# Microhabitats shape diversity-productivity relationships in freshwater bacterial communities

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**Abstract**

Eukaryotic communities commonly display a positive relationship between biodiversity and

ecosystem function (BEF). Based on current studies, it remains uncertain to what extent these

findings extend to bacterial communities. An extrapolation from eukaryotic relationships would

predict there to be no BEF relationships for bacterial communities because they are generally

composed of an order of magnitude more taxa than the communities in most eukaryotic BEF

studies. Here, we sampled surface water of a freshwater, estuarine lake to evaluate BEF

relationships in bacterial communities across a natural productivity gradient. We assessed the

impact of habitat heterogeneity - an important factor influencing eukaryotic BEFs - on the

relationship between species richness, evenness, phylogenetic diversity, and heterotrophic

productivity by sampling co-occurring free-living (more homogenous) and particle-associated

(more heterogeneous) bacterial habitats. Diversity measures, and not environmental variables,

were the best predictors of particles-associated heterotrophic production. There was a strong,

positive, linear relationship between particle-associated bacterial richness and heterotrophic

productivity that was strengthened when considering evenness. There were no observable BEF

trends in free-living bacterial communities. In contrast, per-capita but not community-wide

heterotrophic productivity increased across both habitats as communities were composed of taxa

that were more phylogenetically clustered. This association indicates that communities with

more phylogenetically related taxa have higher per-capita heterotrophic production than

communities of phylogenetically distantly related taxa. Our findings show that lake heterotrophic

bacterial productivity can be positively affected by evenness and richness, negatively by

phylogenetic diversity, and that BEF relationships are contingent on microhabitats. These results

provide a stepping stone to compare biodiversity-productivity theory developed for Eukarya to

bacterial ecosystems.

**Keywords**: diversity-productivity, biodiversity-ecosystem function, bacterial communities,

microhabitats, particle-associated, limnology, heterotrophic productivity

**Introduction**

Our planet is currently experiencing an extreme species extinction event (Thomas et al.,

2004; Wake & Vredenburg, 2008). Concern about such declines in biodiversity has resulted in

hundreds of studies evaluating the relationship between biodiversity and ecosystem functions

(BEF), with a large focus on terrestrial plant ecosystems. BEF relationships are generally

positive and asymptotic and thus biodiversity loss causes a small change in ecosystem function at

first and then, at some tipping point, a dramatic decrease in function (Cardinale et al., 2012,

2012; Tilman et al., 2014). While the focus of local and global diversity loss is typically on

eukaryotic organisms, bacterial biodiversity has also been shown to be decreasing at local scales

within the human gut (Blaser, 2014) and terrestrial ecosystems (Singh et al., 2014). Of particular

concern is the loss of diversity of bacterial guilds responsible for key geochemical

transformations, such as methane oxidation (Levine et al., 2011) that controls rates of methane

emissions. Yet, the study of BEF relationships has been more limited for Bacteria and Archaea.

Based on the asymptotic BEF relationships observed for eukaryotic communities of up to

20 species, the large range of species richness observed in natural bacterial communities

(hundreds to thousands) may suggest an absence of bacterial BEF relationships. Several studies

have indicated no BEF relationships with broad processes such as heterotrophic respiration or

biomass production that are performed by many taxa (see figure 5 in Levine et al., 2011;

Langenheder et al., 2006; Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2016). Yet, other studies on denitrification

(Philippot et al., 2013) and on narrow metabolic processes that are catalyzed by few bacterial

taxa, such as methanotrophy (Levine et al., 2011), and the degradation of triclosan and

microcystin (Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2016) found evidence of bacterial BEF relationships.

Beyond the impact of the number of species, phylogenetic relatedness is predicted to

influence BEF relationships based on the phylogenetic limiting similarity hypothesis. The

phylogenetic limiting similarity hypothesis posits that distantly related organisms will have more

dissimilar niches and therefore reduced competition and a higher likelihood of coexistence

(Violle et al., 2011). Therefore, it predicts that communities will have high phylogenetic

diversity due to competitive exclusion of closely related species. Indeed, some papers show

relationships across different ecosystems between phylogenetic diversity and ecosystem

functions (Cadotte et al., 2008; Jiang et al., 2010; Violle et al., 2011). However, studies with

freshwater green algae (Fritschie et al., 2014; Venail et al., 2014) did not find this relationship. A

recent study found the opposite result by showing that closely related green algal species had

weaker competition and more facilitation than distantly related species (Narwani et al., 2017).

While relationships between phylogenetic relatedness among community members and

ecosystem function have been assessed in bacterial systems (Tan et al., 2012; Galand et al.,

2015; Roger et al., 2016), most work has focused on low-diversity, experimentally-assembled

communities with bacteria that can be grown in culture. We need to expand these findings to

communities with richness levels typically found in natural communities.

The nature of BEF relationships and the mechanism(s) that underpins them may depend

on habitat structure or heterogeneity. Increasing habitat heterogeneity has been found to enhance

the strength of BEF relationships (Tylianakis et al. 2008), presumably due to a greater role for

niche complementarity effects in heterogeneous environments (Cardinale 2011). While habitat

heterogeneity contributes to increased diversity within bacterial populations and communities

(Zhou et al., 2008; Shade et al., 2008), the influence of habitat heterogeneity on BEF

relationships remains unknown for bacterial systems.

In this study, we hypothesized that bacterial diversity would be positively correlated with

bacterial heterotrophic production, and that this relationship would be stronger in more

heterogeneous environments. We simultaneously surveyed free-living and particle-associated

surface water bacterial communities. Particulate matter comprises a variety of types and sizes of

particles with each particle also harboring physicochemical gradients (Simon et al., 2002), and

hence represents a more heterogeneous habitat than the surrounding water. We tested BEF

relationships using a variety of diversity metrics including observed richness, species dominance,

and phylogenetic diversity. We focused on heterotrophic bacterial production as our measure of

ecosystem function, as it is a key process affecting freshwater bacterial growth that in turn fuels

the macroscopic food web through their recycling of nutrients bound in organic matter (Cotner &

Biddanda, 2002).

**Methods**

*Lake sampling and sample processing*

Surface water samples were collected at 1 meter depth from 4 long-term sampling stations

(Steinman et al., 2008) in mesotrophic Muskegon Lake (**Figure S1**), which is a freshwater

estuarine lake connecting the Muskegon River and Lake Michigan. These stations included the

mouth of the Muskegon River (43.250133,-86.2557), the channel to Bear Lake (43.238717,-

86.299283; a hypereutrophic lake), channel to Lake Michigan (43.2333,-86.3229; oligotrophic

lake), and the deepest basin of Muskegon Lake (43.223917,-86.2972; max depth = 24 m).

Samples were collected during the morning to early afternoon of 3 days in 2015 (May 12,

July 21, & September 30) aboard the R/V W.G. *Jackson*. All water samples were collected with

vertical Van Dorn samplers. Additionally, a vertical profile of temperature (T), pH, specific

conductivity (SPC), oxidation-reduction potential (ORP), chlorophyll (Chl*a*), total dissolved

solids (TDS), and dissolved oxygen (DO) was constructed at each station to characterize the

water column using a calibrated YSI 6600 V2-4 multiparameter water quality sonde (Yellow

Springs Instruments Inc.). Total Kjeldahl nitrogen (TKN), ammonia ($NH_3$), total phosphorus

(TP), and alkalinity (Alk) were processed from whole water while nitrate ($NO_3$), phosphate

($PO_4$), and chloride ($Cl^-$) were hand filtered using a 60 mL syringe fitted with Sweeny filter

holder with a 13 mm diameter 0.45 µm pore size nitrocellulose filters (Millipore) and were

determined by standard wet chemistry methods in the laboratory (EPA, 1993).

***Bacterial abundance by epifluorescence microscopy***

Lake surface water samples were processed within 2-6 hours of their collection for determination

of heterotrophic bacterial abundance. Samples (5 mL) were preserved with 2% formalin and 1

mL subsamples were stained with acridine orange stain and filtered onto black 25 mm 0.2 µm

pore size polycarbonate filters (Millipore) at a maximum pressure of 0.1 Bar or 1.5 PSI. Prepared

slides were stored frozen until enumeration by standard epifluorescence microscopy at 1000x

magnification under blue light excitation (Hobbie et al. 1977). Bacteria within the field of view

(100 µm x 100 µm) that were not associated with any particles were counted as free-living

bacteria, whereas bacteria that were on particles were counted as particle-associated. Sample

filtration may bias counts due to free-living or particle-associated cells being hidden on the

underside of particles, , free-living bacteria settling on top of particles, or particle-associated

cells dislodging. In the absence of any quantitative studies that have rigorously addressed this

issue, we have assumed the net effect of these opposing methodological biases to be negligible in

the present study.

*Heterotrophic bacterial production measurements*

Community-wide heterotrophic bacterial production was measured using [$^3$H] leucine

incorporation into bacterial protein in the dark (Kirchman et al. 1985; Simon and Azam, 1989).

At the end of the incubation with [$^3$H]-leucine, cold trichloroacetic acid-extracted samples were

filtered onto 3 μm filters that represented the leucine incorporation by particle-associated

bacteria (>3.0 μm). Each filtrate was collected and filtered onto 0.2 μm filters and the activity

therein represented incorporation of leucine by free-living bacteria (>0.2 μm-<3 μm). Measured

leucine incorporation during the incubation was converted to bacterial carbon production rate

using a standard theoretical conversion factor of 2.3 kg C per mole of leucine (Simon and Azam,

1989). Per-capita heterotrophic production was estimated by dividing heterotrophic production

by the cell counts measured in each fraction.

*Preservation of bacterial filters in the field*

Microbial biomass for the particle-associated (> 3 μm) fraction and the free-living (3–0.22 μm

fraction) bacterial fraction was collected by sequential in-line filtration on 3 μm isopore

polycarbonate (TSTP, 47 mm diameter, Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) and 0.22 μm Express

Plus polyethersulfone membrane filters (47 mm diameter, Millipore, MA, USA). We used 47

mm polycarbonate in-line filter holders (Pall Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI, USA)and an E/S

portable peristaltic pump with an easy-load L/S pump head (Masterflex®, Cole Parmer

Instrument Company, Vernon Hills, IL, USA). The total volume filtered varied from 0.8–2.2 L

with a maximum filtration time of 16 minutes per sample. Filters were submerged in RNAlater

(Ambion) in 2 mL cryovials, frozen in liquid nitrogen and transferred to a $-80°C$ freezer until

DNA extraction.

*DNA extraction, sequencing and processing*

DNA extractions were performed using an optimized method based on the AllPrep

DNA/RNA/miRNA Universal kit (Qiagen; McCarthy et al., 2015; details in supplementary

methods). Extracted DNA was sequenced using Illumina MiSeq V2 chemistry $2 \times 250$ (500

cycles) of dual index-labelled primers that targeted the V4 hypervariable region of the 16S rRNA

gene (515F/806R) (Caporaso et al., 2012; Kozich et al., 2013) at the Microbial Systems

Laboratories at the University of Michigan Medical School in July 2016. RTA V1.17.28 and

MCS V2.2.0 software were used to generate data. Fastq files were submitted to NCBI sequence

read archive under BioProject accession number PRJNA412984. We analyzed the sequence data

using MOTHUR V.1.38.0 (seed = 777; Schloss et al., 2009) based on the MiSeq standard

operating procedure accessed on 3 November 2015 and modified with time (see data

accessibility and supplemental methods). For classification of operational taxonomic units

(OTUs), a combination of the Silva Database (release 123; Quast et al., 2013) and the freshwater

TaxAss 16S rRNA database and pipeline (Rohwer et al., 2017, accessed August 18, 2016). All

non-bacterial and chloroplast sequences were pruned out of the dataset and replicate samples

were merged by summing sample sequencing read counts using the *merge_samples* function

(phyloseq). A batch script for our protocol can be found in this project's GitHub page at

https://github.com/DenefLab/Diversity_Productivity/blob/master/data/mothur/mothur.batch.taxa

ss.

***Estimating Diversity***

To get the best estimate of each diversity metric, each sample was subsampled to 6,664

sequences (the smallest library size) with replacement and were averaged over 100 trials.

Observed richness, Shannon entropy, and inverse Simpson's index were calculated using the

*diversity* function within the vegan (Oksanen et al., 2013) R package via the *estimate_richness*

function in the phyloseq (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013) R package. Simpson's Evenness was

calculated by dividing the inverse Simpson's index by the observed richness (Magurran, 2004).

To calculate phylogenetic diversity, we first removed OTUs that had a count of 2 sequences or

less throughout the entire dataset, as these are more prone to be artefacts originating from

sequencing errors or the OTU clustering algorithm. Representative sequences of each of the

1,891 remaining OTUs were collected from the aligned fasta file produced within mothur, and

header names in the mothur output fasta file were modified using bbmap (Bushnell, 2016) to

only include the OTU name. A phylogenetic tree was created with FastTree using the GTR+CAT

(general time reversible) model (Price et al., 2010). Mismatches between the species community

data matrix and the phylogenetic tree were checked with the *match.phylo.comm* command

(picante). Finally, both abundance-unweighted and -weighted phylogenetic diversity was

estimated using specifications described in the next paragraph with the picante R package.

The most common phylogenetic diversity (PD) measure is Faith's PD (Faith, 1992),

however, this metric is very strongly correlated with species richness (**Figure S2**). Instead, the

mean pairwise phylogenetic distance (or MPD) was calculated (*ses.mpd* function in the *Picante*

R package (Kembell et al., 2010), null.model = "independentswap"). The MPD measures the

average phylogenetic distance between all combinations of two taxa pulled from the observed

community and compares it with a null community of equal richness pulled from the gamma

diversity of all the samples (*see supplemental methods for more details*). Values higher than zero

indicate phylogenetic evenness or overdispersion (higher phylogenetic diversity) while values

less than zero indicate phylogenetic clustering (lower diversity) or that species are more closely

related than expected according to the null community (Kembel, 2009). Thus, this phylogenetic

metric is relative. From here, we will refer to the $SES_{MPD}$ as the "phylogenetic diversity" for

simplicity and clarity.

***Statistical analysis***

Further analysis of sequence data was performed in R version 3.4.2 (R Core Team 2017;

*see supplemental methods for more details*). To test which variable(s) were the best predictors of

community and per-capita heterotrophic production, we performed variable selection via a lasso

regression (using the *glmnet* R package, alpha = 1, and lambda.1se as the tuning parameter

(Friedman et al., 2010)) on all of the environmental, biodiversity, and principal component

variables. To further validate the lasso regression results, we performed ordinary least squares

(OLS) regressions on all variables, including the principal components (PCA) of the euclidean

distances of the environmental data. We used the Akaike information criterion (AIC) (accessed

with the *broom::glance()* command) to select the best performing OLS regression model.

***Data and code availability***

Original fastq files can be found on the NCBI sequence read archive under BioProject accession

number PRJNA412984. Processed data and code can be found on the GitHub page for this

project at https://deneflab.github.io/Diversity_Productivity/ with the main analysis at

https://deneflab.github.io/Diversity_Productivity/Final_Analysis.html.

**Results**

***Free-living communities had more cells and higher community-wide heterotrophic production***

***but particle-associated communities had higher per-capita heterotrophic production***

We observed an order of magnitude more cells per milliliter ($p = 1 \times 10^{-6}$, Figure 1A) and

~2.5 times more community-wide heterotrophic production in the free-living fraction ($p = 0.024$,

Figure 1B). However, when calculated per-capita, particle-associated bacteria were on average

an order of magnitude more productive than free-living bacteria ($p = 7 \times 10^{-5}$, Figure 1C).

Particle-associated and free-living cell abundances in samples taken from the same water sample

did not correlate (Figure S3A). Heterotrophic production between corresponding free-living and

particle-associated fractions from the same water sample were positively correlated for both

community (Adjusted $R^2 = 0.40$, $p = 0.017$; Figure S3B) and per-capita production rates

(Adjusted $R^2 = 0.60$, $p = 0.003$; Figure S3C).

***Particle-associated communities are more diverse in terms of observed richness and Shannon***

***Entropy while free-living communities are more phylogenetically diverse***

Across all samples, particle-associated bacterial communities were more diverse than

free-living communities when considering richness and Shannon entropy (Figures 2A & S4A),

but similar in the inverse Simpson's index and Simpson's evenness (Figure 2B & S4B).

Particle-associated bacterial community richness was always higher than in free-living

communities and was maintained across the four sampling stations in the lake (Figure S5A).

Particle-associated samples at the river and Bear lake stations were on average more OTU-rich

than the outlet to Lake Michigan and the Deep stations. Additionally, the river station had almost

twice the inverse Simpson's value as compared with all other lake stations (Mean inverse

Simpson Indices: Outlet = 23.6; Deep = 23.7; Bear = 35.3; River = 59.1; Figure S5A).

240           Particle-associated communities were more phylogenetically clustered than free-living

communities based on unweighted phylogenetic diversity (p = 0.01, Figure 3A). Compared to

other particle-associated samples, the outlet station that connects to oligotrophic Lake Michigan

had a much larger unweighted phylogenetic diversity, indicating phylogenetic overdispersion

(Figure S5A). Nevertheless, no sample across the entire dataset differed significantly from the

null model with a significance threshold p-value of 0.05. There was no difference between

weighted phylogenetic diversity in particle-associated versus free-living communities (Figure

S5A).

***Diversity-Productivity relationships are only observed in particle-associated communities***

249           There was a strong, positive, linear BEF relationship between community-wide (Figures

2C-D & S4C-D) and per-capita (Figures 2E-F & S4E-F) heterotrophic productivity and all

richness and evenness diversity metrics in the particle-associated communities, while no BEF

relationships were observed for the free-living communities. The inverse Simpson's index

explained the most amount of variation in community-wide (Figure 2D; Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.69, p =

5 x $10^{-4}$) and per-capita (Figure 2F; Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.69, p = 0.001) heterotrophic production.

These results are robust across a range of minimum OTU abundance filtering thresholds (see

*Sensitivity Analysis of Rare Taxa* in the supplemental methods and Figure S6) and hold up for all

threshold levels in Inverse Simpson and for richness until removal of 25 counts (community-

wide heterotrophic production) and 15 counts (per-capita heterotrophic production). When the

particle-associated and free-living samples were combined together into one linear model to test

an overall relationship between diversity and productivity, there was no relationship (richness: p

= 0.86; Shannon: p = 0.99; Inverse Simpson: p = 0.36), with the exception of a weak correlation

for Simpson's Evenness (Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.12, p = 0.054). However, when particle-associated and

free-living samples were combined together into one linear model to test an overall relationship

between diversity and productivity, there was a strong relationship with observed richness

(Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.63, p = 3 x $10^{-6}$), which broke down as evenness was weighed more (Figure S7:

Shannon: Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.52, 6 x $10^{-5}$; Inverse Simpson: Adjusted $R^2$ = 0.48, p = 2 x $10^{-4}$;

Simpson's Evenness: p = 0.48).

***Phylogenetic diversity correlated with per-capita heterotrophic production but not with***

***community-wide production***

Abundance-weighted phylogenetic diversity was not correlated with community or per-

capita heterotrophic production (Figure S8C - S8D) and therefore no further analyses were

performed with this diversity metric.

There was a moderate, negative, linear relationship when particle-associated and free-

living samples were combined together into one linear model to test an overall relationship

between unweighted phylogenetic diversity and observed richness (Figure 3B; Adjusted $R^2$ =

0.35, p = 0.001). To further validate this trend, randomized communities were generated with an

equal richness as the samples but with OTUs randomly picked across the dataset. The

unweighted phylogenetic diversity was then calculated and regressed against each the

randomized richness and there was no relationship (Figure S9; Adjusted $R^2$ = -0.02, p = 0.44),

verifying the negative relationship in the actual samples. When particle-associated and free-

living samples were individually run in separate linear models to test for habitat-specific

relationships between unweighted phylogenetic diversity and observed richness, no trend was

found in either particle-associated or free-living models (Figure 3B; Particle: Adjusted $R^2 = 0.14$,

p = 0.12; Free = Adjusted $R^2 = -0.10$, p = 0.97). In other words, particle-associated and free-

living diversities did not have individual effects on community-wide or per-capita heterotrophic

production but rather, all samples were necessary for a correlation between per-capita

heterotrophic production and unweighted phylogenetic diversity.

There was no correlation between phylogenetic diversity and community-wide

heterotrophic production (Figure 3C). However, a negative correlation was found when particle-

associated and free-living samples were combined into one linear model to test an overall

relationship between unweighted phylogenetic diversity and per-capita heterotrophic production

(Figure 3D; $R^2 = 0.42$, p = 5 x $10^{-4}$). Therefore, these two results in combination indicated that

communities composed of more phylogenetically similar OTUs had a higher per-capita

heterotrophic production rate.

***Diversity, and not environmental variation, is the best predictor of particle-associated***

***heterotrophic production***

To identify variables that best predicted community-wide and per-capita heterotrophic

production (*i.e.* remove variables that were correlated with each other and/or uninformative

variables), we performed lasso regression with all samples and individually with particle-

associated and free-living samples. For prediction of community-wide heterotrophic production,

only the inverse Simpson's index was selected for particle-associated samples whereas pH and

PC5 were selected for free-living samples, and no variables were selected when all samples were

included in the lasso regression. In contrast, for per-capita heterotrophic production, temperature

and the inverse Simpson's index were selected for particle-associated samples whereas pH was

the only predictor for free-living samples, and observed richness was the only predictor for all

samples (plotted in Figure S7A). Therefore, the best model for particle-associated microhabitats

*always* included inverse Simpson's index whereas free-living samples only included

environmental variables, such as pH.

To further verify that there were no confounding impacts of seasonal and environmental

variables on community-wide and per-capita heterotrophic production, we performed ordinary

least square (OLS) regressions and a dimension-reduction analysis of the environmental

variables through a principal components analysis (Table S1 & S2; Figure S10). Specifically, the

first 2 environmental axes explained ~70% of the environmental variation in the sampling sites

(Figure S10). Next, we predicted community-wide and per-capita heterotrophic production with

all environmental variables and the first six principal components as predictor variables with

individual particle-associated and free-living samples, and combined (*i.e.* all samples) models

(Table S1 & S2). The best single predictor of community-wide heterotrophic production was

Inverse Simpson for particle-associated samples (AIC = 74.34; $R^2$ = 0.69), pH for the free-living

samples (AIC =98.43; $R^2$ = 0.49, p = 0.006), and pH for all samples (AIC = 192.16; $R^2$ = 0.35)

(Table S1). Whereas, the best single predictor of per-capita heterotrophic production was Inverse

Simpson for particle-associated samples (AIC = 8.29; $R^2$ = 0.69), pH for the free-living samples

(AIC = -2.39; $R^2$ = 0.78), and observed richness for all samples (AIC = 24.72; $R^2$ = 0.63) (Table

S2). Thus, the OLS regressions are in agreement with the lasso regressions.

**Discussion**

We examined bacterial biodiversity-ecosystem function (BEF) relationships in relation to

two microhabitats within freshwater lakes: particulate matter and the surrounding water. First,

we found that community-wide and per-capita heterotrophic productivity of particle-associated

but not free-living bacterial communities showed a positive, linear BEF relationship with both

richness and evenness contributing. Second, particle-associated heterotrophic production was

better explained by diversity (*i.e.* inverse Simpson's index) than by environmental parameters.

Third, across both particle-associated and free-living communities, higher richness was

associated with lower phylogenetic diversity which, in turn, was associated with higher per-

capita heterotrophic bacterial production but not associated with community-wide heterotrophic

production.

Microbes have a large diversity of metabolisms and the choice of which to focus on may

inherently affect the BEF relationship. Indeed, "narrow" metabolic processes that are catalyzed

by a small subset of taxa within bacterial communities, such as nitrogen and sulfur cycling, have

been found to display BEF relationships (Levine et al., 2011; Delgado-Baquerizo et al., 2016). In

contrast, for "broad" processes that are performed by the majority of taxa within a bacterial

community, such as heterotrophic production (focus of the present study) and respiration,

functional redundancy appears to weaken or remove the presence of BEF relationships (Griffiths

et al., 2000; Langenheder et al., 2006; Wertz et al., 2006; Levine et al., 2011; Peter et al., 2011,

Galand et al, 2015). These findings are in line with the absence of a BEF relationship for free-

living bacterial communities in our study.

However, the above results and hypotheses surrounding narrow and broad processes are

in conflict with the strong BEF relationship we observed in particle-associated bacterial

communities. As such, our study signifies that microhabitats or habitat heterogeneity can

influence bacterial BEF relationships, in agreement with previous research in eukaryotic systems

across a variety of ecosystems (Tylianakis et al., 2008; Cardinale 2011; Zeppilli et al., 2016). A

study using controlled stream mesocosms by Cardinale (2011) found that niche complementarity

effects are particularly important in more heterogeneous environments. In more heterogeneous

streams, algal populations used different nutrients and avoided direct competition for resources,

resulting in unique species occupying distinct and local microhabitats.

Our observational study could not directly test the role of niche complementarity effects.

However, support for niche complementarity alone or in combination with species selection as

the mechanism underlying the BEF relationship in particle-associated habitats is provided by the

inverse Simpson's index being the strongest predictor of community-wide heterotrophic

production. As the inverse Simpson's index represents a measure of species dominance, it is

strongly affected by the evenness of abundant species. Communities that are more even have an

increased likelihood for complementary species to neighbor each other.

In our study, there are several reasons why heterogeneity of particulate matter may allow

for niche complementarity effects to occur and result in BEF relationships. First, particles have a

two-fold layer of heterogeneity as they (A) may be composed of different substrates such as

organic matter from terrestrial or aquatic environments and either heterotrophically or

photosynthetically derived (Grossart, 2010), and (B) each particle may comprise

physicochemical gradients as well (Simon et al., 2002). Second, microbial interactions are more

likely to occur between cells aggregated on particles as the interaction distances are usually

much shorter (Cordero & Datta, 2016) compared to free-living bacterial cells. In fact, genes

mediating social interactions, such as motility, adhesion, cell-to-cell transfer, antibiotic

resistance, mobile element activity, and transposases, have been found to be more abundant in

marine particles than compared to the surrounding water (Ganesh et al., 2014).

The importance of niche complementarity in microbial communities can also be deduced

from recent findings in the field of microbiology, which have shown widespread metabolic

interdependence among bacterial community members. First, a 2016 study that reconstructed

2,540 draft genomes of microbes found that most bacteria specialize in one particular step in

sulfur and nitrogen pathways and "hand-off" their metabolic byproducts to nearby organisms

(Anantharaman et al., 2016). It is likely that metabolic hand-offs, a specific form of bacterial

facilitation, will occur more in particle-associated compared to free-living communities. Indeed,

Datta and Cordero's (2016) work on model marine particles found that taxa that are incapable of

breaking down particles and instead rely on carbon produced by primary degraders thrive in later

phases of particle degradation. Second, Lilja and Johnson (2016) demonstrated that different

microbial cell types eliminate inter-enzyme competition by cross feeding, which increases

substrate consumption by allowing intracellular resources to go towards a single enzyme, rather

than having two enzymes that perform two separate reactions compete for nutrients within a cell.

Third, some bacteria are unable to grow in laboratory cultures unless they are in co-culture with

other organisms, which may be due to metabolic hand-offs or to growth factors such as

siderophores or catalases (Stewart, 2012).

Taking into account that (i) closely related taxa share more genes and metabolic

pathways than distantly related bacterial taxa (Konstantinidis & Tiedje, 2005; Kim et al., 2014)

and (ii) bacteria commonly have incomplete metabolic pathways, we propose that closely related

bacteria may be most likely to hand-off their metabolic byproducts. This may be why we found

that new taxa added to the community represented taxonomic clades similar to or already present

in the community, and that these communities with lower phylogenetic diversity (relative to

expected) had higher productivities. This result is in line with a recent study using freshwater

algae and vascular plants that reject predictions from the phylogenetic limiting similarity

hypothesis (Narwani et al., 2017). However, recent bacteria-focused studies from Russel et al.

(2017) and Venail and Vives (2013) found higher levels of antagonism (Russel et al., 2017) or

more bacterial productivity (measured through colony forming units per mL;Venail and Vives,

2013) with more distantly related taxa. Both of these studies were performed in the lab with r-

selected (*i.e.* copiotrophic) species grown in stable, warm, aerobic, agar plate conditions. Thus,

Venail and Vives (2013) and Russel et al. (2017) inherently break up potential interdependent

relationship between bacteria either by creating artificial communities or evaluating pairwise

interactions and remove the natural effect of spatial heterogeneity, environmental fluctuations,

and the rest of the bacterial community. As a result, future studies on bacterial interactions and

the role of phylogenetic diversity will need to maintain natural structure and complexity in

bacterial communities.

Previous studies on bacterial BEF relationships have used three approaches to manipulate

bacterial diversity (Krause et al., 2014): (1) dilution to extinction in which complex communities

are diluted to more simple communities (Wertz et al., 2006; Peter et al., 2011; Philippot et al.,

2013; see Roger et al., 2016 for a review of this approach), (2) manually assembled communities

in culture (Tan et al., 2012; Salles et al., 2009), or (3) natural or manipulated environmental

communities (Griffiths et al., 2000; Levine et al., 2011; Galand et al., 2015). In this study, we

took the latter approach. In contrast to the other two approaches, this had the benefit of (1)

maintaining high diversity with both abundant and rare taxa, (2) including both r- and k-selected

organisms, (3) allowing natural environmental and ecological forcings to shape the community,

and (4) evaluating BEF relationships in diversity and productivity ranges that reflect natural

communities. Admittedly, three inherent weaknesses to our approach were that (1) we cannot

measure all the potential variables that influence heterotrophic productivity, (2) we only have 24

samples for a 12 versus 12 study, and (3) our analysis is correlational and we cannot manipulate

the system to unequivocally separate causes and consequences of bacterial production. For

example, strong correlations with heterotrophic production and pH in the free-living samples

(Table S1 & S2) may point to pH being a consequence of rather than a cause of varying

production levels. This is because bacterial production and bacterial respiration are positively

correlated (del Giorgio & Cole, 1998) and with increased respiration, pH may decrease due to

$CO_2$ dissolution into the water.

426    Finally, we acknowledge that the typical sampling of bacterial communities and analysis

using DNA sequencing reflects *all* bacteria present in the community and not necessarily only

the *active* members of the community contributing to a given ecosystem function. In freshwater

systems, up to 40% of cells from the total community have been shown to be inactive or dormant

(Jones and Lennon, 2010). If one were to sample plant communities in an analogous way to

bacterial systems, one would measure the diversity of all the above- and below-ground plant

biomass including seeds, pollen, and detrital biomass. In this context, it is interesting to reflect

on the richness in absence of function (i.e. x-intercept) of the observed BEF relationship which is

295. This could be interpreted as a baseline level of 295 inactive (either dead or dormant)

bacterial OTUs and in the case of particulate material, environmental DNA adhered the

substrate, in the community. This value represents 35-85% of the total particle-associated

communities and may obscure the *actual* diversity (and BEF relationship) of the bacterial

community (Carini et al., 2016).

439    In conclusion, we show that increased bacterial diversity, especially when measured by

the inverse Simpson's index, leads to increased community-wide and per-capita bacterial

heterotrophic production in particle-associated but not in free-living communities. As such, we

extend the validity of principles of the impact of microhabitat on BEF relationships from

Eukarya to Bacteria, contributing to current efforts to integrate ecological theories into the field

of microbiology (Barberán et al., 2014). Additionally, we show that communities with low

phylogenetic diversity have higher per-capita heterotrophic production rates, which we

hypothesize to be related to genome evolutionary patterns specific to bacteria that result in the

dependence on metabolic hand-offs. Differences between Bacteria and Eukarya in patterns of

genome evolution and its ecological consequences, as well as in how active and dormant

fractions of the community are measured need to be taken into account when trying to integrate

BEF studies across all domains of life.

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**Figure 1: Bacterial counts, community-wide and per-capita heterotrophic production differ**

**between microhabitats.** Particle-associated and free-living samples were taken from four

stations within Muskegon Lake during 2015 in May, July, and September. **(A)** Free-living

bacteria were an order of magnitude ($10^6$ cells/mL) more abundant compared to particle-

associated bacteria. **(B)** Free-living bacteria were more heterotrophically productive compared to

particle-associated bacteria. **(C)** Particle-associated bacteria were disproportionately

heterotrophically productive per cell compared to free-living bacteria.

**Figure 2: Richness and Inverse Simpson correlate with heterotrophic productivity. Top**

**panel:** Differences in **(A)** the observed richness and **(B)** the inverse Simpson diversity metrics

between particle-associated (orange) and free-living (blue) habitats. **Middle panel:** Biodiversity

and community-wide heterotrophic production (ugC/L/day) relationships. The y-axis between

**(C)** and **(D)** is the same, however, the x-axis represents **(C)** richness and **(D)** Inverse Simpson.

**Bottom panel:** Biodiversity and $\log_{10}$(per-capita heterotrophic production) (ugC/cell/day)

relationships. The y-axis between **(E)** and **(F)** is the same, however, the x-axis represents **(E)**

richness and **(F)** Inverse Simpson's index. Solid lines represent ordinary least squares models for

the free-living (blue) and particle associated (orange) communities. All $R^2$ values represent the

adjusted $R^2$ from an ordinary least squares model.

**Figure 3: The relationship between heterotrophic productivity and unweighted**

**phylogenetic diversity** ($SES_{MPD}$; ses.mpd function in *picante* with null.model =

"independentswap"). Positive phylogenetic diversity values represent communities that are

phylogenetically diverse (*i.e.* overdispersed) while negative phylogenetic diversity values

represent communities that are phylogenetically less diverse (*i.e.* clustered) compared to a null

community with equal species richness. **(A)** Phylogenetic diversity was higher in free-living

communities compared to particle-associated communities. **(B)** Negative relationship between

observed richness and phylogenetic diversity. **(C)** Absence of phylogenetic diversity and

community bulk heterotrophic production (µgC/L/day) relationships. **(D)** Negative phylogenetic

diversity and per-capita heterotrophic production (µgC/cell/day) relationship. Linear models in

figure **B** and **D** represent trends over all samples.

**Figure 1**

**Figure 2**

**Figure 3**