Genetic diversity affects ecosystem functions across trophic levels as much as species diversity, but in an opposite direction

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Running title: Genetic vs. species biodiversity effects

Key words: genomic diversity, decomposition, productivity, trophic chains, aquatic ecosystems, fish, shredders, riparian trees, biodiversity-function relationships

Number of words in abstract: 148

Number of words in main text: 4979

Number of references: 44

Number of figures and tables: 4

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ABSTRACT

Understanding the relationships between biodiversity and ecosystem functioning stands as a
cornerstone in ecological research. Extensive evidence now underscores the profound
impact of species loss on the stability and dynamics of ecosystem functions. However, it
remains unclear whether the loss of genetic diversity within key species yield similar
consequences. Here, we delve into the intricate relationship between species diversity,
genetic diversity, and ecosystem functions across three trophic levels —primary producers,
primary consumers, and secondary consumers— in natural aquatic ecosystems. Our
investigation involves estimating species diversity and genome-wide diversity -gauged within
three pivotal species- within each trophic level, evaluating seven key ecosystem functions,
and analyzing the magnitude of the relationships between biodiversity and ecosystem
functions (BEFs). We found that, overall, the absolute effect size of genetic diversity on
ecosystem functions mirrors that of species diversity in natural ecosystems. We nonetheless
unveil a striking dichotomy: while genetic diversity was positively correlated with various
ecosystem functions, species diversity displays a negative correlation with these functions.
These intriguing antagonist effects of species and genetic diversity persists across the three
trophic levels (underscoring its systemic nature), but were apparent only when BEFs were
assessed within trophic levels rather than across them. This study reveals the complexity of
predicting the consequences of genetic and species diversity loss under natural conditions,
and emphasizes the need for further mechanistic models integrating these two facets of
biodiversity.

Introduction

Diversity *within* and *among* species are both important to ensure and stabilize ecosystem functions (Cardinale *et al.* 2012; Raffard *et al.* 2019). Studies on the links between biodiversity and ecosystem functioning (BEFs) have primarily focused on the interspecific (species) facet of biodiversity (Balvanera *et al.* 2006; Hooper *et al.* 2005). However, the intraspecific (genetic) facet of biodiversity has also recently been shown to have substantial effects on ecosystem functions (Crutsinger *et al.* 2006; Hughes & Stachowicz 2004; Reusch *et al.* 2005). Recent meta-analyses have shown that genetic diversity of plant and animal populations affect ecosystem functions, and that the magnitude (and shape) of intraspecific BEFs is similar to that of species diversity (Raffard *et al.* 2019; Wan *et al.* 2022).

Although natural assemblages encompass both intra- and interspecific diversity, most studies investigating BEFs are considering each biodiversity facet separately (but see, Fridley & Grime 2010; Prieto *et al.* 2015; Grele *et al.* 2024). This makes it difficult to differentiate the relative role of genetic and species diversity in ecosystem functions, impeding general predictions regarding the consequences of biodiversity loss as a whole on ecosystem functions (Blanchet *et al.* 2023). For instance, we are currently unaware whether genetic diversity may functionally compensate for a species loss in an (species-poor) ecosystem, whether the loss of genetic diversity within a few species in an assemblage is as detrimental for ecosystem functions as a species loss, or whether the combined loss of genetic and species diversity may have non-additive consequences for ecosystem dynamics. Although these biodiversity loss scenarios are realistic, our knowledge on the relative role of genetic *vs.* species diversity in ecosystem functions are still too scarce to provide reliable predictions.

The few studies investigating the combined effects of genetic and species diversity on ecosystem functions were all conducted experimentally by manipulating the genetic and species diversity of assemblages under controlled conditions (Fridley & Grime 2010; Hargrave *et al.* 2011; Prieto *et al.* 2015; but see Grele *et al.* 2024). Our understanding of genetic (intraspecific) and species (interspecific) BEFs therefore relies on simplified ecosystems that often lack variation in other factors (including spatial scales, abiotic factors…), and in which feedbacks between ecosystem functions and biodiversity are limited (Duffy *et al.* 2017; Prunier *et al.* 2023). However, knowledge acquired from BEFs at the interspecific level reveals that environmental variation can either reduce or enhance the effects of biodiversity on ecosystem functions, hence generating large variance in the magnitude and direction of BEFs measured in the wild (Hagan *et al.* 2021; Van Der Plas 2019). To our knowledge, the question of whether environmental variation decreases or

enhances the relative influence of genetic and species diversity on ecosystem functions has
never been tackled. Therefore, we need further realistic field studies of BEFs, embracing the
whole diversity of life forms (from genes to species) to generate insightful knowledge for
future mechanistic models.

BEF studies often consider a single trophic level, despite accumulating evidence that
biodiversity at a given trophic level can propagate across trophic levels, generating "multi-
trophic BEFs" (Lefcheck *et al.* 2015; Soliveres *et al.* 2016). For instance, studies testing the
joint effects of genetic and species diversity on ecosystem functions have mostly considered
the effect of primary producer diversity on their own productivity ("*within-trophic level BEFs*",
e.g., Hargrave *et al.* 2011; Prieto *et al.* 2015). However, genetic and species diversity within
a given trophic level may have propagating effects on the ecosystem at other trophic levels
(hereafter, "*between-trophic level BEFs*"). For instance, a genetically-diverse predator
population shares their resources more efficiently than a genetically-poor predator
population, which might permit a higher prey species coexistence and hence a larger prey
biomass (*between-trophic level* BEFs due to genetic diversity, e.g., Raffard *et al.* 2021).
Alternatively, a species-rich community of primary producers likely exhibits higher primary
production, as organisms in species-rich communities share basal resources more efficiently
than in species-poor communities (*within-trophic level BEFs due to species diversity,*
Balvanera *et al.* 2006; Hooper *et al.* 2005). Similarly, the relative impact of genetic and
species diversity should likely be inconsistent across trophic levels. For instance, the relative
impact of genetic diversity on ecosystem functions should increase with increasing trophic
levels, because the higher the trophic level, the lower the species richness and the higher
the chance for genetic diversity to have strong effects on functions (Blanchet *et al.* 2020).
Studies considering genetic and species BEFs under a realistic multitrophic scenario may
thus provide insightful information that has so far been rarely revealed.

Here, we conducted a field study to test the relative importance of genetic and
species diversity for ecosystem functions across multiple trophic levels in a natural
landscape. We focused on three trophic levels from river ecosystems; riparian trees (primary
producers), macroinvertebrate shredders (primary consumers) and fish (secondary
consumers). For each trophic level, we quantified the species diversity of each community,
as well as the genetic diversity of a single target and dominant species (*Alnus glutinosa*,
Gammarus sp. and *Phoxinus dragarum* respectively). We further estimated several
ecosystem functions, including leave decomposition of riparian trees, biomass (as
productivity estimates) of each target species and total biomass of each community within
each trophic level. We relied on causal analyses, taking into account the direct and indirect
effects of the environment (through biodiversity) on ecosystem functions (Duffy *et al.* 2016)

to test i) whether BEFs measured at the genetic level (*genetic* BEFs) are similar in
magnitude and direction to BEFs measured at the species level (*species* BEFs); and ii)
whether *within-trophic level* BEFs are similar in magnitude than *between-trophic level* BEFs.
We also tested whether the relative effects of species and genetic diversity on ecosystem
functions (within or between trophic levels) are consistent across the three trophic levels
(primary producers, primary consumers and secondary consumers), in order to generalize
findings along the trophic chain.

136 Materials and methods

Sampling sites and trophic chain

We sampled 52 sites in Southern France from the Adour-Garonne watershed, and
distributed along an east-west gradient in the Pyrenees Mountains (**Figure 1a**). We acquired
data on species diversity, genetic diversity and ecosystem functions at three trophic levels
(primary producers, primary consumers and secondary consumers) (**Figure 1b**). Riparian
trees (57 species in the sampled area) provide organic matter in the form of fallen leaves as
a food source for decomposers. We selected the common alder *Alnus glutinosa* for
acquisition of genetic data due to its dominance at most sites and its functional relevance, as
its roots serve as shelters for many aquatic species and are involved in nitrogen fixation.
Macroinvertebrate shredders (101 genera in the sampled area) are primary consumers using
leaves as resources, and converting them into accessible organic matter for other species.
We focused on the most abundant Gammarid (Crustacean) species for genetic data
acquisition, referred to as *Gammarus* sp. This species has not yet been formally named
although it is phylogenetically distinct from its closest relative, *Gammarus fossarum*
(Carnevali 2022; Piscart, unpublished data). This species is particularly efficient at
decomposing tree leaves, in particular those from *Alnus* (Macneil *et al.* 1997). Fish (20
species in the sampled area) are secondary consumers feeding on invertebrates (amongst
others). We used the minnow *Phoxinus dragarum* as the fish target species as it is an
abundant and important predator strongly impacting invertebrate communities (Raffard *et al.*
2021).

Biodiversity estimates

Species datasets. At each site, we collected data on the abundance of all species within
each trophic level, at one occasion for trees (July-August 2021) and two occasions for
invertebrates (July and November 2020) and fishes (mid-July to mid-August 2020 and 2021),

to obtain accurate biodiversity estimates. We identified tree species along a 200m transect
of each river bank, excluding trees with trunk smaller than 2cm in diameter and more than
one meter away from the bank. The abundances of trees were estimated as the total number
of individuals per species and per site. For invertebrates, we identified shredders to the
genus level (or to the family level for some groups such as chironomids) sampled from two
types of standardized traps installed in four micro-habitats per site: natural coconut brushes
(15*5.5 cm, bristles length 7.5 cm) recovered after 1.5 month of colonization, and litter bags
(15*11 cm, 0.8 cm mesh size) filled with senescent *Alnus* leaves from each site and
recovered after nine days of colonization (see below). We calculated abundances of each
genus by summing the number of individuals per genus found in the coco brushes and the
litter bags, and we averaged the abundances over the two sampling occasions to get a
single estimate per genus per site. For fish, we collected all specimens during single-pass
electric fishing sessions over a mean area of ~ 469.9 m^2 (± 174 m^2) per site. We
anesthetized, identified and counted individuals at the species level. We calculated fish
abundances as the number of individuals per species and per m², and we averaged the
abundances over the two sampling occasions as for invertebrates.

Genetic datasets. At each site, we collected tissue from up to 32 individuals of each of the
three target species. We collected fresh leaves of *A. glutinosa* in May 2020, specimens of
Gammarus sp. in February 2020, and a piece of pelvic fin from *P. dragarum* individuals in
summer 2020. The DNA of these samples was extracted using commercial kits for *Alnus*
and *Gammarus sp.* and a salt-extraction protocol for *P. dragarum* (see Fargeot *et al.* 2023
for details). For each specimen, DNA concentrations were measured using Qubit 3.0
fluorometer (Life Technologies®, USA). Sequencing was performed based on equimolar
pools of DNA ("pool-seq" approach, Schlötterer *et al.* 2014) from each population and each
species. For *Gammarus sp.*, we also obtained a ~600 bp mitochondrial sequence from the
COI mitochondrial gene from each individual to ensure identification and avoid mixing
individuals from different species. *Gammarus* sp. was found allopatric in most sites, but for a
few sites from the eastern part of the area in which two species were identified (Carnevali
2022). In this latter case, we conserve only the target species for creating the DNA pools.
We created one DNA pool per site per species (52 pools for *A. glutinosa*, 47 pools for
Gammarus sp. and 44 pools for *P. dragarum*) and performed double-digest restriction-site
associated DNA sequencing (ddRAD-seq) for *A. Glutinosa* and *Gammarus* sp. (respectively,
PstI/MseI and Pst/HindIII enzymes) and normalized Genotyping-by-Sequencing (nGBS) for
P. dragarum (MsII enzyme). Library preparation and pool-sequencing were executed by
LGC Genomics (Biosearch Technologies®, Germany) on an Illumina NovaSeq® (2x150 pb).
Data processing was performed following De Kort *et al.* (2018), except that read mapping

was performed on reference genomes. The genome of *A. glutinosa* was already available
(Griesmann *et al.* 2018), and we assembled reference genomes from Illumina short-read
sequencing and PacBio long-read sequencing for *Gammarus. sp.* (available upon request)
and *P. dragarum* (accession number on DDBJ/ENA/GenBank: JARPMJ000000000),
respectively. SNP calling was performed with (i) filtering of raw sequencing files; (ii) indexing
of reference genomes; (iii) mapping reads to the reference; (iv) filtering for unpaired and
badly/non-mapped reads; (v) assembling all read information in a single file per population
and per species and (vi) calculating SNP allelic frequencies (De Kort *et al.* 2018). The total
numbers of SNPs retrieved were 583 862 for *A. glutinosa*, 331 728 for *Gammarus* sp. and
414 213 for *P. dragarum* (see Fargeot *et al.* 2023 for details).

Species and genetic diversity estimates. We calculated ☐- diversity per site using the
Shannon entropy from the "hillR" R package for both species and genetic diversity. The
Shannon entropy is a metric of evenness that takes into account the distribution of allele or
species abundances within each site (Chao *et al.* 2014) by weighting each species/allele by
its proportional abundance (q = 1). Results were similar when using the Simpson's diversity
index (q = 2, results not shown).

Ecosystem function measurements

At each site, we measured seven ecosystem functions. We collected biomass
production data of all species at each trophic level (hereafter "total biomass") and the
biomass production of each target species as estimates of productivity, as well as the
decomposition rate of *Alnus* leaves. For riparian tree biomass, we used the trunk diameter of
each single tree as a proxy of individual tree biomass, and we summed the trunk diameters
of all trees found along the transect (divided by the length of the transect) to estimate the
total tree biomass per site and per meter of bank. The same approach was used to estimate
A. glutinosa biomass. For macroinvertebrate shredders, we estimated the total invertebrate
biomass by drying all individuals for 24h at 60°C before weighing them (10^{-4}g precision). The
same procedure was used to estimate the biomass of *Gammarus* sp. For both estimates, we
averaged biomasses over the two sampling sessions. For fish, (fresh) total fish biomass was
estimated as the total weight of all individuals (0.01g precision) per site, whereas *P.*
dragarum biomass was the mass of all *P. dragarum* specimens per site. Fish biomasses
were averaged over the two sampling sessions.

For the decomposition rate, we quantified leaf mass loss in litter bags placed in four
micro-habitats per site twice (July and November 2020). We gathered and dried senescent
leaves during fall 2019 from five *Alnus* trees per site to limit individual-specific effects on

decomposition. Litter bags were 15cm x 11cm pockets of plastic-wire mesh (mesh size; 8

mm to allow invertebrates colonization) in which we introduced 4g of dried leaves before

closing the bags with staples. We installed three bags per micro-habitat (12 per site) that we

removed sequentially after ~9 days, ~18 days and ~27 days respectively to estimate

decomposition rates. Bags were brought back to the laboratory, the remaining leaves were

cleaned, dried and weighed. Decomposition rate was estimated as the slope of leaf mass

loss over time (obtained from a linear model) that we averaged across replicates and

temporal sessions (Raffard *et al.* 2021).

Environmental data

A major challenge for inferring BEFs from empirical data is to take into account the

direct and indirect (through biodiversity) effects of environmental factors on ecosystem

functions (Duffy *et al.* 2016, 2017). Failing to do this may result in overestimated and/or

artefactual BEFs, especially if the same environmental factor simultaneously affects

biodiversity and ecosystem processes (Grace *et al.* 2016). For each site, we measured

thirteen variables related to river topography and physico-chemical characteristics that likely

influence biodiversity and ecosystem processes (Altermatt 2013). *River bed width* (m) was

averaged from five measurements per site. *Connectivity* was calculated as the "closeness

centrality", *i.e.,* the inverse of the sum of the distances of a node to all other nodes along the

shortest paths possible (Altermatt 2013), using QGIS and the "RiverDist" R package. *Altitude*

(m)*, distance from the outlet* (m) and *east-west gradient* (longitudinal position along the

Pyrenees chain) were measured using QGIS; *oxygen concentration* (mg.L^{-1}), *oxygen*

saturation (%), *water temperature* (°C), *specific conductivity* (μS/cm) and *pH* were measured

(and averaged) in summers 2020 and 2021 using a multi-parameter probe (Aqua TROLL

500, In-Situ Inc.). Concentration of NO_{3-}, NO_{2-}, NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3-} were estimated (and

averaged) during summers 2020 and 2021 from a filtered water volume (100mL) using the

Alpkem Flow Solution Iv Autoanalyzer (OI Analytical®).

A Principal Component Analysis combining all thirteen variables was performed using

the R package "ade4" (Dray & Dufour 2007), and coordinates of each site on the two first

axes (38.03% of the total variance, see **Table 1**) were used as two synthetic environmental

variables for further analyses. We kept only these two first axes to avoid collinearity and

over-parameterization of subsequent models. The first axis is defined by a strong

contribution of (in decreasing order) oxygen concentration and altitude (**Table 1**). The

second axis is defined by a strong contribution of east-west gradient and connectivity (**Table**

1).

Statistical analyses

BEF relationships. To quantify the magnitude of association between biodiversity estimates and ecosystem functions (BEFs), we performed piecewise Structural Path Models (pSEM, "piecewiseSEM" package, Lefcheck 2016). pSEM allows modelling direct and indirect causal relationships among a set of response variables and predictors (Shipley 2009). Further, pSEM uses local estimates of each linear structural equation separately (*i.e.*, parameters are estimated from a series of independent models forming a general causal graph), which allows the inclusion of a large number of parameters despite modest sample sizes (Shipley 2009). We ran a pSEM for each ecosystem function separately (*i.e.*, seven pSEMs, see an example in **Figure 2**). In each pSEM, the ecosystem function was the dependent variable whereas the six biodiversity estimates (species and genetic diversity estimated for each trophic level) and the two synthetic environmental variables were the predictors. In each model, environmental predictors were allowed to explain each biodiversity estimate (indirect effects of environmental variables through their influence on biodiversity, see **Figure 2**). For some functions (in particular those associated with plant biomass), irrelevant biodiversity-functions links were not included (e.g., the impact of fish or invertebrate diversity on tree biomasses), which results in 34 BEFs (out of the 42 possible links) having been included in the meta-analysis (see hereafter).

For each function, we retrieved the local parameter associated with the direct effect of each biodiversity estimate (six per function, but for some functions for which ecology-irrelevant BEFs were excluded) on the function (coloured arrows in **Figure 2**), which provides both the magnitude and the direction of each BEF. To smoothen comparison, we calculated a standardized effect size for each BEF by applying the Fisher's Z transformation (*Zr*) to the local parameters. Our seven measures of ecosystem functions were not correlated one to each other (all $r_{pearson} < |0.39|$).

Direction and magnitude of all types of BEFs. We used a linear mixed-model to test (i) whether the magnitude and direction of *genetic* BEFs are similar to those of *species* BEFs, and (ii) whether *within-trophic level* BEFs are similar in effect size to *between-trophic level* BEFs. In this model, *Zr* (providing the direction and magnitude of each BEF, n=34) was the dependent variable, and the predictors were the diversity facets used to measure biodiversity (genetic or species diversity) and the type of BEF (*within-trophic* or *between trophic* levels, triangles vs. dots in **Figure 2**). We included the two-term interaction between diversity facet and type of BEF to test whether the magnitude and direction of *genetic* and

species BEFs are consistent across *within-trophic level* and *between-trophic level* BEFs. We
further included in this model the type of ecosystem function as a random term (to take into
account that each ecosystem function was associated with several biodiversity estimates) as
well as the inverse of the asymptotic variance (v_z=n-3) associated with each effect size as a
weighting parameter for each case study (Balvanera *et al.* 2006; Raffard *et al.* 2019).

We ran an additional linear mixed-model similar to the previous one, except that we
added as a fixed effect the trophic level at which biodiversity was measured to estimate
BEFs (primary producers, primary consumers or secondary consumers) as well as all
interaction terms. Interaction terms allow testing the consistency of major conclusions across
trophic levels, thereby determining the extent to which our findings can be generalized along
the trophic chain. Models were run using the lmer function ("lme4" package) and significance
of fixed effects was determined using type III ANOVA (function Anova from the "car" R
package, α=0.05).

Results

Individual effect sizes (*Zr*) measured between biodiversity estimates and ecosystem
functions were weak to moderate, irrespectively of the considered ecosystem function and of
the type of BEFs (*genetic/species BEFs*, *within-trophic level/ between-trophic level* BEFs)
(**Figure 3a, 3b, Table S2**). As expected under natural conditions (Hagan *et al.* 2021), BEFs
ranged from negative to positive, and their distribution were centred around 0, although we
observed a slight tendency for *genetic* BEFs toward positive values (**Figure 3b**). Four out of
the 34 BEFs were strong and significant; two significant BEFS concerned *species* BEFs
(negative relationship between the biomass of *A. glutinosa* and the diversity of trees, *Zr* = -
0.446, 95% CI [-0.695, -0.143]; negative relationship between the biomass of *P. dragarum*
and the diversity of fish, *Zr* = -0.529, 95% CI [-0.802, -0.166]) and two concerned *genetic*
BEFs (negative relationship between the biomass of *P. dragarum* and the diversity of *A.*
glutinosa, *Zr* = -0.321, 95% CI [-0.602, -0.019]; positive relationship between the biomass of
Gammarus sp. and the diversity of *P. dragarum*, *Zr* = 0.446, 95% CI [0.001, 0.829]) (**Figure**
3a). Noteworthily, for *within-trophic* BEFs, most case studies fall into the category whereby
genetic BEFs tend to be positive and species BEFs tend to be negative (grey bottom-right
square in **Figure 3a**).

We confirmed this visual tendency by summarizing all individual *Zr* through a meta-
analysis. Indeed, we found a significant interaction between the facet at which biodiversity is
measured (genetic or species diversity), and the type of BEF that was measured (within- or
between trophic levels; **Table 2**). This interaction indicates (i) that -overall- *within-trophic*

level BEFs were significantly negative when considering species diversity ($Zr_{Within*Species}$ = -
0.185, 95% CI [-0.343, -0.027]), whereas *within-trophic level* BEFs were significantly positive
when considering genetic diversity ($Zr_{Within*Genetic}$ = 0.168, 95% CI [0.010, 0.326], see **Figure
4a**), and (ii) that this pattern was not observed for *between-trophic levels* BEFs, where no
particular trend was observed (**Figure 4a**). Although most individual *Zr* were weak to
moderate (and not significant), their consistency (in term of magnitude and direction)
resulted in a significant pattern whereby species and genetic diversity have opposite effects
on ecosystem functions for *within-trophic level* BEFs; species diversity is negatively
associated, whereas genetic diversity is positively associated with ecosystem functions, but
only when the influence of biodiversity on ecosystem functions is measured within the same
trophic level.

When including the trophic level at which biodiversity is measured, we found no
significant interaction terms between trophic levels and other fixed effects nor any additive
effect of trophic levels (see **Table S1**). This indicates that our main findings were consistent
across trophic levels, *i.e.*, the respective negative and positive effects on ecosystem
functions of species and genetic diversity hold statistically true across all trophic levels
(**Figure 4b**).

Discussion

We provide empirical evidence that, in natural ecosystems, the effect sizes of genetic
and species diversity on multi-trophic ecosystem functions are of similar magnitude, but
operate in opposite directions. Indeed, for BEFs measured within the same trophic level, the
effects of species diversity across multiple ecosystem functions were moderately negative
on average, whereas the effects of genetic diversity were moderately positive. This suggests
an antagonistic effect between the genetic and the species components of biodiversity in the
modulation of ecosystem functions within one trophic level. This antagonistic effect was not
identified for BEFs measured across trophic levels, since in these cases the influence of
both genetic diversity and species diversity across multiple ecosystem functions was
generally not different from zero. These conclusions hold true across three trophic levels
(plants, invertebrates and fish), indicating that the relative effects of genetic and species
diversity on ecosystem functions are not limited to a specific trophic level.

Our study is one of the few field-based study revealing BEFs across an entire
(riverine) food chain spanning from primary producers to secondary consumers. Indeed,
most previous BEF studies in the field focused on a single trophic level, and predominantly
on terrestrial primary producers (Duffy *et al.* 2017; Van Der Plas 2019). This permitted

encompassing a broad range of ecosystem functions that depict the overall functioning of a
riverine ecosystem (rather than focusing on a single compartment). Moreover, we focused
both on the effects of genetic and species diversity on these ecosystem functions, which has
rarely (if not ever) been evaluated so far and which provides an exhaustive understanding of
BEFs in the wild. After accounting for environmental covariates, we found that most
individual BEFs (either *genetic* or *species*, *within-trophic levels* or *between-trophic levels*
BEFs) were weak to moderate in magnitude, and that they operated almost equally in both
direction (i.e., positive and negative association between biodiversity and ecosystem
functions). As such, the distribution of individual effect sizes was centred around 0, for both
genetic and *species* BEFs. Accordingly, there were only four individual BEFs that were
significant, three out of them were negative and one was positive (**Table S2**). This general
pattern (low to moderate BEFs with both positive and negative direction) is actually
consistent with the most exhaustive meta-analysis having synthesized the magnitude and
direction of *species* BEFs in the wild (Van Der Plas 2019) and with recent conceptual works
(Hagan *et al.* 2021) concluding that strong and positive BEFs should not be the norm in
natural ecosystems, but rather that a mix of positive, neutral and negative BEFs are
expected. Our results confirm, using a dataset encompassing three trophic levels in a single
ecosystem type, this conclusion.

We focused both on *within-trophic level* and *between-trophic level* BEFs, which likely
encompasses a broad array of mechanisms sustaining potential associations between
biodiversity and ecosystem functions. For instance, two out of the significant BEFs we reveal
are negative association between species diversity (fish or tree species diversity
respectively) and the biomass production of one of the target species (*Phoxinus sp.* and
Alnus sp. respectively). These *within-trophic level* BEFs can -for instance- arise either
because, if resources are limited, increased number of species within a patch limit the
biomass production of each individual species, or because of a poorer competitive ability of
the target species under some environmental conditions, which favors the settlement of
additional species. The other two significant BEFs concerned the association (either positive
or negative) between the genetic diversity of a target species (*Alnus sp.* or *Phoxinus sp.*)
with the biomass production of another target species (*Phoxinus sp.* or *Gammarus sp.,*
respectively). These *between-trophic level* BEFs likely arise through indirect effects implying
the diversity and availability of (prey) resources. An obvious limit of this field-based study is
the impossibility to tease out these mechanisms. Another limit is associated with the fact
that, although environmental covariates were taken into account in causal models, they were
synthetized by two PCA axes, and we cannot ensure that all potential environmental
covariates have been taken into account. This can influence the actual estimates of BEFs in

the wild (Duffy *et al.* 2017). Nonetheless, keeping these limitations into account, revealing
these associations (or the lack of) in natural ecosystems is -as ecologists- an important step
forward to set theoretical and experimental approaches aiming at understanding this
complex biological reality. Beyond individual BEF case studies (that were not the main aim
of this study), their aggregation across trophic levels and biodiversity facets revealed a clear
(and statistically supported) pattern whereby, within trophic levels, genetic and species
diversity display antagonistic association with ecosystem functions; the global effect of
species diversity across multiple ecosystem functions was negative, whereas the global
effect of genetic diversity was positive. This pattern emerges from the "cumulative" effects of
weak to moderate associations between biodiversity and ecosystem functions that
consistently point toward the same direction (positive for genetic diversity, negative for
species diversity), emphasizing the meaningfulness of meta-analyses (and more generally
approaches based on effect sizes rather than on p-values) to reveal biological patterns. We
hereafter discuss the ecological relevance of this general pattern.

Our results confirm a previous meta-analysis demonstrating that genetic and species
diversity modulates ecosystem functions with a similar magnitude (Raffard *et al.* 2019), and
results from few experimental studies that manipulated both the genetic and species
components of biodiversity under controlled conditions (e.g., Jiang *et al.* 2022; Prieto *et al.*
2015). Indeed, within trophic levels, the absolute mean effect size of genetic and species
diversity across ecosystem functions were of the same magnitude ($|Zr|$ = 0.168 and 0.185 for
genetic and species diversity effects respectively), and slightly greater than the effect sizes
reported under controlled conditions ($|lnRR|$ = 0.132 and 0.134 for genetic and species
diversity effects respectively, Raffard *et al.* 2019) and those more generally reported for
species BEFs ($|Zr|$ = 0.101, Balvanera *et al.* 2006). This demonstrates for the first time that
under natural conditions, the effects of genetic and species components of biodiversity on
ecosystem functions are comparable. However, our study goes two steps further as (i) it
extends the conclusion made by Raffard *et al.* (2019) to multiple trophic levels and (ii) it
demonstrates that the effects of genetic and species BEFs can actually operate in opposite
directions.

As pointed out by Raffard *et al.* (2019), the vast majority (91% of 23 reviewed studies
by 2019, see also Wan *et al.* 2022) of studies investigating the effects of genetic diversity on
ecosystem functions have focused on primary producers, and all of them were based on
experiments, which is also the case for most studies manipulating both genetic and species
diversity. These trends strongly hamper any generalization. On the contrary, our findings
provide a strong support for broadening the conclusion that both genetic and species
diversity can influence ecosystem functions in the wild. More strikingly, our results

demonstrate that, although the absolute effect sizes of genetic and species BEFs are of
similar magnitude, for *within-trophic level* BEFs, the direction of their effects are opposite;
species diversity (in general) reduces the rate of ecosystem functions, whereas genetic
diversity enhances the same functions. For instance, all other things being equal, higher fish
species diversity is associated with a lower productivity (biomass) in *P. dragarum* (see above
for potential explanations), whereas its own genetic diversity tends to be associated with a
higher productivity (**Table S2**). As genetic and species diversity have been found to be
uncorrelated spatially in this landscape (Fargeot *et al.* 2023), covariation among diversity
estimates cannot explain these patterns. These antagonistic effects of genetic and species
diversity on ecosystem functions parallel previous experimental findings on plants (Hazard *et*
al. 2017; Tang *et al.* 2022). It is now essential to understand the mechanisms sustaining
these antagonistic effects as a step forward.

S*pecies* BEFs were on average negative (see **Table S2** for individual estimates),
which contrasts with the general view that species biodiversity favours ecosystem functions,
although it is not that surprising (Dee *et al.* 2023; Hagan *et al.* 2021). Indeed, the net effect
of species biodiversity on ecosystem functions results from the combined effects of both
negative factors, arising from antagonistic interactions such as negative complementarity or
negative selection effect, and positive factors, arising from beneficial interactions such as
niche complementarity or facilitation (Loreau & Hector 2001). It is likely that, in our case, the
net effect of interspecific interactions mostly results from negative complementarity among
species (or strong negative selection effect), whereas the net effect of intraspecific
interactions may result from facilitative interactions and/or improved niche complementarity
with increased genetic diversity. Intraspecific competition is generally stronger than
interspecific competition (Connell 1983), and intraspecific interactions could be expected to
lead more frequently to negative complementarity (and hence negative *genetic* BEFs) than
interspecific interactions. Since we observe the opposite, we can hypothesize that genetic
diversity is essential to increase niche complementarity within species (Bolnick *et al.* 2003)
and hence to reduce the pervasive effects of intraspecific interactions (Hughes *et al.* 2008;
Prunier *et al.* 2023). Given the empirical nature of our study, it is hard to tease apart
underlying mechanisms. Theoretical approaches, modelling simultaneously the genetic and
species components of biodiversity, would be extremely useful to reveal the mechanisms
sustaining opposite effects of intra- and interspecific diversity on ecosystem functions.

These antagonistic effects were observed only for BEFs measured *within* trophic
levels, not for those measured *between* trophic levels. An overall *between-trophic level* BEF
not different from zero suggests that biodiversity at a trophic level has only limited impact on
ecosystem functions at another trophic level. For example, the biomass of *P. dragarum* was

primarily influenced by genetic and species diversity in fishes, rather than the diversity of
their preys (**Table S2**). However, for both genetic and species estimates of biodiversity,
there was a substantial variation in effect sizes for *between-trophic level* BEFs that ranged
from negative to positive BEFs (**Figure 4**). This suggests that biodiversity effects across
trophic levels may be more variable in their direction than within-trophic level BEFs, which
appear as more constrained. Variability in the magnitude and direction of effect sizes for
between-trophic level BEFs likely blur a more general trend, but this variation is actually
expected under natural conditions in which interactions involve multiple prey and predator
species, fostering co-adaptation among communities from different trophic levels (Aubree *et*
al. 2020; Poisot *et al.* 2013). In these cases, trophic complementarity between two trophic
levels (i.e., the originality of a species based on the identity of the species it interacts with)
might be a stronger determinant of ecosystem functions than complementarity measured at
either one of the two trophic levels (Poisot *et al.* 2013). Quantifying trophic complementarity
among our three target species (and communities) using stable isotope or gut content
analyses for instance would be extremely valuable to assess whether this complexity can
better explain BEFs between trophic levels than diversity measured at one of the trophic
level (Aubree *et al.* 2020).

The empirical patterns we revealed here were all extremely consistent across the
three trophic levels, hence allowing generalization. It is noteworthy that, although statistically
strong and consistent, these patterns must be interpreted with care as field-based
approaches are limited in properly taking into account the environmental heterogeneity of
natural ecosystems (Hagan *et al.* 2021). BEFs were not particularly stronger at any specific
trophic level and the relative effects of genetic and species diversity were not dependent on
the trophic level at which the function was estimated. We may have expected a stronger top-
down regulation (i.e., biodiversity of predators has more effects than biodiversity of preys) of
ecosystem functions since previous studies showed that biodiversity loss should have
greater consequences for multi-functionality when it occurs at higher trophic levels (Lefcheck
et al. 2015). For instance, increased genetic diversity within a predatory fish species has
experimentally been shown to indirectly increase the rate of litter decomposition by
increasing the diversity of shredders (Raffard *et al.* 2021). Similarly, the relative effects of
genetic and species diversity on functions may have varied among trophic levels, and in
particular the relative importance of genetic diversity may have been higher for species-poor
trophic levels (i.e., fish community) because of a "compensatory effect". We found no
evidence for these potential trophic-level dependencies, but instead found extremely
consistent patterns, which, from a broader perspective, reveal the importance of integrating

both multi-trophic and multi-faceted approaches in predicting the overall consequences of
biodiversity loss on ecosystem functioning.

To conclude, we found that the genetic (intraspecific) and species (interspecific)
facets of biodiversity are both important drivers of multiple ecosystem functions in a natural
and multi-trophic context. In the wild, these two facets of biodiversity can, as expected,
generate low to moderately high impacts on ecosystem functions measured across three
trophic levels, and they can operate in opposite directions. This demonstrates the
importance for managers to develop integrative conservation plans spanning the entire
diversity of life (from genes to species). For instance, genetic diversity loss often precedes
species loss, and our results suggest that -in mountain streams- losing genes may actually
be particularly detrimental for the performance of ecosystem functions. As such, it appears
essential to maintain populations with high levels of genetic diversity in these ecosystems.
Future studies should (i) extend these findings to other ecosystems and by quantifying
natural genetic variation in more than a single species per trophic level, (ii) generate
theoretical predictions regarding the mechanisms sustaining the antagonistic effects of
genetic and species diversity on functions we revealed, and (iii) use a broader integrative
approach for estimating biodiversity across facets (*inclusive* biodiversity) by using either a
trait-based approach or a genetic-based approach as recently proposed by Blanchet *et al.*
(2023) and Loreau *et al.* (2023).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

Laura Fargeot: Conceptualization (Supporting); Methodology (Equal); Software
(Equal); Validation (Equal); Formal analysis (Lead); Investigation (Lead); Data curation
(Lead); Writing - original draft (Lead); Writing - review & editing (Equal); Visualization (Lead);
Supervision (Equal); Project administration (Lead). **Camille Poesy:** Methodology (Equal);
Validation (Equal); Investigation (Lead); Data curation (Supporting); Supervision (Equal);
Project administration (Supporting). **Maxim Lefort:** Methodology (Supporting); Investigation
(Lead); Data curation (Supporting); Supervision (Equal); Project administration (Supporting).
Jérôme G. Prunier: Methodology (Supporting); Software (Equal); Formal analysis
(Supporting); Investigation (Supporting); Resources (Equal); Data curation (Supporting);
Writing - original draft (Supporting); Writing - review & editing (Supporting). **Madoka Krick:**
Methodology (Supporting); Investigation (Equal). **Rik Verdonck**: Methodology (Supporting);
Software (Equal); Investigation (Supporting); Writing - review & editing (Supporting).
Charlotte Veyssière: Methodology (Supporting); Investigation (Equal). **Murielle Richard:**
Methodology (Supporting); Investigation (Supporting); Writing - review & editing
(Supporting). **Delphine Legrand:** Validation (Equal); Writing - review & editing (Equal);
Visualization (Supporting). **Géraldine Loot:** Validation (Equal); Investigation (Supporting);
Writing - review & editing (Supporting); Visualization (Supporting). **Simon Blanchet:**
Conceptualization (Lead); Methodology (Lead); Software (Supporting); Validation (Equal);
Formal analysis (Supporting); Investigation (Lead); Resources (Equal); Data curation
(Supporting); Writing - original draft (Supporting); Writing - review & editing (Lead);
Visualization (Lead); Supervision (Lead); Project administration (Lead); Funding acquisition
(Lead).

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687

688 **Table 1. Characteristics of the two first principal components identified by the**
689 **Principal Component Analysis (PCA) ran on the thirteen environmental variables.** The
690 part of the total environmental variance (%) and the contribution of each variable on each
691 component are shown. The variables that contributed significantly to the axis are highlighted
692 in bold.

	Component 1	Component 2
Part of total Variance (%)	21.66	16.37
River width	0.596	0.320
Connectivity	-0.155	**0.646**
Altitude	**0.648**	-0.385
Distance from outlet	0.528	-0.331
East-west gradient	0.105	**-0.795**
Oxygen concentration	**0.738**	0.343
Oxygen saturation	0.266	-0.509
Water temperature	-0.594	-0.012
Specific conductivity	-0.463	-0.045
pH	0.573	0.398
Concentration in $NO_3^+NO_2$	-0.369	-0.286
Concentration in NH_4+	-0.019	-0.207
Concentration in PO_4^{3-}	-0.279	0.236
Global characteristic	Low altitude, poorly oxygenated site - High altitude, highly oxygenated sites	Poorly connected east site - Highly connected west site

695 **Table 2.** ANOVA table for the linear model testing the effects of the biodiversity facet
696 (species or genetic diversity) and the type of BEF (*within-* or *between-trophic levels*) on the
697 magnitude and direction of the relationships between biodiversity and ecosystem functions
698 measured in a riverine trophic chain.

	D.f.	F-value	P-value
(Intercept)	1, 30	0.287	0.595
Biodiversity facet	1, 30	0.232	0.630
Type of BEF	1, 30	5.393	**0.020**
Biodiversity facet*Type of BEF	1, 30	5.567	**0.018**

Figure captions

Figure 1. Location of sampling sites and illustration of the trophic chain. **(a)** Distribution of the 52 sampling sites (black dots) spanning a East-West gradient at the foothills of the Pyrenees Mountains (France). Each site is denoted by a six-letter code, with the three first letters indicating the river name and the three last letters indicating the closest city or village. **(b)** Our study focused on a tri-trophic food chain commonly found in mountain rivers, consisting of riparian trees, macroinvertebrate shredders and fishes (from bottom to top). Within each trophic level, we measured two facets of biodiversity: genetic diversity in a single target species within each trophic level (specifically *Phoxinus dragarum*, *Gammarus* sp. and *Alnus glutinosa*), and species diversity from communities.

Figure 2. Example of one of the seven causal models used to quantify the relationships between (species and genetic) diversity and ecosystem functions. We focused on seven ecosystem functions associated with genetic and species diversity at three trophic levels (green for primary producer, orange for primary consumer and blue for secondary consumer). Each relationship between biodiversity and ecosystem functions (n = 6 values per function, but for some functions for which irrelevant links were not considered, see the text, n = 32 values in total) was measured at the same trophic level (triangles) or at another trophic level (dots).

Figure 3. General description of individual effect sizes measured between biodiversity estimates and ecosystem functions (BEFs) in a riverine trophic chain. (a) The magnitude and direction of individual effect sizes (Zr) of biodiversity is shown for each ecosystem functions as a biplot between Zr associated with genetic diversity (y-axis, *genetic* BEFs) measured for one of three target species (*Alnus glutinosa*, *Gammarus sp.* and *Phoxinus dragarum*) and Zr associated with species diversity (x-axis, *species* BEFs) measured for one of three trophic levels (trees, invertebrates and fish). For each ecosystem function (but the biomass of trees and of *A. glutinosa*), a total of six Zr are depicted in the biplot; four of them are associated with biodiversity measured at another trophic level than the one of the target functions (red symbols, e.g., effect of fish diversity on invertebrate biomass) and two of them are associated with biodiversity measured at the same trophic level than the one of the target functions (blue symbols, e.g., effect of fish diversity on fish biomass). The arrows indicate significant Zr (95% confidence intervals excluded 0, see Table S2); vertical arrows are for significant *genetic* BEFs, horizontal arrows are for *species* BEFs. (b) Density plots displaying the distribution of individual Zr for *species*- and *genetic* BEFs (dotted and full lines respectively).

Figure 4. Magnitude and direction of the mean effects sizes estimated from the relationships between biodiversity and ecosystem functions (BEFs) measured in a riverine trophic chain. (a) The magnitude and direction of BEFs are expressed as effect sizes (Zr) and are displayed according to the facet used to measured biodiversity (genetic or species diversity, light grey and white boxplots respectively) and to the type of BEFs (*within-trophic level* BEFs or *between-trophic level* BEFs, triangles and dots respectively). Red colour and stars indicate global effect sizes that are significantly different from zero (p-value <0.05). Large symbols are mean ± 95%IC. (b) Same representation as (a) but with details at each trophic level (mean ± 95%IC, green for primary producer, orange for primary consumer and blue for secondary consumer). The trophic level at which BEFs are measured is coherent across all trophic levels.

Figure 1

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755 **Figure 2**

Figure 3

 Figure 4

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Table S1. ANOVA table for the linear model testing the effects of the biodiversity facet
(species or genetic diversity), the type of BEF (*within-* or *between-trophic levels*) and the
trophic level at which BEFs are estimated (primary producers, primary consumers or
secondary consumers) on the magnitude and direction of the relationships between
biodiversity and ecosystem functions measured in a riverine trophic chain.

	D.f.	F-value	P-value
(Intercept)	1, 24	1.453	0.228
Biodiversity facet	1, 24	1.293	0.255
Type of BEF	1, 24	7.498	**0.006**
Trophic level	2, 24	1.976	0.372
Biodiversity facet*Type of BEF	1, 24	7.884	**0.005**
Biodiversity facet*Trophic level	2, 24	3.520	0.172
Trophic level*Type of BEF	2, 24	2.901	0.234
Biodiversity facet*Type of BEF*Trophic level	1, 24	2.994	0.224

Table S2 – Estimates of individual effect sizes of BEFs (Zr, n=34) for each ecosystem function, each biodiversity facet (genetic or species diversity) and each type of BEF (within- or between-trophic levels). 95% confidence intervals are provided together with the estimate of each BEF. BEFs are considered as significant when the 95%CI does not overlap 0.

Ecosystem function	Predictor	Biodiversity facet	Type of BEF	Zr	negative 95% CI	positive 95% CI
Phoxinus biomass	Fish species diversity	Species diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	-0.529	-0.803	-0.166
Alnus biomass	Tree species diversity	Species diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	-0.447	-0.695	-0.143
Phoxinus biomass	*Alnus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Between-trophic levels	-0.321	-0.602	-0.020
Litter decomposition	Tree species diversity	Species diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	-0.293	-0.630	0.060
Gammarus biomass	Invertebrate species diversity	Species diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	-0.273	-0.661	0.128
Litter decomposition	Fish species diversity	Species diversity	Between-trophic levels	-0.210	-0.625	0.210
Tree biomass	Tree species diversity	Species diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	-0.183	-0.485	0.122
Fish biomass	Invertebrate species diversity	Species diversity	Between-trophic levels	-0.138	-0.428	0.153
Phoxinus biomass	Invertebrate species diversity	Species diversity	Between-trophic levels	-0.129	-0.471	0.215
Invertebrate biomass	Invertebrate species diversity	Species diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	-0.051	-0.381	0.279
Fish biomass	*Gammarus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Between-trophic levels	-0.047	-0.457	0.364
Gammarus biomass	*Alnus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Between-trophic levels	-0.043	-0.438	0.352
Litter decomposition	Invertebrate species diversity	Species diversity	Between-trophic levels	-0.020	-0.401	0.361
Litter decomposition	*Alnus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	-0.012	-0.394	0.370
Litter decomposition	*Phoxinus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.018	-0.379	0.416
Invertebrate biomass	*Alnus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.025	-0.306	0.356
Invertebrate biomass	Tree species diversity	Species diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.063	-0.236	0.362
Invertebrate biomass	*Phoxinus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.085	-0.260	0.429
Fish biomass	Tree species diversity	Species diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.087	-0.276	0.449
Invertebrate biomass	*Gammarus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	0.097	-0.242	0.435
Litter decomposition	*Gammarus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.110	-0.281	0.500
Alnus biomass	*Alnus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	0.128	-0.179	0.433
Invertebrate biomass	Fish species diversity	Species diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.144	-0.219	0.504
Fish biomass	*Phoxinus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	0.159	-0.260	0.575
Gammarus biomass	Tree species diversity	Species diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.161	-0.198	0.516
Phoxinus biomass	Tree species diversity	Species diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.165	-0.100	0.426
Gammarus biomass	Fish species diversity	Species diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.185	-0.249	0.614
Fish biomass	*Alnus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.193	-0.211	0.592
Phoxinus biomass	*Gammarus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.228	-0.074	0.522
Phoxinus biomass	*Phoxinus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	0.244	-0.064	0.542
Tree biomass	*Alnus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	0.280	-0.062	0.609
Gammarus biomass	*Gammarus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	0.292	-0.120	0.688
Fish biomass	Fish species diversity	Species diversity	Whithin-trophic levels	0.326	-0.123	0.753
Gammarus biomass	*Phoxinus* genetic diversity	Genetic diversity	Between-trophic levels	0.446	0.007	0.830