- 1 Phylogenetic and taxonomic diversity interactively affect the functioning of
- 2 freshwater ecosystem

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Introduction

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We are currently facing a massive biodiversity loss on Earth, which parallels big extinctions of the geological history of our planet (Barnosky et al., 2011). This biodiversity crisis poses key questions: what are the consequences of biodiversity loss for the functioning of ecosystems worldwide? Which ecosystems services will be most affected with the loss of species or functional richness (Loreau, 2010; Naem et al., 2012)? Historically, field experiments involving biodiversity and ecosystem functioning (BEF) have manipulated species and functional diversity of plants (reviewed in Loreau, 2010; Cardinale et al., 2011). Nonetheless, the way experimental treatments were built has been criticized on being too simplistic for not including vertical diversity (Duffy 2009). Food web theory has only recently been incorporated into BEF experiments (Thebault and Loreau, 2003; 2006; Loreau, 2010), especially with freshwater systems (e.g., Cardinale et al., 2006; Duffy et al., 2007; Woodward, 2009). This arose from the need to add more realism into BEF experiments. Much of the theory on the effects of vertical diversity on EF suggest that difference in resource acquisition by animals and plants would produce complex results than experiments manipulating only single trophic levels (e.g., producers; Duffy et al. 2007). For example, trophic chain length is

independent entities and would be good proxies for the niche space occupied by a community (Tilman et al. 1997, Loreau 2010).

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Concurrently, there is growing evidence that other facets of biodiversity, other than taxonomic and functional diversity, are involved in regulating ecosystem processes (e.g., Srivastava et al., 2012; Cadotte, 2013). Species traits represent the occupation of the niche space in a community and how efficiently resources are used. They are thought to be the primary factors mediating BEF relationships (Loreau, 2010). However, it is hard to define a priori which and how many effect traits are involved in ecosystem functioning. This task becomes even more challenging when dealing with multitrophic systems. The reasoning of using phylogenetic diversity (PD) as a predictor of ecosystem functioning is that it could be a better proxy for a set of unmeasured species traits, and then a better representation of trait space, given that those traits are correlated with the phylogeny, i.e., have a phylogenetic "signal" (Srivastava et al., 2012). In fact, recent studies with a single trophic level demonstrated that distant relatives could contribute more to plant biomass (a proxy for productivity) than recently diverged species pairs (Venail et al., 2008; Cadotte et al. 2008; Venail and Vives, 2013), due to increasing niche breath and niche partitioning, resulting in more efficient use of available resources.

Conversely, there are some situations in which PD will not be a good predictor of ecosystem functioning. For example, when effect traits that drive a certain ecosystem functioning do not have phylogentic signal at the community scale (Srivastava et al., 2012). Accordingly, the detection of phylogentic signal also depends on the phylogenetic structure of the community (e.g., Graham et al., 2012), environmental harshness (Burns and Strauss, 2012), and scale (Kembel and Cahil, 2011). Thus, the detection of a phylogenetic signal in the regional phylogeny does not

guarantee that the same applies at the finer spatial scale of a community (Srivastava et al., 2012). Additionally, environmental conditions that do not favor strong trait conservatism (e.g., Burns and Strauss, 2012) or that promote strong selection due to interspecific competition (Gravel et al., 2012) may result in trait overdispersion, which undermine the effect of PD on EF.

Despite the amount of work accumulated in terrestrial ecosystems, in experiments manipulating richness and functional groups of grasses (reviewed in Cardinale et al., 2011), comparatively less work has been done in freshwater ecosystems (Petchey et al., 2002, Giller et al. 2004), especially involving multitrophic systems and measuring multiple ecosystem functions (Duffy et al., 2007, Woodward 2009). Furthermore, no study so far investigated the role of phylodiversity on the functioning of freshwater ecosystems with multiple trophic levels.

Here, we re-analyzed a dataset from an experiment that investigated the role species richness and composition of multitrophic freshwater communities on multiple ecosystem functioning (Downing and Leibold, 2002; 2010). Despite not designed explicitly to manipulate PD, this experiment offers an opportunity to investigate for the first time how well PD would predict ecosystem functioning in aquatic ecosystems with more than one trophic level.

Material and Methods

We re-analyzed the data from an experiment by Downing and Leibold (2002; 2010) that had three treatments with 3, 9, and 15 species, to which seven different species composition were nested, with a total of 21 different species composition. A phylogenetic tree for the species pool used in the experiment was built, consisting of 19 species (*Vallisneria americana* and *Utricularia vulgaris* were excluded since both

species died throughout the experiment; Downing and Leibold, 2002). A pseudo-chronogram was then obtained with the BLADJ algorithm of the software Phylocom 4.2 (Webb et al., 2008) by interpolating nodes without known ages in between nodes with known ages. Node ages were obtained from the web site <www.timetree.org> (Kumar and Hedges, 2011). The algorithm then returned a dated tree with branch lengths in millions of years (Fig. 1). The tree is more balanced than predicted by a Yule (pure birth) model (I_c =49; P=0.75) and the nodes have a tendency to be closer to the tips than the root (Pybus' γ =0.44; P=0.656).

Then, several phylogenetic diversity measures were calculated following Cadotte (2013) to each of the 21 species composition manipulated in the experiment, namely: PD, PSV, NMTD, H_{AED}, MPD, Simpson diversity, Shannon diversity, and Rao diversity in R packages picante (Kembel et al., 2010) and ecoPD (Regetz et al., 2009). PD, NMTD, and Simpson and Shannon diversities increase with increasing species richness, whereas PSV, Rao, MPD and H_{AED} are independent of richness.

These phylogenetic diversity measures were used as predictors in hierarchical linear mixed effect models in R package 1me4 (Bates et al., 2013) to predict each of the ecosystem functioning originally measured (Downing and Leibold, 2002), namely: productivity, respiration, and decomposition. To select the best random effect, four models with intercepts for time, PD, and time + PD, and tank, with tank as grouping variable were built. The model that included an intercept for only tank was the best model. Then, eight models with different combinations of time, richness, and PD as fixed effects, and a null model, with only the intercept as predictor were built. These models were entered in a model selection procedure, to which the AIC_c, Akaike weights (Burnham and Anderson, 2002), and the R^2_{pseudo} (Nakagawa et al., 2013) were calculated. Model selection and R^2_{pseudo} were run in R packages MuMIn (Bartoń,

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Comment [1]: I followed Cadotte (2013) and calculated all these indexes, but I only ran the analyses for PD and PSV. I'm not sure if I should run or not...

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2013) and bbmle (Bolker, 2013). Phylogenetic diversity varied consistently among treatments (Fig. S1).

Results

The best model to explain productivity included the interaction between PD and species richness (Table 1), with strong support of all model selection measures. This result is similar even to the phylodiversity measure that is independent of species richness (Table S1). Decomposition was best explained simply by time when considering PD. Interestingly, both models with time and PSV + time appeared as the best models, with similar R^2_{pseudo} and AIC, but with the model including only time having slightly better Akaike weight. Results for respiration were similar to decomposition, with strong support for the model including only time, regardless of the phylodiversity measure.

Discussion

We found that phylodiversity was as good predictor as species richness for productivity, but not respiration. The results for decomposition showed a complex pattern. Overall, these results are similar to a previous meta-analysis of several experiments with grassland plants that did not explicitly manipulated PD (Cadotte et al., 2008), and a recent experiment that manipulated richness and PD of a single trophic level independently (Venail and Vives, 2013).

It is not clear what mechanisms are involved in the influence of evolutionary history on productivity, but previous studies with grassland plants have equated PD with niche differentiation and the complementarity effect (Venail et al. 2008; Cadotte 2013). Accordingly, a recent study (Turnbull et al. 2013) pointed out that, under some

circumstances, stabilizing niche differences could be related to the complementarity effect (Loreau & Hector 2001). A previous study with grasses found a relatively strong relationship between complementarity and PD (Cadotte 2013). For plants, this is hypothesized to arise from the fact that close relatives have similar resource requirements, increased likelihood for competition, and pathogen share (Loreau and Hector 2001). There seems to be low support for selection effects as main drivers of ecosystem functioning in the experiment by Downing and Leibold (2002), since the effects of species are via indirect effects on other species. Therefore, it is tempting to suggest that the relationship we found between PD and productivity, and respiration is due to complimentary effects. Indeed, there seems to be some evidence showing that distant-related species are more likely to exhibit niche segregation (Vamosi et al. 2009), potentially leading to a more efficient use of available resources and increased productivity (Cadotte 2013). However, no study has provided unequivocal evidence relating PD with complementary effects in complex, multitrophic systems.

PD seems not to be a good predictor of decomposition. Instead, our results suggest that the model including only time was the best model, which contrasts with the results of Downing & Leibold (2002), who found an effect of species composition on decomposition. It is possible that effect traits relevant for decomposition are under stabilizing selection and are best modeled by other models of evolution (e.g., Ornstein-Uhlenbeck), instead of a Brownian Motion model, on which a simple measure of phylogenetic distance (PD) is based (see Mouquet et al., 2012; Gravel et al. 2012). An alternative explanation involves the bacterial community composition in the treatments, which could be potentially be involved in the decomposition process, as already mentioned by Downing & Leibold (2002). Therefore, this result builds up on previous studies (e.g., Gravel et al. 2012, Jabiol et al. 2013) claiming that in order

| 200 | to have a comprehensive understanding of the effect of evolutionary history on EF, |
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| 201 | one needs to gather |
| 202 | We found that a richness-independent measure of phylodiversity (PSV) was |
| 203 | the best predictor for ecosystem respiration. AND I HAVE NO IDEA WHY!! |
| 204 | PLEASE, HELP, SOS, AYUDAME, M'AIDE |
| 205 | In conclusion, our results suggest that the phylogenetic history of an |
| 206 | assemblage can partially help understand the relationship between biodiversity and |
| 207 | freshwater ecosystem functioning. However, much remains to be done to uncover the |
| 208 | mechanism driving the relationship between phylodiversity and ecosystem |
| 209 | functioning. For example, effect traits and those related to dominance need to be |
| 210 | analyzed in conjunction with the phylogeny, in order to test how they evolved along |
| 211 | the phylogeny and how these patterns influence their effects on ecosystem |
| 212 | functioning. |
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| 221 | Evolution of the Federal University of Goiás, Brazil. |
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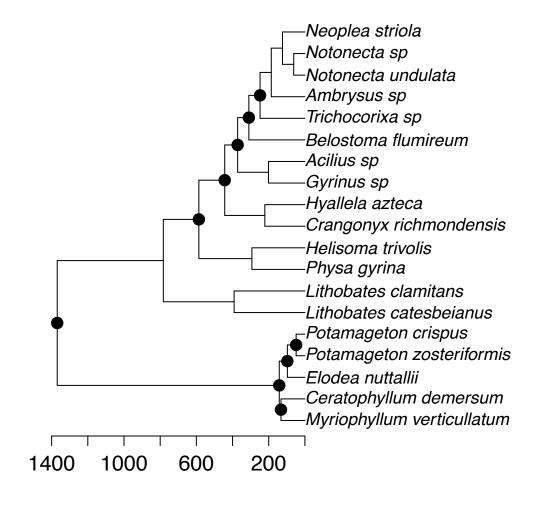
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| 296 | Figure legends |
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| 298 | Figure 1. Pseudo-chronogram assembled for the species used in the Downing and |
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| 299 | Leibold's (2002) experiment, showing the nodes (black dots) with known ages used to |
| 300 | calibrate the chronogram. |
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| 302 | Table legends |
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| 304 | Table 1. Model selection results for productivity using different combinations of PD, |
| 305 | time, and diversity as predictors. ΔAIC is the difference between the best model and |
| 306 | the remaining. w_i AICc is the Akaike weights. |
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| 308 | Table 2. Model selection results for decomposition using different combinations of |
| 309 | PD, time, and diversity as predictors. ΔAIC is the difference between the best model |
| 310 | and the remaining. w_i AICc is the Akaike weights. |
| 311 | |
| 312 | Table 3. Model selection results for respiration using different combinations of PD, |
| 313 | time, and diversity as predictors. ΔAIC is the difference between the best model and |
| 314 | the remaining. w_i AICc is the Akaike weights. |
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| 316 | Supplementary material |
| 317 | |
| 318 | Table S1. Model selection results for productivity using different combinations of |
| 319 | PSV, time, and diversity as predictors. ΔAIC is the difference between the best model |
| 320 | and the remaining. w_i AICc is the Akaike weights. |
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| 322 | Table S2. Model selection results for decomposition using different combinations of |
|-----|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 323 | PD, time, and diversity as predictors. ΔAIC is the difference between the best model |
| 324 | and the remaining. w_i AICc is the Akaike weights. |
| 325 | |
| 326 | Table S3. Model selection results for respiration using different combinations of PD, |
| 327 | time, and diversity as predictors. ΔAIC is the difference between the best model and |
| 328 | the remaining. w_i AICc is the Akaike weights. |



| Models for Productivity | k | ΔAICc | w _i AIC | R ² _{Pseudo} |
|--------------------------------|---|-------|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| PSV*diversity | 8 | 0 | 0.985 | 0.02 |
| PSV + diversity | 6 | 10.7 | 0.004 | 0.02 |
| PSV | 7 | 10.8 | 0.004 | 0.001 |
| Diversity | 5 | 12.8 | 0.001 | 0.01 |
| Intercept | 3 | 12.9 | 0.001 | - |
| PSV+ diversity + time | 4 | 14.5 | < 0.001 | 0.02 |
| PSV + time | 5 | 14.6 | < 0.001 | 0.001 |
| Diversity + time | 4 | 16.6 | < 0.001 | 0.01 |
| time | 5 | 16.6 | < 0.001 | < 0.001 |

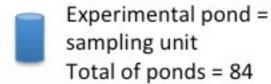
| Models for Decomposition | k | ΔAICc | <i>w</i> _i AICc | R ² Pseudo |
|--------------------------|---|-------|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| time | 4 | 0 | 0.542 | 0.32 |
| PSV + time | 5 | 0.4 | 0.445 | 0.33 |
| Diversity + time | 6 | 8.8 | 0.006 | 0.33 |
| PSV+ diversity + time | 7 | 9.0 | 0.006 | 0.33 |
| Intercept | 3 | 121.7 | < 0.001 | - |
| PSV | 4 | 122.1 | < 0.001 | 0.08 |
| PSV*diversity | 8 | 126.8 | < 0.001 | 0.09 |
| Diversity | 5 | 130.5 | < 0.001 | 0.09 |
| PSV + diversity | 6 | 130.7 | < 0.001 | 0.09 |

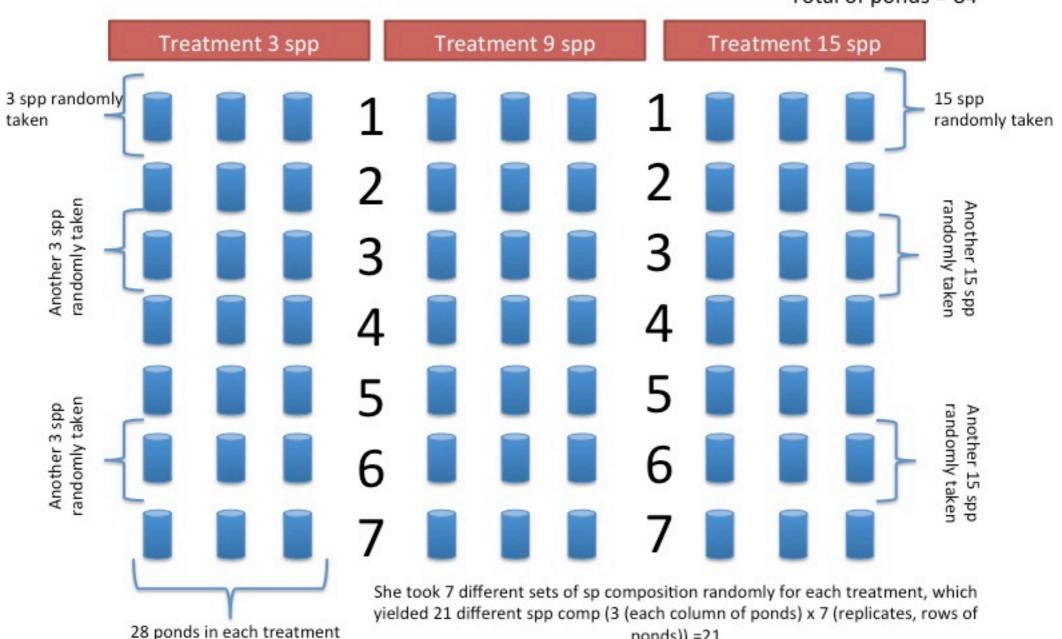
| Models for Respiration | k | ΔAICc | w _i AIC | R ² _{pseudo} |
|------------------------|---|-------|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| time | 4 | 0 | 0.958 | 0.52 |
| PSV + time | 5 | 6.4 | 0.039 | 0.52 |
| Diversity + time | 6 | 12.5 | 0.001 | 0.52 |
| PSV + time + Diversity | 7 | 19.7 | < 0.001 | 0.52 |
| intercept | 3 | 275.9 | < 0.001 | - |
| PSV | 4 | 282.3 | < 0.001 | 0.04 |
| Diversity | 5 | 288.6 | < 0.001 | 0.04 |
| PSV + Diversity | 6 | 295.9 | < 0.001 | 0.04 |
| PSV * Diversity | 8 | 300.4 | < 0.001 | 0.05 |

| Models for Respiration | k | ΔAICc | w _i AIC | Pseudo |
|------------------------|---|-------|--------------------|----------------|
| | | | | \mathbb{R}^2 |
| time | 4 | 0 | 0.971 | 0.52 |
| PD + time | 5 | 7.2 | 0.026 | 0.52 |
| Diversity + time | 6 | 12.5 | 0.001 | 0.52 |
| PD + time + Diversity | 7 | 23.2 | < 0.001 | 0.52 |
| intercept | 3 | 275.9 | < 0.001 | _ |
| PD | 4 | 283.1 | < 0.001 | 0.04 |
| Diversity | 5 | 288.6 | < 0.001 | 0.04 |
| PD + Diversity | 6 | 299.3 | < 0.001 | 0.04 |
| PD * Diversity | 8 | 316.6 | < 0.001 | 0.05 |

| Models for Decomposition | k | ΔAICc | w _i AIC | Pseudo |
|--------------------------|---|-------|--------------------|----------------|
| | | | | \mathbb{R}^2 |
| time | 4 | 0 | 0.948 | 0.32 |
| PD + time | 5 | 6.4 | 0.039 | 0.33 |
| diversity + time | 6 | 8.8 | 0.011 | 0.33 |
| PD + time + diversity | 7 | 13.6 | 0.001 | 0.33 |
| Intercept | 3 | 121.7 | < 0.001 | - |
| PD | 4 | 128.1 | < 0.001 | 0.08 |
| diversity | 5 | 130.5 | < 0.001 | 0.09 |
| PD + diversity | 6 | 135.3 | < 0.001 | 0.09 |
| PD * diversity | 8 | 139.3 | < 0.001 | 0.09 |

| Models for Productivity | k | ΔAICc | w_i AIC | R ² _{Pseudo} |
|--------------------------------|---|--------|-----------|----------------------------------|
| PD * diversity | 8 | 0 | 1 | 0.99 |
| PD + factor(div) | 6 | 3506.7 | < 0.001 | 0.05 |
| PD + time + factor(div) | 7 | 3510.5 | < 0.001 | 0.05 |
| factor(div) | 5 | 3513.5 | < 0.001 | 0.01 |
| Intercept | 3 | 3513.5 | < 0.001 | - |
| PD | 4 | 3516.4 | < 0.001 | 0.001 |
| factor(div) + time | 6 | 3517.2 | < 0.001 | 0.01 |
| time | 4 | 3517.3 | < 0.001 | < 0.001 |
| PD + time | 5 | 3520.1 | < 0.001 | 0.001 |





ponds)) = 21

