

Genotypic variation in a foundation tree alters ecological network structure of an associated community

Matthew K. Lau^{a,b,1}, Louis J. Lamit^b, Rikke R. Naesbourg^c, Stuart R. Borrett^d, Matthew A. Bowker^e, and Thomas G. Whitham^a

^aDepartment of Biological Sciences and Merriam-Powell Center for Environmental Research, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, AZ 86011, USA; ^bHarvard Forest, Harvard University, 324 N Main St, Petersham, MA 01366, USA; ^cDepartment of Biology, Syracuse University, 107 College Place Syracuse, NY 13244, USA; ^eUniversity of California Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA; ^fDepartment of Biology and Marine Biology, University of North Carolina Wilmington, 601 South College Road, Wilmington, NC, 28403, USA; ^gSchool of Forestry, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, AZ 86011, USA

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1 Biological evolution occurs in the context of complex networks of
2 interacting species in which natural selection defines the structure
3 of ecological networks. Fundamental to this evolutionary process
4 is the discovery of a genetic basis to ecological network structure.
5 Although previous work has demonstrated that tree genotype con-
6 tributes to interaction network structure at the scale of forest stands,
7 the contribution of tree genetics to localized interaction networks
8 at the scale of individual trees has not yet been explored. To test
9 the degree to which tree genetics can contribute to network struc-
10 ture we conducted quantitative modeling of interaction networks. We
11 constructed networks of epiphytic lichen associated with individual
12 trees that were a part of a long-term experimental common garden
13 of genotypes of (*Populus angustifolia*), a foundation species. We
14 found three main results. First, tree genotype significantly predicted
15 lichen network similarity, i.e. trees of the same genotype had more
16 similar lichen networks. Second, bark roughness and condensed
17 tannin concentration were both predicted by tree genotype and cor-
18 related with lichen network similarity. Third, the network metrics, the
19 number of links and centrality, were both correlated with several tree
20 traits, including bark roughness and condensed tannin concentra-
21 tion. We conclude that tree genotype influences lichen interaction
22 network structure with two potential pathways through bark rough-
23 ness and condensed tannin concentration. These results provide
24 evidence that variation in ecological networks can result from genet-
25 ically based variation in foundation species.

networks | heritability | community | genetics | lichen | cottonwood |
Populus | common garden

- 1 Evolution occurs in complex ecosystems
- 2 Community genetics studies have demonstrated
3 the importance of genetics and evolutionary dynamics in structuring communities and ecosystems
- 4 Community composition, ecosystem processes have been shown to vary in response to the genetic variation of foundation species
- 5 Previous studies have examined aspects of networks but to date, no studies have examined the genetic basis of networks of interacting species
- 6 Here we examine the genetic basis of network structure on a community of sessile lignicolous

(i.e. bark) lichen on cottonwood trees. This system is ideal for examining for this kind of study because it:

- 1 Lichen do not move among trees, although
2 asexual propagules could move to other
3 trees in the garden
- 4 Is not unapproachably complex
- 5 Is comprised of distinct individuals that
6 are small enough for an entire community
7 to occur on a single tree but not too small
8 to be quantified easily

Significance Statement

Evolution occurs in the context of ecosystems comprised of complex ecological networks. Research at the interface of ecology and evolution has primarily focused on pairwise interactions among species and have rarely included a genetic component to analyses. Here, we use a long-term common garden experiment to reveal the effect that genotypic variation can have on networks of lichens that occur on the bark of a foundation tree species. We found that lichen interaction network structure is genetically based and is correlated with heritable bark traits, including roughness and condensed tannins. These findings demonstrate the importance of genetic variation and evolutionary dynamics in shaping ecological networks as evolved traits.

M.L. and L.L. conceived the study, M.L. and L.L. conducted the field work, R.N. assisted in lichen identifications, M.L. wrote the first draft of the manuscript, S.B. and T.W. contributed substantively to the conceptual development, T.W. established the common garden. All authors contributed to revisions of the manuscript.

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¹Dr. Matthew K. Lau. E-mail: matthewklau@fas.harvard.edu

- 25 • We hypothesize that trees will vary in some
 26 phenotypic traits, such that trees of the same
 27 genotype will tend to have similar traits produc-
 28 ing similarities in lichen network structure. To
 29 test this hypothesis, we use a common garden
 30 of cottonwood trees with lichen communities.

31 **E**volution occurs in the context of complex eco-
 32 logical networks. Initially, evolution in a com-
 33 munity context was focused on examples of highly
 34 co-evolved pairs of species (e.g. Darwin's famous
 35 prediction of the Sphinx Moth and Christmas
 36 Orchid) citeWade2007. However, studies of dif-
 37 fuse co-evolution (*sensu* citeJanzen1980) citeStinch-
 38 combe2002, Strauss2007, Dicke2010, geographic mo-
 39 saics of co-evolution citeThompson2005 and com-
 40 munity genetics citeWhitham2006 have provided an
 41 in-road for ecological network approaches citeFor-
 42 tuna2009, Keith2017, Lau2016 to illuminate a more
 43 complex perspective of the interface between eco-
 44 logical and evolutionary dynamics. There is now
 45 evidence to support that selection tends to occur
 46 among groups of species citeWade2007, Pieterse2007,
 47 Dicke2010 favoring the development of small webs
 48 citeNuismer2006, Guimaraes2007, Gomez2009 and
 49 that genetic variation and phylogenetic relatedness
 50 contributes to variation in community assembly (1)
 51 and species interactions citeWhitham2006a, Bai-
 52 ley2009, Moya-Larano2011, which shapes the eco-
 53 logical interaction networks (2).

54 Community genetics studies (3) have shown that
 55 genetic variation in foundation species (4) plays a
 56 significant role in defining distinct communities of in-
 57 teracting organisms: such as, endophytes, pathogens,
 58 lichens, arthropods, and soil microbes. Multiple stud-
 59 ies have now demonstrated that genetic variation
 60 influences numerous functional traits (e.g., phyto-
 61 chemical, phenological, morphological) produces a
 62 multivariate phenotype (5) that contributes to varia-
 63 tion in associated communities (6). The importance
 64 of genetic variation in structuring ecological systems
 65 was recently reviewed by Des Roches et al. (2018).

66 Additional work has provided support for the hy-
 67 pothesis that not only does composition vary among
 68 genetically distinct genotypes of foundation species,
 69 it also impacts the structure of the network of species
 70 interactions in these communities. Two studies have
 71 demonstrated conceptually (7) and empirically (8).
 72 However, studies in the network ecology literature
 73 generally do not include a genetic component (see

74 review by Borrett et al. 2014) and community genet-
 75 ics papers do not have data on network structure of
 76 associated communities. Currently, we are aware of
 77 only one paper that empirically examines the genetic
 78 basis of network structure of a community citeBar-
 79 bour2019.

80 Here, we investigate how genetic variation in a
 81 foundation tree species determines the structure of a
 82 network of interactions among a community of tree
 83 associated lichen species. Using a long-term (20+
 84 years), common garden experiment with replicated
 85 individuals of known genetic identity and a naturally
 86 established stand of *Populus angustifolia*. We focused
 87 on a model community of 9 epiphytic lichen species,
 88 as previous research has demonstrated significant
 89 compositional responses of epiphytes to genotypic
 90 variation (9, 10). In addition, the life-history char-
 91 acteristics of lichens, having highly localized, direct
 92 contact interactions and slow population turnover
 93 rates, allowed us to assess interactions among lichen
 94 species on individual trees. We hypothesize that in
 95 natural systems evolution occurs in a community
 96 context involving interactions of complex networks
 97 of interacting species (7, 8, 11, 12). If correct, we
 98 expect to find that network structure is genetically
 99 based in which different plant genotypes support
 100 different interaction networks and that these interac-
 101 tions networks can function as indicators of ecologi-
 102 cal dynamics important for conserving biodiveristy.
 103 Applying a probability-theory based network mod-
 104 eling approach, we constructed a set of interaction
 105 network models for the lichens associated with indi-
 106 vidual trees. Using these models, we then examined
 107 the genetic basis of the structure of these ecological
 108 networks.

Materials and Methods

109 The study was conducted along the Weber River, UT
 110 (USA), which is a cottonwood (*Populus* spp.) dominated
 111 riparian ecosystem. Although two native species, *Populus*
 112 *angustifolia* (James) and *Populus fremontii* (S. Watson),
 113 occur here and are known to hybridize, only pure or
 114 advanced generation backcrosses of *P. angustifolia* were
 115 sampled. Bark lichens have been extensively studied
 116 in this system and provide an ideal system in which to
 117 observe and model lichen interaction networks, as their
 118 sessile nature permits accurate identification of individuals
 119 (13).

120 A long-term, common garden experiment was used
 121

123 to isolate the effect of tree genotype from the effect of
124 the localized microenvironment associated with each individual
125 and spatial autocorrelation. Established in 1992,
126 asexually propagated clones of genotyped *P. angustifolia*
127 individuals were obtained from wild collections and
128 planted in fully randomized design at the Ogden Nature
129 Center, Ogden, UT. From the population of established
130 individuals in the common garden, we chose a total of
131 thirteen genotypes, replicated between 3 and 8 times each,
132 for sampling.

133 **Bark Lichen Observations.** On each tree, presence or absence
134 of each lichen species was assessed in 50 total 1 cm²
135 cells arrayed in a checkerboard pattern. Given the small
136 size and sessile nature of lichens, we were able to rapidly
137 assess lichen interactions by quantifying thalli in close
138 contact. Sampling was restricted to the northern aspect
139 of the trunk to maximize the abundance of lichen and
140 control for the effect of trunk aspect. Two adjacent 10
141 cm² quadrats centered at 50 cm and 85 cm from ground
142 level were sampled (Fig 1 A and B). The observed lichen
143 community included (abbreviations are given for species
144 present in study): Xg = *Xanthomendoza galericulata*, Xm
145 = *X. montana*, Ch = *Caloplaca holocarpa*, Cs = *Candeliella subdeflexa*, Rg = *Rinodina glauca*, Lh = *Lecanora hagenii*, Pm = *Phyciella melanchra*, Pa = *Physcia adscendens*, Pu = *Physcia undulata*. Several other species were
149 not observed in the present study but are known to occur
150 in this region: *Phaeophyscia orbicularis*, *Phaeophyscia ciliata*, *Melanelia sublivacea*, *Meanelia elegantula*.

152 The cell size and checkerboard sampling pattern was
153 chosen to isolate the individuals in each cell. In a previous
154 survey of lichen thallus size in this common garden, we
155 had observed a median thallus size of 0.12 ± 0.001 cm² (1
156 S.E.) (see Supporting Information). Based on the median
157 thallus size, we expected thalli observed in each cell to
158 generally be spatially independent of thalli present in
159 other cells but exposed to similar micro-environmental
160 conditions created by the bark and the location of the
161 sampling area on an individual tree. Therefore, we were
162 confident in treating the cell-wise observations in quadrats
163 as independent with respect to lichen-lichen interactions.

164 We also measured several bark traits for each tree:
165 including, bark roughness and chemistry. **INSERT
166 FROM LAMIT.**

167 **Lichen Network Modeling and Analysis.** For each tree,
168 repeated observations of lichen were made in order to construct
169 replicated interaction networks for each genotype.
170 We quantified the presence of lichen in the 1 cm² cells on
171 individual trees of *P. angustifolia*. Unipartite networks
172 were generated using the conditional probabilities of each
173 species pair, i.e. the probability of observing one species
174 given an observation of another species $P(S_i|S_j)$, based on
175 the method developed by (14). To calculate conditional
176 probabilities, we quantified the individual probabilities

177 of species occurrences $P(S_i)$ and the joint probability
178 of co-occurrences $P(S_i, S_j)$ using the frequencies of each
179 species and their co-occurrences. We were then able to
180 calculate the conditional probabilities of each species pair
181 as $P(S_i|S_j) = \frac{P(S_i, S_j)}{P(S_j)}$, based on the axioms of probability.
182 This yielded a matrix that could possibly be asymmetric, i.e.
183 $P(S_i|S_j)$ does not have to be equal to $P(S_j|S_i)$. Another
184 important property of this matrix is that the diagonal
185 (S_{ii}) was equal to one for all species present and zero for
186 species that were not observed in any cell.

187 We then applied an analytical procedure to remove
188 non-significant links between species. This procedure
189 determines if the joint probability of a species pair
190 (i.e. $P(S_i, S_j)$) is different from zero (Fig. 2). Here, a
191 confidence interval $CI_{95\%}$ is calculated as $CI_{95\%} =$
192 $E[S_i S_j] * Z_{95\%} * \sqrt{V(S_i S_j)}$, where the expected
193 frequency of co-occurrences $E(S_i S_j)$ is the total number
194 of cells surveyed (N) times the independent probabilities
195 of each species $P(S_i) * P(S_j)$, $Z_{95\%}$ is the Z-score
196 for 95% from a Z-distribution and the expected variance
197 of $E(S_i S_j)$ is the total number of cells times the
198 expected probability of $S_i S_j$ and its compliment (i.e.
199 $V(S_i S_j) = N * E[P(S_i, S_j)] * (1 - E[P(S_i, S_j)])$). If the
200 observed number of co-occurrence falls outside of the
201 confidence interval, the joint probability $P(S_i, S_j)$ is de-
202 termined to be equal to the product of the individual
203 probabilities (i.e. $P(S_i) * P(S_j)$), and the conditional prob-
204 ability reduces to the individual probability of that species
205 $P(S_i)$. Therefore, unless the co-occurrence of a species
206 pair falls outside the confidence interval, the probabil-
207 ity that the observation of one species given the other
208 is no different than simply observing that species alone.
209 This enables us to remove links from a given network by
210 re-scaling the resulting conditional probabilities by sub-
211 tracting the individual probabilities from the conditional
212 probabilities (i.e. how different the conditional probability
213 is from the independent probability), which makes any
214 species with a non-significant conditional probability zero.
215 The resulting matrix ($\mathbf{D} = D_{ij}$) can be interpreted as
216 how one species impacts another with zero being no effect
217 and values less than or greater than zero interpreted as
218 negative and positive effects, respectively. Here, we will
219 refer to this matrix (\mathbf{D}) as an interaction matrix with
220 the properties that it can be asymmetric (i.e. P_{ij} does not
221 necessarily equal P_{ji}), and the diagonal (P_{ii}) is zero (i.e.
222 a species does not influence its own probability of being
223 observed).

224 **Network Metrics.** To quantify the structural variation of
225 lichen networks we calculated several metrics at both
226 the node and whole-network level. For individual nodes
227 (i.e. species) in each network, we calculated both the
228 degree Eq. (1) and the centrality. We also calculated two
229 similar global network metrics: degree and centralization.
230 The first was network degree, which is a count of the
231 total number of links in a network. As the networks



Fig. 1. The communities of bark lichens were observed in a common garden of replicated genotypes of narrowleaf cottonwood trees (*P. angustifolia*) at the Ogden Nature Center (Ogden, UT). Lichens were sampled within a fixed area (10 cm^2) on individual trees at two heights, 40cm and 80cm from the ground (A and B, respectively). (C) a photo of a typical community of bark lichen species interacting on the trunk of a cottonwood tree, including one of the more abundant species, *Xanthomendoza galericulata*, in the center. (D-K) shows the other lichen species observed, respectively: *X. montana*, *Candelariella subdeflexa*, *Rinodina* sp., *Caloplaca holocarpa*, *Physcia adscendens*, *Phyciella melanchra*, *Physcia undulata* and *Lecanora hagenii*. Photo Credits: L.J. Lamit (A-C) and R.R. Naesbour (D-K).

232 contained not only positive and negative connections,
 233 as well as directional connections (both in-coming and
 234 out-going), we calculated the same network metrics for
 235 all combinations of these types of connections in each
 236 network. Although there are many more possible network
 237 metrics that could have been examined, we chose to focus
 238 on a restricted set for the sake of clarity. Also, degree
 239 and centrality cover are the basis of many other network
 240 metrics.

241 ADD EQUATIONS FOR METRICS

$$242 \sum x_i$$

[1]

- 243 • Node degree
 244 • In/out node degree
 245 • Pos/neg node degree
 246 • Node centrality
 247 • In/out node centrality
 248 • Pos/neg centrality
 249 • Network degree

- Network in/out degree
- Network pos/neg degree
- Centralization
- In/out centralization
- Pos/neg centralization

Statistical Analyses, Software and Data. We used a combination of parametric and non-parametric, permutation based frequentist statistical analyses to test for the effects of genetic variation on lichen communities and their interaction networks. To assess the effect of genotype on univariate responses, we used additive, random effects models with Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML). We used a combination of Least Squares Regression, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and correlation tests to quantify and test for the relationship among other variables. Bark roughness, lichen cover and species richness were square-root transformed to meet the assumptions of homogeneity of variance and normality for these tests.

For multivariate response variables, such as lichen community composition and network structure, we used distance based multivariate statistical approaches, including



Fig. 2. Lichen interaction networks were constructed by conducting field observations in 1 cm^2 cells within a 10 cm^2 grid on each tree using a checkerboard pattern (grey cells). Thus, a set of N total cell observations were recorded for each tree with the presence or absence of each species recorded for each cell. Applying the probability-based network modeling method adapted from (14), we calculated the conditional probabilities, $P(S_i | S_j)$, for all species pairs and removed (i.e. set equal to zero) species pairs whose joint probabilities, $P(S_i S_j)$, were not significant using a confidence interval based comparison of their observed co-occurrence frequency, $S_i S_j$, to that expected due to chance alone, $E[P(S_i S_j)] = P(S_i) P(S_j)$, and $P(S_i | S_j)$ reduces to $P(S_i)$, the observed individual probability of species S_i . In the context of these networks, asymmetry and positive/negative valued connections are distinct quantities. In-coming and out-going connections can be interpreted as “influenced by” and “influenced”, respectively; while positive and negative should be seen as one species increasing or decreasing, respectively, the probability of another species’ occurrence.

271 Permutational Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) and
 272 Mantel tests. For some analyses, community composition
 273 was relativized by species maxima to reduce the effect
 274 of the highly abundant *X. galericulata*. For community
 275 composition we used Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, which has
 276 optimal performance with count data citepMinchen1998.
 277 To quantify the similarity of lichen networks among indi-
 278 vidual trees, we calculated the pairwise Euclidean distance
 279 of the **D** interaction matrices among all pairs of trees.

280 For visualization of multivariate patterns, we used Non-
 281 metric Multi-Dimensional Scaling (NMDS) citeecodist
 282 to produce dimensionally reduced ordinations of these
 283 multi-variate responses and fitted vectors for continuous
 284 predictor variables to the ordinated values citevegan.
 285 Using random initial configurations with a maximum of 500
 286 iterations and a change in stress threshold of less than
 287 10^{-12} . Final configurations has the lowest stress with at

most a stress level of 0.10.

288 For each network, we also calculated metrics that mea-
 289 sure different structural aspects. Although there are many
 290 other metrics, for the sake of simplicity we focus on a sub-
 291 set that represent several interesting features of network
 292 structure (see (15)). We calculated the number of interac-
 293 tions or “links” in each network, which provides a measure
 294 of the size of the network citepLau2015, Borrett2014. We
 295 also calculated the centralization of each network, which
 296 measures the evenness of the distribution of interactions
 297 among the species in the network citeButts2005. In a net-
 298 work with a low level of centralization species have similar
 299 amount of interaction in the network, while a network
 300 with a high level of centralization tends to have one or
 301 small number of species that interact with other species.
 302 We used a related function to calculate the centrality of
 303 each species (i.e. node level centrality) in each network
 304

as well. The modularity of each network was also quantified using a weighted algorithm citeBeckett2016, which measures the degree to which a given network is divided into groups of species more connected to each other than other species. As with the other response variables, the number of links was log-transformed and both modularity and centralization scores were fourth-root transformed to meet variance and normality assumptions.

All code and data for the project are openly available online. Code and data are available at github.com/ecgen/comgen. The project is also archived via Zenodo at zenodo.com/doi/XXXXXX. All analyses were conducted using the programming language R version 3.6.1 (R Development Core Team 2019).

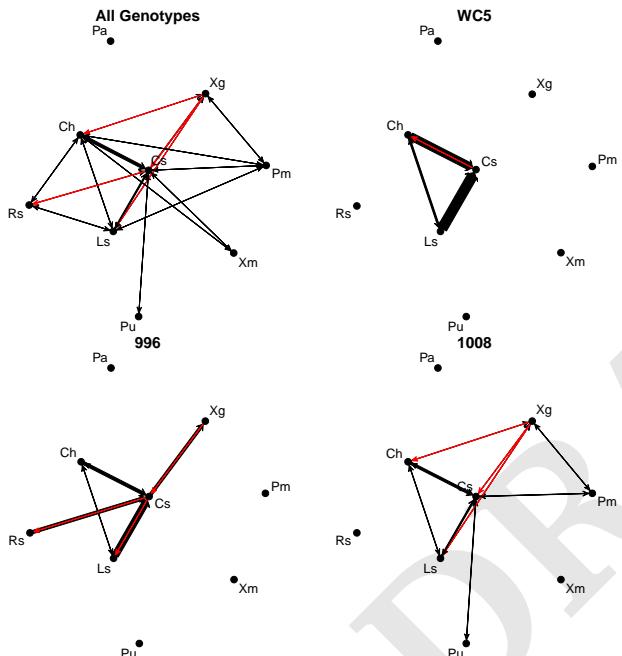


Fig. 3. Lichen networks varied in structure among tree genotypes. Network diagrams of the mean lichen interaction matrices averaged for all trees and for several individual genotypes showing a range of interaction network structure. Directionality (arrowheads) and sign (red = negative, black = positive) of interactions are shown as edges between species (abbreviated by the first letter of the genus and specific epithet), which are scaled by their magnitude. The sign of the interaction is indicative of greater (positive) or lesser (negative) paired occurrences than expected relative to the overall frequency of occurrence of each species. Ecologically, the links in the network are likely the product of multiple types of interactions (e.g. mutualism, parasitism, competition, facilitation) that could vary over both space and time.

Results

Tree genotype influenced lichen network structure. Tree genotype significantly predicted the structural similarity of lichen networks (PERMANOVA: Pseudo- $F_{9,27} = 3.58$, $H^2 = 0.41$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0537$) (Fig. 4). Overall network level metrics responded significantly to tree genotype (Table 1), including network degree ($RLRT = 3.52$, $H^2 = 0.32$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0255$) and centralization including both in-coming

and out-going links ($RLRT = 4.04$, $H^2 = 0.33$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0184$) or when separated into in-coming only ($RLRT = 3.9852$, $H^2 = 0.3309$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0190$) or out-going only ($RLRT = 3.8615$, $H^2 = 0.3193$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0205$). Metrics including only positive links also showed a significant effect of tree genotype, including positive degree ($RLRT = 3.6925$, $H^2 = 0.3242$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0229$), positive in-going centralization ($RLRT = 4.4812$, $H^2 = 0.3487$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0142$). Metrics calculated with negative links were not significant, including degree (negative) ($RLRT = 0.0327$, $H^2 = 0.0318$, $p\text{-value} = 0.3859$) and both in-coming (negative) ($RLRT = 0.3304$, $H^2 = 0.1057$, $p\text{-value} = 0.2508$) and out-going centralization (negative) ($RLRT = 0.0862$, $H^2 = 0.0513$, $p\text{-value} = 0.3446$).

	response	statistic	H2	p-value
Lichen Network Similarity	3.5821	0.4130	0.0537	
Degree	3.5175	0.3156	0.0255	
Degree (positive)	3.6925	0.3242	0.0229	
Degree (negative)	0.0327	0.0318	0.3859	
Centralization	4.0444	0.3305	0.0184	
Centralization In-Degree	4.4812	0.3487	0.0142	
Centralization In-Degree (positive)	3.9852	0.3309	0.0190	
Centralization In-Degree (negative)	0.3304	0.1057	0.2508	
Centralization Out-Degree	3.8615	0.3193	0.0205	
Centralization Out-Degree (positive)	3.5585	0.3119	0.0248	
Centralization Out-Degree (negative)	0.0862	0.0513	0.3446	

Table 1. Genotypic effects on the associated lichen network structure.

Genotype indirectly influenced lichen network centralization via the genetically based variation in bark roughness. The percent of rough bark was the only tree trait that displayed a significant response to genotype ($RLRT = 4.8526$, $H^2 = 0.3221$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0113$). None of the other bark traits, condensed tannins ($RLRT = 0.0007$, $H^2 = 0.0041$, $p\text{-value} = 0.4439$), pH ($RLRT = 0.00$, $H^2 = 0.00$, $p\text{-value} = 1.0000$) or carbon-nitrogen Ratio ($RLRT = 0.0000$, $H^2 = 0.0000$, $p\text{-value} = 1.0000$), showed a significant response to tree genotype and none other than bark roughness were correlated with network similarity (Supplementary Table 5); therefore, we focused our analysis on bark roughness. We found that bark roughness was significantly correlated with network similarity (PERMANOVA: Pseudo- $F_{1,32} = 13.029$, $R^2 = 0.26$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0096$) and other lichen network metrics, including negative correlations with overall network degree ($df = 35$, $t = -2.13$, $r = -0.34$, $p\text{-value} = 0.04$) and centralization ($df = 35$, $t =$

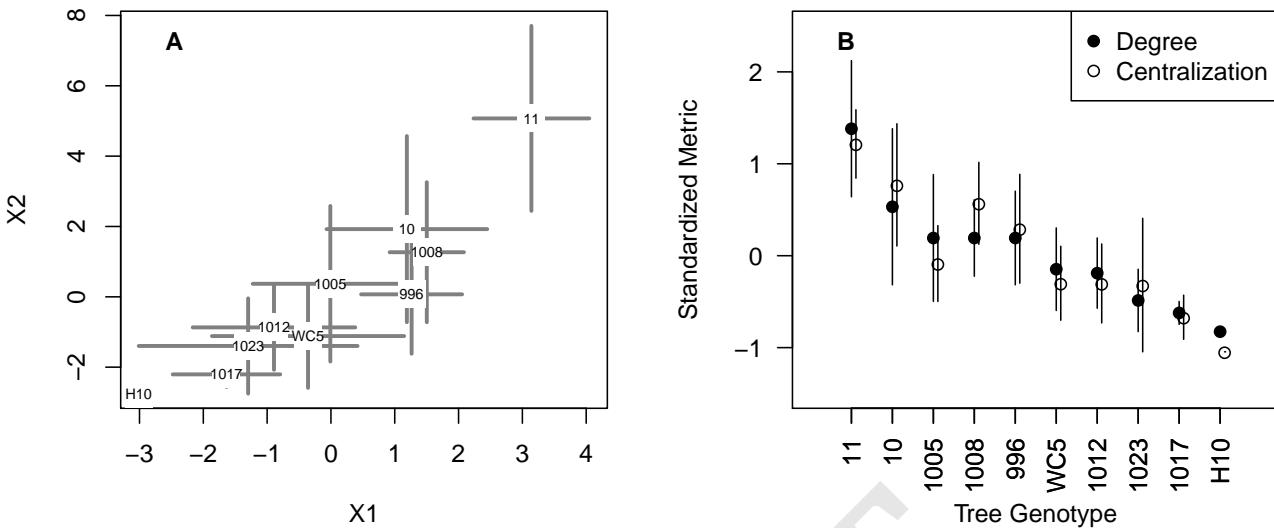


Fig. 4. The similarity of lichen networks varied among tree genotypes. A. The plot shows genotype centroids of NMDS ordinated ($R^2 = 0.999$, stress = 0.008) lichen networks ($\pm 1 \text{ S.E.}$). Genotype centroids that are closer together tend to have more similar lichen network structure. B. Plot showing the standardized ($\frac{x - \bar{x}}{\sigma}$) means ($\pm 1 \text{ S.E.}$) for the two of the genetically based lichen network metrics: overall degree (i.e. total number of links) and centralization, which is a measure of the dominance of one species in the network.

-2.52, $r = -0.39$, $p\text{-value} = 0.02$). To determine how much of the effect of bark roughness was genetically based, we used the residual values from regressions of network degree and centralization in tests of the effect of tree genotype and found no significant effect of tree genotype for either degree ($RLRT = 0.00$, $H^2 = 0.00$, $p\text{-value} = 1.0000$) or centralization ($RLRT = 0.00$, $H^2 = 0.00$, $p\text{-value} = 1.0000$), suggesting that the observed relationship between bark roughness and lichen network structure was largely genetically based (Fig. 5).

The genetic response of network centralization was driven by variation in *Caloplaca holocarpa*. Centrality varied significantly among species ($F_{8,324} = 7.99$, $R^2 = 0.16$, $p\text{-value} << 0.0001$). *Caloplaca holocarpa* centrality was the main species to exhibit a significant response to tree genotype in terms of positive centrality for both the in-coming ($RLRT = 3.61$, $H^2 = 0.32$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0240$) and out-going ($RLRT = 3.13$, $H^2 = 0.30$, $p\text{-value} = 0.0327$) perspectives, but not for either negative centrality metrics in-coming ($RLRT = 0$, $H^2 = 0$, $p\text{-value} = 1$) or out-going ($RLRT = 0$, $H^2 = 0$, $p\text{-value} = 0.4543$). None of the other species' centralities showed a genotypic response (Supplementary Table 6) with the exception of *X. montana* ($RLRT = 2.92$, $H^2 = 0.32$, $p\text{-value} =$

0.0375); however, the centrality of *X. montana* was much lower overall relative to *C. holocarpa* and the variation in *X. montana* centrality was restricted to two genotypes (Fig. 6).

Discussion

- We found:
 - Lichen networks genetically based
 - Bark roughness was the primary genetically based trait driving network structure
 - Genotype altered the importance of one particular species, primarily through positive interactions
 - Lichen networks also varied with cover, richness and diversity of the lichen community, which were not correlated with roughness and primarily driven by one dominant species (PC, SR, SE, SD didn't respond to genotype but were correlated with network metrics)
- What mechanisms could be at play?
- Body size and sessile nature of lichen important to observing genotype responses

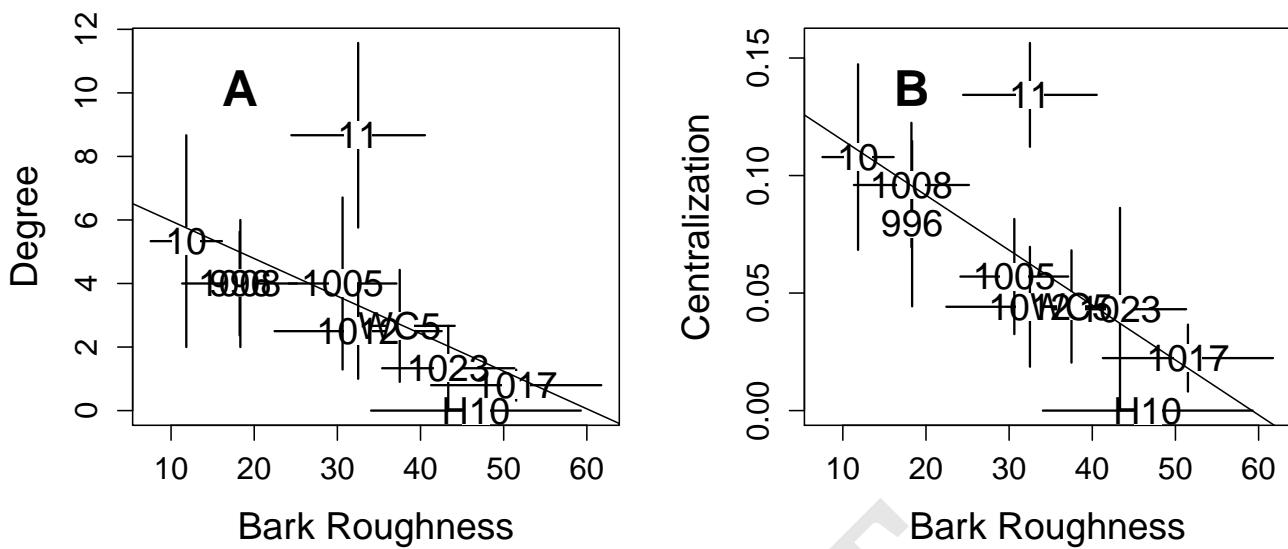


Fig. 5. Bivariate plots of the relationship between bark roughness and three network metrics: A) degree and B) centralization. Each plot displays the genotype mean \pm 1 S.E. for both variables and a least-squares regression calculated using the genotype means.

- An important consequence for diversity is that genotypes could be supporting unique community dynamics, even if the composition of the communities is the same among individuals and genotypes.
- Genetic diversity could be influencing the stability of communities through the effects on interactions. Some network structures are likely to be more stable, either in response to disturbance or via self-organized dynamics. Although, none of the metrics examined, such as the number of links, modularity or centrality, showed a genetic signature.
- Important factors to consider in studies of other ecological networks:
 - Relative body size
 - Mobility
 - Reproductive isolation
- Future work should consider the potential influence on evolutionary dynamics of communities
 - Network structure influences network stability
 - Are the communities nested subsets?

- Genetic assembly rule = similar genetics will have more similar communities
- What we don't know is whether or not these interactions will also lead to similar interactions among other species.
- Thus, it would be possible for genetics to not only influence other species directly, but also indirectly by influencing the interactions among other species.

We observed significant lichen interaction structure that varied among genotypes of a foundation tree species, narrowleaf cottonwood (*P. angustifolia*). We found that a genetically based trait, bark roughness, partially explained the variation in lichen interaction networks. Some of this variation in lichen networks was related to both the overall abundance and species richness of lichen; though, statistically controlling for the effect of genotype on these variables indicates that a significant portion of the variance in lichen species richness is due to a factor other than tree genotype. By using network metrics, we were also able to probe for specific characteristics of how these networks were responding to tree genotype. We found that both number of links and the centralization of the networks were highly correlated with network similarity and that tree genotype

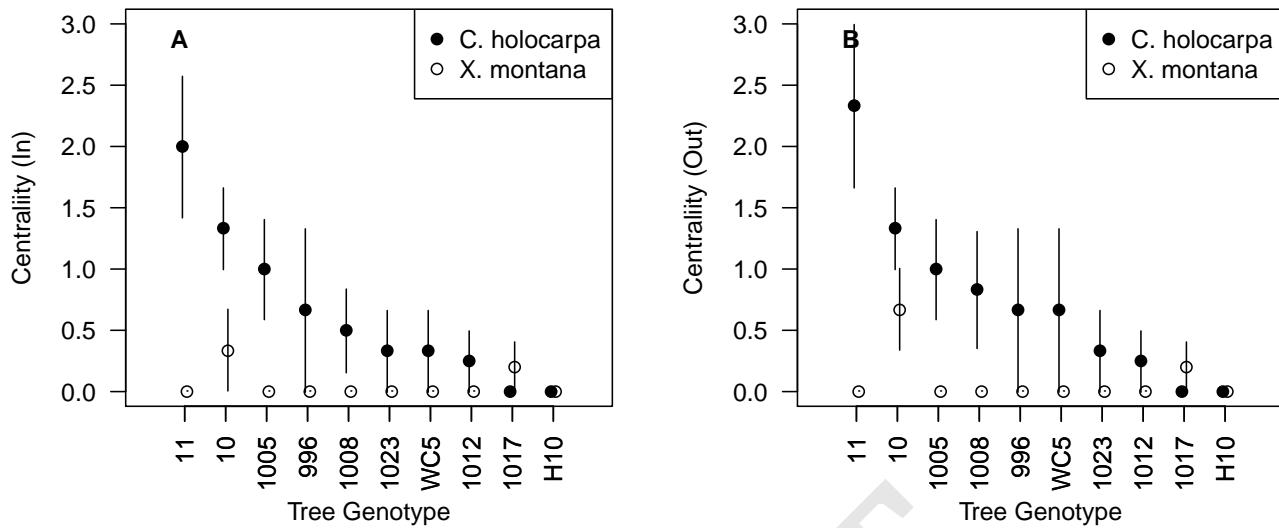


Fig. 6. Dot-plots showing the mean (dot) and ± 1 SE of in-degree (A) and out-degree (B) centrality for two species, *C. holocarpa* and *X. montana*. *Caloplaca holocarpa* centrality was highly variable among genotypes. *Xanthomendoza montana* centrality, both in- and out-degree, was only non-zero for two genotypes, and only out-degree centrality displayed a significant response to genotype.

significantly predicted network centrality but only marginally predicted the number of network links. This latter result could be due to the relationship between species richness and the number of links in the network, which were significantly correlated with each other. We also found that bark roughness did not significantly predict either the number of links or the centrality of lichen networks, suggesting that bark roughness has some other effect on the structure of the lichen networks. Taken together, these findings support the hypothesis that genotypic variation in a foundation species contributes to the structure of a network of interacting species.

These findings point to the importance of understanding the community level effects of genetic variation in plant functional traits and highlights the potential for indirect effects of genetic variation to propagate through networks of interacting species and trophic levels.

This work corroborates previous findings of the importance of plant genetics in shaping community structure and ecosystem processes. citepBangert2008

Altering the structure of interaction networks presents a means for genetic effects to be magnified within the system of interacting species. For example, (8) showed that the genetics based interactions of aphid resistant and aphid susceptible trees

resulted in different interaction networks of their associated arthropod communities composed of 139 species. At the scale of ecosystems, trophic networks or food webs direct and control the rates of energy and nutrient flux (16). Furthermore, in a predator-prey-plant study, Smith (17), showed that the interactions among species across trophic levels depended on plant genotype.

Also, work by (18–20) observed consistent patterns of centralized interactions of species modules focused around hubs of plant-fungal interactions. In other words, a small number of plant and fungal symbionts tended to have disproportionate numbers of interactions with other species and likely are the drivers in determining community assembly, structure and dynamics.

More on the importance of ecological networks (21, 22).

From Thompson2014

- Pairwise interactions are usually influenced by other species
- Selection favors the development of small webs
- Evolution of new lifestyles leads to changes in selection on large and small webs

512	Specific hypothesis from Thompson2014	565
513	Bark roughness had previously been shown to be	566
514	an important tree trait influencing bark lichens (13)	567
515	that is under strong genetic control (23).	568
516	Although our study was conducted with a commu-	569
517	nity of lichens, these results should be generalized	570
518	to other groups of diverse organisms around the	571
519	world that also exhibit significant genetic signals at	572
520	the community level (24, 25). In the face of the	573
521	high degree of complexity and potential context de-	574
522	pendency of ecological processes, the current study	575
523	points to the utility of considering the spatial and	576
524	temporal scales of interactions, as discussed to some	577
525	in previous studies (26–28). In the present study,	578
526	we found that community assembly processes, such	579
527	as environmental filtering and species interactions,	580
528	are genetically based. This is likely due, in part,	581
529	to the large difference in the differences in size and	582
530	longevity of the lichen and cottonwood individuals	583
531	with the trees determining the environment in which	584
532	the lichen occur. We suggest that future work would	585
533	be aided by determining these modules within the	586
534	biotic community that include species with similar	587
535	differences in body-size and time-scales. As heritable	588
536	variation is the raw material for natural selection	589
537	to act upon, a genetic basis for interaction network	590
538	structure indicates evolutionary dynamics should be	591
539	considered at the community level and that con-	592
540	serving genetic variation is important to consider in	593
541	efforts to restore or preserve complex species interac-	594
542	tions and their associated ecosystem functions (29).	595
543	With such findings, it appears that we are closer to	596
544	understanding the evolutionary drivers of Darwin’s	597
545	entangled bank and the interconnectedness of species	598
546	in complex communities.	599
547	ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. This work was supported by	600
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552	sampling was supported by Todd Wojtowicz, Luke Evans	605
553	and David Solance Smith.	606
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614 **Supplementary Materials**

615 **Tables.**

	df	SS	R2	F	p-value
geno	9.0000	44078.1327	0.5442	3.5821	0.0537
Residual	27.0000	36915.4605	0.4558		
Total	36.0000	80993.5932	1.0000		

Table 1. PERMANOVA Pseudo-F Table of lichen network similarity to genotype.

response	statistic	H2	p-value
Lichen Network Similarity	3.5821	0.4130	0.0537
Average Mutual Information	3.5235	0.3101	0.0254
Centralization	4.0444	0.3305	0.0184
Centralization In-Degree	4.4812	0.3487	0.0142
Centralization Out-Degree	3.8615	0.3193	0.0205
Centralization In-Degree (positive)	3.9852	0.3309	0.0190
Centralization In-Degree (negative)	0.3304	0.1057	0.2508
Centralization Out-Degree (positive)	3.5585	0.3119	0.0248
Centralization Out-Degree (negative)	0.0862	0.0513	0.3446
Number of Network Links (Degree)	3.5175	0.3156	0.0255
Degree (positive)	3.6925	0.3242	0.0229
Degree (negative)	0.0327	0.0318	0.3859
Percent Lichen Cover	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000
Lichen Species Diversity	0.0000	0.0000	0.4543
Lichen Species Richness	0.0000	0.0000	0.4543
Lichen Species Evenness	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000
Percent Rough Bark	4.8526	0.3221	0.0113
pH	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000
Carbon-Nitrogen (CN) Ratio	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000
Condensed Tannins (CT)	0.0007	0.0041	0.4439
BR-L Residuals	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000
BR-Cen Residuals	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000

Table 2. Genotypic effects on tree traits and bark lichen.

	r	R2	estimate	SE	t	p-value
br_L	-0.34	0.11	-0.07	0.03	-2.13	0.04
br_Cen	-0.39	0.15	-0.00	0.00	-2.52	0.02
ct_L	0.34	0.11	0.57	0.27	2.13	0.04
ct_Cen	0.08	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.46	0.65
ph_L	0.08	0.01	0.67	1.41	0.48	0.64
ph_Cen	0.13	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.78	0.44
cn_L	0.06	0.00	50.19	145.84	0.34	0.73
cn_Cen	0.16	0.03	2.14	2.18	0.98	0.33

Table 3. Tests of the correlation between tree bark traits and lichen network structure

	df	SS	R2	F	p-value
geno	9.0000	44078.1327	0.5442	3.5821	0.0537
Residual	27.0000	36915.4605	0.4558		
Total	36.0000	80993.5932	1.0000		

Table 4. PERMANOVA Pseudo-F Table of lichen network similarity to genotype.

	Df	SumOfSqs	R2	F	Pr(>F)
BR	1.0000	21021.8765	0.2595	13.0299	0.0096
CT	1.0000	2349.3142	0.0290	1.4562	0.2016
pH	1.0000	2098.8999	0.0259	1.3010	0.2899
CN	1.0000	3896.1757	0.0481	2.4150	0.1890
Residual	32.0000	51627.3270	0.6374		
Total	36.0000	80993.5932	1.0000		

Table 5. PERMANOVA Pseudo-F Table of lichen network similarity response to bark traits.

lichen species	mean	statistic	H2	p-value
Positive				
<i>In-Degree</i>				
<i>X. galericulata</i>	0.2703	0	0	1
<i>C. subdeflexa</i>	0.8919	2.1926	0.2158	0.0595
<i>L. spp.</i>	0.4324	0	0	1
<i>C. holocarpa</i>	0.5946	3.6146	0.3241	0.024
<i>X. montana</i>	0.0541	0	0	0.4543
<i>P. melanachra</i>	0.1351	0	0	1
<i>P. adscendens</i>	0			
<i>P. undulata</i>	0.027	0	0	0.4543
<i>R. sp.</i>	0.1351	2.049	0.2613	0.0656
<i>Out-Degree</i>				
<i>X. galericulata</i>	0.027	0	0	0.4543
<i>C. subdeflexa</i>	0.6757	0	0	1
<i>L. spp.</i>	0.5946	0.0061	0.0126	0.4246
<i>C. holocarpa</i>	0.7027	3.1318	0.2981	0.0327
<i>X. montana</i>	0.0811	2.9228	0.3163	0.0375
<i>P. melanachra</i>	0.1351	0	0	1
<i>P. adscendens</i>	0			
<i>P. undulata</i>	0.027	0	0	0.4543
<i>R. sp.</i>	0.2973	0.1505	0.0612	0.3119
Negative				
<i>In-Degree</i>				
<i>X. galericulata</i>	0			
<i>C. subdeflexa</i>	0.1892	0	0	0.4543
<i>L. spp.</i>	0.1892	0.0015	0.0057	0.4398
<i>C. holocarpa</i>	0.1351	0	0	1
<i>X. montana</i>	0.027	0.0377	0.0394	0.3807
<i>P. melanachra</i>	0			
<i>P. adscendens</i>	0			
<i>P. undulata</i>	0			
<i>R. sp.</i>	0.1622	0	0	1
<i>Out-Degree</i>				
<i>X. galericulata</i>	0.2432	0	0	1
<i>C. subdeflexa</i>	0.4054	0	0	0.4543
<i>L. spp.</i>	0.027	0	0	0.4543
<i>C. holocarpa</i>	0.027	0	0	0.4543
<i>X. montana</i>	0			
<i>P. melanachra</i>	0			
<i>P. adscendens</i>	0			
<i>P. undulata</i>	0			
<i>R. sp.</i>	0			

Table 6. REML tests of the effect of tree genotype on lichen species centrality.

	BR	CT	pH	CN	PC	SR	SE	SD	L	Cen
BR									-0.34	-0.39
CT								-0.34		
pH										
CN										
PC								0.49		-0.46
SR									0.76	0.47
SE									0.85	0.45
SD									0.59	0.33
L										0.88
Cen										

Table 7. Matrix of correlations among tree traits, lichen community metrics and network metrics

	Df	SumOfSqs	R2	F	Pr(>F)
geno	9.0000	1.5049	0.2001	0.7507	0.8878
Residual	27.0000	6.0143	0.7999		
Total	36.0000	7.5193	1.0000		

**Table 8. Pseudo-F Table of lichen community similarity
PERMANOVA.**

Figures.

DRAFT

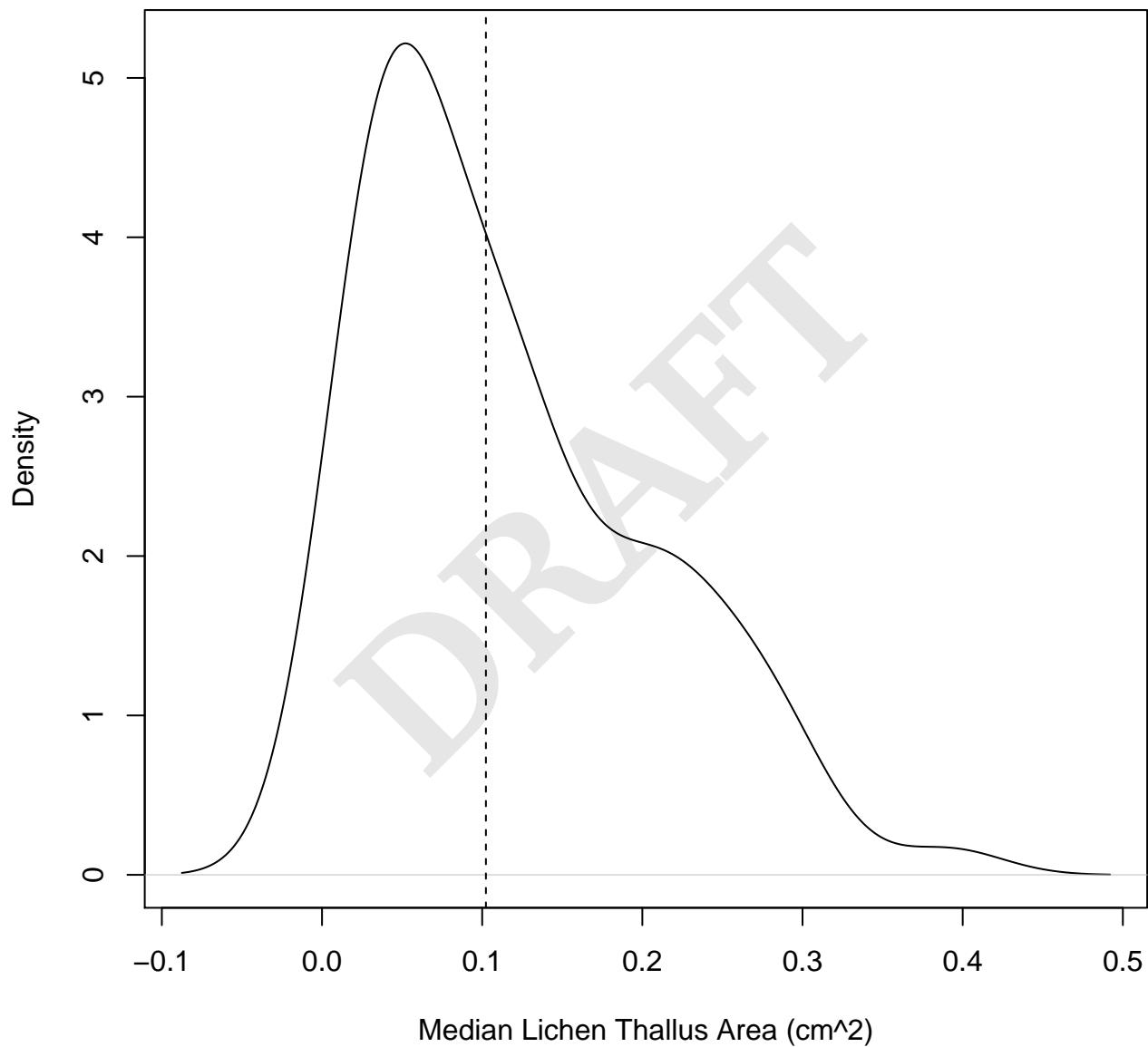


Fig. 1

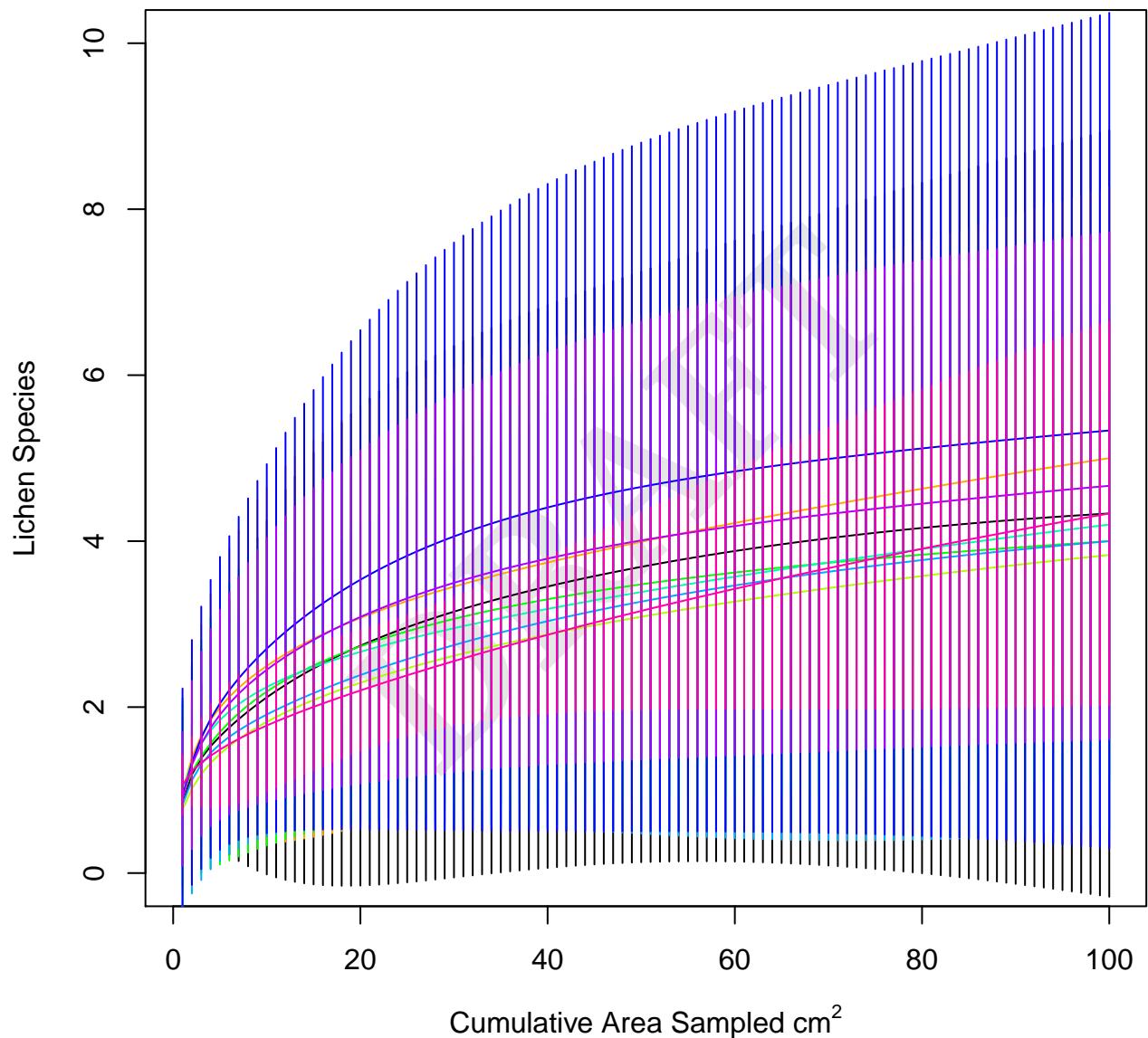


Fig. 2. Species-area curve by genotype.

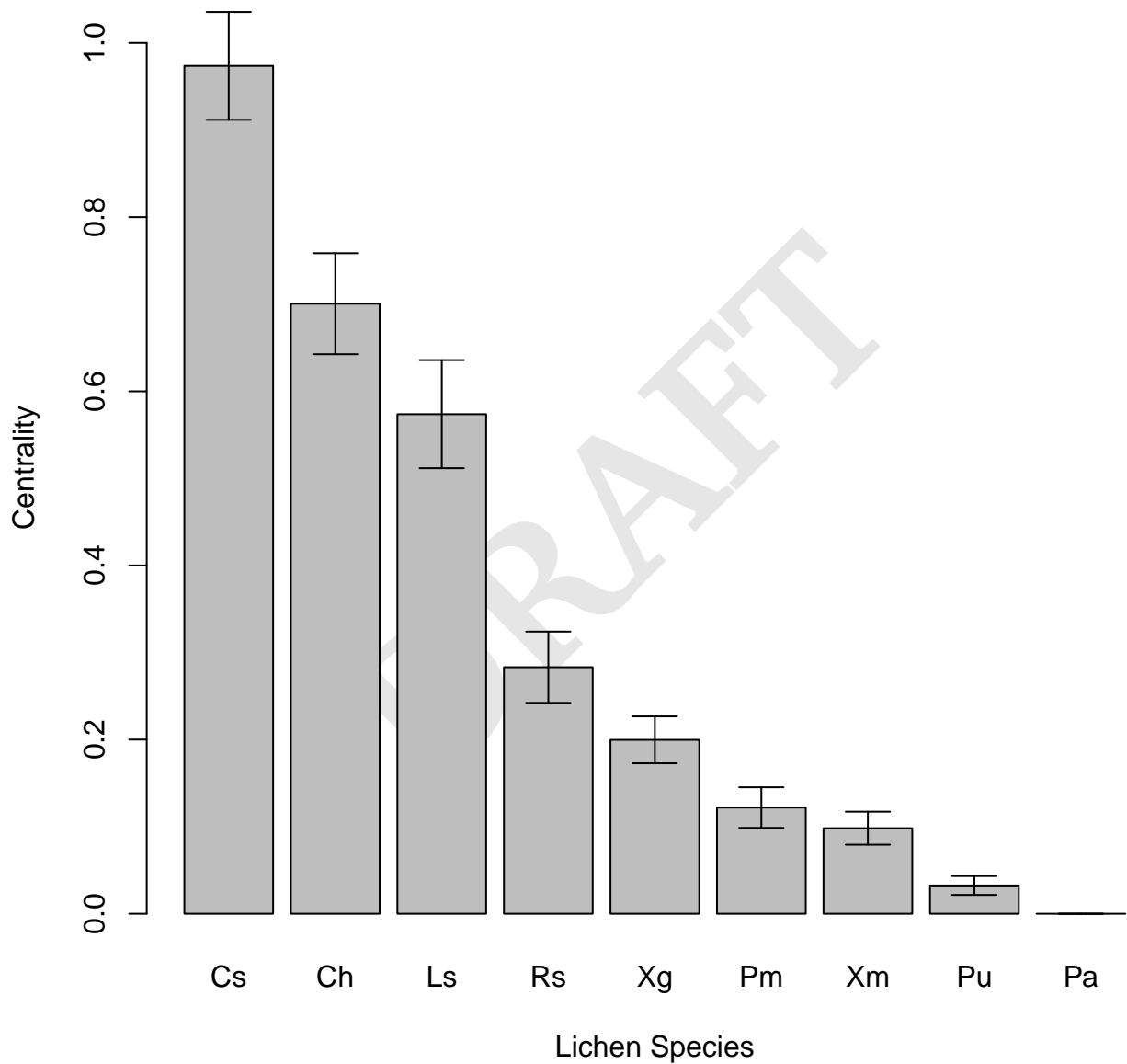


Fig. 3