

1 **Title: Microbial contributions to host life history tradeoffs**

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17 **Abstract**

18 All organisms must allocate finite resources among growth, maintenance, and
19 reproduction, generating trade-offs that constrain adaptation. Here, we argue that host
20 microbiomes are dynamic resource engines capable of reallocating and generating
21 energy and resources for their hosts. In doing so, they may recalibrate the tradeoffs
22 fundamental to life history evolution.

23 **The ubiquity of tradeoffs**

24 The problem of how to invest a finite amount of energy into competing processes of
25 growth, somatic maintenance, and reproduction is universal in nature. Life history theory
26 predicts that energy allocation toward one process will occur at the expense of others,
27 leading to **tradeoffs** (see Glossary) that can constrain organismal adaptation and
28 evolution. Host microbiomes can play multiple roles in these tradeoffs. First,
29 microbiomes take host resources to regulate and maintain, and also produce resources
30 themselves (e.g., by releasing energy from ingested food or preventing resource loss to
31 parasites). Second, microbiome composition is determined in part through transmission
32 of **mutualistic, commensal** and **pathogenic** microbes. Reciprocally, changes in
33 microbiome composition can influence behaviour, altering the intake of resources and
34 other microbes. As such, the microbiome can act as both a mediator and a driver of
35 tradeoffs by compensating for costly changes, or by forcing hosts to preferentially
36 optimise among phenotypic traits. Here, we present “stand-in” pathways by which
37 microbiota can reroute host resources from one process to another, as well as
38 “generative” pathways that create energy for hosts to invest in other processes.

39

40 **Microbiomes can reallocate host resources through stand-in pathways**

41 Approximately 70% of vertebrate immune function occurs in the gastrointestinal tract,
42 and is a main interface between the host and its complex gut microbiome [1]. Among
43 other functions, gut immunity ensures the gut microbiome is maximally functional and
44 adaptable to dietary and environmental change [2]. This requires a delicate balance
45 between **immune vigilance** and tolerance of beneficial microbes. However, because
46 immunity is energetically and nutritionally costly, host activities or environmental
47 pressures that alter resource allocation to immunity will affect the efficacy of microbial
48 moderation, possibly inhibiting gut microbiome function and stability [3] .

49

50 Such tradeoffs are likely common, but have yet to be explored. During periods of
51 nutritional stress, infection, or increased energetic demand (e.g., reproduction or
52 migration), resources may be reallocated from microbiome homeostasis, increasing
53 susceptibility to invasion of pathogenic microbes and **dysbiosis** [4]. Reciprocally, gut

54 microbiota influence immune function by modulating immune cell development,
55 calibrating inflammatory responses, and providing colonisation resistance against
56 pathogens [5]. Alterations to gut microbiome composition are thus likely to have
57 cascading effects on host immunity and pathogen defense.

58

59 Because pathogens are generally a **resource sink**, there exists an optimal investment
60 in immune regulation of the microbiome that minimises subsequent resource loss to
61 parasites via microbiome-associated immune resistance and colonisation prevention.
62 The gut microbiome is therefore a complex intermediary between multiple resource
63 costs that must be minimised. Understanding these tradeoffs is crucial for
64 understanding how organisms manage competing demands of vigilance against
65 pathogens and metabolic economy under environmental change.

66

67 **Microbiomes can expand host resource pools through generative pathways**

68 Gut microbes can directly supplement host metabolism and expand host resource pools
69 by producing energy and nutrients from otherwise inaccessible sources. Through
70 microbial **fermentation** of indigestible plant components, hosts gain access to **short-**
71 **chain fatty acids** (SCFAs) that serve as energy substrates and metabolic signalling
72 molecules. Similarly, microbial detoxification of dietary components allows hosts to
73 exploit otherwise harmful plant secondary compounds, broadening their dietary niche
74 [6]. Gut microbiota are also critically important to host thermal tolerance, regulating
75 energy homeostasis and heat production [7]. These functions can aid host adaptation to
76 novel environments, reduce interspecific competition, and stabilise or optimise host
77 performance.

78

79 Through these generative pathways, microbiomes can both exacerbate and ameliorate
80 host tradeoffs. Compositional homogeneity in the gut during mammalian development
81 may favor fermentative pathways essential for nutrient extraction from milk, promoting
82 growth but compromising immune priming if microbial **alpha diversity** is reduced.
83 Likewise, gut microbes can both produce and metabolise amino acids [8,9], which can
84 bias investment in host reproduction at the expense of somatic maintenance or growth.

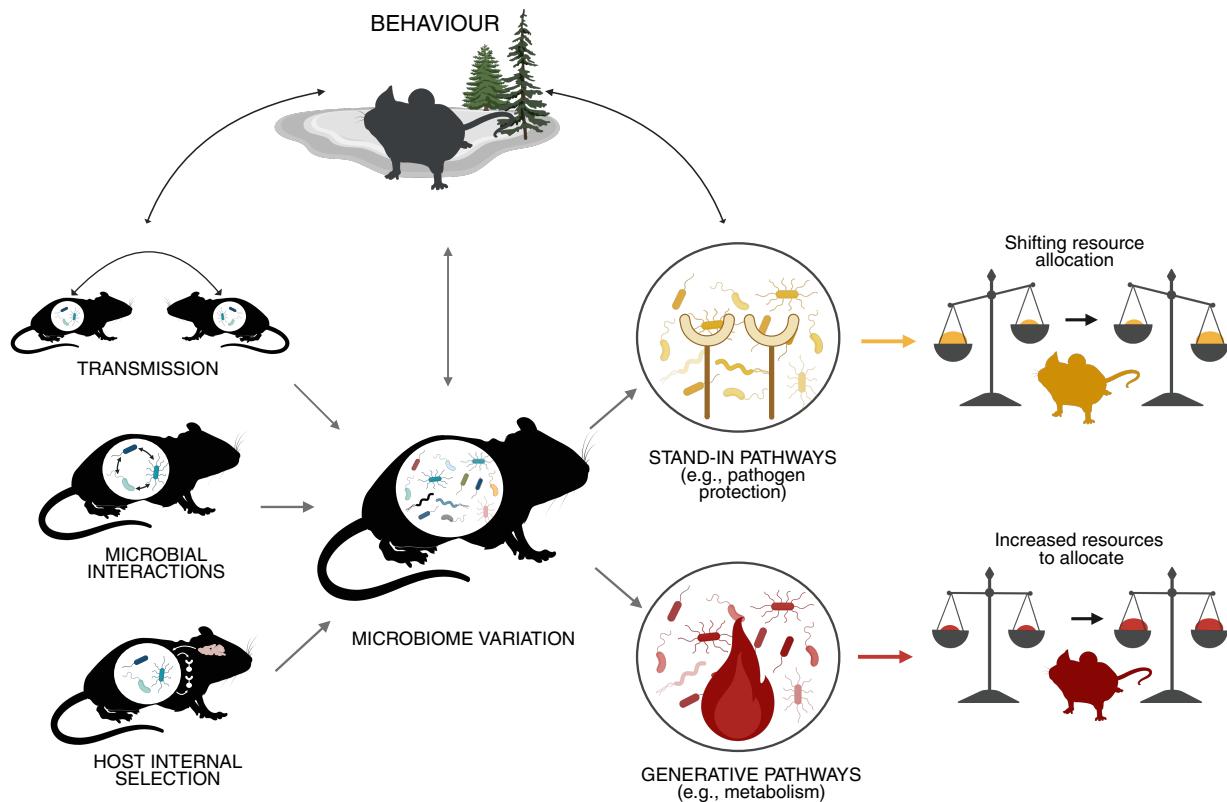
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86 Generative functions may also mitigate tradeoffs. Enhanced SCFA production during
87 periods of resource limitation can help hosts maintain energy balance [10]. Some gut
88 microbes, particularly those crucial to development, may provide dual benefits by
89 supporting both growth and immune priming [11], leading to shallower or minimal
90 tradeoffs for their hosts. These pathways could extend the scope of host energy
91 budgets by creating novel pools of usable resources that change the expected
92 magnitude of some host tradeoffs.

93

94 **Behaviour as a microbiome-associated tradeoff mediator**

95 Behaviour fulfils a unique function in allowing animals to rapidly and flexibly respond to
96 internal and external cues. Exposure to microbes shapes microbial variation through
97 **social transmission**, via agonistic [12] and affiliative social behaviours (e.g., grooming,
98 [13]), and **environmental transmission**, via spatial behaviours (e.g., foraging and
99 environmental exposure, [14], **Figure 1**). Gut microbes acquired from conspecifics can
100 affect host energy homeostasis by transferring metabolic capabilities and supporting
101 development of healthy immune function and resistance to pathogens. Social behavior
102 can also recalibrate microbiomes to meet changing host energy demands [15]. Yet,
103 since social contact spreads both beneficial microbes and potential pathogens, the
104 relationship between sociality and immune resilience remains complex.



105

106 **Figure 1. Eco-evolutionary dimensions of microbiome-mediated host life history**
 107 **tradeoffs.** Microbial variation arises through three primary processes: within-community
 108 local selection (e.g., selective forces imposed by host immune system or diet), within-
 109 community local interactions (e.g., competition and mutualism among microbes of the
 110 same microbiome), and between-community dispersal (e.g., microbial transmission
 111 between hosts). These processes necessarily shape microbial stand-in and generative
 112 pathways that can influence host life history tradeoffs. For example, pathogen exposure
 113 may induce host internal selection for microbes with immune modulating capacity,
 114 diverting microbiome function away from processes like metabolism or dietary
 115 detoxification. Such shifts could lead to the competitive exclusion of existing or socially-
 116 acquired microbes that occupy similar niches, further modifying microbial capacity for
 117 tradeoff optimisation. These complex feedbacks are further modified by host behavior,
 118 which governs microbial acquisition from social and environmental sources, and
 119 influences—across multiple scales—the processes that shape variation in microbial
 120 mediation of host tradeoffs.

121

122 Critically, behaviours influence and are influenced by both microbiota and resource
123 availability, which creates the potential for behavior to mediate and impose tradeoffs. A
124 socially isolated individual may experience an impoverished microbiome, which reduces
125 metabolic efficiency and has a fitness cost. However, social isolation may reduce
126 exposure to conspecifics' pathogens, which provides a fitness benefit, particularly if the
127 individual's non-diverse microbiome leads to reduced immune resistance. That same
128 social isolation could shift allocation from reproduction towards maintenance and
129 growth, which puts different pressures on the microbiome and other metabolic resource
130 generation processes.

131

132 **Microbiomes as levers and fulcrums of host life history evolution**

133 The marked individuality of host microbiomes suggests that detectable tradeoffs may be
134 eclipsed by individual differences in microbiome quality. Hosts with optimal or optimally-
135 responsive microbial communities ("microbial silver spoons") may better integrate cues
136 to reallocate resources adaptively. For instance, they may harbor greater microbial
137 alpha diversity, minimising trade-offs when they occur through **functional redundancy**.
138 Microbiomes could also be more flexible, shifting adaptively under host control to match
139 changing demands and conditions. By contrast, microbially-mediated tradeoffs may be
140 amplified under environmental stress in hosts whose gut microbiota have been
141 compromised by developmental hardship or environmental instability (e.g., Caesarean
142 section, food scarcity).

143

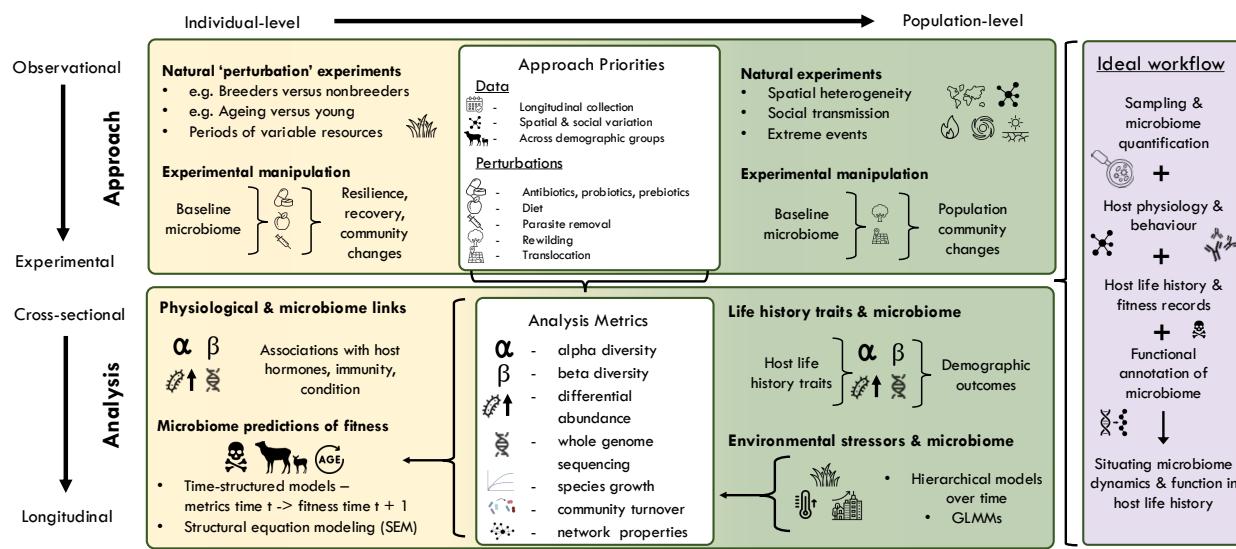
144 Differences in the capacity for microbial mediation of host tradeoffs could be genetically
145 encoded, driving selection among individuals, or could instead reflect within-individual
146 plasticity. Such differences can generate population-level variation in the costs and
147 benefits of microbially-mediated life histories. Populations experiencing ecological
148 disruption (e.g., drought, epidemics) may suffer steeper tradeoffs if disruption causes
149 microbial scatter, increasing **beta diversity**. Populations with a higher frequency of
150 microbial silver spoons may show dampened tradeoffs and greater demographic
151 stability. Microbiomes may therefore influence not only individual life histories, but also
152 population-level variance in resource allocation strategies. Studies of vertebrate life

153 histories should thus consider microbiomes as dynamic and transmissible engines of
 154 resource optimisation and phenotypic spread that can influence host resource allocation
 155 decisions (**Box 1**).

156

157 **Box 1. Integrating microbiomes into host tradeoffs: a practical guide.** As new
 158 methodological approaches for characterising host-microbe interactions continue to
 159 emerge, so do opportunities to incorporate microbiomes into studies of host life histories
 160 and associated tradeoffs. Key recommendations include aligning microbial and
 161 demographic data across comparable temporal scales, accounting for both ecological
 162 and host-intrinsic sources of variation, and distinguishing causal from correlative
 163 pathways (**Box 1 Figure**).

Integrating Microbiomes into Life History: A Practical Guide



164

165 Observational studies could leverage natural fluctuations (e.g., reproductive
 166 rhythms, patterns of senescence) or extreme events (e.g., resource pulses, introduction
 167 of novel pathogens, natural disasters) to investigate the rate and nature of microbial
 168 change associated with behavioral and life history responses. Investigations into the
 169 microbial changes that accompany transitions into and out of different reproductive
 170 states could consider simultaneous data collection on immune markers, as microbial
 171 recalibration toward host reproductive success may lead to immune deficits.

172 When feasible, observational studies should consider higher resolution genomic
173 approaches (e.g., shotgun, long-read, and/or whole genome sequencing) to improve
174 functional interpretations of host-microbe interactions. Experimental approaches that
175 incorporate controlled quantification of microbial resilience and recovery will have
176 maximal power to capture microbial mediation of host tradeoffs. As an example,
177 quantifying the proportion of host energy expended during and after a controlled
178 disturbance (e.g., following antibiotic exposure or rewilding) to minimise dysbiosis or a
179 microbial state-change can reveal the metabolic cost of microbial resilience and
180 associated mitigation of any tradeoffs. Quantification of host energy expended to return
181 the gut microbiome to a pre-disturbed state following a disturbance (i.e., recovery) can
182 likewise reveal the cost of preserving microbiome community stability and associated
183 disinvestment in other processes. Layered within food/energy supplementation and
184 concomitant collection of biomarkers associated with key life history processes (e.g.,
185 immune, reproductive, and/or metabolic markers), such approaches will help isolate the
186 precise microbial pathways that regulate the emergence of host life history tradeoffs.

187

188 Over longer timescales, the gut microbiome can act as a lever by recalibrating host
189 investment in life history processes, producing directional effects. It can also act as a
190 fulcrum, balancing resources when environmental stress would otherwise force
191 tradeoffs. We expect these roles to be bounded by the fidelity of host–microbe
192 associations: microbes acquired through social or **vertical transmission** may become
193 trapped within host lineages or social networks, constraining their influence on host
194 strategies over evolutionary time. Ultimately, these dynamics suggest that microbiomes
195 are inevitably embedded within host life histories, emerging as both mediators and
196 modulators of the tradeoffs that shape their evolution.

197

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203

204 **Declaration of Interests**

205 The authors declare no competing interests.

206

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241 **Glossary**

- 242 • **Alpha diversity** – A measure of within-sample microbial diversity, often
243 quantified as species richness or by indices that incorporate evenness and
244 spread (e.g., Shannon Index).
- 245 • **Beta diversity** – A measure of between-sample microbial diversity or
246 dissimilarity that quantifies how different microbial communities are from one
247 another (e.g., Jaccard, Bray-Curtis).
- 248 • **Commensal** – A type of symbiotic relationship in which one partner benefits
249 while the other is unaffected.
- 250 • **Dysbiosis** – A microbial shift caused by a disturbance that results in a sub-
251 optimal microbiome function and/or composition, sometimes termed an
252 “imbalance”.
- 253 • **Environmental transmission** – Acquisition of microbes from the external
254 environment (e.g., soil, plants, dietary items).
- 255 • **Fermentation** – The anaerobic breakdown of organic substrates by microbes
256 that yields energy and produces by-products such as short-chain fatty acids,
257 alcohols, or gases.
- 258 • **Functional redundancy** – A microbiome containing co-existing microbes that
259 possess similar traits and play similar functional roles within the microbial
260 community.
- 261 • **Immune vigilance** – A process by which the immune system continuously
262 monitors the body for the presence of pathogens and abnormal cells/processes.
- 263 • **Mutualistic** – A type of symbiotic relationship in which both partners benefit.

- **Pathogenic** – A type of symbiotic relationship in which the microbe benefits at the expense of its host, for example by causing host disease, illness, and/or infection.
- **Resource sink** – Any process or trait that requires a large proportion of an organism's limited energy or resources, thus reducing what remains available for other functions.
- **Short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs)** – Metabolic end-products of microbial fermentation (e.g. acetate, propionate, butyrate) that can serve as energy sources and signaling molecules for hosts.
- **Social transmission** – Acquisition of microbes from conspecifics; can occur directly, for instance through physical contact, or indirectly, for instance through contact with fecal material.
- **Tradeoffs** – Constraints that force organisms to allocate limited resources among competing functions such as growth, reproduction, and survival, such that investment in one reduces investment in another.
- **Vertical transmission** – The direct transfer of microbes from parent to offspring, which typically occurs via birth, nursing, or parental care.