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Evolutionary response to coexistence with close relatives: increased resistance against specialist herbivores without cost for climatic-stress resistance

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<u>Abstract</u>

Why can hosts coexist with conspecifics or phylogenetically proximate neighbours despite sharing specialist enemies? Do the hosts evolve increased enemy resistance? If so, does this have costs in terms of climatic-stress resistance, or in such neighbourhoods does climatic-stress select for resistances that are multifunctional against climate and enemies? We studied oak (*Quercus petraea*) descendants from provenances of contrasting phylogenetic neighbourhoods and climates in a 25-year-old common garden. We found that descendants from conspecific or phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods had the toughest leaves and fewest leaf miners, but no reduction in climatic-stress resistance. Descendants from such neighbourhoods under cold or dry climates had the highest flavonol and anthocyanin levels, and the thickest leaves. Overall, populations facing phylogenetically proximate neighbours can rapidly evolve herbivore resistance, without cost to climatic-stress resistance, but possibly facilitating resistance against cold and drought via multifunctional traits. Microevolution might hence facilitate ecological coexistence of close relatives and thereby macroevolutionary conservatism of niches.

2

Introduction

Coexistence among conspecific or phylogenetically proximate plants ("phylogenetically proximate" from here on) has been suggested to be difficult due to increased herbivore pressure, but plant populations might respond to such coexistence by evolving increased herbivore resistance. Specifically, individuals of phylogenetically proximate plant species tend to share similar traits (Burns & Strauss 2011; Peterson 2011; Violle et al. 2011) and can be attacked by the same herbivore species (Brändle & Brandl 2006). This effect of phylogenetic proximity on herbivory is likely to be strongest in highly specialized herbivores (Nyman et al. 2006, Vialatte et al. 2010). Consequently, in phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods, a focal host plant could be attacked by the herbivores of its neighbours, increasing herbivory on the focal plant (Yguel et al. 2011). It has been suggested that such increased herbivore pressure prevents coexistence of phylogenetically proximate individuals and leads to coexistence among phylogenetically distant species (Janzen 1970; Liu et al. 2012; we use the term "coexistence" sensu largo, i.e. including coexistence with conspecifics, Jiang et al. 2018). However, such neighbourhoods might also select for increased herbivore resistance. In phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods, more resistant plants will survive better, have more chances to reach maturity and reproduce more, leading to a higher fitness than non-resistant plants. Plant resistances are often genetically determined and hence heritable, e.g. levels of flavonoids or anthocyanins or leaf morphology (e.g. Stevens & Lindroth 2005; Johnson et al. 2009). Overall, a phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood should select for genotypes that are resistant against herbivores, in particular against specialist herbivores. These selection pressures are particularly powerful in trees (Ersoz et al. 2010), where natural selection can shift frequencies of traits across a population within a fraction of a generation time (even if selection pressures might change even more rapidly, Rellstab et al. 2016). This rapid shift of the frequencies of traits is possible due to large population sizes (seeds and seedlings included), 99.9999 % mortality depending on heritable resistance traits, and a very high genetic variability among trees and among seeds of each tree (Shaw 1968; Zanetto & Kremer 1995; Klaper et al. 2001; Petit & Hampe 2006). Overall, our first hypothesis

is that tree species are not passively suffering from increased pressure by specialist herbivores in a phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood, but rather local populations are adapting to herbivory as a result of selection for herbivore resistance (Fig. 1).

If phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods select for higher herbivore resistances they might indirectly select against capacities that are traded off against herbivore resistances such as the resistance to extreme climatic conditions. Specifically, resistance against herbivores might invoke multiple types of costs for the tree (Baldwin & Hamilton 2000; Koricheva 2002; Siemens et al. 2009). Investment in resistance against herbivores might hence be traded off against other capacities of trees. For instance, genotypes with increased energy investment into traits conferring herbivore resistance might have less energy available to invest into traits conferring other functions including competitiveness or climatic-stress resistance (Siemens et al. 2012; Alsdurf et al. 2013). Our second hypothesis is hence that phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods indirectly select for reduced climatic-stress resistance due to a combination of two mechanisms: direct selection for genotypes of increased herbivore resistance of genotypes (Fig. 1). We expect this indirect selection to involve particular resistance traits that are energetically costly to a tree because they are produced in high quantities, such as anthocyanins or flavonols or morphological resistance traits (Feeny 1976).

Alternatively, the same traits might confer resistance against herbivores and climatic-stress and selection for these traits by a phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood might either prevent or reinforce selection by climatic-stress. Anthocyanins and flavonols, for instance, have been shown to increase under both herbivore attack and climatic-stress due to frost or drought (Treutter 2006; Korn et al. 2008). Also tough, thick leaves rich in dry matter might resist both herbivores and climatic-stress. In such a case, two scenarios are possible. First, the double benefits from such multifunctional traits might reduce the costs of adaptation to climatic-stress in a neighbourhood that increases herbivore pressure, i.e. a phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood (Fig. 1). Second, the

signal of selection by climatic-stress might be obscured by selection of the same traits by herbivore pressure, i.e. in a phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood. Simply, climatic-stress is not needed for the evolution of such traits in a phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood, and herbivores from phylogenetically proximate neighbours are not needed in a stressful climate. To our knowledge, it has been little studied how selection due to climatic-stress interacts with selection due to herbivore pressure (Suzuki et al. 2014), or even conditions favouring herbivory. Our third hypothesis is hence that a phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood either prevents or reinforces the selection by climatic-stress for traits promoting climatic-stress resistance.

We tested the above hypotheses for sessile oak (*Quercus petraea*), one of the major forest trees across much of Europe, often growing with phylogenetically proximate neighbours, and suffering from climatic-stress (Cheaib et al. 2012). We used a 25-year common garden experiment from provenances of different phylogenetic neighbourhoods and climates (Appendix S1), permitting us to identify selection of genotypes in the provenances by characterising phenotypes of descendants in the common garden. Specifically, our hypotheses predict: (1) Descendants from provenances dominated by phylogenetically proximate neighbours experience little attack from specialist herbivores due to high levels of herbivore resistances (Fig. 1). (2) Provenances whose descendants have high levels of such herbivore resistances tend to have particularly low climatic-stress resistance, and these are the provenances dominated by phylogenetically proximate neighbours (Fig. 1). (3) Descendants from provenances of particularly harsh climates have tough and thick leaves rich in chemical resistance compounds – and the strength of this relationship is modified in provenances dominated by phylogenetically proximate neighbours (Fig. 1).

<u>Methods</u>

Sessile oak (Quercus petraea)

Sessile oaks are among the dominant late-successional tree species in forests across temperate Europe, often forming monospecific stands or growing together with other Fagaceae species (Ellenberg 1988). Sessile oaks suffer from a diverse and abundant herbivore fauna (Brändle & Brandl 2001), including both specialist species, such as miners and galls, and less specialised species such as ectophageous lepidoptera often capable of using multiple plant genera or even families (Gaston et al. 1992; Giffard et al. 2012). Southwood et al. (2004) show that all three groups are abundant on oaks, the ectophages mainly in May, galls and mines in August to October. Moreover, sessile oak is predicted to strongly suffer from future climate change towards the hot and dry range edge (Cheaib et al. 2012), while towards its continental and northern limit, it appears to be limited by cold and long winters (Sáenz-Romero et al. 2017). Vulnerability of a genotype to herbivores should be visible from increased damage, vulnerability to cold and long winters or hot and dry summers from a late bud burst, or from bud burst or growth that strongly responds to changes in ambient climate, as detailed below. Traits that may confer protection from herbivores, frost, heat or drought include leaves that are thick or tough, or rich in dry matter, in anthocyanins, flavonols, or tannins (Thomas et al. 2002; Cornelissen 2006; Korn et al. 2008; Nakabayashi et al. 2013).

The provenance experiment

We profited from a common garden experiment created by the French National Institute for Agricultural Research (INRA) in 1990 (Ducousso et al. 1996, Sinclair et al. 2015) and described in Appendix S2. We used phylogenetic distances in Yguel et al. (2011, details in Appendix S2) multiplied by the relative abundance of each trees species in each provenance (equivalent to abundance weighting in phylogenetic diversity measures) resulting in a gradient from zero to 48 million years. We note that phylogenetic distance to *Q. petraea* does not always equal to phylogenetic diversity of the forest. For instance, a forest composed of 90% of *Q. petraea* and 10% *Fagus sylvatica* has identical phylogenetic diversity but much lower phylogenetic distance to *Q. petraea* than a forest of the inverse composition. We also characterised provenances by annual minimum and maximum temperatures and summer hydric deficit (Appendix S2).We selected 25 provenances, maximizing the variation in phylogenetic distance, while minimizing the geographic distance, hence mostly choosing pairs of provenances with contrasting phylogenetic distance that were geographically close. Also, in the common garden, we sampled trees from different provenances in spatial proximity. Each provenance is a replicate along a gradient of phylogenetic distances of parental neighbourhoods and parental climate, and trees were averaged within provenances to avoid pseudoreplication.

Sampling

In the common garden we sampled leaves from two trees from each of 21 provenances, and one tree from each of the remaining 4 provenances. Sampling was done in October 2015. We harvested leaves from branches of intermediate height of about 7-9 m. From each tree, we stored 40 leaves in a freezer at minus 18°C, and dried 50 flat leaves at ambient room temperature.

Measurements of herbivory

We assessed herbivory, using frozen leaves out of which we randomly selected 15 to 30 (variation imposed by technical constraints). As in Giffard et al. (2012), we discriminated three types of herbivory based on the feeding guild: (i) galls (ii) mines, i.e. galleries formed between the upper and the lower epidermis by insect larvae, and (iii) ectophagy, i.e. the partial or complete loss of leaf including epidermis. To quantify herbivory we first approximately quantified the surface of the leaf prior to damage by reconstructing the initial leaf shape before herbivory on a photocopy of the leaf.

We traced the drawing on a grid of points of 1x1cm² (Yguel et al. 2011). Then, we laid the grid on the leaf to quantify the area lost through ectophagy or leaf mines. Throughout, "area" was the number of points covering a given damaged or undamaged part of the leaf. We also counted the number of galls and leaf mines. For each leaf we calculated (i) the density of galls per cm² (ii) the proportion of area damaged by leaf mines, and (iii) the proportion of area damaged by ectophagy (we note that relationships observed for proportion of mined surface were consistent with numbers of mines per surface and average size of mines – the mined proportion of leaf surface integrates mine abundance and mine growth, appendix S3).

Proxies of climatic resistance

Climate is widely considered as a major control of the budburst of trees (Menzel 2000; Morin et al. 2010). Genotypes that are more resistant to cold winter temperatures burst buds earlier. Moreover, such resistant genotypes should also burst buds more independently of the ambient climate, resulting in low variation of budburst across the four common gardens. We thus used the budburst advancement, and coefficient of variation (CV) of budburst advancement across the four common gardens, as proxies of climatic-stress resistance. Budburst was recorded on a 0-5 ordinal scale where 0 is a dormant bud and 5 is a fully open bud (details in Sinclair et al. 2015, similar approaches in Crawley & Akhteruzzaman 1988; Tack et al. 2010). Budburst was surveyed already in 1995, but results were still applicable as relative budburst-rank of individual oak trees remains constant across years (Koenig et al. 2012). We calculated the CV of budburst for each provenance as the standard deviation of the budburst among the four common gardens divided by the mean. Climate is also considered to affect growth. Genotypes that are more resistant to climate grow independently of the ambient regional climate (Thomas et al. 2002). Growth was recorded as the height of trees after 10 years (starting from seeds) within each common garden in 2001, and we calculated the CV of growth across common gardens.

Measurements of leaf traits

We measured leaf chemical traits in the field. We measured an index of anthocyanins, flavonols and nitrogen status with an optical sensor based on the absorbance proprieties contained in the epidermis (Dualex 4 Force A; Louis et al. 2009; Cerovic et al. 2012). These measures are non-destructive and much more rapid than quantifying the within-leaf concentrations, but nevertheless strongly correlated to within-leaf concentrations (Goulas et al. 2004). Moreover, anthocyanins and flavonols reflect well overall polyphenol concentrations under comparable conditions (Scogings 2014). We measured three leaves per tree, between leaf veins on both leaf faces.

We measured leaf morphological traits in the laboratory. We assessed leaf thickness on four randomly selected leaves among the leaves studied for herbivory, i.e. using material that had been deep-frozen. We used a precision calliper (Thickness gauge glorythai, model number: BY01, Shantou, China). For each leaf, we measured the thickness at eight points between the main veins as recommended by Pérez-Harguindeguy et al. (2013). We averaged values per leaf, per tree and per provenance.

To assess leaf toughness we randomly selected five leaves per tree. Because Pérez-Harguindeguy et al. (2013) discourage the use of frozen leaves we used dried leaves which we rehydrated by letting them soak for 24 hours in tap water. Once rehydrated, we used a durometer to measure the resistance to punching (ATG-50 Dial Tension Gauge Gram Force Meter Dual point 50 g, Wenzhou, China) at eight points per leaf between the main ribs. Again, we averaged values per leaf, tree, and provenance.

To asses leaf dry matter content (LDMC) we used the five rehydrated leaves per tree having served for toughness measurements. We weighed them together, dried to weight-constancy during 48 hours in an oven at a temperature of 65 ° C and then reweighted to obtain dry weight (Pérez-

Harguindeguy et al. 2013). We calculated the LDMC dividing the dry weight by the wet weight of the five leaves. Then we averaged the LDMC across trees within provenances.

Statistical analyses

Throughout our analyses, information on descendants in the common garden was averaged within provenances. For our analyses, except for the exploratory analyses, we did corrections for multiple comparisons using the method of the false discovery rate, following Benjamini & Hochberg (1995), applied to each of the four groups of dependent variables (pressure by specialist herbivores, pressure by generalist enemies, morphological resistances, or chemical resistances).

Exploratory analyses

Soil types in provenances might influence phylogenetic distance of neighbourhoods, and select for different capacities of nitrogen acquisition. We therefore checked if the soil type of the provenances had an effect on leaf nitrogen status of the descendants or on the phylogenetic distance of the provenance neighbourhood. As there was no effect of soil type and as soil types were only known for 19 provenances we did not integrate soil type into our below models (Appendix S4).

Our measure of phylogenetic distance of the provenance neighbourhood is dependent on the abundance of different tree taxa in the provenances. We therefore checked with simple regressions the effect of abundances of individual taxa in the provenances on each variable of herbivory or herbivore resistances. We found that taxon abundances were always less significant than phylogenetic distance (Appendix S5). We hence used only phylogenetic distances in our models. Relationships between the phylogenetic distance of provenance neighbourhoods and the herbivory or resistances against herbivores of descendants from these provenances

We performed multiple regressions to study the effect of phylogenetic distance of neighbourhood on herbivory or traits related to herbivore resistances (leaf toughness, leaf thickness, LDMC, anthocyanins and flavonols). We took into account multiple co-variables that might relate to phylogenetic distance in the provenance or nutritional quality of the descendants for herbivores: annual minimum and maximum temperatures, and summer hydric deficit in the provenances, budburst and the leaf nitrogen status of the descendants (Crawley & Akhteruzzaman 1988; Minkenberg & Ottenheim 1990).

Relationships between resistance against herbivores and climatic-stress resistance

We performed multiple regressions to study the effect of herbivore resistance (low proportion of ectophagy, low gall density, low proportion of leaf mines, leaf toughness, leaf thickness, LDMC, anthocyanins and flavonols) on climatic-stress resistance (bud-burst advancement, CVs of bud-burst and growth). We used leaf nitrogen status as a co-variable to avoid bias due to differences of nutrient availability for descendants from different provenances, as suggested by Koricheva (2002).

Relationships between phylogenetic distance of provenance neighbourhoods and climatic-stress resistance or resistance-related traits

We performed multiple regressions to study the effect of phylogenetic neighbourhood on climaticstress resistance of descendants. We took into account the annual minimum and maximum temperature, summer hydric deficit in the provenances, and leaf nitrogen status of the descendants in the common garden as co-variables as explained before. We performed multiple regressions to study the effect of phylogenetic neighbourhood and climate in the provenances, and the interaction between both, on traits potentially increasing climatic-stress resistance (anthocyanins, flavonols, leaf toughness, leaf thickness and LDMC), using the advancement of budburst and leaf nitrogen status as a co-variables as before. Again, we included all three climatic variables into the model, together with corresponding interaction term. In order to not overload the model we applied a selection of the variables using the R function "step()". This function uses a stepwise selection procedure, based on Akaike Information Criterion (Burnham & Anderson 2002). A positive interaction means that descendants from climatically stressful provenances have higher levels of a resistance-trait if neighbourhoods in these provenances are phylogenetically distant. Finally, we explored the indirect effect of phylogenetic neighbourhood on climatic-stress resistance mediated by resistance traits, using techniques from pathway analyses. This indirect effect is a compound path composed of two direct paths. Direct paths are usually characterised by standardized regression coefficients but these coefficients are inflated in models with interaction terms due to inevitable multicollinearity (Fletcher 2012). As t-values are not inflated (Friedrich 1982) we used them to quantify for each direct path its explained variance Pearson R² (as in Rosenthal 1991), and the compound paths as the product of the R² of the two direct paths. We applied the same procedure for the indirect effects of the interactions between phylogenetic neighbourhood and provenance climate on climatic-stress resistance mediated by resistance traits. We focused on explaining the climatic-stress resistance that was most strongly related to resistance traits, the coefficient of variation of budburst.

All statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.4.1. We verified assumptions of normality and variance homogeneity as follows. We identified residual outliers graphically checking for the normality of the residuals with the QQ plots and the weight of the residuals with the Cook's distance. A maximum of three outliers were excluded per analysis.

Results

Descendants from phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods had increased resistances against leaf miners

Proportion of leaf-mines was highest in descendants from provenances with phylogenetically distant neighbourhoods but independent of climate. Attack by galls was independent of parental neighbourhood but highest in descendants from warm climates. Proportion of ectophagy was independent of parental environment (Tab. 1 and Fig. 2A). Leaves were softest in descendants from phylogenetically distant neighbourhoods and mildest temperatures (Tab. 1 and Fig. 2B). Consistently, soft leaves had particularly high proportion of leaf mines (T=-2.146, p=0.0466, adjustedR²=0.20, df=17, same co-variables as in above models). Leaves tended to be thinnest and poorest in dry matter in descendants from mildest temperatures. Anthocyanins or flavonols did not depend on parental environment (Tab. 1). Note that the effect of phylogenetic distance on proportion of leaf-mines might be driven by the phylogenetic distance of the heterospecifics: this effect was maintained after including conspecific abundance into the model (which only had a weak effect; Appendix S6). In contrast, the effect of phylogenetic distance on leaf toughness might be driven by both heterospecific distance and conspecific abundance: taken into account together these variables showed roughly similar, non-significant, effects (Appendix S6).

Resistances against leaf miners did not relate to climatic-stress resistance

Descendants with advanced budburst within the studied common garden, or with constant budburst across common gardens, had low gall density (Tab. 2, Fig. S7A and B). No relationships were observed for climatic-stress resistance as inferred from among-common-garden CV of growth of descendants, or for physical or chemical resistances, or the proportion of leaf mines (Tab. 2).

Descendants from phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood were no less resistant to

climatic-stress than descendants from other neighbourhoods

The phylogenetic distance of the parental neighbourhood had no effect on the budburst advancement (T=0.598, p=0.557, adjusted R²=0.08, df=18), the CV of budburst (T=-0.178, p=0.861, adjusted R²=0.47, df=17) or the CV of growth (T=0.417, p=0.682, adjusted R²=-0.08, df=18), nor did it change the relationship between temperature extremes in provenances and proxies of climaticstress resistance (interaction terms in Appendix S8).

A phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood reinforces the selection by harsh climates on anthocyanins, flavonols and leaf thickness.

We observed significant interactions between phylogenetic distance of the parental neighbourhood and the parental climate on anthocyanins, flavonols and leaf thickness (Tab. 3). Specifically, stress due to high summer hydric deficit corresponded to an increase of anthocyanins concentration and leaf thickness of descendants from phylogenetically proximate but not distant neighbourhoods (Tab. 3, Fig. 3A and C). Stress due to low minimum annual temperatures corresponded to a strong increase of flavonols concentration and leaf thickness of descendants from phylogenetically proximate but not distant neighbourhoods (Tab. 3, Fig. 3B and D), albeit the effect on flavonols became marginally significant after correction for false discovery rate. Compound paths never exceeded R²=0.018 suggesting no mediation by resistance traits between provenance neighbourhoods and climatic-stress resistance of descendants. (Note that *direct* effects of provenance climate on climatic-stress resistance did exist, Appendix S8).

Discussion

Overall, we found that descendants from phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods differ from descendants from phylogenetically distant neighbourhoods in multiple ways. We acknowledge that our study has a number of limitations. First, there were no gymnosperms in the provenances used for this study. Castagneyrol et al. (2014) show that specialist-herbivore abundance on angiosperms starts to decrease when the phylogenetic distance of the neighbourhood differs from zero, while generalist abundance remains constant until the phylogenetic neighbourhood includes gymnosperms. Our results are hence appropriate mainly for specialist herbivores. Secondly, we do not have information about the pressure of herbivores in the provenances. Explaining herbivore resistances of a genotype from a phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood by herbivore pressure remains an interpretation. Such interpretation is a plausible one given that herbivore pressure does reflect phylogenetic composition of a forest (Brändle & Brandl 2006; Nyman et al. 2006; Yguel et al. 2011). Moreover, we inferred climatic-stress resistance from a limited number of proxies, i.e. budburst and growth and their coefficients of variation, proxies that certainly do not reflect all aspects of climatic-stress resistance. Nevertheless, budburst and growth are sensitive to factors limiting the distributional range of our study species, i.e. extreme winter and summer temperatures and drought (Menzel 2000; Morin et al. 2010). Finally, a trade-off between resistance against climatic-stress and against herbivores might be masked by other trade-offs such as between resistance to climatic-stress and pathogens. However, in our study, visible fungal pathogens covered only less than one percent of the leaves. A trade-off between resistance against bacteria and against climatic-stress cannot be excluded but should hide a trade-off between herbivore resistances and climatic-stress resistance only if bacteria attack oaks mainly in a phylogenetically distant neighbourhood, which should be tested in future studies.

Coexistence with phylogenetically proximate neighbours selects for genotypes that are morphologically resistant against one type of specialist herbivore. We had hypothesized that plants

from phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods have evolved increased herbivore resistance because of the increased pressure of herbivores in such neighbourhood (Yguel et al. 2011). Consistent with the hypothesis we found that genotypes from such neighbourhoods are particularly resistant against leaf miners. Gaston et al. (1992) show that leaf miners are mostly specialists, probably because they are internal feeders and hence have to adapt to the specific leaf morphology and chemistry of their host plant (Cornell 1989). A major resistance against several miner species are tough leaves: tough leaves prevent adult females from piercing the leaf epidermis to oviposit their egg inside the leaf, or they prevent larvae that hatch on the leaf surface from entering inside the leaf. Cornelissen (2006) indeed shows that tougher leaves exhibited lower density of leaf miners. Consistently, we found that genotypes from phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods have tougher leaves and that tough leaves are particularly little attacked by leaf miners. Equally consistently, we found that genotypes from phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods are not particularly strongly resistant against ectophages, being usually less specialized due to their external feeding mode (Gaston et al. 1992). Low specialization permits the use of relatively distantly related host plants across Angiosperms, and consistent with that, Grandez-Rios et al. (2015) show that ectophages are not affected by the phylogenetic neighbourhood. Selection for plant defences against ectophages should hence not differ among phylogenetic neighbourhoods. Inconsistent with the hypothesis we found that genotypes from phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods are not particularly resistant against another type of specialist enemies: galls (itself consistent with Yguel et al. [2014] showing that gall abundance does not depend on host phylogenetic isolation). Possibly, any effect of parental neighbourhood is overridden by the observed effect of parental temperatures on gall resistance. Finally, inconsistent with the hypothesis we found that genotypes from phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods are not particularly resistant in terms of chemical compounds. Neilson et al. (2013) have suggested that chemical compounds are multifunctional - in the absence of herbivores they might serve other purposes than herbivore resistance. Herbivory in a

phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood hence might not increase selection for the chemical compounds.

Coexistence with phylogenetically proximate neighbours does not indirectly select against climaticstress resistance because resistances against specialist herbivores are not traded off against climaticstress resistance. We had hypothesized that if phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods select for higher herbivore resistances they might indirectly select against capacities that are traded off against herbivore resistances such as climatic-stress resistance. The first part of this hypothesis, on selection of herbivore resistances, is equal to hypothesis 1 and has been treated before. We will here discuss the second and third part, i.e. a trade-off between resistances against herbivores and climatic-stress, and an indirect selection against climatic-stress resistance by phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods. Consistent with the trade-off part of the hypothesis we found a tendency of delayed budburst in trees that are more resistant against ectophages, albeit other proxies of climate resistance did not respond. Delayed budburst represents an opportunity cost by delaying photosynthesis (Koricheva 2002). However, this trade-off might not lead to an indirect selection against climatic-stress resistance in a phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood as such neighbourhood did not select for increased resistance against ectophages. Inconsistent with the trade-off part of the hypothesis we found no negative relationships between resistances against leaf miners, including leaf toughness, and climatic-stress resistance. There might be no trade-off because resistance to leaf miners and to climatic-stress occur at different moments: Leaf toughness - a resistance against leaf miners - develops in a climatically favourable period for oaks in spring and in early summer. In contrast, climatic-stress limiting budburst operates in late winter. Oaks might therefore invest into the resistance against leaf miners in spring and summer and later on invest in climatic-stress resistance, without any direct trade-off among them. In addition, inconsistent with the trade-off part of the hypothesis we found no trade-off between chemical compounds and climatic-stress resistance. Neilson and al. (2013) have suggested that the multifunctionality of chemical resistances such as anthocyanins can offset the cost of plant chemical resistance. Also,

opposite to the trade-off part of the hypothesis, we found a positive relationship between resistances against galls and against climatic-stress in terms of early budburst. Crawley & Akhteruzzaman (1988) have shown that some gall species prefer oaks that burst buds late, possibly because such oaks are more favourable for adult female gall wasps. Finally, we found no evidence in favour of the third part of the hypothesis, i.e. an indirect selection against climatic-stress resistance in phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods. This is consistent with the absence of trade-offs between resistances against miners and against climatic-stress, and with the absence of selection for resistance against ectophages in such neighbourhoods.

Coexistence in phylogenetically proximate neighbours can reinforce the selection by climate for biochemical compounds and one morphological trait, possibly reflecting increased pressure from herbivores. We had hypothesized that in phylogenetically proximate neighbourhoods, the increased herbivore pressure can reinforce or prevent the selection pressure by climatic-stress on particular traits conferring multiple resistances. As mentioned above, we found no supporting results for the "prevent" version of the hypothesis. Consistent with the "reinforce" version of the hypothesis we found that genotypes from cold-winter provenances have high levels of flavonols and thick leaves (known to increase frost resistance, Korn et al. 2008; González-Zurdo et al. 2016) - provided that the neighbourhood in the provenances was phylogenetically proximate. We found that genotypes from dry summer provenances had high levels of anthocyanins and thick leaves (known to increase water stress resistance, Chalker-Scott 1999; Ennajeh et al. 2010) – provided that the neighbourhood in the provenances was phylogenetically proximate. White (1984) suggests that climatic-stress increases the availability of nitrogen in leaves of stressed plants, which will increase herbivory and reinforce their selection pressure on plants. Resistance traits against cold stress and drought stress should hence be particularly important in plants exposed to high enemy pressure in a phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood.

Our results may have implications for understanding coexistence among phylogenetically proximate individuals (Prinzing et al. 2017, Gerhold et al. 2018). It has been suggested that coexistence of phylogenetically proximate individuals is prevented by increased herbivore pressure and competition, leading to coexistence among phylogenetically distant species (Janzen 1970; Webb et al. 2002; Liu et al. 2012). Our study shows that another response to coexistence among phylogenetically proximate individuals might be an adaptation to increased herbivore pressure. This adaptation to neighbourhoods seems to be no less important than adaptation to climates (Tab. 1), and seems to come without costs, at least in terms of climatic tolerance. We might hence hypothesize that adaptation to phylogenetically proximate neighbours facilitates their coexistence. Future studies should try to identify the importance of multifunctionality of chemical compounds possibly enabling plants to be jacks-of-all-trades and to coexist among phylogenetically proximate individuals. Our results also imply that while the response to coexisting close relatives has no costs for climatic-stress resistance, it might change the evolutionary response of one trait to climate. Future studies should identify what exactly causes this change, e.g. whether rather the action of enemies or of mutualists changes the selection pressure by climate.

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Tables

<u>Table 1.</u> Effect of phylogenetic distance of parental neighbourhood and of climate (annual minimum and maximum temperatures, summer hydric deficit) in provenances on herbivory and herbivore resistances of oak descendants in the common garden. Linear regressions with co-variables (advancement of budburst and leaf nitrogen status of the descendants in the common garden). LDMC= leaf dry matter content. Significant values are in bold (an asterisk indicates the p value that stay significant after correction using the false discovery rate). "Proportion" refers to the proportion of the entire leaf surface affected by a type of herbivory. Data points are means across descendants within provenances.

				Phylogenetic distance of parental neighbourhood		Tmin		Tmax		Summer hydric deficit	
	Dependent variables	Adj. R ² of entire model	df	т	р	т	р	Т	р	Т	р
Specialist herbivores	Gall density	0.53	18	0.923	0.3681	1.132	0.2725	2.490	0.0228*	-1.282	0.2160
	Proportion of leaf mines	0.57	15	4.005	0.0012*	0.916	0.3743	-1.681	0.1135	-0.807	0.4325
Generalist herbivores	Proportion of ectophagy	0.13	16	0.045	0.9643	-0.150	0.8829	0.682	0.5050	-0.705	0.4911
Chemical compounds	Anthocyanins concentration	0.41	17	-0.548	0.5907	-1.316	0.2058	0.927	0.3669	0.751	0.4632
	Flavonols concentration	-0.09	16	0.128	0.9001	-1.009	0.3280	-0.397	0.6969	0.911	0.3757
	Leaf toughness	0.63	16	-2.832	0.0120*	-2.256	0.0384	3.372	0.0039*	-0.969	0.3469
Morphological traits	Leaf thickness	0.48	18	-1.716	0.1034	-1.976	0.0637	1.836	0.0829	1.080	0.2943
	LDMC	0.17	17	0.007	0.9948	-1.863	0.0799	0.930	0.3653	0.749	0.4641

<u>Table 2.</u> Effect of herbivory or herbivore resistances of the descendants on their climatic-stress resistance. Climatic-stress resistance is represented by advancement of budburst of descendants in the Petite Charnie common garden, coefficient of variation (CV) of budburst advancement and CV of growth across four commons gardens. Multiple linear regression analyses accounting for leaf nitrogen status of the descendants in the common garden. LDMC= leaf dry matter content. Significant values are in bold (an asterisk indicates the p value that stay significant after correction using the false discovery rate). "Proportion" refers to the proportion of the entire leaf surface affected by a type of herbivory. Data points are means across descendants within provenances.

		Specialist herbivores		Generalist herbivores	Chemical compounds		Morphological traits			
		Gall density	Proportion of leaf mines	Proportion of ectophagy	Anthocyanins concentration	Flavonols concentration	Leaf toughness	Leaf thickness	LDMC	
	Т	-4.083	0.838	2.569	0.039	-0.092	-1.380	-0.883	0.713	
Advancement of budburst	р	0.0005*	0.412	0.0175	0.9690	0.9270	0.1820	0.3874	0.4836	
	Adj. R ² of entire model	0.42	-0.006	0.27	-0.04	0.06	0.09	-0.005	0.07	
	df	21	20	22	21	20	22	21	22	
	Т	5.614	-0.926	-1.453	0.327	-0.798	1.719	0.993	-0.362	
CV of budburst	р	<0.0001*	0.3660	0.1604	0.7470	0.4342	0.1002	0.3320	0.7211	
	Adj. R ² of entire model	0.61	0.004	0.13	-0.03	0.10	0.09	0.008	-0.03	
	df	22	20	22	21	20	21	21	21	
CV of growth	Т	-0.690	0.251	0.442	0.098	-0.397	-0.478	0.272	-0.379	
	р	0.4982	0.8040	0.6630	0.9230	0.6952	0.6373	0.7880	0.7080	
	Adj. R ² of entire model	-0.01	-0.088	-0.034	-0.07	-0.03	0.05	-0.07	-0.06	
	df	20	18	21	21	20	21	21	21	

<u>Table 3.</u> Effect of phylogenetic distance of parental neighbourhood, the parental climate (summer hydric deficit, annual minimum and maximum temperature), and the interaction between them on traits of the descendants conferring resistance against climatic-stress, accounting for the advancement of budburst and leaf nitrogen status of the descendants in the common garden. Multiple linear regression analyses across data points that are means across descendants within provenances. The variables of the models have been selected by multiple-step AIC procedure. Significant values are in bold (an asterisk indicates the p values that stay significant after correction using false discovery rate with α =0.05 and a cross for α =0.1).

			Phylo dist	Summer hydric deficit	Summer hydric deficit:phylo dist	Tmax	Tmax:phylo dist	Tmin	Tmin:phylo dist
		Т	-1.586	2.715	-2.736	0.994	1.718	-3.472	
Chemical compounds	Anthocyanins concentration	р	0.133	0.016*	0.015*	0.336	0.106	0.003*	
		Adj. R ² of entire model				0.65			
		df				15			
		т	2.052					-1.993	2.190
	Flavonols	р	0.055+					0.062+	0.042+
	concentration	Adj. R ² of entire model				0.19			
		df				18			
	Leaf toughness	Т	0.882	0.0328	-1.563	3.723		-2.068	
		р	0.392	0.747	0.139	0.002*		0.056+	
		Adj. R ² of entire model				0.51			
its		df				15			
Morphological tra	Leaf thickness	т	3.122	3.787	-3.288	3.068		-4.893	2.741
		р	0.007*	0.002*	0.005*	0.007*		0.0002*	0.014*
		Adj. R ² of entire model				0.70			
		df				16			
		т				4.022		-5.684	
	LDMC	р				0.0008*		0.00002*	
		Adj. R ² of entire model				0.67			
		df				18			

Figure legends

Figure 1. Our hypotheses. A conspecific or phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood (broadleaf trees as opposed to needle trees) increases pressure by specialist herbivores (caterpillar size) on a focal tree (broadleaf tree). Hypothesis 1 states that such neighbourhood selects for increased investment into resistance against specialist herbivores (thick arrows towards caterpillars). Hypotheses 2 states that traits conferring resistance to herbivores are distinct (red arrows) from those conferring resistance to climate (blue arrows), resulting in a trade-off between both (arrow size) and an indirect selection against resistance to climatic-stress in a conspecific or phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood (bottom graph). Hypothesis 3 suggest that traits are multifunctional and confer resistance against both, herbivory and climatic-stress (yellow arrows). In the illustrated case, resistance to climatic-stress is less costly in a conspecific or phylogenetically proximate neighbourhood as here the resistance trait also serves to resist herbivore pressure, facilitating selection by climatic-stress for this multifunctional resistance trait (bottom graph).

<u>Figure 2.</u> Effect of phylogenetic distance of parental neighbourhood in provenances on (A) the proportion of leaf surface covered by leaf mines, and (B) the leaf toughness of the descendants in the common garden. Y values give partial residuals, accounting for co-variables (annual minimum and maximum temperatures and summer hydric deficit in the provenances, advancement of budburst and leaf nitrogen status of the descendants in the common garden), as explained in Tab. 1. Data points are means across descendants within provenances.

<u>Figure 3.</u> Interaction between the phylogenetic distance of the parental neighbourhood and the parental climate on traits conferring resistance against climatic-stress. Presented are significant (full lines) or marginally significant (dashed lines) interactions after correction for false discovery rate from Table 3: phylogenetic distance (below vs above median) x (A) summer hydric deficit affecting anthocyanins, (B) minimum annual temperature affecting flavonols, (C) summer hydric deficit affecting affecting leaf thickness and (D) minimum annual temperature affecting leaf thickness. The values on Y-axis are the partial residuals, i.e. accounting for the advancement of budburst and leaf nitrogen

status of the descendants in the common garden, as explained in Tab. 3. Data points are means across descendants within provenances.

Figures

Figure 1







Parental neighbourhood



-1 0

-3 -2 Minimum annual temperature -3.0 -2.0 -1.0

Minimum annual temperature

0.0