

Ecological genomics of tropical trees: how local population size and allelic diversity of resistance genes relate to immune responses, cosusceptibility to pathogens, and negative density dependence

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Abstract

In tropical forests, rarer species show increased sensitivity to species-specific soil pathogens and more negative effects of conspecific density on seedling survival (NDD). These patterns suggest a connection between ecology and immunity, perhaps because small population size disproportionately reduces genetic diversity of hyperdiverse loci such as immunity genes. In an experiment examining seedling roots from six species in one tropical tree community, we found that smaller populations have reduced amino acid diversity in pathogen resistance (R) genes but not the transcriptome in general. Normalized R gene amino acid diversity varied with local abundance and prior measures of differences in sensitivity to conspecific soil and NDD. After exposure to live soil, species with lower R gene diversity had reduced defence gene induction, more cosusceptibility of maternal cohorts to colonization by potentially pathogenic fungi, reduced root growth arrest (an R gene-mediated response) and their root-associated fungi showed lower induction of self-defence (antioxidants). Local abundance was not related to the ability to induce immune responses when pathogen recognition was bypassed by application of salicylic acid, a phytohormone that activates defence responses downstream of R gene signalling. These initial results support the hypothesis that smaller local tree populations have reduced R gene diversity and recognition-dependent immune responses, along with greater cosusceptibility to species-specific pathogens that may facilitate disease transmission and NDD. Locally rare species may be less able to increase their equilibrium abundance without genetic boosts to defence via immigration of novel R gene alleles from a larger and more diverse regional population.

Keywords: demographic effects, eco-evolutionary feedback, ecological dynamics, forest research plot, fungi, genetic drift, immunity, long-term ecological study, plant–pathogen interaction, polymorphism, root microbiome

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Introduction

Determining the causes and consequences of differences in species abundances has long been a focus of theoretical and applied ecology (Preston 1948; Volkov *et al.* 2003). Early studies examining relative abundance

within plant communities focused on species' abilities to tolerate local abiotic conditions and compete with co-occurring species for resources (Clausen *et al.* 1940), however, such differences should lead to competitive exclusion rather than stabilization of a diverse community. More recently, interactions with natural enemies have been shown to play a role in shaping plant species relative abundance (Klironomos 2002; Mangan *et al.* 2010; McCarthy-Neumann & Kobe 2010; van der Putten *et al.* 2013) and spatial dynamics (Gilbert *et al.* 1994; Burdon *et al.* 2006; Anderson *et al.* 2010; Brown & Teller 2011; Laine *et al.* 2011; Moslonka-Lefebvre *et al.* 2011; Jousimo *et al.* 2014). For example, seedlings of locally less common species suffer more than common species from the density and proximity of conspecific neighbours in a diverse tropical forest (Comita *et al.* 2010). Shadehouse and field experiments revealed that this pattern was likely due to higher sensitivity to host-specific soil pathogens (Mangan *et al.* 2010). These findings, together with similar results from temperate plant communities (Klironomos 2002; Johnson *et al.* 2012; van der Putten *et al.* 2013), suggest that host-specific pathogens shape the relative abundance of plant species. Simulations provide theoretical support for the ability of plant–enemy interactions to determine relative abundance when plant species vary in susceptibility to their own enemies, resulting in stronger negative density dependence (NDD) and lower equilibrium population size for more susceptible species (Mangan *et al.* 2010; Chisholm & Muller-Landau 2011; Mack & Bever 2014). Importantly, stronger negative density dependence caused by specialized plant–pathogen interactions leads to the long-term persistence of rare species in the community (Mangan *et al.* 2010; Chisholm & Muller-Landau 2011). However, the mechanisms that cause less abundant plant species to be more susceptible to their own pathogens and therefore experience stronger NDD are unknown.

We hypothesized that the strength of pathogen-mediated NDD is greatest in locally less abundant plant species because founder effects (a form of genetic drift) reduce allelic diversity in a small local population compared with the regional metapopulation (Ellstrand & Elam 1993). Two features of locally reduced genetic diversity may lead to variation in pathogen susceptibility: reduction in the ability to activate defence responses due to general physiological deficiencies caused by inbreeding (Saccheri *et al.* 1998; Du *et al.* 2008; Seeholzer *et al.* 2010; Kariyat *et al.* 2012; Portman *et al.* 2015), and/or reduction in diversity of pathogen resistance (R) genes, which detect pathogens and determine allele-specific activation of defence (Hammond-Kosack & Jones 1997; Laine *et al.* 2011; Dangl *et al.* 2013). The former scenario is not supported by seedling survival data at

our study site (Comita *et al.* 2010), which showed no relationship between species abundance in the community and seedling survival in the absence of conspecific neighbours (i.e. the intercept term in the survival model). In the latter scenario involving R genes, the probability of cosusceptibility to particular pathogen strains and transmission among conspecific neighbours increases when plants share the same genotype at loci critical for either complete immunity or quantitative resistance. This hypothesis involves genotype-specific host–pathogen interactions and follows from molecular genetic studies showing that diversification of R genes broadens the spectrum of pathogen recognition capability (Dodds & Rathjen 2010), conveying either complete or partial resistance (Poland *et al.* 2009) to a specific pathogen strain or functionally similar strains (Allen *et al.* 2004; Karasov *et al.* 2014). Hence, reduced genome-wide R gene allelic diversity of neighbouring plants should increase their cosusceptibility to particular strains within a highly diverse and rapidly co-evolving pathogen community and increase their transmission of pathogens and NDD.

R genes comprise a large and diverse set of gene families encoding proteins that perform various roles across multiple layers of plant immunity, including direct recognition and interaction with pathogen molecules (Jia *et al.* 2000) and indirect interaction via detection of host defence-signalling pathways inhibited by pathogen effector molecules (Simonich & Innes 1995). Multiple hormone signalling pathways function downstream of R genes to regulate defence responses, which in turn determine absolute or quantitative immunity (Knepper & Day 2010).

Among the many genes involved in plant defence, R genes should be especially susceptible to reductions in population size due to their unusually high levels of allelic diversity maintained by balancing selection (Bergelson *et al.* 2001; Rose *et al.* 2004; Meyers *et al.* 2005; Bakker *et al.* 2006; Seeholzer *et al.* 2010; Karasov *et al.* 2014). In a neutral model, small populations lose disproportionately more diversity at allele-rich loci than loci containing few alleles (Allendorf 1986). Muirhead (2001) modelled the effects of population structure and mutation rate on loci under balancing selection, concluding that 'the number of alleles maintained in a single deme is expected to decrease as the effective neighbourhood size of the deme decreases and individuals have a more restricted set of potential parents'. This has been confirmed empirically in studies of self-incompatibility genes, another class of plant loci with many alleles maintained by balancing selection. The smallest plant populations have the fewest S-alleles (Glemin *et al.* 2005; Brennan *et al.* 2006) and in the best-studied case a tight positive relationship between allele

number and population size (Young & Pickup 2010) despite strong fitness reductions in the smallest populations caused by frequent pollen incompatibility. Hence, balancing selection in small populations of plants does not overcome the diversity-reducing effect of bottlenecks and drift. In the case of R genes, erosion of diversity in small populations should make them more vulnerable to infection and transmission of their own co-evolving pathogens.

Previous studies of polymorphism at putatively neutral loci have shown that tropical trees tend to have reduced genetic variation in small local populations (Hamrick & Murawski 1991; Finkeldey & Hattmer 2007; Noreen & Webb 2013) and strongly increased seedling-to-adult survival for outcrossed progeny (Hufford & Hamrick 2003). Over a scale of a few tens of metres, tropical trees tend to be related, corresponding with seed dispersal kernels, with most pollen originating within ~100 to 1000 m of the mother tree, and detectable levels of long-distance pollen flow (Loveless 1992; Boshier *et al.* 1995; Hardy *et al.* 2006; Noreen & Webb 2013).

There is ample evidence indicating that pathogens play a strong role in driving density dependence in tree communities. At our study site, wood-decaying fungal incidence and diversity increases in a host density-dependent fashion (Gilbert *et al.* 2002), and damping-off disease in tree seedlings is negatively affected by dispersal distance and positively by seedling density [(Augsburger & Kelly 1984); see (Packer & Clay 2000; Hood *et al.* 2004; Bagchi *et al.* 2010; Reinhart *et al.* 2010) for similar results]. Collectively, these results indicate that seedlings are more vulnerable to disease when establishing around conspecifics, especially when they occur at high density.

Here, we use a transcriptome approach (Wang *et al.* 2009) to examine expression level and polymorphism in genes expressed in seedling roots of six species of tropical trees. We first present seedling root transcriptomes and validate the gene models and estimates of polymorphism. We use those data for an initial test of the hypothesis that smaller local populations have reduced protein-coding diversity in R genes. Finally, we use data from a replicated and controlled experiment to show how normalized amino acid coding diversity is associated with a number of immune-related phenotypes: NDD, induction of defence genes downstream of R genes following exposure to live soil or to a phytohormone that bypasses R genes, cosusceptibility of maternal cohorts to colonization by pathogenic fungi, self-defence responses by root-associated fungi, and seedling root growth arrest following live soil inoculation. We end by discussing how these initial findings (to be interpreted cautiously based on the small number of species sampled) may inform our understanding of

the eco-evolutionary context of plant–pathogen interactions and community ecology.

Methods

Approach and rationale

We selected six focal species (Tables 1 and 2) representing a broad range of plant orders, families and relative abundances [ranked 10–97th by decreasing basal area of 180 tree species sampled in (Comita *et al.* 2010)] on the 50-ha Forest Dynamics Plot on Barro Colorado Island (BCI), Panama (Hubbell *et al.* 1999; Condit *et al.* 2000, 2012). All but one of these species was previously tested for effects of host-specific soil pathogens (Mangan *et al.* 2010) and all were included in a previous study of conspecific NDD in seedlings occurring naturally in the BCI forest (Comita *et al.* 2010). Using surface-sterilized seeds collected from the ground beneath canopies of five fruiting trees of each focal species (Figs 1 and S1 in Appendix S1), we first germinated cohorts of 15 seedlings per parent (75 seedlings per species) in sterile soil in trays and then transplanted them to individual pots after developing their first set of primary leaves. Pots contained equal amounts of the same homogenized and autoclaved field soil. Potted seedlings were assigned randomly among three soil treatments. Five seedlings of each cohort were untreated controls; five received a salicylic acid (SA) root drench 48 h prior to harvesting (0.3 g of SA diluted in 75 mL of distilled water); five were given 200 mL of a live soil inoculum 1 week prior to harvesting. The live soil inoculum contained equal portions of rhizosphere soil collected under a single adult of each of our study species (Fig. S1 in Appendix S1, Table S1 in Appendix S2; one species, *Beilschmiedia pendula*, had too few fallen seeds not killed by insects to permit the live soil treatment). This inoculum was collected and fully homogenized (across source adults) immediately prior to inoculating seedlings.

Defence gene activation after live soil treatment depends on the ability of a plant to recognize pathogens or their effector proteins, whereas SA (a natural plant defence-signalling hormone) is taken up by plants and activates defences downstream of R genes (Alvarez 2000), including expression of pathogenesis-related (PR) genes (Vlot *et al.* 2009). Other defence-related phytohormones (e.g. jasmonic acid; ethylene) were not tested to keep the experiment tractable. SA is commonly triggered by microbes (Glazebrook 2005) and, although little studied in roots, can affect plant–microbe interactions in roots independently of any direct effect of the compound on microbes (Medina *et al.* 2003). Hence, SA treatment served experimentally to bypass pathogen recognition and directly activate antimicrobial

Table 1 Study species and assembly statistics for nonredundant gene models

[Correction added on 20 April, 2017, after first online publication: The values in Median length have been modified at the request of the authors]

Species (family)	N gene models	Median length, nt (aa)	Median read depth
<i>Beilschmiedia pendula</i> (Lauraceae)	25 747	1144 (248)	52
<i>Virola surinamensis</i> (Myristicaceae)	26 216	1249 (251)	33
<i>Brosimum alicastrum</i> (Moraceae)	19 689	1203 (252)	54
<i>Eugenia nesiotica</i> (Myrtaceae)	24 075	1514 (319)	49
<i>Lacmellea panamensis</i> (Apocynaceae)	24 415	1491 (298)	53
<i>Dipteryx oleifera</i> (Fabaceae)	30 251	1024 (209)	61

defences. The live soil and SA treatments therefore illuminated two physiologically distinct traits: (i) recognition-dependent inducible defence response to diverse

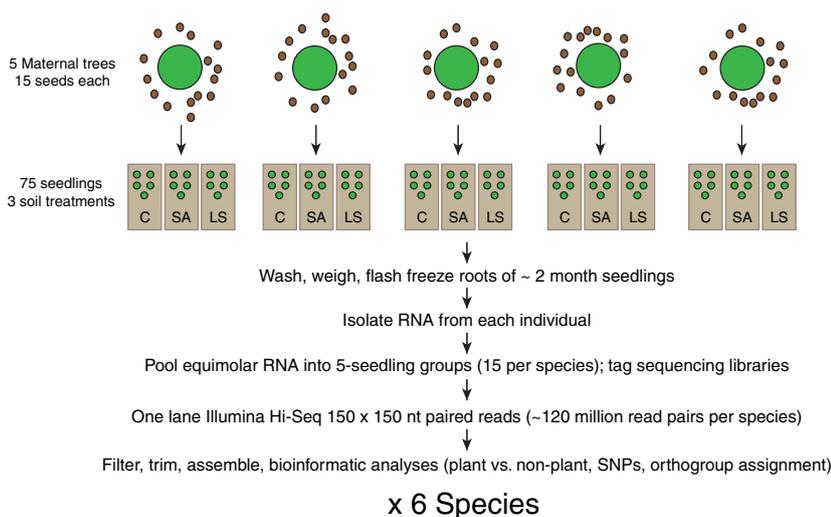
soil microbes in live soil and (ii) recognition-independent SA-inducible defence.

Following treatments, we uprooted the 2-month-old seedlings, washed the roots free of soil and flash-froze them for RNA isolations, after which we pooled equal amounts of total RNA from each individual within combinations of parent tree ($N = 5$) and seedling treatment ($N = 3$) for sequencing (15 distinctly labelled pools per species, each sequenced in one lane [Illumina HiSeq 2500] using 2×150 nucleotide paired reads; Fig. 1).

We assembled transcriptomes from all trimmed and quality-filtered sequences across treatments using Trinity (Grabherr *et al.* 2011; Haas *et al.* 2013) (Tables 1 and 2). The transcriptome assemblies initially contained about 150 000 plant gene models per species, with redundancy caused by mRNA features such as alternative splicing and retained introns. To overcome redundancy and potential artefacts, we used a well-validated orthology analysis (Amborella Genome 2013; Honaas *et al.* 2013; Ming *et al.* 2013; Wickett *et al.* 2014) that employs a hidden Markov matrix procedure to detect deep homology and select the best representative gene model from each

Table 2 Polymorphism in nonredundant gene models from root transcriptomes of tropical trees. Data outside parentheses refer to the transcriptome exclusive of R genes; data in parentheses refer to R genes. (site-frequency spectra are shown in Fig. S6a in Appendix S2)

Species	N monomorphic	N polymorphic	Median pN	Median pS	Median pN/pS
<i>Beilschmiedia</i> (Bl)	16 556 (241)	8795 (155)	0.004 (0.041)	0.009 (0.042)	0.52 (0.84)
<i>Virola</i> (Vr)	18 930 (152)	7016 (118)	0.003 (0.036)	0.007 (0.058)	0.54 (0.73)
<i>Brosimum</i> (Br)	12 668 (234)	6624 (163)	0.004 (0.019)	0.009 (0.026)	0.49 (0.73)
<i>Eugenia</i> (Eu)	15 502 (435)	7780 (258)	0.004 (0.022)	0.009 (0.033)	0.50 (0.69)
<i>Lacmellea</i> (La)	17 454 (115)	6767 (79)	0.003 (0.024)	0.006 (0.048)	0.58 (0.68)
<i>Dipteryx</i> (Di)	18 199 (171)	11 785 (96)	0.007 (0.026)	0.018 (0.043)	0.46 (0.69)

**Fig. 1** Methods schematic showing the collection of maternal seed cohorts, random assignment of seeds to treatment groups within maternal cohorts, and downstream steps for transcriptome sequencing and analyses. Treatment abbreviations: sterile soil control: C; salicylic acid root soak: SA; live soil inoculation: LS. This protocol was repeated for six species, except *Beilschmiedia* for which we had only ten viable seeds per cohort and did not perform the live soil treatment.

orthogroup (narrowly defined gene families) from a global set of well-annotated orthogroups produced from 22 representative high-quality plant genomes. Only these highly filtered gene models ($N = \sim 20\text{--}30\text{K}$ per species; Table 1) were retained for further analyses, including estimates of the completeness of transcriptome coverage (Table S2a–c in Appendix S2), well-supported single nucleotide (SNP) and insertion–deletion polymorphisms (Koboldt *et al.* 2009), and treatment-specific gene expression levels (Wang *et al.* 2009).

We estimated the normalized abundance of polymorphism in protein-coding regions from the number of nonsynonymous (amino acid changing) SNPs per nonsynonymous site (pN), synonymous SNPs per synonymous site (pS) and the ratio pN/pS (Table 2). pN/pS measures the abundance of protein-coding variation (pN) relative to neutral divergence (pS), which varies with allele age and across genomic locations. Compared with the rest of the genome, R genes have increased levels of nonsynonymous variation (pN) caused by diversifying selection (Michelmore & Meyers 1998; Bakker *et al.* 2006; Yang *et al.* 2006), particularly in protein regions that interact with pathogens. Different R gene loci have alleles of widely different age, some newly arisen and polymorphic for protein variants but with little synonymous divergence, whereas other loci contain older alleles that have accumulated synonymous polymorphisms and are more broadly diverged in amino acid sequence (Bakker *et al.* 2006; Yang *et al.* 2006). Protein amino acid divergence generally comprises a mix of neutral and functionally important differences (Shihab *et al.* 2013), so using only pN as a measure of diversity would bias towards the oldest and most divergent alleles, with additional detectability biases caused by variation in expression level and read depth in the transcriptome assembly. Hence, our analyses use pN/pS to normalize for the neutral divergence of alleles (Hughes & Nei 1988), assign weight to sequences according to their excess of nonsynonymous polymorphism and control for sequence depth-dependent SNP detectability.

We used root RNA from a single individual of one of the focal species (*Dipteryx*) to perform PacBio single read sequencing to verify the Illumina+Trinity gene assembly in general and R genes in particular.

To validate our approach, we simulated the effect of a small number of founders on R gene allelic diversity using published data on *Arabidopsis thaliana* (see Supporting information, Fig. S3a in Appendix S2), which confirmed that pN/pS of the most diversified R gene loci is particularly reduced in the founding of a small population.

For hypotheses with a priori directional predictions, we used one-tailed statistical tests. A detailed description of methods is contained in the Supporting information.

Results

R gene allelic diversity in seedling root transcriptomes

Assembled transcriptomes from seedling roots yielded ~ 20 to 30 thousand nonredundant gene models in each of the six focal species (Table 1). Deep sequencing coverage (median read depth ~ 50 ; Table 2) enabled characterization of polymorphism in ~ 7 to 10 thousand genes per species, including substantial numbers (79–258) of R genes (Table 2). In all six species, R genes showed highly elevated polymorphism (pN , pS and pN/pS ; Table 2, Fig. 2) compared with the remainder of the transcriptomes, consistent with long-term diversifying selection and accumulation of old alleles with amino acid diversity important for immune recognition and response to microbial pathogens (Bergelson *et al.* 2001; Allen *et al.* 2004; Rose *et al.* 2004; Meyers *et al.* 2005; Bakker *et al.* 2006; Seeholzer *et al.* 2010; Bakker *et al.* 2006; Karasov *et al.* 2014).

Verification of the assembly and gene models

R genes have a complex evolutionary history and are widely thought to be difficult to assemble correctly from short-read sequences. That conjecture was recently tested using the *Arabidopsis thaliana* genome to assess *de novo* assemblies of *A. thaliana* transcriptomes from Illumina sequencing. Those assemblies showed no examples of chimeric assembly of R genes in the postorthology filtered gene models (Honaas *et al.* 2016). We used the same Trinity assembly protocol and orthology filter in the present experiment, so potential chimeras are unlikely to be retained as best representatives of narrowly defined orthogroups (see methods). Even so, we sought to verify gene models by performing single-molecule (PacBio) sequencing of one of the subject species (*Dipteryx*). Those data showed strong support for the assembly, expression level estimates, and polymorphism metrics. Notably, the subset of gene models from the Illumina assembly that were contained fully within a PacBio single-molecule read (i.e. fully verified; $N = 8876$, Table S4a,b in Appendix S2) had polymorphism metrics, including median pN/pS of R genes, nearly unchanged compared with the entire Illumina-based assembly (Table S4d in Appendix S2). This result is consistent with Honaas *et al.* (2016) and the observation that in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, the rapid divergence of R gene paralogs makes them more difficult to align than to tell apart (Mondragon-Palomino *et al.* 2002). We acknowledge the possibility that some misassembly of very recently diverged paralogs may have slipped through and remain present in our analysed data. Note, however, that all of our analyses of genetic data use

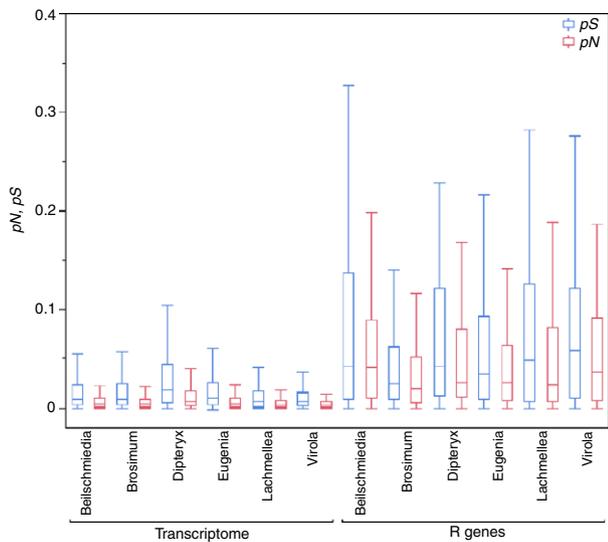


Fig. 2 Polymorphism in resistance (R) genes compared to the remainder of the transcriptome in roots of six species of tropical tree seedlings. Elevated pN and pS in R genes reflect long-term diversifying selection and the presence of old alleles, likely maintained by frequency-dependent selection imposed by interactions with rapidly evolving proteins of pathogens.

medians, which are highly robust to sporadic measurement errors, and there is no reason to suspect that assembly errors would be systematically biased in relation to the size of local populations or the phenotypes we measured.

Polymorphism metrics for R genes and the remainder of the transcriptome were concordant with whole genome-guided estimates from rice, *Picea*, and *Medicago* (see Fig. S4a and associated text in Appendix S2). There was no evidence of codon bias in any of the focal tree species (Table S5a in Appendix S2) and hence no evidence that pS varied in a species-specific manner due to historical differences in weak selection. Median pN/pS was replicable among cohorts (Fig. S5a in Appendix S2). Estimates of R gene polymorphism were little affected by lineage-specific differences in the evolutionary history of R gene families (Fig. S5c,d in Appendix S2), as evidenced by the nearly unchanged median pN/pS estimates of R genes when calculated from the single largest R gene orthogroup (canonical R genes containing NB-ARC and LRR domains; Fig. S5c in Appendix S2). As previously observed for protein-coding regions involved in direct interactions with pathogen effector molecules (Bakker *et al.* 2006), nonsynonymous polymorphism was significantly higher within leucine-rich repeat (LRR) domains of R genes ($P < 0.0001$; Fig. S5e in Appendix S2). Median pN within those LRR motifs was closely related to median pN/pS across all R gene regions (Fig. S5f in Appendix S2). Based on these analyses, we concluded that the assembly, gene expression

measures and estimates of polymorphism were robust and that our metrics of R gene polymorphism were a valid proxy for functional differences related to plant–pathogen interactions.

Reduction in R gene protein-coding diversity in locally less abundant species

Median pN/pS in R genes of tropical trees was strongly related to local population size (Fig. 3A; one-tailed $P = 0.009$), but there was no such association between population size and pN/pS in the remainder of the transcriptome (one-tailed $P = 0.31$; Fig. 3B). Non-normalized amino acid diversity (pN) of R genes also increased with local population size (Fig. 3C; one-tailed $P = 0.01$) but that association was not present in the remainder of the transcriptome (Fig. 3D). Neutral diversity (pS) did not differ with local population size for either R genes or the remainder of the transcriptome ($P = 0.54$ and 0.42 ; here two-tailed in the absence of clear directional predictions).

Previous research on this plot (Hamrick & Murawski 1990, 1991) found a tendency for reduced polymorphism at allozyme loci in less abundant tree species. Our results replicated that pattern for nonsynonymous polymorphism in R genes but not in the remainder of transcriptome. This was likely due to the ~fivefold lower range in median pN among species in the transcriptome exclusive of R genes (Table 2). Low values and differences in among-species abundance of polymorphism applied also to synonymous variation, and hence, there was much less leverage for detecting species differences and population size effects on polymorphism in the transcriptome exclusive of R genes.

Subsampling to examine R gene protein-coding diversity in relation to other functional groups

We subsampled the transcriptome to test the possibility that lumping genes into two broad categories (R genes vs. the remaining transcriptome) may create a deceptive result or hide important associations with population size. In linear regressions testing the relationship between population size and median pN/pS for all well-represented protein families ($N = 133$ protein families with at least 10 gene models), R genes were in the top 2.5% for strength of association (Fig. S3b in Appendix S2). Only two protein families showed a stronger association; one was ribosomal protein L4/L1e, represented by 171 gene models but only 18 containing polymorphism. With such sparse data, this is most likely a false-positive association. The other family comprised proteins containing a thioredoxin domain, much better represented by 231 gene models (101 with

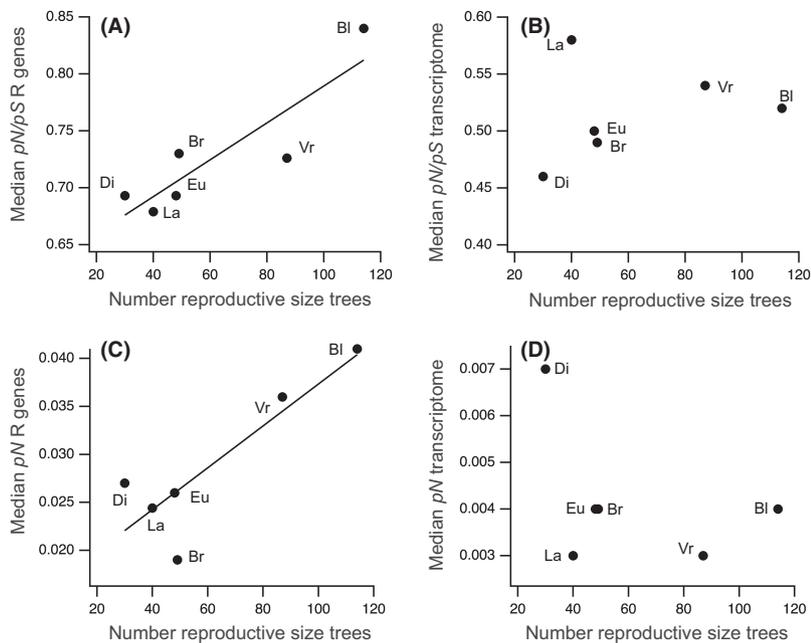


Fig. 3 Local population size [number of reproductive-size adult trees of each species in the 2010 census of the BCI 50-ha plot (Condit *et al.* 2012)] is positively associated with the relative (A) and absolute (C) abundance of nonsynonymous polymorphism (pN/pS) in R genes but not in the remainder of the transcriptome (B, D). Species abbreviations on plots refer to: BI: *Beilschmiedia pendula* (Lauraceae); Vr: *Virola surinamensis* (Myristicaceae); Br: *Brosimum alicastrum* (Moraceae); Eu: *Eugenia nesiotica* (Myrtaceae); La: *Lacmellea panamensis* (Apocynaceae); Di: *Dipteryx oleifera* (Fabaceae).

polymorphism, 29 with $pN/pS > 1$). A flurry of recent studies demonstrate interaction of thioredoxin proteins with pathogen effector molecules, with outcomes that affect immune signalling, regulation of a pathogen-favourable redox environment, and susceptibility/resistance (Lorang *et al.* 2012; Yang *et al.* 2014; Carella *et al.* 2016; Faheem *et al.* 2016; Floryszak-Wieczorek *et al.* 2016; Fujiwara *et al.* 2016; Luna-Rivero *et al.* 2016; Mukaihara *et al.* 2016; Popa *et al.* 2016; Sang *et al.* 2016). Thioredoxin domain proteins are therefore likely to have undergone diversifying selection in a fashion similar to R genes and appear to contain an elevated level of amino acid polymorphism that is similarly under-represented in small local populations. In summary, the relationship between normalized protein-coding diversity of R genes and local population size was extreme compared with individual protein families but was replicated in one protein family that similarly mediates immunity.

R gene protein-coding diversity and negative density dependence

A potential ecological outcome of reduced R gene diversity is that neighbouring plants possessing more similar R gene genotypes may be more likely to transmit and succumb to particular pathogen genotypes. If so, there should be an inverse relationship between the local population R gene protein-coding diversity and the negative impact of conspecific neighbours. To test this hypothesis, we compared median pN/pS of R genes with two independent measures of NDD for these

species from the same study site (Comita *et al.* 2010; Mangan *et al.* 2010). Species with reduced normalized protein-coding diversity in R genes suffered more negative effects when exposed to soil collected beneath trees of the same species (i.e. plant–soil feedback) in a shade-house experiment (Fig. 4A; one-tailed $P = 0.045$) and had stronger conspecific negative density-dependent mortality of naturally occurring seedlings in the BCI forest (Fig. 4C; one-tailed $P = 0.041$). Using pN instead of pN/pS produced a weaker relationship for plant–soil feedback (one-tailed $P = 0.12$) but a similar result for density-dependent seedling mortality (one-tailed $P = 0.04$). In the remainder of the transcriptome, there were weak or no associations between these measures of negative conspecific effects and median pN/pS (Fig. 4B,D; one-tailed $P > 0.5$ in both cases), pN (one-tailed $P = 0.12, 0.48$), or pS (one-tailed $P = 0.10, 0.47$, respectively; plots not shown) and hence little indication that differences in overall genetic diversity explain species differences in density dependent mortality and plant–soil feedback.

Increased pathogen cosusceptibility in locally less abundant species

Stronger negative impacts of conspecific soil and conspecific neighbours suggest that individuals of species with reduced R gene protein-coding diversity are indeed more cosusceptible to particular microbial pathogens. To test experimentally for differences in cosusceptibility, we used transcriptome data to quantify variability among maternal seedling cohorts in

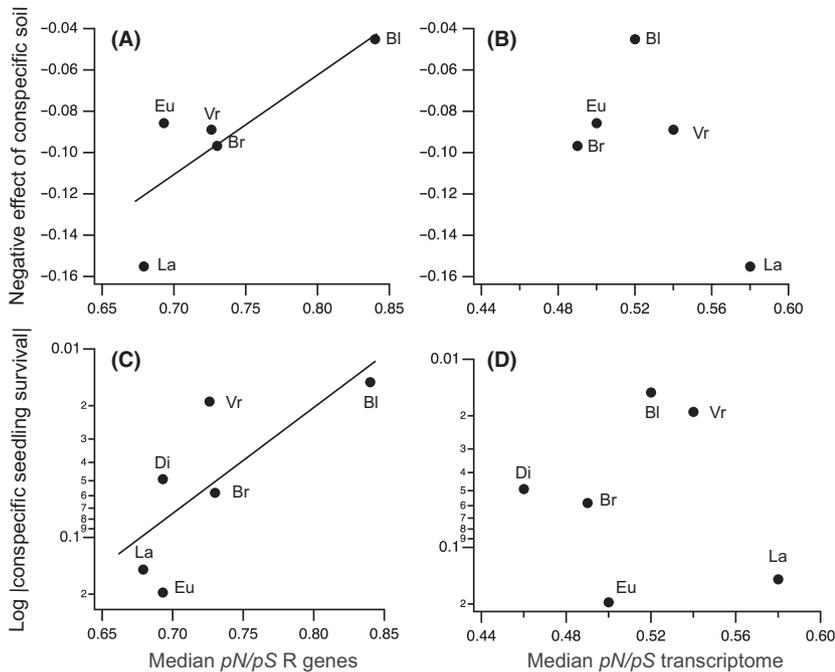


Fig. 4 Association of tree species genetic diversity with independent measures of the negative effect on growth caused by (A, B) inoculation of conspecific soil [vertical axis shows data from (Mangan *et al.* 2010)] in a shade-house experiment (that did not include *Dipteryx*) and (C, D) negative conspecific effects (shown here as increasingly positive numbers to accommodate log transformation) on survival of naturally occurring seedlings [vertical axis shows data from (Comita *et al.* 2010)]. All data shown here involve material from the same tropical forest site. Note that these indices of NDD are associated with relative abundance of nonsynonymous polymorphism in R genes (A, C), but not in the remainder of the transcriptome (B, D).

colonization of roots by fungi after exposure to a standardized mixture of live soil. This soil was collected in such a way that it contained the diverse community of microbes naturally associated with our study species (Fig. S1 in Appendix S1; Table S7a,b in Appendix S2).

There were 35 putatively pathogenic fungal taxa that passed the threshold for gene number and mean increase following live soil inoculation (Table S7a in Appendix S2); these showed fairly little overlap among tree species. Among-cohort variability in colonization by these potentially pathogenic fungi was significantly different among tree species ($P = 0.02$; Table S7c in Appendix S2), and decreased significantly with decreasing pN/pS of R genes ($R^2 = 0.65$, one-tailed $P = 0.05$; Fig. 5A). Such a relationship is expected when different maternal cohorts of seedlings share more of the same R gene alleles and are therefore sensitive to the same pathogens (presumably strains contained within these OTUs). Among-cohort variability in colonization by saprophytic fungi (Table S7b in Appendix S2) also differed significantly among tree species ($P = 0.002$; Table S7d in Appendix S2), but in a manner unrelated to pN/pS of R genes ($P = 0.95$, here a two-tailed test because there is no directional prediction for the way tree immune gene diversity should affect fungi feeding extracellularly on dead tissue).

We did not design the experiment to measure tree species differences in overall microbial diversity or level of colonization. Differences in plant RNA abundance and/or the surface/volume ratio of roots should affect the relative abundance of plant vs. nonplant RNA in

the samples and therefore the detectability of fungi. For this reason, we have not attempted analyses of total fungal colonization or diversity.

Variation in ability to activate immune responses

As a consequence of having reduced diversity of R genes, tree species that are locally less abundant should show reduced ability to recognize particular pathogen strains and mount physiological defences. To test for such deficits arising from R gene diversity while also testing the alternative hypothesis that smaller local populations have reduced physiological capability to mount responses (due to potential factors such as inbreeding or reduced adaptation to the local environment), we applied a SA root soak treatment to examine expression of a large and diverse set of pathogenesis-related (PR) genes (e.g. chitinases, peroxidases; Table S8a,b in Appendix S2) that act downstream of R gene detection and attack microbes [(Shah 2003; Loon *et al.* 2006); a foot-soldier role as opposed to the sentinel role of R genes]. Compared with untreated controls, PR gene expression after the SA root soak treatment was significantly upregulated ($P < 0.0001$; Table S8c in Appendix S2), but in a manner unrelated to transcriptome-wide genetic diversity, local population size or NDD (Table S8d–g in Appendix S2). We therefore found no evidence that locally rare species were less able to activate defence genes in response to an exogenously applied defence-signalling hormone (SA) that acts downstream of R genes. This finding

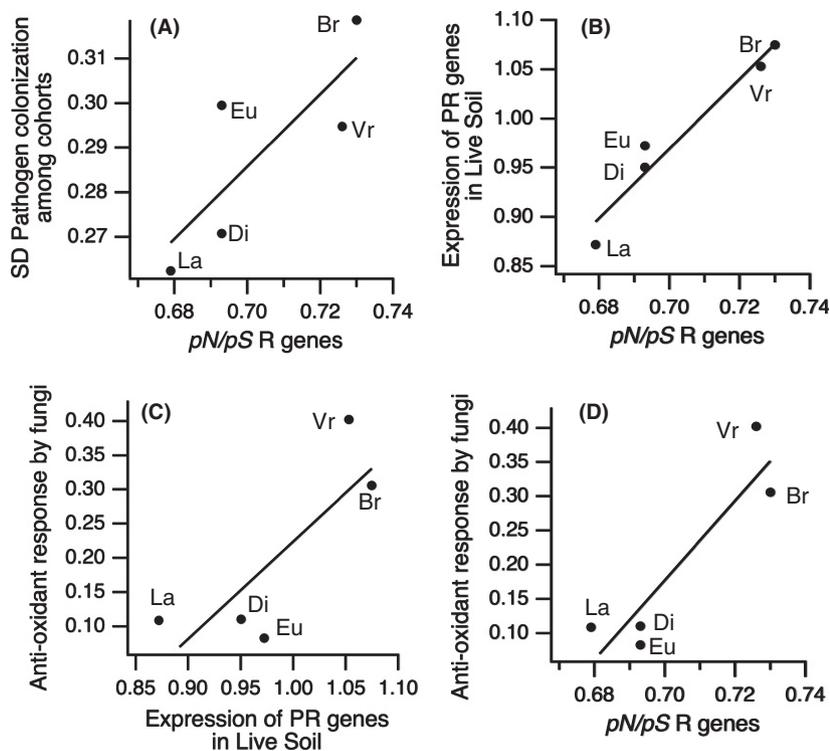


Fig. 5 (A) Association between relative abundance of nonsynonymous polymorphism (median pN/pS) of R genes and the cosusceptibility of maternal seedling cohorts to colonization by pathogenic fungi (Table S8c in Appendix S2). (B) Expression of pathogenesis-related (PR) genes ($N = 592$; Table S9a,i in Appendix S2) in roots after live soil inoculation, in relation to median pN/pS of R genes. (C) Fungal self-defence gene expression (antioxidant enzymes, $N = 799$; Table S10a–c in Appendix S2) in relation to the expression of host tree PR genes after live soil inoculation and (D) the median pN/pS of host tree R genes. As explained in the main text, *Beilschmiedia pendula* is missing from this analysis because it had too few fallen seeds not killed by insects to permit the live soil treatment.

strongly suggests that rare species were not deficient in their physiological ability to mount inducible defence responses, as can result from inbreeding (Du *et al.* 2008) or reduced adaptation to the local environment. Tree species did, however, differ in defence responses after exposure to live soil. When we controlled for response to SA (each gene's potential to be upregulated), the protein-coding diversity of R genes (pN/pS) explained variation in the expression of PR genes (Table S8i in Appendix S2) after live soil inoculation (one-tailed $P = 0.009$; species means shown in Fig. 5B). Increased R gene allelic diversity was therefore positively associated with the ability to detect diverse pathogenic fungi present in soil and activate inducible defence responses.

Defence gene activation affected root-associated microbes

To verify that species differences in PR gene expression affected plant–microbe interactions, we quantified countermeasures enacted by root-associated fungi. Fungi defend themselves (Molina & Kahmann 2007; Chung 2012) against peroxides and other oxidative plant defences by upregulating antioxidant genes (Chen *et al.* 2003) (Table S9a,b in Appendix S2). When challenged with live soil, root-associated fungi in tree species with higher PR gene expression and higher normalized

protein-coding diversity of R genes had higher relative expression of antioxidant genes (median expression level of fungal antioxidant genes vs. all other detected fungal genes, Table S9c in Appendix S2; one-tailed $P = 0.047$, 0.02 , respectively; Fig. 5C–D). This result indicates that plants better able to detect pathogens and mount defence responses provoked more self-defence in their root-associated fungi.

Variation in a whole-plant immune-related phenotype: root growth arrest

It was recently discovered that an R gene in *Arabidopsis* triggers, in an allele-specific fashion, an SA-independent root growth arrest in response to soil-borne pathogens (Kim *et al.* 2012; Kunz *et al.* 2016). This is presumably a temporary growth arrest while the immune system is activated and fighting an infection. To determine whether tropical tree seedlings also undergo an acute root growth arrest, we examined the final root mass of seedlings from the three different soil treatments (Table S10a in Appendix S2). Roots from control and SA-treated soil did not differ in size ($P = 0.53$), but roots from the live soil treatment were significantly smaller (Table S10a,b in Appendix S2; $P = 0.04$) and the effect varied significantly among species (a species*soil treatment interaction, $P = 0.035$). As the live soil was applied 1 week prior to harvest, growth arrest during

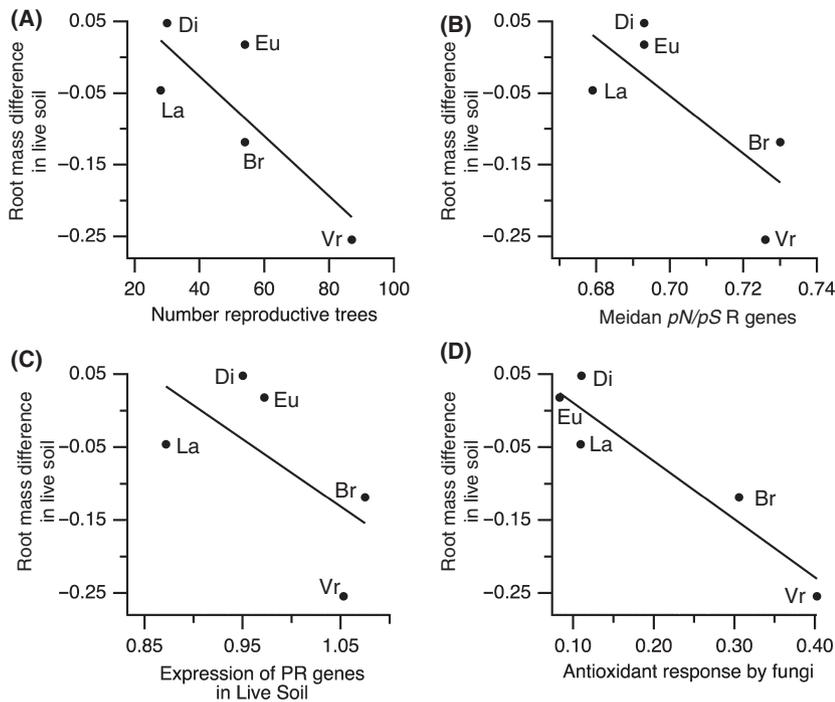


Fig. 6 Magnitude of root growth arrest (estimated from the difference in mean \log_{10} -transformed seedling root mass in live soil treatments compared with the mean of control and SA treatments (Table S11a,b in Appendix S2) compared with (A) local population size, (B) median-normalized amino acid coding diversity of R genes, (C) induction of pathogen response (PR) genes in response to live soil inoculation, and (D) induction of self-defence (antioxidant genes) by root-associated fungi.

this time was apparently sufficient to measurably reduce the final mass of the live soil-treated roots. Given the significant species*treatment interaction, we examined this phenotype from the perspective of population size, R gene diversity and molecular-level immune responses. As predicted based on the known R gene mediation of the phenotype, the magnitude of root growth arrest (Fig. 6) increased with population size (one-tailed $P = 0.02$), R gene diversity (one-tailed $P = 0.07$), PR gene induction by live soil (one-tailed $P = 0.04$) and induction of fungal self-defence (antioxidant gene expression) following live soil treatment (one-tailed $P = 0.008$). Hence, tree species that were more abundant, R gene diverse and immunologically responsive showed correspondingly more extreme root growth arrest following exposure to live soil, consistent with the hypothesis that those species have a greater ability to detect and respond to diverse microbes.

Potentially additive effects of R gene number

These focal tree species varied widely in their number and orthogroup distribution of R genes (Table 2), apparently as a result of evolutionarily independent expansions and contractions of different R gene families (Fig. S5d in Appendix S2). In addition to allelic diversity, R gene number (Michelmore & Meyers 1998) may be another axis for variation in immune function [along with epistatic effects of alleles at multiple loci (Saucet *et al.* 2015)]. Our present sample has limited power for

testing species-level effects of multiple independent variables, but there are hints of support for the hypothesis that R gene protein-coding diversity and gene number have additive effects. Negative soil feedback, cosusceptibility to pathogens and PR gene expression after live soil inoculation had marginal associations with R gene number in models that included normalized R gene amino acid diversity (Table S11 in Appendix S2). Results from additional species will be required to rigorously determine whether R gene coding diversity combines with R gene number to affect pathogen resistance and NDD.

Discussion

Seedlings from local populations of a taxonomically diverse sample of tree species on the BCI 50-ha Forest Dynamics Plot in Panama had reduced levels of non-synonymous polymorphism in R genes and differed in a number of immune-related traits. In controlled and replicated experiments, maternal cohorts of species with reduced protein-coding diversity of R genes (normalized for neutral divergence) were more cosusceptible to colonization by putatively pathogenic fungi. Higher cosusceptibility is likely to increase the density-dependent transmission of pathogens among neighbouring seedlings. In support of that hypothesis, we found that normalized protein-coding diversity of R genes also explained prior results showing that rarer species in this community have stronger negative effects of

conspecific soil (Mangan *et al.* 2010) and conspecific density-dependent seedling mortality (Comita *et al.* 2010).

Species differences in cosusceptibility covaried with a other immune-related traits. One of these was the induction of pathogenesis-related (PR) genes, which respond to signalling initiated by R genes and affect the outcome of plant–pathogen interactions (Loon *et al.* 2006). In roots exposed to live soil, PR gene induction was positively related to the coding diversity of R genes, an association that disappeared when we bypassed R gene function experimentally by applying salicylic acid (SA), a hormone that acts downstream of R genes to activate PR gene expression (Shah 2003). Upregulated PR genes included peroxides, so to verify effects on plant–microbe interactions we examined the induction of antioxidant self-defence genes in host-associated fungi after roots were exposed to live soil. Fungal antioxidant genes were upregulated in proportion to both soil-induced PR gene expression and R gene coding diversity. An R gene-mediated morphological phenotype, root growth arrest (Kim *et al.* 2012; Kunz *et al.* 2016), was also tightly associated with R gene coding diversity, and induction of both PR genes after live soil inoculation and antioxidant gene expression in root-associated fungi. Together, these results connect the coding diversity of R genes with ability of tree seedlings to mount immune responses and defend against potentially pathogenic soil microbes and provide a coherent mechanistic hypothesis to explain the relationship between abundance in the community and pathogen-mediated negative effects from conspecifics.

If reduced R gene protein-coding diversity in smaller local populations is a general characteristic of tropical tree communities, the relationship may arise as follows. Long-term diversifying selection caused by co-evolution with species-specific pathogens causes R gene loci to be unusually diverse (Rose *et al.* 2004; Bakker *et al.* 2006), but founding and drift in small local populations causes an especially strong stochastic loss of diversity in the most allele-rich genes (Allendorf 1986). This outcome has previously been observed for self-incompatibility genes, despite strong reductions in fitness (Young & Pickup 2010), and is further supported by our simulation of a random downsample from a large collection of R gene haplotypes (Fig. S3a in Appendix S2).

Both the absolute (pN) and normalized (pN/pS) protein-coding diversity of R genes increased with local population size. In evolutionary biology, changes in pN/pS are often interpreted as variation in the strength of purifying selection. However, protein-coding polymorphism in R genes affects immune function and is subject to diversifying selection. Also, unlike small populations on, for example oceanic islands, there is no

evidence or reason to expect that these tree species have long existed regionally at relative abundances similar to those presently observed on the BCI Forest Dynamics Plot. The isthmus of Panama was not completely formed until 3 mya (O’Dea *et al.* 2016) and more recent glaciation affected climate and most likely the composition of tree communities (Bush & Colinvaux 1990). Hence, for reasons involving both the ecological setting and the stronger effect that small population size has on allelic representation at diversified vs. ordinary loci, long-term evolutionary change need not play any role in these results, other than setting the stage by creating highly diversified sets of alleles at R gene loci.

Although our results are supported by multiple lines of evidence, they are based on a sample size of six species (further limited in live soil treatments to five species). Furthermore, associations relating local population size and R gene diversity to immune-related phenotypes were not overwhelmingly strong (typically one-tailed P values ~ 0.05). Note, however, that the two-tailed probability of observing, by chance, a consistent directional association between local population size, R gene coding diversity and six independently measured immune-related phenotypes is $0.5^7 = 0.008$. Hence, the aggregated results are strong within this sample, but data from additional species will be required to confirm a general relationship between local population size of trees and the ability to respond to and resist diverse pathogens. A previous study of genetic diversity in seedlings from eight species on the BCI Forest Dynamics Plot, including two of the same species sampled here, found similar results: allelic diversity increased with local abundance, and ‘maternal trees of species in high densities receive pollen from several individuals, while low-density species get a larger proportion of their pollen from a few individuals’ (Hamrick & Murawski 1990). This concordance with the present results hints at generality, as does the community-wide relationship between abundance and NDD (Comita *et al.* 2010). Our sample of 5–6 tree species is equal to the number of mammal species ($N = 5$) initially shown to suffer increased infectious disease severity after a population bottleneck (O’Brien & Evermann 1988) and used commonly to illustrate ecological effects of reduced immunological diversity.

Connecting plant immunity, population size, genetic diversity and NDD

Here, we place our results in the context of landscape and community ecology to explicitly point out ecological implications and discuss how conclusions from this initial study can be tested in future work. We found that small local populations with limited connectivity to

a regional metapopulation had reduced R gene allelic diversity, decreased defence gene induction downstream of R gene surveillance and increased cosusceptibility of related neighbouring plants to species-specific fungal pathogens. Greater cosusceptibility of less abundant species to their own co-evolving pathogens was associated with stronger negative effects of conspecific soil and NDD, which, according to prior studies, causes lower equilibrium abundances in the community (Mangan *et al.* 2010; Chisholm & Muller-Landau 2011; Yenni *et al.* 2012; Mack & Bever 2014). Importantly, strong stabilizing effects of NDD due to interactions between plants and their specialized pathogens can prevent the local extinction of rare species. The likelihood of a species increasing its local equilibrium abundance should be favoured by immigration of additional R gene alleles through long-distance dispersal of pollen or seeds from the larger regional pool (Dlugosch & Parker 2008), a possibility that may be restricted in the case of regionally rare or uncommon species. For most species, local NDD should be related to local abundance rather than being a species-level trait, making local communities unique and potentially dynamic in terms of species differences in pathogen transmission and ability to tolerate high conspecific density. In other words, a locally rare species may be more common in other areas of its range, with different levels of R gene polymorphism and NDD in different-sized local populations. Herein lies a critical test of the hypothesis; the species examined here should differ in predictable ways when sampled in other locations where they differ in abundance in the local community.

Comparable results in other systems

Reduction in genetic diversity important for pathogen recognition can in principle occur in any wild plant species with spatial genetic structure and small local populations. Comparable genome-scale ecological studies are not available for comparison, but two recent landscape-scale studies of variation in plant-pathogen interactions support this conclusion. In the temperate herb *Plantago*, local populations are resistant to some strains of a fungus (collected across a metapopulation), but susceptible to others, and the most isolated plant populations have the highest average susceptibility (Jousimo *et al.* 2014). Note that this is different from uniformly reduced disease resistance as might be expected from inbreeding (Hoffman *et al.* 2014) while matching exactly what we would predict from the present study, as the least-connected populations (fewest immigrants) should undergo the strongest erosion of R gene allelic diversity at the time of founding and have a more restricted set of pollen donors in subsequent

generations. Similarly, in two subtropical tree species, survival of seedlings exposed to soil from different conspecific populations increased with spatial and genetic distance, but those effects disappeared after soil treatment with a fungicide (Liu *et al.* 2012). We suggest that reduced R gene allelic diversity of isolated *Plantago* populations and reduced R gene allelic similarity between more distant tree populations may underlie the observed susceptibility differences in those studies.

A wealth of knowledge from agricultural systems provide further support: when crop plants with low R gene diversity are grown at high density in monospecific stands, intensive chemical inputs, including antifungals, are needed to counteract rapid pathogen transmission and prevent crop loss (Dangl *et al.* 2013), but mixed cropping of different genotypes of a single crop with different sensitivities to a pathogen can result in complete control and maintenance of health and yield (Mundt 2002) [a likely example of herd immunity (Fine *et al.* 2011)]. Crops can be rescued by breeding or transgenic manipulations that incorporate particular R gene alleles conferring resistance against virulent pathogen strains (Saintenac *et al.* 2013). Compared with agricultural systems, the molecular biology of plant-pathogen interactions in natural plant communities has received little attention [but see Karasov *et al.* (2014)].

Final thoughts

This study reveals possible connections between genetics and ecological dynamics of tropical trees. However, all of the time, effort and resources required to generate these data ultimately boiled down to single metrics per species, as required to make inferences about communities. Results so far provide impetus to increase the sample size of species (presently in progress) and to compare the same target species in additional communities where they differ in local abundance. In time, these studies may contribute to a growing body of work [e.g. Laine *et al.* (2011); Barrett & Heil (2012)] from wild plant populations indicating that genetic interactions between plant species and their pathogens play an important role in shaping natural communities. Further examination of these processes may bridge the gap between molecular evolution studies that indicate ongoing selection for multiple resistance alleles at many loci, and how this diversity functions in nature.

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JHM, LSC, SAM and CWD designed the project, obtained funding and wrote the manuscript. SAM directed seed collection, seedling growth and tissue collection. CWD directed transcriptome assembly and analyses. MPP helped conceive and wrote custom R scripts for expression and polymorphism analyses. EW wrote scripts and performed transcriptome assemblies, RNA-seq, sequence annotation, and orthogroup analyses. HWF performed RNA isolations, quality control and prepared RNA for sequencing. JPD designed orthology analyses and classification methods for R genes, and assisted with transcriptome processing and analysis. JHM analyzed the processed data, with input from MPP and LSC. All authors contributed to discussing the results and editing the manuscript.

Data accessibility

Sequence data are archived the NCBI Short Read Archive, SRA accession: SRP079907, Temporary Submission ID: SUB1719928, Release date: 2017-01-31 (or upon publication).

Supporting information

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

Appendix S1 Methods.

Appendix S2 Results.

Appendix S3 Transcriptomics analyses details.