

New Idea

The soil mosaic hypothesis: a synthesis of multi-trophic diversification via soil heterogeneity

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Abstract

Myriad unexplored mechanisms potentially drive ecolog-ical speciation and could help explain global variation in diversity. Here, we develop a novel hypothesis focused on variation in biotic, chemical, and physical properties of soil as a factor contributing to diversification in communities of plants and animals. The Soil Mosaic Hypothesis (SMH) suggests that differences in soil attributes can affect intraspecific variation in phyto-chemistry, leading to cascading ecological and evolutionary effects on higher trophic levels. To illustrate the potential importance of the SMH, we examine three underlying ideas: (1) plant species and species assem-blages shift over time, exposing them to novel soil environments, which can lead to ge netic differentiation;

(2) differences in soil properties can alter phytochemistry via plasticity and local adaptation; (3) phytochemistry can drive herbivore diversification via divergent natural selection (i.e. ecological speciation). The SMH provides insight into the process of diversification in a variety of landscapes and at a variety of scales and may inform analyses of diversification at local, regional, and global scales.

Keywords:soilmosaics,diversification,phyto-chemistry,plant-animalinteractions,resourceavail-ability,ecologicalspeciation.110

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Introduction

3 The idea that ecological interactions can influence 4 evolution has been a major component of evolutionary 5 theory since Darwin proposed natural selection (Darwin 1859), and it is clear that ecologically-based divergent 6 7 natural selection is an important model of speciation 8 (reviewed by Rundle and Nosil 2005, Nosil 2012). 9 Ecological speciation occurs when populations are 10 exposed to contrasting environments and ecologically-11 based divergent natural selection promotes (either 12 directly or indirectly) the evolution of reproductive 13 isolation. Divergent selection can result in differences in 14 morphology, behavior, or other phenotypes, potentially 15 leading to genetic isolation between populations com-16 prised of ecologically specialized individuals (Schluter 17 and McPhail 1992, Rundle and Nosil 2005, Matsubayashi 18 et al. 2010, Soria-Carrasco et al. 2014). Research on 19 ecological speciation has benefited from detailed studies 20 of well-understood populations or taxa associated with 21 different resources or habitats (e.g., Schluter and McPhail 22 1992. Rundle et al. 2000, Nosil et al. 2008, 23 Matsubayashi et al. 2010, Nosil 2012, Soria-Carrasco et 24 al. 2014), but there are still many unexplored axes of 25 ecological variation that potentially contribute to 26 diversification (Coley et al. 1985, Thompson 2005, 27 Whitham et al. 2008, Dyer et al. 2014). Here, we consider 28 a previously understudied potential source of divergent 29 natural selection: variation in soils and associated effects 30 on phytochemistry and plant and animal community 31 structure.

32 The Soil Mosaic Hypothesis (SMH) posits that 33 differences in soil properties (i.e. biotic, chemical and 34 physical factors) can affect individual variation in plant 35 primary and secondary metabolites, yielding a highly 36 variable phytochemical landscape (sensu Hunter 2016) 37 and leading to cascading ecological and evolutionary 38 effects on autotroph and consumer trophic levels. Soil 39 heterogeneity could lead by direct and indirect mech-40 anisms to reproductive isolation in plant and herbivore 41 populations. A direct mechanism could be, for example, 42 adaptation by herbivores to plant populations with 43 divergent phenology causing a shift in herbivore 44 phenology (emergence time or peak abundance) that 45 immediately isolates consumer populations. A less direct 46 mechanism could be local adaptation to phytochemistry, 47 and associated selection against hybrids that are 48 maladapted to either of the chemical profiles experienced 49 by the parents. The SMH is not entirely novel: in addition 50 to theories of ecological speciation and host-associated differentiation (Stireman et al. 2005), the SMH can be 51 52 considered a corollary to the following well-established theories: i) coevolution (Ehrlich and Raven 1964, 53 54 Berenbaum and Feeny 1981, Agrawal et al. 2012), ii) the 55 geographic mosaic (Thompson 1999, Thompson 2005), 56 iii) plant defense theory (Bryant et al. 1983, Coley et al. 1985, Stamp 2003, Massad et al. 2011, Smilanich et al. 57 58 2016), iv) effects of environmental heterogeneity on communities and ecosystems (Ricklefs 1977, Whitham et 59 al. 2006, 2008), v) the phytochemical landscape (Hunter 60 2016), and vi) plant-soil feedbacks (van Breeman and 61 Finzi 1998, van der Putten et al. 2013, Schweitzer et al. 62 2014). The utility of the SMH is that it utilizes key 63 components of existing theory that are usually limited in 64 scope to average levels of chemical defense and bi-65 trophic interactions to provide a focused, testable frame-66 work that includes a new perspective on phytochemical 67 diversity, multi-trophic interactions, and abiotic selective 68 drivers of diversification. Natural systems are adaptive 69 landscapes of complex community dynamics. The SMH 70 integrates both below- and above-ground processes when 71 assessing patterns of ecological divergence speciation. 72 We examine three underlying postulates (Figure 1): (1) 73 plant species and communities are exposed to diverse soil 74 environments across multiple spatial and temporal scales, 75 which can lead to divergence in plant populations; (2) 76 differences in soil properties can alter plant primary and 77 secondary metabolites; and (3) variation in phyto-78 chemistry can drive herbivore diversification via 79 ecological speciation at fine geographic scales. 80

While these postulates could be used to help 81 understand the link between soils, phytochemistry, and 82 diversification in any ecosystem, such mechanistic 83 relationships may be particularly evident in regions that 84 encompass extreme habitat variation (e.g., serpentine 85 soils, white-sands versus clay soils, dry versus wet 86 tropical forests, or mountains) and which have a unique 87 combination of soil diversity, movement dynamics, and 88 biotic interactions. Below we will discuss each of the 89 three aspects of the SMH to illuminate the process by 90 which consumers adapt to phytochemical variation 91 driven by changes in soil chemical and physical 92 93 properties. 94

1. Plants disperse to novel soil environments.

97 Because the chemical and physical properties of soil are influenced by associated climate, parent material, 98 topography, time, and biotic communities (Laliberté et al. 99 2013, van der Putten et al. 2013), distinct soil types can 100occur in close proximity, leading to a soil mosaic (Sollins 101 et al. 1994). Soil mosaics characterize many landscapes 102 at different spatial scales, and soil formation models 103 predict that tropical soils in particular should have 104 extreme heterogeneity in soil properties (e.g., Jenny 105 1980). 106

When plant ranges shift due to climatic changes or 107 other factors, populations are likely to encounter novel 108 soils because of the heterogeneity of most soil 109 landscapes. Ecological processes that promote dispersal 110 will also lead to an increased likelihood that a plant will 111 disperse onto a soil with attributes that are different from 112

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Figure 1. A graphical model of the Soil Mosaic Hypothesis: 1) Soils are heterogeneous and plant populations move; Soils 2) affect phytochemistry, creating subpopulations with different chemistry; 3) Phytochemistry affects herbivore diversification. The first column shows that plants (open circles) move across a landscape over time. The second column shows how soils with distinct characteristics (shaded regions) influence plant phytochemistry. Plastic changes in phytochemistry are represented by different symbols within each circle – these changes can also be followed by genetic assimilation. The third column shows how herbivores track the movement of plant subpopulations over time. The pattern on the wings of the herbivores represents divergent characters that are linked to adaptations to unique phytochemical profiles of associated host plants.

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26 the parent plant. Neotropical trees, for example, often experience long distance dispersal (Ward et al. 2005). The lowland tapir, Tapirus terrestris, acts as an important long distance disperser of the tropical palm Maximiliana 30 maripa. Tapirs disperse palm seeds as far away as 2 km from parent trees, increasing survival rates of seeds to 98% for those that are dispersed compared to 17% for 33 seeds close to parent trees (Fragoso 1997; Fragoso et al. 2003). Long distance dispersal events increase the 35 probability of offspring shifting to a different soil type than the parent and could result in offspring with different 36 37 phytochemical or nutritional properties from their parents, leading to increased morphological and genetic 38 39 divergence (e.g., Barbosa et al. 2013, Misiewicz and Fine 40 2014).

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42 2. Soils affect phytochemistry.

Changes in biotic and abiotic factors, including soil 44 45 microbes and nutrients, are known to cause significant 46 changes in plant chemistry, and the magnitude of these 47 changes are likely to affect many biotic interactions that 48 are mediated by chemistry (Hunter and Price 1992, van 49 Breeman and Finzi 1998, Dyer et al. 2004, Massad and 50 Dver 2010). There is a vast literature on the plasticity of 51 plant secondary metabolites, and while there is little 52 consensus on the directions and magnitudes of these responses to changes in soil nutrients, there is ample 53 evidence of large shifts in phytochemical profiles in 54 55 response to soil nutrient variation (reviewed by Massad et 56 al. 2012).

Phytochemical diversity maintains plant function and 82 fitness across diverse environments, affecting herbivore 83 communities (Richards et al. 2015, Glassmire et al. 2016) 84 and habitat specialization by plants (Fine et al. 2013). 85 Phytochemical plasticity could be more beneficial when 86 there are resource pulses or outbreaks of herbivory in 87 resource-limited environments, and empirical studies 88 have shown that plants allocate more resources to defense 89 versus growth under such conditions to prevent the loss 90 of leaf tissue, which is costly to replace (reviewed in 91 Endara & Coley 2011). Thus, the adaptive nature of 92 phytochemical plasticity can depend on resource avail-93 ability and the presence of biotic interactions (Coley et 94 al. 1985, Dyer et al. 2004, Hunter 2016). Similarly, the 95 growth-defense trade-off hypothesis suggests plants have 96 different phytochemical defense strategies across soil 97 gradients (Coley et al. 1985), potentially promoting soil 98 specialization and adaptation over evolutionary time 99 (Fine et al. 2013). 100

Thus, soil mosaics can provide an adaptive landscape 101 promoting edaphic specialization and plant 102 diversification. For example, patterns of spatial genetic 103 structure in the tropical tree Protium subserratum 104 (Burseracae) in the Ducke Reserve Brazil are 105 significantly influenced by soil type, which is highly 106 heterogeneous, with soil clay composition ranging from 107 2% to 80% in a 250 meter area (Barbosa et al. 2013). 108 Edaphic specialization has been posited as a mechanism 109 of diversification for multiple plant lineages; two 110 prominent examples are diversification of Protieae 111 species (Burseraceae) shifting from clay to sand soils 112 1 (Fine et al. 2005, Fine et al. 2014) and endemism of 2 streptanthoid species (Brassicaceae) transitioning from 3 bare to serpentine soils (Cacho and Strauss 2014). 4 Furthermore, studies have shown that some populations 5 of Mimulus guttatus monkeyflowers (Family: Phrym-6 aceae) have adapted to the copper-rich soils near copper 7 mines, resulting in ecological speciation (Macnair and 8 Christie 1983).

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3. Phytochemistry affects herbivore diversity.

While diversification in herbivorous insects is often 12 13 thought to involve shifts in host plant use (e.g., Powell et 14 al. 2013, Soria-Carrasco et al. 2014), recent evidence from a diverse tropical system raises the possibility that 15 16 diversification can also occur without host shifts and also 17 without major geographic barriers, supporting the 18 hypothesis that intraspecific variation in phytochemistry 19 may play a role in insect diversification at relatively small 20 spatial scales (Wilson et al. 2012, Glassmire et al. 2016). 21 Furthermore, intraspecific variation in edaphic-22 associated phytochemistry sheds light on the documented 23 phenomenon that distinct insect communities are 24 associated with soil ecotypes, as in P. subserratum (Fine 25 et al. 2013). It is well known that phytochemical variation 26 can influence insect herbivores by affecting oviposition 27 preference (Carlsson et al. 2011), larval performance, 28 mortality (Richards et al. 2010), and the ability of an 29 herbivore to defend itself against predators and 30 parasitoids (Smilanich et al. 2009). The SMH suggests that as plants experience new soil environments and 31 respond with altered phytochemical properties, assoc-32 33 iated herbivore communities will experience strong 34 selection pressure based on these new phytochemical 35 environments, which can lead to diversification and speciation. Richards et al. (2015) found that 36 37 phytochemical variation affects entire host-associated 38 communities, including the diet breadth and diversity of 39 herbivores. 40

41 **Future Studies**

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43 The three main tenets of the SMH described here were 44 inspired by pondering the theoretical framework of the phytochemical landscape (Hunter 2016) as well as 45 considering our own work showing evidence of rapid 46 diversification within one genus of herbivores (Eois. 47 48 Geometridae: Larentiinae) that includes multiple sister 49 species consuming the same host plant species in close geographic proximity (Wilson et al. 2012, Glassmire et 50 al. 2016). The SMH incorporates a combination of 51 52 ecological and evolutionary processes associated with plants colonizing novel soils, followed by diversification 53 54 of taxa at higher trophic levels. Below we provide several 55 examples of future studies that would test specific 56

hypotheses generated by the SMH to elucidate how soil 57 interacts in a multi-trophic framework. 58

First, transplant studies should be conducted to 59 examine how differences in soil nutrient availability 60 influence phytochemical profiles, and how this impacts 61 performance of the associated arthropod communities 62 (Fine et al. 2013). These studies should be accompanied 63 by feeding assays to examine herbivore preference and 64 performance on phytochemically distinct plants. Second, 65 controlled experiments should investigate the mech-66 anisms by which soil resource availability affects 67 phytochemical plasticity in the presence of natural 68 enemies. This would involve a fully-crossed exper-69 imental design including manipulated abiotic (addition of 70 soil resources) and biotic factors (exclusion of herbivores 71 and natural enemies). Associated with these manipu-72 lations of soil resources, the richness and abundance of 73 soil biotic properties could be manipulated to examine 74 the influence of soil biotic diversity on phytochemical 75 diversity. For example, one could experimentally alter 76 the diversity of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi, bacteria, 77 and soil arthropods, and quantify differences in phyto-78 chemistry. One important response variable for both 79 types of soil manipulation experiments is the concen-80 tration of individual secondary metabolites, allowing for 81 responses to these key questions: 1) How important are 82 soil resources, arthropod communities, and the inter-83 action between these factors for structuring plant 84 secondary metabolomes? 2) What are the norms of 85 reaction for individual secondary metabolites and 86 phytochemical diversity in response to soil nutrients and 87 arthropods? 3) Are any metabolites fixed with respect to 88 variation in soil and arthropods? In experiments of this 89 kind, arthropod communities can both be manipulated as 90 treatments and measured as response variables, including 91 behavior (e.g., oviposition preferences) of focal 92 herbivores. 93

Finally, as an extension of the SMH, future studies 94 could investigate the possibility of plant defensive 95 profiles becoming fixed by genetic assimilation 96 (Waddington 1953, Crispo 2007). If the colonization of 97 a novel edaphic environment results in the develop-98 mentally-plastic production of a distinct phytochemical 99 profile that is favored by natural selection, theory 100 suggests that the novel phenotype could eventually 101 become fixed because plasticity to produce that 102 phenotype would be selected against at that location. An 103 interesting outcome of this process would be the retention 104 of phytochemical diversity at the species or meta-105 population scale (Figure 1), even in the face of range 106 shifts associated with climatic fluctuations, since the 107 previously plastic phenotype is fixed. The conversion 108 from plasticity to fixed phytochemical diversity also 109 opens the possibility for another mechanistic component 110 of classic coevolutionary dynamics between plants and 111 112

herbivores. While the potential importance of genetic 1 2 assimilation for micro and macroevolutionary processes 3 is well recognized (West-Eberhard 2003, Ehrenreich and Pfennig 2016), we know very little about the potential for 4 5 assimilation to affect phytochemical phenotypes or associated arthropod communities. Perhaps the best 6 systems for utilizing this approach would be well-7 resolved foundation species, such as Populus, for which 8 there are documented networks of interacting soil 9 microbes and herbivore communities, as well as 10 documented effects from genes to ecosystems (Whitham 11 et al. 2006, 2008, Lau et al. 2016). 12

14 Conclusion

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Variation in phytochemical profiles can arise in plants 16 17 following the colonization of novel soil types (Fine et al. 2006, Fine et al. 2013, Cacho and Strauss 2014), allowing 18 for phytochemically-associated adaptation and diverg-19 ence to occur in herbivores at a fine geographic scale 20 (Glassmire et al. 2016). Future studies investigating 21 previously unrecognized mechanisms of diversification, 22 such as the processes comprising the SMH, will shed 23 light on the origin and maintenance of biodiversity. 24 Testing this hypothesis should be a part of the general 25 goal to understand the extent to which ecological 26 processes influence diversification in a multi-trophic 27 28 framework.

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