

# Phylogenetic, functional, and taxonomic richness have both positive and negative effects on ecosystem multifunctionality

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1	<b>Running head</b>	l: biodiversitv	attributes and	multifunctionality
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2 Title: Phylogenetic, functional and taxonomic richness have both positive and negative

- **3** effects on ecosystem multifunctionality
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#### 23 Abstract

24 Biodiversity encompasses multiple attributes such as the richness and abundance of species (taxonomic diversity), the presence of different evolutionary lineages (phylogenetic diversity), 25 and the variety of growth forms and resource-use strategies (functional diversity). These 26 biodiversity attributes do not necessarily relate to each other, and may have contrasting effects 27 on ecosystem functioning. However, how they simultaneously influence the provision of 28 multiple ecosystem functions related to carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus cycling 29 (multifunctionality) remains unknown. We evaluated the effects of the taxonomic, phylogenetic 30 and functional attributes of dominant (mass-ratio effects) and subordinate (richness effect) plant 31 32 species on the multifunctionality of 123 drylands from six continents. Our results highlight the importance of the phylogenetic and functional attributes of subordinate species as key drivers 33 of multifunctionality. In addition to a higher taxonomic richness, we found that simultaneously 34 35 increasing the richness of early diverging lineages and the functional redundancy between species increased multifunctionality. In contrast, the richness of most recent evolutionary 36 lineages and the functional and phylogenetic attributes of dominant plant species (mass-ratio 37 effects) were weakly correlated with multifunctionality. However, they were important drivers 38 of individual nutrient cycles. By identifying which biodiversity attributes contribute the most 39 to multifunctionality, our results can guide restoration efforts aiming to maximize either 40 multifunctionality or particular nutrient cycles, a critical step to combat dryland desertification 41 worldwide. 42

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## 48 Significance

Biodiversity is declining globally, but its different taxonomic, functional and evolutionary 49 attributes are doing so at a different pace. Understanding how these attributes influence 50 ecosystem functioning is crucial to better predict the ecological consequences of biodiversity 51 loss. Based on a survey of 123 drylands worldwide, our results highlight the phylogenetic and 52 functional attributes of subordinate species as key drivers of the provision of multiple 53 ecosystem functions simultaneously (multifunctionality). Our study expands our understanding 54 of the relationship between biodiversity and multifunctionality by identifying the diversity of 55 early diverging lineages and functional redundancy as important biodiversity attributes to 56 prioritize in conservation and restoration programs aimed at promoting dryland 57 multifunctionality worldwide. 58

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#### 60 Key-words

Functional diversity | Mass-ratio hypothesis | Nutrient cycling | Phylogenetic diversity |
Taxonomic diversity.

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#### 65 Introduction

66 Understanding the relationship between biodiversity and the capacity of ecosystems to perform multiple functions simultaneously (multifunctionality) has been a core ecological research topic 67 in the last decade (1-4). In recent years, considerable research efforts have been devoted to 68 explore how the biodiversity – ecosystem multifunctionality relationship (B-EMF relationship 69 hereafter) is contingent upon the number and identity of ecosystem functions considered (e.g., 70 refs. (5, 6)). In contrast, how multiple attributes of biodiversity such as the richness and 71 abundance of species (taxonomic diversity), the diversity of evolutionary lineages 72 (phylogenetic diversity) and that of the traits related to resource-use strategy (functional 73 74 diversity) simultaneously influence ecosystem functioning remains poorly investigated (7–11), particularly at the global scale. Since these biodiversity attributes do not necessarily correlate 75 (12, 13), assessing how they simultaneously influence multifunctionality is not only crucial to 76 77 expand our fundamental understanding of the B-EMF relationships, but also to prioritize relevant biodiversity attributes in global conservation programs, and to improve management 78 79 actions to preserve and restore terrestrial ecosystems (12, 14).

While most B-EMF studies have focused on species richness (1-3), functional diversity 80 is also a key driver of multifunctionality (15–17). Higher functional diversity could enhance 81 multifunctionality either because co-occurring species with contrasting trait values increase the 82 overall resource utilization (18) or by including species that strongly affect ecosystem 83 functioning ("sampling effect"; ref. (19)). The phylogenetic diversity of plant communities can 84 also influence ecosystem functions such as biomass production (7, 8). However, how 85 phylogenetic diversity influences the B-EMF relationships remains unclear (20), and we do not 86 know whether early diverging vs. recent evolutionary events ultimately influence ecosystem 87 functioning (21). Phylogenetic diversity is a key biodiversity attribute when it effectively 88 encompasses unmeasured biological traits that are relevant for ecosystem functioning (7, 22). 89

As such, considering simultaneously phylogenetic diversity, which often grasps traits that are
not typically measured (e.g. those related to plant-pathogen or plant-mycorrhiza interactions
(23, 24), and measured traits could better account for the many dimensions of trait diversity
exhibited by plant species (7, 13). Therefore, doing so could provide greater insights on how
the multidimensionality of biodiversity influences multifunctionality.

No matter the taxonomic, phylogenetic or functional attribute of biodiversity we look 95 96 at, focusing solely on richness ignores the overwhelming effect that dominant species may have 97 on ecosystem functioning (25, 26). According to the mass-ratio hypothesis (25), the effect of plant species on ecosystem functioning is directly proportional to their biomass (mass-ratio 98 99 effects), and thus is relatively insensitive to the richness of subordinate species (25). This hypothesis was originally framed for individual functions related to biomass production and 100 carbon cycling (25–27). However, the importance of the dominant species seems less clear 101 102 when focusing on multifunctionality (28, 29), as it may depend on the attribute of biodiversity or the function considered. 103

104 To better understand the functional consequences of biodiversity changes occurring worldwide, we gathered data from 123 dryland ecosystems from six continents, including 105 steppes, savannas and shrublands (SI Appendix, Fig. S1), to investigate how multiple plant 106 107 diversity attributes simultaneously influence multifunctionality. We used eight complementary biodiversity metrics that account for changes in the taxonomic, phylogenetic (early diverging 108 and recent lineages) and functional diversity of plant communities (see methods; SI Appendix, 109 Fig. S2, Tables S1 and S2). Within this framework, our selection included metrics that were 110 weighted and non-weighted by species abundance to disentangle the effect of dominant (mass-111 ratio effects) vs. that of subordinate (richness effects) plant species on multifunctionality. After 112 controlling for important climatic, soil and geographic variables, we related multiple 113 biodiversity metrics to four indices of multifunctionality using the multiple thresholds approach 114

(30). The four indices were: 1) multifunctionality (based on 11 weakly correlated functions), 2)
carbon cycling (C; including organic carbon concentration; pentose content and aboveground
plant productivity), 3) nitrogen cycling (N; including nitrate concentration, dissolved organic
nitrogen, protein content and potential nitrification) and 4) phosphorus cycling (P; including
available, inorganic and total phosphorus, and phosphatase enzymatic activity) (*SI Appendix*,
Table S3). We tested the core hypothesis that considering multiple biodiversity attributes
simultaneously increases the strength of biodiversity effects on multifunctionality.

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## 123 **Results**

124 The biodiversity metrics studied were strongly related to multifunctionality, even after accounting for the strong influence of geographic, climate and soil properties on ecosystem 125 functioning (Fig. 1). Biodiversity attributes explained up to 18% of multifunctionality (total 126 127 variance), and up to 25%, 22% and 27% of the variation in the indices derived for C, N and P cycling, respectively. While species richness alone explained on average ~ 5% of variation in 128 129 multifunctionality and up to 8% for C cycling, the inclusion of multiple biodiversity attributes enhanced the effect of biodiversity on multifunctionality by three-fold. Functional, 130 phylogenetic and taxonomic biodiversity attributes were all selected in the most parsimonious 131 models as significant predictors of multifunctionality, indicating that they have complementary 132 effects on C, N and P cycling. 133

Richness effects [the sum of explained variance of species richness and of non-weighted functional (FDIS) and phylogenetic (PSV, MNTD) metrics] explained between 76-100% of the biotic effects on multifunctionality (Fig. 2a). In contrast, the importance of dominant species through mass-ratio effects (i.e. the metrics weighted by the abundance of the species) increased when considering each nutrient cycle individually (Fig. 2b, c, d). Mass-ratio effects contributed, on average, to 51%, 41% and 63% of the explained variance for C, N and P cycling, respectively. Mass-ratio effects were mostly related to the functional identity (CWM-SLA and CWM-H) of dominant species rather than to their functional/phylogenetic diversities. In summary, richness effects due to subordinate species were the strongest predictors of multifunctionality, while mass-ratio effects better explained C, N and P cycling separately.

The net relationship between biodiversity and multifunctionality was generally positive, 144 although weak, and even null when high multifunctionality thresholds were considered (Fig. 145 146 3a). This result was consistent regardless of the number of biodiversity attributes considered (Fig. 4) but varied with the nutrient studied. Thus, despite the larger amount of variance 147 explained (Fig. 1), the net effect of biodiversity on ecosystem functioning was not stronger 148 when multiple biodiversity attributes were included (Fig. 4). The inconsistency between 149 variance explained and the net effect observed was mainly caused by contrasting effects of 150 individual biodiversity attributes on different nutrient cycles taken separately and on overall 151 152 multifunctionality.

When evaluating the sets of functions separately, we observed positive relationships 153 154 between biodiversity and C and P cycling (Fig. 3b and d), which turned negative in the case of N cycling (Fig. 3c). In addition, we observed contrasting relationships depending on the 155 biodiversity attribute considered (Fig. 5). Species richness and phylogenetic diversity (PSV) 156 were positively related to multifunctionality (Fig. 5a), and to C, N and P cycling (Fig. 5b, c, d). 157 However, FDIS (describing the dispersion of functional trait values observed within 158 communities) was negatively related to multifunctionality, C and N cycling. These results 159 highlight that particular combinations of biodiversity attributes are needed to maximize either 160 targeted nutrient cycles or overall multifunctionality. 161

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163 **Discussion** 

We investigated how multiple biodiversity attributes (taxonomic, phylogenetic and functional 164 richness and mass-ratio effects) simultaneously influenced the multifunctionality of 123 165 drylands worldwide. Together, these attributes explained up to 27% of variation in 166 167 multifunctionality across a wide range of geographic contexts, climatic and soil conditions. The simultaneous effect of multiple biodiversity attributes on multifunctionality stresses the need to 168 move from a single taxonomic to a more multidimensional perspective of biodiversity to better 169 grasp its complex effects on the functioning of terrestrial ecosystems. The importance of 170 considering multiple biodiversity attributes has been recently shown for biomass production 171 and its temporal variability, or for N availability (9-11, 31). Our results expand this research 172 173 by highlighting how multiple biodiversity attributes differentially impact both multifunctionality and major nutrient cycles at the global scale. 174

Our study helps to reconcile two influential hypotheses on the effects of biodiversity on 175 176 ecosystem functioning (19, 25). Mass-ratio effects (i.e., the abundance-weighted metrics considered, accounting for the effect of the most dominant species) were the strongest 177 predictors related to individual nutrient cycles, but were weakly correlated with 178 multifunctionality. As such, the Mass-ratio hypothesis may not apply when considering 179 multiple functions simultaneously (see also ref. (28). In contrast, richness effects (those mainly 180 driven by subordinate species) were the almost exclusive biotic drivers of multifunctionality in 181 the drylands studied. Our results show that richness effects increase in importance when aiming 182 at maximizing multiple ecosystem functions simultaneously. This matches the common view 183 that species are unique, i.e. that a high number of co-occurring subordinate species can promote 184 different functions at different times and places, therefore maximising the performance of 185 multiple functions simultaneously (1, 2, 5, 6). Our study extends the view of taxonomic 186 diversity to the phylogenetic and functional attributes of subordinate species as important 187 predictors of multifunctionality in terrestrial ecosystems. 188

Biodiversity had an overall positive effect on multifunctionality when considering 189 190 multiple biodiversity attributes simultaneously. However, and contrarily as hypothesized, this effect was relatively weak (Fig. 3a; Fig. 4). The observed weak B-EMF relationship resulted 191 first from contrasting relationships among the sets of functions relating to different 192 biogeochemical cycles (Fig. 3b, c and d). Also, we observed contrasting effects among the 193 studied biodiversity attributes (Fig. 5). As a result, biodiversity effects on multifunctionality 194 did not increase when considering multiple biodiversity attributes simultaneously (Fig. 4). 195 These contrasting effects match with recent evidences reporting the occurrence of diverse 196 (positive, neutral and negative) biodiversity - ecosystem functioning relationships in real world 197 ecosystems, especially when considering ecosystem functions other than plant biomass (4, 11, 198 32, 33). Our findings highlight that B-EMF relationships do not only depend on the combination 199 200 of functions studied (e.g., ref. (6)), but also on the identity of biodiversity attributes considered. 201 Therefore, ignoring the variety of attributes that biodiversity encompasses, such as taxonomic, phylogenetic and functional diversity, or the influence of subordinate vs. dominant species may 202 203 largely bias our ability to predict the consequences of biodiversity loss for the functioning of terrestrial ecosystems. 204

In opposition to the positive effect of species richness on multifunctionality and on C, 205 N and P cycling, functional richness (FDIS: the trait dispersion within communities) was 206 207 negatively related to multifunctionality, C and N cycling (Fig. 5). This negative effect of FDIS is in line with previous observed negative effects of trait dispersion on dryland 208 multifunctionality (17), as well as on the production and stability of biomass in several 209 210 ecosystems (7, 10, 31). The contrasting effect between species richness and FDIS highlights the importance of functional redundancy within the studied communities to maintain high 211 212 multifunctionality levels. This may be particularly true for communities experiencing strong abiotic stress such as dryland plant communities. Maximizing functional redundancy between 213

species in drylands (31) may limit the inclusion of mal-adapted plant strategies particularly
under drier conditions, which in turn may alter plant-soil feedbacks and accelerate land
degradation and desertification processes (16, 17, 34).

217 Phylogenetic diversity played a significant role as driver of multifunctionality even after controlling for taxonomic and functional diversity, confirming the importance to consider this 218 219 attribute in future B-EMF research. Phylogenetic diversity may reflect additional axes of 220 functional specialization that are neither captured by maximum plant height nor by SLA, two fundamental traits reflecting plant resource-use strategies (35). Phylogenetic diversity may 221 effectively take into account "hidden traits" that are particularly relevant for the functioning of 222 223 drylands (e.g. traits related to pathogen infection, pollination rates or mycorrhizal associations (23) or to plant demographic strategies (36)) and thus are required to properly model B-EMF 224 relationships. Dryland multifunctionality increased with a higher diversity of evolutionary 225 226 lineages (PSV). The coexistence of species from both quaternary and tertiary periods are commonly observed in arid regions as a consequence of facilitative interactions (37). Also, PSV 227 228 had opposite effects on multifunctionality compared to FDIS, indicating that maximizing both the phylogenetic distinctiveness and functional redundancy within species-rich communities 229 are complementary drivers of higher ecosystem multifunctionality. Our results also reflect that 230 231 evolutionary distinct lineages shared similar maximum plant height and SLA attributes (see also (38)). This pattern may arise from both species filtering with suitable trait values and the 232 adaptive evolution of traits in local lineages. A deeper understanding of the role of these 233 processes could shed light on the importance of natural selection and convergent evolution as 234 key evolutionary processes involved in the functioning of dryland ecosystems. 235

To further understand the linkages between the diversity of evolutionary lineages and multifunctionality, we investigated such relationships both at the most recent evolutionary events (tip level: MNTD) and across the whole tree (PSV). This approach revealed that both

MNTD and PSV are related to ecosystem functioning in drylands worldwide (Figs. 1 and 5). 239 240 While we observed exclusive effects of PSV on multifunctionality, those of MNTD were even stronger when considering individual nutrient cycles (positive and negative for C and N cycling, 241 242 respectively). These B-EMF patterns indicate an increase in the importance of early diverging lineages with increasing the number of functions considered, i.e. that the diversity of more 243 ancient lineages increases present-day multifunctionality. Alongside, recent evolutionary 244 245 events might reflect recent innovations promoting C cycling and productivity (Fig. 5, SI Appendix, Tables S4 and S5) without altering the level of multifunctionality. Our study was not 246 designed to specifically investigate the changes in B-EMF relationships over evolutionary 247 248 times. Nonetheless, the contrasted B-EMF patterns observed at two phylogenetic scales open new horizons on the importance of species evolutionary history for the emergence of 249 "multifunctional" ecosystems, e.g. for tracking when biodiversity became an important 250 251 multifunctionality driver.

Our results emphasize the need to consider the multidimensionality of biodiversity to 252 253 better understand B-EMF relationships. The biodiversity attributes involved in individual nutrient cycles were mostly related to mass-ratio effects. In contrast, richness effects enhanced 254 multifunctionality through the diversity of early diverging lineages and functional redundancy 255 within species-rich communities. In an era of global biodiversity crisis, our results can 256 257 contribute to shape conservation, restoration and management efforts based on species attributes to prioritize targeted nutrient cycles or overall multifunctionality, and therefore 258 optimizing the limited budgets allocated to maintain ecosystem functioning and associated 259 services in drylands, the Earth's largest biome. 260

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262 Methods

Characteristics of the study sites. We obtained field data from 123 sites located in 13 countries
(*SI Appendix*, Fig. S1). These sites (30 m x 30 m) are representative from the major vegetation
types found in drylands and differ widely in plant species richness and environmental
conditions (see further details in *SI Appendix*, Fig. S1).

Ecosystem multifunctionality. We assessed ecosystem functioning at each site using 11 variables that provide a comprehensive and balanced design of C (organic C, pentose, plant productivity), N (nitrate, dissolved organic N, proteins, potential N transformation rate) and P (total and available P, activity of phosphatase and inorganic P) cycling and storage. These variables (hereafter functions) are uncorrelated with each other (see details in *SI Appendix*, Table S3), and together constitute a good proxy for nutrient cycling, biological productivity, and build-up of nutrient pools (3, 39–41).

We calculated four indices based either on all measured functions (multifunctionality) or on different set of functions representing C (three functions), N (four functions) and P (four functions) cycling (*SI Appendix*, Table S3). We standardized separately the 11 functions measured (*F*) using the Z-score transformation:

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$$Z - score_{ij} = \frac{F_{ij} - Mean F_i}{SD F_i}$$
 Equation (2);

where  $F_{ij}$  is the value of a function *i* in the community *j*, Mean  $F_i$  and SD  $F_i$  are the mean and 279 the standard deviation of the function  $F_i$  calculated for the 123 studied communities, 280 281 respectively. We used a multiple threshold approach to evaluate whether multiple functions are simultaneously performing at high levels (30). In short, this approach counts the number of 282 functions that reach a given threshold (as the % of the maximum value of each of the functions 283 observed in the dataset). This maximum is taken as the top 5% values for each function 284 observed across all study sites (42). Considering multiple thresholds allows a better 285 understanding of how biodiversity affects ecosystem functioning, and to account for potential 286 trade-offs between the functions evaluated (30). We considered thresholds between 20% and 287

80% (every 5%), since care should be taken to avoid over-interpreting results at very high or low thresholds (43). Each calculated threshold (T) was smoothed by using a moving average with intervals [T-10%, T+10%]. We used this approach for all functions together, and also for those that only relate to the C, N and P cycling. We also calculated multifunctionality as the average of the standardized values across all functions (3, 15), obtaining results similar to those presented in the main text (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S3).

Plant diversity attributes and biodiversity metrics. Biodiversity effects on ecosystem 294 functioning can arise from 1) dominant plant species through mass-ratio effects (25), and 2) 295 subordinate species through richness effects (19). Both mass-ratio and richness effects can 296 encompass taxonomic, phylogenetic and functional attributes (SI Appendix, Fig. S2). To 297 298 account for all these possible biodiversity effects, we included eight metrics that reflect the full spectrum of the attributes considered in our framework (SI Appendix, Figs. S2 and S4, and 299 Table S1). These metrics were weakly correlated among themselves (Spearman's correlation 300 301 coefficient < 0.6) and did not induce multicollinearity issues in our analyses (SI Appendix, Table S2). Studied metrics included taxonomic (species richness), functional [community-weighted 302 mean for height and SLA (CWM.H and CWM.SLA), weighted and non-weighted functional 303 dispersion (w.FDIS and FDIS)] and phylogenetic [phylogenetic species variability (PSV), 304 weighted and non-weighted Mean Nearest Taxon Distance (w.MNTD and MNTD)] diversity 305 (full methodological details in SI Appendix, Figs. S2 and S4). 306

The use of these metrics also allowed us to assess mass-ratio (i.e. the functional identity and diversity of dominant species; *sensu* ref. (25)) vs. richness effects by comparing abundanceweighted vs. non-weighted metrics. Considering MNTD and PSV allowed us to investigate whether ecosystem functioning relates to recent *vs.* early diverging evolutionary events, respectively (44). Finally, we must note that species evenness was not included in the present study due to its strong correlation with w.FDIS (r > 0.8, *SI Appendix*, Table S1).

Environmental and spatial variables considered. Mean annual temperature (MAT), mean annual precipitation (MAP) and precipitation seasonality (PS: coefficient of variation of 12 monthly rainfall totals) were obtained from Worldclim (www.worldclim.org), a high resolution (30 arc seconds or ~ 1km at equator) global database (45). These variables are major determinants of ecosystem structure and functioning in drylands worldwide (see (46) for a review), were not highly correlated between them in our sites and provide a comprehensive representation of climatic conditions.

We summarized local edaphic parameters at each site using soil sand content and pH. 320 These variables, measured as described in Maestre et al. (3), play key roles in the availability 321 322 of water and nutrients in drylands (47), and are major drivers of the composition and diversity of plant and microbial communities (41, 48). Clay and silt contents were not used in our 323 analyses due to their correlation with sand content (r = -0.52 and -0.55, respectively). By doing 324 325 so we avoided over-parameterizing our models and kept the number of environmental and biotic predictors of multifunctionality balanced in our analyses. We also considered the latitude and 326 327 longitude of the study sites in our analyses to account for spatial autocorrelation in our data (3, 17, 31, 48) (see also SI Appendix, Fig. S5). 328

Statistical analyses. Relationships between biodiversity attributes and the four indices of 329 ecosystem functioning used were assessed using multiple linear regression models and 330 sequentially repeated across multifunctionality thresholds ranging from 20% to 80%. The 331 models included the following predictors: (i) geographic variables [Latitude, Longitude (sin) 332 and Longitude (cos)], abiotic variables (MAT, MAP, PS, soil sand content and pH) and 333 biodiversity metrics (species richness, CWM-SLA, CWM-H, FDIS, w.FDIS, PSV, MNTD, 334 w.MNTD). After inspecting the data, a quadratic term was allocated to soil pH to properly 335 model non-linear responses. 336

We used a model selection procedure for each threshold separately, based on minimizing 337 338 the corrected Akaike information criterion (AICc), to select the best predictors of the four indices of ecosystem functioning. In a first step, we performed a model simplification using a 339 340 backward regression procedure with the *stepAICc* function in *R*. We subsequently removed non-significant quadratic and interaction terms that did not impact the predictive ability of the 341 model. Then, a model selection procedure based on AICc selection ( $\Delta AICc < 2$ ) was applied 342 343 on the resulting models to select the best predictors supported by the data. This procedure was performed using the *dredge* function in the R package MuMIn (49). Model residuals were 344 inspected to ensure homoscedasticity and normality. All predictors and response variables were 345 346 standardized before analyses using the Z-score to interpret parameter estimates on a comparable scale. 347

We evaluated the importance of the predictors under consideration as drivers of 348 349 multifunctionality and sets of functions related to C, N and P cycling. For doing so, we expressed the importance of predictors as the percentage of variance they explain, based on the 350 351 comparison between the absolute values of their standardized regression coefficients and the sum of all standardized regression coefficients from all predictors in the models. This method 352 is similar to a variance partition analysis because we previously transformed all predictors to 353 Z-scores. The following identifiable variance fractions were then examined: i) geography, ii) 354 climate, iii) soil, and iv) each of the different biodiversity metrics considered. We repeated this 355 analysis to identify three variance fractions: the mass-ratio effects through i) the identity 356 (CWM-H and CWM-SLA) and ii) diversity of dominant species (w.FDIS and w.MNTD); and 357 iii) richness effects (all non-weighted metrics). 358

359 Net biodiversity effects were calculated as the sum of the standardized regression 360 coefficients of all metrics of biodiversity selected during the model selection procedures.

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#### 489 **Figure legends**

Figure 1. Relative importance of eight uncorrelated biodiversity metrics, geographical, climatic 490 and soil predictors across multiple thresholds of multifunctionality (a) and sets of functions 491 related to C, N and P cycling (b, c, d). The relative importance of predictors is expressed as the 492 493 percentage of variance they explain, and is based on the absolute value of their standardized regression coefficients. CWM.H and CWM.SLA: community-weighted mean for height and 494 SLA; PSV: phylogenetic species variability; w.FDIS and FDIS: abundance-weighted and non-495 496 weighted functional dispersion; w.MNTD and MNTD: weighted and non-weighted Mean Nearest Taxon Distance. 497

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499 Figure 2. Relative importance of mass-ratio vs. richness effects across multiple multifunctionality (a) and sets of functions related to C, N and P cycles (b, c, d) thresholds. The 500 501 importance of predictors is expressed as the percentage of variance they explain, and is based on the absolute value of their standardized regression coefficients. Mass-ratio effects were 502 calculated as the sum of the variances explained by the abundance-weighted metrics [CWM.H, 503 504 CWM.SLA, w.FDIS, w.MNTD)]. Richness effects were calculated as the explained variances of non-weighted metrics (Species richness, FDIS, PSV and MNTD). Abbreviations as in Fig. 505 1. 506

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**Figure 3.** Net effects of biodiversity attributes on multifunctionality (a), and on carbon (b), nitrogen (c) and phosphorus (d) cycling indices. The net effect was calculated as the sum of the standardized regression coefficients of all biodiversity metrics selected during the model selection procedures. 512

biodiversity attributes and multifunctionality thresholds considered. These effects are presented 514 515 at 30%, 50% and 70% thresholds, and are based on the number of plant diversity attributes retained in all models after the backward model selection procedure. The net effect was 516 517 calculated as the sum of the standardized regression coefficients of all biodiversity attributes 518 selected during the model selection procedures. Note that we used a violin function to highlight 519 the density of points and a jitter function to visualize the data distribution.

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Figure 5. Standardized regression coefficients of model predictors and associated 95% 521 confidence intervals for a) multifunctionality and C, N and P cycling (b, c, d) indices. 522 Standardized regression coefficients result from model averaging procedures and are averaged 523 across the entire spectrum of thresholds (20-80%) evaluated. Confidence intervals that do not 524 525 cross the zero line indicate that the predictors under consideration are associated with a statistically significant (P < 0.05) change in multifunctionality. See *SI Appendix*, Table S4 for 526 the variation of standardized regression coefficients of each predictor along the threshold 527 528 gradient evaluated.