA

528 **Acknowledgements**

529 I thank the members of the Klassen lab and J. P. Gogarten for their helpful feedback on earlier  
530 versions of this manuscript. Funding for this work was provided by NSF IOS-1656475 and the  
531 University of Connecticut.

532 **Author Contributions**

533 JL Klassen conceptualized and wrote this manuscript.

534 **Competing Interests statement**

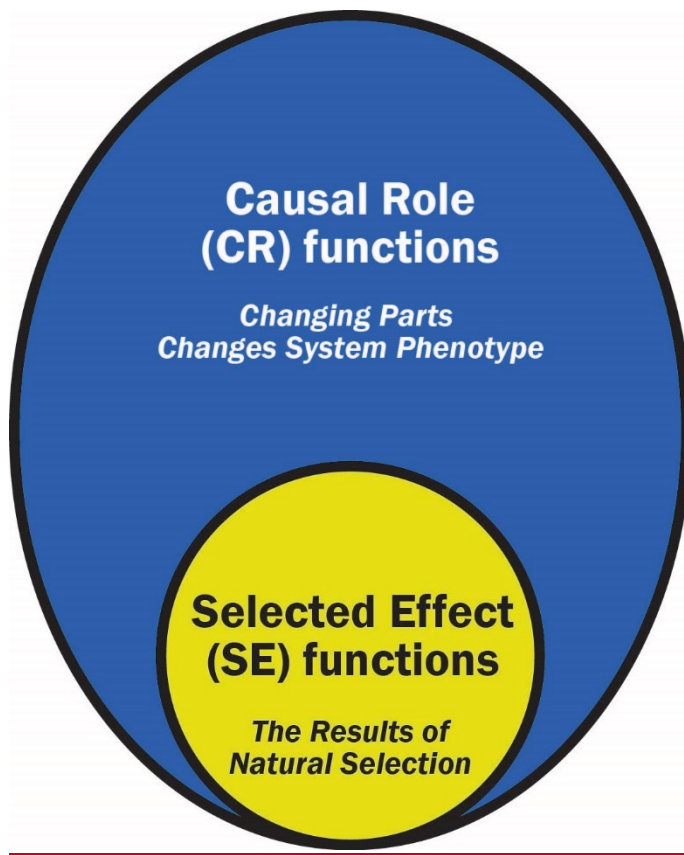
535 **Yes** there is potential Competing Interest.

536 Funding for this work was provided by NSF IOS-1656475 and the University of Connecticut.

537 These funders had no role in the conceptualization, design, data collection, analysis, decision to  
538 publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

539 **Figure Legends and Tables**

540 Figure 1. The relationship between Causal Role (CR) and Selected Effect (SE) functions. Causal  
541 Role functions are defined by the change in the phenotype of a larger system when a part of that  
542 system is removed, whereas SE functions are defined by natural selection acting on such a part,  
543 resulting in the observed phenotype. Only a subset of CR functions are also SE functions, just as  
544 circles comprise a small subset of all possible ellipses.



545