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From genes to ecosystems: a synthesis of the effects of plant genetic factors across levels of organization

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Using two genetic approaches and seven different plant systems, we present findings from a metaanalysis examining the strength of the effects of plant genetic introgression and genotypic diversity across individual, community and ecosystem levels with the goal of synthesizing the patterns to date. We found that (i) the strength of plant genetic effects can be quite high; however, the overall strength of genetic effects on most response variables declined as the levels of organization increased. (ii) Plant genetic effects varied such that introgression had a greater impact on individual phenotypes than extended effects on arthropods or microbes/fungi. By contrast, the greatest effects of genotypic diversity were on arthropods. (iii) Plant genetic effects were greater on above-ground versus below-ground processes, but there was no difference between terrestrial and aquatic environments. (iv) The strength of the effects of intraspecific genotypic diversity tended to be weaker than interspecific genetic introgression. (v) Although genetic effects generally decline across levels of organization, in some cases they do not, suggesting that specific organisms and/or processes may respond more than others to underlying genetic variation. Because patterns in the overall impacts of introgression and genotypic diversity were generally consistent across diverse study systems and consistent with theoretical expectations, these results provide generality for understanding the extended consequences of plant genetic variation across levels of organization, with evolutionary implications.

Keywords: community and ecosystem genetics; meta-analysis; intraspecific variation; introgression; genotypic diversity; genes to ecosystems

1. INTRODUCTION

Recent reviews in the field of community and ecosystem genetics have provided strong evidence and ecosystem phenotypes, that these phenotypes can be heritable and that the community phenotype can feed back to affect the fitness of the individual plant genotypes (Fritz 1999; Whitham et al. 1999, 2003, 2006, 2008; Bradley & Pregitzer 2007; Johnson & Stinchcombe 2007; Hughes et al. 2008). Reviews to

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date have covered a range of conceptual topics including (i) the role of plant hybridization in main-taining associated biodiversity (Fritz 1999; Whitham that plant genetic factors can have distinct community Q4 1999), (ii) genes to ecosystems links (Whitham et al. 2003, 2006), (iii) the importance of functional genomics to community genetics (Whitham et al. 2008), (iv) the role of genetically based feedbacks in community genetics (Whitham et al. 2003, 2006; Schweitzer et al. 2008b), and (v) the effects of genotypic diversity on community- and ecosystem-level proper-ties (Whitham et al. 2006; Bradley & Pregitzer 2007; Johnson & Stinchcombe 2007; Hughes et al. 2008). Such a diverse array of topics clearly link genetic variation in plants to community and ecosystem processes, and provide compelling evidence for the importance of bridging community and ecosystem

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129 ecology with evolutionary biology. However, these 130 reviews are largely qualitative, providing conceptual 131 frameworks for understanding how genetic variation in 132 one species may affect community traits and ecosystem 133 services with little comparative synthesis of the broader 134 patterns in the strength of plant genetic effects within or 135 across systems.

136 Owing to the qualitative nature of the recent reviews 137 described above, it remains unclear whether plant genetic variation affects all individual-, community-138 139 and ecosystem-level phenotypes equally or whether 140 particular traits, community dynamics or ecosystem 141 processes, are more likely to be under genetic control. If there is significant variation in the effects of plant 142 143 genetic variation across levels of organization, as we 144 expect, then a finding of significant effects of plant 145 genetic variation on community- and ecosystem-level 146 phenotypes reveals the specific traits and processes 147 upon which genetic variation may act most strongly 148 relative to the background average effect size. 149 Moreover, understanding the average effect size of 150 plant genetic variation across levels of organization 151 (i.e. individual-, community- and ecosystem-level 152 phenotypes; sensu Whitham et al. 2006) provides a 153 framework of comparison for future genes-to-ecosystems 154 research. These results may provide novel insights into 155 when and where we should expect genetic variation to 156 have its strongest effects, potentially reveal new 157 research questions and testable hypotheses that are 158 relevant to investigate and advance the broad field of 159 ecological genetics, and provide a comparison for other 160 ecological effect sizes.

Here, we apply meta-analysis to evaluate the 161 162 strength of plant genetic effects on individuals, 163 populations, communities and ecosystems across 164 multiple environmental gradients. Specifically, we 165 focus on the role of (i) introgression in a Populus 166 hybridizing system and (ii) genotypic diversity across 167 multiple plant systems. While these same relationships 168 are beginning to be examined in animal systems (Post 169 et al. 2008; Palkovacs & Post in press; Palkovacs et al. 170 in press), we focus on the effects of plant systems and 171 the linkage between plant genetics and community and 172 ecosystem phenotypes. In terms of introgression, 173 *Populus* represents a model system to examine how 174 hybridization affects community dynamics and ecosys-175 tem processes across diverse environments. *Populus* spp. 176 are recognized as a 'foundation' riparian forest tree 177 (Ellison et al. 2005) that can have significant impacts on 178 biodiversity and ecosystem functions, and it commonly 179 hybridizes wherever two or more species co-occur 180 (Eckenwalder 1984). Along the Weber River, Utah, 181 the ranges of Populus fremontii S. Wats and Populus 182 angustifolia James overlap in a 13 km zone, where the two 183 species naturally hybridize with introgression occurring 184 unidirectionally towards P. angustifolia (Keim et al. 1989; 185 Martinsen et al. 2001). Owing to unidirectional 186 introgression, hybridization represents a partial genetic 187 continuum between P. fremontii and P. angustifolia, 188 which results in a large amount of genetic variation 189 (Keim et al. 1989; Martinsen et al. 2001) with associated 190 variation in community and ecosystem phenotypes that 191 affect individuals, community structure, biodiversity 192 and ecosystem processes (Whitham et al. 2006).

The abundance of ecological data on *Populus* has great potential for synthesizing the effects of introgression across levels of organization and environments (Bangert et al. 2008).

The second common approach for examining the 197 strength of plant genetic effects on their associated 198 communities and ecosystems in diverse systems is to 199 examine the role of genotypic variation. Recent 200 studies have focused on the effects of plant genotypic 201 diversity on associated communities and ecosystem 202 processes (described in §§2 and 3). By manipulating 203 single and multiple genotype plots, studies of the 204 effects of genotypic diversity provide insights into how 205 increasing plant genetic variation and their associated 206 phenotypes may influence species interactions and 207 ecosystem processes. 208

Using these two approaches, we conducted a meta-209 analysis to examine the role of plant genetic factors on 210 communities and ecosystems across environments to 211 examine two specific questions. First, does the effect of 212 genetic introgression vary across levels of organization? 213 Community and ecosystem phenotypes clearly rep-214 resent complex traits where the genes of one species are 215 the environment of another species (i.e. interspecific 216 indirect genetic effects; Thompson 2005; Shuster et al. 217 2006; Whitham et al. 2006; Wade 2007). Because 218 the biotic environmental variation associated with 219 community and ecosystem phenotypes increases, 220 221 one would predict that the strength of the effects of introgression on community and ecosystem pheno-222 types is likely to decline across levels of organization, 223 with the greatest effects occurring at the individual level 224 and the weakest effects occurring at the ecosystem 225 level (box 1). Second, focusing on genotypic diversity, 226 we hypothesize that similar effects will be found, 227 although with different genetic mechanisms. Speci-228 fically, we predict that the individual, community and 229 ecosystem consequences of genotypic diversity may be 230 weaker than those of introgression, as they result from 231 the combined interactions of individuals within a 232 population rather than the individual effects of 233 introgression. Taking this two-tiered approach allows 234 us to empirically examine the strength of genetic effects 235 and understand the broad consequences of plant 236 genetic factors across species and environmental 237 gradients. Relative to the background average effect size in ecology of r=0.18-0.19 established in a metaanalysis of 42 meta-analyses based upon positive and negative statistical results (Møller & Jennions 2002), our results suggest that plant genetic factors may explain up to twice as much variation in effect size regardless of the level of organization.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

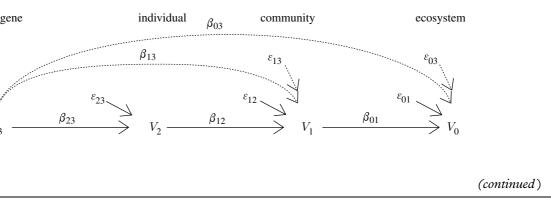
Meta-analysis is a statistical method that allows for the 248 combined analysis of independent studies that address a 249 similar scientific question. This combined analysis is done by 250 estimating a mean effect size for all tests (i.e. significant and 251 non-significant) used in the meta-analysis and then identify-252 ing the factors that may influence the magnitude of the effect 253 (Gurevitch & Hedges 2001). We conducted two independent 254 meta-analyses to examine the strength of genetic effects on 255 community and ecosystem processes across environments, 256 one examining introgression and the other examining

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Box 1 One would expect the effect size of genetic variation in one individual to decline across levels of organization. For example, consider a single gene V_3 that determines the phenotype V_2 of an individual. The phenotype of this individual affects the phenotype of its community V_1 , which in turn affects the phenotype of the ecosystem V_0 to which this community belongs (figure A). For example, a single gene V_3 determines foliar condensed tannin concentration V_2 of an individual. Foliar condensed tannin concentration affects soil microbial community composition and activity V_1 , which in turn affects soil nutrient cycling V_0 . In this simple model, the gene is the independent variable and the ecosystem is the dependent variable. The phenotype and the community are intermediate variables. Assume that the relationship between any two variables is linear (if this were not true, consider small deviations from the mean, which makes a first-order approximation good enough). Let $X_i = (V_i - \bar{V}_i)/\sigma_i$ be the standardized variable V_i (where \bar{V}_i is the mean value of variable *i* and σ_i is its standard deviation). The coefficient in each path joining variables V_i and V_j , β_{ji} , is the regression coefficient of variable X_i on X_i , i.e. $X_i = \beta_{ii}X_i + \varepsilon_{ij}$, where ε_{ij} is the error term. Coefficient β_{ij} measures the effect of a change in variable V_i on variable V_j , if all other variables remain constant. From path analysis (Wright 1934), the effect of a variable on another variable separated by n paths is the product of the coefficients corresponding to those paths, e.g. the effect of gene V_3 on the ecosystem is $X_0 = \beta_{01}\beta_{12}\beta_{23}X_3 + \delta_{03}$, where $\delta_{03} = \beta_{01}\beta_{12}\varepsilon_{23} + \beta_{01}\varepsilon_{12} + \varepsilon_{01}$ is the error term (note how the error term grows as we add paths). We are interested in determining under which conditions the effect of a variable V_i on the variables in its immediate superior level of organization V_i (where j > i) is greater than the effect of the same variable on variables in levels of organization above the immediate one V_k (where k > j), i.e. $|\beta_{ij}| > |\beta_{ki}|$ for all k > j. Such condition implies that the effect of a particular variable decreases as we consider higher levels of organization. In the model presented, condition $|\beta_{ii}| > |\beta_{ki}|$ translates into three inequalities: $|\beta_{23}| > |\beta_{13}|$; $|\beta_{23}| > |\beta_{03}|$; and $|\beta_{13}| > |\beta_{03}|$. That is, the effect of a gene on a plant phenotype must be greater than the effect of that gene on an community phenotype (as acting through that trait), the effects of a gene on a plant phenotype must be greater than the effect of that gene on an ecosystem phenotype (as acting through that plant trait in its community) and the effect of a gene on its community phenotype must be greater than the effect of that gene on its ecosystem phenotype. Using path analysis, we can replace coefficients β_{03} and β_{13} for the product of the coefficients joining variables $V_0 - V_3$ and $V_1 - V_3$, respectively, obtaining $|\beta_{23}| > |\beta_{23}\beta_{12}|$, $|\beta_{23}| > |\beta_{23}\beta_{12}\beta_{01}|$ and $|\beta_{23}\beta_{12}| > |\beta_{23}\beta_{12}\beta_{01}|$. These inequalities yield two simple conditions, namely the effect of the phenotype on the community and of the community on the environment have to be less than 1, i.e. $|\beta_{12}|$, $|\beta_{01}| < 1$. In general, if the effects of one variable on another variable are small, these conditions will be satisfied. If these effects are big, however, or the interaction between variables is not linear, the above conditions will not be satisfied. In a genes-to-ecosystems context, such nonlinear effects may be a consequence of (i) indirect genetic effects among interacting species and (ii) feedback loops among levels of organization. Indirect genetic effects occur when the genes of one individual influence the fitness and phenotype of an associated individual of the same species (intraspecific indirect genetic effects) or different species (interspecific indirect genetic effects; see Shuster et al. 2006), and are fundamental to the coevolutionary process. A gene individual community β_{03} β_{13} E13

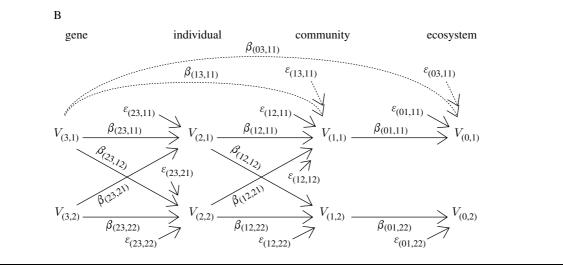


genotypic diversity. For both approaches, we compared genetic effect size across three sources of variation: (i) level of organization (i.e. individual, community or ecosystem), (ii) taxa (i.e. plants, arthropods and microbes/fungi), and (iii) environment (i.e. above- or below-ground, terrestrial or aquatic; see Whitham et al. (2006) for definitions). Although there are much data on the effects of hybridization on associated biodiversity (reviews by Strauss 1994; Fritz 1999; Whitham et al. 1999), these systems have generally not been characterized by molecular genetic techniques. We restricted ourselves to introgression datasets from the Populus system because it has been characterized with a range of molecular techniques to identify plant genotype and address the genetic basis of many community- and ecosystem-level phenotypes (Whitham et al. 1999, 2003, 2006). By restricting our dataset, we eliminate bias that can arise in estimates of genetic correlations due to variation in breeding design across studies (e.g. clones, full-sib and half-sib families). The final dataset consisted of 16 studies published since 2002 (i.e. when the molecular data became widely available), 6 unpublished datasets and 107 separate tests, examining the relationship between the proportion of introgressed

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Box 1. (Continued)

In figure B, we present a more complex interaction in which a gene in individual 1, $V_{(3,1)}$, affects two traits in different individuals, $V_{(2,1)}$ and $V_{(2,2)}$, which in turn affects the phenotype of the community the first individual belongs to, $V_{(1,1)}$. Let $X_{(i,m)}$ be the standardized variable $V_{(i,m)}$. The coefficient in each path joining variables V_i and V_j , β_{ji} , is the regression coefficient of variable $X_{(j,n)}$ on $X_{(i,m)}$, i.e. $X_{(j,n)} = \beta_{(ji,nm)} X_{(i,m)} + \varepsilon_{(ji,nm)}$, where $\varepsilon_{(ji,nm)}$ is the error term. From path analysis, the effect of gene $V_{(3,1)}$ on its ecosystem is $X_{(0,1)} = \beta_{(01,11)}(\beta_{(12,11)}\beta_{(23,11)} + \beta_{(12,12)}\beta_{(23,21)})X_{(3,1)} + \delta_{(03,11)}$, where $\delta_{(03,11)} = \beta_{(01,11)}(\beta_{(12,11)}\varepsilon_{(23,11)} + \beta_{(12,12)}\varepsilon_{(23,22)} + \varepsilon_{(12,11)}\varepsilon_{(12,12)}) + \varepsilon_{(01,11)}$ is the error term. If we carry out a similar analysis, we can conclude that the effect size will decline across levels of organization only under more restrictive conditions. Hence, as we add indirect genetic effects and interactions among levels of organization there is a greater chance that genetic effect size will not decline across levels of organization.



P. fremontii molecular markers and associated phenotypes in a common garden experimental setting (see the electronic supplementary material for a complete list of studies and tests).

The second meta-analysis was focused on the strength of the effects of plant genotypic diversity in natural systems. In contrast to genetic introgression that focuses on the interspecific flow of genes between species, genotypic diversity is characterized as the intraspecific diversity of plant genotypes within a given location or population of a single species. We were specifically interested in those studies that experimentally manipulated the diversity of plant genotypes (e.g. 1, 2, 4, 8 and 16 genotype experimental units). Our search was conducted using the Web of Science search engine. We used the combination of the keywords, 'plant genotypic diversity', 'biodiversity' (for community phenotypes) and 'ecosystem'. The search engine returned with 17 results (and several other studies were found within the literature cited of these papers). These were reduced to those studies conducted in natural systems and which experimentally manipulated the number of genotypes and focused on a range of community- and ecosystem-level phenotypes. When these studies included Q5 individual-level phenotypes, those were included as well, although studies focused solely on individual-level phenotypes were excluded from the analysis. For the second metaanalysis, we used 11 studies published since 2002, 1 unpublished dataset and 90 individual tests (see the electronic supplementary material). These studies covered seven different ecosystem types from aquatic seagrass (Zostera marina), herbaceous systems such as Oenothera biennis and Solidago altissima, to woody plants such as Quercus laevis and Populus spp. These plant systems are distributed broadly, primarily across North America. Data from these studies were characterized

identically to the previous meta-analysis and the same methods of analysis were used (see the electronic supplementary material for a complete list of studies and tests). Because introgression and genotypic diversity are very different experimental approaches to the same types of questions, we believe that this is a robust approach to understanding the general consequences of plant genetic factors.

Meta-analysis was conducted using METAWIN v. 2.1 (Rosenberg et al. 2000). All studies used in these analyses examined the correlation between genetic introgression or genotypic diversity and individual-, community- and ecosystem-level phenotypes. Individual-level phenotypes that were surveyed included phytochemistry, architectural and physiological traits. Community-level phenotypes were characterized by species richness, total abundance and community composition. Ecosystem-level phenotypes were characterized by energy flow or energy transformation and included leaf litter decomposition studies, which are focused on productivity and carbon accumulation, as well as on soil nutrient dynamics. We used the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient r to measure effect size. When correlation coefficients were not reported in a study, we calculated them from the F or X^2 values presented in figures and tables or calculated the square root of the coefficient of determination (r^2 ; see Rosenberg *et al.* 2000 for formulae). When these statistics could not be obtained, the study was excluded from the meta-analysis. Because we were interested in the percentage of variation explained by plant genetic factors, we disregarded the sign of the relationship between genetic introgression and genotypic diversity and the response variables and focused on the absolute value of the correlation coefficient. The correlation coefficient from each individual test was Z-transformed and weighted by their sample size. We used a mixed-effects model to combine the



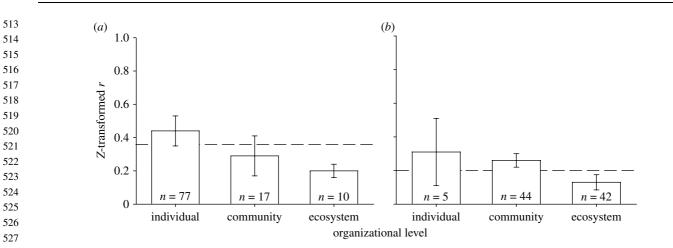


Figure 1. Comparison of the effect size of (a) introgression and (b) genotypic diversity across levels of organization (i.e. on individual-, community- and ecosystem-level phenotypes). (a, b) When tests are characterized as individual-, communityor ecosystem-level phenotypes, there is a significant difference in the effect size of introgression. Bars represent mean effect size $\pm 95\%$ CI. Dashed line represents average effect size across all levels of organization.

transformed coefficients. Mixed-effects models assume that
differences among studies are due to sampling error and
random variation (Gurevitch & Hedges 2001). We used biascorrected 95% bootstrap confidence intervals (CIs) that were
generated from 4999 iterations (Adams *et al.* 1997) to define
the significance of the relationship between genetic introgression and the response variables.

539 To understand the factors that affect the magnitude of the 540 correlation between introgression and the response variables 541 that were measured, we subdivided studies on the basis of 542 several potential explanatory variables/source of variation and 543 examined among group heterogeneities, using a χ^2 -test statistic Q_{b} . To examine the range and distribution of the correlations 544 used in these analyses, and to test for publication bias, we used 545 a funnel plot approach (Light & Pillemer 1984; Palmer 1999). 546 We found no evidence of publication bias, indicating that both 547 positive and negative data were being reported. 548

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551 3. RESULTS

552 (a) Introgression

553 (i) Levels of organization and organism type

554 Consistent with our prediction, we found a significant 555 decline in the strength of the effects of genetic 556 introgression across individual- (e.g. chemical, morphological or resistance traits), community-557 558 (species richness, total abundance, composition 559 or diversity) or ecosystem- (energy transformations or 560 nutrient cycling) level phenotypes ($Q_2 = 6.47, p = 0.042;$ figure 1a). The mean effect sizes of genetic introgression 561 562 across levels of organization were moderate ranging from 563 Z(r) = 0.45 for individual-, Z(r) = 0.29 for community-564 and Z(r) = 0.20 for ecosystem-level phenotypes (back-565 calculated r=0.42, 0.28 and 0.20, respectively). These 566 results are consistent with the hypothesis that when 567 environmental variation increases, the role of plant 568 genetic factors declines.

569 Importantly, while the overall strength of the effects of 570 introgression was moderate across levels of organization, 571 there were still some relatively strong interactions at the 572 community and ecosystem levels. For example, effect 573 sizes ranged from Z(r) = 0 to 1.47 among individual 574 phenotypes, 0.05 to 1.22 among community phenotypes 575 and 0 to 0.77 among ecosystem phenotypes. Such strong 576 effects on particular groups suggest that specific organisms or processes may be more responsive than others to the effects of introgression.

Consistent with the prediction that there is variation in the effects of introgression among organism types, we found that the mean effects of introgression were larger on individual phenotypes of the plants, relative to the extended phenotypic effects on associated arthropods, microbes and fungi ($Q_2 = 54.39$, p = 0.001; figure 2a). The effect size was moderate overall and varied from Z(r) = 0.1 for microbes and fungi to 0.62 for plant traits, with arthropods being intermediate (back-calculated r=0.1 for microbes and fungi, 0.55 for plants and 0.36 for arthropods). Effect sizes ranged from Z(r) = 0.02 to 1.47 for plants, 0 to 1.22 for arthropods and 0 to 0.92 for microbes and fungi. These results indicate that there are broad effects of introgression across many types of organisms, but the effects tend to decline when the organisms are external to the plant itself.

(ii) Environment type

Consistent with our data and expectations, we found that the effects of introgression were greater in aboveground than below-ground environments ($Q_1 = 35.54$, p=0.001; figure 3a). The mean effect size was moderate for above-ground environments Z(r) = 0.53 and weak for below-ground Z(r) = 0.15 (back-calculated r = 0.5 and 0.14, respectively), roughly a threefold difference. The effect sizes ranged from 0 to 1.37 for both above- and below-ground environments. However, as our sample sizes are skewed, where the measured microbes and fungi were associated with below-ground environments and canopy arthropods were associated with aboveground environments, it is difficult to accurately determine whether the effect sizes of introgression can be attributed to the specific organism upon which they are acting or to the environmental condition, but is likely some combination of the two. Because soil microbes generally mediate below-ground soil processes, it seems reasonable that the effects of introgression on belowground environments are indirect.

In contrast to our prediction, the effects of introgression were not significantly different in aquatic versus terrestrial environments ($Q_1=0.92$, p=0.93; figure 3b).

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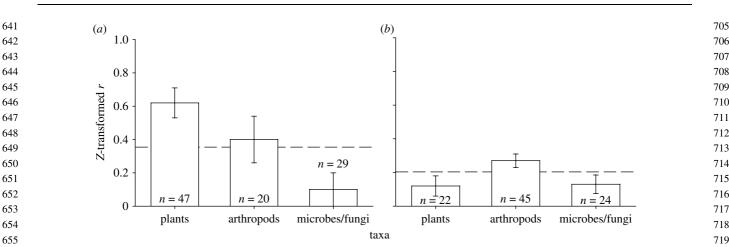


Figure 2. Comparison of the effect size of (*a*) introgression and (*b*) genotypic diversity across taxa. (*a*) When tests are characterized as effects on plants, arthropods or soil and litter microbes and fungi, there are significant differences among groups in the effect size of introgression. Genetic introgression acts more strongly on the phenotypes of the plants themselves than on associated arthropods or microbes; however, the effect size is large regardless. (*b*) A similar pattern, but stronger effects on arthropods than either individual phenotypes or microbes. Bars represent mean effect size $\pm 95\%$ CI. Dashed line represents average effect size across all levels of organization.

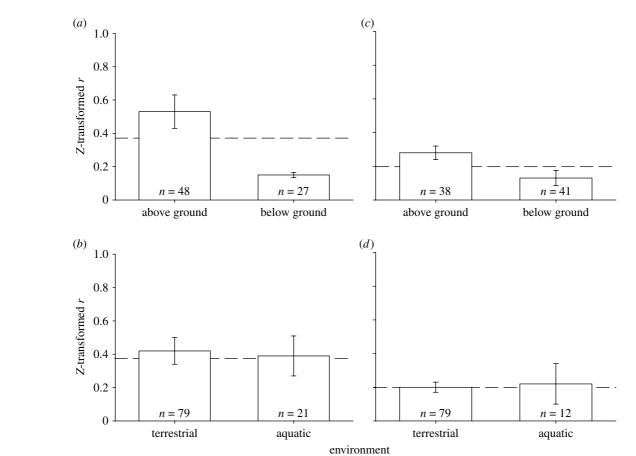


Figure 3. Comparison of the effect size of (a, b) introgression and (b, d) genotypic diversity across diverse environments. (a) When tests are characterized as above or below-ground, the effects of introgression are stronger on above-ground traits and processes than below-ground. (b) When tests are characterized as terrestrial or aquatic, there is no difference in the effects of introgression in aquatic versus terrestrial environments. (c) Patterns are similar for genotypic diversity, where a significant difference is found in the effects of genotypic diversity on above- and below-ground traits and processes. (d) The effects of genotypic diversity are not different in terrestrial and aquatic systems. Bars represent mean effect size $\pm 95\%$ CI. Dashed line represents average effect size across all levels of organization.

Estimates of mean effect size were moderate for both environments. Effect sizes ranged from Z(r) = 0.39 in aquatic environments to 0.40 in terrestrial systems. The effect sizes ranged from 0 to 1.37 for terrestrial environments and 0 to 1.47 for aquatic environments.

(b) Genotypic diversity

(i) Levels of organization and organism type

Consistent with the results from the introgression meta-analysis, we found a significant difference in the effects of genotypic diversity when the data were 769 characterized as individual-, community- or ecosystem-770 level phenotypes ($Q_2 = 14.4$, p = 0.003; figure 1b). In general, the strongest effects of genotypic diversity were 771 observed at the individual (Z(r) = 0.29) and community 772 773 (0.23) levels. These effects declined at the ecosystem 774 level (0.13), where the strength of the effects of 775 genotypic diversity was roughly half that at the 776 individual or community level (back-calculated r=0.3, 777 0.25 and 0.13, respectively). We emphasize that while the overall mean strength of the effects of genotypic 778 diversity was moderate across levels of organization, 779 780 there were still some strong effects at the community and 781 ecosystem levels. For example, effect sizes ranged from Z(r) = 0 to 0.42 among individual phenotypes, 0 to 0.47 782 783 among community phenotypes and 0 to 0.49 among 784 ecosystem phenotypes. Such effects on particular groups suggest that specific organisms or processes may be more 785 responsive than others to genotypic diversity. 786

787 Results bearing on the strength of the effects of 788 genotypic diversity on particular organisms were 789 inconsistent with patterns that were found in the 790 genetic introgression meta-analysis. There were signi-791 ficant differences in the strength of the effect of 792 genotypic diversity on individual phenotypes of the 793 plants, relative to the extended phenotypic effects on arthropods or microbes ($Q_2 = 9.37$, p = 0.027; 794 795 figure 2b); however, the strongest mean effects of genotypic diversity were on the associated arthropods 796 (Z(r)=0.15, 0.23 and 0.14, respectively). In general, 797 the effects of genotypic diversity were twice as strong on 798 arthropods as they were on the plants themselves or soil 799 800 microbial communities (back-calculated r=0.27, 0.13801 and 0.14, respectively). This may be an artefact of a small sample size in the category of individual-level 802 803 plant phenotypes. Effect sizes ranged from Z(r) = 0.03804 to 0.42 for plants, 0 to 0.47 for arthropods and 0 to 805 0.49 for microbes and fungi. 806

807 (ii) Environment type

808 Consistent with the effects of introgression in *Populus* 809 spp., there was a significant difference in the effects of 810 genotypic diversity on above-ground versus below-811 ground traits ($Q_1 = 14.9$, p = 0.002; figure 3c). The 812 effects of genotypic diversity were two times stronger 813 above ground than below ground (Z(r) = 0.24 and 0.13, 814 respectively), which is consistent with the moderate 815 effects of genotypic diversity on soil microbes 816 (back-calculated r=0.27 and 0.13, respectively). 817 However, interpretation is still confounded because 818 the microbes and fungi quantified were associated with 819 below ground environments.

820 Consistent with the introgression patterns, there was 821 no difference in the mean effect sizes as they relate to 822 genotypic diversity in terrestrial or aquatic environ-823 ments ($Q_1 = 0.42$, p = 0.58; figure 3d). Overall, the 824 effects of genotypic diversity were equivalent (Z(r) = 0.18)825 and 0.22, respectively). These data indicate that 826 genetically based links between terrestrial and aquatic 827 systems may be important.

⁸²⁸ Consistent with the hypothesis that when environ-⁸²⁹ mental variation increases, the role of plant genetic ⁸³⁰ variation declines, and there were significant ⁸³¹ differences in the strength of the effects of both genetic ⁸³² introgression and genotypic diversity ($Q_1 = 24.5$,

p=0.001). The effect size of introgression was twice 833 that of genotypic diversity (Z(r)=0.39 and 0.20,834 respectively; back-calculated r=0.38 and 0.20). Effect 835 sizes ranged from Z(r) = 0 to 1.47 for the introgression 836 study and 0 to 0.49 for the genotypic diversity study. 837 This range of variation suggests that, irrespective of the 838 approach, there can be strong effects of plant genetic 839 factors on specific organisms or processes. As the study 840 of genetic introgression is concerned with the specific 841 genetic structure of individuals within populations and 842 genotypic diversity is concerned with the genetic 843 structure of populations, weaker genetic effects would 844 be expected using a genotypic diversity approach due to 845 increased environmental heterogeneity and subsequent 846 selection gradients altering the genetic structure of 847 the population. 848

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4. DISCUSSION

The results to date suggest broad generality for the 851 consequences of plant genetic variation on shaping the 852 phenotypes of individuals, their associated commu-853 nities and even ecosystem processes. Although plant 854 genetic variation does not always have strong effects on 855 all species in all environments, it can strongly affect 856 857 particular phenotypes and processes across all of the systems examined. That said, the overall mean effect 858 859 size of plant genetic factors based upon these meta-860 analyses can be considered moderate relative to 861 Cohen's benchmarks (Rosenberg et al. 2000; Møller & Jennions 2002). Because this meta-analysis was based 862 upon both positive and negative statistical tests, the 863 fact that the effects of plant genetic variation on 864 community- and ecosystem-level phenotypes can be 865 three times as high as the average ecological effect size 866 from Møller & Jennions (2002) justifies a community 867 genetics approach, and further analyses to determine 868 under what circumstances these large effects occur. 869 Our model (box 1) suggests that large effects at higher 870 levels of organization arise from non-additive, nonlinear 871 dynamics and interactions among levels of organiz-872 873 ation. While a few studies are emerging, demonstrating the importance of non-additivity and epistatic 874 interactions among individuals to biodiversity and 875 ecosystem function (Schweitzer et al. 2005; Crutsinger 876 Q6 et al. 2006; Johnson et al. 2006; Hughes et al. 2008), the 877 878 prevalence of and mechanisms for these effects are 879 not well understood. Moreover, the consideration of multilevel selection in genes-to-ecosystems research 880 881 (i.e. interaction among levels of organization) has not been well incorporated into the field and may 882 883 provide novel theoretical inroads into the mechanisms 884 of extended consequences of plant genetic factors (Shuster et al. 2006; Wade 2007). 885

(a) Declining effect size across individual, community and ecosystem levels

Although many aspects of communities and ecosystems 889 are inherently variable (Lawton 1999), our results 890 suggest that when plants provide the fundamental 891 resources to organisms, there appears to be broad 892 893 generality in the effects of plant genetic variation at the 894 community and ecosystem levels. While interest con-895 tinues to grow in the effects of genetic factors that extend 896 beyond the individual, it is generally assumed that the

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role of plant genetics declines at levels higher than the 897 898 population (Whitham et al. 2003, 2006). Consistent with this hypothesis, using two different approaches to 899 900 understanding the effects of plant genetic factors, we 901 found a significant difference in effect size across levels of organization. Although the effects of introgression and 902 903 genotypic diversity were strongest at the individual level 904 and declined at the community and ecosystem levels, in 905 some systems, plant genetics strongly affects trophic interactions, carbon accumulation and the nitrogen 906 cycle (Schweitzer et al. 2004; Whitham et al. 2008). 907

908 Two hypotheses that may be related to these patterns 909 are that the effects of plant genetic factors vary by the 910 type of organism they affect or depending upon 911 the environment in which they act. We predicted that 912 genetic effects would be expressed most strongly in the 913 individual possessing those genes and decline with 914 increasing species interactions. As ecosystem pro-915 cesses, by definition, are focused on energy and 916 nutrient dynamics in a specific environment that are 917 dependent upon species interactions, one might expect 918 that the effects of plant genetics would vary among 919 organism types. Consistent with this prediction, our 920 results indicate that the strength of plant genetic effects 921 is greatest on individual phenotypes and becomes 922 weaker on arthropods and still weaker on microbes 923 and fungi. However, specific examples indicate that the 924 effects of plant genetics on microbial communities can 925 be large. For example, Schweitzer et al. (2008a) found that plant genotype predictably structured soil micro-926 927 bial community composition in *P. angustifolia*, and 928 affected microbial biomass nitrogen pools. Such results 929 have important implications for our understanding of 930 feedbacks in natural systems (Palkovacs & Post 2008; 931 Palkovacs et al. in press). Genetic variation for the 932 process of nitrogen mineralization indicates that plants 933 effectively determine their nutrient environment and 934 affect their own fitness via interactions with soil microbes (Schweitzer et al. 2008a). 935

936 Our meta-analysis also indicated significantly 937 reduced effects of plant genetic factors in below-ground versus above-ground environments. Because we cannot 938 939 separate the effects of environment versus organism 940 type (i.e. all microbes except one were sampled in 941 below-ground environments and all arthropods were 942 sampled above ground), it is difficult to say whether 943 these reduced effects of plant genetic variation below ground are due to biotic or abiotic variation. 944

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(b) Consistency of patterns across individual, community and ecosystem levels

948 Q7 We found the patterns, in the effects of introgression 949 and genotypic diversity across seven different plant 950 systems, broadly distributed across biomes of North 951 America, across levels of organization to be consistent 952 across studies. Because these patterns were generally in 953 accord with theoretical models, our results suggest broad 954 generality for the consequences of plant genetic variation 955 across different levels of organization. Recent hypotheses 956 in genes-to-ecosystems research have suggested that as 957 environmental variability increases, the strength of plant 958 genetic effects declines (Johnson & Agrawal 2005; 959 Bangert et al. 2006a,b). In general, as more variation is 960 explained by environment, less will be explained by

genetics. While this hypothesis has largely been focused on the role of spatial or abiotic environmental parameters, at the community and ecosystem levels, the role of biotic environmental variation has a critical role in the coevolutionary process.

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Phenotypic traits can be characterized at a number 966 of levels that depend on traits at lower levels (Conner & 967 Hartl 2004). An organism's lifespan is influenced by 968 behavioural, morphological and physiological traits, all 969 governed by various gene loci. Typically, traits that are 970 higher in this hierarchy are more complex and affected 971 by more loci (Conner & Hartl 2004). Thus, the 972 expression of complex traits often varies depending 973 upon environmental factors (e.g. expression of pheno-974 typic plasticity). Recent theory in the fields of 975 community genetics (Shuster et al. 2006) and coevolu-976 tion (Yoshida et al. 2003; Fussmann et al. 2005; 977 Hairston et al. 2005; Thompson 2005; Jones et al. 978 in press) has provided independent but convergent 979 evidence that community and ecosystem phenotypes 980 represent complex traits related to the fitness con-981 sequences of interspecific indirect genetic interactions 982 among all interacting species (Thompson 2005; 983 Shuster et al. 2006; Whitham et al. 2006). Because 984 community and ecosystem phenotypes represent 985 complex traits, one would predict that they probably 986 vary phenotypically depending upon abiotic and biotic 987 environmental factors and may even show genetic 988 variance for phenotypic plasticity. Similarly, the effects 989 of genetics on community and ecosystem phenotypes 990 probably decline with increasing biotic and abiotic 991 environmental variations (Garant et al. 2008; Pelletier 992 et al. 2008; Ezard et al. in press; Porlier et al. in press). 993 The theoretical framework for quantifying the herit-994 ability of arthropod communities of individual tree 995 genotypes, mathematically defined in Shuster et al. 996 (2006), argues that when the environmental effects of 997 associated species are large the effects of plant genetic 998 variation in structuring communities will be small. 999 Because environmental variation can have a substantial 1000 role in the coevolutionary process and in feedbacks, it is 1001 critical that we understand the strength of the effects of 1002 plant genetic variation across environmental gradients. 1003

(c) Terrestrial and aquatic

Our results suggest that the effects of terrestrial plant genetic effects on both terrestrial and aquatic communities are similar. Given the recent genes-to-ecosystems research in aquatic systems that demonstrates remarkable effects of coevolution among fishes on associated communities and nutrient cycling (Palkovacs *et al.* in press), these results suggest that links between forest and aquatic habitats could be stronger than previously appreciated (LeRoy *et al.* 2006, 2007). This review highlights an important research area warranting more attention.

(d) Odds and ends

Specific to the meta-analysis, only a few studies examined the effects of introgression or genotypic diversity on vertebrates (but see Bailey *et al.* 2004; Hughes & Stachowicz 2004). Owing to this disparity, these data were left out of the analysis of 'organism type', but were used for all other tests. More work needs to be conducted on the effects of introgression and genotypic Q1

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1025 diversity on vertebrate foraging, as the evidence 1026 suggests that the foraging by vertebrates can affect fitness and survival of plants and change plant population 1027 1028 genetic structure (Bailey et al. 2004, 2007; Whitham 1029 et al. 2006). Determining how genotypic diversity may feed back to affect patterns of foraging may provide some 1030 1031 novel insights into the long-term temporal dynamics of 1032 plant tolerance and resistance to herbivory. While there 1033 is substantial work on leaf litter decomposition and carbon storage, there appears to be no research on the 1034 effects of plant genotypic diversity on soil processes 1035 1036 including the nitrogen or phosphorus cycle. 1037

103828 (e) Conclusions

1039 Our results indicate that the effects of plant genetic 1040 factors are moderate overall. Relative to the background 1041 average effect size in ecology of Pearson's r=0.191042 (Møller & Jennions 2002), our study suggests that 1043 plant genetic factors may explain up to two times as 1044 much variation across the individual, community and 1045 ecosystem levels (r=0.2-0.39). In addition, the effects of 1046 plant genetic factors can be strong, suggesting that 1047 specific organisms and processes respond more to plant 1048 genetic factors than others. Having shown that commu-1049 nity and ecosystem phenotypes can be broadly detected, 1050 and that they are often heritable (e.g. Bailey et al. 2006; 1051 Shuster et al. 2006; Schweitzer et al. 2008a; Whitham 1052 et al. 2008), it becomes important to determine under 1053 what conditions these phenotypes might feed back to 1054 affect the fitness of the individual plant genotype 1055 (Whitham et al. 2006; Schweitzer et al. 2008a). If they 1056 do feed back to affect the fitness of the individual plant, 1057 then it becomes especially important to (i) study ecology 1058 and evolution within a community and ecosystem 1059 context, (ii) understand the specific targets of selection 1060 (Johnson et al. in press), and (iii) quantify the 1061 geographical variation in the strength and direction of the feed back to determine whether such selection results 1062 1063 in a geographical mosaic of community structure and 1064 ecosystem processes. Our meta-analysis suggests that a 1065 community and ecosystem genetics approach is broadly applicable in diverse systems. We suspect that the 1066 1067 consistency of our findings is largely due to the fact 1068 that all species have evolved in a community context of 1069 many interacting species and their abiotic environments.

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