

1 **Lower functional redundancy in “narrow” than “broad” functions in global soil**
2 **metagenomics**

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24 **Abstract**

25 Understanding the relationship between soil microbial taxonomic compositions and
26 functional profiles is essential for predicting ecosystem functions under various
27 environmental disturbances. However, even though microbial communities are sensitive
28 to disturbance, ecosystem functions remain relatively stable, as soil microbes are likely to
29 be functionally redundant. Microbial functional redundancy may be more associated with
30 “broad” functions carried out by a wide range of microbes, than with “narrow” functions
31 specialized by specific microorganisms. Thus, a comprehensive study to evaluate how
32 microbial taxonomic compositions correlate with “broad” and “narrow” functional
33 profiles is necessary. Here, we evaluated soil metagenomes worldwide to assess whether
34 functional and taxonomic diversities differ significantly between the five “broad” and the
35 five “narrow” functions that we chose. Our results revealed that compared with the five
36 “broad” functions, soil microbes capable of performing the five “narrow” functions were
37 more taxonomically diverse, and thus their functional diversity was more dependent on
38 taxonomic diversity, implying lower levels of functional redundancy in “narrow”
39 functions. Co-occurrence networks indicated that microorganisms conducting “broad”
40 functions were positively related, but microbes specializing “narrow” functions were
41 interacting mostly negatively. Our study provides strong evidence to support our
42 hypothesis that functional redundancy is significantly different between “broad” and
43 “narrow” functions in soil microbes, as the association of functional diversity with
44 taxonomy were greater in the five “narrow” rather than the five “broad” functions.

45

46 **Keywords** Functional redundancy, Soil metagenomics, Functional traits, Taxonomic
47 compositions,

48

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Microbial communities often exhibit incredible taxonomic diversity, with one gram of
51 soil harboring millions of microbial species (Gans et al., 2005). However, how such
52 diversity governs microbial functional potential and ecosystem processes is largely
53 unknown. Though microbial taxonomic composition is generally sensitive to disturbance
54 and often does not rapidly recover (Allison and Martiny, 2008), it is unclear how changes
55 in microbial community composition would regulate ecosystem functioning. Mechanistic
56 understanding of microbial systems, including microbial taxonomic compositions and
57 functional potential, is essential for predicting ecosystem functioning under various
58 environmental disturbances (Torsvik and Øvreås, 2002; Wellington et al., 2003; McGill et
59 al., 2006).

60 Though microbial community composition usually shifts in response to disturbance,
61 ecosystem functions could remain relatively stable due to functional redundancy (Allison
62 and Martiny, 2008). Microbial functional redundancy is an inevitable emergent property
63 of microbial systems (Louca et al., 2018), as some metabolic functions can be performed
64 by multiple species, which may thus be substitutable in certain ecosystem processes
65 (Rosenfeld, 2002), implying that microbial taxonomy and function can be decoupled
66 (Louca et al., 2016; Louca et al., 2017). The concept of functional redundancy can be
67 “strict redundancy” meaning that microorganisms sharing the exact same set of functions
68 can easily substitute each other, or alternatively “partial redundancy” denoting that

69 microbes have similarity in certain functions but still harbor difference in other functions,
70 leading to partially dissimilar ecological requirements or environmental preference
71 (Galand et al., 2018). In addition, microbial functional redundancy may be caused by
72 more than just metabolic processes but other mechanical response to environmental
73 disturbance, such as different foraging strategies, particles attachment and biofilm
74 formation, nitrogen source usage, and resistance to antibiotics, which are difficult to be
75 thoroughly evaluated in the current approach mostly focusing on metabolic redundancy
76 (Louca et al., 2018).

77 Microbial functional redundancy has been mainly observed in “broad” ecosystem
78 processes (Yin et al., 2000;Rousk et al., 2009;Banerjee et al., 2016), but is perhaps less
79 significant in “narrow” functions specialized by certain microorganisms (Schimel,
80 1995;Balsler et al., 2002). However, some studies simulating microbial diversity reduction
81 and physiological processes challenged the hypothesis of microbial redundancy in soil
82 microbes (Peter et al., 2011;Philippot et al., 2013;Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2016).

83 Microbial functional redundancy is inevitable when a high-dimensional trait space is
84 projected to a lower-dimensional function space of interest (Louca et al., 2018). Such
85 apparent contradictory results suggest the degree of functional redundancy may arise
86 from the definition of “redundancy” in different studies, our limitations in measuring the
87 factors controlling niche space, and more importantly depending on the function of
88 interest. Microbes conducting “broad” metabolic functions, such as carbon
89 decomposition, are likely to distribute across most taxa (Crowther et al., 2019) and
90 associate with high level of functional redundancy (Beier et al., 2017;Rivett and Bell,
91 2018). “Narrow” functions, such as nitrification or methanogenesis, may be restricted to a

92 few phylogenetic clades (Schimel and Gullede, 1998), and are hypothesized to exhibit
93 less redundancy than “broad” functions (Schimel, 1995; Rocca et al., 2015). Today,
94 multifunctionality (Hector and Bagchi, 2007) has to be accounted for to avoid
95 overestimating functional redundancy (Gamfeldt et al., 2008). By assessing multiple
96 functions, the relationship between microbial diversity and ecosystem function can be
97 better quantified in the soil (Bastida et al., 2016; Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2016).

98 Nowadays, metagenomics have been increasingly used as a promising comparative
99 tool (Tringe et al., 2005) to study the relationship between functional and taxonomic
100 diversities (Fierer et al., 2012a; Fierer et al., 2012b; Fierer et al., 2013; Pan et al., 2014; Leff
101 et al., 2015; Souza et al., 2015). The growing wealth of soil metagenome data thus poised
102 well to aid in the generalization of global patterns of microbial attributes and
103 standardizing frameworks for consistent representation of microbial community (Chen et
104 al., 2021; Xu et al., 2021). However, a synthetic metagenomic analysis to assess how
105 general microbial taxonomic and functional diversities differ between “broad” and
106 “narrow” functions across the globe is still lacking.

107 Here, we constructed soil metagenomic datasets of taxonomic and functional
108 diversities of five “broad” and five “narrow” functions across seventeen climate zones.
109 We typically chose SEED Subsystems database (Overbeek et al., 2013) that has diverse
110 classification at level 1, allowing us to conduct comparison between “broad” versus
111 “narrow” functions. We selected five “narrow” functions, namely N (Nitrogen
112 Metabolism), P (Phosphorous Metabolism), K (Potassium Metabolism), S (Sulfur
113 Metabolism), and Fe (Iron Acquisition and Metabolism). These are typical functional
114 categories of specific nutrient cycling in Subsystems Level 1 and are only performed by

115 certain groups of soil microbes (Schimel, 1995). The five “broad” functions selected were
116 AAD (Amino Acids and Derivatives), CHO (Carbohydrates), CBS (Clustering-based
117 Subsystems), CVPGP (Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments), and Protein
118 (Protein Metabolism), which are the most abundant functional categories in Subsystems
119 level 1, and represent broad-scale functions acquired by a relatively larger group of
120 diverse soil microbes (Balsler et al., 2002). We further constructed the pairwise similarity
121 of function and taxonomy based on the relative abundance of functional and taxonomic
122 compositions, respectively, for the five “broad” and the five “narrow” functions. We
123 hypothesized that the taxonomic similarity of soil microbes would be more linearly
124 correlated to the functional similarity for the five “narrow” functions in comparison to the
125 five “broad” functions. Therefore, using these global soil metagenomes, our objective
126 was to test whether the taxonomic compositions of soil microbes that conduct the five
127 “narrow” functions are more dependent on the functional compositions, leading to a
128 lower level of functional redundancy in the “narrow” functions than the “broad”
129 functions.

130

131 **2. Materials and Methods**

132 **2.1. Data collection**

133 To ensure that the quality and completeness of the metagenomes analyzed were of
134 standard, we carefully selected soil metagenomes in MG-RAST server that have been
135 published in peer-reviewed journals. We searched peer-reviewed publications from 2012
136 to 2018 from the Web of Science database using search terms such as “soil
137 metagenome”, “shotgun sequencing”, and “MG-RAST” to source the metagenomic data

138 used in this study to their publications. We included soil metagenomes publicly available
139 in the MG-RAST database that are generated using shotgun sequencing without
140 amplification or that were directly deposited by peer-reviewed studies into the MG-
141 RAST database. We then extracted data matrix of taxonomic and functional compositions
142 of soil metagenomes from MG-RAST public server (<https://www.mg-rast.org/>) based on
143 the Study ID and/or MG-RAST ID reported in the publications. Details of each soil
144 metagenome extracted from publications and MG-RAST database was given in Table S1.

145 The functional database that we used in this study, SEED Subsystems, is a
146 categorization system which organizes gene functional categories into a hierarchy with
147 three levels of resolution (Level 3, 2 and 1) (Overbeek et al., 2013). To download the
148 taxonomic compositions to soil microbes to conduct “broad” and “narrow” functions, for
149 each soil metagenome, in the ‘Analysis’ function of the MG-RAST server
150 (<https://www.mg-rast.org/mgmain.html?mgpage=analysis>), we loaded both SEED
151 Subsystems (Level 3, 2 and 1) as functional profiles and RefSeq (Tatusova et al., 2013)
152 databases (genus, family, order, class, and phylum levels) as taxonomic compositions
153 (Chen et al., 2021). The detailed protocols of MG-RAST server were followed to analyze
154 the metagenomic functions (Meyer et al., 2008;Wilke et al., 2017). To obtain the
155 taxonomic compositions of soil microbes that conduct the selected “broad” and “narrow”
156 functions, we chose ‘RefSeq’ as source and ‘genus’ as level, and in ‘function filter’ we
157 added the functional categories in Subsystems Level 1 that we are interested in, including
158 five “broad” functions of AAD (Amino Acids and Derivatives), CHO (Carbohydrates),
159 CBS (Clustering-based Subsystems), CVPGP (Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups,
160 Pigments), and Protein (Protein Metabolism), of which the relative abundance was 5-

161 13%. The functions of AAD, CHO, CBS, CVPGP, and Protein were the most abundant
162 functional categories in Subsystems Level 1, which were used to represent broad-scale
163 functions acquired by a large group of diverse soil microbes. Correspondingly, five
164 “narrow” functions were chosen, namely N (Nitrogen Metabolism), P (Phosphorous
165 Metabolism), K (Potassium Metabolism), S (Sulfur Metabolism), and Fe (Iron
166 Acquisition and Metabolism), of which the relative abundance was 0.8-1.4%, as these are
167 typical functional categories of specific nutrient cycling in Subsystems Level 1 and are
168 only performed by certain groups of soil microbes. The genus level was used as the
169 taxonomic classification level across different datasets. Following default setting in MG-
170 RAST, if the species were classified into the higher classification levels than genus but
171 failed to be identified at the genus level, they were classified into “unclassified” groups.
172 Across different studies, there were 2.16 ± 0.85 % of sequences belonging to the
173 “unclassified” groups, showing that most taxonomic groups could be classified into the
174 genus level. Total hits of taxonomic compositions of soil microbes conducting each
175 function at Subsystems Level 1 were calculated as the sums of hits in different taxonomic
176 categories at RefSeq genus level.

177 The comparative metagenomic analyses were performed using default settings
178 (maximum e-value cutoff = $1e^{-5}$, minimum identity cutoff = 60%, and minimum
179 alignment length = 50) (Meyer et al., 2008). We then merged the taxonomic compositions
180 of data matrix of each functions extracted from different studies together to generate new
181 datasets of microbial taxonomic compositions annotated by the RefSeq database. The
182 reason why we chose the Subsystems database for functional grouping rather than KEGG
183 Orthology (KO) (Kanehisa et al., 2015), Clusters of Orthologous Groups (COG)

184 (Galperin et al., 2014), and Non-supervised Orthologous Groups (NOG) (Huerta-Cepas et
185 al., 2015) databases was that Subsystems had more diverse classification at Level 1,
186 allowing us to conduct direct comparison between “broad” versus “narrow” functions.
187 We chose RefSeq database rather than the traditional ribosomal RNA databases, such as
188 RDP (Ribosomal Database Project) (Cole et al., 2008), Greengenes (DeSantis et al.,
189 2006), or Silva LSU/SSU (Pruesse et al., 2007) databases, because taxonomic hits in the
190 RefSeq database were over 1000-fold higher than the rRNA databases, rendering the
191 resolution comparable to functional hits for comparison between “broad” and “narrow”
192 functions. To increase the coverage of our datasets, soil metagenomes with/without
193 assembly were both included.

194 The geographic coordinates of latitudes (LAT) and longitudes (LONG) of each soil
195 metagenome were directly obtained from publications. Based on LAT and LONG,
196 climate data of mean annual temperature (MAT) and precipitation (MAP) of study sites
197 for each soil metagenome were extracted from the WorldClim dataset (Fick and Hijmans,
198 2017) using the R package ‘raster’ (Hijmans et al., 2015). To examine how microbial
199 taxonomic diversities of “broad” and “narrow” functions differ globally, soil
200 metagenomic data was classified into seventeen climate zones based on the main
201 classification of Koeppen-Geiger Climatic Zones (Kottek et al., 2006) using the R
202 package ‘kgc’ (Bryant et al., 2017).

203

204 **2.2. Statistical Analyses**

205 To minimize bias caused by different sequencing depths and read lengths among studies,
206 we standardize the hits of each taxonomic (or functional) category in each data to relative

207 abundance by dividing them by the total number of hits. To calculate the pairwise
208 similarity of taxonomy based on the relative taxonomic abundance at genus level of
209 microbes conducting the five “broad” and five “narrow” functions, we calculated Bray-
210 Curtis similarity following log transformation of the compositional taxonomic data by
211 constructing pairwise Bray-Curtis similarity matrix between each pair of two samples for
212 each functional categories at Subsystems database at Level 1, which were further
213 transformed to lists of pairwise Bray-Curtis similarities ordered by sample pair names in
214 PRIMER 7 (Plymouth Routines in Multivariate Ecological Research Statistical Software,
215 v7.0.13, PRIMER-E Ltd, UK) (Clarke and Gorley, 2015). To calculate the pairwise
216 similarity of function, based on the functional abundance at function gene level within
217 each of the five “broad” and five “narrow” functions, we calculated Bray-Curtis
218 similarity following log transformation of the compositional functional data by
219 constructing pairwise Bray-Curtis similarity matrix between each pair of two samples for
220 each functional categories at Subsystems database at Level 1, which were further
221 transformed to lists of pairwise Bray-Curtis similarities ordered by sample pair names in
222 PRIMER 7. To examine the relationship between functional and taxonomic diversities,
223 Pearson’s correlations were constructed between the transformed lists of pairwise Bray-
224 Curtis similarity of soil metagenomes annotated using Subsystems database at Level 3
225 (Function) and the RefSeq database at genus level (Taxonomy). The approaches for
226 processing the relative abundance of compositional data follow the requirements (Gloor
227 et al., 2017). To analyze the taxonomic composition structures of soil metagenomes
228 annotated using the RefSeq database at genus level (Taxonomy) of the five “broad” and
229 five “narrow” functions, PCoA (principal coordinates analysis) and PERMANOVA

230 (Permutational multivariate analysis of variance) were conducted using the pairwise
231 Bray-Curtis similarity matrix in PRIMER 7.

232 To compare microbial taxonomic compositions among the five “broad” and the five
233 “narrow” functions, one-factor PERMANOVA was conducted using the main test and
234 pair-wise test in PRIMER 7 with *P* values and Sq. root reported. Pearson’s correlations
235 were constructed to assess the relationships between functional and taxonomic diversities
236 in the “broad” and “narrow” functions with adjusted P-Square reported. A RELATE
237 analysis was also performed to evaluate the relatedness among “broad” and “narrow”
238 functions by calculating a Spearman’s Rho correlation coefficient in PRIMER 7. To
239 examine the relative abundance of dominant microbial at phylum and class level (mean >
240 1%) among the five “broad” and five “narrow” functions, heatmaps were constructed
241 using HeatMapper (Babicki et al., 2016). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with *P*
242 values adjusted by Bonferroni-correction for multiple comparisons was conducted using
243 SPSS 22.0 software (Chicago, IL, USA) to evaluate the differences in the relative
244 abundance of dominant taxonomic compositions (mean > 1%) among climate zones after
245 the normality of residues and homogeneity of variance were checked using Shapiro-Wilk
246 and Levene test, respectively. The significance level was set at $\alpha=0.05$ unless otherwise
247 stated. To calculate the statistical difference between the relative abundance of dominant
248 microbial taxonomic groups (mean > 1%) in the “broad” and “narrow” functions, LEfSe
249 (linear discriminant analysis effect size) method was used
250 (<http://huttenhower.sph.harvard.edu/lefse/>) (Segata et al., 2011). Venn’s diagrams were
251 constructed to visualize the amount of dominant microbial taxonomic groups at genus

252 levels or network nodes shared between the five “broad” and the five “narrow” functions
253 using InteractiVenn (Heberle et al., 2015).

254 To find out potential interactions of microbial taxonomic compositions between
255 “broad” and “narrow” functions across the globe, co-occurrence network analysis was
256 performed using the Molecular Ecological Network Analyses Pipeline
257 (<http://ieg4.rccc.ou.edu/MENA/>) (Zhou et al., 2011;Deng et al., 2012). To make the
258 minimum observed value close to but no less than 1 as required by the pipeline, the data
259 of relative abundance were multiplied by 10^6 , which would not change the correlation
260 coefficients. The data matrix of transformed data matrix was uploaded to construct the
261 network with default settings, including (1) keeping only the species present in more than
262 a half of all samples; (2) only filling with 0.01 in blanks with paired valid values; (3)
263 taking logarithm with recommended similarity matrix of Pearson’s correlation
264 coefficient; and (4) calculation ordered to decrease the cutoff from top using regress
265 poisson distribution only. A default cutoff value (similarity threshold, S_t) for the
266 similarity matrix was used to assign a link between the pair of species. After that, the
267 global network properties, the individual nodes' centrality, and the module separation and
268 modularity were analyzed based on default settings using greedy modularity
269 optimization. Network files were exported and visualized using Cytoscape software
270 (Shannon et al., 2003). The scatter plots of within-module connectivity (z_i) and among-
271 module connectivity (P_i) were constructed to show the network node distribution of
272 module-based topological roles of taxonomic compositions for the “broad” and “narrow”
273 functions. The threshold values of Z_i and P_i for categorizing were 2.5 and 0.62
274 respectively (Guimer àand Nunes Amaral, 2005;Olesen et al., 2006;Guimer àet al., 2007).

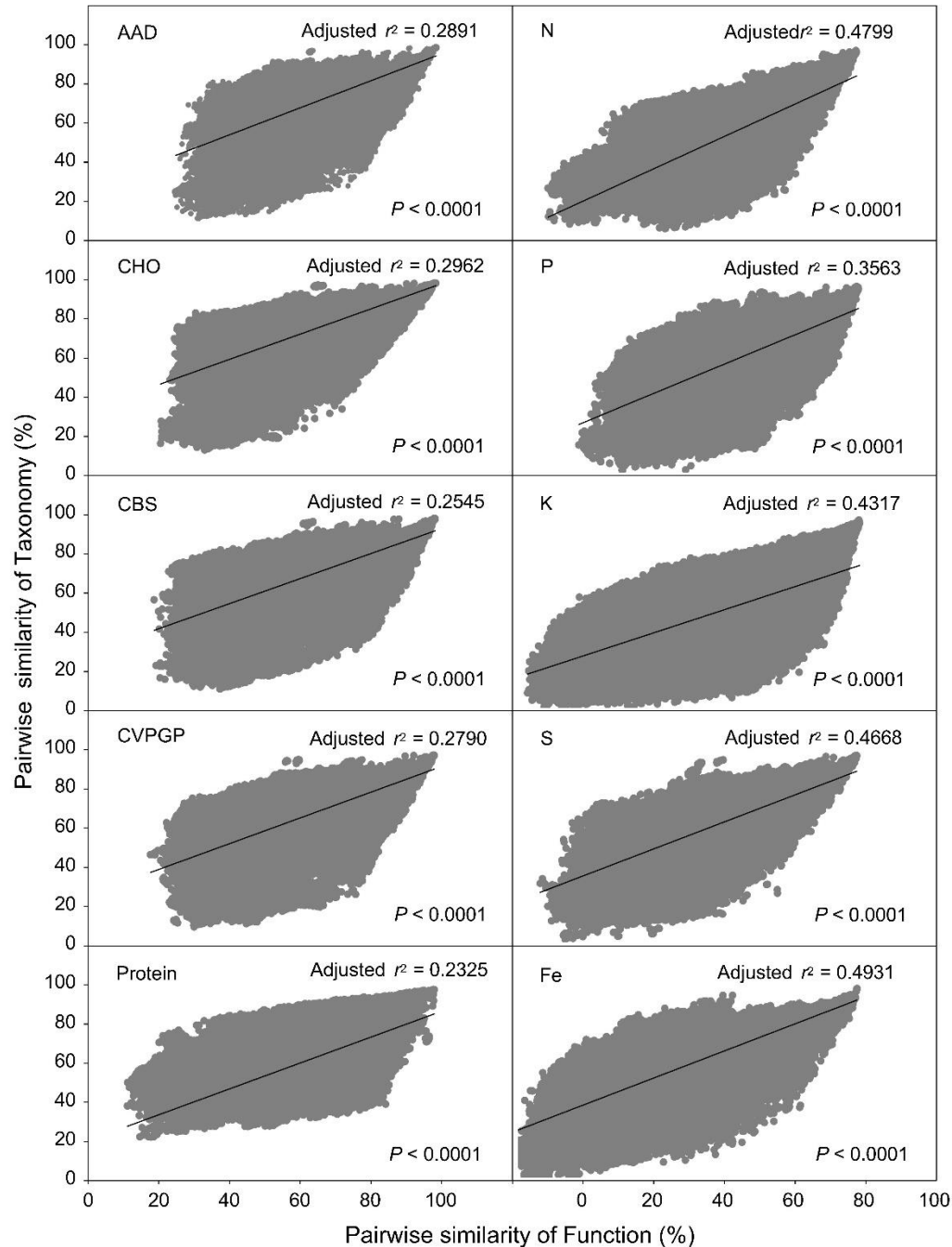
275 An overview of data acquisition, transformation, and analysis processes in this study was
276 given in Fig. S1.

277

278 **3. Results and Discussion**

279 **3.1. Microbial taxonomic compositions**

280 This study included 845 soil metagenomes across seventeen climate zones around the
281 world extracted from 56 MG-RAST studies published in 51 peer-reviewed papers. They
282 resulted in 356090 pairwise comparisons of Bray-curtis similarity in functional
283 (Subsystems L3) and taxonomic (RefSeq genus) diversities for the five “broad” and five
284 “narrow” functions, which were analyzed to find out whether the correlations of function
285 and taxonomy were greater in the five “narrow” functions. Overall, for the five “narrow”
286 functions, the positive correlations of the pairwise similarity of taxonomy and function
287 between either two samples ($r^2 = 0.36-0.49$) were greater than those for the five “broad”
288 functions ($r^2 = 0.23-0.29$) (Fig. 1). This suggests that rare phlotypes could be more
289 associated with narrow ecosystem processes than broad-scale functions, supporting the
290 notion that the abundance of particular specialists could influence narrow functional
291 measures (Peter et al., 2011; Rivett and Bell, 2018), leading to a lower degree of
292 functional redundancy associated with “narrow” functions, such as the nutrient cycling
293 examined in this study.



294

295 **Fig. 1. Relations between functional and taxonomic beta-diversities for “broad” and**
 296 **“narrow” functions.** Pearson’s correlations between pairwise Bray-curtis similarity of
 297 microbial taxonomic and functional compositions for “broad” and “narrow” functions
 298 annotated using Subsystems at function level (Function) and RefSeq at genus level
 299 (Taxonomy). Correlation adjusted r -squared and P values are given. “Broad” functions
 300 include AAD (Amino Acids and Derivatives), CHO (Carbohydrates), CBS (Clustering-

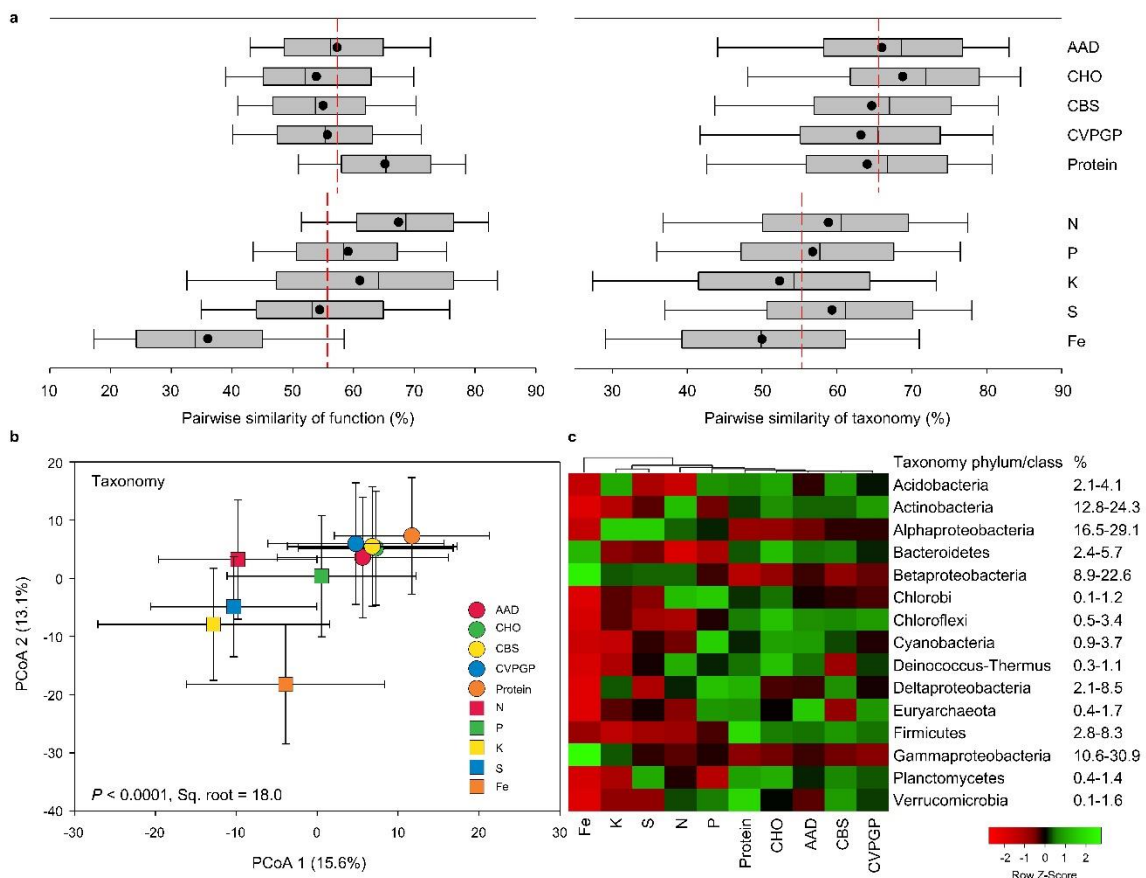
301 based Subsystems), CVPGP (Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments), and
302 Protein (Protein Metabolism). “Narrow” functions include N (Nitrogen Metabolism), P
303 (Phosphorous Metabolism), K (Potassium Metabolism), S (Sulfur Metabolism), and Fe
304 (Iron Acquisition and Metabolism).

305

306 Several soil metagenomic studies have reported a linear relationship between
307 functional and taxonomic diversities (Fierer et al., 2012b;Fierer et al., 2013;Leff et al.,
308 2015), indicating a somewhat dependency of microbial functional profiles on taxonomic
309 compositions. This dependency, however, does not necessarily imply an absence of
310 microbial functional redundancy. In fact, those studies all showed lower variation of beta-
311 diversity of metagenomic functions than taxonomy (Fierer et al., 2012b;Fierer et al.,
312 2013;Pan et al., 2014;Souza et al., 2015) or higher similarity in composition of functional
313 profiles than taxonomic composition (Leff et al., 2015). Those findings support that
314 microbial functions are relatively more stable than taxonomy responding to ecological
315 and environmental perturbations. In this study, the five “broad” and the five “narrow”
316 functions had relative abundance of 5-13% and 0.8-1.4%, respectively. Thus, the five
317 “broad” functions are more abundant than the five “narrow” functions. In addition, the
318 numbers of genes within the categories of the five “broad” functions were also greater
319 than those of the “narrow” functions. As the diversities of the microbes conducting the
320 five “broad” functions were also greater than those conducting the “narrow” functions,
321 we calculated the relationship between the diversities of taxonomy and of function, and
322 compared these relationships between the five “broad” and the five “narrow” functions.
323 Our study further evidenced a lower extent of functional redundancy in the five “narrow”
324 functions compared to the five “broad” functions despite the linear correlations found in
325 our study.

326 To compare similarity ranges of these two compositions related to the five “broad”
327 functions versus the five “narrow” functions, the boxplots were constructed based on the
328 pairwise similarity of function and taxonomy. For the functional compositions at specific
329 function gene levels, the average similarity of the five “broad” functional diversity (58%)
330 was comparable to that of the five “narrow” functions (56%) (Fig. 2a). However, the
331 pairwise similarity of the five “narrow” functions had larger variation, in which Fe
332 function had the lowest similarity of 36% and N function had the highest similarity of
333 69%. On the contrary, the taxonomic similarity of the five “broad” functions were
334 consistently greater (63-69%) than those of the five “narrow” functions (50-59%). The
335 PERMANOVA pairwise test was conducted to find out the difference between
336 taxonomic similarity of microbes conducting the five “broad” and the five “narrow”
337 functions based on the relative abundance. Our results indicated that the microbial
338 taxonomic compositions of the five “broad” functions were more phylogenetically
339 different from those of the five “narrow” functions (13-22%) than from each other (8-
340 13%) (Table S2). The RELATE test was also conducted to evaluate the relationship of
341 the taxonomic compositions of microbes conducting the five “broad” and the five
342 “narrow” functions. Our results confirmed that the microbial taxonomic compositions of
343 the five “broad” functions were more correlated with each other (0.97-0.99) than those of
344 the five “narrow” functions (0.77-0.94) (Table S3). When the microbial taxonomic
345 compositions of the ten functional categories were combined in PCoA analysis, the
346 resulting scatter plot showed that the five “broad” functions were grouped closely
347 together and separated from the five “narrow” functions (Fig. 2b). Grouping of the ten
348 functions generally explain up to 18.0% of the community difference, in which the five

349 “narrow” functions were more distinct from each other. These evidences together suggest
 350 that the taxonomic composition of soil microbes conducting the five “broad” functions
 351 were more conserved in taxonomy than those conducting the five “narrow” functions.
 352 However, it should be noted that the current analysis had some limitations as the
 353 metagenomics datasets consisted of sequencing data that are phylogenetically classified
 354 and assigned based on certain taxonomic and functional databases. Thus, our results may
 355 to some extent depend on the databases chosen, of which the classification and
 356 assignment may contain potential bias. Future studies should continue to test this
 357 hypothesis using regional samples and individual datasets.



358

359 **Fig. 2. Functional and taxonomic diversities for “broad” versus “narrow” functions.**

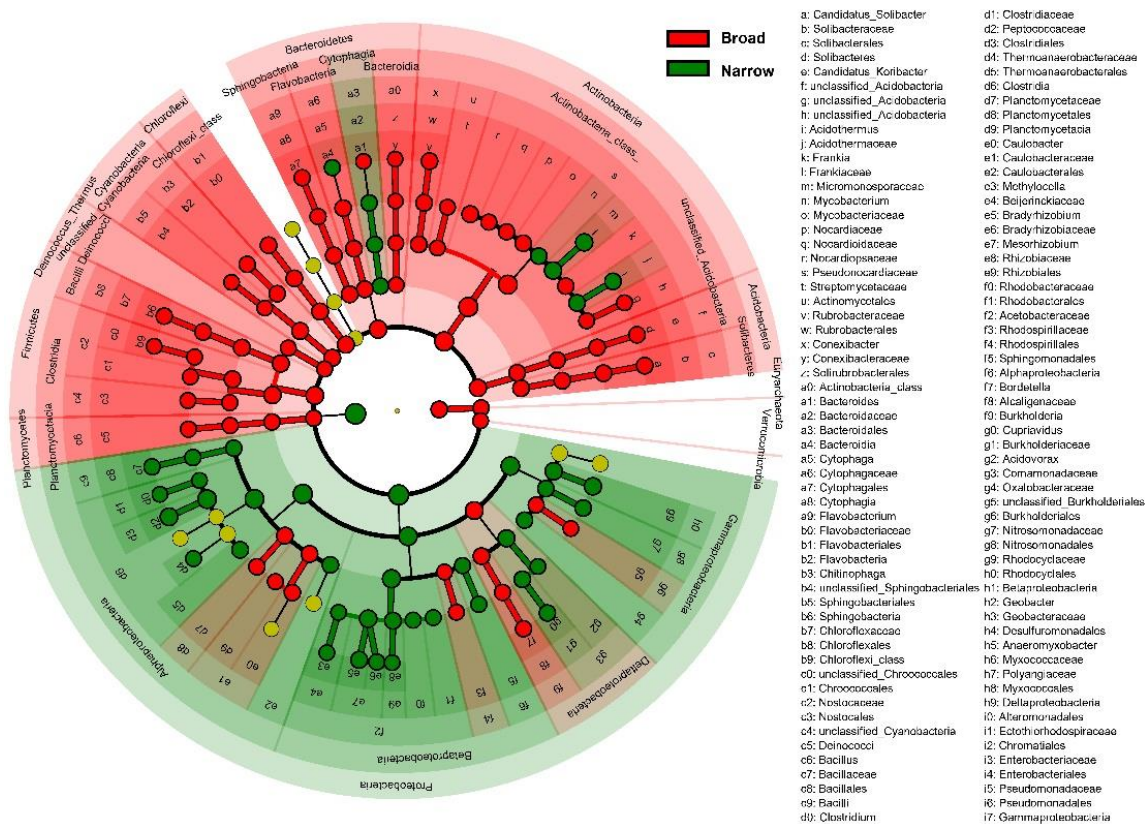
360 **a**, Box plots and mean values of pairwise Bray-curtis similarity of microbial functional

361 and taxonomic diversities for “broad” versus “narrow” functions. **b**, PCoA (Principal
362 coordinates analysis) showing beta-diversity of microbial taxonomic diversity for
363 “broad” and “narrow” functions annotated using RefSeq at genus level (Taxonomy). The
364 error bars represent the standard deviation of data ranges. Variations (by percentage)
365 explained by the two principal coordinate dimensions are given in parentheses. *P* values
366 and sq. root of PERMANOVA are also given. **c**, Heatmaps showing relative abundance
367 of dominant microbial taxonomic composition (mean > 0.5%) for “broad” and “narrow”
368 functions annotated using RefSeq at phylum/class levels (Taxonomy). “Broad” functions
369 include AAD (Amino Acids and Derivatives), CHO (Carbohydrates), CBS (Clustering-
370 based Subsystems), CVPGP (Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments), and
371 Protein (Protein Metabolism); “Narrow” functions include N (Nitrogen Metabolism), P
372 (Phosphorous Metabolism), K (Potassium Metabolism), S (Sulfur Metabolism), and Fe
373 (Iron Acquisition and Metabolism).

374

375 To investigate how microbial taxonomic diversities differ globally, the taxonomic
376 compositions of soil microbes conducting the five “broad” and the five “narrow”
377 functions were analyzed among the seventeen climate zones based on the PCoA analysis.
378 Across climate zones, microbial taxonomic compositions of the five “narrow” functions
379 (sq. root = 15.2-18.8) were more distinct than the five “broad” functions (sq. root = 13.4-
380 15.1) based on the PERMANOVA analysis (Fig. S2). This suggests that microorganisms
381 relating to “broad” functions were similar to each other in taxonomy, because “broad”
382 functions are more broadly distributed across most taxa, but soil microbes performing
383 “narrow” functions were more phylogenetically diverse due to the specialty of “narrow”
384 functions. Thus, though microbial metabolic functions can be strongly coupled to
385 elemental cycles and certain environmental factors, the decoupling of microbial
386 taxonomic and functional profiles is still inevitable when a low-dimensional functional
387 space is projected to a high-dimensional taxonomic space (Louca et al., 2018), especially

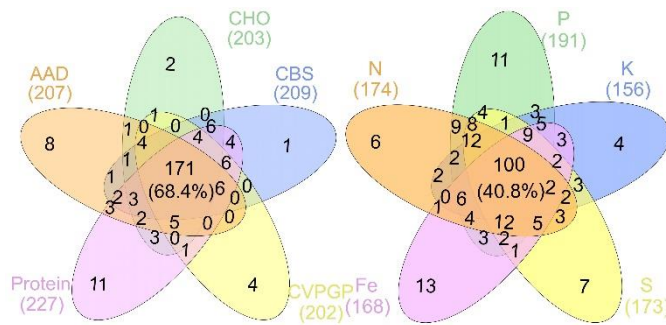
388 for “broad” functions. Moreover, certain environmental factors may have significant
 389 effects on the coupling of taxonomy and function due to their already existent selective
 390 pressure, such as the extreme environment of ice cap, and thus future research can focus
 391 on comparison of relationship between function and taxonomy among terrestrial
 392 ecosystems of different selective pressure levels.



402 The taxonomic compositions of microbes conducting the five “broad” functions were
403 more abundant in most major phyla, such as Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria,
404 Bacteroidetes, and Firmicutes, while the relative abundance of the taxonomic
405 composition of microbes conducting the five “narrow” functions were greater in
406 Proteobacteria, especially Alphaproteobacteria and Betaproteobacteria (Fig. 2c). Other
407 studies also found that some bacteria conducting N cycling, such as ammonia-oxidizers
408 and rhizobia for N fixation, mainly belong to Alphaproteobacteria or Betaproteobacteria
409 (Stephen et al., 1996;Moulin et al., 2001).

410 To find out the dominant microbial groups that were statistically different between
411 the five “broad” and the five “narrow” functions, LEfSe analysis was conducted based on
412 the relative abundances at the taxonomic levels of domain, phylum, class, order, family,
413 and genus. In particular, among the Proteobacteria conducting the five “narrow”
414 functions, *Bacillaceae* from Bacilli, *Clostridium*, *Peptococcaceae*, and
415 *Thermoanaerobacteraceae* from Clostridia, *Methylocella*, *Bradyrhizobium*,
416 *Bradyrhizobiaceae*, and *Rhizobiaceae* from Rhodospirillaceae, and *Cupriavidus* from
417 Comamonadaceae had higher relative abundance than the others (Fig. 3). The Venn’s
418 diagrams indicated that the taxonomic compositions of soil microbes performing the
419 “broad” functions shared 68% dominant genera among the five functional categories,
420 while the proportion was reduced to only 41% for the five “narrow” functions (Fig. 4).
421 However, it should be stated that all the analyses performed in our study were based on
422 relative abundance data that is compositional, so it is difficult to directly compare
423 taxonomic diversities among samples and/or datasets. Despite the differences in the
424 identification protocol and quantification of soil metagenomes, we deem the effects of

425 these differences to be trivial for our analyses as we intended to understand the general
 426 patterns of microbial taxonomic and functional linkages, rather than simply compare soil
 427 community structures across samples. By uncovering universal patterns of these
 428 relationships within the microbial community, we can then further establish a potential
 429 linkage framework to account for the microbial contributions to major biogeochemical
 430 cycles.



431

432 **Fig. 4. Taxonomic compositions shared among “broad” and “narrow” functions.**

433 Venn’s diagrams showing dominant microbial taxonomic groups (mean > 0.1%)
 434 annotated using RefSeq at genus levels (Taxonomy) shared among “broad” and “narrow”
 435 functions.

436

437 Because of functional redundancy of soil microbes, understanding what types of
 438 functions that have more significant association with microbial taxonomy can be critical
 439 for accurate prediction of microbial metabolic activity and flexibility across space and
 440 time. As microbial taxonomic composition and diversity plays critical role in maintaining
 441 ecosystem function (Allison and Martiny, 2008), our results suggest that taxonomic
 442 information alone provides limited utility in predicting basic metabolic capabilities, but
 443 may be capable of forecasting biogeochemical transformations or changes in the rate of
 444 biogeochemical process at ecosystem level (Hall et al., 2018). Investigating functional
 445 redundancy with respect to functions associated with elemental cycles provides useful

446 information for guiding the development of explicit microbial biogeochemical prediction,
 447 and further delving into major pathways of C and N cycles will be a fruitful approach for
 448 scrutinizing microbes' functional potentials.

449 **Table 1. Summary of key properties of co-occurrence networks for the five “broad”**
 450 **and the five “narrow” functions.**

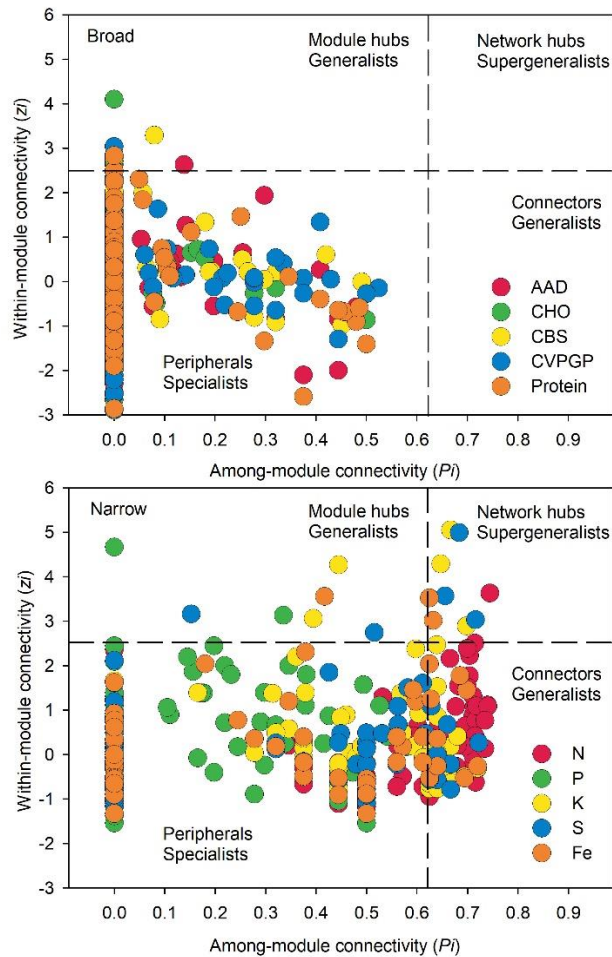
Network Indexes	Total nodes	Total links (positive%)	Average connectivity	Average clustering coefficient	Average geodesic distance	Modularity (modules numbers)
		1472				
AAD	225	(100%)	13.084	0.663	2.873	0.695 (11)
CHO	207	1155 (99%)	11.159	0.615	3.805	0.672 (10)
CBS	246	1622 (99%)	13.187	0.663	2.859	0.671 (11)
CVPGP	201	1293 (99%)	12.866	0.65	3.303	0.697 (9)
Protein	285	1651 (99%)	11.586	0.638	2.992	0.749 (14)
N	101	519 (12%)	10.277	0.349	1.903	0.184 (5)
P	160	449 (4%)	5.612	0.299	3.298	0.615 (10)
K	143	364 (67%)	5.091	0.08	2.676	0.429 (6)
S	132	264 (15%)	4	0.09	2.563	0.486 (12)
Fe	95	215 (11%)	4.526	0.071	2.601	0.435 (6)

451

452 **3.2. Microbial taxonomic co-occurrence networks**

453 To identify potential interaction patterns of microbial groups that conduct the five
 454 “broad” and the five “narrow” functions, the co-occurrence networks of taxonomic
 455 compositions were generated based on the taxonomic composition at the genus level
 456 across the globe. Network graphs with submodule structures indicated distinct topology
 457 of taxonomic networks between the “broad” and “narrow” functions (Table 1, Fig. S3
 458 and Fig. S4). Compared to the “narrow” functions, the “broad” functions harbored larger
 459 and more complex networks with more nodes (201-285 vs. 95-160) and links (1293-1651
 460 vs. 215-519), with higher average connectivity (11.2-13.2 vs. 4.0-10.3) and average
 461 clustering coefficient (0.64-0.66 vs. 0.07-0.35). The “broad” function network had 99-
 462 100% positive links, while the “narrow” function had 33-96% negative links. These

463 significant difference of network properties between “broad” and “narrow” functions
 464 suggests that taxonomic composition of “narrow” functions had both facilitative and
 465 inhibitive interactions, while taxonomic compositions of the “broad” function are all
 466 cooperative (Faust and Raes, 2012). Thus, soil microbes with “broad” functions tended to
 467 respond to the environment in a similar way, indicating functional sharing and
 468 association, while distinct microorganisms to conduct “narrow” functions competitively
 469 interact with each other, reflecting regulatory or suppression relationships (Delgado-
 470 Baquerizo et al., 2018).



471

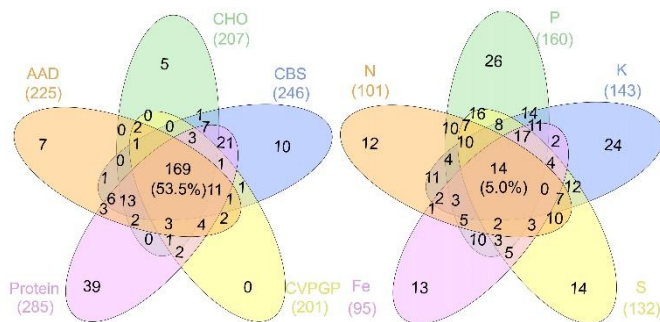
472 **Fig. 5. Network information of taxonomic compositions for “broad” and “narrow”**
 473 **functions.** Node distribution of module-based topological roles of taxonomic

474 compositions for “broad” and “narrow” functions determined by the scatter plot of
475 within-module connectivity (Z_i) and among-module connectivity (P_i). The threshold
476 values of Z_i and P_i for categorizing were 2.5 and 0.62 respectively.

477

478 In addition, network modularity was greater in the “broad” functions, indicating that
479 significant correlations between taxonomic compositions of microbes that conduct the
480 five “broad” functions are mainly within similar taxonomic groups. No node could be
481 classified as connectors in the five “broad” function networks (Fig. 5), reaffirming that the
482 “broad” function networks had links mainly within modules of similar species. In the co-
483 occurrence network of taxonomic composition of the “narrow” functions, 13% of the
484 nodes were identified as connectors linking several modules (high P_i) connectors, while
485 3% were identified as module hubs that connected other nodes within their own modules
486 (high Z_i), indicated by the Z_i - P_i plot (Olesen et al., 2007;Deng et al., 2012). Thus,
487 significantly less nodes were identified as module hubs in the co-occurrence network of
488 the taxonomic composition of the “broad” functions, indicating less correlations found
489 among different modules. This is expected given that module was comprised of genera
490 that were mainly from the same phylogenetic groups. This difference was consistent with
491 the Venn’s diagrams showing significantly more nodes (54%) shared among the five
492 functional categories representing the “broad” functions, while only 5% of the nodes
493 were overlaid among the five “narrow” function networks (Fig. 6). Environmental
494 conditions likely determine the microbial taxonomic composition, and microbial
495 phylotypes sharing similar habitat preferences tend to co-occur (Delgado-Baquerizo et
496 al., 2018;Ramírez-Flandes et al., 2019). We emphasize that this analysis is a combination
497 of snapshots of microbial communities compared across space, thus environmental

498 conditions (at the same geographic location) may vary, and the levels of functional
 499 redundancy may change depending on the mechanisms selecting specific functions and
 500 the phylogenetic distribution of those functions (Louca et al., 2018).



501

502 **Fig. 6. Taxonomic network nodes shared among “broad” and “narrow” functions.**

503 Venn’s diagrams showing the microbial taxonomic network nodes shared among “broad”
 504 and “narrow” functions.

505

506 3.3. Conclusion

507 By analyzing and generalizing microbial taxonomic and functional profiles, we provide

508 strong evidence that the degree of soil microbial functional redundancy differs

509 significantly between “broad” and “narrow” functions across the global. The level of

510 functional redundancy varies depending on the functions of interest. Here, by contrasting

511 the five “broad” metabolic functions and the five “narrow” functions that are important

512 for elemental cycles, we found lower levels of functional redundancy associated with the

513 five “narrow” functions of biogeochemical cycling, despite the fact that even for the five

514 “narrow” functions, there is still a high level of functional redundancy in the soil

515 communities. Although there is a caveat concerning direct comparison of metagenomic

516 data, the present study demonstrated the use of comparative metagenome and co-

517 occurrence network analysis in generalizing patterns of microbial characteristics

518 regulating biogeochemical cycling of major elements. With the increasing advancement
519 of sequencing techniques and data coverage, future sequencing efforts will likely increase
520 our confidence in comparative metagenomes and provide time-series information to
521 further identify to what extent microbial functional redundancy regulates dynamic
522 ecological fluxes across space and time.

523

524 **Author Contributions**

525 Huaihai Chen conceived the study, performed the data analysis, interpreted the results,
526 and drafted the manuscript. JL, CWS, and Hao Chen secured the research funding. KM,
527 YH, QF, YQ, and Hao Chen critically assessed and interpreted the findings. All authors
528 discussed results, commented on, edited, revised, and approved the manuscript.

529

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538

539 **Data Availability Statement**

540 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding
541 author upon request. All metagenomic data used in this study are publicly assessable in
542 the MG-RAST server with study and MG-RAST ID reported in supplementary files.

543

544 **Competing Interests**

545 The authors declare no competing interests.

546

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