

1 **Time-variant species pools shape competitive dynamics and biodiversity-ecosystem**  
2 **function relationships**

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25

**26 Abstract**

27 Biodiversity-ecosystem function (BEF) experiments routinely employ common garden  
28 designs, drawing samples from a local biota. The communities from which taxa are sampled  
29 may not, however, be at equilibrium. To test for temporal changes in BEF relationships, I  
30 assembled pools of aquatic bacterial strains isolated at different time points from leaves on  
31 the pitcher plant *Darlingtonia californica* in order to evaluate the strength, direction, and  
32 drivers of the BEF relationship across a natural host-associated successional gradient. I  
33 constructed experimental communities using bacterial isolates from each time point and  
34 measured their respiration rates and competitive interactions. Communities assembled from  
35 mid-successional species pools showed the strongest positive relationships between  
36 community richness and respiration rates, driven primarily by linear additivity among  
37 isolates. Diffuse competition was common among all communities but greatest within mid-  
38 successional isolates. These results demonstrate the dependence of the BEF relationship on  
39 the temporal dynamics of the local species pool, implying that ecosystems may respond  
40 differently to the addition or removal of taxa at different points in time during succession.

41

**42 INTRODUCTION**

43 The rates at which ecosystems cycle nutrients are predicted to be set in predominantly by the  
44 actions of their constituent organisms [1–3]. Over the past two decades, this conceptual  
45 unification of communities and ecosystems has been empirically evaluated using the  
46 biodiversity - ecosystem function (BEF) framework [4–6]. This research commonly reports a  
47 positive covariance between species richness and community biomass production and is  
48 hypothesized to be jointly driven by community members' differential contributions to  
49 ecosystem properties (selection effects) and their degree of niche overlap (complementarity  
50 effects) [7].

51

52           The relative importance of these effects is in large part a function of resource  
53 competition among community members [8]. Many ecosystem functions are enabled by a  
54 single guild of competitors. If taxa within a guild vary in their contributions to ecosystem  
55 function, then turnover resulting from interspecific competition should result in shifting BEF  
56 relationships. Communities, however, are naturally dynamic and can experience both gradual  
57 successional turnover and rapid state transitions [9,10]. Such turnover is predicted to result,  
58 in part, from temporal variation in species interactions — particularly competition — as new  
59 taxa arrive and changing local conditions lead to fitness differences among competitors [11].  
60 Because the strength of resource competition among community members is predicted to  
61 vary over the course of primary succession [1,12,13] and also influence the magnitude and  
62 drivers of the BEF relationship, it stands that the BEF relationship should vary along a  
63 successional gradient. Thus, a comprehensive theory linking biodiversity to ecosystem  
64 function must explicitly account for the effects of community turnover through time [14,15].

65

66           The majority of BEF experiments track the productivity of monocultures and  
67 polycultures assembled from taxa randomly drawn from a natural biota or from *ad hoc*  
68 combinations of tractable organisms such as algae or protists. In these experimental  
69 communities, the magnitude and drivers of the BEF relationship are often found to change  
70 over time [16–26]. While these experiments have contributed fundamental insights into the  
71 temporal dynamics of BEF relationships, they do not account for a dynamic species pool. In  
72 other words, the groups of species used to seed these communities represent either a *snapshot*  
73 of a natural community at a particular point in time (fig. 1A) or a collection of species that  
74 may be differentially distributed across time such that two species added into a community  
75 do not necessarily co-occur under natural settings (fig. 1B). Communities assembled from a

76 dynamic species pool, however, may show different BEF relationships over time due to the  
77 shifting identities and interactions of the constituent taxa (fig. 1C).

78

79       Whereas biodiversity-ecosystem function experiments are most commonly conducted  
80 using primary producers, the framework has also been successfully extended to other groups.  
81 In particular, bacterial communities have been the subject of numerous BEF studies, owing  
82 to both their experimental tractability and importance in regulating ecosystem processes  
83 [18,24,27–30]. Because natural bacterial communities often exhibit marked turnover through  
84 time [31,32] they provide an opportunity to investigate the strength and drivers of the BEF  
85 relationship over a temporal gradient.

86

87       Carnivorous pitcher plants in the family Sarraceniaceae are a group for which  
88 bacterial communities provide a particularly critical function. These plants have evolved to  
89 capture arthropod prey by means of a conical leaf in which trapped insects are drowned by  
90 fluid secreted by the host [33,34]. Digestion is facilitated both by enzymes produced by the  
91 plant and by a dynamic community of bacteria residing in the fluid [32,35–37]. The pitcher  
92 plant *Darlingtonia californica* (Torr.) is hypothesized to rely heavily on bacteria for prey  
93 digestion [35]. The pitcher leaves of this species are produced at regular intervals throughout  
94 the June-October growing season and are sterile prior to opening [32]. Once the leaves fully  
95 develop, they quickly begin trapping insects, and bacterial biomass skyrockets to over  $10^9$   
96 cells mL<sup>-1</sup> [32]. After approximately two months, a leaf ceases prey capture but remains  
97 photosynthetically active for a second growing season. Bacterial diversity in *Darlingtonia*  
98 pitchers changes predictably over time, as has been documented by both culture-independent  
99 molecular approaches as well as among bacterial cultures isolated from different aged leaves  
100 [32,38]. These temporal isolates provide a unique opportunity to experimentally test the

101 relationship between biodiversity and ecosystem functioning along a natural microbial  
102 successional gradient.

103

104 My goals for this study were twofold. First, I investigated whether the contribution of  
105 bacterial richness to rates of carbon mineralization changed over time along a natural  
106 successional gradient in *Darlingtonia* leaves. Second, I used these data to estimate the  
107 relative influences of individual strains and their interspecific interactions (such as  
108 competition) on the BEF relationship [39]. The strength of interspecific competition among  
109 bacterial strains growing in a polyculture can be approximated as the difference between the  
110 community's predicted respiration in the absence of any interference (i.e., the sum of the  
111 strains' monoculture respiration rates) and the community's realized respiration rate, given  
112 the mono- and polycultures have equal total starting densities [40,41]. If strains in a  
113 polyculture do not inhibit one another through resource competition or direct antagonism,  
114 then the community's rate of carbon respiration will not significantly differ from the additive  
115 monoculture expectation [40]. This measure of competitive inhibition is anticipated to  
116 increase over time if, for instance, a competition-colonization tradeoff results in the  
117 dominance of early pitcher leaves by less-competitive, ruderal taxa which are later excluded  
118 by superior competitors [11,13]. Alternatively, the bacterial taxa dominating late-stage  
119 pitchers may be specialists on recalcitrant carbon resources and therefore may not contribute  
120 significantly to respiration, compared to early, fast-growing colonists [42]. In this case, I  
121 anticipated a negative trend in competitive inhibition over time. In order to experimentally  
122 test these hypotheses, I assembled synthetic microbial communities using pools of bacterial  
123 strains isolated from a cohort of pitcher leaves at regular intervals and measured their rates of  
124 carbon mineralization.

125

**126 MATERIAL AND METHODS***127 Sample collection & strain isolation*

128 In the field, I tagged five unopened *Darlingtonia* pitcher leaves of the same approximate age  
129 at the beginning of the growing season and tracked them over their first year. I visited this  
130 cohort of leaves every 11 days from June to September 2014 and once in June 2015 to  
131 remove 0.5 mL of pitcher fluid from each leaf. This fluid was diluted and spread on R2A  
132 agar plates and incubated at 25° C, and bacterial colonies expressing unique colony  
133 morphologies, cellular morphologies, and pigmentations were isolated in pure culture. The  
134 10 most abundant bacterial strains isolated from each pitcher age class were then used to  
135 inoculate experimental microcosms (table S1). Extended discussion of the sampling and  
136 isolation methods can be found in the electronic supplementary materials accompanying this  
137 article. Supplementary figure S1 provides a graphical walkthrough of the experimental  
138 procedure.

139

*140 Microcosm experiment*

141 I combined the 10 strains isolated from each time point into 1-, 2-, 5-, and 10-strain  
142 communities using the random partitions design introduced by Bell *et al.* [39]. My  
143 experiment consisted of 4 partitions ( $P$ ), each containing 4 strain richness treatments ( $R$ ) and  
144  $10/R$  randomized communities within each  $P \times R$  treatment (supplemental fig. S2). Every  
145 experimental community was replicated 3 times. This experimental design ensures that all  
146 species are equally represented within and among richness levels, giving each one an equal  
147 opportunity to contribute to selection and complementarity effects and weakens statistical  
148 artifacts such as the ‘variance reduction effect’ [43]. It also permits the statistical separation  
149 of species effects and richness effects on ecosystem processes without the need for  
150 measuring the contribution of an individual species to the properties of the polyculture, as is

151 traditional in BEF studies using plant biomass as a response. This enables the user to estimate  
152 species' contributions to emergent ecosystem properties (e.g. carbon mineralization rates)  
153 that cannot be attributed to individual taxa in polyculture. Furthermore, it relaxes the  
154 requirement for a full-factorial experimental design, which becomes intractable as the  
155 number of species increases. In total, I assembled 216 communities per time point, resulting  
156 in a total of 1944 cultures spanning 9 source community ages and 4 levels of richness.

157

158         The bacterial microcosms consisted of 1.2 mL 96 well plates containing a sterile  
159 artificial pitcher medium comprised of M9 salt solution and ground cricket powder.  
160 Individual bacterial strains were grown to mid-log-phase in R2A broth, washed of their  
161 medium, and starved for two hours. Each strain was introduced into its community at the  
162 volume required to keep the total number of cells across richness treatments equal (100  $\mu$ L,  
163 or approximately  $10^4$  colony forming units). Once assembled, plates were clamped onto 96-  
164 well MicroResp<sup>TM</sup> (James Hutton Institute, Inc.) respirometry plates containing a  
165 colorimetric CO<sub>2</sub> indicator solution [44]. All replicate communities for a single time point  
166 were incubated simultaneously at 25° C for three days, after which time I estimated rates of  
167 CO<sub>2</sub>-C entering each agar well on the MicroResp<sup>TM</sup> plate from its absorbance at 590 nm on a  
168 microplate reader. I measured the carbon metabolic profiles of each 10-strain community  
169 using the GN2 microplate (Biolog, Inc.), which assays a community's potential to metabolize  
170 95 different carbon compounds. Each Biolog assay was run in triplicate at 25° C for three  
171 days and only substrates scoring positive for metabolism across all replicates were scored as  
172 positive. I used ANOVA to test for differences in the mean number of compounds used  
173 between community ages and principal coordinates analysis to ordinate samples' metabolic  
174 profiles based on their Jaccard distances. Additional experimental procedures are detailed in  
175 the electronic supplemental materials.

176

177 *Statistical analyses*

178 To assess how drivers of the BEF relationship differed among time points, I fit a linear model  
179 to community respiration rates [39]. This model took the form

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_{LR}x_{LR} + \beta_{NLR}x_{NLR} + \left( \sum_i^S \beta_i x_i \right) + \beta_Q x_Q + \beta_M x_M + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

180 where  $y$  is a community or ecosystem process (e.g., respiration rate),  $\beta_{LR}$  is the effect of strain  
181 richness measured on a continuous scale (linear richness,  $x_{LR}$ ),  $\beta_{NLR}$  is the effect of strain  
182 richness measured on a categorical scale (non-linear richness,  $x_{NLR}$ ),  $\beta_i$  is the impact of an  
183 individual strain's presence on the productivity of its community,  $\beta_Q$  is the effect of the  
184 particular taxon pool used in each  $P \times R$  treatment, and  $\beta_M$  is the effect of a particular  
185 community composition within each taxon pool,  $\beta_0$  is the intercept, and  $\varepsilon$  is the error term.

186

187 Importantly, by estimating the linear richness term prior to the nonlinear richness and  
188 strains' impact terms, the latter two terms become orthogonal. The species impact ( $\beta_i$ ) terms  
189 sum to zero and reflect the relative influence an individual strain exerts on the community's  
190 respiration. The nonlinear richness term ( $\beta_{NLR}$ ) can be interpreted as the magnitude of  
191 deviations from linear richness effects. Nonzero values of  $\beta_{NLR}$  reflect the influence of  
192 facilitative and competitive interactions on ecosystem processes. I used least squares to  
193 estimate the model coefficients and an  $F$ -test to determine the statistical significance of each  
194 variable. The denominator term for the  $F$ -statistics of the  $\beta_{NLR}$  and  $\beta_i$  parameters were the  
195 partitioned mean squares from the species pool ( $Q$ ) or species composition ( $M$ ) factors,  
196 respectively. Model terms were entered in the order in which they appear in equation 2:  
197 nonlinear richness ( $\beta_{NLR}$ ) and species impacts ( $\beta_i$ ) were estimated from the residuals of the  
198 model containing the linear richness ( $\beta_{LR}$ ) term.



199

200 I estimated the effects of the source pitchers' ages and experimental communities'  
201 richness on rates of CO<sub>2</sub> respiration using linear regression. To aid in the interpretation of  
202 interactions, predictors were centered to their mean values prior to model fitting. I assessed  
203 the pairwise differences among community ages using Tukey's range test ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).  
204 Community age was treated as an ordinal, discrete variable to account for the absence of  
205 sampling between days 88 and 365.

206

207 I estimated the extent to which strains inhibit one another's potential CO<sub>2</sub> production  
208 in polyculture by calculating the difference between a community's predicted and observed  
209 respiration rates. The predicted values were calculated by summing all community members'  
210 average monoculture respiration rates. The difference between a polyculture's predicted and  
211 observed respiration values will equal zero if there are no inhibitory effects between  
212 members of the community (i.e., all taxa in a polyculture perform as well they do in  
213 monoculture) [40,41]. Alternatively, direct antagonism (e.g., antibiotic production) or  
214 resource competition is anticipated to result in respiration rates less than the additive  
215 prediction. I used ANCOVA to test the null hypothesis that the mean differences between  
216 predicted and observed respiration rates were equal among community ages, controlling for  
217 richness effects. Pairwise differences between centered predictor variables were assessed  
218 using Tukey's range test. All models were fit using R v3.1 [45].

219

#### 220 *Pairwise antagonism assay*

221 I performed spot assays to determine whether a particular bacterial strain directly inhibits the  
222 growth of a co-occurring strain. I created lawns of focal strains by spreading log-phase broth  
223 cultures onto two plates containing R2A agar onto which I spotted 2  $\mu$ L log-phase broth

224 culture of each co-occurring isolate. Each spot was replicated four times on the same plate,  
225 resulting in 8 cross-inoculations per strain pair (excluding sterile blanks). After 24 hours at  
226 25° C, I searched for zones of clearing surrounding a colony. I considered the spotted strain  
227 to be inhibitory to the focal strain if unambiguous zones of clearing surrounded at least 6  
228 replicates.

229

## 230 RESULTS

231 I found an average of 6.9 (SE = 0.18, range = 5-9) bacterial strains remaining in each 10-  
232 strain community, and there were no significant differences in the proportions of surviving  
233 strains among source community ages ( $F_{8,27} = 2.3$ ,  $p = 0.06$ ). Thus, although the strains'  
234 relative abundances changed throughout the incubation period, no single, dominant strain  
235 was able to exclude the majority of others. I detected significant differences between the  
236 mean respiration rates of bacterial communities isolated from pitcher leaves of different ages  
237 (table 1, fig. S3). Post-hoc analysis revealed respiration rates to be greatest among bacterial  
238 communities isolated from pitcher leaves between 22 and 55 days old (fig. S3). This pattern  
239 was consistent under all four richness treatments, although there was a general tendency for  
240 variance in respiration rates among treatments to increase when more strains were present.  
241 Bacterial richness had a significantly positive effect on overall respiration rates, ( $\beta_R = 0.05 \pm$   
242 0.007; table 1, fig. 2), although there was a significant interaction between richness and  
243 source community age (table 1).

244

245 The effect of linear richness ( $\beta_{LR}$ ) on respiration rates was significantly positive for all  
246 source community ages except those from days 88 and 365 (fig. 2). This positive effect of  
247 richness on respiration was greatest for isolates from pitcher leaves between 22 and 66 days  
248 old, and tended to increase from days 11 to 22 and then slowly decrease towards zero

249 throughout the rest of the pitchers' lifespan (fig. 3A). For each bacterial isolate pool, I  
250 detected individual nonlinear richness effects ( $\beta_{NLR}$ ) and individual strain ( $\beta_i$ ) effects  
251 significantly greater or less than zero, but these effects were not significant overall (table S2).  
252 Despite this, the relative influence of nonlinear richness effects was greater than overall  
253 strain effects for the majority of time points (fig. 3B).

254

255         The average differences between expected and observed respiration rates initially  
256 increased between samples collected from 11-day and 22-day pitchers, and then declined  
257 with source community age (fig. 4). There were a number of instances where the observed  
258 respiration rates of two-strain mixtures were greater than their predicted values, but overall  
259 mean values were significantly greater than zero for all richness treatments ( $\beta_{0,R2} = 1.04 \pm$   
260  $0.26$ ,  $\beta_{0,R5} = 7.25 \pm 0.48$ ,  $\beta_{0,R10} = 16.05 \pm 0.62$ ,  $p < 0.0001$  for all cases). The magnitude of  
261 this inhibitory effect increased with strain richness (fig. 4, table 1). I only detected 12  
262 antagonistic interactions between eight pairs of strains (out of 405 total). These interactions  
263 occurred only in 11- and 44-day source pools. Furthermore, there was no detectable temporal  
264 trend among source pool ages in either the total number of carbon substrates utilized (fig. S4)  
265 or their multivariate Jaccard similarities (fig. S4).

266

## 267 **DISCUSSION**

### 268 *Dynamic species pools impact BEF relationships*

269 I encountered a mid-successional peak in rates of carbon mineralization, independent of  
270 taxonomic richness. This implies that when placed into identical environments, bacterial  
271 strains isolated from leaves of intermediate ages (22 to 55 days old) were better able to  
272 mineralize carbon in the growth medium. This result could not be explained by differences in  
273 the taxon pools' carbon metabolic profiles. Rather, the increase in strains' average respiration

274 rates during this period coincided with the greatest rates of prey capture by the pitcher leaf  
275 [32,46]. It is possible that the relatively low respiration rates of late-stage bacterial  
276 communities reflect an adaptive strategy for living in nutrient-poor pitcher environments.  
277 This is supported by the observation of lower average ribosomal RNA copy numbers — a  
278 trait correlated with growth rate— as succession proceeds [32,47]. However, information on  
279 all strains' relative performances across different nutrient concentrations would be required  
280 to experimentally verify this hypothesis. A recent study found that both BEF effects and  
281 competitive interactions decreased in bacterial microcosms over time, as highly-productive  
282 taxa were outcompeted by specialists capable of efficient use of recalcitrant resources [42].  
283 This observation mirrors and lends support to my results, and suggests that the community  
284 dynamics observed in closed microcosms may approximate those from more natural systems.

285

286       The effects of a community's richness on respiration rates were generally positive,  
287 but varied over time such that the slope estimates peaked in pitcher leaves of intermediate  
288 age. These positive BEF relationships appeared to be driven by linear, additive contributions  
289 of taxa, as evidenced by strong positive linear richness terms, but weak nonlinear richness  
290 and species impact terms. This observation implies that, on average, community members  
291 had similar relative respiration rates and low levels of niche overlap. This interpretation is  
292 supported by the lack of dominance by any one or more strains in 10-strain communities,  
293 which would be predicted to lead to significant species impact terms. Inhibition of a  
294 community's potential additive respiration rates was common in all polycultures and peaked  
295 in communities assembled from intermediate-aged pitcher leaves. This observation,  
296 combined with an absence of direct antagonistic interactions, provides evidence for diffuse  
297 competition limiting a strain's potential respiration in polyculture. Although I failed to detect  
298 significant negative nonlinear richness terms indicative of strong competition, I did encounter

299 an increase in the effect of nonlinear richness coinciding with the periods of highest  
300 respiration inhibition. This general pattern of diffuse competition in polycultures is  
301 commonly found in bacterial microcosm experiments [40,48] but may not be typical of  
302 bacteria within pitcher plants due to my isolation procedure. By using a single medium to  
303 isolate bacteria, it is likely that the strains I sampled were more phenotypically similar to one  
304 another than to a random sample of all bacteria in a pitcher leaf. Thus, the strains used in this  
305 study should be considered members sampled from a guild of aerobic, heterotrophic bacteria  
306 and are expected to compete with one another for resources and express similar rates of  
307 carbon respiration. However, this is no different than most plant and microbial BEF studies,  
308 which commonly draw inference at the guild level. A useful follow-up to this experiment  
309 would investigate the effects of increasing the phenotypic diversity of the taxon pool by  
310 adding strains obtained using a broader range of media.

311

312       Competition among isolates is predicted to decrease in bacterial communities over  
313 time due to divergent evolution and can lead to changes in ecosystem functioning [49–51].  
314 The relatively low levels of competitive inhibition among strains from late-stage pitcher  
315 leaves may represent indirect evidence of divergence. This scenario is plausible, given the  
316 rapid generation times and population sizes of the isolates. A recent study by Fiegna *et al.*  
317 [48] showed that the experimental evolution of bacterial isolates over 5 weeks can alter the  
318 BEF relationship via a relaxation of competition. Although such an effect is possible in  
319 natural systems, its demonstration would require tracking individual bacterial lineages over  
320 time and regularly assaying their competitive interactions. Miller and Kneitel [52] attempted  
321 this by measuring the degree of competitive inhibition of four bacterial colony morphotypes  
322 isolated from the same pitcher leaves 7 days and 42 days after opening. The authors found  
323 that the competitive abilities (relative to a common bacterial competitor) of two of the four

324 strains decreased with pitcher age while two did not appear to change [52]. These results  
325 match my observation of increased competitive inhibition of potential respiration on a similar  
326 timescale (11-day and 44-day leaves).

327

### 328 *Potential drivers of BEF relationships*

329 To date, few studies have directly estimated the impacts of natural successional  
330 dynamics in the context of biodiversity and ecosystem functioning [26,53,54]. Using 15  
331 years of observational data from regenerating tropical forest plots, Lasky *et al.* documented a  
332 decreasing effect of species richness on rates of aboveground biomass production in mid- and  
333 late-successional tropical forest plots [26]. These results matched both theoretical predictions  
334 [14] and experimental studies in which diversity effects were tracked over time within  
335 individual microcosms without immigration [18,22]. My results conform to those of other  
336 BEF time-series experiments, despite marked differences in design. In concert, these findings  
337 challenge the common observation that the effects of richness on productivity become more  
338 positive over time [21], though further investigation is necessary to uncover the mechanisms  
339 leading to these contrasting outcomes.

340

341 One mechanism for generating non-positive BEF relationships is the negative  
342 selection effect [7,27]. This phenomenon occurs when the competitively dominant taxa in a  
343 community are those that contribute least to the measured ecosystem function. Three lines of  
344 evidence from my experiments suggest that the negative selection effect does not occur in  
345 late-stage source communities. First, I did not detect any trends towards increasing rates of  
346 competitive exclusions in late-stage source communities. Second, these communities had  
347 some of the smallest nonlinear richness (i.e., species interaction) terms and extents of  
348 inhibition. These lines of evidence signify a low contribution of negative species interactions

349 to the diminished respiration in late-stage pitchers [39]. Further study, however, is needed to  
350 determine 1) whether observed successional decreases in competition result from decreasing  
351 niche overlap within late-stage pitcher communities and 2) the relative influence of  
352 competition versus habitat filtering during different stages of ecosystem development and  
353 how these factors, acting historically, contribute to contemporary community structure.

354

### 355 *Conclusions*

356 All previous experimental studies measuring the BEF relationship over time do so  
357 using communities with finite resources and no immigration. Consequently, the closed nature  
358 of these systems may have influenced the resulting community dynamics and ecosystem  
359 processes. My study, however, measured individual “snapshots” of communities assembled  
360 from a temporal gradient of natural, open source pools. Furthermore, my microcosms were  
361 assembled with equal starting concentrations of bacterial strains and resources, which may  
362 have prevented communities from becoming resource limited prior to measuring their  
363 respirations. Despite these differences, however, decreases in microbial BEF relationships of  
364 both static species pools over time and dynamic species pools at a single time point suggest  
365 that similar ecological processes may govern these patterns in microbial communities.

366

367 In leaves of the pitcher plant *Darlingtonia californica*, bacterial degradation of  
368 organic matter is a process critical for the uptake of prey-derived nitrogen and phosphorous  
369 in the nutrient-poor habitats to which these plants are adapted. Using bacterial strains isolated  
370 from pitcher leaves at regular intervals over a one-year period, I determined the magnitude of  
371 the BEF relationship to peak in mid-successional communities. This positive richness effect  
372 on respiration was driven primarily by strains’ relatively equivalent contributions to  
373 ecosystem function. At the same time, respiration was constrained by diffuse competition

374 among strains in polyculture. This study represents an initial attempt to integrate  
375 biodiversity-ecosystem function effects over successional time and concludes that the  
376 functional consequences of diversity loss on a host or ecosystem may vary along a  
377 successional gradient. Future studies on biodiversity-ecosystem function relationships are  
378 encouraged to adopt a dynamic species pool framework to improve the generalizability of  
379 their results.

380

### 381 **DATA, CODE, AND MATERIALS**

382 The datasets supporting this article have been uploaded as a part of the supplementary  
383 material.

384

### 385 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

386 D.W.A. conceived of the study, collected all data, performed the analyses, and drafted the  
387 manuscript.

388

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## 539 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

540 **Figure 1.** Species pools for BEF experiments are typically chosen either by sampling a  
541 community at a single point in time (a) or from a group of taxa which may not co-occur at a  
542 particular time point (b). Far fewer studies have taken the approach of measuring BEF  
543 relationships over a temporally dynamic species pool (c).

544

545 **Figure 2.** Relationships between strain richness and community respiration for synthetic  
546 bacterial communities assembled from pitchers of different ages. Black lines denote  
547 significant linear richness fits for individual communities within each age group ( $p < 0.05$ ).  
548 Mean values for the response variables are presented for clarity. Bars denote standard error  
549 measurements.

550

551 **Figure 3.** (a) Linear richness ( $\beta_{LR}$ ) regression coefficients as a function of source community  
552 age. Bars denote 95% confidence intervals and shared letters between ages signify an overlap  
553 between the two estimates. Asterisks (\*) denote coefficients found to be significantly greater  
554 than zero ( $F$ -test,  $p < 0.05$ ). (b) Log mean square estimates for the species impact ( $\beta_i$ ) and  
555 nonlinear richness ( $\beta_{NLR}$ ) parameters. These values represent the relative contributions of  
556 species-specific effects and species interactions, respectively, on respiration rates. None of  
557 these coefficients were significantly greater than zero.

558

559 **Figure 4.** Relative inhibition of bacterial respiration in polycultures measured as the  
560 difference between additive predicted and observed rates. Values of zero indicate that the  
561 sum of community members' respirations in monoculture equaled the community's  
562 performance in polyculture. Values greater than zero indicate that observed rates were less  
563 than predicted rates and provide evidence for interspecific competitive or antagonistic  
564 inhibition. The Y-axis has been reversed to more clearly illustrate this inhibition. Letters  
565 shared by points within a richness group indicate that their means (white points) do not  
566 significantly differ from one another (Tukey's range test,  $p < 0.05$ ). Shading denotes richness  
567 treatments.

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570 **TABLES**

571 **Table 1.** ANOVA and ANCOVA results for total respiration and respiration differences (i.e.  
 572 interspecific inhibition). Respiration rates were log-transformed to satisfy homoscedasticity.  
 573 Richness was treated as a continuous variables and age as a categorical variable with  
 574 contrasts summing to zero. Marginal (type 3) sums-of-squares (SS) are presented.

<b>Response</b>	<b>Covariate</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>SS</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
	Intercept	1	17.35	317.35	< 0.001	0.17
Log respiration rate	Source community age	8	12.89	12.89	< 0.001	
	Species richness	1	47.03	47.03	< 0.001	
	Interaction term	8	14.52	3.311	< 0.001	
	Residuals	1926	1056			
<b>Response</b>	<b>Covariate</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>SS</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
	Intercept	1	689	154	< 0.001	0.88
Expected - observed respiration	Source community age	8	1050	29.3	< 0.001	
	Species richness	1	7481	1675.0	< 0.001	
	Interaction term	8	1133	31.7	< 0.001	
	Residuals	270	1206			

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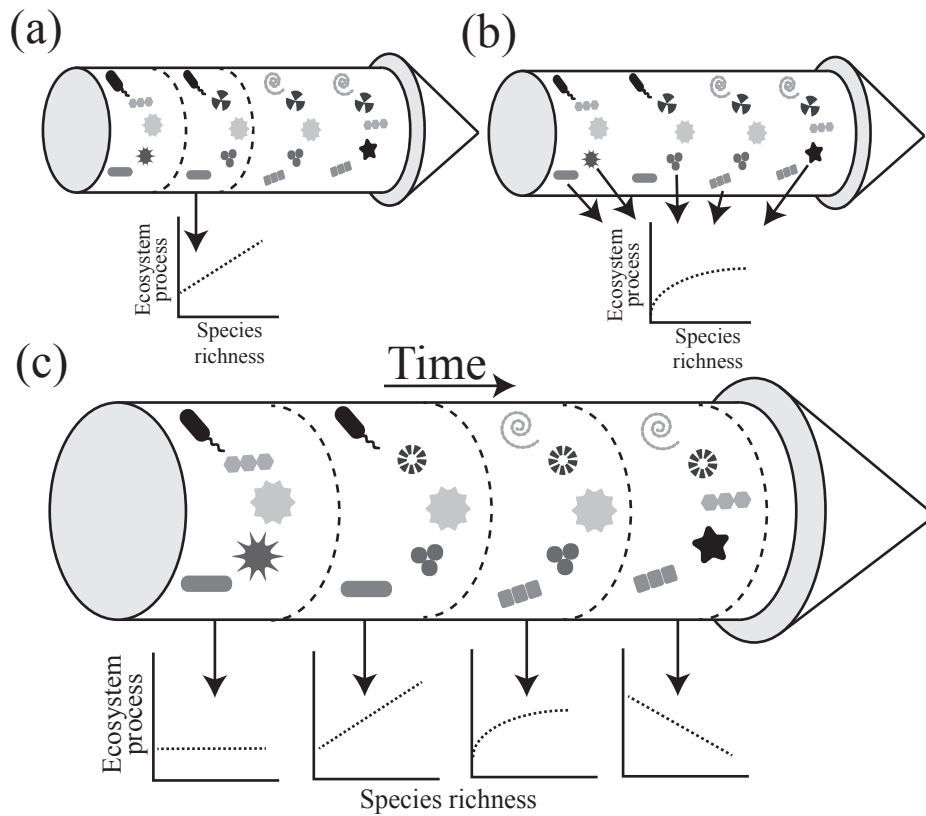
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588 Figure 1



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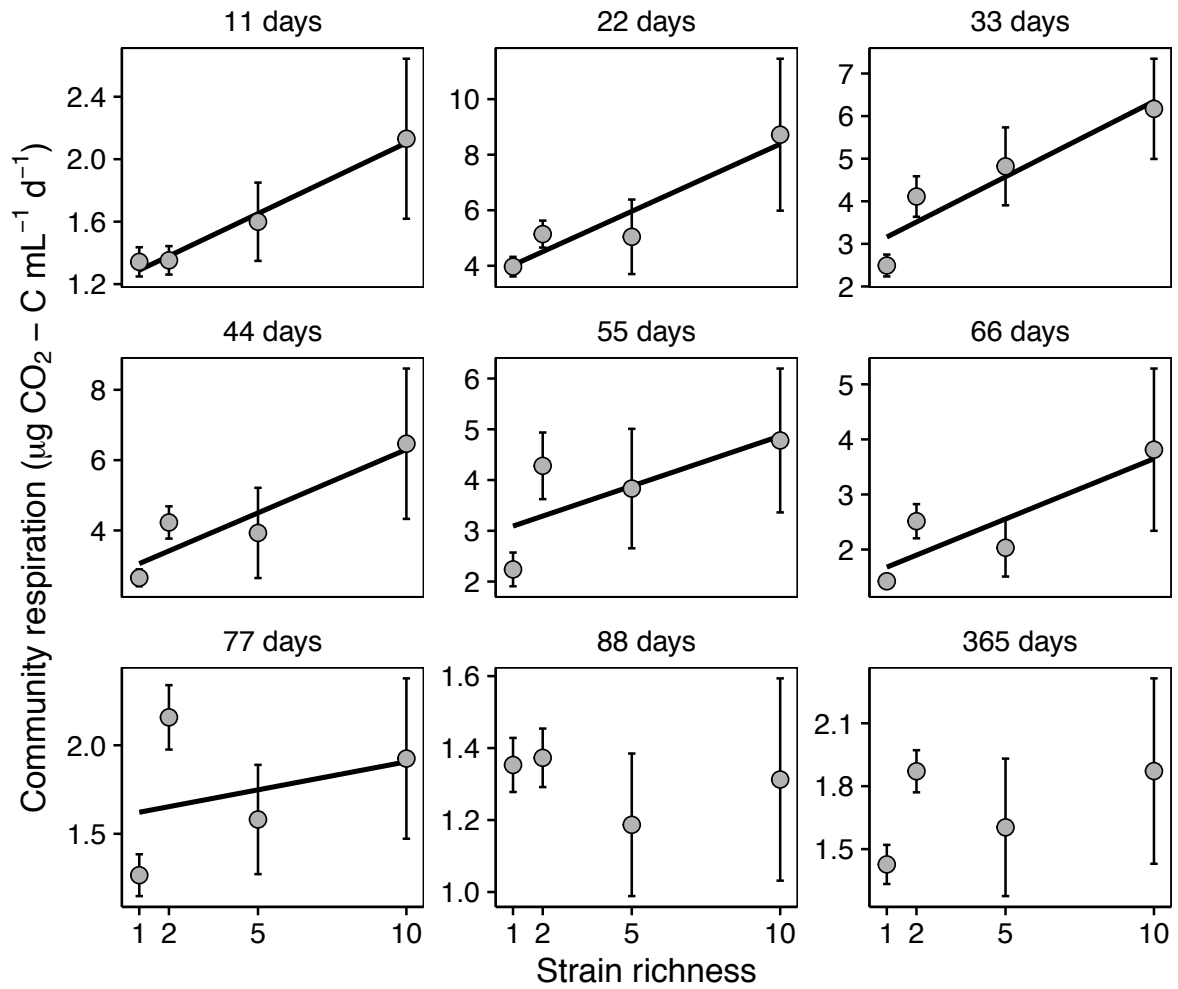
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602 Figure 2



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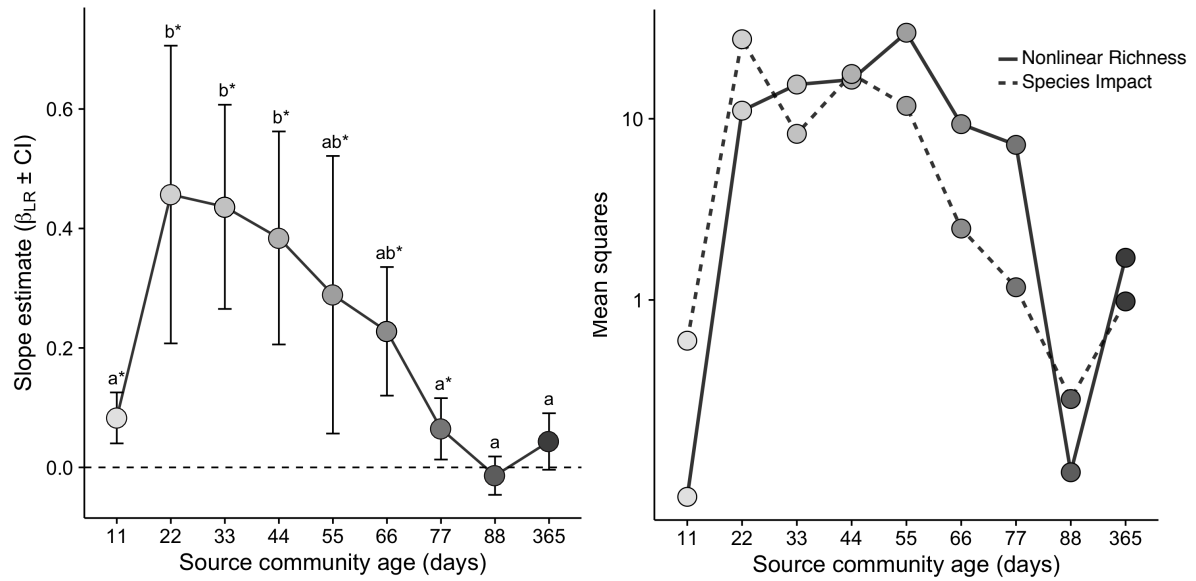
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614 Figure 3



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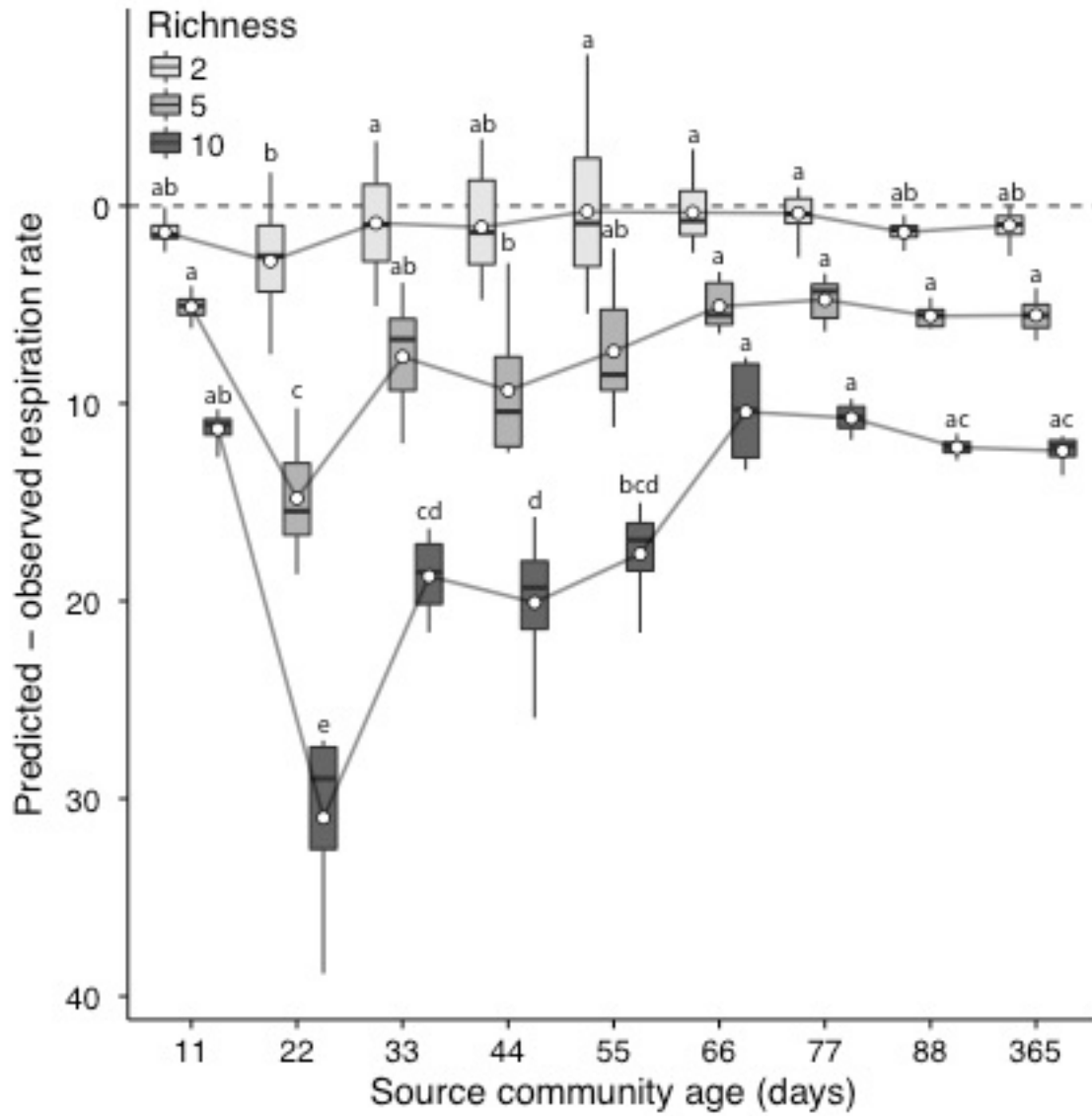
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632 Figure 4



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