

1 **Title:** A new conceptual framework for host-microbe symbiosis

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9 **Abstract:**

10 Host-microbe relationships are studied across biological disciplines, with different but related
11 discipline-specific conceptual frameworks arising from each of them. Without a unified framework
12 that can be applied across all symbioses, we cannot do the interdisciplinary work necessary to
13 understand the underlying rules that govern symbiosis. Here I present a new conceptual framework
14 for host-microbe symbiosis, rooted in its original definition, across three axes of fitness effects,
15 partner fidelity and transmission mode. The three axes make a cube where any symbiotic
16 relationship can be placed. The position of a particular symbiosis is fluid and context-dependent,
17 changing through evolution and throughout the lifetime of an organism. The three axes make for a
18 simple and inclusive framework for symbiosis. We can use this framework to examine every known
19 symbiosis, we will be able to understand the rules and patterns that govern them.

20

21 **Introduction:**

22 Symbiosis is a commonly used and contentiously argued term. It was first coined by De Bary
23 in 1879, often quoted as “the living together of unlike organisms” but in the English translation by
24 Oulhen et al. [1] “the living together of differently named organisms”. Regardless of the exact
25 wording, one important point is that, within this definition, symbiosis ranges from mutualistic
26 interactions where both partners benefit, to parasitic ones, where one partner benefits while the
27 other is harmed. It has long been accepted that these relationships exist on a spectrum rather than in
28 discrete categories [2–4]. This shift in thinking has allowed us to see that there are commonalities
29 and contrasts in how parasites, commensals and mutualists interact with their symbiotic partners [5].
30 It also allows us to think about how these relationships change: besides a few notable symbioses that
31 abruptly transition between categories, generally, symbioses shift along the fitness continuum with a
32 changing ecological context.

33 There is some debate around the bounds of symbiosis, particularly as it relates to the level of
34 intimacy between symbiotic partners. While I am of the opinion that we can expand this framework
35 to include all relationships that one would consider mutualist, commensal and parasitic, for the
36 purposes of this perspective, I focus only on symbioses involving at least one microbial partner.
37 While it is commonly accepted that symbiotic relationship exist along a spectrum of fitness effects,
38 in this new framework I introduce two additional axes, allowing us to compare different symbiotic
39 relationships in multidimensional space. My hope is that this conceptual framework can be used
40 across disciplines to provide a unified definition and framework for host-microbe symbiosis. By
41 having a unified conceptual framework, I believe that we will be better equipped to understand
42 patterns in how symbioses occur and change in nature.

43

44

45 **Fitness effects**

46 As I briefly introduced above, the first axis of symbiosis to consider is that of fitness effects,
47 namely, how two organisms in a symbiotic relationship affect each other's fitness (Figure 1A). A
48 mutualistic relationship is one where both partners benefit. Some classic examples of mutualism
49 include aphids and *Buchnera* bacteria [6], bobtail squid and *Vibrio fischeri* [7], humans and *Bifidobacteria*
50 [8], algae and fungi in lichens [9] and legumes and nitrogen-fixing rhizobia [10].

51 Parasitism exists at the opposite end of the spectrum of fitness effects, where one partner
52 benefits at a fitness cost to the other partner. These relationships include those that are traditionally
53 grouped under the category of medical parasitology such as tape worms, lice, and *Giardia* [11], but
54 also any organism that is considered a pathogen, such as HIV [12] and pathogenic *Salmonella* in
55 humans [13] chytrid fungi that causes chytridiomycosis in amphibians [14], and *Escovopsis* in the
56 fungus gardens of leaf-cutter ants [15].

57 Between mutualism and parasitism lies commensalism, where one partner benefits and the
58 other experiences no fitness effects. Many examples of phoresy, where a smaller organism uses a
59 larger organism for dispersal, are considered commensal [16]. It is important to note that in the
60 human microbiome literature, symbionts that benefit their host are often incorrectly called
61 commensals, rather than mutualists [17]. This is the unfortunate result of the history of human
62 microbiology having been rooted in studying pathogens. Because of this, anything that did not cause
63 disease to the human host was lumped into the category of commensal, even if it benefitted the
64 host. My hope is that we can change this terminology to bring it in line with the ecological origins of
65 the term, but until then, it is important that we always define our terms when presenting our
66 microbiome and symbiosis studies.

67 Every symbiotic relationship lies somewhere on the axis of fitness effects. However, its
68 position along the axis is not static, and can change through evolution and across ecological time

69 and space. There are countless examples of instances of change across the fitness effects axis:
70 commensal microbes becoming opportunistic pathogens when the host's immune system is
71 compromised [18], the breakdown of the mutualism between corals and Symbiodiniaceae during
72 coral bleaching [19] and mutualistic endophytes evolving from latent pathogens [20]. Some
73 relationships are less context-dependent than others. For example, the relationship between fungus-
74 growing ants and their cultivar is always a mutualism. This relationship has co-evolved for tens of
75 millions of years, and there is very little that can move the relationship from this position [21]. But
76 even within the mutualism space, one ant colony may serve as a more effective disperser and so
77 would provide greater fitness benefits to the fungus compared to a colony with less effective
78 dispersal. In this case, the relationship would not switch from being a mutualism to a parasitism, but
79 if we compared the two ant colonies across the axis, one would be further toward the extreme end
80 of mutualism than the other. This variation in symbiosis-related fitness effects between members of
81 a population, along with the variation in the environment in which the relationships exist, are the
82 fodder for evolutionary change across the axis.

83 **Partner fidelity**

84 Symbioses are often categorized as falling into one of two discrete levels of partner fidelity:
85 obligate or facultative. Classically, obligate is the case when at least one partner cannot survive
86 without the other, and facultative is when there may be fitness effects in a symbiosis, but the
87 partners can still survive without the other. I argue that the concept of a facultative symbiosis is just
88 a way to capture the inherent context-dependency of partner fidelity. We see this in the relationship
89 between legumes and their root symbiont rhizobia bacteria. This symbiosis is used as a classic
90 example of a facultative mutualism. If a legume plant is grown in nitrogen-rich soil, the number of
91 root nodules that it produces are reduced because this function is not necessary for the plant [22].
92 One could argue that *when nitrogen is present* in the soil, this relationship is facultative. However, what

93 happens if you grow this plant in soil with no nitrogen at all? I argue that this plant can no longer
94 survive without its mutualistic partner, and so the relationship would become obligate. In this case,
95 the partner fidelity depends largely on the availability of nitrogen in the local environment.

96 As the legume/rhizobia example illustrates, instead of defining obligate and facultative as
97 discrete categories as we have always done, I think we should describe fitness effects along a
98 context-dependent axis (Figure 1B). At one end we have obligate relationships where the partner
99 pair is always together, at the other end we have no fidelity where the pair is never together, and
100 everything in the middle is facultative. As a relationship reaches no fidelity it will cease to be a
101 symbiosis. Where a relationship lies on the spectrum from obligate to no fidelity will depend on
102 context, and the position can change across ecological and evolutionary time scales. Like the fitness
103 effects axis, the flexibility of the position along the partner fidelity axis will vary for symbiotic
104 partners. There are some relationships in nature that we could classify as strictly obligate. *Chlamydia*
105 and many other intracellular parasites can only reproduce inside of host cells, and so context matters
106 less for the position of the relationship between *Chlamydia* and its host along this axis [23].

107 Finally, the position along this axis will depend on which partner we are considering in the
108 relationship. In the case of *Chlamydia* (and other parasites) the relationship for the symbiont can be
109 obligate, but clearly, the host can and does survive without the symbiont. Therefore, the relationship
110 is obligate for the parasite but there is no fidelity from the perspective of the host, making this a
111 one-sided symbiotic relationship. Even for mutualisms, we can have one-sided symbioses. Corals
112 have an obligate relationship with Symbiodiniaceae but the algae can be free-living in the water
113 column. These asymmetrical relationships will be discussed further in the “three axes make a cube”
114 section.

115

116 **Transmission mode**

117 Transmission mode of a symbiont can vary widely, having important effects on the nature of
118 the relationship, and exists across a continuum that can vary depending on context (Figure 1C). At
119 one end of the spectrum is vertical transmission, which is from a parent to offspring. At the other
120 end of the spectrum is environmental transmission, which is when a symbiont is acquired from the
121 environment. Horizontal transmission is that which occurs between two conspecifics, and in this
122 axis, exists in the middle. Transition mode is one measure of intimacy of a relationship [24]. Vertical
123 transmission is the most intimate, and environmental acquisition is the least, but there is variation
124 within each of these classic categories, and our understanding of symbioses would be improved if we
125 put them along a spectrum, rather than discrete categories.

126 A classic example of strict vertical transmission is that of aphids and *Buchnera* bacteria, which
127 the aphids house in specialized organs called bacteriocytes. The parent aphid uses a precise
128 mechanism for ensuring the *Buchnera* is transmitted from its bacteriocyte into the embryo [25].
129 Vertical transmission can happen in a slightly less intimate way as well. For example, when a human
130 gives birth through the vaginal canal, the infant receives its initial microbiome from the parent. But
131 the infant also receives some members of its microbiome during the process of breastfeeding and by
132 sharing intimate space with its birthing parent [26]. At what point do we consider transmission of
133 symbionts from parent to offspring vertical transmission vs horizontal transmission from individuals
134 who happen to be the child's parents? Notably, if a child acquires symbionts from breastfeeding
135 from a non-parent individual, then this would be considered horizontal transmission even though
136 the process of acquisition is the same. Depending on the nature of the relationship between
137 symbiotic partners, particularly whether they are endosymbionts, categorization between horizontal
138 and vertical transmission exists on a continuum and is context-dependent.

139 This can also be said when considering the difference between environmental transmission
140 and horizontal transmission. Let's consider the example of SARS-CoV-2. If someone infected with

141 the virus infects another person through close contact, this would be horizontal transmission.
142 However, if someone coughs the virus out in a room and it remains suspended in the air for several
143 hours then another person walks in and breathes it in, the transmission mode would exist
144 somewhere between horizontal and environmental transmission [27]. There are other symbionts, for
145 example HIV or *Chlamydia*, that cannot be environmentally transmitted – they must be either
146 horizontally or vertically transmitted because they cannot persist outside of a host’s tissues. Once
147 again, the position of a relationship along this axis is context-dependent but the level of context-
148 dependency varies from one relationship to another.

149 While on the topic of transmission mode, let’s discuss the different use of the terms in the
150 marine symbiosis/microbiome world compared to terrestrial. In marine systems, scientists typically
151 use the term horizontal transmission to mean what I define here as environmental transmission. I
152 urge my marine counterparts to consider using the terms as they are defined here since there is a
153 difference in how a symbiont must be adapted, or not, to existing in the environment if it is
154 environmentally transmitted. This is perhaps less relevant for marine systems since moving from the
155 body of an organism through salt water may be a less abrupt of a transition than moving through air,
156 but rather than conflating environmental and horizontal transmission, we can acknowledge that in
157 marine systems, the boundaries between the two can be less rigid. This case further supports using a
158 continuum to explain transmission mode, extending between vertical and environmental
159 transmission, where the position of a particular symbiotic relationship along the axis is context
160 dependent.

161 Importantly, some symbionts are transmitted by vectors or intermediate hosts. This may
162 seem to break the transmission mode axis. Instead, for the purposes of this conceptual framework, I
163 lump vector transmission with environmental transmission. Clearly, these phenomena are very
164 different, but if we focus on just the relationship between the two focal partners in a symbiosis, we

165 can use a separate cube for the relationship between the symbiont and vector. For our focal species,
166 whether a symbiont is transmitted through the environment or through a vector, it still requires
167 some kind of adaptation that allows for it to be separate from its symbiotic counterpart, either to
168 tolerate being in the environment, or to be successfully picked up by a vector. For the sake of
169 simplicity, they can be grouped together on the far end of the transmission mode spectrum from
170 vertical transmission where the symbiont must remain in constant contact with the host.

171 **Three axes make a cube**

172 The only logical thing for me to do when presented with three axes, is to put them together
173 into a cube (Figure 1D). Every symbiotic relationship can be placed somewhere in the three-
174 dimensional space of the cube, occupying a cloud of probability space. In cases where there is not a
175 lot of context-dependent flexibility, the cloud will be small, and where a relationship is heavily
176 context dependent, it will be large. The cloud of possible relationship space will not necessarily be
177 spherical. A relationship may be heavily context-dependent along one axis but not the others.
178 Through either ecological or evolutionary time, many symbiotic relationships may transition
179 gradually across the axis of fitness effects, from commensal to mutualistic or commensal to parasitic,
180 or even from mutualistic through commensal to parasitism. However, this is not the case for all
181 symbiotic relationships. Transitions between mutualism and parasitism can also happen abruptly
182 [28]. In these cases, the cloud of possibilities for a symbiotic pair would not pass through
183 commensalism. Instead, this relationship could be represented by two clouds of possibility at the
184 extremes of the axis of fitness effects. This should be the case for the other axes as well, and indeed

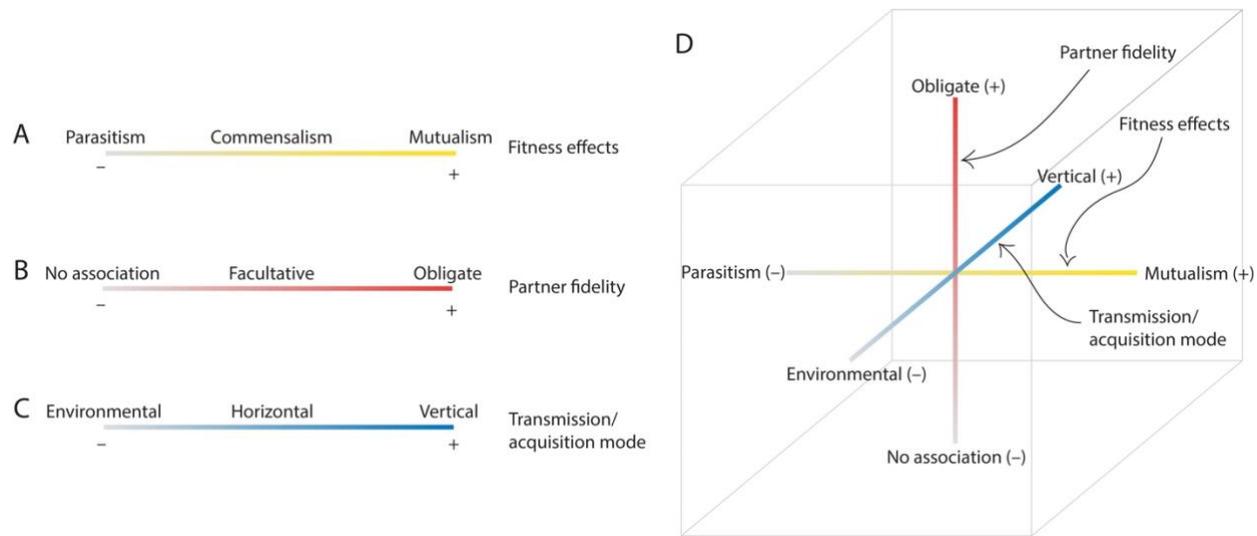


Figure 1 The three axes of symbiosis separately (A, B and C) and as a cube (D).

185 there can also be discrete clouds along the transmission mode axis. For example, dengue virus is
 186 typically vector-transmitted but can also be vertically transmitted through umbilical chord blood,
 187 however, it is never horizontally transmitted [29].

188 Earlier we encountered the problem of asymmetrical symbioses, particularly for the purpose
 189 of partner fidelity (obligate for one partner but not for the other). One solution to this problem is
 190 that we emphasize who the focal species is when we create a cube. The natural thing to do is to
 191 focus on the host but this only works when there is a clear host. There are plenty of microbe-
 192 microbe symbioses, where there is not. Regardless, when we make a cube for a relationship, we
 193 should pick a focal species.

194 The cube can be used as a comparative tool to standardize how we describe symbioses. If we
 195 populate the cube with every described symbiosis, then we may start to observe interesting patterns
 196 or even rules. I expect that we will see more symbioses toward the edges of the cube, largely because
 197 as scientists, we are drawn to striking phenotypes. But there may also be patterns that result from
 198 the realities of biology. For example, obligate mutualists will tend to be vertically transmitted,
 199 whereas parasites will be more likely to be horizontally or environmentally transmitted. One rule that

200 emerges from thinking in this holistic way is that environmentally transmitted obligate symbionts
201 must have a dormant phase. You can see this with viruses – all of them are obligate to their hosts
202 and all of them have a dormant particle phase when they are outside of their host cells. This rule
203 holds for parasites such as *Giardia* and *Chlamydia* as well. Getting to this place, where we can fully
204 populate the cube, will take considerable effort: we will need to agree on ways to standardize and
205 quantify the nature of relationships on the axes, across a wide range of biological systems. I believe
206 that by using this conceptual framework we will have a powerful tool to understand patterns in
207 symbiosis more broadly by examining which parts of the cube are more commonly occupied.
208 Specifically, we can ask questions about the tendencies and the mechanisms behind transitions
209 between locations on the cube. Are there parts of the cube that are harder to occupy and why? Are
210 there certain transitions that are more likely than others? Given a particular ecological context, will
211 the future positioning of a symbiotic relationship be predictable? I believe that by adopting this
212 framework, where each factor of symbiosis is considered along a spectrum, we will more easily be
213 able to answer these types of questions.

214 **Conclusion**

215 To end this perspective, I paraphrase Starr (1975) and Lewis (1985) to say that I am neither
216 the first nor will I be the last person to provide a framework to describe and understand symbiosis. I
217 invite you, dear reader, to let me know what you think. Can you imagine using the cube to teach
218 about symbiosis as a concept? Do you fundamentally disagree with me about the bounds of
219 symbiosis? Do you think that we could use this conceptual framework to model and predict the
220 nature of symbiotic relationships? I hope that this perspective can help inspire conversations that
221 can move us closer toward consensus on a universal framework for symbiosis.

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