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Vincent E.J. Jassey, Owen Petchey, Philippe Binet, Alexandre Buttler, Geneviève Chiapusio, et al.. Food web structure and energy flux dynamics, but not taxonomic richness, influence microbial ecosystem functions in a Sphagnum-dominated peatland. European Journal of Soil Biology, 2023, 118, pp.103532. 10.1016/j.ejsobi.2023.103532. insu-04182721

HAL Id: insu-04182721 https://insu.hal.science/insu-04182721

Submitted on 10 Oct 2023

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1 Food web structure and energy flux dynamics, but not taxonomic richness, influence

2 microbial ecosystem functions in a *Sphagnum*-dominated peatland

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Authorship: VEJJ conceived the study in close consultation with JMB and OLP. DG and FLD obtained the field permit for sampling. VEJJ, PB, AB, GC, FD, DG, EADM and FLD did the sampling. VEJJ performed the microscopic analyses with the help of DG and EADM. AB performed the vegetation survey. PB and FD performed the enzymatic and decomposition analyses, respectively. VEJJ and JMB developed the food web modelling framework with the help of OLP. VEJJ performed numerical analyses and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. All authors reviewed and contributed to the final form of the manuscript.

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39 Highlights

- Soil microbial food webs determine soil biodiversity and ecosystem functioning
- What aspect of microbial food web underpin ecosystem functions is unclear
- Biomass and energy flux dynamics, but not taxonomic richness, influence peatland ecosystem
 functions
- The inclusion of microbial food web properties in biogeochemical models is fundamental

45 Abstract

Soil microbial communities are vital for multiple ecosystem processes and services. In particular, soil 46 microbial food webs are key determinants of soil biodiversity, functioning and stability. Unclear, 47 however, is how structural features of food webs, such as species richness and turnover, biomass and 48 energy transfer across trophic levels, influence the provisioning and stability of ecosystem 49 functioning. Here, we explore the relationships between different facets of microbial food web 50 structure (e.g. species richness, connectance, biomass and energy fluxes across trophic levels) and 51 ecosystem functions (i.e. decomposition and microbial enzyme activity) across different habitats and 52 depths in a peatland. We show that no aspect of taxonomic richness directly explained variation in 53 ecosystem functions. Instead, we find that trophic interactions between basal species and primary 54 consumers, and especially increasing connectance, biomass and energy flux transiting from 55 decomposers and phototrophs to algivores, bacterivores and fungivores, enhance ecosystem functions 56 in the peatland. These findings demonstrate that focusing on taxonomic diversity without explicit 57 inclusion of food web structure and energy flows therein gives an incomplete and uninformative 58 comprehension of relationships between biodiversity and ecosystem functioning, at least in peatlands. 59 60 Our findings further suggest that the inclusion of soil microbial food webs in large-scale biogeochemical models is of fundamental importance to provide the necessary guidance for managing 61 62 and mitigating the effects of environmental change.

63

64 Keywords

Biodiversity-ecosystem functioning, ecosystem function variation, energy channels, food web
 modelling, microbiome, soil functioning, phototrophs, decomposition, predation

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68 **1. Introduction**

The current erosion of biodiversity raises concerns regarding the provisioning and stability of 69 ecosystem functioning. A large body of experimental studies showed the positive, but saturating, 70 effect of increasing biodiversity on ecosystem functioning across different groups of organisms, 71 trophic levels, and ecosystems [1-6]. These findings provided fundamental knowledge in 72 understanding the link between diversity and ecosystem services and offered novel insights for 73 predicting the consequences of global biodiversity loss on ecosystems [7,8]. However, studies 74 examining the effect of biodiversity on ecosystem functioning are often limited in terms of the 75 diversity tested. For example, many studies only involved levels of species richness far lower than in 76 77 natural conditions- especially in soils [9]- and/or examined biodiversity effects only within a single trophic level [6]. These limitations constrain the practical importance of any revealed relationship 78 between diversity and ecosystem functioning because real systems are often very diverse and have 79 multiple trophic levels [6,10,11]. 80

81 Recently, ecologists began to remove this limitation by exploring the effect of biodiversity on ecosystem functioning in multitrophic systems [4,12,13], sometimes highlighting hidden 82 relationships between biodiversity and ecosystem functioning [10]. Although these studies have 83 provided fundamental advances about how the structure of complex ecological systems modulates 84 ecosystem functioning [14,15], they are often based on unrealistically simplified food chains or food-85 web configurations [10,16] but see [17,18]. Furthermore, a number of these studies typically 86 investigated trophic structures with qualitative feeding relationships assessed in terms of network 87 connectance and nestedness [19,20], ignoring important aspects of food web structure such as 88 biomass distribution across trophic levels, omnivory, intraguild predation, and fluxes of energy along 89 trophic links. 90

Such structural features of food webs have long been demonstrated to have large impacts on 91 92 food-web stability [21,22], but their effect on the provisioning and stability of ecosystem functioning is still poorly understood [15,21,23,24]. Yet changes in trophic structure facets can influence 93 94 ecosystem functioning [23,25]. For example, previous work showed that ecosystem functions such as productivity decrease when consumer diversity increases and/or when the diversity of basal species 95 96 decreases [10,15]. Other studies suggested that shifts in the biomass of basal species and/or predators 97 can destabilize connected ecosystem functions such as primary production or carbon mineralization through top-down or bottom-up effects [26–28]. Further, energy fluxes across trophic levels which 98 express energy consumption by different trophic groups [29] can have feedback effects on basal 99 consumers and the ecosystem processes they drive such as C, N, and P mineralization rates [28,30-100 32]. What trophic structure facet best predict rates of ecosystem functioning is however poorly 101

102 known, and many links between structural features of food webs and ecosystem functions still remain103 to be tested.

Despite an increasing focus on understanding whether and how structural features of food 104 webs can determine ecosystem functioning, very little concentration emerged on soil systems. The 105 largest body of evidence comes from modelled and experimental studies focusing on aquatic systems, 106 plants, and animals [33,34], often leaving aside soil microbiomes (but see [5,30,31]. This imbalance 107 is concerning given that soils are among the most diverse ecosystems on the planet with millions of 108 species of bacteria, archaea, fungi, protists, and metazoan occupying various trophic levels in soil 109 food webs [35-37]. Although relatively rare, observational evidence shows that soil microbial 110 diversity can determine numerous ecosystem functions [12,38]. However, data are relatively scarce 111 for the relationship between multitrophic soil communities, including bacteria, fungi, protists, and 112 113 metazoan, and ecosystem functions [5]. Moreover, information about what soil microbial trophic features determine ecosystem functions is also lacking. A rigorous assessment of the role of 114 qualitative and quantitative structural features of soil microbial food web in regulating ecosystem 115 functions is urgently needed to better understand the consequences of soil biodiversity losses for the 116 maintenance of ecosystem functioning and services that are critical for global ecosystem 117 sustainability. 118

Here, we used an observational field study to identify what structural features of the microbial 119 food web (e.g. richness, connectance, biomass, and energy fluxes across trophic levels) underpin 120 ecosystem functioning. We conducted a soil microbiome analysis across twelve natural peatland plots 121 equally divided between a dry and a wet area (see details in section 2.1). In each plot, we analysed 122 soil microbiome (including bacteria, fungi, protists, and metazoans) at three different depths as 123 decreasing light availability and increasing peat moisture are likely influencing microbial 124 communities and hence food web structures and properties [39,40]. We chose such a multi-spatial 125 approach to simulate changes in microbial richness, diversity, and biomass [39,41], and so the food 126 web structure. Using a machine learning approach to uncover microbial food webs from species lists 127 and traits [42], we obtained plot-and depth-scale food webs (12 plots x 3 depths = 36 food webs in 128 total). We also obtained data for two main ecosystem functions that are influenced by soil 129 microorganisms and that correspond to key components of peatland ecosystem services- organic 130 matter decomposition and soil enzyme activity. We aimed at answering two questions: 1) How do 131 structural features of microbial food web vary along a depth profile and between wet and dry areas? 132 2) What structural feature of the microbial food web relates to ecosystem functions best? 133

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136 **2. Materials and methods**

137 2.1 Study site and sampling

The research was conducted in an undisturbed Sphagnum-dominated peatland; Le Forbonnet peatland 138 (Jura Mountains, north-eastern France (46°49'35''N, 6°10'20''E). Cold winters (on average -1.4 °C) 139 and mild summers (on average 14.6 °C) characterized the site. The annual mean temperature 140 measured at the site over the last fifteen years was 6.5 °C and the annual precipitation was 1200 mm 141 (https://data-snot.cnrs.fr/data-access/). The site is characterized by two dominant and adjacent areas. 142 The first area (hereafter "WET") was a transitional Sphagnum-dominated poor fen, relatively flat, 143 homogeneous, and wet (Fig. S1). This area was characterized by a moss cover dominated by 144 Sphagnum fallax, and to a lesser extent by vascular plants such as Eriophorum vaginatum, Vaccinum 145 oxycoccus, and Andromeda polifolia. The second sampling area (hereafter "DRY") was a Sphagnum 146 bog directly adjacent to the poor fen area. Patterns of hummocks with S. magellanicum, V. oxycoccos, 147 E. vaginatum and Calluna vulgaris, and hollows with S. fallax, Carex rostrata and A. polifolia 148 characterized the DRY area. The terms "WET" and "DRY" are used to denote the existence of 149 150 hydrological, microtopographic, and vegetation gradients driven by the decrease of the water table depth, the increasing microtopography, and the increase of plant diversity and abundance of vascular 151 152 plants between WET and DRY microhabitats [43] (Fig. S1). Commonly found in Sphagnumdominated peatlands, these two areas are representative of peatlands both in terms of 153 154 microtopography, water table depth, and vegetation [44].

In WET and DRY areas, we selected six homogeneous and independent plots (50 x 50 cm; twelve plots in total; see section 2.7) based on their microtopography, water table depth and vegetation cover (Fig. S1). On June 26th 2008, samples of *Sphagnum fallax* were collected in each plot. The minimum distance between the two closest plots was 7m and the maximal distance was 37 m. *S. fallax* shoots were collected in each plot around 10 permanent markers for microbial and function analyses (see below). The goal of this sampling design was to obtain a composite sample from each plot and avoid any bias due to micro-spatial heterogeneity [41].

162

163 2.2 Microbial abundances and biomasses

S. *fallax* shoots were separated immediately in the field into three depths: 0-3 cm (living segments) and 3-6 cm (early decaying segments) and 6-9 cm (dead segments) from the capitulum. Then, the samples were fixed in 20 mL glutaraldehyde (2% final concentration) and stored at 4°C in the dark. Microorganisms were extracted from *Sphagnum* mosses following [39]. Briefly, each sample was

168 shaken for 1 min, followed by pressing the mosses by hand to extract liquid. This first filtrate was kept in a capped tube. Subsequently 20 ml of glutaraldehyde (2%) was added to the mosses, shaken 169 170 for 1 min, and pressed again. This second filtrate was left for 8 hours at 4°C to sediment, after which time the supernatant was added to the mosses while the bottom was added to the first filtrate. The 171 172 process of shaking, pressing, and sedimentation was repeated six times, each time using the supernatant from the previous sedimentation. At each iteration, the sediment was added to the initial 173 solution to obtain a final sample of 40 ml. The remaining fraction of Sphagnum was dried at 80 °C 174 for 48h and weighed to express microbial density and biomass in grams of dry mass (DM) of 175 Sphagnum. The bacterial abundance was quantified by flow cytometry (bacterial counts) and 176 epifluorescence microscopy (bacterial size). For the estimations, 1 ml sub-samples were filtered using 177 a mesh (pores size: 10 μ m). The resulting filtrates were stained with SYBR Green (0.1 × final 178 concentration), incubated in the dark for 15 min, and run on a flow cytometer (FACScalibur, 179 Novocyte) at a low speed with a count rate not exceeding 5,000 events.s⁻¹. Epifluorescence 180 microscopy was used to determine the size of bacteria: 1 ml sub-samples were stained with DAPI 181 (4,6- diamino- 2- phenylindole; 3 µg ml⁻¹ final concentration), incubated in the dark for 15 min, 182 filtered on 0.2 μ m black membrane filters, and examined by fluorescence microscopy at 1,000× 183 magnification. Bacteria sizes were determined automatically using the ImageJ software. The 184 185 abundance of fungi, phototrophs (microalgae and cyanobacteria), primary consumers (flagellates, ciliates, rotifers, and nematodes), and top-predators (testate amoebae), as well as their identification 186 to species-level when possible, was carried out using a 3- ml subsample and inverted microscopy 187 (×400, Utermöhl method). For fungi, the number and length of hyphae and spores were quantified. 188 We chose that approach because our aim was to estimate fungal biomass, for which estimation using 189 molecular methods is currently limited [45]. The abundance of each species (or group) was then 190 191 converted into biovolume (µm3), calculated based on geometrical shapes using dimensions measured under the microscope (length or diameter; width, and height) [46]. Biovolumes were then converted 192 193 to biomass (µg C) using conversion factors as given in [46]. The abundance data were then expressed into carbon biomass, in micrograms of C per gram of Sphagnum dry mass (µg C/g DM). 194

195

196 2.3 Ecosystem functions

Total phenoloxidase activity was quantified as a proxy of soil enzyme activity in each plot and depth.
We chose this enzyme as a proxy because of its crucial role in peatland C cycling [47,48]. Following
Jassey et al. (2011a), phenoloxidases were extracted from 3g of fresh *Sphagnum* shoots in 50 mL
extraction solution containing 0.1 M CaCl₂, 0.05% Tween 80 and 20g of polyvinylpolypyrrolidone.
The samples were shaken at room temperature for 1h on a reciprocal shaker (120 rpm), centrifuged

at 10,000g for 10 min and filtered through 1.2 µm Whatman GF/D filters, and concentrated for 24h 202 in dialysis tubes (10 kDa molecular mass cut-off) covered with polyethylene glycol until a final 203 volume of 1/10 of the initial volume. Enzymatic activities were measured in microplates with L-204 DOPA (10mM) as substrate. The plates were incubated at 23°C for 24h, and L-DOPA oxidation rates 205 206 were measured every hour using a spectrophotometer at 460 nm. For each plot, a control with boiled enzyme extraction (2h at 90°C) was used. Enzyme activities were calculated by subtracting the mean 207 absorbance of controls from the mean absorbance of enzyme extracts. Phenoloxidase activities were 208 expressed in enzymatic units (U) defined as 1 nmol of substrate oxidized per hour per gram dry mass. 209

As a proxy of the organic matter decomposition rate, micro-morphological analyses were performed using light microscopy to quantify the percentage of well-preserved plant tissues in the peat [50]. Bulk peat samples were taken at the same depth as microbial biomass and mounted as smear slides and examined at 20 and 50x magnifications. The plant surfaces covered by primary organic micro-remains were quantified with a reticulated eyepiece on a total of 3000-5000 items per sample.

216

217 2.4 Inferring microbial food webs and food web metrics

Microbial feeding interactions were inferred using a trait-matching and taxonomic approach and 218 following the workflow developed by [42]. Using a database comprising 27,060 microbial feeding 219 links for 164 taxa and 34 predictors including six taxonomic variables (Species, Genus, Family, 220 Order, Phylum, and Kingdom) and eleven traits (Organism type, Nourishment, Feeding group, 221 Morphology, Lifestyle, Locomotion, Movement, Feeding strategy, Body length, Body width, and 222 223 Biovolume), we trained a Boosted-regression tree model to predict microbial feeding links in each plot and depth from microbial species lists. The food webs are resolved at the species level, except 224 for bacteria and fungi which remained at their generic group level. The boosted-regression tree 225 226 algorithm was chosen among five other machine-learning algorithms because it was the most accurate and robust for predicting microbial feeding interactions (see [42] for details). Following food web 227 inferences, we pruned the binary food webs based on the abundance of the prey and consumers and 228 link strength calculations (see details in [42]). 229

To characterize how various nodes and connections between nodes are arranged in each food webs, we calculated seven unweighted food web metrics, including the number of species (S), connectance (C), generality (G), vulnerability (V), shortest path length (SPL), short-weighted trophic level (TL), the degree of omnivory (OI), averaged food chain length (FCL), and the proportion of basal (Ba), intermediate (Int) and top species (Pred), as well as vulnerability SD and generality SD [51,52]. These metrics were chosen because they relate to the vertical (trophic level, omnivory) and

the horizontal (generality, vulnerability) dimensions of the food webs and to their complexity (species 236 richness, connectance). In addition, we calculated weighted metrics to account for the magnitude of 237 feeding interactions, i.e. link strength, namely the average strength of links (st), the average strength 238 distribution among links (ps), the weighted shortest path length (dist w), the transitivity (trans), the 239 240 average strength of each node's connection (neigh), the modularity (mod), the sum of link weights (flow), the global efficiency (eff), the node-weighted generality (nwG) and vulnerability (nwV), and 241 node-weighted trophic level (nwT). Node-weighted generality and vulnerability are the biomass-242 weighted averages of prey per predator and of predators per prey, respectively, whilst the node-243 weighted trophic level is the average of the trophic level weighted by the biomass. More details on 244 these metrics can be found in [42,51,52]. 245

246

247 2.5 Calculation of energy flux in food webs

The flux of energy in food webs was estimated by calculating metabolic rates from the body mass, 248 assimilation efficiencies, and energy transfer between trophic levels [29,53] and using the *fluxweb* R 249 package [53]. In short, this approach assumes system equilibrium, which implies that each species' 250 251 losses due to predation or physiological processes are balanced by the metabolized energy it gains from consumption. It considers allometric scaling laws to quantify individual metabolic rates that are 252 dependent on body mass, which together with losses to predation and assimilation efficiencies are 253 used to quantify incoming fluxes (due to consumption) and outcoming fluxes (due to predation) for 254 each species. Individual metabolic rates (I [J/year]) were calculated using the equation: 255

256 $X_i = (X_0 \times M_i^a) \times B_i$

257 where X_i is the metabolic loss of species *i*, X_0 is the organism-specific normalization constant (-0.29), M_i the body mass of species *i* (µgC), *a* is the allometric scaling constant (a = -0.25), and B_i is the 258 biomass of species *i* (μ gC/g dw). Because X_0 and *a* are virtually unknown for most microorganisms, 259 we used the same for all species as suggested by Gauzens et al., (2019). Assimilation efficiencies 260 which express the proportion of eaten biomass that can be used for biomass production plus 261 metabolism were estimated from the literature [53-58]: microalgae and cyanobacteria = 0.545, testate 262 amoebae = 0.405, flagellates = 0.200, rotifers = 0.750, nematodes = 0.820, ciliates = 0.650, bacteria 263 = 0.430, fungi = 0.190. The biomass of each taxon was in μ g per gram of dried Sphagnum. As such, 264 the units of the calculated energy flux are micro-joules per gram of dried Sphagnum per second. 265 Please note that the calculated fluxes are a modelled proxy for energy flow in the food webs, and are 266 used to compare the different conditions (vegetation cover, depth). Feeding habit analyses for each 267

taxon in each condition would be required to quantify the absolute flow of energy through each foodweb.

270

271 2.6 Vegetation and environmental parameters

We performed vegetation surveys by the point-intercept method [59]. Briefly, we used a 50 x 50 cm 272 Plexiglas frame placed above a permanently marked quadrat by means of four adjustable poles. A 273 ruler with 20 holes was moved along 20 different positions to obtain 400 measuring points. A metal 274 pin with a 1 mm diameter tip was lowered through each hole in the ruler and each contact of the pin 275 with green living vegetation was recorded by species until the pin reached the moss substrate. Moss 276 and vascular plant species abundances were expressed as a percentage of the mean number of hits 277 (%). Water chemistry was analysed in pore water samples taken in each plot at the three depths (0-3, 278 3-6, and 6-9 cm) using a syringe and piezometers. pH was measured in the field using a pH-meter 279 whilst total dissolved nitrogen (DN) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) were determined with a 280 SHIMADZU SSM-5000A total C, and N analyser (Shimadzu Schweiz, Reinach, Switzerland). 281 Ammonium (NH4⁺), nitrate (NO₃⁻), and total phosphorus were analysed colorimetrically using a 282 283 continuous flow analyser (FLOWSYS; Systea, Roma) after filtering the bog water at 0.45 μ m. Depth to water level was measured in each plot in a deep piezometer (>1 m depth). All these analyses were 284 performed on the same day as microbial sampling. 285

286

287 2.7 Statistical analyses

To characterize the main differences in food web structures between habitats and depths, we 288 performed a multivariate principal component analysis (PCA) on all food web metrics. Analysis of 289 similarities (ANOSIM) was used to test statistically whether there are significant differences between 290 microhabitats and/or depths. We further calculated the network dissimilarity by measuring the β -291 diversity of species interactions (WN) and their decomposed components S (dissimilarity in species 292 composition of food webs), ST (dissimilarity of interactions due to species turnover), and OS 293 (dissimilarity of interactions between shared species in the food webs) using the betalink R package 294 [60]. We finally used analysis of variance to test the individual response of food web properties, 295 biomass across trophic levels and energy fluxes to habitat and depth. Assumptions on normality and 296 homogeneity of variances were verified using diagnostic plots. Pairwise differences between the 297 algorithms were tested with the Tukey posthoc test. Multivariate distance matrix regressions 298 (MDMR) were used to identify the environmental predictors (vegetation properties, water chemical 299 variables, and water table depth) of microbial biomass distribution across trophic levels, food web 300

qualitative and quantitative properties, and energy fluxes across trophic levels at the different depths 301 and between WET and DRY areas. Finally, we assessed the effect of distance on species and food 302 web compositions with Mantel tests (999 permutations) using the Spearman correlation coefficient 303 between dissimilarities of species (Bray-Curtis distance) and food webs (WN index) and the Euclidian 304 305 distance matrix based on sample coordinates. The resulting mantel correlograms showed that microbial communities and microbial food webs were slightly spatially correlated at an Euclidean 306 distance of one (Mantel correlation = 0.25), and beyond that distance they were not spatially 307 autocorrelated (Fig. S2). These results thus validate the choice of having rather distant plots (typically 308 much greater than 7m apart) since they could then be treated as statistically independent. 309

To identify what structural feature of microbial food webs predicted ecosystem functions best, 310 we used generalized linear models (GLMs). Assumptions on normality and homogeneity of variances 311 were verified using diagnostic plots. Then, to evaluate the effect of environmental changes on the 312 linkages between structural features of microbial food webs and ecosystem functions, we fitted a 313 piecewise structural equation model [61]; a suitable tool to evaluate direct and indirect effects in 314 ecological systems [62]. Specifically, the model tested whether environmental change (vegetation 315 properties, water chemistry, microtopography and WTD), microbial richness and their interactions 316 directly influenced ecosystem functions (averaged standardized values of each function) or indirectly 317 through their respective effects on food web properties (PCA axis of qualitative and quantitative 318 metrics), biomass across trophic levels and energy flow across trophic levels. The model was created 319 320 using GLMs and pruned using Akaike Information Criteria corrected for small sample size (AICc) until we reached a simple and robust model to test direct and indirect effects. 321

All computations and statistical analyses were performed in R [63] using custom-written codes 322 and available R packages. Several of the food web metrics including the food web graph were 323 324 performed using the *igraph* package [64].

325

3. Results 326

327

3.1 Food web dissimilarity and metrics

The microbial food webs showed substantial variability over Sphagnum segments and across habitats 328 in terms of species composition (Fig. 1a, b) and biomass distribution among trophic levels (Fig. 2; 329 330 Fig. S3, S4). Network dissimilarity analyses revealed that microbial food webs strongly diverged with depth (WN > 0.3) as a result of dissimilarity in species composition of food webs (S ~ 0.2 overall, 331 Fig. 1a) and in feeding interactions due to species turnover (ST ~0.3 overall, Fig. 1a) rather than of 332 dissimilarity of feeding interactions between shared species in the food webs (OS values < 0.1; Fig. 333 1a). Food web divergences along *Sphagnum* segments translated in changes of food web metrics, as 334 shown by the PCA analysis capturing the relationships and associations of food web metrics along 335

Sphagnum segments and habitats (Fig. 1c, d). For example, unweighted and weighted connectance and generality increased between living and decaying/dead *Sphagnum* segments, as well as the size of food chains and the importance of omnivores and intermediate consumers (Fig. 1d, Table 1). On the opposite, living segments were characterized by unweighted and weighted short food chains (SPL and dist w) and by a higher proportion of basal and top-predator species (Fig. 1d, Table 1).

Besides the depth effect, microbial food webs strongly diverged across habitats (WN > 0.4; Fig. 341 1b). Here again, they diverged because of dissimilarity in species composition (S ~ 0.2 overall, Fig. 342 1b) and in feeding interactions due to species turnover (ST ~0.4 overall, Fig. 1b) rather than of 343 dissimilarity of feeding interactions between shared species in the food webs (OS values < 0.1; Fig. 344 1b). Despite food web dissimilarity across habitats, we found that food web metrics only slightly 345 varied across habitats (Fig. 1c, d, Table 1). While food web metrics in living and bottom Sphagnum 346 347 segments were similar, we found that transitivity, FCL efficiency, and the proportion of intermediate consumers and omnivores slightly decreased between WET and DRY habitats, although these 348 tendencies were only marginally significant ($P \sim 0.1$). 349

Weighted metrics only slightly contributed to food web properties divergences among Sphagnum 350 segments and/or across habitats (Fig. 1c). However, the biomass distribution across trophic levels 351 strongly varied with depth and habitats (ANOVA, $F_{2,113} = 11.1$, P < 0.001; Fig. 2). Regardless of 352 habitat and depth, the microbial biomass was mostly distributed among basal species (trophic level = 353 354 1) and primary consumers (i.e., bacterivores, fungivores and algivores, trophic level = 2), and in a lesser extent among top-predators (trophic level = 2.2; ANOVA, $F_{3,113}$ = 213.6, P < 0.001; Fig. 2). 355 We further found that the microbial biomass across trophic levels increased with depth (ANOVA, 356 $F_{2,113} = 33.2, P < 0.001$), whilst it was overall higher in DRY than in WET habitat, respectively 357 (ANOVA, $F_{1,113} = 42.9$, P < 0.001; Fig. 2). In particular, we found that the biomass of decomposers 358 (ANOVA, $F_{2,30} = 105.6$, P < 0.001), primary consumers (ANOVA, $F_{2,30} = 12.6$, P < 0.01) and top-359 predators (ANOVA, $F_{2,30} = 11.2$, P = 0.002) increased with depth in both habitats, while the biomass 360 of phototrophs decreased (ANOVA, $F_{2,30} = 19.8$, P < 0.001; Fig. S3). Also, the biomass of 361 phototrophs (ANOVA, $F_{1,30} = 12.1$, P = 0.001) and top-predators (ANOVA, $F_{1,30} = 3.6$, P = 0.06) 362 363 were higher in DRY than in WET (Fig. S3).

Relating species turnover and biomass change to environmental parameters, we found that vegetation properties (composition, richness, and diversity) were the most important drivers of species turnover, biomass shifts across trophic levels, and food web properties (Table S1). To a lesser extent, total phosphorous and pH were also significantly linked to species turnover and biomass shifts across trophic levels, respectively, whilst microtopography and conductivity were significantly related to food web properties (Table S1).

Total energy flux transiting in microbial food webs significantly varied along Sphagnum segments 371 and across habitats (ANOVA, $F_{2,30} = 4.5$, P = 0.019; Fig. 3). On average, it increased from 19.7 ± 4.6 372 mJ g⁻¹ sec⁻¹ to 61.4 ± 26.2 mJ g⁻¹ sec⁻¹ between living and dead *Sphagnum* segments, respectively 373 (ANOVA, $F_{2.30} = 30.6$, P < 0.001). Total energy flux also increased from 27.1 ± 14.2 mJ g⁻¹ sec⁻¹ to 374 49.3 ± 28.9 mJ g⁻¹ sec⁻¹ between WET and in DRY (ANOVA, $F_{1,30} = 25.2, P < 0.001$), respectively 375 across all segments. Total energy flux was primarily driven by a high energy demand from 376 bacterivores/fungivores, and in second place by algivores, whereas the energy fluxes transiting 377 through mixotrophs and predators were low (Fig. 3b). Bacterivory/fungivory increased with depth in 378 both habitats (ANOVA, $F_{1.30} = 6.1$, P < 0.01; Fig. 3). It was also 1.5 times higher in DRY (36.6 ± 379 25.1 mJ g⁻¹ sec⁻¹) than in WET (21.2 \pm 13.5 mJ g⁻¹ sec⁻¹; ANOVA, $F_{2,30} = 5.3$, P = 0.03), regardless 380 of the depth considered (ANOVA, depth x habitat $F_{2,30} = 1.8$, P = 0.18; Fig. 3a, b). Algivory increased 381 with depth in both habitats (ANOVA, $F_{2,30} = 5.2$, P = 0.02), as well as between habitats (WET = 5.52) 382 \pm 5..93 mJ g⁻¹ sec⁻¹; DRY = 12.4 \pm 24.8 mJ g⁻¹ sec⁻¹) but this tendency was not significant (ANOVA, 383 $F_{2,30} = 1.8$, P = 0.18). The energy transiting through mixotrophs and predators did not vary across 384 habitats but increased with depth (mixotrophy: ANOVA, $F_{2,30} = 2.4$, P = 0.10; predation: ANOVA, 385 $F_{2,30} = 6.1, P < 0.01;$ Fig. 3). 386

Relating energy fluxes to environmental parameters, we found that vegetation composition and diversity were the most important environmental variables driving energy fluxes through food webs (Table S1). Water phenols were also related to energy fluxes in the food webs but to a lesser extent (Table S1).

391

392 3.3 Linkages between structural features of microbial food webs and ecosystem functions

Species diversity across trophic levels, species turnover (index S), and network dissimilarity indices 393 (OS, ST, and WN) were not related to ecosystem functions (Fig. 4a, b; P > 0.05). Food web metrics 394 were poorly connected to ecosystem functions as well. Only the first PCA axis was significantly 395 related to the microbial activity (measured as phenoloxidase activity; P < 0.05; Fig. 4c). In particular, 396 high connectance, proportion of intermediate consumers, effectiveness, transitivity, and food chain 397 length were found to promote soil enzyme activity, while high fraction of top predators and weighted 398 shortest path length were found to reduce soil enzyme activity (Fig. S4). Similarly, total biomass 399 across trophic levels was poorly linked to ecosystem functions. Only the biomass of intermediate 400 consumers was significantly linked to microbial activity (P < 0.05; Fig. 4d). On the opposite, total 401 energy flux transiting in the food webs was significantly correlated to the decomposition state of the 402

403 peat (ANOVA, $F_{2,30} = 6.2$, P < 0.02) and soil enzyme activity (ANOVA, $F_{1,22} = 13.9$, P < 0.01; Fig. 404 4). In particular, the decomposition state was significantly related to the energy transiting through 405 algivores (effect size = -0.95, P = 0.05) and predators (effect size = -0.89, P = 0.06), whereas soil 406 enzyme activity was significantly related to the energy flux transiting through bacterivores/fungivores 407 (effect size = 1.15, P = 0.03) and algivores (effect size = 0.94, P = 0.05).

Structural equation modeling explained 63% of the variance of ecosystem functions (Fig. 5). 408 We found indirect effects of species richness and environmental conditions on ecosystem functions 409 mediated by an increase of basal species biomass and changes in food web properties (food web 410 metrics PCA axis), respectively. Increasing vegetation cover (path = 0.36) and total phosphorous in 411 pore water (path = 0.56) both had positive effects on the biomass of basal species in the food web, 412 while the shift in microtopography was an important driver of species richness in the food web (path 413 = -0.74). Increasing biomass of basal species further promoted energy flow through the food web, 414 which in turn promoted ecosystem functions (Fig. 5). Microbial richness had no significant effect on 415 energy flow through the food web nor on ecosystem functions. Finally, our model also showed a 416 direct effect of increasing vegetation cover on ecosystem functions (path = -0.54; Fig. 5). 417

418

419 **4.** Discussion

Understanding the effects of taxonomic diversity and trophic structure on ecosystem functions is a 420 421 key question in the ecology of ecosystem services [21]. Here, we explore the relationships between 422 microbial food web structure and ecosystem functioning across different habitats and depths in a peatland. Linking qualitative and quantitative food web metrics to ecosystem functioning, we further 423 our understanding of how structural features of microbial food web determine key peatland functions 424 such as decomposition and soil enzyme activity. Our analyses reveal that no aspect of taxonomic 425 richness directly explained variation in ecosystem functions, whereas aspects of food web structure 426 and energy fluxes did. This demonstrates that, at least in the complex microbial food webs in 427 peatlands, focusing on taxonomic diversity without explicit inclusion of food web structure and 428 energy flows therein will give an incomplete and likely quite uninformative view of relationships 429 between biodiversity and ecosystem functioning. This finding supports conceptual predictions that 430 biomass and energy flux dynamics in ecological networks underpin multitrophic biodiversity-431 ecosystem functioning relationships [29,33]. This result also agrees with findings from grassland 432 studies demonstrating the importance of consumption rates in determining soil N mineralization [30]. 433 Moreover, our results clearly show that the integration of a trophic perspective into microbial 434 communities is key for understanding ecosystem functions [29,65]. 435

By analysing microbial communities at different depths and across an environmental gradient, 436 we found that changes in microtopography and to lesser extent nutrient availability in pore water were 437 important but rather indirect determinants of structural features of microbial food webs through their 438 direct effect on species richness and biomass. Microtopography is a complex ecological variable that 439 440 underpins microvariations in soil moisture, temperature, micro- and mesoporosity, and water chemistry, and which ultimately influence microscale microbial richness and biomass [41,66]. Shifts 441 in microbial richness and biomass further indirectly influence microbial food web structure and 442 functioning (Fig. 5). With depth, the microbial community composition and biomass of species 443 shifted, and so did the food webs (Figs. 2, 5). Notably, the phototrophic biomass decreased. Such a 444 result was expected as phototrophs are by definition sensitive to light availability (Davies et al., 2013; 445 Hamard et al., 2021b; Jassey et al., 2022), which decreases with peat-depth. Phototrophic gross 446 primary production usually decreases under low light availability, thus reducing phototrophic 447 biomass [68,70]. While one would have expected a decrease in the importance of phototrophs in the 448 449 food web structure with depth, we found the exact opposite with an increase in the energy flux transiting from phototrophs to algivores (Fig. 3). This was unexpected and can be explained by the 450 remarkable plasticity of the phototrophic photosynthetic machinery under low light. Previous findings 451 showed an increase of messenger RNAs involved in phosphorylation under decreasing light [70], 452 453 allowing phototrophs to persist. Phosphorylation occurs in all kinds of phototrophs when conditions cannot support growth [71], and thus provides energy to phototrophs when photosynthesis is not 454 455 possible [72]. We, therefore, suggest that phototrophs increasingly supported higher trophic levels under low light through an increase of phosphorylation in their cells, as showed in biofilms [70]. The 456 ingestion of bacteria by some algae to overcome the lack of light and meet their energetic needs may 457 further explain why phototrophs increasingly support higher trophic levels with depth [73]. Anyway, 458 459 these findings confirm the importance of phototrophs in peatland C cycling [74], and underline the importance of considering phototrophs in soil food webs for ecosystem functioning [75,76]. 460

Besides phototrophs, we found that bacterial and fungal biomass increased with depth and 461 with vascular plant cover. These patterns have been already shown in peatlands [40,49,77] and most 462 probably result from an increase in resource availability, such as vascular plant root exudates [78], 463 that fuels decomposers [79]. We found that the increase in bacterial and fungal biomass supported 464 higher trophic levels, as shown by the increase in energy transiting from decomposers to 465 bacterivores/fungivores (Fig. 3, 5). This indicates an increase in bacterial and fungal consumption by 466 bacterivores and fungivores (mostly protists, nematodes, and rotifers) [29]. Such an increase in 467 bacterivory and fungivory contributed significantly to peatland functions, especially enzyme activity 468 (Figs. 4, 5). This finding agrees with previous studies showing that predatory-prey interactions within 469 the microbiome influence soil C cycling such as decomposition, respiration, and enzyme activity 470

[40,80-82]. Mechanistically, bacterivores and fungivores might increase decomposition and enzyme 471 activity via specific trophic interactions that change and/or promote microbial functioning. For 472 example, wastes from bacterivores and fungivores, such as undigested food particles and labile 473 carbon, are usually easily degradable and hence favorable for bacterial re-growth [80]. Also, 474 475 bacterivores and fungivores may preferentially feed on senescent bacteria, thus maintaining young bacteria with higher metabolic activity [83]. Together with our results on algivory, these findings 476 reveal how changes in abiotic conditions have not only direct effects on trophic groups that are 477 directly associated with these changing conditions but also indirect effects on other trophic levels 478 through linkages across food webs, which ultimately modifies ecosystem functions. 479

We found that species richness across trophic levels, as well as species and network turnover, 480 were poor predictors of ecosystem functions (Fig. 4). It contrasts most recent findings on multitrophic 481 482 systems, suggesting that increasing microbial richness/diversity promotes ecosystem functioning [5,38]. The choice of ecosystem functions tested here might explain such a finding. However, our 483 484 finding is consistent with recent results on multi-trophic aquatic food webs showing that there is no clear pattern between ecosystem function variability and species richness across different types of 485 486 empirical food webs [15]. This suggests that more diverse microbial communities do not necessarily exhibit higher ecosystem function than less diverse ones. It also suggests that species richness of a 487 488 specific trophic level does not necessarily influence the associated specific ecosystem function (e.g. between basal species (TL = 1) and decomposition/soil enzyme activity). Further, we show that 489 490 trophic interactions rather than richness across trophic levels are better predictors of ecosystem 491 functions, which is in line with findings from a grassland experiment [10]. Moreover, our results partially confirm previous findings in terrestrial systems suggesting that metrics like connectance, 492 modularity, and hubs provide insights into the structure and functioning of ecosystems [20]. We found 493 494 that connectance (i.e. the number of feeding links), transitivity, efficiency, and the proportion of 495 intermediate consumers (i.e. bacterivores, fungivores, and algivores) were positively correlated with soil enzyme activity, while the proportion of top predators and shortest path length (i.e. length of food 496 chains) were negatively correlated. It suggests that highly connected food webs with high connections 497 among basal and intermediate consumers promote ecosystem functions such as microbial activity, 498 supporting our findings on the energy flux dynamic in the food webs. This result is also in line with 499 previous experiments demonstrating the importance of primary consumers in mediating ecosystem 500 501 process rates [84,85].

502 By embracing the trophic structure of ecological networks, our analyses provide novel insights 503 into patterns of variation in ecosystem function in multitrophic systems. We find that trophic 504 interactions between basal species and primary consumers, and especially increasing connectance,

biomass, and energy flux transiting from decomposers and phototrophs to algivores, bacterivores, and 505 fungivores, enhance ecosystem functions. In other words, increasing the strength of interactions (e.g. 506 consumption) along microbial trophic levels promotes carbon loss from peatland. We caution that the 507 observed multitrophic-ecosystem function relationship highlighted here is strictly correlative, and 508 509 that future experimental studies are needed to test this specific microbial mechanism in ecosystem functioning. Nevertheless, our findings are supported by recent multitrophic model simulations 510 predicting changes in ecosystem functions following changes in consumer biomass and energy fluxes 511 [23], thus providing confidence in the microbial mechanism found here. Moreover, if such food web 512 structure-ecosystem function relationships can be confirmed for a wider range of peatlands, such 513 structural features of microbial food webs may proof key to explaining variation in global carbon 514 cycling. Climate change has the potential to stimulate bacterial biomass [26,40], while reducing top-515 down control of top microbial predators on intermediate consumers [26,86,87]. These possible 516 climate-induced changes in microbial food webs may trigger a rise in the trophic interactions between 517 basal species and bacterivores, thus promoting soil enzyme activity and decomposition rates. Only 518 by pursuing our understanding of microbial food web structures and their associated functions can 519 we identify general patterns and mechanisms that determine ecological functions and provide the 520 necessary guidance for managing and mitigating the effects of environmental change. 521

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523 Acknowledgments

This work has been supported by the MIXOPEAT (Grant No. ANR-17-CE01-0007 to VEJJ) and PEATWARM (ANR-07-VUL-010 to FLD, DG, and AB) projects, both funded by the French National Research Agency. JMB was kindly supported by the Dutch Science Foundation (grant no. ENW-M OCENW.M20.339) during the writing stages of this paper. The authors warmly thank the managers of the Regional Natural Reserve of Frasne-Bouverans for allowing access to the site and the SNO Tourbières (https://www.sno-tourbieres.cnrs.fr/) for providing access to environmental data. We kindly thank Romain Frelat for his help in plotting food webs and for sharing his R scripts.

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Table 1. Food web metrics at the three depths and in the two microhabitats. Abbreviations are given

in the method. Letters indicate significant differences between depths and microhabitats (P < 0.05,

847 GLMs).

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849 Figure captions

Figure 1: Characterization of the divergence between microbial food webs with depth and/or habitats. 850 (a, b) Network beta-diversity indices of the pairwise comparison between the food webs along 851 Sphagnum segments (a) and habitat among the same depth (b). OS = dissimilarity of interactions 852 between shared species in the food webs, S = dissimilarity in species composition of food webs, ST 853 = dissimilarity of interactions due to species turnover, $WN = \beta$ -diversity of species interactions. (c, 854 d) Principal component analysis (PCA) biplot of food web metrics summarising the depth and habitat 855 variability in the food web structure. Transparent coloured areas define the convex hull of the depth 856 and habitat clusters grouping plots with similar food web properties. The arrow colours of the metrics 857 858 represent different approaches: qualitative metrics (blue), node-weighted metrics (orange) and linkweighted metrics (red). The insert on (d) shows the percentage contribution of each food web metric 859 860 to PC1 and PC2. Abbreviations of food web metrics are given in section 2.4.

Figure 2: Microbial biomass distribution across trophic levels of each food web. Barplots of the total biomass spread across trophic levels at each depth and across habitats. Shown are the mean \pm SD.

863 Letters indicate significant differences among habitats and depths (ANOVA).

Figure 3: Energy fluxes in food webs (μ J/g/sec). Boxplots of the energy flux transiting in the entire food webs (total) and into each trophic function, *i.e.*, bacterivory/fungivory, algivory, mixotrophy and predation, respectively, at each depth and across habitats. Shown are the median and the 25% and 75% interquartile range. Letters indicate significant differences among *Sphagnum* segments (ANOVA, *P* < 0.05), whereas asterisks indicate a global habitat effect (ANOVA, *P* < 0.05).

Figure 4: Linkages between food web complexities and ecosystem functions. Relationships between ecosystem functions (decomposition and microbial activity) and diversity across trophic levels (a), food web dissimilarity components (b), biomass across trophic levels, (d) and energy fluxes across functional groups are shown (e). Responses represent standardised effect sizes of GLM models \pm SD, with points situated above or below zero (dotted line) indicating an increase or decrease of the function to the increasing value of food web complexity taken into account. Responses with error bars not intersecting zero (red) are significant (P < 0.05), and non-significant responses are black.

Figure 5: Structural equation model (SEM) of environmental and species richness effects on the linkages between microbial food web structural features and ecosystem functioning. Solid black arrows are significant paths (P < 0.05, piecewise SEM) while dashed arrows are non-significant paths (P > 0.05, piecewise SEM). R^2s of the component are given in the boxes of endogenous variables. SEM global goodness-of-fit are Fisher's C = 34.2, P = 0.08, Df = 24, AIC = 80.7. TL 1 = trophic level 1, i.e. basal species. Food web properties are the first PCA axis from Fig. 1c, d. Decomposition was used as a proxy for Ecosystem functions in this model.

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887 Supplementary figures

Figure S1: Characterization of the WET and DRY areas. (a) Depth to Water Table (DWT, in meters)
in the WET and DRY area over 2009. DWT has been measured continuously using sensors for Water
Level measurements (Campbell scientific®) installed in piezometers in each area. (b-d)
microtopography (m), plant diversity, and plant community composition in each area. Asterisks
indicate significant differences between the WET and DRY areas (ANOVAs).

Figure S2: Effect of distance on the beta-diversity of the microbial communities and associated food webs. The Mantel correlogram for microbial species assemblages is based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities compared to the Euclidean spatial distances and the Spearman correlation coefficient. The Mantel correlogram for microbial food webs is based on the network-dissimilarity index (WN, see section 2.7) compared to the Euclidean distances and the Spearman correlation coefficient. Positive and significant correlations were detected between 0 and 7 m, no correlations at distances hetween 7 and 37 m were found

- between 7 and 37 m were found.
- 900 Figure S3: The food web metawebs across habitats and *Sphagnum* segments. Node colours 901 correspond to a taxon's main functional grouping and node size to the biomass of the respective node. 902 R = node richness, C = connectance, N = nestedness.
- **Figure S4:** Biomass of each functional group in function of depth and habitat. Shown are the mean \pm SD. Letters indicate significant differences among depths (ANOVA). L = living segments, Dec = decaying segments; D = dead segments.
- **Figure S5**: Correlation coefficient between food web metrics and microbial activity, measured as phenoloxidase activity. Bars in black are significant at P < 0.05, whilst white bars are non-significant. Abbreviations are given in the method.
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Decomposition

Phenoloxidases

