

Host, Symbionts, and the Microbiome: The Missing Tripartite Interaction

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1	Host, symbionts, and the microbiome: the missing tripartite interaction
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10	
11	Abstract:
12	Symbiosis between microbial associates and a host is a ubiquitous feature of life on
13	earth, modulating host phenotypes. In addition to endosymbionts, organisms harbour
14	a collection of host-associated microbes, the microbiome that can impact important
15	host traits. In this opinion we will argue that the mutual influences of the microbiome
16	and endosymbionts, as well as their combined influence on the host are still
17	understudied. Focussing on the endosymbiont Wolbachia, we will present growing
18	evidence indicating that host phenotypic effects are exerted in interaction with the
19	remainder microbiome and the host. We thus advocate that only through an
20	integrated approach that considers multiple interacting partners and environmental
21	influences, we will be able to gain a better understanding of host-microbe
22	associations.
23	

24 Keywords: Insects, Phenotype, Wolbachia, Mosquitoes, Metacommunity, Drosophila

26 Interacting entities

Arthropods commonly host a wide variety of **microbes** (see Glossary), some of which live within a **host** in a close and long-term biological interaction. Such **endosymbionts** can exert effects on the host ranging from positive (mutualistic, i.e. providing benefits [1]) to negative (parasitic, i.e. imposing substantial costs [2]) interactions. Thus, endosymbionts are important modulators of host **phenotypes**, providing heritable variation upon which natural selection can act [3,4].

33 Historically, symbiosis research has focused on binary interactions between 34 hosts and individual endosymbionts. In recent years this view was broadened to 35 include all microbes that copiously colonize animals, the so-called microbiome, as 36 they are additional important modulators of host traits (Box 1). Due to the historical 37 focus on binary interactions comparatively little is known about interactions between 38 microbes within the microbiome and how these interactions impact the host [5]. A 39 more holistic approach towards the multitude of interactions is however needed for 40 a better understanding of the varied mechanisms by which microbes drive animal 41 health, development, and evolution [6]. This is especially true as symbionts are part 42 of a complex **ecosystem** including host, symbiont, microbiome and their environment. 43 Here symbionts, host and the remainder microbiome interact with each other, but 44 are also influenced by free-living microbial communities and environmental 45 conditions, e.g. temperature, diet, as well as other organisms (Box 2). Focusing only 46 on one type of interaction, i.e. between host and symbiont or between host and the 47 microbiome, under artificial conditions that do not reflect the potential influence of

48 the environment (Box 3) will provide only an incomplete picture of host-microbe49 interactions.

50 In this opinion article, we argue that an important area for future research 51 relies on disentangling how endosymbionts, the remainder microbiome and the host 52 interact with each other and how their environment is shaping these interactions 53 (Figure 1). Note that we consider symbionts here as a separate microbial entity due to 54 historical focus on binary interactions of symbiont and host. With this separation we 55 can highlight the differences between both, but in fact the microbial symbionts are 56 part of the microbiome and as such, should be studied together. We postulate that 57 phenotypic effects of symbionts are modulated by other microbes, the host and the 58 tripartite interaction between them. Drawing on the wealth of information on the 59 endosymbiont Wolbachia, we will discuss studies that embraced this holistic view. We 60 will argue for re-investigating well-known symbioses with respect to the interactions 61 with other microbes, reviewing studies that indicate that symbioses are more 62 influenced by other partners than the host itself. Throughout this opinion we will 63 advocate the importance of this broader approach to gain a better understanding of 64 symbionts and the role of the microbiome and the host in shaping host fitness.

65

66 Symbionts, the sole manipulator?

In the last years researchers started to investigate microbe-symbiont interactions in model organisms such as the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* [7], the parasitoid wasps *Nasonia* [8], and in mosquitoes as vectors of important human diseases [9]. Additionally, projects like the parasite-microbiome-project [10] started investigating microbiome dynamics within and across parasite-host interactions. Nevertheless,

microbe-microbe interactions within a host, their influence on the host and how these
 interactions are influenced by the environment are still understudied [5].

Symbionts and the remainder microbiome can influence each other and by doing so potentially shape their effects on host phenotype. For example the microbiome can be a potential barrier to transmission of heritable symbionts through competitive exclusion of maternally inherited bacteria, as shown for the American dog tick *Dermacentor variabilis* [11] and the fruit fly *D. melanogaster* [12]. On the other hand, symbionts and host can together control and shape the microbiome as shown in Lepidoptera [13], *D. melanogaster* [7,14] and the mosquito *Aedes aegypti* [15].

81 These interactions between the different members of the microbial 82 community within a host can either be direct via competition for resources and space 83 [12], or indirect via the induction of a general immune response [16,17]. A direct 84 competition has been hypothesized for the protective phenotypes induced by the 85 endosymbiont Wolbachia against pathogens in Drosophila and Aedes, resulting in 86 abundance-dependent protection [18,19]. Competition for resources or space 87 between Wolbachia and other bacteria is also likely for the terrestrial isopod 88 Armadillidium vulgare. In this pill bug, total bacterial loads increase in some, but not 89 all tissues of Wolbachia-infected individuals [20] and Wolbachia presence decreases 90 the abundance of bacterial phylotypes [21]. Indirect interaction between the different 91 members of the microbial community of a host has also been found. In bumble bees 92 (Bombus terrestris), variation in gut microbiome seems to drive the general defence 93 against parasites and the evolution of gut parasites by interactions with the remainder microbiome as well as with host genotypes [17]. Similarly, in ticks (Ixodes scapularis), 94 95 parasites induce the expression of specific glycoproteins, which alter the host

96 microbiome to their advantage, i.e. to promote infection [16]. For the nutritional 97 mutualisms between Wolbachia and the bedbug Cimex lectularius the exchange of 98 genetic material between Wolbachia and other symbionts (likely Cardinium or 99 *Rickettsia*) coinfecting the same insect host, have likely enabled *Wolbachia* to become 100 an obligate, needed, symbiont providing B vitamins for the nutrition of Cimex 101 lectularius [22,23]. These studies highlight the complexity of the tripartite interaction 102 between host species, microbiome and symbionts, across different hosts and foster 103 the development of a framework in which interactions, host phenotype and 104 environment are jointly explored.

105

106

107 The environmental component

108 The environment influences microbes within a host and thus potentially their 109 interactions as well as their effect on host phenotype. It is for example known that the 110 abiotic environment, i.e. temperature, affects symbiont density [4,24]. As example a 111 reduction, or elimination of Wolbachia due to high temperature was found for D. 112 melanogaster, mites, and other species [4,24–26]. In line with this, seasonal changes 113 of Wolbachia density were observed in Lepidoptera [26], mosquitoes [9] and other 114 blood sucking arthropods [27]. In mosquitoes, high temperature caused a reduction 115 of Wolbachia density and a concomitant greater host susceptibility to viruses [9]. Also 116 the biotic environment could potentially influence within-host microbe-microbe 117 interactions through horizontal exchange of microbes from free-living microbial 118 populations [28] (Box 2). This could lead to microbial community shifts and therefore 119 changes in microbe-microbe interactions potentially influencing host fitness. These

120 interactions are defined by metacommunities, local communities linked by dispersal, 121 but also extinction and recolonization of potentially interacting species [29]. Thus, 122 local communities are influenced by processes operating at the level of the entire 123 metacommunity [26]. The few studies that investigated the influence of 124 metacommunities discovered that the microbial communities associated with 125 different interaction partners, e.g. plants and insects, shared microbes [30,31], such 126 as vertically transmitted symbionts from the genus Wolbachia, Rickettsia, and 127 Spiroplasma [30].

128 As phenotypic host effects of a symbiosis are closely tied to interactions with 129 the remainder microbiome and environmental factors, biotic and abiotic, the absence 130 of an integrative approach might mask the mechanistic interpretation of the data, 131 leading to inconclusive results. Taking Wolbachia as model, in the next section we will 132 provide a brief introduction of what is known for Wolbachia-microbe interactions and 133 two examples in which a deeper understanding of the complex interactions between 134 hosts, symbionts and the microbiome could explain discrepancies. The first one is of 135 great relevance for human health and refers to investigations on the vector-136 competence of Wolbachia infected mosquitoes and their role in the transmission of 137 human pathogens. The second example refers the reproductive manipulation by 138 Wolbachia in several arthropod species and takes a more evolutionary perspective.

139

140 Interactions between the endosymbiont *Wolbachia* and other microbes

141 Wolbachia in interaction: known facts

The endosymbiont *Wolbachia* – one of the most widely distributed symbionts
worldwide, infecting an estimated 40% of terrestrial arthropods [32] – is a strong

manipulator of a wide range of host traits [33]. It gained specific interest due to its
protection against various viruses in naturally infected fruit flies [34] and its capacity
to reduce the density and transmission of pathogens in mosquito species [35,36].

147 In contrast to long-held beliefs, Wolbachia is not restricted to host germ line cells and reproductive organs, but is present in cells throughout somatic tissues and 148 149 even in the gut lumen of some insects and their faeces [37,38]. Thus, direct 150 interactions with other microbes of the host or indirect interactions via the hosts' 151 immune system are likely. Direct interactions between Wolbachia and other microbes 152 have been observed in fruit flies. A co-infection with the endobacterium Spiroplasma 153 reduced Wolbachia density while Spiroplasma numbers remained unaffected by the 154 presence of Wolbachia [12]. The investigation of the effect of Wolbachia infection on 155 the composition of the gut microbiome in D. melanogaster showed an even more 156 complex picture. Here the presence of Wolbachia is a significant determinant of the 157 overall composition of the gut microbiome. Interestingly this was neither caused by a 158 direct interaction between Wolbachia and the gut microbiome, as Wolbachia is absent 159 from the gut lumen in the fly, nor was it indirectly modulated through the activation 160 of the fly's immune system through Wolbachia [7]. This highlights the importance of 161 considering a multitude of possible interactions between microbes and between 162 microbes and the host in studies of the dynamics and effects of Wolbachia-infections.

163

164 The quest for disease eradication

165 An integrated approach, considering multiple interactions between microbes and 166 between microbes and hosts, is especially important when developing microbe-based 167 disease vector control strategies. *Wolbachia* is currently being developed as a novel

168 arthropod-borne disease control agent (http:// www.eliminatedengue.com); hereby 169 the mode of a successful transmission is an important factor. Under laboratory 170 conditions the native microbiome of Anopheles mosquitoes was found to impede 171 vertical transmission of Wolbachia through antagonistic microbe-microbe interactions between the bacterium Asaia and Wolbachia [39]. Similar antagonistic microbe 172 173 interactions were found in a survey of various mosquito species in Canada, with the 174 presence and abundance of Wolbachia fluctuating over season, as well as with the 175 presence of the bacteria Asaia and Pseudomonas [9]. This suggests that, in addition to 176 environmental effects, interaction of Wolbachia with other microbes may explain 177 some of the variation in vector competence of mosquitoes. In contrast to these 178 results, a stable infection with Wolbachia in lab-reared mosquitoes A. aegypti had only 179 few effects on the microbiome. Moreover, significant changes in the microbiome 180 composition did not affect the dengue virus blocking phenotype caused by Wolbachia 181 infection in this mosquito [40]. However, analyses of A. aegypti transinfected with 182 Wolbachia, released in the field in Brazil and Vietnam to inhibit the dengue virus, 183 revealed that Wolbachia increases susceptibility of mosquitoes to dengue infection. 184 This contradicting result was due to the wide variability in exposure doses of 185 Wolbachia naturally experienced by mosquitoes [41]. The authors concluded that 186 reliable predictions of vectorial capacity of transinfected mosquitoes require an 187 informed account of mosquito pathogens and their interplay with Wolbachia. 188 Additionally recent interaction networks, looking at co-occurrence and co-exclusion 189 of microbes, established for several mosquito species (laboratory vs. field) revealed 190 that Wolbachia is a highly interconnected taxon, mostly co-exclusionary with other 191 bacteria [42].

192 The mosquito studies indeed show that the abundance and effect of Wolbachia is 193 closely tied to the remaining microbiome. This highlights the importance of 194 considering the composition of the microbiome and host genetic background in 195 studies investigating phenotypes induced by Wolbachia and when formulating 196 microbe-based disease vector control strategies. In line with that, assessing the 197 involvement of microbe-microbe interactions within a host and how they are 198 influenced in the field, due to biotic or abiotic factors, is critical as it may affect the 199 efficiency of Wolbachia-mediated manipulations (Box 2, Box 3).

200

201 The joint reproductive manipulation of *Wolbachia* and other microbes

202 The endosymbiont Wolbachia is especially well known for its four distinct 203 reproductive phenotypes, that promote its own vertical transmission from mother to 204 offspring [43]. There is growing evidence that the reproductive manipulation by 205 Wolbachia is not only exerted by the endosymbiont alone but in interaction with other 206 microbes, i.e. the microbiome of the host, other symbionts, or the host itself. 207 Wolbachia has repeatedly been reported to cause different phenotypes, either in 208 experimental settings when transferred between hosts, for example in Lepidoptera 209 [44] or Drosophila sibling species [45], or naturally over evolutionary timescales, e.g. 210 in moths and fruit flies [46]. Additionally, many species show geographical variation in 211 symbiont prevalence, including Wolbachia with a lower presence in warmer regions [4], as for example reported for many species infected with parthenogenesis-inducing 212 213 Wolbachia [47]. The causes for this distributional pattern in prevalence remain

214 speculative, but a possible explanation is that it is driven by variation in microbial 215 communities of host populations in interaction with their abiotic environment (Box 2). 216 Another line of evidence indicating a modulating role of the microbiome in 217 reproductive manipulation by Wolbachia comes from studies investigating Wolbachia 218 abundance (titre) in a host. The efficiency and phenotype of reproductive 219 manipulation can depend on a threshold of Wolbachia titre, i.e. a minimum number 220 of bacteria are required for exerting the manipulative action. A low titre can lead to a 221 switch of the Wolbachia-induced phenotype in Drosophila bifasciata [24], or to 222 changes in the efficiency of parthenogenesis induction in the parasitic wasp Asobara 223 japonica [48]. In both studies, variation in the Wolbachia titre were manifested under 224 identical rearing conditions, for the latter even in a clonal host reproduction system, 225 suggesting a strong influence on Wolbachia titre by other partners, such as the 226 microbiome.

Together, these examples illustrate that *Wolbachia* may be a potent manipulator of host reproduction, but not in isolation but rather in interaction with the host genome and the remainder of the microbiome and in addition influenced by interaction with the environment. By shifting the focus away from *Wolbachia* as the only manipulator it becomes clear that manipulation of a host phenotype is likely not only caused by a single microbe (*Wolbachia*), but also strongly influenced by interaction with other microbes, and by the host genotype itself.

234

235 **Concluding remarks**

Throughout this manuscript we have pointed out growing evidence that hostphenotypic effects such as reproductive manipulation by the endosymbiont

238 Wolbachia are not only exerted by an endosymbiont alone but in interaction with 239 others microbes. This and other examples, call for an integrative approach in studying 240 host-microbe associations including host gene expression and interactions between 241 microbes and environmental factors, on these interacting partners (see Outstanding 242 Questions). The latter is especially important in the light of the upcoming challenges 243 of our world, e.g. global warming and disease control. For instance, the protective 244 effect of Wolbachia against important human diseases in insect vectors [49] is highly 245 dependent upon temperature. Therefore global warming might cause a decrease in 246 protective Wolbachia, undermining on-going long-term biological control 247 programmes of mosquitoes. In this respect, a broader and more natural approach in 248 studing host associated microbes is needed, as laboratory studies might often not be 249 directly translatable to the field [41] (Box 3). Although in this manuscript our focus is 250 on the traits vector-competence and reproductive manipulation conferred by 251 Wolbachia in arthropod associations, we would like to point out that an involvement 252 of other host associated microbes is also likely for other traits conferred by Wolbachia. 253 As an example, the nutritional symbiosis between Wolbachia and bedbugs showed 254 that Wolbachia-microbe interactions, i.e. the complementation of functions by gene 255 exchange between different components of the microbiome, can strongly influence 256 the host phenotype through genetic changes in the symbiont [22,23]. As similar 257 microbe-microbe interactions are not restricted to Wolbachia but also other 258 symbionts, a holistic approach should be extended to all symbioses [50].

Finally, the interpretation of data on host-microbe associations has to be done carefully, keeping in mind that small changes in composition and/or abundance of the microbial community might have great phenotypic consequences for the host, as low-

262 abundance or rare microbial taxa can represent hub species [51] that are crucial for 263 the host functioning, as shown for plants and soil ecosystems [52]. Network analyses 264 of the host-associated microbial communities might represent an important tool [53] 265 for basic insights into interaction dynamics within microbial communities. For 266 instance, this approach has recently revealed that for several mosquito species (in the 267 laboratory and field), Wolbachia is a highly interconnected taxon, being mostly 268 negatively correlated with other bacteria (i.e. its abundance leads to a reduction in 269 the abundance of other species)[42]. The integration of microbial network analyses 270 with host gene expression networks could provide valuable insights into the 271 complexity of the tripartite interactions.

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273

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454 **Glossary**:

Ecosystem: the complex network of living organisms, their physical environment, and their interactions in a particular unit of space. In our context a host, its associated microbiome and all potential interactions among living organisms and with environmental conditions.

459 Endosymbionts: microbial associates living within the body or cells of another460 organism (host).

461 **Hologenome:** the sum of the genetic information of the host and its microbiome.

462 Horizontal transmission: transmission of microbes between individuals, species or

463 with free-living microbes.

464 **Host:** organism in which an endosymbiont or microbiome live.

465 Host-microbe interactions: interactions between any microbial species or microbial

466 communities (either a symbiont or part of the remainder microbial community) and a

467 host.

468 **Hub species:** microbial species that are strongly interconnected by several links within

a network and play an important role in community functioning and/or stability.

470 Abiotic factors and host genotype can directly act on hub species, thus spreading the

471 effects to the whole microbial community.

472 **Metacommunity:** a set of interacting communities that are regulated by processes

473 such as dispersal, extinction and recolonization.

474 **Microbes:** microscopic organisms, including bacteria, fungi, protozoa, and viruses.

475 **Microbiome**: a community of microbes that inhabit a particular environment.

476 **Parthenogenesis:** clonal reproduction, in which an unfertilized egg develops into a

477 new individual.

- 478 **Phenotype**: the set of observable characteristics of an individual resulting from the
- interaction of its genotype with the environment.
- 480 **Phenotypic effects:** changes in a phenotype caused by an external influencing factor,
- 481 here symbionts.
- 482 **Remainder microbiome:** the microbiome excluding the symbiont under investigation.
- 483 Note that we consider symbionts here as a separate microbial entity due to historical
- reasons and to highlight the differences between both, but in fact they are a part of
- 485 the microbiome and as such, should be studied together.
- 486 **Symbiont:** here microbial associate of any type in a close and long-term biological
- 487 interaction (mutualism, commensalism or parasitism) with biological organisms, of
- 488 the same or of different species.
- 489 **Traits:** characteristics or attributes of an organism that are expressed by genes and/or
- 490 influenced by the environment.
- 491 **Vectorial capacity:** the capability for disease transmission by a vector to a host, as
- influenced by behavioral, ecological and environmental factors, such as population
- 493 density, host preference, feeding habits or frequency, duration of latent period, or
- 494 longevity.
- 495 **Vertical transmission:** maternal transmission of microbes to offspring.
- 496

497 **Box 1: The host as an Ecosystem**

498 Historically, symbiosis research in insects has focused primarily on binary interactions 499 between hosts and individual endosymbionts [3,33] and therefore observed 500 phenotypic effects were attributed to the single symbiont. This binary point of view 501 was challenged in recent years. The 'microbiome revolution' [54] of the past 10 years 502 revealed that all animals are copiously colonized by microorganisms, collectively 503 called the microbiome, of which the symbionts are part. During this revolution it was 504 realized that similar to single symbionts, the microbiome can also impact important 505 host traits [17,55,56] and thus influence the ecology and evolution of their hosts [57], 506 acting as an extended genome of the host, the hologenome [58]. Therefore, it has 507 been proposed that the host itself should be viewed as a complex ecosystem, in which 508 not only single symbionts interact with the host, but also the microbiome interacts 509 with symbionts and hosts [37,57]. An additional scale of complexity has recently 510 gained attention, namely that host-microbe associations are also part of a wider 511 microbial community maintained by transmission between individual hosts and 512 dispersal between host-associated and free-living microbial communities [8,28]. In 513 2017, Carrier & Reitzel [59] introduced the idea of a "host-associated microbial 514 repertoire," which is the sum of microbial species a host may associate with over the 515 course of its life under all encountered environmental circumstances. Due to this 516 plasticity in the microbiome, the microbiome genome could allow hosts to adapt and 517 survive under changing environmental conditions thus providing the time necessary 518 for the host genome to adapt and evolve [60]. From this it becomes clear that one 519 host can harbour a diverse microbial community, the entities of which interact with 520 each other, potentially competing for space, energy, and resources, and ultimately

influencing the condition of the host by conferring multiple detrimental, neutral, or
beneficial effects [61]. Therefore, a more holistic approach in studying the interaction
between the different partners is needed.

524 **Box 2: Factors influencing host microbiome specificity**

525 Host-microbe interactions are shaped by a multitude of factors, i.e. factors associated 526 with the host such as immunity [62], phylogeny [63], host population background [64], 527 physicochemical conditions in the insect habitat (e.g., gut pH, oxygen tensions), and 528 structural filters in the gut [65] but also environmental factors such as diet [66] and 529 temperature [67]. Abiotic factors do have a crucial effect on microbes and the host, 530 and therefore on their interactions. External environmental conditions significantly 531 affect the infective states of hosts including the density of the endosymbionts 532 inhabiting the host body, e.g. high temperature [4,25,26] with occurring seasonal 533 changes of symbiont density such as Wolbachia [9,26,27].

534 In addition, these associations are also part of a wider microbial community 535 maintained by transmission between individual hosts and dispersal between host-536 associated and free-living microbial communities [8,28,59]. While our understanding 537 of the factors that affect the composition and abundance of the microbiome is 538 expanding, there are still many unanswered questions regarding microbiome 539 assembly and maintenance. Exposure to environmental microbes has undoubtedly a 540 major influence on the microbial communities of an organism [42], as metacommunity 541 studies revealed that microbial communities associated with different interaction 542 partners (species) differ in terms of composition and abundance, but shared microbes 543 among the macro-partners [30,31]. Unravelling the role of environment in shaping the 544 host-associated microbiome (including symbionts) is crucial to place the specificity of

545 interactions in an evolutionary context, for instance, by understanding whether 546 deterministic processes lead to the selection of the horizontally transmitted microbes.

547 **Box 3: Importance of laboratory versus field studies**

Given the strong influence of environmental factors (Box1, Box2) on host-microbe interactions, the transitions from laboratory studies to the field might bear some difficulty [59]. Laboratory settings potentially restrict the full spectrum of hostmicrobe-associations compared to the natural setting where these associations have evolved [62]. Thus, it may limit the interpretation of the functional roles microbes play in host biology ([59]; Box2).

554 A good example for this is the Wolbachia-mediated inhibition of dengue virus. Under 555 laboratory condition it was indicated that the microbiome composition of the 556 mosquito Aedes aegypti is not critical for inhibition [40]. However, when released into 557 the wild the picture became more complex. Wolbachia, when introgressed into 558 different genetic backgrounds increased the mean and the variance in mosquito 559 susceptibility to dengue infection [41]. While the respective impacts of these factors 560 are not easily disentangled, similarly complex multifactorial patterns likely underlie 561 many host-microbe associations under ecologically realistic conditions. Given that 562 Wolbachia appears to modify host susceptibility to a broad spectrum of pathogens 563 [34,68], reliable predictions of invasiveness and vectorial capacity of transinfected 564 mosquitoes require an informed account of natural mosquito pathogens and their 565 interplay with Wolbachia [41]. A first step to get a more complete picture of the 566 symbiotic effects of Wolbachia is to investigate these complex interactions 567 simultaneously in the lab and field. In addition, a beneficial approach would be the 568 mimicry of environmental factors, biotic and abiotic, in the lab. Microbiome and

569 symbiont manipulation is often achieved through the use of antibiotics. However such 570 approaches may have several overlooked side-effects. First, antibiotics may affect 571 different components of the microbiome differently and hence alter the interaction 572 networks. Second, results obtained in the absence of (parts of) the microbiome tell 573 only one side of the story, as microbe-microbe interactions might modulate host 574 response. Hence, in order to unravel the interactions and impact of host phenotype, 575 host recolonization by a variety of well characterized microbes, or whole microbial 576 communities, is required. Also the enrichment of the microbial diversity, mimicking possible biotic environmental influences such as transmission of free-living microbial 577 578 communities, might be worthwile. Although these manipulations can only provide a 579 mechanistic understanding of the tripartide interaction and may not be translatable 580 to field settings, they nevertheless are an important first step in gaining a better 581 understanding of host-microbe interactions.

583 Figure 1. Multipartite interactions affect the host phenotype. Symbiosis between 584 microbial associates and a host is a ubiquitous feature of life on earth, modulating 585 host phenotypes (host-symbiont interactions). In addition to endosymbionts, 586 organisms harbour a collection of host-associated microbes, the microbiome that can 587 impact important host traits (host-microbe interactions). These microbes interact with 588 each other either direct via competition for resources and space, or indirect via the 589 induction of a general immune response, potentially leading in changes of microbial 590 community diversity, or abundance (microbe-microbe interactions). Therefore, a 591 symbiont induced host phenotype, such as reproductive manipulation, parasite 592 protection, or nutrition, is not only modulated by binary interactions, but also by a 593 multitude of interaction between host, symbiont and the remainder microbiome, 594 continuously influencing each other. Additionally, these interactions are influenced by 595 their environment (grey circle), such as temperature, or diet, but by direct interaction 596 with free living microbial communities. We thus advocate that only through an 597 integrated approach that considers multiple interacting partners and environmental 598 influences will we be able to gain a better understanding of host-microbe associations. 599

