

1 **Title:** Trait-based patterns of microbial succession in dormancy potential and heterotrophic
2 strategy: case studies of resource-based and post-disturbance succession

3 **Running title:** Microbial traits dynamics over succession

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13 Abstract

14 Understanding the relationship between microbial community structure and function is a major
15 challenge in microbial ecology. Recent work has shown that community weighted mean 16S
16 rRNA gene copies, as a proxy for heterotrophic growth strategy, is a microbial community trait
17 that decreases predictably over successional trajectories that are underpinned by changes in
18 resource availability. However, it has been challenging to identify other microbial traits that are
19 predictive of community functions and have consistent patterns with succession. Trait-based
20 patterns of secondary succession (e.g., after a disturbance) are less often considered, and these
21 responses may be underpinned by abiotic drivers other than changes in resources. In this

22 perspectives piece, we present hypotheses about microbial traits important for microbial
23 succession in resource-based and post-press disturbance scenarios, as synthesized from previous
24 works and extended within this work. Using four case studies, we compare two traits,
25 heterotrophic strategy and dormancy potential, and two different types of succession, resource-
26 based (endogenous heterotrophic) and post-press. There were decreases in weighted ribosomal
27 operon counts and in dormancy genes over resource-based succession. Both traits also were
28 lower in post-press succession as compared to reference conditions, but increased with time from
29 disturbance. Thus, dormancy potential may be an additional trait that changes predictably with
30 succession. Finally, considering changes in microbial community traits over post-press
31 succession is as important as over resource-based succession. These patterns need be interpreted
32 carefully and reference and recovering samples can be collected to improve interpretation of
33 changes in community traits over post-press succession.

34

35 **Main Text**

36 *Approaching succession from the microbial perspective*

37 Microbial succession includes two categories that have been borrowed from studies of plant
38 ecology: primary and secondary succession. These categories, however, do not fully capture the
39 environmental context and physiology that distinguish microbial succession (Fierer et al., 2010).
40 Fierer et al., (2010) delineated microbial primary succession based on resource dynamics into
41 autotrophic succession and endogenous/exogenous heterotrophic succession. Autotrophic
42 succession occurs when early colonizers are primarily autotrophic and generate a stable, slow
43 changing carbon pool over time. Heterotrophic succession is dictated by the source of carbon and

44 the early colonization of heterotrophic taxa. Endogenous succession relies on the respiration of
45 local carbon and succession is driven by changes in the carbon pool (e.g. as in colonization of a
46 nutrient rich mesocosm; Nemergut et al., 2015). Exogenous succession relies on the resupply of
47 external carbon and its variability. All three types of “primary” succession, however, are dictated
48 by changes in resources and as such, we broadly refer to these as *resource-based succession*
49 (Table 1). Fierer et al. 2010 also specified that these types of microbial succession initiate from
50 a “blank-slate” environment that was either sterile or nearly-sterile, analogous to primary
51 succession in plants.

52 In contrast to resource-based succession, microbial “secondary” succession occurs
53 following a disturbance to a previously colonized ecosystem. In ecology, secondary successional
54 patterns can depend on new immigrants that colonize the disturbed ecosystem, but local taxa can
55 also play an important role. Local taxa that persist despite the disturbance, and/or gain a
56 competitive advantage given the disturbance can affect community outcomes. Thus, resuscitated
57 microbial taxa may contribute substantially to microbial secondary succession, which may be a
58 point of distinction from “macrobial” succession (e.g., Nemergut *et al.*, 2013). Local taxa that
59 have historically or contemporarily contributed to the dormant pool provide an opportunity for
60 legacy effects of previously successful community members (Lewis, 2010). Furthermore,
61 resuscitation can allow for the proliferation of taxa that were not competitive before the
62 disturbance. Thus, the dynamics of secondary succession in plants are considerably different than
63 those of microbes, and bacterial and archaeal dynamics may be more influenced by the local
64 source pool, rather than immigration of new taxa. Furthermore, post-disturbance microbial
65 succession is not necessarily driven by changes in resources, but instead by resistance and
66 resilience to the stressor by persisting populations. Because of these distinction between

67 microbes and plants, we offer a re-focusing of microbial secondary succession to *post-*
68 *disturbance succession*, which can be further delineated into *post-pulse* and *post-pulse*
69 disturbance scenarios (**Table 1**).

70 *Microbial community traits that change with succession*

71 The succession of microbial communities following a disturbance can have important
72 implications for the recovery and maintenance of ecosystem function (e.g., Shade and Peter et
73 al., 2012). Two potentially important microbial traits are dormancy potential and the number of
74 ribosomal operons (hereafter “operon count”). Dormancy is the ability of microorganisms to
75 decrease metabolic activity and maintain viability in a quiescent state (e.g. Lennon and Jones,
76 2011), and it has implications for a microorganism’s ability to persist in the environment given
77 unfavorable conditions. Operon count is the number of ribosomal operons within a cell, and has
78 been used as a proxy for a microorganism’s heterotrophic strategy and therefore the rapidity of
79 its response to resources; copiotrophs are assumed to have relatively more copies than
80 oligotrophs (Klappenbach et al., 2000). While rapid growth and operon count have been shown
81 to be correlated in laboratory cultures of type strains (Roller et al., 2016), there is limited
82 information about how the growth strategies of most environmental taxa relate to ribosomal
83 operon count, especially *in situ*. However, mean weighted ribosomal operon count across taxa, as
84 assessed by 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing followed by metagenome reconstruction, has
85 been introduced as an aggregate microbial community-level trait for heterotrophy (Nemergut et
86 al., 2015, DeAngelis et al., 2015).

87

88 *Case studies*

89 We explored the patterns of two traits, ribosomal operon count and dormancy potential
90 (measured as the abundance of genes conferring dormancy strategies), over microbial
91 community succession in four previously published studies, three involving soils (Table S1).
92 Two studies were examples of endogenous heterotrophic succession over changes in resource
93 availability (Ferrenberg et al., 2013; Nemergut et al., 2015). In addition, we investigated two
94 sites exposed to mild and extreme increased temperatures as examples of post-fire succession
95 (DeAngelis et al., 2015; Lee and Sorensen et al., 2017, respectively).

96 The studies of Ferrenberg et al. 2013 and Nemergut et al. 2015, are examples of
97 succession driven by changes in type and availability of resources after colonization of a “blank
98 slate” environment (Fierer et al., 2010). Nemergut et al. 2015 examined community succession
99 over a 96-hour period in sterilized rich media mesocosms deployed in a coastal forest on the
100 Yucatan Peninsula, Mexico. Ferrenberg et al. 2013 collected samples following a forest fire on
101 the eastern slope of the Colorado Front Range, CO, USA. The top 5 cm of soils were collected at
102 reference sites and at a fire-affected sites 1, 4, 29, and 33 months post-fire disturbance. While
103 this study would be classified as secondary succession based on the plant literature, we posit that,
104 from the microbial perspective, the forest fire study more closely resembles endogenous
105 heterotrophic (resource-based) succession for the soil microbial communities, as distinguished
106 by Fierer et al. 2010: the top 5 cm of collected soil were likely sterilized from the fire (a “blank
107 slate” environment), and there were reported changes in organic matter quality (lower C:N ratio)
108 and other important nutrients (higher NH_4^+ , Ferrenberg et al. 2013), suggesting that the trajectory
109 was primarily driven by the dynamics of available resources. It was previously reported by
110 Nemergut et al., (2015) that weighted mean operon count decreased over succession in both of
111 these studies, suggesting a gradual replacement of copiotrophic colonizers with oligotrophs.

112 The studies from DeAngelis et al., (2015) and Lee and Sorensen et al., (2017) are
113 examples of post-fire succession studies in soils following heat disturbance. The study by
114 DeAngelis et al. examined the effect of increased temperature (+5°C) on temperate forest soils
115 (Harvard Forest LTER, Petersham, MA, USA) after 5, 10, or 20 years of warming. Soils were
116 collected from the O (0-0.03m) and A (0.03-0.13m) horizons. The authors demonstrated a
117 decrease in weighted mean operon count in heated O horizon soils relative to reference soils but
118 found no change in the A horizon. They also reported no difference in operon count given
119 duration of warming. Thus, we focused on O horizon soil communities and aggregated over
120 years of warming. Finally, Lee and Sorensen et al., (2017) examined a chronosequence of
121 surface soil impacted at different decades by the progression of the Centralia underground coal
122 seam fire (Pennsylvania, USA). The fire underlies 150 acres of temperate forest and remaining
123 town, and warms the surface soil (fire-affected temperatures ranged from ~20-60 °C). Samples
124 were collected from the top 20cm of soil from un-vegetated sites that were fire-affected,
125 recovered from fire, and reference. The original study did not analyze weighted mean operon
126 count.

127 *Results and discussion*

128 For each study, we calculated weighted mean operon count by summing the relative
129 abundance of each taxa multiplied by its copy number as determined by PICRUSt (Langille et
130 al., 2013), replicating the previous analyses of copy number as a community-level aggregated
131 trait (Nemergut et al., 2015; DeAngelis et al., 2015). We first reproduced the analyses that
132 showed that operon count decreased over resource-based succession (**Fig S1A-B**; Nemergut et
133 al., 2015). In agreement with the previous reports, and, as expected, operon count decreased
134 over succession with colonization of the sterile mesocosms and soils that had more recently

135 experienced fire (4 months recovered) had higher operon counts than soils that had were further
136 removed from the time of disturbance (29 months recovered). This agrees with the previously
137 posed hypothesis of copiotroph colonizers followed by oligotroph successors during resource-
138 based primary succession (Nemergut et al. 2015).

139 We next reproduced the analysis that showed that operon count after experimental long-
140 term soil warming at Harvard Forest had higher operon count in reference soils than in warmed
141 soils, as an example of secondary succession (**Fig S1C**; Kruskal-Wallis test, $p < 0.001$, $H = 19.38$).
142 We then added an analysis of our own published dataset of post-press succession in Centralia. In
143 Centralia, fire-affected soils had lower operon count than recovered soils, which had lower
144 operon count than reference soils (**Fig 1A**; $p = 0.002$, $H = 12.07$). This suggests that, over post-
145 press succession, operon count decreases at/during disturbance and then increases during
146 recovery. Thus, relative to reference soils, post-press succession can exhibit an opposite pattern
147 than resource-based succession. An interpretation of this may be that the relative number of
148 copiotrophs increases with time from disturbance in this scenario. During post-press succession,
149 it may be that operon count patterns are conditional on 1) persistence of some members of the
150 local community given the disturbance (e.g., an unsterile starting environment and the local pool
151 of dormant organisms); 2) the contribution of important drivers other than changes in resource
152 quality and availability; and 3) competitive differences in the community members to the
153 disturbance, resulting in differential survivorship and proliferation.

154 Overall, these results agree with previous studies: operon count is an aggregated
155 community trait that can inform patterns of microbial succession. However, we show that operon
156 count patterns over resource-based and post-press succession can be opposing. A more nuanced
157 interpretation of operon count dynamics may be necessary to inform drivers of post-press

158 succession, and a specific consideration of the conditions of resource-based succession
159 (exogenous/endogenous and autotrophic/heterotrophic), driven by changes in resource
160 availability from a “blank slate” environment (Fierer et al., 2010) will be informative for
161 predicting trait-based outcomes. Furthermore, the correlation between copiotrophy and
162 ribosomal operon count is still unclear and investigations into other genomic features such
163 genomic architecture (e.g. position of genes) or genome size may provide a more complete
164 picture (Klappenbach et al., 2000; Vieira-Silva and Rocha, 2010).

165 Next, we assessed the patterns of microbial pathways involved in initiating or regulating
166 microbial dormancy (Lennon and Jones, 2011). We focused on: sporulation factors (*spo* genes)
167 that are generally conserved among Firmicutes (Onyenwoke *et al.*, 2004); toxin-antitoxin
168 systems (*hipA/B*, *MazF/E*, *RelB/E*, and *DinJ/YafQ*) that are phylogenetically distributed among
169 Gram-positive bacteria, Gram-negative bacteria, and archaea (Pandey and Gerdes, 2005) and
170 commonly detected in metagenomes (Lennon and Jones, 2011); and resuscitation promoting
171 factors (*rpfC*) that are conserved among Actinobacteria with homologs among some Firmicutes
172 (Ravagnani et al., 2005). While these are not an exhaustive set of dormancy genes, they represent
173 the major known strategies and lineages of microbes capable of dormancy (Lennon and Jones,
174 2011). We used PICRUSt to reconstruct metagenome content for each study and queried these
175 for dormancy genes. Over primary succession, there were general decreases in dormancy genes
176 over time (**Fig 2A and B**). In the forest fire dataset, post-forest fire soils had more dormancy
177 genes than reference soils (**Fig 2B**; $H=8.23$, $p=0.004$). Over secondary succession, there were
178 relatively more dormancy genes in reference and recovered soils as compared to fire-affected
179 soils in Centralia (**Fig 1B**; $H=41.093$, $p<0.01$) and warmed soils in the Harvard Forest (**Fig 2C**;
180 $H=198.02$, $p<0.01$). Inclusive of all studies, there was a positive relationship (Spearman's ρ =

181 0.44-0.78, $p < 0.001$) between weighted mean operon count and dormancy gene abundance,
182 suggesting a possible link between copiotrophy and potential for dormancy. Thus, we analyzed
183 publicly available bacterial genomes to determine if there was a relationship between operon
184 counts and dormancy potential (assessed using rrnDB; Lee et al., 2008). We found that genomes
185 with more ribosomal operons were likely to also contain dormancy genes (**Fig S2**; $H=1326.6$,
186 $p < 0.01$).

187 There are limitations in using metagenome reconstruction from 16S rRNA gene amplicon
188 libraries and some discussion about the accuracy of ancestral state reconstruction for
189 environmental microorganisms that are not well represented in genome databases (Langille et al.,
190 2013). Thus, we performed complementary analyses to estimate ribosomal operon counts and
191 dormancy genes using annotated metagenomes that also were sequenced from *Centralia* soils.
192 We used the abundances of the tRNA genes instead of 16S rRNA genes due to the difficulties in
193 assembling 16S rRNA genes. There was a strong correlation between 16S rRNA and tRNA
194 abundance ($r^2=0.8$ and 0.96 in our dataset), as previously reported (Lee et al., 2008).
195 Additionally, we analyzed operon count in *Centralia* soils using the ribosomal operon database
196 (rrnDB; Lee et al., 2008), and there was a strong correlation ($\rho=0.86$, $p < 0.01$) between ribosomal
197 operon counts estimated by PICRUSt and the rrnDB (**Fig S3**).

198 Normalized tRNA abundance was significantly higher in recovered soils than fire-
199 affected soils (**Fig 1C**; $F=127.19$, $p=0.005$). This suggests that operon count per genome was
200 decreased due to the fire and that fewer copiotrophic bacteria were present. We also observed
201 more dormancy genes in reference and recovered soils than in fire affected soils (**Fig 1D**; toxins-
202 $F=4.13$, $p=0.04$, sporulation- $F=27.18$, $p < 0.01$), however, no significant effect was found for
203 resuscitation promoting factors ($F=1.82$, $p=0.07$). Our results show an unexpected agreement in

204 pattern between metagenome analysis, rrnDB analysis, and metagenome reconstruction from 16S
205 rRNA gene sequences (**Fig S3, Fig 1C**). This suggests that though databases may be limited, the
206 metagenome patterns derived from 16S rRNA gene sequences were robust across multiple
207 methodologies.

208 The results presented here suggest nuances in patterns of ribosomal operon count
209 between resource-based and post-press microbial succession. In resource-based succession, fast
210 growers with high ribosomal operon count are favored by the high resource availability in early
211 succession (rich media and new resource availability following forest fire). Furthermore, early
212 colonizers also had higher potential for dormancy, as assessed by dormancy gene abundances.
213 Recent work suggests that many microorganisms have limited long-range dispersal capabilities,
214 and that colonization of a blank-slate environment likely occurs from regional metacommunities
215 (Martiny et al., 2006). The mesocosms investigated by Nemergut et al., (2015) had a diversity of
216 colonizers. However, there was consistent detection of taxa from the endospore-forming
217 Firmicutes phylum when nutrients were high, which is counterintuitive to what has been
218 previously shown (Jones and Lennon, 2010). The early mesocosm colonization of taxa with
219 dormancy potential may be reflective of the general hardiness and high dispersal potential of
220 dormant cells (Müller et al., 2014), and their ability to grow rapidly.

221 In contrast to the patterns following resource-based succession, post-press succession
222 case studies had a decrease in ribosomal operon count and dormancy traits with time and relative
223 to reference soils. Increased temperature directly stresses cells and alters soil biogeochemistry. In
224 Centralia, extreme temperatures impose a harsh environment that may also favor oligotrophic
225 growth. Though we do not know how representative they are, the post-press succession case
226 studies presented suggests an overall reduction in microbiome dormancy potential after a press

227 stressor. This is important because dormancy has been linked to the preservation of ecosystem
228 function following disturbance (Aanderud et al., 2015; Kearns et al., 2016) and it suggests lower
229 community resilience to future stressors. Data from the recovered soils in Lee and Sorensen et
230 al., (2017) suggests partial recovery of dormancy genes following release of the stressor. It
231 would be interesting to test whether the partial recovery of dormancy genes can be attributed to
232 immigration from the regional species pool. Nonetheless, while dormant taxa and rare microbial
233 taxa may provide reservoirs of microbial diversity and function (Shade et al., 2014), we propose
234 that the loss of dormancy potential can alter subsequent post-disturbance successions and
235 microbial functional responses to future disturbances.

236 Though, in some cases, dormancy genes and operon counts were positively correlated,
237 we do not expect this to be universal for all microorganisms and ecosystems. The observed
238 relationship between dormancy gene abundance and operon counts may be due to the general
239 phylogenetic conservation of some of the dormancy genes (e.g., *spo* genes and *rpf*), as operon
240 count often also is conserved or similar within lineages (Lee et al., 2008). While the operon
241 counts of genomes containing toxin-antitoxin genes was higher ($p < 0.01$, $H = 1326.6$) than those
242 from genomes in which no dormancy genes were detected, the overall correlation between toxin-
243 antitoxin systems and operon count was low relative to the other dormancy genes (Spearman's
244 $\rho = 0.44$ compared to 0.78). Among the dormancy genes investigated here, toxin-antitoxin genes
245 are most phylogenetically broad and least specific to dormancy strategies (e.g. involved in other
246 pathways), suggesting that dormancy potential is not necessarily linked to operon count or
247 heterotrophic strategy in all situations. We are yet unable to fully catalogue this trait because of
248 limitations in annotation of unknown, divergent and novel dormancy genes. An improved

249 understanding of the phylogenetic conservation of dormancy genes will inform their relationship
250 with heterotrophic strategy (Martiny et al., 2015).

251 In investigating patterns of post-press succession, informative comparisons are made to
252 reference dynamics and recovered conditions. Operon count and dormancy gene abundance did
253 not return to reference levels after 33 months of recovery in Ferrenberg et al. 2013 (**Fig 3**).
254 However, both post-press succession studies had a lower abundance of these traits relative to
255 reference soils. Though data from Lee and Sorensen et al., (2017) indicate a partial recovery of
256 traits following stressor release, the degree of recovery after mild soil warming is unknown yet
257 (DeAngelis et al., 2015). We highlight the need for observation of reference communities to
258 better understand the dynamics occurring during succession, and for inclusion of recovery time
259 points to fully understand long-term trait dynamics and their associated ecosystem functions.
260 Post-disturbance succession, whether pulse or press, may necessarily be more nuanced towards
261 disturbance characteristics and its specificity to hinder or advantage the growth of certain
262 populations. For example, changes in community structure due to temperature increases will not
263 be the same as changes due to salinity or pH, but in combining case studies, it may be possible to
264 observe overarching patterns in the traits of taxa both sensitive and tolerant to disturbances.

265 In conclusion, we have presented a revised conceptual framework for microbial
266 succession and four case studies to suggest that, in addition to weighted ribosomal operon count,
267 dormancy potential is a microbial trait that could be useful for interpreting nuanced patterns of
268 microbial succession. Because they may enhance ecosystem stability via member persistence,
269 taxa that employ dormancy strategies likely play key roles in post-disturbance succession. In
270 addition, regional taxa that employ dormancy strategies robust to dispersal may serve as
271 important pioneers in resource-based succession. The case studies here can speak only to

272 endogenous heterotrophic succession, but autotrophic and exogenous heterotrophic succession
273 may benefit from initially dormant pioneers as well. More synergistic analyses of studies are
274 needed to understand the generalities of microbial succession, including autotrophic, exogenous
275 heterotrophic, post-pulse, and post-pulse scenarios. Ultimately, linking changes in these and
276 other microbial traits to changes in function will allow for improved prediction of ecosystem
277 outcomes over both resource-based and post-pulse succession.

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- 346

347 **Figure legends**

348 **Figure 1- Two microbial traits, ribosomal operon count and dormancy potential, are**
349 **depressed in fire-affected soils relative to recovering and reference soils.** Plot of weighted
350 mean ribosomal copy number (A) and log₁₀ abundance of dormancy genes (B) in *Centrاليا* soils
351 as estimated by PICRUSt, and metagenomic analysis of relativized tRNA abundance (C) and
352 dormancy gene abundance (D). Relativized tRNA abundance is used in place of 16S rRNA
353 operon count due to the difficulty assembling rRNA and the high correlation between tRNA and
354 rRNA abundances. Points are means and error bars are standard error of the mean. Note differing
355 scales between A-D.

356 **Figure 2- Genes underlying dormancy strategies generally decrease during resource-based**
357 **(A,C) and post-press succession (B).** Dormancy genes (sporulation factors, toxin-antitoxin
358 systems, and resuscitation promoting factors) were estimated using PICRUSt. Numbers above
359 boxes in (A) show the times the mesocosms were sampled (h). No resuscitation promoting
360 factors were found in (A). Note the differing y-axis ranges between panels.

361

362 **Figure 3. Schematic of the dynamics of microbial traits in case studies of endogenous**
363 **resource-based (A,B) and post-press (C,D) succession.** All studies had decreases in ribosomal
364 operon count and dormancy potential after disturbance, but the patterns were different with
365 respect to reference soils. Specifically, operon counts and dormancy gene abundances over post-
366 press succession studies were lower relative to reference, while they were higher in resource-
367 based succession.

368 **Table 1. Table contrasting the characteristics of microbial succession and their**
 369 **relationships to concepts in plant ecology and microbial ecology.**

<i>Term used in this study</i>	Resource-based succession	Post-disturbance succession
Microbial ecology terms	e.g, Autotrophic, endogenous heterotrophic, exogenous heterotrophic (Fierer et al. 2010)	e.g., post-press, post-pulse (this work)
Plant ecology term	Primary	Secondary
Initial environment	Sterile/near sterile	Not sterile/previously colonized
Primary Driver	Resource changes	Disturbance, indirect drivers eg. plants, pH
Trophic progression	Copiotrophic to oligotrophic	Oligotrophic to oligotrophic or oligotrophic to copiotrophic expected for most soils, but will depend on the pre-disturbance conditions
References	Fierer et al. (2010), Nemergut et al. (2015)	This work
Case studies analyzed here	Ferrenberg et al. (2013): forest fire-affected bacterial communities and the subsequent recovery of these communities. Nemergut et al. (2015): shifts in rrn copy number in 4 nutrient-based succession studies	DeAngelis et al. (2015): mild warming affected bacterial communities after 20 years. Lee and Sorensen et al. (2017): shifts and subsequent recovery of bacterial communities in response to an underground coal fire.

370

371

372 *Supporting information accompanies this manuscript*

373 **Supporting figure legends**

374 **Figure S1- As a community-level microbial trait linked to heterotrophic strategy, weighted**
 375 **mean community ribosomal copy number decreased over time in a nutrient-rich mesocosm**
 376 **experiment (A), increased relative to reference soils during resource-based succession (B),**
 377 **and decreased relative to reference soils during post-press succession (C). Weighted mean**
 378 **ribosomal gene copy number was calculated from 16S rRNA gene surveys for resource-based**

379 succession studies (A) Nemergut et al., (2015) and (B) Ferrenberg et al., (2013) and for the post-
380 press succession study from DeAngelis et al., (2015) (C).

381 **Figure S2- The number of ribosomal operons in cultivated bacteria is higher for taxa with**
382 **dormancy strategies.** Ribosomal operon counts for genomes in NCBI. The category ‘none’
383 refers to taxa without a significant BLASTn hit for any of the three dormancy strategies
384 examined here. Letters indicate groups that are significantly different based on a Kruskal-Wallis
385 test with a Dunn Test for multiple comparisons.

386 **Figure S3- There is agreement between methods to estimate ribosomal operon count based**
387 **on 16S rRNA amplicon data.** Biplot of weighted mean ribosomal operon count estimated using
388 PICRUSt and the ribosomal operon database. Datasets have a strong correlation ($\rho=0.86$,
389 $p<0.01$).

390

391 **Supporting table**

392 Table S1- Case studies analyzed in this piece.

393

394

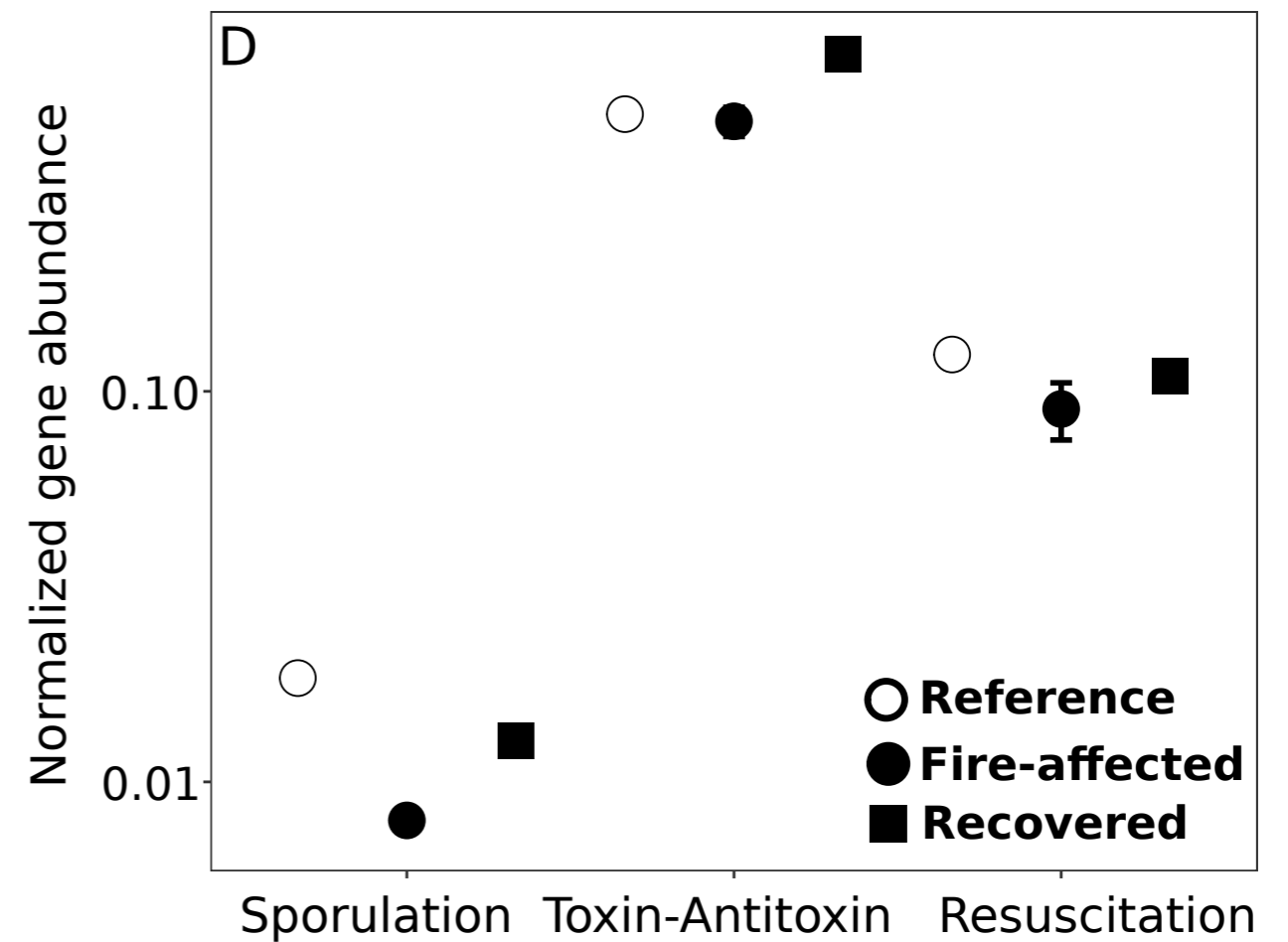
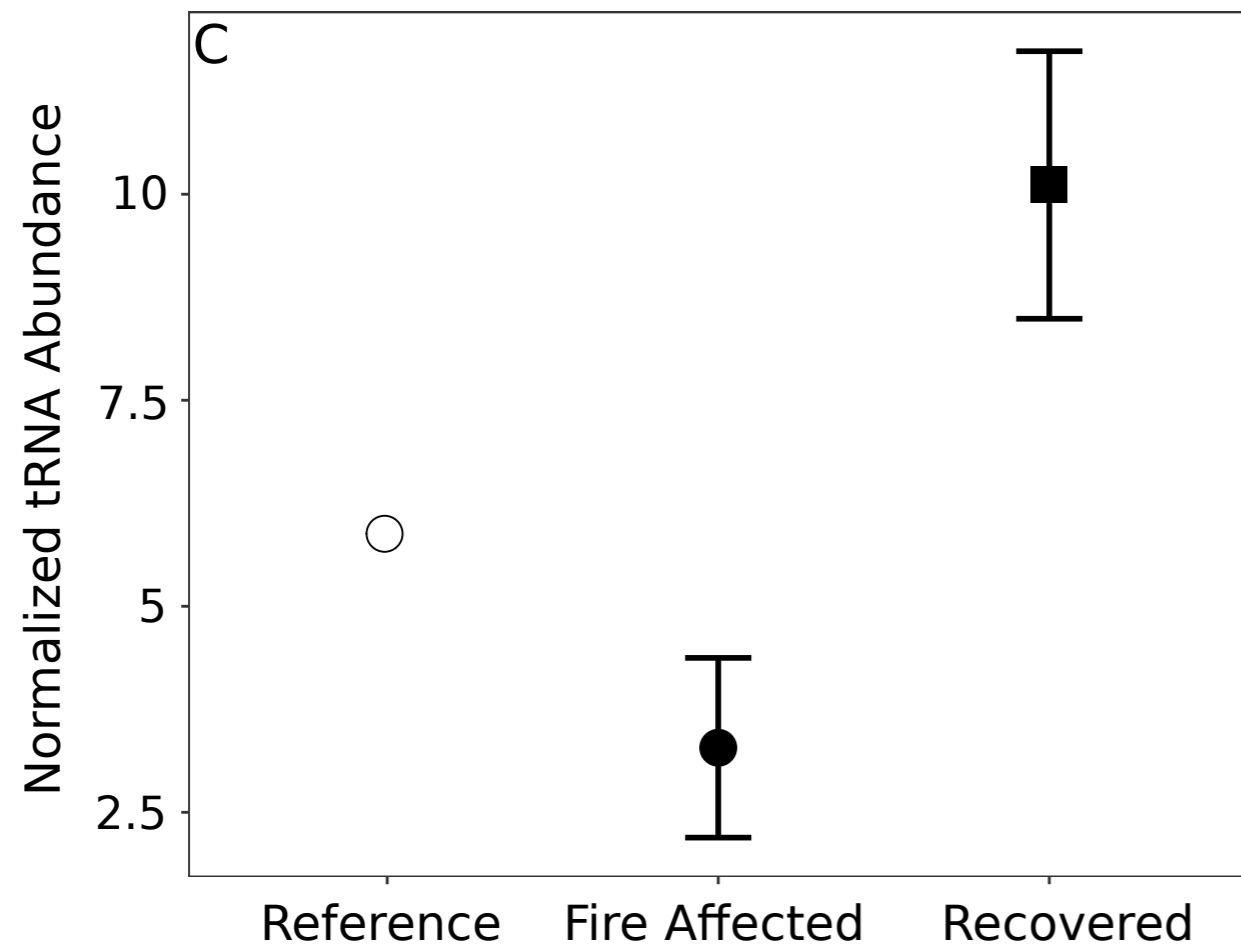
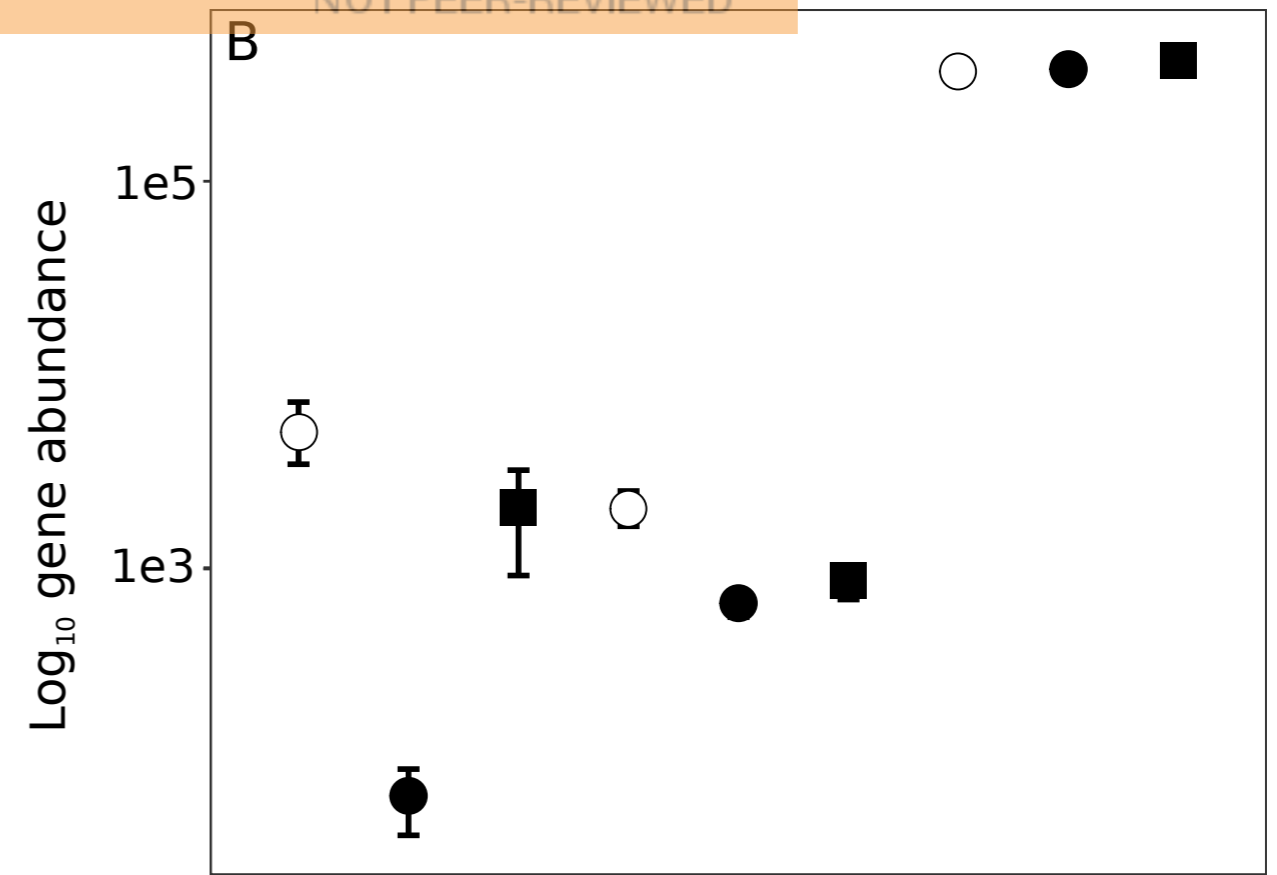
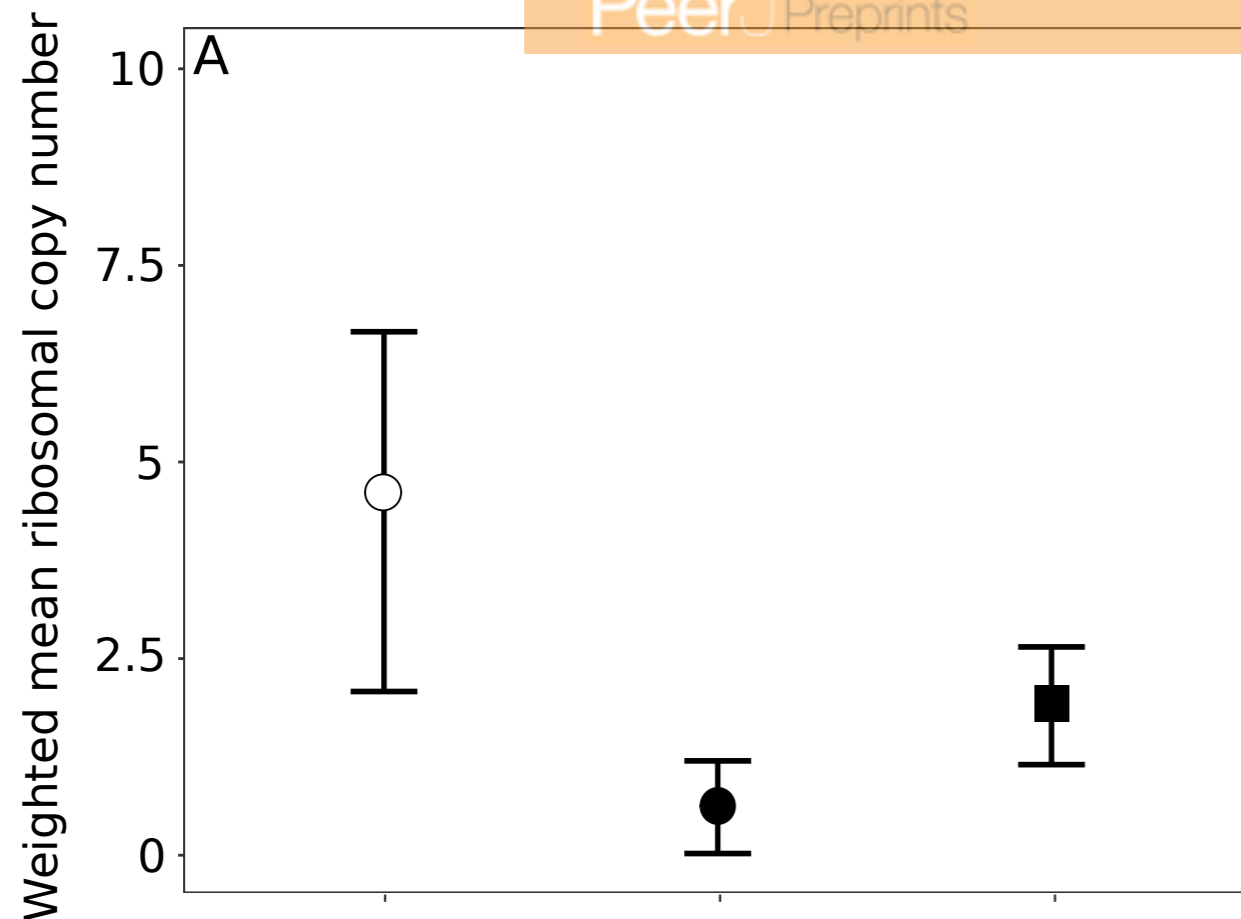
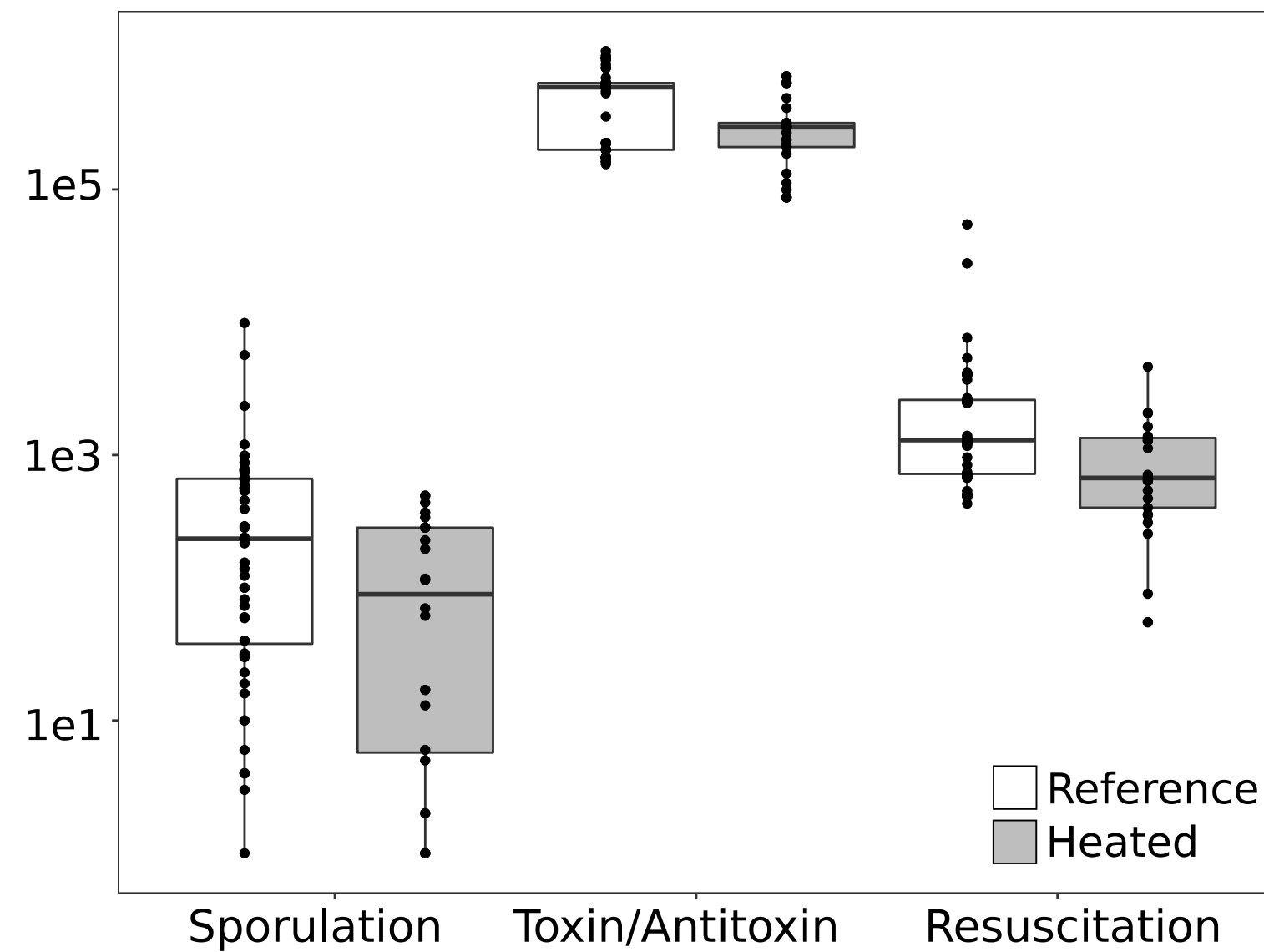
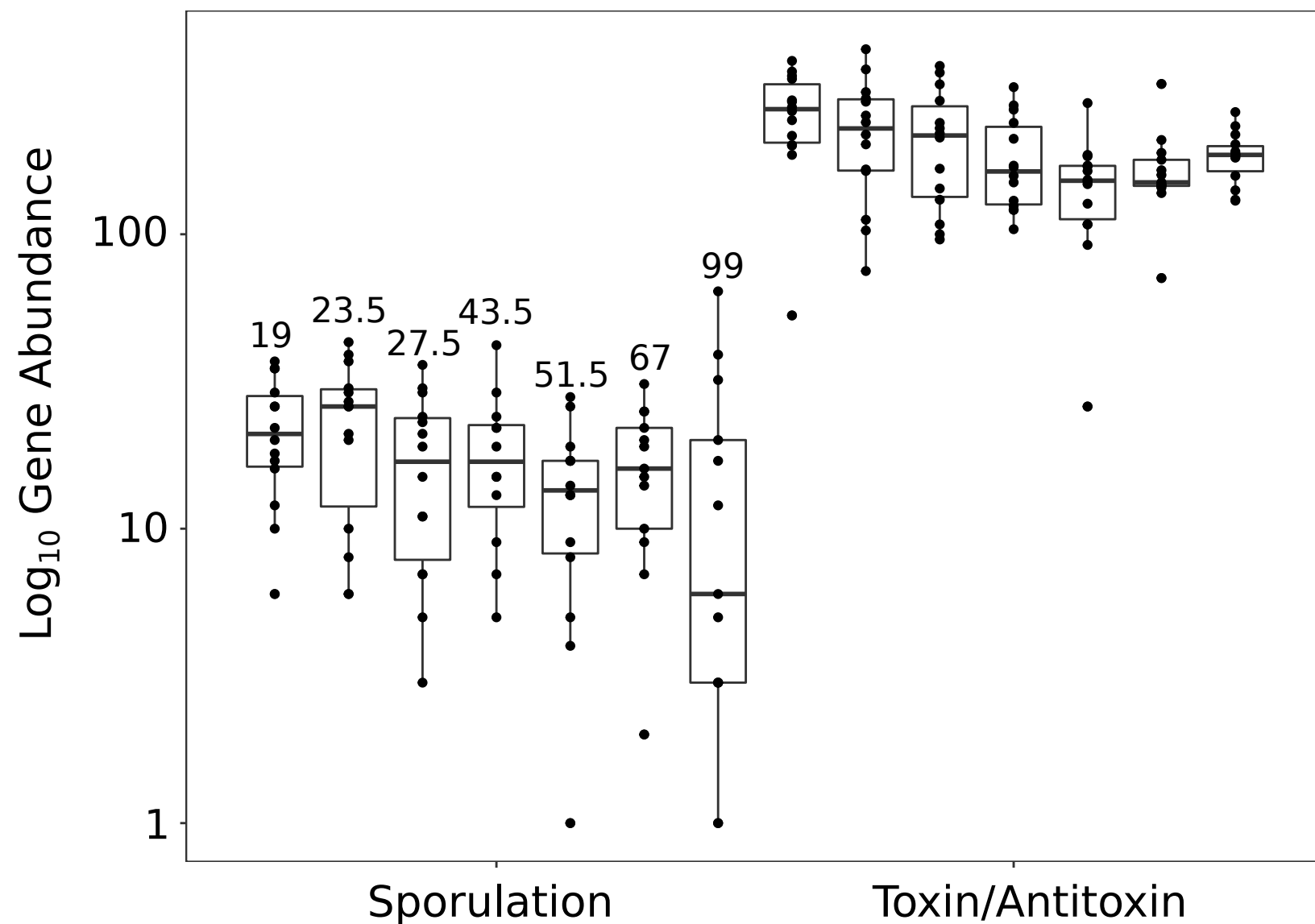


Figure 2

(A) Nemergut et al., (2015)

(B) DeAngelis et al., (2015)



(C) Ferrenberg et al., (2013)

