

1 **Running Head**

2 Flow intermittence alters carbon processing

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4 **Title**

5 Flow intermittence alters carbon processing in rivers through chemical diversification of leaf
6 litter

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 The dry phase of intermittent rivers promotes the emergence of diverse terrestrial and aquatic
21 habitats where large amounts of leaf litter can accumulate. This environmental heterogeneity can
22 cause diverse chemical alterations in leaf litter by the co-occurrence of multiple physical and
23 biological degradation processes across these different habitats. After flow resumption, these

24 chemically diversified leaves are mixed and continue decomposition downstream in fully aquatic
25 conditions. Here, we (i) test experimentally the hypothesis that environmental heterogeneity
26 during the dry phase can translate into a chemical diversification of leaf litter, and (ii) investigate
27 how chemical diversity may affect leaf litter decomposition in re-established lotic conditions. To
28 do so, we simulated with laboratory treatments the exposure of a single leaf litter species (*Alnus*
29 *glutinosa*) to various terrestrial and aquatic habitats typically found during the dry phase. Then,
30 we assembled leaves to create mixtures with increasing treatment richness and measured their
31 decomposition in a perennial river reach. Our laboratory treatments mimicking dry-phase
32 habitats caused a strong chemical diversification of leaf litter, which accelerated its
33 decomposition in the river. The mixing of chemically diversified leaves stimulated both
34 microbial decomposition and detritivore activity, likely by facilitating their acquisition of
35 essential nutritional components. These results suggest that intermittent river reaches may act as
36 hotspots of organic matter diversification with potential implications on C processing at river-
37 network scale.

38

39 **Keywords:**

40 Intermittent rivers, dry phase, chemical diversity, C cycling, river networks, ecosystem
41 functioning, biodiversity, organic matter

42

43 **Introduction**

44 The decomposition of riparian leaf litter is an essential ecosystem process in rivers, supporting
45 heterotrophic food webs and driving the cycling of carbon (C) and nutrients (Webster & Benfield
46 1986). At river-network scale, decomposition interacts with downstream transport (Battin et al.

47 2008). The relative importance of decomposition over transport depends on leaf litter retention
48 mechanisms, which are intimately related to river size and hydrological dynamics (Larrañaga et
49 al. 2003). An extreme example of this interplay is epitomized by intermittent rivers. From a
50 biogeochemical perspective, they act as pulsed bioreactors where the alternation of dry and wet
51 phases results in the processing of organic matter in repeated cycles of accumulation, transport,
52 and decomposition (Larned et al. 2010). This model considers the wet phase as the only period of
53 actual organic matter decomposition (Corti et al. 2011, Datry et al. 2018). In contrast, during the
54 dry phase, riparian leaf litter is accumulated on dry riverbeds, with little or no decomposition
55 (Sanpera-Calbet et al. 2016; Datry et al. 2018). Afterwards, when water flow resumes, leaf litter
56 is quickly and massively transported downstream (Corti & Datry 2012), where decomposition
57 continues. During the last years, this simple model has been challenged at reach and network
58 scales, mainly because the exposure of leaf litter to various environmental conditions during the
59 dry phase (in this context also referred to as “preconditioning”) can trigger chemical changes,
60 which ultimately affect leaf decomposition after flow resumption (Dieter et al. 2013; Mora-
61 Gómez et al. 2019).

62 Indeed, environmental conditions at reach scale affect leaf litter chemistry (del Campo et
63 al. 2019). The exposure to solar radiation on dry riverbeds can cause an increase in leaf litter
64 biodegradability due to the loss of lignin by photodegradation (Austin et al. 2016; del Campo &
65 Gómez 2016). In contrast, leaf litter accumulated in stagnant isolated pools can decrease in
66 biodegradability due to leaching of labile compounds and accumulation of phenols (Dieter et al.
67 2013; Abril et al. 2016). These are two examples from a great variety of terrestrial and aquatic
68 habitats that emerge during the fragmentation of water flow (e.g. wet and shaded remnant
69 sediments, pools connected to hyporheos, etc.) (Larned et al. 2010; Stanley et al. 1997). The

70 accumulation and preconditioning of leaf litter across this mosaic of aquatic-terrestrial habitats
71 might result in a chemical diversification of leaf litter. At network scale, the re-establishment of
72 water flow and the reconnection of dry tributaries trigger the mixing of the variously
73 preconditioned leaf litter during downstream transport (see [here](#) for an example during a
74 rewetting event in the Albarine river, France). Finally, upon retention, decomposition proceeds in
75 reassembled, chemically diversified litter packs in environmentally homogeneous, fully lotic
76 conditions (Corti & Datry 2012).

77 Under aquatic conditions, decomposition is mainly controlled by leaf litter traits (Zhang
78 et al. 2018). Leaf species rich in labile C compounds or nutrients decompose quickly, while high
79 concentrations of lignin or polyphenols curb decomposition (Talbot & Treseder 2012). The
80 mixing of various species can have non-additive effects on decomposition (Gessner et al. 2010),
81 meaning that the decomposition rate of mixtures is either below or above those expected from
82 individual species` rates (Gartner & Cardon 2004). Negative effects of litter diversity are
83 associated to inhibition of decomposer activity by secondary metabolites like polyphenols
84 (Chomel et al. 2016). Positive effects, in contrast, are often attributed to fungal-driven nutrient
85 transfer or nutritional complementarity among leaves with contrasting chemical qualities (Tonin
86 et al. 2017; López-Rojo et al. 2020). Owing to the increased chance of obtaining essential
87 nutrients and C compounds for decomposer metabolism, the chemical diversity (a form of
88 functional diversity) of leaf mixtures *per se* may accelerate decomposition (Lecerf et al. 2011;
89 Stoler et al. 2016).

90 Despite the abundance of studies showing the relevance of biodiversity for ecosystem
91 functioning (Hooper et al. 2005), our understanding of chemical (bio)diversity effects on
92 important ecological processes such as decomposition is still incomplete. In particular, little

93 evidence exists from natural mechanisms that could promote chemical diversity in particulate
94 organic matter beyond the diversity of leaf species (but see Wickings et al. 2012). The
95 hydrological dynamics of intermittent tributaries could create a powerful mechanism of chemical
96 diversification of leaf litter with unknown consequences for decomposition dynamics at river-
97 network scale. Indeed, accounting for dry-phase-associated diversity effects could be critical to
98 achieve mechanistic understanding and realistic modelling capacity for C fluxes in river
99 networks (Marcé et al. 2019). The latter is a pending challenge, especially considering that
100 intermittent rivers represent over half of the length of global river networks, and that this fraction
101 will likely increase due to climate and global change (IPCC 2013).

102 Here we test the hypothesis that environmental heterogeneity occurring during the dry
103 phase of intermittent rivers can promote the chemical diversification of accumulated leaf litter
104 and thus, affect its decomposition in downstream rivers, once lotic conditions are re-established.
105 To do so, we first simulated the preconditioning of a single leaf litter species (*Alnus glutinosa*)
106 under various environmental conditions typically found during the dry phase of intermittent
107 rivers. Then, we measured the decomposition of leaf litter mixtures assembled using an
108 increasing number of preconditioning situations. We predict that the increase of chemical
109 diversity in mixtures of preconditioned leaves will accelerate decomposition in aquatic
110 conditions.

111

112 **Materials and methods**

113 *Leaf litter preconditioning and preparation of mixtures*

114 We collected fresh leaves of *Alnus glutinosa* (alder) directly from several trees in the floodplain
115 of the Löcknitz river (Brandenburg, Germany) and let them air-dry for two weeks in a dark

116 room. Approximately one kg of air-dried leaves was distributed among the seven
117 preconditioning treatments (see Table 1). Following preconditioning, we prepared fine- and
118 coarse-mesh bags (0.5 and 8 mm, respectively. 15 x 15 cm size) containing leaves of single
119 treatments (7 treatments x 4 replicates) and mixtures of leaves of increasing treatment richness in
120 all possible combinations of 2, 4, and 6 treatments. This design resulted in 4 richness levels
121 comprising a total of 91 bags (28 single-treatments + 21 2-treatment combinations + 35 4-
122 treatment combinations + 7 6-treatment combinations) for each mesh size. We filled each
123 litterbag with 12 leaves. In mixtures, the 12 leaves were evenly partitioned across the component
124 treatments. All leaves were scanned prior to the bag assembly to later measure treatment-specific
125 leaf areas by digital image analysis (ImageJ, <https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/>) and compute the exact
126 contributions of component treatments on a dry mass (DM) basis. For this, we established
127 conversion factors of leaf area to DM (48h, 105 °C) for every treatment from 20 leaves.

128

129 *Leaf litter chemical composition and calculation of chemical diversity*

130 Following preconditioning, sub-samples of all treatments were freeze-dried, ground using a ball
131 mill and analyzed for C- and N-content (Elementar vario EL C/N elemental analyzer, Germany),
132 other nutrients such as P, Ca, Mg and K by ICP-OES (Thermo Scientific, iCAP 6500, USA), and
133 macromolecular organic C moieties by FTIR (FTIR-8300, Shimadzu, Japan). For FTIR, 1.75 mg
134 (± 0.05 mg) of ground, freeze-dried leaf litter were mixed with 400 mg of KBr, homogenized in
135 a ball mill for 30 s and pressed to a pellet. FTIR spectra (as absorbance in units of cm^{-1}) were
136 measured for wavenumbers of 400 to 4000 cm^{-1} at a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} with 200 scans per
137 sample. We subtracted a blank spectrum (pure KBr pellet) measured as a background every 5
138 samples. We normalized the raw spectra by dividing each peak by the square root of the sum of

139 all peaks, and corrected the baseline drift by the iterative restricted least squares method. Then,
140 we extracted heights of seventeen peaks from 800 to 1800 cm⁻¹ corresponding to main functional
141 groups of carbohydrates, cellulose, lignin and phenolic compounds (Duboc et al. 2012; Liu et al.
142 2016).

143 We combined information from FTIR peaks and elemental analysis to perform a single
144 principal component analyses (PCA). All chemical variables were z-standardized prior to PCA.
145 Average scores of each single treatment on the first two PCA axes served as a 2-dimensional
146 proxy of chemical composition. To capture composition of leaf mixtures we computed
147 community-weighted means from the average of each involved treatment's PCA scores weighted
148 by its relative abundance in the mixture (see Stoler et al. 2016). As a proxy of the chemical
149 diversity of leaf litter, we computed Rao's quadratic entropy (RaoQ; Laliberte & Legendre 2010)
150 according to Stoler et al. (2016). RaoQ is a functional diversity measure that indicates the mean
151 functional distance among a group of species weighted by their relative abundance. In our case,
152 RaoQ is based on the mean Euclidean distance of the chemical traits (i.e. the PCA scores) of the
153 treatments present in a litterbag:

$$154 \quad RaoQ = \sum_{i=1}^R \sum_{j=1}^R \rho_i \rho_j d_{ij}$$

155 where d_{ij} is defined as the Euclidean distance between treatments i and j included in a set
156 of R treatments, and ρ is the relative abundance of each treatment. RaoQ was considered 0 for
157 litterbags containing single treatments. RaoQ was calculated using the package FD (Laliberte &
158 Legendre 2010) in R 3.2.1 (R Core Team 2015).

159

160 *Aquatic decomposition experiment*

161 To measure aquatic decomposition of single treatments and mixtures, we incubated all litterbags
162 in the Löcknitz River (52°24'43.7"N, 13°49'33.6"E) for 23 days at the end of August in 2014.
163 Löcknitz is a forested, 3rd-order lowland river in the Elbe catchment (Germany). Litterbags were
164 tied to iron rods and fixed on the riverbed in four randomly selected reaches of 50 m with
165 running water and homogeneous substrate, depth and flow conditions. During incubation the
166 water temperature oscillated between 13 and 17 °C, average dissolved oxygen concentration was
167 always higher than 6.5 mg L⁻¹, conductivity and pH averaged 560 µS cm⁻¹ and 7.5, respectively.

168 After retrieving the litterbags at approximately 50% average mass loss, leaves were
169 washed individually in the laboratory with tap water above a 250 µm sieve to collect
170 invertebrates, which were preserved in 70% ethanol. Individuals were counted, identified to
171 family level and classified by guilds. The density of shredders was expressed as number of
172 individuals per DM of leaf litter. The leaves from each litterbag were dried (105 °C, 48h) to
173 obtain the final DM and then, compute leaf litter mass loss as the difference between initial and
174 final litterbag DM divided by initial DM.

175 From leaves in fine-mesh bags we cut a set of 12 discs with a cork borer (10 mm) to
176 measure fungal biomass as ergosterol according to Gessner et al. (2005). These leaf discs were
177 frozen at -80 °C pending lyophilization and weighing. Lipids were extracted using a KOH-
178 methanol solution at 80 °C for 30 min and purified using solid-phase extraction cartridges
179 (Waters Sep-Pak®, Vac RC, 500 mg, tC18 cartridges, Waters Corp., USA). Ergosterol was
180 eluted using isopropanol and quantified by HPLC with absorbance detection at 282 nm (Dionex
181 UltiMate 3000 LC, USA). Values of ergosterol were expressed as µg g⁻¹ DM.

182

183 *Microbial respiration assay*

184 Parallel to the decomposition experiment, we measured oxygen consumption rates of the
185 preconditioned leaves as a proxy for microbial respiration. To that end, we incubated 12 leaf
186 discs by mixture or single treatment in 250 mL sealed bottles filled with mineral water (Volvic)
187 at room temperature in a water bath. As microbial inoculum we used 10 mL of river water
188 filtered by 0.7 μm pre-combusted glass fiber filters (Whatman GF/F, Maidstone, UK). Dissolved
189 oxygen concentrations were measured 13 times over 24 days with a needle-based micro-optode
190 (Oxygen Microsensor PM-PSt7 mounted on a Microx 4 trace meter; PreSens, Germany). 10
191 bottles were filled with plain water as a control. Oxygen consumption rates (day^{-1}) were
192 computed as first order oxygen decay rates from log-linear regression models.

193

194 *Data analysis*

195 To analyze the response of leaf litter decomposition to the increase of treatment richness in
196 mixtures we used generalized additive models for location, scale and shape (GAMLSS) (Rigby
197 & Stasinopoulos 2005). Models were built using the treatment richness (1, 2, 4, 6 treatments) as
198 explanatory variable and for the response variables mass loss, fungal biomass, shredder density
199 and microbial respiration. GAMLSS allow to model effects on the average values (μ) of the
200 response variable as well as its variance (σ). We also applied GAMLSS to test for the
201 relationship between treatment richness and chemical diversity in mixtures.

202 We estimated expected values of all response variables for each mixture using observed
203 values in single treatments, and compared those to observed values in mixtures. Expected values
204 were computed as the weighted average of observed values of component treatments on a DM
205 basis. Non-additive effects of mixing were considered synergistic when observed values were

206 significantly higher than expected ones based on paired Wilcoxon signed rank tests (Gartner &
207 Cardon 2004).

208 Finally, to analyze the influence of chemical diversity and chemical composition on the
209 decomposition of both single treatments and mixtures we used general linear models that
210 included RaoQ (chemical diversity), PC1 and PC2 (summary of the chemical composition traits)
211 as predictors. For each response variable, we built an initial model that included all main effects
212 and first-order interactions between RaoQ and each PCA axis and then selected a top list of the
213 most parsimonious models using a multi-model inference approach (Grueber et al. 2011) using
214 the R package MuMIn (Bartón 2016). The top model set kept all models with delta AICc < 2 to
215 the best model. Finally, we used the natural method of model averaging to generate an average
216 model from the top model set. This way we obtained a robust, weighted mean for each predictor
217 coefficient and its errors based on AIC weights (Grueber et al. 2011). All explanatory variables
218 were z-standardized to obtain scaled, comparable average predictor coefficients. We finally
219 evaluated the effect of chemical diversity and chemical composition on leaf litter decomposition
220 by comparing the absolute magnitude and direction of the averaged predictor coefficients and
221 checking whether their 95% confidence intervals spanned zero.

222

223 **Results**

224 *Chemical diversification of leaf litter during preconditioning situations*

225 The PCA based on the chemical traits of leaf litter clearly separated the various preconditioning
226 treatments (Fig. 1A and 1B). PC1 (56 % of the total variance) principally separated treatments
227 T1 and T2 with the highest abundance of carbohydrates from T6 and T7, which had the highest
228 N- and P-content, and FTIR-peaks indicating the presence of lignin-like and phenolic-like

229 compounds. PC2 (28.8% of total variance) was mainly formed by the abundance of structural
230 polysaccharides such as cellulose, and separated T5 from the other treatments. T3 and T4 were
231 characterized by intermediate values of nutrients and structural C compounds.

232 As expected, GAMLSS identified a significant increase of the average and a reduction of
233 the variance of chemical diversity with increasing treatment richness in mixtures (Fig. 1C),
234 meaning that leaf litter mixtures of 2-treatment combinations had a lower average diversity but a
235 higher variability than 6-treatment combinations.

236

237 *Effect of treatment richness on aquatic decomposition of leaf litter mixtures*

238 Increasing treatment richness in mixtures caused significant increases of the average values of
239 leaf litter mass loss in coarse- and fine-mesh bags, of microbial respiration and of fungal biomass
240 (Fig. 2A and 3). Shredder density was the only response variable not affected by treatment
241 richness. Alongside effects on the average response, increasing treatment richness significantly
242 reduced the variance of mass loss in fine-mesh bags and of fungal biomass (Fig. 3A & 3C). In
243 contrast to observed values, expected values of mass loss did not respond to treatment richness in
244 their mean but showed a decrease of the variance (Fig. 2B). This pattern was identical for all
245 other response variables (data not shown). Positive, non-additive effects of mixing leaf litter
246 were further identified for all response variables through significant differences between
247 observed and expected values by Wilcoxon signed-ranked tests (Fig. S1).

248

249 *Effects of chemical composition and chemical diversity on aquatic decomposition of mixtures*

250 Model averaging identified chemical diversity (RaoQ) as the most important predictor explaining
251 mass loss in coarse-mesh bags, fungal biomass and microbial respiration in single treatments and

252 mixtures (Table S1). For these three response variables, chemical diversity had the highest
253 model-averaged coefficients, and its confidence intervals excluded 0, indicating a significantly
254 positive effect (Fig. 4). In concert with other predictors, chemical diversity also had a
255 significantly positive effect on mass loss in fine-mesh bags, and a positive (but not significant)
256 influence on shredder density.

257 The chemical composition of leaf litter (average scores of PC1 and PC2) was the main
258 predictor explaining mass loss in fine-mesh bags (significantly positive effect of PC2) and
259 microbial respiration (significantly negative effect of PC1) (Fig. 4, Table S1). For these two
260 response variables, model averaging also identified significant interaction of chemical diversity
261 with chemical composition.

262

263 **Discussion**

264 Our laboratory treatments – intended to mimic the environmental heterogeneity typically
265 emerging in intermittent rivers during drying – resulted in the strong chemical diversification of
266 leaf litter as expected from previous works (Dieter et al. 2013; del Campo et al. 2019; Mora-
267 Gómez et al. 2019). The greatest chemical differentiation in the PCA based on elemental and
268 macromolecular composition of leaf litter (changes observed along PC1; Fig. 1B) was achieved
269 between distinct terrestrial and aquatic habitat conditions, which are known to support
270 contrasting rates of litter decomposition (Abril et al. 2016). Untreated leaf litter (T1: leaves
271 entering water directly from riparian vegetation) or preconditioned under terrestrial conditions
272 (T2: exposure to UVB radiation) retained a high content of labile C compounds such as
273 carbohydrates, likely because of the limitation of microbial activity by water scarcity (Abril et al.
274 2016). Conversely, leaves in aquatic habitats with high temperature and nutrient concentration

275 (T6 and T7), lost carbohydrates due to leaching and microbial degradation (Dieter et al. 2013,
276 Abril et al. 2016), and gained in nutrients and phenols by microbial immobilization (Webster &
277 Benfield 1986; Mora-Gómez et al. 2019). In contrast, acidic and anoxic conditions in stagnant
278 pools (T5) might curb microbial degradation and just induce the leaching loss of more soluble C
279 compounds, resulting in leaf litter with high content of structural polysaccharides such as
280 cellulose (Dieter et al. 2013), as reflected by the second axis of chemical differentiation in the
281 PCA. Although we recognize the limitations of reproducing leaf litter preconditioning under
282 laboratory conditions, our results challenge the general assumption that intermittent rivers are
283 biogeochemically static during the dry phase; instead, this can be a critical period of chemical
284 diversification of organic matter at the river reach and network scale.

285 Flow resumption reconnects dry tributaries to the river network and prompts the mixing
286 of variously preconditioned leaf litter; further downstream, the mixed leaf litter may be retained
287 again and subjected to further decomposition (Corti & Datry 2012). Our findings show that such
288 diversified leaf litter packs experience accelerated decomposition under fully aquatic conditions
289 through positive non-additive effects in a similar way as reported for mixtures of riparian leaf
290 litter species (Gessner et al. 2010; Lecerf et al. 2011). Increasing preconditioning treatment
291 richness in leaf litter mixtures accelerated mass loss (Fig. 2A and 3A) and stimulated fungal
292 biomass and microbial respiration (Fig. 3); this was not true for any response variable's expected
293 values computed from single treatments (Fig 2B). Shredder density did not increase significantly
294 along the gradient of treatment richness; but higher than expected shredder densities in leaf litter
295 mixtures indicate a positive effect of leaf litter diversity on the detritivore community as well
296 (Fig. S11). These results demonstrate that the heterogeneity of preconditioning situations during

297 the dry phase facilitates increased activity of both microbial decomposers and detritivores
298 involved in later aquatic litter decomposition.

299 Increasing treatment richness of leaf litter mixtures also caused a decrease of the
300 variability in fungal biomass and mass loss in fine-mesh bags (Fig. 3A and 3C). This often-
301 observed outcome of manipulating resource (or species) richness emerges by dampening of
302 extreme contributions in more complex mixtures (see Dang et al. 2005; Lecerf et al. 2007). A
303 reduced variability in fungal-mediated decomposition with higher heterogeneity of
304 preconditioning situations translates to decreased spatial variability and increased stability of this
305 ecosystem process in downstream aquatic systems. We could not confirm this decrease in
306 variance with treatment richness for shredder density or mass loss in coarse-mesh bags as
307 response variables. This result may point to strong influence of individual leaf litter types on the
308 consumption of detritivores, which usually tend to preferentially consume leaf litter species
309 richer in labile C compounds or nutrients when present in mixtures (Swan & Palmer 2006;
310 López-Rojo et al. 2020).

311 Synergistic effects of leaf litter mixing on decomposition can arise mainly from
312 facilitative interactions among litter components with contrasting chemical composition (for
313 instance, by the transfer of nutrients by fungi from nutrient-rich to nutrient-poor leaves; Tonin et
314 al. 2017), or from complementary acquisition of resources (for example, by different leaf litter
315 species providing complementary, essential C compounds; Stoler et al. 2016). With our
316 experimental design, we cannot identify which mechanism drives the acceleration of leaf litter
317 decomposition by mixing; however, our results suggest chemical diversity as the main factor
318 stimulating decomposition. The increase in treatment richness in mixtures implied an increase in
319 chemical diversity (Fig. 1C). More importantly, chemical diversity was the main predictor in

320 averaged-models explaining mass loss in coarse-mesh bags, microbial respiration and fungal
321 biomass (Fig. 4). These results are in line with previous studies where chemical diversity had a
322 predominant influence on the decomposition of leaf litter mixtures (Lecerf et al. 2011; Stoler et
323 al. 2016). We suggest that chemical diversity in mixtures of preconditioned leaves enhanced the
324 activity of microbial communities by facilitating the acquisition of essential nutritional
325 components for their growth and metabolism from multiple sources, such as nutrients, labile C
326 compounds like carbohydrates, or long-lasting resources like cellulose (Gessner et al. 2010).

327 Our results also show a great importance of chemical composition controlling the
328 microbial decomposition of leaf litter mixtures besides chemical diversity, as also found
329 elsewhere (Frainer et al. 2015; López-Rojo et al. 2020). The averaged models identified a
330 stronger influence of the chemical composition (PCA scores) than chemical diversity on the
331 mass loss of leaf litter in fine-mesh bags and microbial respiration (Fig. 4). Specifically, PC2
332 scores had a positive effect on the mass loss in fine-mesh bags indicating a higher microbial
333 activity associated with treatments and mixtures rich in cellulose (see Fig. 1B) (Talbot &
334 Treseder 2012). On the other hand, the negative effect of PC1 on microbial respiration could be
335 due to either inhibition by lignin and phenolic compounds (Talbot & Treseder 2012; Chomel et
336 al. 2016), and/or positive influence of carbohydrates (Stoler et al. 2016).

337 Although intermittent streams and rivers are much less studied than perennial running
338 waters, there is a growing body of evidence highlighting the role of these systems in the
339 processing of terrestrial organic matter in drainage networks (Datry et al. 2018; Marcé et al.
340 2019). This is mostly because they accumulate large amounts of organic matter during the dry
341 phase, which in turn, can trigger hot moments of microbial activity during flow resumption due
342 to release of nutrients, particulate, and dissolved organic matter from riverbeds (Datry et al.

2018; Shumilova et al. 2019). Indeed, Datry et al. (2018) estimate that the inclusion of intermittent and ephemeral rivers in organic matter decomposition models would increase annual estimates of global CO₂ emissions from streams and rivers by 7-152%. All of these studies associate hot moments during flow resumption to the quantity of organic matter accumulated on dry riverbeds, but they do not consider the potential role of organic matter chemical quality as a modulator of microbial activity. Our results demonstrate chemical alteration and diversification of accumulated organic matter in the dry phase may have potentially far-reaching implications. In fact, our results suggest that flow re-establishment in intermittent rivers triggers not only a pulse of organic matter, but a pulse of chemical diversity, which is transported downstream across the river network, and consequently may alter organic matter fluxes at regional scale (Datry et al. 2017). As mixing of variously preconditioned leaf litter accelerates its decomposition, the length of organic matter transport along the river network decreases. This means a spatial compression of organic matter processing along the river continuum, which, in fact, counteracts the classical view of the pulsed bioreactor model, where the organic-matter processing length is considered to increase due to the little decomposition activity during the dry phase and the far-reaching transport by flashy flow during rewetting events. A key element of this hypothesis is the existence of a mosaic of terrestrial and aquatic habitats creating environmental heterogeneity during the dry phase. Whether such diversified habitat conditions exist and for how long is difficult to predict, as drying patterns in intermittent rivers vary among years, bioclimatic regions and depending on catchment hydrology (Stanley et al. 1997). For instance, in arid climates, the total drying of riverbeds is usually completed after a few days from the beginning of flow fragmentation due to high summer temperatures (Gómez et al. 2005). Consequently, in these rivers the short duration of the terrestrial-aquatic habitat mosaic may limit

366 chemical diversification of accumulating leaf litter. In any case, our results, together with the
367 expectations of future prevalence of intermittent rivers in river networks, reinforce the potential
368 relevance of intermittent rivers in global C cycling and the necessity (and difficulties) of
369 integrating them in larger scale modelling efforts.

370 The experimental character of our study precludes a strong assessment of implications.
371 Surely, future studies will have to achieve this under natural conditions, also considering the
372 influence of other factors acting at catchment scale such as land use or vegetation types (as these
373 may have a diversifying impact on leaf litter as well). However, to the best of our knowledge, we
374 prove for the first time that environmental diversity can promote chemical diversity, which in
375 turn has similar effects on important ecosystem processes such as decomposition as biodiversity
376 (Tanentzap et al. 2019).

377

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387 laboratory analyses. RdC led data analysis with inputs of RC and GS; RdC led the writing of the

388 manuscript; GS and RC revised the manuscript critically and gave their final approval for
389 publication. The authors declare no conflict of interest.

390

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508 Table 1. Summary of the preconditioning treatments used in the study to mimic the terrestrial-aquatic habitat mosaic appearing in
 509 intermittent rivers during the dry phase.

Treatments	Riverbed habitat during the dry phase	Laboratory simulation	Physicochemical conditions in aquatic habitats
T1 Untreated	Vertical input of leaf litter shortly before flow resumption	Initially collected leaves, air-dried and kept at room temperature and in darkness.	
T2* UV	Dry riverbed exposed to intense solar irradiation	Irradiation for 12 h/day with a UV lamp (Cosmedico Arimed B6, Osram Biolux 965, Germany; with 31% UVB of total UV) at room temperature.	
T3 Moist	Shaded and humid riverbed habitats	Container with soil from the Löcknitz river floodplain moistened with 500 mL of tap water every 4 days and kept at room temperature.	
T4 Cold pool	Pool connected to hyporheic flow paths with cold and nutrient-poor water supporting limited algal growth	Aquarium filled with mineral water and stones with biofilm from the Löcknitz river. The aquarium was continuously illuminated, oxygenated by air-bubbling and kept at constant low temperature.	T = 15.3 °C DO = 9.45 mg L ⁻¹ pH = 7.94 Cond = 925 µS cm ⁻¹
T5 Anoxic pool	Anoxic, stagnant pool	Container filled with mineral water and 8 mg of Na ₂ SO ₃ per mg dissolved oxygen to create anoxic conditions, kept at room temperature and in darkness.	T = 24.6 °C DO = 0.15 mg L ⁻¹ pH = 5.5 Cond = 1650 µS cm ⁻¹
T6* Wet/dry	Habitats subjected to wet/dry cycles associated to rain events	Alternating T2 and T3 every 7 days.	
T7 Hot pool	Disconnected pool with warm and nutrient-rich water supporting algal growth	Same conditions as T4, except that the aquarium was kept at room temperature and a nutrient solution (0.6 g L ⁻¹ of NaNO ₃ and 0.3 g L ⁻¹ of KH ₂ PO ₄) was added.	T = 25.1 °C DO = 6.72 mg L ⁻¹ pH = 7.66 Cond = 800 µS cm ⁻¹

510 T: water temperature, DO: dissolved oxygen, Cond: water conductivity. *The duration of preconditioning treatments was 21 days except for T2
 511 and T6, which extended for 60 days, since terrestrial decomposition processes occur at a longer time scales than aquatic ones.

512 **Figure legends**

513 Figure 1. PCA describing changes in the chemical composition of leaf litter due to
514 preconditioning under different treatments (A and B). (A) Variable loadings defining the PCA
515 space. (B) Distribution of the preconditioning treatments across the PCA space. In (B), the colors
516 of treatments represent their positions in PCA-space; similar chemical compositions of two
517 treatments (e.g. T6 - T7) translates to similar colors and vice versa (e.g. T1 - T7) – this allows
518 chemical interpretation of color in subsequent figures. (C) GAMLSS identified a significant
519 increase of the average (μ , black line) and a significant reduction of the variance (σ , grey
520 percentile lines) of chemical diversity (RaoQ) with increasing richness or preconditioning
521 treatments. The colors in the pie charts used as symbols for mixtures indicate chemical
522 composition as identified in (B).

523 Figure 2. Observed (A) and expected (B) values of mass loss in coarse-mesh bags in single
524 treatments and mixtures along the treatment richness gradient. GAMLSS identified a significant
525 increase of the mean (μ , black line) but no change in the variance (σ , grey percentile lines) of
526 observed values of mass loss with increasing richness, while there was no change in the mean
527 but a decrease in variance of the expected values. Colors indicate the identity of single treatments
528 (simple dots) or the treatment composition of mixtures (pie charts); color codes in Fig. 1B.

529 Figure 3. Observed values of mass loss in fine-mesh bags (A), microbial respiration (B), fungal
530 biomass in leaf litter (C) and shredder density (D) in single treatments and mixtures along the
531 treatment richness gradient. GAMLSS identified a significant increase of the mean (μ , black line)
532 for all four variables with increasing richness, but a decrease in the variance (σ , grey lines) only
533 for mass loss in fine mesh bags and fungal biomass. Colors indicate the identity of single

534 treatments (simple dots) or the treatment composition of mixtures (pie charts); color codes in
535 Fig. 1B.

536 Figure 4. Model-averaged coefficients (mean \pm 95% CI) of predictors explaining the mass loss,
537 microbial respiration, fungal biomass and shredder density of single treatments and mixtures.
538 Chemical diversity (estimated through RaoQ) was the most important predictor for mass loss in
539 coarse-mesh bags, fungal biomass and shredder density, while chemical composition features
540 (estimated through the average score of PC1 and PC2) were more important explaining mass loss
541 in fine-mesh bags (PC2) and microbial respiration (PC1).

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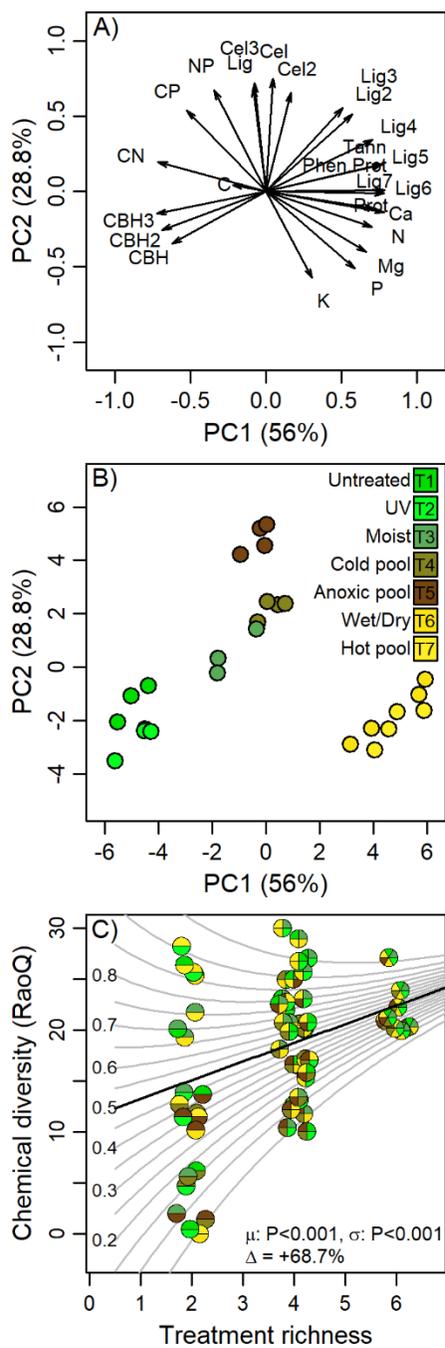
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557 Figure 1.



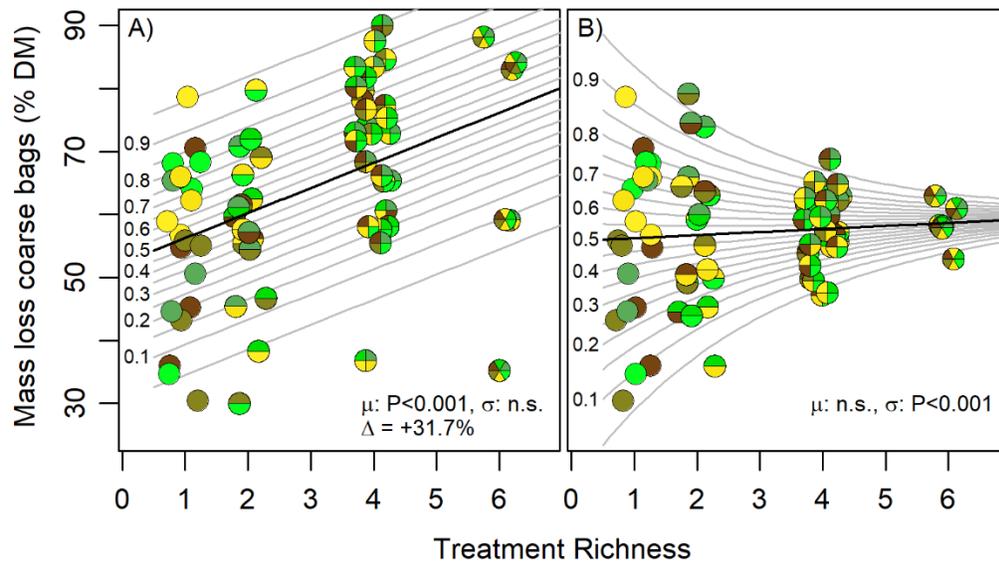
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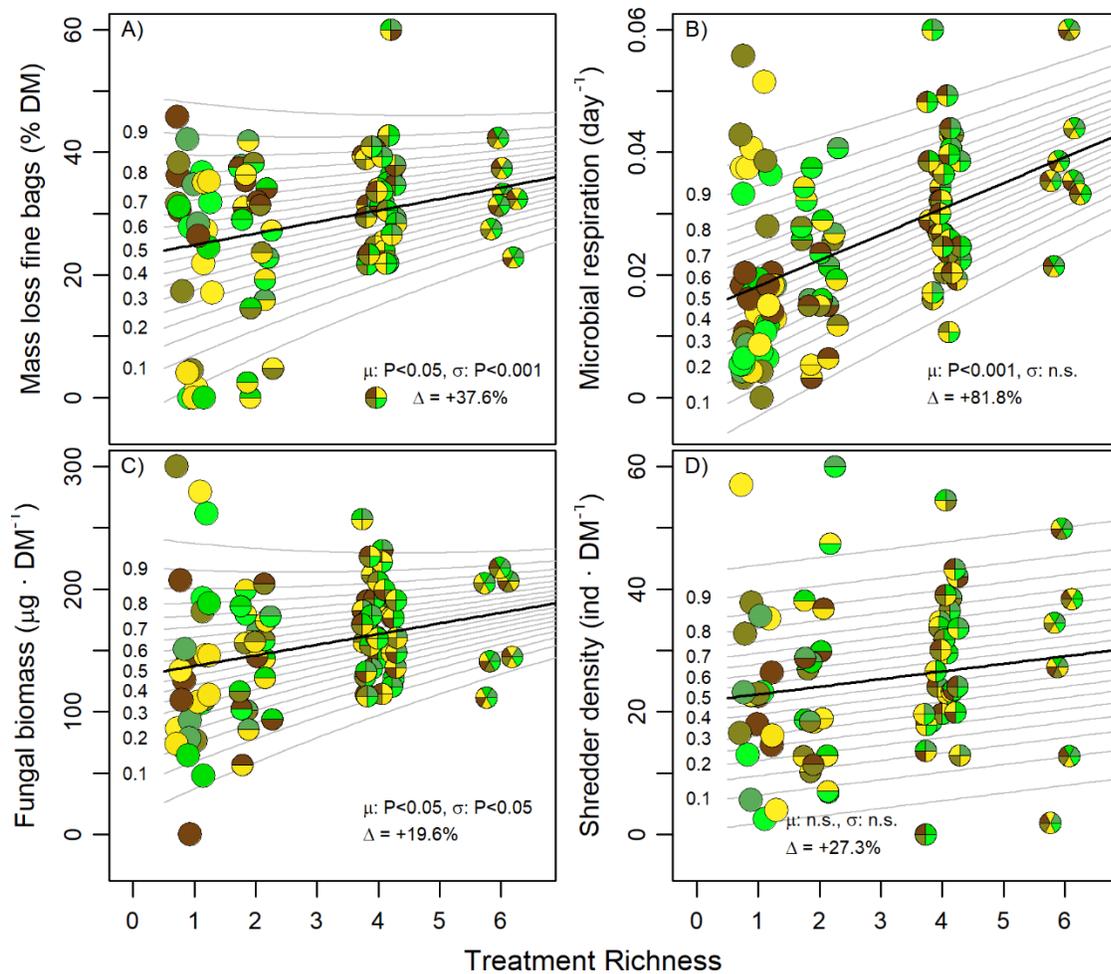
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574 Figure 3



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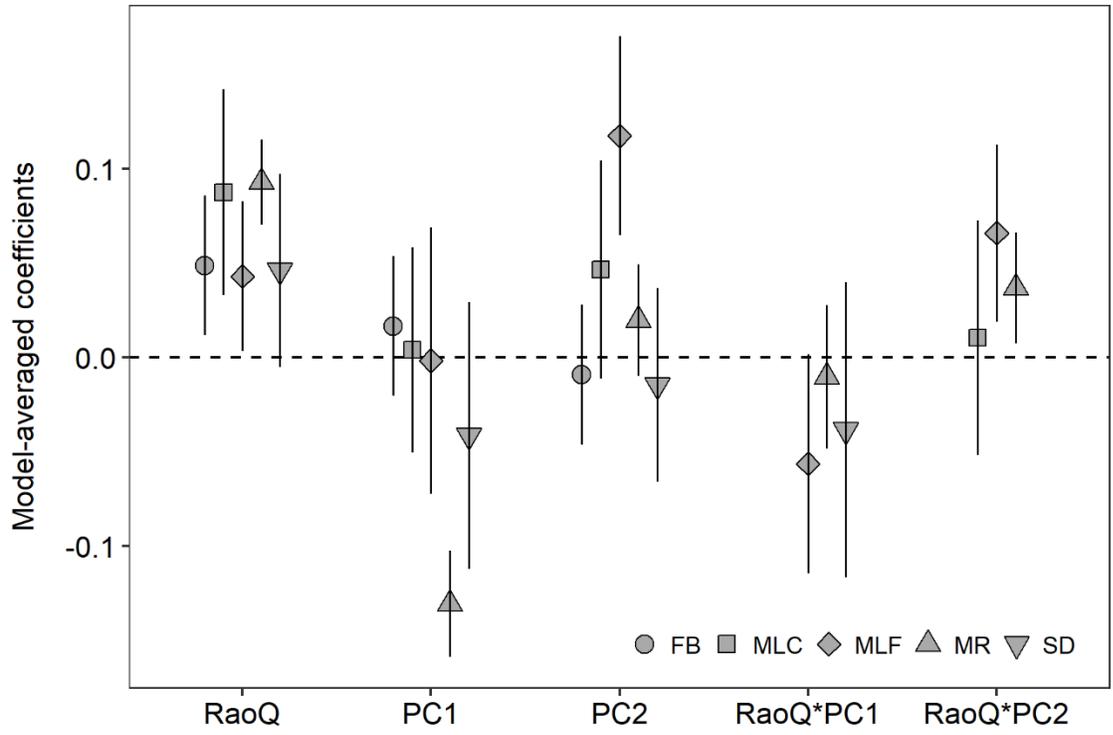
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582 Figure 4



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