Using plant, microbe and soil fauna traits to improve the predictive power of biogeochemical models

Ellen L. Fry^{1*}, Jonathan R. De Long^{1,2*}, Lucía ÁlvarezGarrido^{3,7}, Nil Alvarez⁴, Yolima Carrillo³, Laura Castañeda-Gómez³, Mathilde Chomel¹, Marta Dondini⁵, John E. Drake^{3,6}, Shun Hasegawa⁷, Sara Hortal³, Benjamin G. Jackson⁸, Mingkai Jiang³, Jocelyn M. Lavallee¹, Belinda E. Medlyn³, Jennifer Rhymes^{1,9}, Brajesh K. Singh³, Pete Smith⁵, Ian C. Anderson³, Richard D. Bardgett¹, Elizabeth M. Baggs⁸ and David Johnson¹

¹ School of Earth and Environmental Sciences, Michael Smith Building, The University of Manchester, Manchester M13 9PT, UK

² Department of Terrestrial Ecology, Netherlands Institute of Ecology, P.O. Box 50, 6700 AB, Wageningen, The Netherlands

³ Hawkesbury Institute for the Environment, Western Sydney University, Locked Bag 1797,

Penrith, NSW 2751, Australia

⁴ IRTA Aquatic Ecosystems, Ctra. de Poble Nou km 5.5, 43540 Sant Carles de la Ràpita, Catalonia, Spain

⁵ Institute of Biological & Environmental Sciences, University of Aberdeen, 23 St Machar Drive, Aberdeen, AB24 3UU, UK

⁶Department of Forest and Natural Resources Management, SUNY College of Environmental Science and Forestry, 1 Forestry Drive, Syracuse, NY 13210, USA

⁷ Department of Forest Ecology and Management, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Umeå SE-901 83, Sweden

⁷ Department of Animal Biology, Plant Biology and Ecology, University of Jaén, Jaén, Spain

⁸ Royal (Dick) School of Veterinary Studies, University of Edinburgh, Midlothian, EH25 9RG,

UK

⁹ School of Geography, Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Plymouth, Drake Circus, Plymouth, PL4 8AA, UK

*Shared first authorship

Corresponding author: Jonathan R. De Long

Phone: 00-31-64-595-9869

Email: j.delong@nioo.knaw.nl

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1 Abstract

2 1. Process-based models describing biogeochemical cycling are crucial tools to understanding 3 long-term nutrient dynamics, especially in the context of perturbations, such as climate and 4 land-use change. Such models must effectively synthesise ecological processes and 5 properties. For example, in terrestrial ecosystems, plants are the primary source of 6 bioavailable carbon, but turnover rates of essential nutrients are contingent on interactions 7 between plants and soil biota. Yet, biogeochemical models have traditionally considered 8 plant and soil communities in broad terms. The next generation of models must consider how 9 shifts in their diversity and composition affect ecosystem processes.

One promising approach to synthesise plant and soil biodiversity and their interactions into
 models is to consider their diversity from a functional trait perspective. Plant traits, which
 include heritable chemical, physical, morphological and phenological characteristics, are
 increasingly being used to predict ecosystem processes at a range of scales, and to interpret
 biodiversity-ecosystem function relationships. There is also emerging evidence that the traits
 of soil microbial and faunal communities can be correlated with ecosystem functions such as
 decomposition, nutrient cycling and greenhouse gas production.

17 3. Here, we draw on recent advances in measuring and using traits of different biota to predict 18 ecosystem processes, and provide a new perspective as to how biotic traits can be integrated 19 into biogeochemical models. We first describe an explicit trait-based model framework that 20 operates at small scales and uses direct measurements of ecosystem properties; second, an 21 integrated approach that operates at medium scales and includes interactions between 22 biogeochemical cycling and soil food webs; and third, an implicit trait-based model 23 framework that associates soil microbial and faunal functional groups with plant functional 24 groups, and operates at the Earth-system level. In each of these models we identify

- 25 opportunities for inclusion of traits from all three groups to reduce model uncertainty and26 improve understanding of biogeochemical cycles.
- These model frameworks will generate improved predictive capacity of how changes in
 biodiversity regulate biogeochemical cycles in terrestrial ecosystems. Further, they will assist
 in developing a new generation of process-based models that include plant, microbial and
 faunal traits and facilitate dialogue between empirical researchers and modellers.

32 **1. Introduction**

33 Recent improvements in computational power and co-ordinated research efforts into modelling 34 ecosystem processes have advanced our understanding of biogeochemical cycles. However, a better 35 understanding of the interactions between plants, microbes and animals is crucial to reduce 36 uncertainty in carbon (C) cycling and the modelling of biogeochemical processes. Important aspects 37 of these cycles include C turnover times (He et al. 2016), soil organic matter dynamics (Cotrufo et 38 al. 2015), and soil carbon sink strength under a range of climate scenarios (Sofi et al. 2016). This 39 will help address pressing challenges such as soil C loss and food security (Lehmann & Kleber 40 2015). However, there is a gap between the requirements of modellers and the empirical data 41 produced through experimental research. Empirical data related to the functional role of organisms is 42 needed to parameterise models under a range of spatial and temporal scales, ecosystem types and 43 abiotic conditions. The consideration of functional traits promises to generate data that can help 44 inform biogeochemical models (Violle et al. 2007; Moretti et al. 2017). Functional traits are 45 heritable, morphological, physiological or phenological attributes of organisms that affect their 46 growth, survival or reproduction, and thus, indirectly, fitness (Reich 2014). Many traits are 47 commonly categorised as 'effect traits' and/or 'response traits'. Effect traits determine the effect of 48 the organism on ecosystem processes, while response traits are characteristics that change in 49 response to an external driver such as climate (Lavorel & Garnier 2002). Many traits may be both 50 effect and response traits. Using functional effect traits instead of traditional diversity measures can 51 generate more meaningful model predictions, because traits can offer mechanistic insight into the 52 link between organisms and ecosystem function (Díaz et al. 2004; De Deyn, Cornelissen & Bardgett 53 2008; Faucon, Houben & Lambers 2017).

Traits have been widely used to predict how organisms influence ecosystem functioning, with a
large focus on plant traits (Lavorel & Garnier 2002; Faucon, Houben & Lambers 2017). For

56 example, in tropical forests, stoichiometric traits of the tree canopy are strongly linked with nutrient 57 cycling rates (Asner *et al.* 2015), while at local scales, physical and chemical traits of leaves and 58 roots can affect soil C storage (De Deyn, Cornelissen & Bardgett 2008) and decomposition (Carrillo 59 et al. 2017; Martin, Newton & Bullock 2017). One key advantage is that traits do not use taxonomy 60 or numbers of species to infer function, which has previously been criticised (see the diversity-61 stability debate; McCann 2000). The intense focus on plant traits has resulted in the discovery of 62 resource-use and performance related strategies. For example, the 'leaf economics spectrum' uses 63 three plant traits (leaf nitrogen content, specific leaf area and leaf lifespan) to describe a continuum 64 ranging from 'fast' to 'slow' growing species that affects ecosystem functioning (Wright et al. 2004). 65 The principles employed in this approach may also apply to microbes and fauna, and literature is 66 beginning to emerge on this theme (Allison 2012; Krause et al. 2014; Aguilar-Trigueros et al. 2015). 67 Soil microbes and fauna are key drivers of ecosystem processes, and contribute to ecosystem 68 stability. However, frameworks to capture trait syndromes for soil organisms are in their infancy. 69 Given the importance of soil microbes and fauna for biogeochemical cycles (Carrillo, Ball, Bradford, 70 Jordan & Molina 2011; de Vries et al. 2013; Kardol, Throop, Adkins & de Graaff 2016), this 71 represents a major hurdle when incorporating soil microbial and faunal traits into C and 72 biogeochemical models. Furthermore, modelling ecosystem processes requires that traits must be 73 constrained into the most parsimonious set of descriptors, so as not to overfit the model. Taking 74 lessons learned from plant trait literature, it may be possible to identify microbial and faunal 75 characteristics that are quantitatively linked to ecosystem processes to improve model 76 parameterisation without exhaustive screening (Díaz et al. 2016; Kardol, Throop, Adkins & de 77 Graaff 2016).

Soil biogeochemical models have long been used to describe the processes of C and elemental
cycling in soil, but plants and microbes, two of the key drivers of these processes, are typically

80 included only in reductionistic terms because of the difficulty of accurately characterising these 81 groups of organisms (Wieder, Grandy, Kallenbach, Taylor & Bonan 2015). The increasing rate of 82 collection of new data on plants, as well as soil microbes and fauna, offers an opportunity to build on 83 the advances made by previous models (e.g., CENTURY: Parton, Schimel, Ojima & Cole 1994; 84 DAYCENT: (Parton, Hartman, Ojima & Schimel 1998); TEM: (Zhuang et al. 2011); CLM4: (Koven 85 et al. 2013). Soil fauna have been included in biogeochemical models in broad terms, such as 86 nematode and microarthropod biomass C (Grandy, Wieder, Wickings & Kyker-Snowman 2016; 87 George et al. 2017). Increasingly, more nuanced models are possible due to better understanding of 88 the role of faunal groups and availability of more comprehensive data on traits of these groups at 89 different spatial and temporal scales. Evidence from soil food web models indicates that inclusion of 90 plant, microbial and soil faunal traits and their interactions is imperative to improve the predictive 91 power of biogeochemical models (Allison 2012; Wieder, Bonan & Allison 2013; Filser et al. 2016; 92 Faucon, Houben & Lambers 2017; Funk et al. 2017). To move forward, we propose that gaps in 93 knowledge of measuring and understanding functional traits must be addressed and general 94 principles must be identified. 95 Here we propose frameworks to incorporate plant, microbial and soil faunal traits in predictive

the decomposition of soil organic matter (SOM) as an example because it is a key driver of the

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98 terrestrial C cycle, and will likely be affected by global climate change (Davidson & Janssens 2006).

models to better simulate the dynamics of biogeochemical cycles in terrestrial ecosystems. We use

99 Moreover, there are well-established mechanisms to suggest that plants, microbes and soil fauna

100 interact in context-specific ways to influence decomposition (Swift, Heal & Anderson 1979; Allison

101 2012; Filser *et al.* 2016), making them ideal candidates for inclusion in such models. First, we

102 highlight knowledge gaps in the traits framework and the potential for sets of traits (e.g.,

103 stoichiometry, resource capture strategy) between plants, microbes and soil fauna to correlate.

Second, we seek to bridge the gap between modellers and experimental ecologists by outlining what types of data are feasible to collect and useful as inputs to models (Table 1). Finally, we discuss the uses and limitations of three types of commonly used models (explicit, integrated and implicit) and describe why incorporating traits from plants, microbes and fauna will help improve the predictive power of these models.

109

110 **2.** The potential for using traits to describe biogeochemical processes

111 Plant traits have been used extensively to understand the links between plant communities, 112 ecosystem processes and environmental change (Funk et al. 2017). This approach has several 113 advantages, including cost and time effectiveness, and the ability to scale trait distributions from the 114 individual to the landscape level. For example, plant traits change predictably across climatic 115 envelopes (Díaz et al. 2004), elevational gradients (Read, Moorhead, Swenson, Bailey & Sanders 116 2014) and management regimes (de Vries *et al.* 2012). In fact, exploring plant traits across 117 chronosequences (i.e., space-for-time substitution, as seen across successional gradients; Walker, 118 Wardle, Bardgett & Clarkson 2010) has allowed for a better understanding of how traits can predict 119 ecosystem processes at both temporal and spatial scales (Wardle, Walker & Bardgett 2004; 120 Kumordzi et al. 2015). Arguably the most important aspect of functional traits is the strong links 121 identified with biogeochemical processes. Soil C storage across biomes can be influenced by traits 122 including leaf nitrogen (N) content and relative growth rate (De Deyn, Cornelissen & Bardgett 123 2008), while similar traits drive decomposition (Carrillo et al. 2017). As such, aboveground plant 124 traits have typically been considered to fall on a spectrum between those promoting fast and slow 125 cycling of nutrients (analogous to r- and k-strategists in microbial commutities), with plants with 126 'slow' traits promoting the formation of more stable SOM than plants with 'fast' traits (De Deyn, 127 Cornelissen & Bardgett 2008). Extending this paradigm to microbial and faunal groups may be

128 possible. For example, increasing leaf N is likely to increase palatability for soil fauna and microbes, 129 and so N-rich leaves are likely to be preferentially decomposed by highly exploitative r-selected 130 microbial and faunal groups. This suggests that plant, microbe and soil fauna traits might align in 131 predictable ways (Box 1). However, the fast-slow decomposition paradigm has recently been 132 challenged, with greater emphasis on the accessibility of SOM as opposed to the chemical 133 composition (Lehmann & Kleber 2015). Therefore, relative resource use rates of the three groups 134 may have important connotations for whether decomposable SOM is incorporated into microbial or 135 faunal biomass.

136 Recent literature has identified the most important microbial traits that can predict or be 137 predicted by ecological processes (Aguilar-Trigueros et al. 2015; Treseder & Lennon 2015); (Table 138 1). A key distinction has been drawn between free-living microbes and those dependent on host 139 species. It is assumed that responses of the free-living species are more environmentally mediated, 140 while microbes dependent on host species (e.g., mycorrhizal fungi, rhizobia) may respond primarily 141 to cues from the host plant (Friesen et al. 2011; Crowther et al. 2014). Fungi can have mutualistic, 142 pathogenic and saprotrophic life cycles, with accompanying variation in morphology, chemistry and 143 resource use efficiency (Aguilar-Trigueros et al. 2015). This variation creates a major hurdle for 144 those trying to find unifying principles across microbial groups. Additionally, the assembly of a free-145 living fungal community is largely based on environmental gradients, with resource availability 146 being a key determinant. This could mean a decoupling of plant and microbial community assembly 147 processes under environmental stress (Box 1). Accordingly, Crowther et al. (2014) presented a 148 continuum based on resource use, with highly competitive fungal taxa occurring in resource-rich, 149 low-stress conditions, and stress-tolerant taxa occurring when resources are scarce or conditions are 150 harsh. However, the problem herein is that many of these spectra account for 'response traits' not 151 'effect traits', and are therefore potentially too variable or context-specific for models that aim to

152 predict ecosystem function. Further, resource availability for plants may not match resource 153 availability for fungi, partly because of more conservative resource use, partly because of differing 154 stoichiometric requirements (de Vries et al. 2012). A similar problem is likely to apply to bacterial 155 distributions (Martiny, Jones, Lennon & Martiny 2015). Knowledge of abundances, or 156 presence/absence of certain important bacterial groups with specific functional traits, such as 157 methane oxidising bacteria and phosphate solubilising bacteria, is likely to be the most effective way 158 of including bacteria in models, given the problems with dormancy (Fierer 2017) and defining 159 bacterial species (Caro-Quintero & Konstantinidis 2012). 160 Trait classifications for soil fauna are beginning to emerge. For example, Pey et al. (2014) 161 suggest 20 trait measurements in five broad categories (morphology, physiology, feeding, life 162 history, and behaviour) that can be utilised across invertebrates. Moretti et al. (2017) proposed 163 standardized measurements for 29 traits known to be sensitive to global stressors and to affect 164 ecosystem processes (Table 1). As fauna tend to be mobile, community weighted mean (CWM) traits 165 may be useful to predict ecosystem processes. Traits such as feeding habit or body size are 166 particularly responsive to environmental changes (Farská, Prejzková & Rusek 2014), and functional 167 diversity metrics based on these traits are effective in describing decomposition (Milcu & Manning 168 2011). We need to identify traits that can encompass the structure of the food web to be able to 169 include several trophic groups and their interactions. Taken together, plant, microbial and soil faunal 170 traits offer a way to improve the accuracy of biogeochemical models, but for the latter two groups, a 171 crucial first step is to disentangle the role of response and effect traits. 172 There are some issues concerning the integration of plant, microbe and soil fauna traits into 173 biogeochemical models. One major consideration is the turnover rate of microbial and faunal 174 communities. In contrast to plants, microbes and soil fauna often have a high turnover rate, and they 175 can adapt their metabolism or feeding strategies quickly to new conditions. Additionally, faunal

176 composition may rapidly change. Resource use and turnover are likely useful traits to describe these 177 groups, because they correlate directly with biogeochemical processes, with relative biomass of each 178 group dictating the importance of that group in the system (Crowther *et al.* 2014; Fierer 2017). 179 Further, we need to find a set of easily measurable descriptors for traits across all three groups that 180 will describe key soil functions, such as decomposition, robustly across a range of conditions and 181 biomes. There are potential shortcuts using prior knowledge obtained from the plant trait literature. 182 The biomass ratio hypothesis states that the influence of an individual or species on a function is 183 proportionate to its biomass in the ecosystem (Grime 1998). Therefore, it is possible that rather than 184 measuring complex, continuous traits, categorical data such as feeding group could be constrained to 185 an ordinal scale and weighted by abundance (i.e., CWM) (Fierer et al. 2014). Assessing activity of 186 the whole community could offer a solution, and there are numerous methods, including the 187 measurement of enzyme activities involved in decomposition and respiration rates, to achieve this. 188 We also need to include interactions between plants, microbes and soil fauna into models 189 because these interactions can have large effects on C fluxes (Johnson et al. 2005; Kanters, Anderson 190 & Johnson 2015). Of primary consideration is the level of organization within soil food web 191 communities. There are extensive data regarding the assembly of soil food webs associated with 192 particular plant species that can inform explicit models (Yen et al. 2016), but such data needs to 193 demonstrate quantitative correlations with biogeochemical cycling. However, it remains uncertain as 194 to when, how and why these associations form and deteriorate across larger scales (Nilsson & 195 McCann 2016). Furthermore, transfers of C and N between plants, microbes and soil fauna are 196 relatively well characterized and have been used in models examining food web energy flows 197 (Pausch et al. 2016). The next step is to apply this knowledge to test broader hypotheses (Table 2). 198 Ideally, we need to know whether plant, microbial and faunal groups respond in the same direction 199 under a given scenario. For example, under a drought event, plants may temporarily stop

photosynthesizing, thereby reducing root exudation, which leads to a reduction in bacterial biomass and thereby soil fauna (Box 1). There are likely to be other scenarios where one group can capitalize on the decline of the others, and these scenarios are likely to be unpredictable and thus difficult to include in models. Therefore, in order to create unifying principles across plants, microbes and soil fauna, it is imperative to identify traits that have robust relationships with function (e.g., nutrient requirements) and avoid highly plastic traits in order to be able to use them across large spatial scales and contrasting environmental conditions.

207

208 **3.** Incorporating a trait-based approach into biogeochemical models

209 Models require several data formats, depending on their scope. For example, an explicit 210 decomposition model can use raw data from field experiments, such as CWM leaf traits or 211 abundance of soil fauna. Integrated and implicit models, however, may need data in the form of 212 correlation coefficients between the drivers of decomposition, as well as reasonable *a priori* 213 parameter values. These requirements make it difficult to acquire appropriate data for such models. 214 For the microbial and faunal traits, an ideal starting point would be to assemble databases of traits 215 across ecosystems, climates and land use types (Burkhardt et al. 2014) that resemble the TRY 216 database for plants (Kattge et al. 2011). However, as such databases are assembled for microbes and 217 soil fauna, caution must be taken to account for variability in the data that might be due to inherent 218 factors such as intraspecific variability, and the use of different methods to measure microbial and 219 faunal traits. 220 Recently, there has been considerable effort to develop working trait-based models, although 221 at the time of writing, models are yet to include all three taxonomic groups (i.e., plants, microbes

and fauna). For example, there are models based on plant community assembly (Xu, Medvigy,

223 Powers, Becknell & Guan 2016), microbial processes (Allison 2012; Wieder, Bonan & Allison

224 2013; Wieder, Grandy, Kallenbach & Bonan 2014; Hararuk, Smith & Luo 2015), and certain faunal 225 groups (van Bodegom, Douma & Verheijen 2014; Yen et al. 2016). However, model generalisation 226 remains challenging due to their complexity, limited data availability and scalability. Uncertainty 227 in modelling biogeochemical processes has two components, namely that arising from detail and 228 precision in the data, and from the model itself (Keenan, Carbone, Reichstein & Richardson 2011). 229 Quantification of data and model uncertainties is therefore imperative to determine the accuracy 230 and interpretability of model predictions. Regardless of the type of model, it is important that they 231 are continually tested using appropriate data, and that they are used in ecosystems where they have 232 been developed and validated. The evaluation of a process-based model depends strictly on the 233 quality, type and frequency of the measured values used to test the model.

234 In order to construct an effective model for linking biological communities with decomposition 235 rates across multiple trophic levels, there is a need for robust trait data that incorporates spatial and 236 temporal elements. Although there have been numerous case studies exploring individual response or 237 effect traits, little is known about interactions between traits (e.g., trade-off), association between 238 response and effect traits across and within trophic levels, and variation of traits within and between 239 species across space and time (i.e., trait plasticity) (Ackerly & Cornwell 2007; Krause et al. 2014). 240 Belowground biotic traits, such as specific root length or microbial growth efficiency, have not been 241 properly quantified in terms of their optima, intra- and interspecific variation, trade-offs, and 242 functionality (Bardgett 2017; Laliberté 2017). Quantifying which traits affect which processes and 243 how such relationships vary across space and time is vital for process-based models. As a first step, 244 well-coordinated data collection efforts are needed on trait correlations along trophic and 245 environmental gradients (Wieder et al. 2015). To achieve this, there is an urgent need to identify 246 traits that are relatively easy to measure yet informative so that they strongly interact with 247 environmental gradients and/or are crucial for fitness (McGill, Enquist, Weiher & Westoby 2006)

(Table 1). Once links between traits and ecosystem function have been established across contrasting
spatial and temporal scales, it will be important to evaluate if their inclusion improves the predictive
power of models.

251

252 Types of models that will benefit from incorporating plant, microbial and soil faunal traits 253 Depending on the complexity and the predictive power needed, microbes and soil fauna can be either 254 explicitly or implicitly represented in an ecosystem model (Figure 1). Below we outline three 255 possible frameworks to incorporate belowground organism traits and processes in biogeochemical 256 models: 1) an explicit trait-based model framework that operates at the small scale (space or time, or 257 both) and uses direct measurements of ecosystem properties 2) an integrated approach that operates 258 at a medium scale and includes interactions between a model component on biogeochemical cycling 259 and that on the soil food web, either of which could be populated with measured data; and 3) an 260 implicit trait-based model framework that operates at a large scale (i.e., Earth system) and associates 261 microbial and soil faunal functional groups with plant functional groups. To fit with the focus of this 262 manuscript, we separated the models based on how microbes and soil fauna are represented in the 263 models, as well as the spatial or temporal scale at which each model is best equipped to operate 264 (Figure 1). The scope of this separation is to discuss possible frameworks to incorporate 265 belowground traits into soil process based models. It should be noted that the classification system 266 proposed here is not the only way such models can be grouped or defined. 267 268 Explicit models 269 Explicit models seek to parameterise relationships between variables, typically known as the

270 dependent and independent variables. Such models in the context of biogeochemical cycling

explicitly include microbial biomass. The goal of these models is to predict the dependent variable

272 (e.g., decomposition) (Parton, Schimel, Cole & Ojima 1987). Explicit trait-based models, such as 273 those developed for the simulation of microbial communities (e.g., Allison 2012) and faunal 274 communities (Filser et al. 2016), require extensive knowledge of the intra- and interspecific trait 275 variation along environmental gradients and their effects on ecosystem pools and fluxes. Two major 276 advantages of this approach are: (1) the explicit parameterization of traits allows for measured values 277 as direct model input; and (2) complex interactions between organisms are allowed and may lead to 278 emergent properties, such as top-down or bottom-up regulation of food web structure. For example, 279 in Figure 1a, microbial communities could be represented by r-selected (R_{mic}) and K-selected (K_{mic}) 280 groups, with R_{mic} defined by traits that exhibit fast-growing attributes that compete with plants for 281 easily available nutrients, and K_{mic} as slow-growing, but able to utilize recalcitrant materials (e.g., 282 Wieder *et al.* 2015). To simulate these processes, we need to determine the growth and nutrient 283 uptake efficiencies of R_{mic} and K_{mic}, and the trait-function and trait-abiotic relationships. Further, the 284 relationship between R_{mic} and K_{mic} and soil fauna (i.e., grazers, predators) will need to be better 285 understood. This framework explicitly simulates trait trade-offs of different belowground biotic 286 groups, which is useful for understanding fine-scale, non-linear system dynamics. Understanding of 287 how belowground traits should be incorporated into the mathematical equations of such models has 288 shown promising development (McCormack et al. 2017) (e.g., specific root length, Table 1). In 289 addition, models incorporating this level of complexity may exhibit unrealistic simulation behaviours 290 (e.g., Hararuk, Smith & Luo 2015). Explicit trait-based models will benefit from efforts that quantify 291 how the traits of different biotic groups affect ecosystem processes across different ecosystems, 292 which may be achieved through meta-analysis and enhancement of trait databases (Table 2; Funk et 293 al. 2017).

294

295 Integrated models

296 Integrated models are a mix of measured and inferred variables. These process-based models have 297 been developed from an understanding of how soil is affected by its abiotic and biotic properties, 298 land management and climate (McGill 1981; Smith et al. 1998). This approach integrates 299 biogeochemical and soil food web (i.e., microbial and soil faunal interactions driven by inputs from 300 plants) models (see Table 2 for examples of potential research questions). Here, mass and C are 301 recycled in the former model, and plant, microbial and soil faunal functional traits affect the rate of 302 mass transfer as a consequence of simulation in the latter (Figure 1b). These two models operate at 303 different timescales and spatial resolutions, as the biogeochemical model does not directly simulate 304 population demography and community assembly. The level of complexity of the soil food web 305 model varies depending on the research question and data availability, with soil food webs either 306 condensed into a metric of biodiversity or explicitly represented by their respective plant, microbial 307 and soil faunal groups. A metric of community diversity could be calculated for the soil food web 308 model and used to modify the rate of decomposition in the biogeochemical model (dashed arrows in 309 Figure 1b). For this integrated model to work, however, connections on how soil food webs affect 310 elemental transfers, and how plant ecophysiology affects competition and demography must be 311 quantified. Additionally, the ability to track changes in vegetation functional trait composition 312 through time and space without tracking species composition along different trophic levels is 313 necessary.

314

315 *Implicit models*

Finally, implicit models are often used to attempt to predict functions or processes at the global scale.
Well-known examples of implicit models include the CENTURY model, which predicts soil C, N
and nutrient turnover based on SOM turnover and plant functional type (Parton, Schimel, Ojima &
Cole 1994). Implicit trait-based models (Figure 1c) incorporate belowground biotic traits by making

320 the assumptions that microbial and soil faunal functional traits have clear associations with plant 321 functional traits, and their responses to environmental perturbations are similarly predictive (see Box 322 1; Table 2). Such an approach would allow Earth system models to maintain the basic structure of 323 their simulation of decomposition. Implicit models assume that plant attributes exhibit top-down 324 control on processes such as decomposition. Therefore, microbial and soil faunal groups are 325 expected to be adapted to such controls. This means that relationships between diversity, disturbance 326 and productivity are well established in a given location. Most of the existing land surface models 327 operating at large spatiotemporal scales have adopted this approach (e.g., CLM: Yang et al., 2014; 328 CABLE: Wang et al., 2010; O-CN: Zaehle & Friend, 2010).

329 While this approach enables Earth system simulations at coarse spatial resolutions, at the time of 330 writing, such simulations cannot incorporate intraspecific trait variation of microbes and soil fauna 331 and their potential consequences for ecosystem processes. The possibility that plant, microbial and 332 faunal traits do not respond similarly to stress, and are not subject to the same spatial or temporal 333 patterns, are also beyond the scope of the current models because of limitations in data (Box 1). One 334 solution could be the integration of statistical tools such as Bayesian hierarchical modelling to 335 estimate intraspecific trait variation and species interactions (Funk et al. 2017). However, this only 336 provides a probabilistic estimate of the consequence of multiple ecosystem processes. Nevertheless, 337 this approach represents a compromise among factors such as data availability, scalability and 338 predictive power, and is practical based on existing Earth system models. 339

340 The way forward

341 Ultimately, without improved communication between those who collect empirical data and those
342 who model biogeochemical cycles, efforts to close the knowledge gaps are doomed to fail. Here we
343 suggest five important steps to unite research efforts:

Determine standardised approaches to measure microbial and soil faunal traits. Plant
 traits are typically easier to measure than microbe and soil fauna traits (Table 1), but this
 hurdle must be overcome in order to successfully populate models with traits from all three
 groups.

Determine which plant, microbial and soil faunal traits are the best predictors. Traits
that are associated with resource economy and stoichiometry are strong contenders, but traits
linked to morphology and longevity cannot be overlooked, as they potentially infer links with
amount of resources added to the system and turnover rate (Table 1). This stage will require
that models are run and their validity checked by comparing predicted outputs to real data.

353 3. Acquire knowledge about the interactions between traits, between individuals (within
and between taxonomic groups), and trade-offs that might affect the model's predictive
ability. For example, increasingly, alignment between mycorrhizal fungi and plant hosts are
known and can be included in models. Including data on habitat filtering of various

357 taxonomic groups from a trait based perspective would be extremely useful.

4. Determine whether plant, microbe and fauna traits align in a predictable way,

particularly in response to stress and trophic and environmental gradients. Assessing
the plasticity and inherent intraspecific variation of traits and also including "extended
phenotypes" (e.g., pathogen susceptibility, rhizosphere community composition), as traits
themselves would help achieve this goal.

363 5. Determine how to generate the best data for the different model types (i.e., explicit,
 364 integrated, explicit). This aim requires close dialogue between modellers and field
 365 ecologists to determine which questions can be answered using different models (Table 2).

366

367	More generally, when designing large scale or long-term empirical studies, we recommend including
368	the expertise of a modeller, in order to ensure the data is appropriate for use in models. Only through
369	integration of plant, microbial and soil faunal traits, as well as a more robust dialogue between
370	modellers and empiricists, will the next generation of biogeochemical models more accurately
371	represent Earth system processes.
372	
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382 biotic traits of plants, microbes and soil fauna. A) An explicit small-scale trait model that simulates

383 plant traits (e.g., root and shoot stoichiometry, quality) and microbial traits (e.g., r- versus K-

384 selected, carbon use efficiency) and trade-offs, with the transfer of carbon between the soil food web

- 385 (including trophic cascades) and soil biogeochemical cycling (e.g., decomposition) explicitly
- 386 simulated. B) An integrated small-scale model through the connection of a biogeochemical model

387 and a soil food web model. Carbon moves through the biogeochemical model, whereas the soil food 388 web model simulates functional trait attributes or community metrics of different plant functional 389 types (PFT), r- and K-selected microbes and soil fauna such as grazers and predators. Such models 390 only provide output to influence the rate of carbon movement in the biogeochemical model, here 391 decomposition. C) An implicit large-scale model, with microbial functional types (MFT) coupled 392 with PFT. Traits are used to parameterise the association and trade-offs among MFT and PFT. 393 Therefore, the traditional decay rate constant for soil organic matter is replaced by MFT-specific 394 functions that account for the size and type of the target MFT and abiotic factors (e.g., temperature, 395 energy transfer, soil pH). Soil organic matter that is decomposed is partitioned into fast, slow and 396 passively cycling pools to better account for variability in soil residency time. Scalability is enabled 397 through this approach, making such models more useful for Earth system modelling. Boxes represent 398 different physical and biological pools, and lines represent different coupling relationships (i.e., 399 explicit, integrated, implicit).

- 400 **Table 1.** Hypothetical *a priori* usefulness and measurability of plant, microbial and faunal traits to our proposed explicit, integrated and implicit
- 401 biogeochemical models. Note that the measurability designations of easy, medium and hard in this table are approximations and may vary across
- 402 ecosystems and focal species.

Taxa	Trait	Measurability of trait			Usefulness	for model		References
		Form	Modium	Hord	Explicit	Integrated	Implicit	
		Lasy	Medium	Halu	model	model	model	
Plant	Morphology	Growth form		Root diameter				(Cornelissen
		Height		Root area	1			et al. 2003)
		Leaf area			•			
	Longovity	Rooting architecture						
	Longevity	L ife span						
		Seed mass			,	,	,	
		Seed number			\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	
		Seed bank longevity						
		Dispersal						
	Stoichiometry	Leaf/root C, N, P			,	,	,	
		content/ratios			\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	
	Resource economy	Leaf dry matter	Specific leaf area	Specific root length				
	Resource contonity	Leaf toughness	Photosynthetic/	speenie isse iengen				
		0	respiration capacity					
			Regulation of		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	
			stomatal					
			conductance (g_1)					
Microbe	Morphology	Fungi: Hyphal	Fungi: Mycelial					(Aguilar-
	1 05	exploration type	architecture					Trigueros <i>et</i>
		Bacteria: Gram	Hyphal length		\checkmark			<i>al.</i> 2015:
		negative or Gram	Maximal hyphal		·			Buchkowski.
		positive	growth rate					Bradford.
	Longevity	All: Growth rate	All: Death rate					Grandy.
			Predation		\checkmark	1		Schmitz &
			Competition			•		Wieder 2017)
	Stoichiometry		All: C:N:P ratios		\checkmark		\checkmark	/

	Resource economy	Fungi: Hyphal diameter Chitin wall thickness Free-living to symbiotic Bacteria: Feeding substrate Substrate affinity Free- living to symbiotic	Fungi: Production of non-enzymatic substances (antibiotics) Enzyme activity Bacteria: C use efficiency Community dynamics	~		
Fauna	Morphology	Mode of movement Aggregation /gregariousness			~	(Pey <i>et al.</i> 2014)
	Longevity Stoichiometry	Egg size Clutch size Age at maturity Population density C:N:P ratios	Growth rate Life span	~	~	
	Resource economy	Feeding substrate	Activity time	~		

- 404 **Table 2.** Questions that can be addressed by different trait-based ecosystem models. Explicit,
- 405 integrated and implicit models are best equipped to answer ecological questions across fine, medium
- 406 and large spatial and/or temporal scales, respectively, and therefore the questions are organised to

407 reflect this hierarchy.

Type of model	Potential questions
	How can a particular trait be incorporated into an ecosystem model?
	How do different ecological strategies that are represented by different
Explicit model	combinations of traits affect ecosystem fluxes and pools?
	What emergent processes arise from introducing complexity into soil C
	cycling?
	How do alterations to the soil food web influence soil C storage?
	Is soil C storage differentially affected by 'top-down' vs. 'bottom-up'
	control of soil food webs?
	How does drought influence soil C storage?
Integrated model	
	How does an increase in productivity change food webs?
	How does land management influence CO ₂ emissions?
	How does earthworm invasion influence soil organic matter dynamics?
	How do changes in diversity affect soil organic matter composition?
	What is the effect of land use or management change on soil C stock?
	How does spatial variation in the projected changes of climate drivers
Implicit model	influence soil C storage?
	How does global warming affect soil C stocks?

409 Box 1. Connecting traits across groups: plants, microorganisms and animals

410 A number of paradigms have been proposed to classify organisms within groups according to their functional traits. For example, 411 Grime (1977) proposed the competitor/stress tolerator/ruderal (C-S-R) framework to explain how plants with different traits adapt under 412 different environments. Wright et al. (2004) built upon this concept, suggesting that plants can be globally classified along a spectrum 413 from those that are fast growing and promote fast nutrient cycling, to those that grow more slowly and promote slower nutrient cycling, 414 known as the 'leaf economics spectrum'. It would be desirable from a modelling perspective to align functional effect traits across plants, 415 microbes and soil animals using one of these existing paradigms, but this presents challenges. Microbes have generally been classified 416 along an r-selected to K-selected continuum, which has been the main framework for including microbes in models (Figure 1; Wieder et 417 al. 2015). Further, soil animals exhibit 'behavioural traits' (Pey et al. 2014), adding additional complexity, and allowing them to readily 418 move between resource patches. Attempting to create such frameworks for soil animals is still in its infancy, though recently there has 419 been growing interest in attempting to describe the patterns (Grandy, Wieder, Wickings & Kyker-Snowman 2016). Certain links among 420 groups of organisms are relatively well established, particularly between plants and microbes. For example, out of 30 commonly measured 421 plant functional traits (Cornelissen et al. 2003), 14 have been identified as microbial mediated (Friesen et al. 2011). One way to further 422 develop these known links is to consider a 'bottom up' scenario, where plants influence microbes, which influence fauna in a simple 423 hierarchy. This is likely to select for different characteristics (i.e., different sectors of the C-S-R framework) for each group. For example, 424 a stressed plant (S) is likely to offer an increased resource pool due to root sloughing and exudation, which would favour the ruderal-425 selected microbial community (R), which could offer opportunities for competitive groups of soil fauna (C). This is depicted in a 426 conceptual diagram showing C-S-R triangles rotated accordingly across taxonomic groups (see inset a). Krause et al. (2014) adapted the

427 C-S-R framework to explain microbial community functional traits, arguing that microbial communities employ similar strategies to those 428 used by plants. We suggest that on small or local scales, they often do not. This is because plants, microbes and animals operate at 429 different spatial, temporal scales and resource requirements, and a catastrophic event for one group could lead to an opportunity for 430 another (e.g., Birch 1958). Conversely, overall patterns of resource economy have been identified across larger landscape scales that 431 indicate that there are general patterns that may align with management intensity or climate. Intensive management often increases 432 nutrient availability, which selects for 'competitive' plant species (C) and bacterial-dominated food webs. Nutrient poor ecosystems select 433 for stress-tolerant (S) species, which leads to fungal-dominance (de Vries et al. 2012; de Vries et al. 2013, see inset b). This may therefore 434 be an appropriate assumption for larger scale implicit models, and thus plant functional type may be sufficient to infer the activity of the 435 rest of the soil food web (but see van Bodegom et al. (2012)). Please note that the C-S-R framework highlighted here is only one possible 436 scenario under which plant, microbial and soil faunal trait spectra may align. Alternative alignments of trait spectra between plants, 437 microbes and soil fauna that could help inform the creation of models are certainly possible.



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