

# Host-specific soil microbes contribute to habitat restriction of closely related oaks (*Quercus* spp.)

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## Abstract

Habitat divergence among close relatives is a common theme in ecology. While recent studies have frequently found that the abundance and diversity of plant species are regulated by soil microbes, little is known whether soil microbes can also affect the habitat distributions of plants. To fill in this knowledge gap, we investigated whether interactions with soil microbes restrict habitat distributions of closely related oaks (*Quercus* spp.) in eastern North America. We performed a soil inoculum experiment using two pairs of sister species that show habitat divergence: *Quercus alba* (local species) vs. *Q. michauxii* (foreign), and *Q. shumardii* (local) vs. *Q. acerifolia* (foreign). To test whether host-specific soil microbes are responsible for habitat restriction, we investigated the impact of local sister live soil (containing soil microbes associated with local sister species) on the survival and growth of local and foreign species. Secondly, to test whether habitat-specific soil microbes are responsible for habitat restriction, we also examined the effect of local habitat live soil (containing soil microbes within local sister's habitats, but not directly associated with roots of local sister species) on the seedlings of local and foreign species. We found that local sister live soil decreased the survival and biomass of foreign species' seedlings while increased those of local species, which supports the roles of host-specific microbes in mediating habitat exclusion. In contrast, local habitat live soil did not differentially affect the survival or biomass of the local vs. foreign sister species, providing no support for the roles of habitat-specific microbes. Our study indicates that soil microbes associated with one sister species can suppress the recruitment of the other host species, contributing to habitat partitioning of the closely related oaks. Our findings emphasize that considering the complex interactions with soil microbes is essential for understanding habitat distributions of closely related plants.

1 **Host-specific soil microbes contribute to habitat restriction of closely related oaks**  
2 **(*Quercus* spp.)**

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42

43 **Keywords:**

44 Habitat distributions, Habitat divergence, Host specificity, Plant–soil (below-ground)  
45 interactions, *Quercus*, Soil microbes

## 46 1 | INTRODUCTION

47 Understanding the mechanisms underlying species habitat distributions has been a long-standing  
48 issue in ecology, biogeography, and evolution (MacArthur 1972, Rabinowitz 1981, Bazzaz 1991,  
49 Sexton et al. 2017). Habitat specialization among closely related species is frequently observed  
50 in a wide range of taxa, especially in species-rich clades, such as monkeyflowers (*Mimulus*),  
51 oaks (*Quercus*), and silver-sword (*Argyroxiphium*, *Dubautia* and *Wilkesia*) (Cavender-Bares et  
52 al. 2004, Sobel 2014, Blonder et al. 2015). Traditionally and intuitively, researchers associate  
53 abiotic variables, such as resource levels, microclimates, soil conditions, and light intensity, to  
54 divergent habitat distributions among close relatives. On the other hand, biotic interactions can  
55 also limit geographic distributions of a host species. Particularly, the roles of seed predators,  
56 herbivores, and soil microbes on species distributions is an active area of research (Gaston 2009,  
57 McCarthy-Neumann and Ibáñez 2012, Alexandre et al. 2018, Benning and Moeller 2020).  
58 However, most of these studies have not linked these biotic interactions among close relatives  
59 with habitat restriction, *i.e.*, limited occurrence of a species to certain habitat(s) within its  
60 geographic range. More empirical evidence is needed to answer the question: how do biotic  
61 interactions restrict habitat distributions and promote habitat partitioning among closely related  
62 species?

63         Recent research has found that biotic interactions can mediate habitat exclusion among  
64 closely related plant species. For example, in multiple plant taxa in Amazonian rainforests,  
65 herbivores drive clay-soil specialist plants to occur only in clay-soil forests because of their low  
66 tolerance to herbivory in white-sand forests, while their close relatives, white-sand specialists,  
67 withstand the intensive herbivory better and remain occupying white-sand forests (Fine et al.  
68 2004, Fine et al. 2013). Consistently, numerous studies have found that herbivores limit plant  
69 distributions by restricting hosts to a smaller subset of habitats within their physiological  
70 tolerance, and consequently, the specialization to marginal habitats helps the disadvantaged host  
71 escape from intensive herbivory that otherwise they would have encountered in the primary  
72 habitat of the other host (Parker and Root 1981, Rand 2003, Pizano et al. 2011, Benning et al.  
73 2019).

74         The roles of soil microbes in regulating plant species abundance and diversity are coming  
75 to the surface in recent years (Comita et al. 2010, LaManna et al. 2017, Marden et al. 2017).

76 Theoretically, microbial communities can also mediate mutual exclusion of habitats and range  
77 distributions of plants (Bever et al. 2015, Holt and Bonsall 2017), given that they can be  
78 transmitted and infect among closely related hosts in a similar fashion as generalist herbivores.  
79 Most examples supporting this hypothesis involve the introduction of exotic species that are  
80 carriers of novel pathogens, which decrease populations of native close relatives (Tompkins et al.  
81 2000, Paillet 2002, Tompkins et al. 2003, Engelkes et al. 2008). One text-book example is that of  
82 the introduced Japanese Chestnut (*Castanea crenata*), which transmitted a canker fungus,  
83 *Cryphonectria parasitica*, and devastated populations of the native American Chestnut  
84 (*Castanea dentata*) in eastern North America (Rhoades and Park 2001). Limited evidence  
85 suggests that soil microbes from native species can constrain distributions of native close  
86 relatives as well. For instance, range-restricted plant species typically are more susceptible to soil  
87 negative feedback when grown in the live soil from closely related species, while widespread  
88 species are much less affected by this feedback from native close relatives (Liu et al. 2012,  
89 Kempel et al. 2018). These results suggest that habitat specialists might be suppressed by soil  
90 microbes from the widespread congeneric relatives. Other studies found that habitat segregation  
91 among closely related species is caused by local adaptation to arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi  
92 found in their own soil habitats: transplanted ecotypes/species show poorer performance due to  
93 maladaptation to the fungal communities in a novel habitat, making them less competitive  
94 compared to the local host (Pizano et al. 2011, Osborne et al. 2018). While hinted, these studies  
95 have not directly tested whether and how soil microbes contribute to habitat restriction among  
96 closely related hosts.

97 To fully reveal the roles of soil microbes in habitat restriction of host plants, two  
98 distinctive mechanisms should be considered. The first mechanism is that soil microbes  
99 associated with one host plant exclude the other host species from invading its habitat. This  
100 mechanism assumes that the composition and functions of soil microbes are host-specific, even  
101 among closely related plants. Additionally, this mechanism suggests that soil microbes  
102 associated with one species might be harmless or beneficial to the coevolved host, while they are  
103 parasitic and harmful to the novel host. Indeed, a host tree effect on soil microbial communities  
104 has been found in congeneric species (Morris et al. 2008, Morris et al. 2009), yet it is unknown  
105 whether the differences in the association with soil microbes would translate to habitat exclusion  
106 of close relatives. The second mechanism is that soil microbes associated with the local habitat

107 of one host species exclude the other host from expanding to the new habitat. This mechanism  
108 assumes that soil microbial communities are habitat-specific, and that host plants are negatively  
109 affected by cross-habitat soil microbes. Supporting this assumption, previous literature reports  
110 that soil microbial communities vary with habitat types (Yang et al. 2016, Wang et al. 2021);  
111 additionally, transplanted host plants are negatively affected by soil microbes of novel habitats  
112 (Pizano et al. 2011, Osborne et al. 2018). While the first mechanism emphasizes host-specific  
113 composition and function of soil microbes, the second one emphasizes habitat specificity.  
114 Noticeably, these two mechanisms are not mutually exclusive: the habitat limits of host species  
115 might be reinforced by both mechanisms.

116 We suggest that these two mechanisms can be vigorously tested using habitat-divergent  
117 sister species in a soil inoculum experiment, as explained below (Fig. 1). If soil microbes directly  
118 associated with sister species limit habitat distribution (the host-specificity mechanism), one  
119 would predict that live soil associated with one sister species (Fig. 1; hereafter “local sister live  
120 soil”) should decrease the fitness of foreign sister’s seedlings from a different habitat. This is  
121 because soil pathogens from the local sister can be parasitic to the foreign sister, and/or foreign  
122 sister is inherently more susceptible to local sister’s pathogens. In addition, live soil associated  
123 with local sister should support higher fitness of its own seedlings due to specialized soil  
124 mutualists and higher tolerance of local sister to its own pathogens (Fig. 1b; Prediction 1). Thus,  
125 we would expect a strong interaction effect between host habitat origin (local sister vs. foreign  
126 sister) and the soil treatments (local sister live soil vs. sterilized soil). Sterilization of local soil  
127 would cancel both of these effects. A lack of interaction effect, or an interaction effect opposite  
128 to the predicted direction, would lead us to reject the host-specificity mechanism. Similarly, we  
129 can test the habitat-specificity effect (Fig. 1c; Prediction 2): if cross-habitat soil microbes  
130 constrain habitat distribution, one would predict that general microbes from local sister’s native  
131 habitat (which are not directly associated with the roots of local species, hereafter “local habitat  
132 live soil”) should decrease the fitness of foreign sister’s seedlings, while increasing the fitness of  
133 the local sister species. By experimenting with two different types of live soils, namely local  
134 sister live soil and local habitat live soil, we can distinguish the contributions of these two  
135 mechanisms in maintaining habitat partitioning of host plants.

136 In this study, we used two sister-species pairs of oaks (*Quercus* spp.) in a soil inoculum  
137 experiment to test the role of soil microbes in constraining species habitats. By testing the host-  
138 specificity vs. habitat-specificity mechanisms, we revealed the biological processes of microbe-  
139 mediated habitat restriction. This study has practical implications for planning conservation of  
140 native habitat specialists, since rare species conservation requires us to understand how local  
141 biotic interactions affect population dynamics (DeCesare et al. 2009, Recart et al. 2012, Flores-  
142 Tolentino et al. 2020).

143

## 144 **2 | METHODS**

### 145 **2.1 | Study system**

146 We used two oak sister-species pairs (*Q. alba*-*Q. michauxii*, *Q. shumardii*-*Q. acerifolia*) in the  
147 soil inoculum experiment (Fig. S1). In the sister pair *Q. alba*-*Q. michauxii*, *Q. alba* grows on dry  
148 upland slopes to well-drained loam and is widely distributed throughout the eastern U.S., while  
149 *Q. michauxii* is adapted to wet bottomlands and is abundant in the southeastern U.S. (Stein et al.  
150 2003). In the sister pair *Q. shumardii*-*Q. acerifolia*, *Q. shumardii* is restricted to well-drained  
151 soils along streams and rivers and is widely distributed in the southeastern U.S. (Stein et al.  
152 2003). In contrast, *Q. acerifolia* is adapted to xeric soils on mountain ridges and occurs at only  
153 four known locations where *Q. shumardii* has not been found in close proximity (pers. obs. by  
154 the first author and communications with knowledgeable local botanists; Fig. S1d). A recent  
155 genomic analysis by Hipp et al. (2018) confirmed their sister-species relationships. Hereafter, we  
156 use the term “foreign sister” for *Q. michauxii* and *Q. acerifolia*, in relation to our experimental  
157 sites within or close to St. Louis, MO (38.64°N, 90.24°W), which are beyond the natural habitats  
158 of these two species (Fig. S1). In contrast, we use the term “local sister” for *Q. alba*, *Q.*  
159 *shumardii*.

160 Oak species encounter many taxa of soil pathogens, including soil fungi (Rizzo et al.  
161 2002, Balci et al. 2007, Haavik et al. 2015), root-parasitic nematodes (Maboreke et al. 2016), and  
162 ectomycorrhizal fungi that occasionally turn parasitic depending on external environments and  
163 host species (Johnson et al. 1997, Ibáñez and McCarthy-Neumann 2016, Nash et al. 2020).  
164 Despite the high diversity of soil pathogens, previous research found positive conspecific soil  
165 feedback in oaks (McCarthy-Neumann and Ibáñez 2012, Bennett et al. 2017), providing support

166 for our Prediction 1 that seedlings of local sister grow better in conspecific live soil (Fig. 1b). For  
167 our study species, we did not directly test the underlying assumption that soil microbes can be  
168 transmitted among sister species, but this assumption is probably true because phylogenetically  
169 related host plants share similar root-associated pathogens (Liu et al. 2012, Schroeder et al.  
170 2019).

171

## 172 **2.2 | Acorn collection**

173 Acorns were collected from early October to early November 2018 from the Shaw Nature  
174 Reserve (Gray Summit, MO; 38.48°N, 90.82°W), the Missouri Botanical Garden (St. Louis,  
175 MO; 38.61°N, 90.26°W), and the campus of University of Missouri–St. Louis (St. Louis, MO;  
176 38.71°N, 90.31°W), depending on the availability of each species’ acorns at each location.  
177 Specifically, for foreign sister species, we collected acorns from two mature trees of *Q.*  
178 *michauxii* in the Missouri Botanical Garden, and from one mature tree of *Q. acerifolia* in the  
179 Shaw Nature Reserve (see Note S1 for provenance). For local sister species, we collected acorns  
180 from two trees per species. To ensure that seed source and maternal effects (Fort et al. 2021) did  
181 not confound the treatment effect, we used the same seed source composition for each treatment  
182 within the same species.

183 We selected healthy acorns by visually inspecting and excluding acorns with damages,  
184 and then used float tests to further exclude floating acorns that are non-viable (Morina et al.  
185 2017); only the healthy “sinkers” were kept and stored in bags with moist and sterilized  
186 sphagnum moss at 4°C for stratification. All seeds were stratified until early April 2019, when  
187 most acorns showed radicals. We only used acorns with radicals for the experiment, since acorns  
188 that did not show radicals were likely non-viable.

189

## 190 **2.3 | Soil inoculum experiment**

191 We set up a soil inoculum experiment in a climate-controlled greenhouse at the University of  
192 Missouri–St. Louis from April to August 2019. Deep tree pots (10.16 cm diameter, 35.56 cm  
193 depth) were cleaned carefully using 10% bleach before the experiment. We used commercial soil  
194 (Berger BM7 35% Bark HP; Berger Company, QC, Canada) for the background soil, which

195 made up 90% of the soil in all the pots; this ensured that the nutrition levels and soil structure in  
196 all pots were consistent. This background soil was sterilized in an autoclave twice with a 24-hr  
197 interval, at 121°C for 75 min each time; double sterilization prevents growth of any heat-resistant  
198 strains.

199 Two types of live soil were collected from two natural forests: the Shaw Nature Reserve  
200 and the Tyson Research Center (Eureka, MO; 38.53°N, 90.56°W), in late March 2019. The first  
201 type of live soil was associated with the mother trees of local sister (corresponding to green  
202 dashed circles in Fig. 1a), representing the local sister live soil. We collected the live soil from  
203 the bases of two mature trees from each of the local species, *Q. alba* and *Q. shumardii*, from  
204 three locations within the Shaw Nature Reserve. We collected the soil in cores of 20 cm depth  
205 and 10 cm radius, at three points 1—1.5 m distant from the tree trunk. Thus, local sister live soil  
206 consisted of live soil from three trees for each sister pair. The live soils were mixed within the  
207 host species to allow maximum statistical power in the experiment, especially when sampling  
208 intensity of soils is low in our study (Cahill Jr et al. 2017). While we are aware of the debate  
209 regarding issues of soil sample pooling (Reinhart and Rinella 2016, Rinella and Reinhart 2019),  
210 a recent meta-analysis found no evidence that soil sample pooling systematically biases estimates  
211 of plant–soil feedback direction, magnitude, or variance (Allen et al. 2021).

212 The second type of inoculum was live soil containing general microbes that the foreign  
213 oak species have not encountered whereas the local sister have encountered in their own habitats  
214 (corresponding to the brown dashed circles in Fig. 1a), representing the local habitat live soil.  
215 This live soil was randomly collected from 10 locations within 1—1.5m from the base of other  
216 tree species (listed in Note S2) within the Tyson Research Center, and the samples were then  
217 combined into a soil mixture.

218 We set up four soil treatments in the greenhouse. 1) Sterilized soil, which included 10%  
219 sterilized general local soil in addition to the 90% sterilized background soil. 2) Local sister live  
220 soil (green circles in Fig. 1a), which included 10% live soil from the mother trees of the local  
221 species *Q. alba* (for pots containing seeds of *Q. alba* and *Q. michauxii*), or from the mother trees  
222 of the other local species *Q. shumardii* (for pots containing seeds of *Q. shumardii* and *Q.*  
223 *acerifolia*). 3) Local habitat live soil (brown circles in Fig. 1a), which included 10% local habitat  
224 live soil collected from the base of other host plants. 4) Local habitat live soil plus fungicide

225 treatment, which had the same soil mixture as treatment 3), to which we applied Ridomil Gold  
226 MZ WG fungicide (Syngenta Crop Protection, Greensboro, NC) on the soil surface every two  
227 weeks following manufactures' instructions. This fungicide, generally used to eliminate soil  
228 pathogens, has reportedly limited effects on ectomycorrhizal fungi (Bell et al. 2006, Norghauer  
229 et al. 2010, Maron et al. 2011). We applied this fungicide to examine whether the elimination of  
230 soil pathogens from local habitat live soil had an impact on the seedlings; specifically, if we  
231 found a significant increase in performance of foreign sister under treatment 4) compared to soil  
232 treatment 3), it would suggest that soil pathogens from local habitat live soil can effectively  
233 suppress foreign sister, lending support to Prediction 2.

234 Live soils were added to the pots within four days after field collection. These soil  
235 mixtures were manually homogenized before potting. To minimize soil splashing across pots, we  
236 filled soils only to 30.5 cm deep for all tree pots (35.56 cm-deep pots). Each soil treatment  
237 mentioned above had 10 replicates (pots) per species, resulting in a total of 160 pots in the  
238 greenhouse. In each pot, one viable acorn was planted immediately beneath the soil surface. Seed  
239 source, seed length, and seed width were documented for each pot to statistically control for  
240 potential effects of mother tree and seed size on seedling survival and growth (Bonfil 1998, Shi  
241 et al. 2019). In our experiment, seed size was not differentiated among soil treatments nor host  
242 habitat origin ( $P > 0.80$ ); thus, it should not confound the main effect of soil treatments or habitat  
243 origin. Pots were randomly distributed within the greenhouse so that spatial variation of  
244 environmental variables did not confound experimental results. Pots were spaced at least 15 cm  
245 apart to minimize cross-over of soil microbes. We watered the pots every five to six days with a  
246 water hose serving one pot at a time to avoid soil splashing. A shade cloth with 40% light  
247 penetration was hung in the greenhouse to mimic the light environment within natural forests.

248 Seedling survival, height, diameter of the widest aboveground part, and leaf number were  
249 recorded in August 2019. At the end of August 2019, we harvested surviving seedlings to  
250 measure the aboveground biomass and belowground biomass. Aboveground biomass was  
251 measured as the seedling dry weight above the emergence point from the acorn. Roots were  
252 carefully separated from soil and were washed to remove all attached soil particles, and the  
253 belowground biomass was measured as the dry weight of the roots. Total biomass was the sum  
254 of the above and belowground biomass.

255

## 256 **2.4 | Data analyses**

257 To test the effects of soil microbes on seedling survival and growth, we first fitted full models for  
258 separate response variable using maximum-likelihood models as implemented in the R package  
259 *lme4* (Bates et al. 2014): we used 1) a generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) with a binomial  
260 distribution for survival rate, 2) linear mixed-effect models (LME) for the total, aboveground,  
261 belowground biomass as well as seedling height and diameter, and 3) a GLMM with a Poisson  
262 distribution for leaf number. Seedling biomass and height were log transformed to meet the  
263 requirement of a normal distribution. For each model, we first defined the full model and then  
264 perform model selection. In the full model, we included soil treatments, host habitat origin (local  
265 vs. foreign sister), and their interaction term as the fixed-effect factors; we also included seed  
266 length and seed width as fixed-effect factors to account for possible effects of seed size. Species  
267 identity and species pairs were also included as fixed-effect factors, instead of random-effect  
268 factors because they only have two levels (Crawley 2002). Mother tree was included as a  
269 random-effect factor. We then used “dredge” function from the R package *MuMIn* (Barton 2010)  
270 to generate a set of models with combinations of fixed-effect terms from the full model, and used  
271 the corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AICc) to identify the best model (Table S1). Since  
272 testing our hypotheses requires testing the significance of the interaction term between soil  
273 treatment and host habitat origin (as illustrated in Fig. 1b, c), we kept soil treatments, host habitat  
274 origin, and their interaction term during model selection.

275 After identifying the best model (Table S1), we then obtained distribution of each  
276 parameter within a Bayesian framework with Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) in Stan as  
277 implemented in the R package *rstanarm* (Goodrich et al. 2018). Specifically, we used the  
278 “stan\_glmr” functions for generalized linear mixed-effect model, or “stan\_lmer” functions for  
279 linear mixed-effect model. This Bayesian inference method is a simulation technique to obtain  
280 the distribution of each parameter in a model (Zuur and Ieno 2016), which is suited for the small  
281 sample size in our study. We focused on interpreting the Bayesian inference also because the  
282 maximum-likelihood models mentioned above, implemented in package *lme4*, occasionally  
283 reported singular fits due to small sample size. We set the model prior as a Cauchy distribution  
284 with center 0 and scale 2.5 for each model, which is a weakly informative prior recommended by

285 (Gelman et al. 2008). Each model ran for 2,000 iterations (1,000 “burn-in” iterations followed by  
286 1,000 sample iterations) in each of four chains. We used the default “adept\_delta” (target average  
287 proposal acceptance probability) = 0.95 during Stan's adaptation period, or when necessary, we  
288 increased it to 0.99 until no divergent transitions were detected. Model convergence of the  
289 Bayesian models was evaluated by examining *Rhat* (the ratio of between-chain variance to  
290 within-chain variance) and the effective number of simulation draws (Gelman and Rubin 1992).  
291 Statistical significance of the effects is indicated when 90% credible interval (CIs) or 80% CIs of  
292 the Bayesian point estimates do not include zero. Using the 90% CIs is a conservative threshold,  
293 while using the 80% CIs is a slightly more liberal threshold (Gomes et al. 2021). When  
294 significant interaction term was detected, results were visualized using the estimated marginal  
295 means of the best Bayesian model, which was implemented with the “emmeans” function in the  
296 R package *emmeans* (Lenth et al. 2019). All statistical analyses were performed in R version  
297 3.5.0 (R Core Team 2018).

298

### 299 **3 | RESULTS**

300 The results for greenhouse seedling survival were consistent with Prediction 1, that is, local sister  
301 live soil reduced survivorship of the foreign sister species, but not of the local sister (Fig. 2, 3).  
302 Consistent with Prediction 1 (Fig. 1b), we detected a significant interaction between host habitat  
303 origin and the treatment of local sister live soil in the direction that we predicted (90% CI does  
304 not overlap zero; Fig. 2a, 3a, Table S2). The results were consistent for both species pairs (*Q.*  
305 *alba-Q. michauxii*, and *Q. shumardii-Q. acerifolia*). Specifically, when planted in the soil  
306 inoculated with conspecific species' live soil, seedlings of the local sister survived better than in  
307 sterilized soil, while seedlings of the foreign sister survived less well in local sister live soil than  
308 in sterilized soil (Fig. 3a). Contrary to Prediction 2 (Fig. 1c), we did not find significant  
309 interaction effect between host habitat origin and soil treatment of local habitat live soil on  
310 seedling survival (Fig. 2a, Fig. 3b, Table S2).

311 The results of the greenhouse experiment for seedling biomass were also consistent with  
312 Prediction 1, and again held for both species pairs (Fig. 2, 3). When planted in the soil inoculated  
313 with the local sister live soil, seedlings of the foreign sister had significantly lower aboveground  
314 biomass compared to seedlings of the local sister (90% CI of the interaction term does not

315 overlap zero; Fig. 2c, Fig. 3c, Table S3). Inconsistent with Prediction 2, soil inoculation with  
316 local habitat live soil did not differentially impact the aboveground biomass for local sister vs.  
317 foreign sister, as compared to the sterilized soil (Fig. 3d, Table S3). Results for total biomass and  
318 belowground biomass were similar to that of aboveground biomass (Fig. 2b, d).

319 For seedling height, diameter and number of leaves, we did not detect a significant  
320 interaction between host habitat origin and soil treatment of local sister live soil (Fig. S2; Table  
321 S4). Seed size was positively related to seedling biomass, height, diameter, and number of leaves  
322 (Table S4).

323 When comparing the effects of the fungicide treatment vs. no fungicide in local habitat  
324 live soil, we did not find a significant increase in performance of foreign sister under the  
325 fungicide treatment, indicating that soil pathogens from local habitat live soil did not suppress  
326 seedlings of the foreign sister (Table S2—S4). This is inconsistent with our Prediction 2. Rather,  
327 the fungicide treatment increased the aboveground biomass and seedling diameter of only local  
328 sister (Table S3, S4).

329

#### 330 **4 | DISCUSSION**

331 While abiotic conditions have been considered the main drivers of species distributions, recent  
332 research has increasingly emphasized the roles of biotic interactions in mediating plant  
333 performance and species distributions (Pigot and Tobias 2013, reviewed by Wisz et al. 2013).  
334 We used a carefully designed experiment to investigate whether and how soil microbes could  
335 limit species habitat distributions in an ecologically dominant and diverse clade—oaks (*Quercus*  
336 spp.) in North America. We identified and tested two separate mechanisms through which soil  
337 microbes can restrict host habitat: the first mechanism is that sister species have host-specific soil  
338 microbes that can inhibit the growth and survival of the other sister species; the second  
339 mechanism is that sister species are adapted to habitat-specific soil microbes, and perform poorly  
340 when encountering soil microbes from novel habitats.

341 We found that host-specific soil microbes (the first mechanism), but not habitat-specific  
342 microbes (the second mechanism), contribute to habitat restriction of sister species. Specifically,  
343 when seedlings of foreign sister species (*Q. michauxii*, *Q. acerifolia*) grew in the live soil of the

344 local sister (*Q. alba*, *Q. shumardii*), the probability of survival and biomass decreased compared  
345 to when growing in sterilized soil (Fig. 3a, c); in contrast, local sister species did not show  
346 decreased survival or reduced biomass when growing in their own live soil, but increased  
347 performance, compared to growing in sterilized soil. This suggests that soil microbes associated  
348 with one sister species can inhibit the other sister species from occupying the habitat by  
349 decreasing seedling survival and growth. In other words, our experiment shows that host-specific  
350 soil microbes can promote habitat partitioning between the hosts.

351 Previous studies have found that plant-soil interactions can limit species distributions. For  
352 instance, when the annual plant *Clarkia xantiana* ssp. *xantiana* was transplanted beyond its  
353 habitat, soil microbes decreased lifetime fitness of the transplanted individuals while the home-  
354 range live soil improved the fitness (Benning and Moeller 2020). Other transplant experiments  
355 also found survival of the transplanted species to be restricted by the presence of soil fungal  
356 pathogens or the absence of soil mutualists (Brown and Vellend 2014, Carteron et al. 2020).  
357 Notably, our result differs from these previous experiments that tested maladaptation to the  
358 general microbes beyond the range or habitats of the transplanted host; in those studies, the live  
359 soil inoculum was not associated with sister species or close relatives of the target host. In fact,  
360 our experiment indicated that general soil microbes beyond the foreign sister's habitats did not  
361 suppress the survival or growth of the seedlings (Fig. 3b, d), suggesting that maladaptation to  
362 general microbes of novel habitats does not restrict habitat distributions of our study species.  
363 Instead, we found that host-specific soil microbes explained their poor performance when  
364 growing in the soil microbial environments of their sister species (Fig. 3a, c). This could be  
365 because that habitat-specific microbes collected from non-sister species are less effective in  
366 transmitting to the foreign species, given that phylogenetical relatedness of host species  
367 correlates positively with the proportion of shared microbes (Liu et al. 2012, Schroeder et al.  
368 2019).

369 Consistent with our finding and Prediction 1, Kempel et al. (2018) found that soil  
370 microbes from widespread and possibly habitat-generalist hosts more strongly suppressed the  
371 growth of the regionally rare close relatives than their widespread relatives. The same pattern  
372 was found in Amazonian plants: herbivores specific to a forest type prevent confamilial relatives  
373 from coexisting together within the same forest habitat (Fine et al. 2004). Indeed, this mosaic co-

374 existence through niche partitioning, or a checkerboard pattern of close relatives produced  
375 through the effects of shared biotic interactions, is consistent with the Janzen-Connell hypothesis  
376 in a phylogenetic context (Liu et al. 2012, Araújo and Rozenfeld 2014). Although some argue  
377 that species habitat distributions are determined more by inherent environmental tolerance than  
378 by biotic interactions (Manthey et al. 2011), the effects of soil microbes on host plants can be  
379 perceived as extended phenotypes of the hosts. Our findings support the concept that plant  
380 habitat distributions are affected by their responses to specific fungi groups (Singh et al. 2011,  
381 Afkhami et al. 2014, Gerz et al. 2018).

382         Several mechanisms might explain the effects of host-specific microbes on habitat  
383 restriction, as observed in our study. First, different host plants co-evolve with, and adapt to,  
384 their local pathogens, and when sister species come into contact, transmission of novel pathogens  
385 can reduce the fitness of the foreign sister species (Petipas et al. 2021). Second, the lack of  
386 microbial mutualists in novel soil habitats might assist pathogen invasion by allowing faster  
387 transmission rates. Specifically, ectomycorrhizal fungi are host-specific soil mutualists in oaks  
388 (Morris et al. 2009, Aponte et al. 2010), and the association with beneficial ectomycorrhizal  
389 fungi assists host defense against root pathogens (Mohan et al. 2015, Vishwanathan et al. 2020).  
390 Without the protection of host-specific ectomycorrhizal fungi, pathogens transmitted from close  
391 relatives might invade faster into the roots of the foreign sister species. Third, from a genetic  
392 perspective, genes related to disease resistance (R-genes) might lead to specialized recognition  
393 of, and defense against, only a small subset of pathogens (Marden et al. 2017). Maintaining  
394 multiple defense pathways is likely costly when a species mostly encounters few pathogens in a  
395 limited range of habitats, resulting in reduced defense against pathogens in novel habitats (Laine  
396 2006, Stump et al. 2020). In extreme cases, a habitat specialist is too isolated to encounter any  
397 pathogens, leading to the loss of pathogen defense (Gibson et al. 2010). Once hosts disperse  
398 beyond native habitats, the limited diversity of R-genes allows novel pathogens from close  
399 relatives to invade more easily (Marden et al. 2017).

400         Additionally, we found that the soil of local species increased the survival and growth of  
401 the conspecific seedlings, relative to the sterilized soil treatment. This suggests that mutualistic  
402 soil microbes coevolved with the local species facilitate the self-recruitment and growth of  
403 conspecific seedlings. This finding is concordant with previous plant-soil feedback studies,

404 which show that conspecific soil feedback is generally positive for temperate woody species  
405 (including oaks of eastern North America used in our study) (LaManna et al. 2017). In the case  
406 of temperate oak species, soil microbes from adult trees indeed show positive feedback to  
407 conspecific seedling survival and growth, as compared to growing in heterospecific or sterile soil  
408 (McCarthy-Neumann and Ibáñez 2012, Bennett et al. 2017).

409         This positive conspecific feedback is likely linked to ectomycorrhizal association.  
410 Ectomycorrhizal fungi, a fungal group commonly associated with oaks, often generate positive  
411 plant-soil feedback and thus facilitate the self-recruitment of the locally abundant species  
412 (Connell and Lowman 1989). Consistent with our support for the host-specificity mechanism,  
413 previous research did find host-specific ectomycorrhizal fungi associated with different oak  
414 species (Morris et al. 2008, Morris et al. 2009, Aponte et al. 2010), suggesting that the  
415 mutualistic effect through fungi is determined by host identity. This specificity might explain  
416 why we observed a positive effect of local sister live soil only on local species seedlings, but a  
417 negative effect on foreign sister species. It is worth noting that in tropical ecosystems, such  
418 positive conspecific feedback is often weakened and even replaced by negative conspecific  
419 feedback (Comita et al. 2010, LaManna et al. 2017). Therefore, the roles of soil microbes in  
420 maintaining habitat restrictions of plants might be weakened or not supported for tropical  
421 species. We encourage future studies to utilize our experimental design (Fig. 1) and to further  
422 compare habitat restriction through soil microbes in temperate vs. tropical plant species.

423         Some limitations of the experiment should be recognized. Firstly, interactions with soil  
424 microbes should be regarded as a partial factor contributing to species habitat restriction, but not  
425 the full explanation for why the two foreign species (*Q. michauxii* and *Q. acerifolia*) were not  
426 found beyond their habitats. Habitat restriction can be affected by a combination of other factors,  
427 including microclimatic differences, soil chemistry, and other forms of biotic interactions related  
428 to host habitats. It is possible that multiple abiotic and biotic processes limit habitat distributions  
429 simultaneously and even synergistically (Lau et al. 2008, Rajakaruna 2017). Another caveat of  
430 this experiment is the limited representation of genetic diversity of seed sources, since we used  
431 seeds from a small number of *ex-situ* or cultivated individuals (Note S1) instead of gathering  
432 seeds representative from multiple wild populations across target species' ranges. A soil  
433 inoculum experiment that uses representative wild seeds will be needed to more accurately

434 measure the effects of soil microbes in our study system. Lastly, we did not test the other  
435 direction of plant-soil interactions by introducing foreign sister's live soil to the seedlings of  
436 local sister species. Without this treatment, we cannot determine whether the habitat exclusion is  
437 symmetrical (*i.e.*, equal strength of negative suppression from each host species) or  
438 asymmetrical. A reciprocal soil inoculum experiment will be needed to test whether the effect of  
439 soil microbes is bidirectional.

440

## 441 **5 | CONCLUSIONS**

442 The role that biotic interactions play in constraining species habitat distribution is just coming to  
443 the forefront (Sexton et al. 2009, Hargreaves et al. 2014, Katz et al. 2017). Using a well-designed  
444 soil inoculum experiment, we found that host-specific soil microbes contribute to habitat  
445 restriction of closely related oaks. Our finding implies that species habitat distributions are more  
446 than a simple function of abiotic constraints. Particularly, we demonstrate that considering the  
447 effects of soil microbial communities and the phylogenetic relationships among host plants will  
448 be essential to fully capturing the factors determining fine-scaled plant distributions (McCarthy-  
449 Neumann and Ibáñez 2012, Kempel et al. 2018, Pither et al. 2018, Benning and Moeller 2020,  
450 Benning and Moeller 2021). We encourage future studies to account for the effects of  
451 belowground biotic interactions to advance our understanding of habitat preferences and habitat  
452 partitioning.

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466

467 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

468 Y.W. and R.E.R. conceived of the study. Y.W. designed the experiments, collected and analyzed  
469 the data, and wrote the manuscript. A.B. assisted in collecting and analyzing the data. R.E.R.  
470 assisted in experimental design and in major revisions of the manuscript. All authors agreed on  
471 the final manuscript.

472

473 **CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

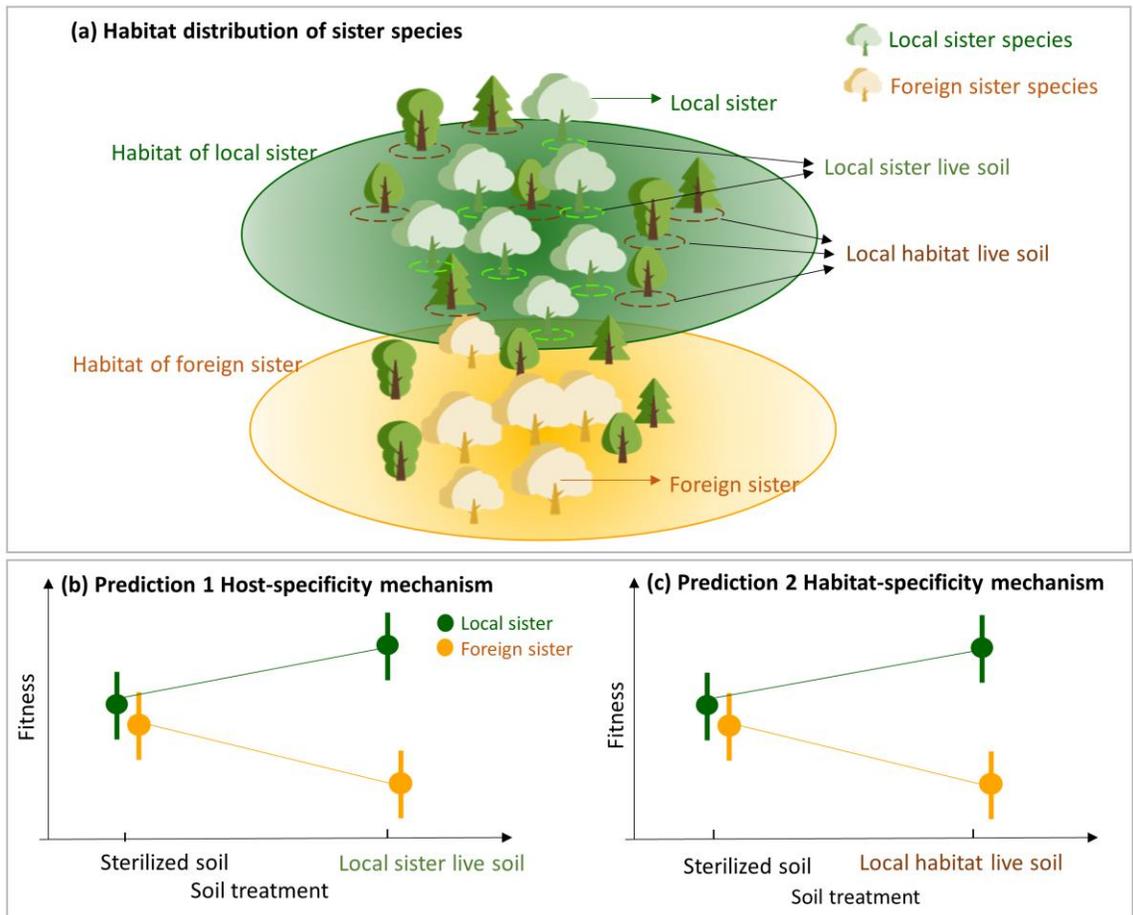
474 None declared.

475

476 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

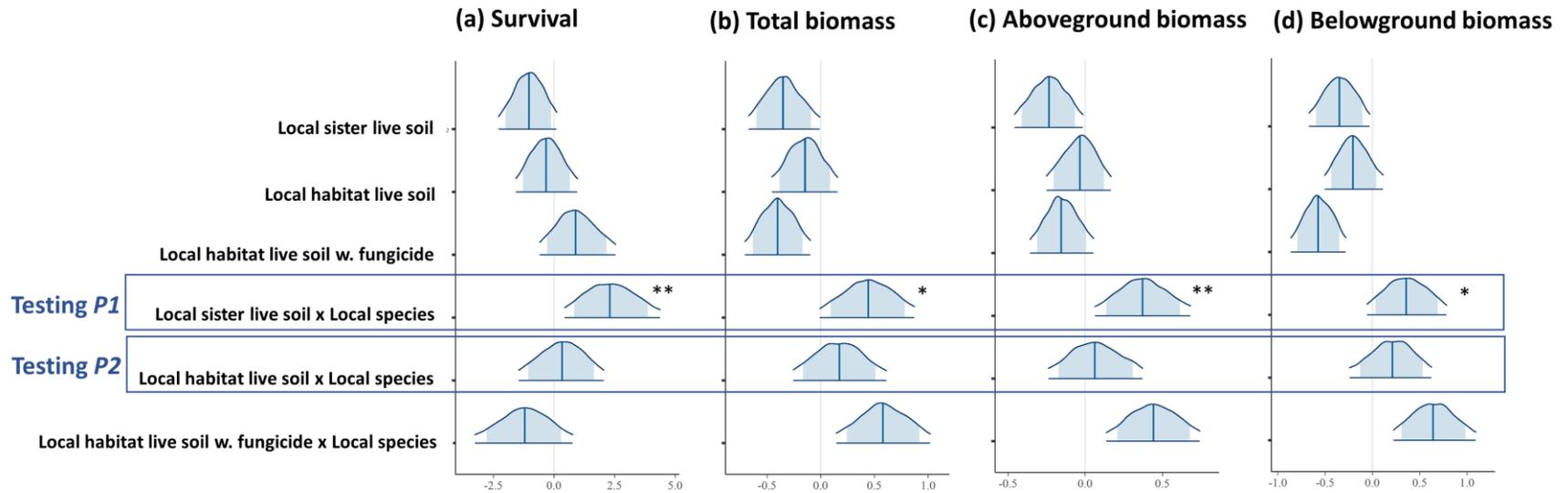
477 Raw data and codes used in this study are available in Dryad Data Repository  
478 (doi:10.5061/dryad.fqz612jt0) (temporary link during peer review:  
479 <https://datadryad.org/stash/share/L1fmCjqcTrgStoJUO-e83IznKzFm0eK5UtuJtwlYkls>)

480 **FIGURES AND CAPTIONS**



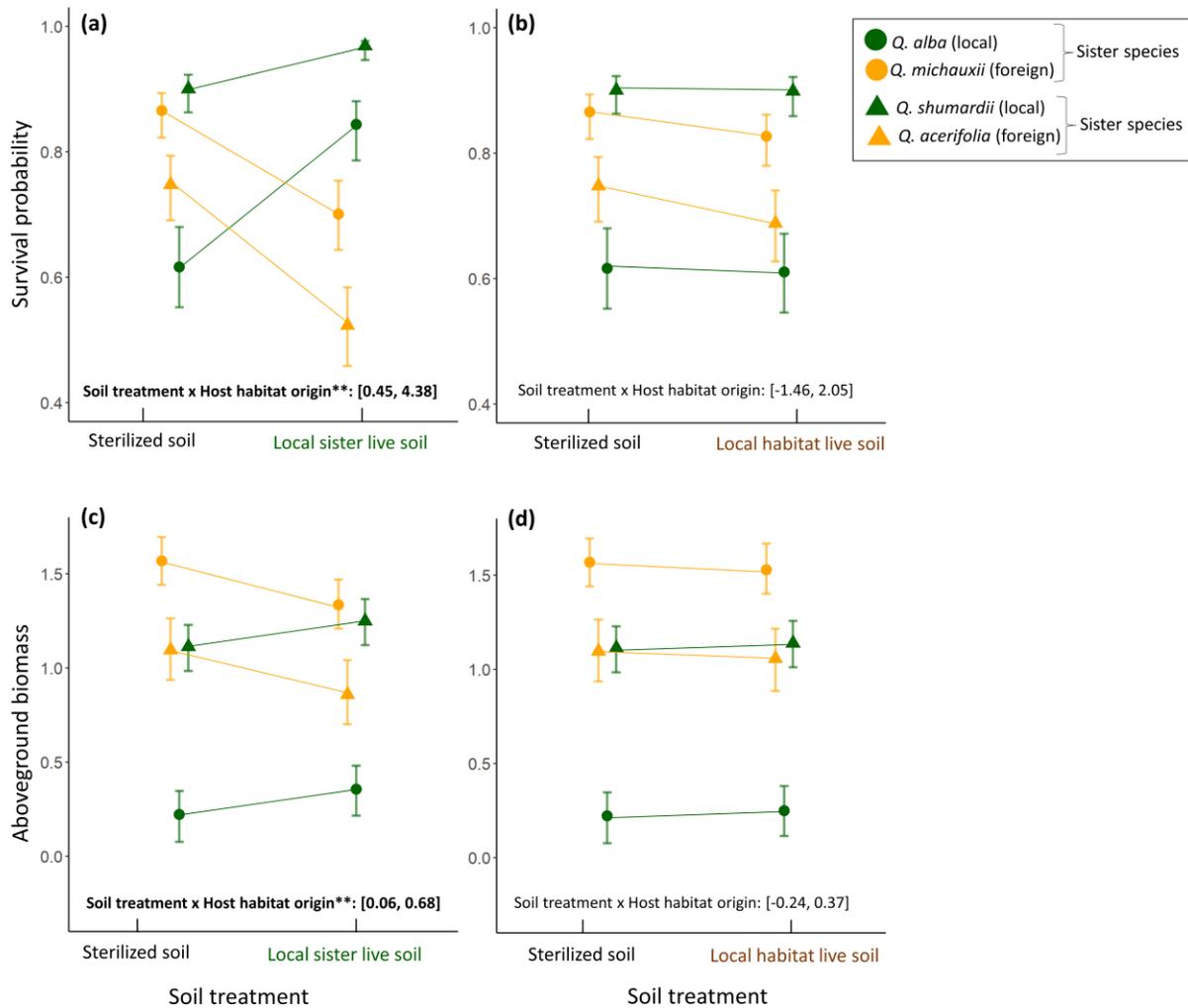
481

482 **Figure 1 Hypothesis of soil microbe-mediated habitat restriction of sister species.** This diagram  
 483 visualizes the predictions that soil microbes of a local sister constrain habitat distribution of its foreign  
 484 sister species. (b) Prediction 1 – host-specificity mechanism: local sister live soil collected from adult  
 485 trees of local sister species (green dashed circles in panel a) increases the fitness of conspecific seedlings  
 486 due to specialized soil mutualists and tolerance of its own pathogens, while the same soil decreases the  
 487 fitness of foreign sister’s seedlings due to soil pathogens parasitic to the foreign sister and foreign sister’s  
 488 susceptibility. (c) Prediction 2 – habitat-specificity mechanism: local habitat live soil collected from other  
 489 species co-occurring within local sister’s habitat (brown dashed circles in panel a) differentially affects  
 490 the fitness of local sister’s and foreign sister’s seedlings.



491

492 **Figure 2 Bayesian estimates of the effects of soil treatments and host habitat origin (local species vs. foreign species) on oak seedling**  
 493 **survival and biomass in a soil inoculum experiment.** Sterilized soil is used as a reference level for soil treatment, and foreign species is used as  
 494 a reference level for host habitat origin. Blue vertical lines represent median estimates of the coefficients derived from the Bayesian models. The  
 495 truncated distribution outline represents 90% credible intervals (CIs), while the shaded-light blue region represents 80% CIs. A light-grey vertical  
 496 line marks  $x = 0$  in each panel. The tests for Prediction 1 (*P1*) and Prediction 2 (*P2*) are highlighted with rectangles. Statistical significance is  
 497 highlighted with asterisks: \*\* indicates that 90% CIs of the posterior estimates of the coefficient do not overlap with zero, while \* indicates that  
 498 the 80% CIs do not include zero.



499

500 **Figure 3 Seedling survival probability and aboveground biomass of the local vs. foreign sister**  
 501 **species in different soil treatments.** Values were derived from the best Bayesian model, using estimated  
 502 marginal means. Panels (a, c) compare the survival probabilities and aboveground biomass of local sister  
 503 (green points) when grown in sterilized soil vs. in local sister live soil, and the survival of foreign sister  
 504 (yellow points) in these two treatments. Panels (b, d) compare the survival probabilities and aboveground  
 505 biomass of local sister (green points) when grown in sterilized soil vs. in local habitat live soil that does  
 506 not associate specifically with one host, and the survival of foreign sister (yellow points) in these two  
 507 treatments. Error bars represent one standard error. Statistical significance, as tested using Bayesian  
 508 models, is highlighted with asterisks: \*\* indicates that 90% credible intervals of the posterior distribution  
 509 of the model coefficient do not overlap with zero. The 90% credible intervals are marked on each panel.

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