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2 **Title:** Diversity is the question, not the answer

3

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14 **Main Text**

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16 “The rock just sits and is.” - Albert Markovski

17

18 Diversity (the number and/or evenness, and types of taxa within a local community) is arguably
19 one of the most fundamental concepts in community ecology. Ecologists report diversity estimates
20 for a number of reasons, including to ask how patterns in diversity translate to ecosystem function
21 or stability, or to understand how and why diversity changes over space and time. This research
22 is pursued in an effort to build an understanding of the ecological processes of the world and to
23 identify common patterns, with the ultimate goal of improving knowledge of universal mechanisms
24 and building theoretical framework. Once ecological mechanisms are understood, ecologists
25 strive to better predict, conserve, or manage communities to desired outcomes.

26

27 Microbial ecologists have a particular interest in diversity, as microbial diversity is expansive, and
28 many microbial communities have near-innumerable membership (Locey and Lennon, 2016).
29 Relative to our planet’s better-described communities of macrofauna, microbial communities are

30 a trove of untapped and unknown diversity. High-throughput sequencing methods have offered
31 new insight into the extent and limits of microbial diversity, and have spurred research interests,
32 including understanding the rare microbial biosphere (Lynch and Neufeld, 2015) and microbial
33 dark matter (Marcy *et al.*, 2007). High-throughput sequencing combined with cultivation-
34 independent methods continue to reveal a fuller tree of life, expanding our knowledge of evolution
35 and of phylogenetic relationships in biology, which are dominated by microbial lineages (Hug *et*
36 *al.*, 2016).

37

38 With all of the discovery and excitement in microbial ecology about diversity, there often has been
39 an assumption that high diversity is implicitly a good or desirable outcome for communities, and
40 that higher diversity is also somehow more meritorious ecologically. Alas, diversity is not good or
41 bad, it simply “is”, much like Albert Markovski’s rock. Diversity *is* a property that we observe about
42 microbial communities and measure using statistical indices, and these measurements allows us
43 to develop hypotheses to test the ecological mechanisms driving those communities’ dynamics.
44 Diversity is the outcome of ecological processes, and not an ecological process in itself. Thus, a
45 diversity measurement has limited value alone because much context is needed for interpretation.
46 I argue that diversity provides a proxy for comparing communities, and an appropriate starting
47 point for determining underlying ecological causes and consequences in community ecology.
48 Similarly, I suggest that as a field we resist the over-simplification of implicating diversity as a
49 reason for community outcomes or implying that a high diversity microbial community is somehow
50 ‘better’ than a low diversity community.

51

52 Here, I explore the complications and assumptions about microbial diversity and offer suggestions
53 to redirect some of our common misconceptions towards understanding the ecological
54 mechanisms driving patterns in diversity. I focus on within-sample (alpha) diversity of a locality
55 (**Table 1**; see Magurran, 2003 for an excellent primer).

56

57 *Diversity has many definitions. Which are you using, and why does it matter?*

58

59 There is a long history of challenge with both defining and measuring ecological diversity (e.g.,
60 Ricotta, 2005). An inherent challenge is that there is no universally accepted, absolute value of
61 diversity for a given community. Contrast this to other quantitative measurements considered to
62 have absolutes that are comparable across different methods or scales of measuring. For

63 example, whether temperature is measured in Kelvin, Celsius, or Fahrenheit, there is a belief that
64 there is one “true” equivalent value upon which all will scales will agree. Diversity, however, is
65 relative and always constrained by method of measurement. There is not a belief that an absolute
66 diversity value can be determined and compared across methods: each method is a slightly
67 different reduction of multivariate information about a community. If determining an absolute value
68 of diversity were achievable (and it likely is not), it would unite the field of community ecology by
69 ending debate about the merits of different diversity measurements, and instead redirecting focus
70 towards underlying mechanisms.

71

72 Thus, “diversity” can refer to be any number of metrics considering any one or number of aspects
73 of a community. Because no absolute value of diversity exists, each method has its own biases
74 and advantages, as discussed previously (e.g., Hill *et al.*, 2003). A lack of specificity about which
75 method is used can lead, at best, to confusion or, at worst, oversimplification or misinterpretation
76 of community outcomes. Thus, the precise method(s) for calculating diversity should be carefully
77 considered and justified either ecologically or biologically according to the scientific question, and
78 then interpreted considering the chosen diversity metric’s strengths and limitations. For example,
79 if there is a working hypothesis of differences in phylogenetic breadth between communities in a
80 control and treatment, a diversity metric that incorporates information about the relatedness of
81 taxa may be selected.

82

83 Diversity metrics are, by design, flexible, and thus can be calculated from any type of community
84 dataset. Because it is difficult to observe individual microbial cells and distinguish among microbial
85 taxa, microbial ecologists use many inexact methods for observing communities, including cell
86 morphology or probe binding with microscope counts, fingerprinting, colony phenotypes, and
87 sequencing. Each of these methods produces a differently biased perspective of the community.
88 Thus, due to methodological differences, diversity often is not comparable directly across studies
89 even if the same metric is calculated. This results in vagueness and does not promote a deeper
90 understanding of microbial community ecology. It also means that diversity cannot be “important”
91 in itself because much context is needed for interpretation.

92

93 *The temptation of diversity: it is easy to calculate, but let’s not forget limitations*

94

95 For a high-throughput sequencing dataset, diversity is straightforward to determine, perhaps in
96 part because popular sequence analysis pipelines automatically output these calculations. The
97 ease of diversity calculation may tempt us to indiscriminately report them or to assume that they
98 are informative for our study. However, for sequencing methods, there are a range of analysis
99 choices regarding the operational taxonomic unit (OTU) definition (Rideout *et al.*, 2014; Schloss,
100 2016; Preheim *et al.*, 2013; Eren *et al.*, 2013). The taxonomic unit is whatever is appropriate to
101 the scientific question (or, as it often happens, default in the sequence analysis pipeline), as
102 chosen by the researcher. This is an important consideration because OTU definitions will impact
103 our perspective of diversity, and some OTU-defining methods consistently over- or under-inflate
104 the number of taxa observed (e.g. Edgar, 2013), which directly impacts diversity calculations.

105
106 There are also inherent diversity biases resulting from cultivation-independent methods. Diversity
107 metrics may be inflated by the DNA of inactive or dormant organisms (Jones and Lennon, 2010).
108 DNA extraction protocols can bias against lysates of certain groups, skewing their representation
109 in the community (e.g., Gram positive bacteria). Co-extraction of relic or taphonomic DNA can
110 overestimate standing diversity (Carini *et al.*, 2016). There is also primer bias in amplicon
111 sequencing, which can underestimate diversity by omitting or under-representing certain
112 microbial lineages (Klindworth *et al.*, 2013). For some marker genes, like the 16S rRNA gene,
113 bacterial and archaeal taxa may have very different copy numbers (Stoddard *et al.*, 2015), which
114 complicates our perception of their relative contributions to the community. For taxon-rich
115 microbial communities, like soils, and especially for highly uneven, rich communities that are
116 dominated by a few very abundant taxa (Adams *et al.*, 2013), under-sampling of the community
117 is an additional consideration (e.g., Gihring *et al.*, 2012). Increasing the amount of sequences
118 generated for under-sampled communities resulted in continued increase in diversity estimates,
119 with particular sensitivity in the performance of non-parametric estimators that extrapolate
120 absolute community diversity based on the number of singletons and doubletons (Gihring *et al.*,
121 2012).

122
123 Of course, no method is without bias. However, due to our inexact methods for observing
124 communities, microbial diversity calculations in particular have so many biases that they may be
125 considered as rough approximations. Efforts should be made to standardize biases across
126 samples prior to making diversity comparisons, and, even then, to interpret results with care.

127

128 *High diversity isn't necessarily "better" or "healthy."*

129

130 If higher diversity were universally better for communities, why devote resources to understanding
131 ecological mechanisms? If it were true that higher diversity is always an improvement, we could
132 manage microbial communities by simply making them more diverse.

133

134 There are countless examples of ecosystems in which higher diversity is not more meritorious.
135 As a simple example, a rainforest harbors more plant species per hectare than a temperate forest,
136 but it is not interpreted that the temperate forest is a less important or less-thriving ecosystem.
137 These two ecosystem are different, and for many abiotic or biotic reasons that could be uncovered
138 and investigated further. Similarly, vaginal microbial communities exhibit a range of diversities
139 across healthy women, including some communities that are dominated by lactobacilli and others
140 (reported as 20-30% of asymptomatic individuals) that have less lactobacilli but more diverse
141 membership (Ma *et al.*, 2012). As another example, high-fat and low-fat diets had comparable
142 levels of Shannon diversity, Chao diversity and richness (though, different taxonomic
143 compositions) in humanized mouse models (Turnbaugh *et al.*, 2009). These studies and others
144 demonstrate that lower diversity is not necessarily indicative of a worse community or ecosystem
145 and lower diversity does not necessarily imply less stable or less 'healthy' communities.

146

147 There is a recent example in which we do overwhelm microbial communities with more and
148 different diversity in an effort to manage them: fecal transplants after an opportunistic infection by
149 *Clostridium difficile* (Kassam *et al.*, 2013). Not all fecal transplants are successful, despite the
150 apparent deluge of additional diversity to the community. It would be a misinterpretation to
151 suggest that the diversity in itself is the answer to the frequent success of fecal transplants in
152 mitigating *C. difficile* infection.

153

154 Notably, microbial ecologists have borrowed value-laden terms from traditional ecology to
155 describe diversity, which may be one historical reason for the persistence of assumptions that
156 higher diversity is better. For example, ecologists use *richness* to refer to the number of species,
157 and *depauperate* to describe communities with low diversity. This terminology was used in the
158 literature as early as the 1920's (e.g., Wheeler, 1926), but seems to have become more prominent
159 by the 1940's (e.g., Hubbs and Lagler, 1949). Thus, microbial ecologists perhaps have intuited
160 value from legacy jargon without reconsideration of its merit.

161

162 *Diversity only has value in a comparative context*

163

164 Except in the context of informing study design and approach (e.g., how many sequences are
165 needed for exhaustive coverage of a community?), there is little ecological value in reporting that
166 a community has ten-thousand taxa or ten. The insight emerges when comparing that community
167 to another situation or community of interest, and then asking what is the difference observed and
168 why. This could be in the context of an experimental design between control and treatment
169 conditions, over a natural or controlled environmental gradient, over time, in response to a
170 disturbance or stressor, or over geographic space.

171

172 Comparative microbial diversity, especially when multi-layered community and functional
173 measurements are applied, has provided key insights into underlying processes. For example,
174 two sets of replicated methanogenic bioreactors responded differently to a pulse glucose shock:
175 one set was stable, while the other decreased in performance (Hashsham *et al.*, 2000; Fernandez
176 *et al.*, 2000). It was discovered that the sets harbored very different microbial compositions,
177 measured using several complementary methods, including cell morphology, fingerprinting, and
178 rRNA probes, which allowed the researchers to delve more precisely into the comparative
179 mechanisms of functional stability. In particular, the bioreactors with less diverse membership had
180 an ability to perform parallel substrate processing during the glucose shock to maintain
181 performance. One important conclusion from this study was that communities with higher diversity
182 were not necessarily more functionally stable in the face of disturbance.

183

184 Because of all of the nuances in calculating diversity, comparing diversity within a single study or
185 across a series of related studies (often by the same researcher) provides situation-specific
186 insights and modest advances. For understanding larger scale patterns in diversity over space
187 or time or across many ecosystems, researchers often have to spend much time curating
188 disparate datasets for meta-analysis, and re-defining taxonomic units across studies to be
189 maximally comparable. Even then, due to methodological differences, each dataset sometimes
190 must remain as a distinct unit and quantitative cross-study comparisons are limited. Though
191 quantifying large-scale patterns in microbial ecology is challenging, one of the scientific reasons
192 for doing so is to test ecological theories established in traditional ecology for microbial
193 communities. Calculating diversity for microbial communities and analyzing their overarching
194 patterns using methods directly comparable to studies in traditional ecology pushes forward our
195 pursuit of a unified ecological theory. For example, studies have considered latitudinal gradients

196 of diversity (e.g., Chu *et al.*, 2010), and species-area and species-time relationships (e.g., Bell *et*
197 *al.*, 2005; Shade *et al.*, 2013). In some cases, microbial diversity exhibits similar large-scale
198 patterns to communities of larger organisms (“macroorganisms”, e.g., Locey and Lennon 2016),
199 and in some cases, they are distinct (e.g., Fierer *et al.*, 2011). Understanding these points of
200 distinction for microbial diversity will allow us to delve deeper into the ecological mechanisms
201 driving their patterns, and better place them in the context of a grander view of biology. To provide
202 specific example of how comparisons of large-scale patterns in diversity can uncover common
203 underlying ecology, a recent meta-analysis used species richness, observed community size, and
204 maximum community size of both macrobial and microbial communities to discover a universal
205 scaling law relationship between the size of the community and its evenness (inclusive of
206 dominance and rarity), where larger communities exhibit lower evenness and a larger “rare
207 biosphere” (Locey and Lennon 2016).

208

209 A final consideration is whether a given diversity comparison is ecologically meaningful. For
210 example, can any insight be gleaned to consider that an acid mine drainage community is much
211 less diverse than a soil (or, to be a bit facetious, that a mammal gut has different diversity than
212 the surface of a kitchen counter)? In these examples, there are very distinct ecosystems with
213 fundamentally different drivers and constraints. We do not need to calculate diversity in each to
214 be led to hypotheses as to why they are different. An exception to this is in questions concerning
215 source tracking of specific community members (e.g., Knights *et al.*, 2011) where disparate but
216 connected ecosystems or regional metacommunities may be implicated in seeding each other’s
217 diversity.

218

219 *If diversity is not the answer, what is?*

220

221 There are many ecological mechanisms that underpin patterns in community diversity, and they
222 are inherently difficult to unravel. The most commonly studied mechanisms are deterministic
223 processes. For instance, abiotic drivers and constraints, like environmental filters and carrying
224 capacity of an ecosystem, limit the type and number organisms capable of exploiting the habitat.
225 Abiotic disturbances may disrupt resource availability and make new niche space available,
226 driving replacement or proportional changes in communities. Disturbances sometimes impact
227 specific members rather than the whole community, driving selection or release from competition
228 or predation. Biotic interactions are also important drivers of diversity, and the nature and strength

229 of interactions like antagonism and synergism can result in complex and non-intuitive multi-
230 member interactions (e.g., Tilman, 1994) Thus, our ultimate understanding of diversity requires
231 more than measurements of diversity; we also need contextual data and sufficient numbers of
232 community observations for thoughtful comparisons that test specific hypotheses about how
233 diversity may, or may not, change across sample categories or gradients.

234

235 Suppose a hypothetical study used marker gene sequencing to uncover evidence that a certain
236 pathogen is more successful in invading a host-associated microbial community that has relatively
237 lower diversity as compared to a higher diversity community. The researchers may then report
238 that high diversity prevents pathogen invasion, and then attribute this to an underlying higher
239 functional diversity in that community.

240

241 The question to consider is: what about the ecology of the more diverse community is inhibitory
242 towards the pathogen, and what about the less diverse community is permissive? Perhaps it is
243 that there is a direct competitor of the pathogen in the more diverse community. Or, perhaps there
244 is a mutualist of the pathogen in the low-diversity community that promotes its growth. Perhaps
245 the higher diversity community has lower pH, and the pathogen is sensitive to this specific abiotic
246 driver. Perhaps it is because a subset of community members has stimulated the host immune
247 response in the higher diversity community. Perhaps it is because the higher diversity community
248 is at carrying capacity, and there are no available niches for the invading pathogen. Perhaps the
249 pathogen acquired a beneficial gene, via horizontal gene transfer, from a member of the lower
250 diversity community that improved its success. (Also, without directly measuring function or
251 functional potential, it is a conceptual leap to move from the observation of high compositional
252 diversity to the assumption of high functional diversity.)

253

254 The mechanisms maintaining or changing microbial diversity are many and complex.
255 Understanding how these mechanisms collectively contribute to community outcomes is of great
256 importance for the goals of predicting, conserving, and managing microbial communities, and
257 reporting diversity without underlying hypotheses, contextual data for interpretation, or useful
258 comparisons does not advance our understanding towards these goals. Furthermore, common
259 assumptions that “higher diversity is better” oversimplifies complex mechanisms and can
260 sidetrack progress. There is a lot of work to be done, and measuring diversity is the first step in a
261 rich line of scientific inquiry. Measurement of diversity should serve as a starting point for further
262 inquiry of ecological mechanisms rather than an “answer” to community outcomes.

263

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265

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267

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273

274 Conflict of interest

275 There author declares no conflict of interest.

276

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- 350
- 351

352 **Table 1.** Different aspects of within-sample (alpha) diversity. One or more of these aspects are
 353 incorporated into common diversity estimates, like Shannon Diversity, Faith's phylogenetic
 354 diversity, etc.

355

| Aspect of diversity | Notes |
|------------------------------------|--|
| Community size | The total number of individuals observed in a locality |
| Number of taxa (richness) | Summarizes the total number of taxa, where taxon is counted as an equivalent unit |
| Equitability of taxa (evenness) | Summarizes how evenly distributed are relative contributions across taxa |
| Composition of taxa | Accounts for the number of unique taxa and their identities, which can be taxonomic or operational |
| Relative contributions of taxa | Accounts for the proportional contributions of each taxon to the total count of all individuals observed |
| Phylogenetic relatedness of taxa | The evolutionary breadth represented by taxa given a phylogenetic tree |

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