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Distance dependent damage across scales

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Foliar damage beyond species distributions is partly explained by distance
dependent interactions with natural enemies

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ABSTRACT

1
2 Plant distributions are expected to shift in response to climate change, and range expansion
3 dynamics will be shaped by the performance of individuals at the colonizing front. These plants
4 will encounter new biotic communities beyond their range edges, and the net outcome of these
5 encounters could profoundly affect colonization success. However, little is known about how
6 biotic interactions vary across range edges and this has hindered efforts to predict changes in
7 species distributions in response to climate change. In contrast, a rich literature documents how
8 biotic interactions within species ranges vary according to distance to and density of conspecific
9 individuals. Here, we test whether this framework can be extended to explain how biotic
10 interactions differ beyond range edges, where conspecific adults are basically absent. To do so,
11 we planted seven species of trees along a 450 km latitudinal gradient that crossed the current
12 distributional range of five of these species and monitored foliar disease and invertebrate
13 herbivory over five years. Foliar disease and herbivory were analyzed as a function of distance to
14 and density of conspecific and congeneric trees at several spatial scales. We found that within
15 species ranges foliar disease was lower for seedlings that were farther from conspecific adults for
16 *Acer rubrum*, *Carya glabra*, *Quercus alba*, and *Robinia pseudoacacia*. Beyond range edges there
17 was even less foliar disease for *C. glabra*, *Q. alba* and *R. pseudoacacia* (*A. rubrum* was not
18 planted outside its range). *Liriodendron tulipifera* did not experience reduced disease within or
19 beyond its range. In contrast, *Quercus velutina* displayed significant but idiosyncratic patterns in
20 disease at varying distances from conspecifics. Patterns of distance dependent herbivory across
21 spatial scales was generally weak and in some cases negative (i.e., seedlings further from
22 conspecific adults had more herbivory). Overall, we conclude that differences in biotic
23 interactions across range edges can be thought of as a spatial extension to the concept of distance
24 dependent biotic interactions. This framework also provides the basis for general predictions of
25 how distance dependent biotic interactions will change across range edges in other systems.
26 Key Words: range expansion, biotic interactions, species distributions, distance dependence,
27 Janzen-Connell Hypothesis, Enemy Release Hypothesis, herbivory, foliar disease, seedlings,
28 transplant experiment, recruitment, temperate forests

INTRODUCTION

31 Some plant species distributions in North America are beginning to shift in response to
32 changes in temperature and precipitation (Murphy et al. 2010, Boisvert-Marsh et al. 2014,
33 Desprez et al. 2014, but see Zhu et al. 2012). However, much remains unknown about how
34 contemporary range expansion will occur, in part because plants beyond range edges will interact
35 with different suites of organisms in these new areas. If biotic interactions systematically differ
36 across range edges, they could potentially affect colonization success and range expansion
37 dynamics. An increasing number of researchers have called attention to this issue (van der Putten
38 2011, Renwick and Rocca 2015), and several investigations have quantified net changes in plant-
39 soil feedback across range edges (van Grunsven et al. 2010, Stanton-Geddes and Anderson 2011,
40 McCarthy-Neumann and Ibáñez 2012, Birnbaum and Leishman 2013). However, few studies
41 have tested how foliar herbivory or disease vary across latitudinal range edges (but see Lakeman-
42 Fraser and Ewers 2013).

43 Expanding range edges are characterized by low population densities that are often
44 incapable of supporting associated specialist organisms (i.e., herbivores, pathogens, and
45 mutualists with low host breadth). Likewise, populations on range edges are often the product of
46 repeated founding events, each of which increases the probability that specialists will be left
47 behind (Phillips et al. 2010b). There is both theoretical and empirical evidence that organisms of
48 various taxa that establish beyond their range (hereafter referred to as ‘migrants’) or near their
49 range edge have fewer and weaker interactions with specialist enemies (Alexander et al. 2007,
50 Menéndez et al. 2008, Phillips et al. 2010a, Patot et al. 2010). Generalist natural enemy
51 preferences can also result in weaker relationships between natural enemies and plants beyond
52 their range edges; for example, pathogens adapt to local plant genotypes (Sicard et al. 2007) and
53 herbivore host preferences can be influenced by plant abundance (Kuussaari et al. 2000). While
54 in some circumstances generalist natural enemies may be unequipped to deal with novel plant
55 defenses (Verhoeven et al. 2009), there is also evidence that generalist natural enemies often
56 prefer exotic hosts (Parker and Hay 2005, Schultheis et al. 2015). The consequences of differing
57 amounts of damage from generalist enemies in new areas can be substantial (e.g., Halbritter et al.
58 2012). While studies are often framed in the context of specialist vs. generalist enemies, host
59 breadth is a continuous variable (Gilbert and Webb 2007, Barrett et al. 2009, Forister et al. 2015)
60 and the natural enemies that may affect range expansion dynamics are at varying spots along that
61 spectrum.

62 The sum difference in interactions between plants and their natural enemies is very well
63 studied in the context of inter-continental range expansion, and a rich literature surrounds the
64 Enemy Release Hypothesis (ERH; Keane and Crawley 2002), including many cases that support
65 it and many that do not (Mitchell and Power 2003, Liu and Stiling 2006, Heger and Jeschke
66 2014). Although less explored, interactions with mutualists, such as mycorrhizae or other soil
67 biota, seem to be weaker beyond a species' range (e.g., Stanton-Geddes and Anderson 2011,
68 Callaway et al. 2011). A separate body of literature documents how biotic interactions vary
69 within species ranges as a function of distance to or density of conspecific adults, often through
70 tests of the Janzen-Connell Hypothesis (JCH; Janzen 1970, Connell 1971). These studies reveal
71 a wide range of distance/density dependent relationships for trees in temperate forests (Comita et
72 al. 2014). Some studies have found that seedlings close to conspecific adults or in areas with
73 more conspecific adults experienced lower survival or higher natural enemy attack rates (Packer
74 and Clay 2000, Masaki and Nakashizuka 2002, Yamazaki et al. 2009, Johnson et al. 2012), but
75 others have found mixed results (HilleRisLambers et al. 2002, McCarthy-Neumann and Ibáñez
76 2013, Piao et al. 2013). Although some of these findings can be attributed to confounding
77 correlations between conspecific occurrence, seed dispersal, and environmental conditions, these
78 examples still highlight inter-specific variation in distance and density dependent biotic
79 interactions at smaller spatial scales.

80 The same framework of distance dependence underlies the differences in biotic
81 interactions with natural enemies predicted by the JCH at small spatial scales and by the ERH at
82 large spatial scales. The concepts from both apply to the intermediate spatial scales relevant to
83 range expansion and given the shared framework of distance dependence, there may also be
84 empirical similarities across spatial scales. Here, we hypothesize that the importance of distance
85 dependent biotic interactions within a species range may provide insight into how biotic
86 interactions vary beyond range edges. Specifically, we predict that species that experience
87 reduced damage when planted within their range but far from conspecific adults will experience
88 even lower amounts of damage when planted beyond their current range edge (Fig. 1, species A).
89 Similarly, we predict that species that do not experience distance dependent reductions in
90 damage within their range will not have lower amounts of damage beyond their range (Fig. 1,
91 species B).

92 In this study, we characterize interactions between plants and foliar pathogens and
93 invertebrate herbivores across a gradient of distances between seedlings and con-specific adults,
94 ranging from meters to hundreds of kilometers (i.e., beyond species range edges). We use a
95 seedling transplant experiment with seven tree species to answer the following questions: 1)
96 what is the direction and magnitude of distance dependent biotic interactions within these species
97 ranges? And, 2) can within-range distance dependent relationships help predict differences in
98 biotic interactions beyond species ranges? Answers to these questions will illustrate whether the
99 theoretical framework of distance dependence can be used to understand how biotic interactions
100 might vary across range edges. Even though differences in interactions with natural enemies are
101 generally transient even for exotic species (Hawkes 2007, Diez et al. 2010, Flory and Clay 2013,
102 Schultheis et al. 2015), they still has the potential to alter range expansion dynamics (Moorcroft
103 et al. 2006) and understanding them could improve future predictions of plant range shifts.

104 METHODS

105 We planted seedlings of seven tree species in four regions along a 450-km latitudinal
106 gradient in Michigan, USA, that included the geographic range limits of five of these species
107 (Table 1; Fig. 2). At each region we established between one and four sites in different temperate
108 forest types, and at each site we planted seedlings in two to 21 plots (Fig. 2; Appendix S1). Plots
109 were located across a range of environmental conditions (e.g., light, soil moisture, and nutrients;
110 Appendix S2) and many were situated near adults of the focal species. Each plot consisted of one
111 to three subplots. A total of 12,762 seedlings were planted between 2010 and 2013 (Table 1).
112 Species origins varied: two species were native across all regions (*Acer rubrum* L. and *Quercus*
113 *rubra* L.) and five were native or naturalized at some regions and potential migrants at others
114 (*Carya glabra* P. Mill., *Liriodendron tulipifera* L., *Q. alba* L., *Q. velutina* Lam., and *Robinia*
115 *pseudoacacia* L.; Table 1). Species were selected based on their current and predicted
116 distributional shifts (Iverson et al. 2008) and because they represented a range of ecological traits
117 (e.g., they varied in their drought tolerance, shade tolerance, and growth rates).

118 *Seedlings.* –Wild seeds were generally collected within Michigan, but if unavailable, they
119 were obtained from outside of Michigan (Appendix S3). Seeds were germinated at the University
120 of Michigan Matthaei Botanical Gardens (Ann Arbor, MI) in potting soil (Metro-Mix 380;
121 SunGro Horticulture, Agawam, Massachusetts, USA), where they were watered daily. At
122 approximately one month after emergence, we measured the height of the seedlings, defined as

123 the distance from the soil to the tip of the apical meristem, which we used as a proxy for
124 maternal effects (i.e., seed size). Bare root seedlings were then transplanted into the study plots
125 with a minimum spacing of 25 cm between seedlings. Existing vegetation was left intact. To
126 decrease transplant shock, seedlings were watered upon planting (125 ml/seedling). A subset of
127 seedlings (2196) were transplanted in the fall instead of in the spring. This was done in 2011,
128 2012, and 2013 in order to both increase the range of seedling sizes and to increase total sample
129 size. Seedling survival varied by species and site; patterns in survival are documented elsewhere
130 (Katz and Ibáñez *manuscript in review*).

131 *Leaf damage.*—Biotic interactions were measured by visually assessing leaf damage on
132 seedlings in midsummer (June 19 – July 27) from 2010 – 2014. Leaf damage was quantified by
133 visually surveying the leaves on each seedling using damage cover classes (<1%, 1-5%, 6-15%,
134 16-25%, 26-50%, 51-75%, >75%) and the average amount of leaf damage for each plant was
135 used in the analysis. All leaves were measured on seedlings that had less than 26 leaves; for other
136 seedlings, 25 leaves were selected at random and surveyed. To ensure consistent visual
137 estimates, the same person conducted all surveys (D. Katz). During each census signs of disease
138 and herbivory were assessed. Damage was counted as disease if symptoms included abnormal
139 coloration, blackening of the leaf, dark spots with necrosis, spots with discolorations surrounding
140 them, and the presence of fungal fruiting bodies. The disease category therefore includes both
141 infectious and non-infectious diseases such as nutrient deficiencies (Sinclair and Lyon 2005).
142 Although it can be difficult to distinguish pathogen identity visually, visual surveys of disease
143 can still provide important information about causes of death (Yamazaki et al. 2009). Damage
144 signs attributed to herbivory included chewing (e.g., skeletonizing, window feeding, hole
145 feeding), piercing-sucking (e.g., stippling; regularly shaped small round discolorations in leaves),
146 leaf mining, and galling. Vertebrate herbivory was recorded separately and is not reported here.

147 *Mapping.*—We mapped all living trees ≥ 10 cm DBH (diameter at breast height, 1.37 m)
148 that were within 10 m of a focal seedling. We determined the distance from a central point to
149 each tree to the nearest 10 cm with an Impulse 200 laser range finder (Laser Technology,
150 Englewood, CO, USA). The heading of each tree was measured using a compass and we also
151 recorded tree DBH and species identity. Transplanted seedling locations were measured by
152 recording the distance and heading from the same central point to plot corner locations, and then
153 seedling locations within plots were calculated according to the standardized planting design (as

154 per Fig. 2). Basal area (m^2) was calculated for all trees within 10 m of each focal seedling
155 ($314m^2$); other studies have found the strongest effects of neighborhood at 5 – 10 m (e.g., Masaki
156 and Nakashizuka 2002, Piao et al. 2013). Presence at the site of a particular species was
157 determined by whether any individuals of that species were recorded during stem mapping; this
158 method agreed with personal observations during fieldwork.

159 *Environmental Data.* –The environmental variables we measured were light availability,
160 soil water, and soil nutrients. Light was measured each year using hemispherical canopy photos
161 after the full canopy had developed. Photos were taken 1 m above seedlings, using a Sigma
162 SD14 camera (Sigma Corporation, Japan) with a Sigma 4.5 mm circular fisheye lens (Sigma
163 Corporation, Japan). The proportion of total possible sunlight reaching the forest floor, the global
164 site factor, was calculated using Hemiview (Delta-T Devices, Cambridge, UK). At least two
165 photos were taken per sub-plot each year in midsummer, when canopy coverage was complete.
166 Photos were taken under uniform sky conditions (i.e., dusk, dawn, or uniformly cloudy days).
167 Light was averaged across subplots and across years; the mean of these measurements and their
168 standard deviation were used in the analysis.

169 Soil water (percent moisture by volume) was measured hourly at each site with a HOBO
170 Micro Station Data Logger (Onset Computer Corporation, Pocasset, MA). Volumetric soil water
171 content in the top 7.5 cm of soil was measured in at least six points per sub-plot several times
172 each growing season with a FieldScout TDR 300 Soil Moisture Meter (Spectrum Technologies,
173 Plainfield, IL, USA). The relationship between soil moisture at the sub-plot level (taken a few
174 times each summer) and at the site level (recorded hourly at one point within each site) was
175 quantified using linear regressions, and these regressions were used to predict soil moisture at
176 each sub-plot between censuses; the mean R^2 value was 0.67.

177 Soil nutrients were measured once using resin packs (Unibest International Corporation,
178 Walla Walla, WA, USA). Resin packs in the southernmost region (A) were deployed between
179 4/8/2013 – 10/30/2013 and in the other regions resin packs were deployed from 4/23/2013 -
180 10/23/2013. Depending on the number of subplots, between two and four resin packs were
181 deployed per plot. Four resin packs could not be retrieved because they were moved by
182 burrowing animals or were otherwise damaged, and no nutrient data are available for the two
183 plots that were not yet established at the time of nutrient pack deployment. Resin packs were
184 retrieved and refrigerated until they were shipped to Unibest for analysis. Analysis was

185 conducted by Unibest; ions were extracted using 2mHCL and the ion exchange resin analysis
 186 was conducted using inductively coupled plasm spectroscopy analysis (Perkin Elmer 3300 DV;
 187 Ca, Mg, Mn, P) and FIA Lab Flow Injection (FIA 2500; NO_3^- , NH_4^+). All collected data are
 188 available in a data repository (Katz and Ibáñez 2016).

189 *Statistical analysis.*—We used several statistical models to analyze foliar damage, disease
 190 and invertebrate herbivory, as a function of distance to or density of conspecific and congeneric
 191 adults. Foliar herbivory and disease followed a zero-inflated log normal distribution. It is likely
 192 that different processes govern whether a plant was attacked (referred to as incidence) versus
 193 how much damage attacked plants experienced (referred to as severity). Thus data were analyzed
 194 in two distinct submodels: a logistic regression for foliar damage incidence and a log-normal
 195 function to account for foliar damage severity. For each process we used a different likelihood
 196 (seedling i at time j):

$$197 \quad \text{Observed Incidence}_{ij} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\text{incidence}_{ij})$$

$$198 \quad \text{Observed Severity}_{ij} \sim \text{Log Normal}(\text{severity}_{ij}, \sigma^2)$$

199 The different distance categories were: adult conspecific present within 10 m of a seedling, adult
 200 conspecific present at the site but not within 10 m, adult conspecific present in the region but not
 201 at the site (note that this category is somewhat limited because it is based on a relatively low
 202 number of site to site comparisons), and adult conspecific not present in the region (as per Fig.
 203 2). The effects of conspecific density were analyzed as a function of conspecific basal area
 204 within 10 m of the focal seedling and, for *A. rubrum* and *Q. rubra*, we added a second term to
 205 account for conspecific relative basal area at the site (these are the only two species for which we
 206 could add this term). We also estimated the effects of congeneric basal area within 10 m and at
 207 the site level (congeneric relative basal area) on leaf damage. In summary, we ran eight different
 208 models for each species (two leaf damage types: disease or herbivory; two processes: incidence
 209 or severity; and two dynamics: distance or density).

210 Parameter estimation was conducted using a Bayesian approach, which allowed us to
 211 incorporate different sources of uncertainty and missing data (Gelman and Hill 2007). Leaf
 212 damage incidence and severity were estimated as a function of several covariates \mathbf{X}_{ij} (Appendix
 213 S4), where \mathbf{X}_{ij} is the matrix of covariates associated with each seedling i at time j . We explored
 214 several different models, including different covariates and random effects (e.g., soil nutrients,
 215 plot, year) and selected the model with the lowest DIC (Deviance Information Criterion;

216 Spiegelhalter et al. 2002) that allowed us to answer our questions. The final models included
 217 several environmental variables (α), the proportion of available light that reached the seedling,
 218 average volumetric soil moisture since the last census; and several seedling specific variables (δ)
 219 the age of the seedling in days, the number of leaves, and the height of the seedling when
 220 planted. Random effects were also included for each seedling and year (γ). The inclusion of soil
 221 nutrients did not generally lead to lower DIC values for most species, and so were not included
 222 in the final models.

223 The models for distance included a fixed effect intercept that varied according to the
 224 proximity of the nearest conspecific (β ; within 10 m, more than 10 m away but within the site,
 225 absent in the site but present in region, or absent in region), thus the incidence model for seedling
 226 i in census j :

$$\text{logit}(\text{incidence}_{ij}) = \beta_{\text{distance category (i)}} + \alpha_1 * \text{Light}_i + \alpha_2 * \text{Soil Moisture}_{ij} + \\ \delta_1 * \text{Height}_i + \delta_2 * \text{No. Leaves}_{ij} + \delta_3 * \text{Age}_{ij} + \gamma_{\text{seedling (i)}} + \gamma_{\text{year (j)}}$$

227 The density models included the amount of basal area (BA) within 10 m of the focal seedling for
 228 both conspecific and congeneric trees, the relative basal area at the site for conspecific and
 229 congeneric trees for common species (κ), and additional random effects (γ) for region, thus the
 230 incidence model is:

$$\text{logit}(\text{incidence}_{ij}) = \kappa_1 * \text{BA conspecific}_i + \kappa_2 * \text{BA congeneric}_i + \kappa_3 * \text{Relative BA conspecific}_i \\ + \kappa_4 * \text{Relative BA congeneric}_i + \alpha_1 * \text{Light}_i + \alpha_2 * \text{Soil Moisture}_{ij} + \delta_1 * \text{Height}_i + \delta_2 * \text{No.} \\ \text{Leaves}_{ij} + \delta_3 * \text{Age}_{ij} + \gamma_{\text{seedling (i)}} + \gamma_{\text{year (j)}} + \gamma_{\text{region (i)}}$$

234 Models of leaf damage severity for distance and density did not use the logit link but included
 235 the same covariates.

236 To improve comparisons between variables, we standardized seedling height at time of
 237 transplant, the number of leaves, light, and soil moisture. Light and soil moisture were modeled
 238 as normally distributed latent variables characterized by their measured mean and standard
 239 deviation. Fixed effect coefficients were drawn from non-informative prior distributions: β^* , α^* ,
 240 δ^* , κ^* : Normal (0, 1000). The random effects for seedling, year, and region were drawn from a
 241 normal distribution: $\gamma^* \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2)$, where $\sigma^* \sim \text{Uniform}(0, 10)$, as was the variance of the
 242 log normal distribution.

243 To assess the effects of increasing distance from conspecifics, we estimated the
244 difference from the $\beta_{\text{conspecific within 10 m}}$ parameter to the other three distance parameters;
245 differences that do not include zero in their 95% CIs were considered statistically significant.
246 Fixed effects coefficients associated with the rest of the continuous variables were considered
247 statistically significant if their 95% CIs did not include zero. Posterior densities of the parameters
248 were obtained by Gibbs sampling using JAGS 3.4 (Plummer 2003) via the rjags package in R
249 (Plummer 2014). Convergence occurred after 1,000 to 10,000 iterations and chains were
250 inspected visually. Each species was run for 40,000 iterations and posterior parameter values
251 were based on postconvergence results. Model code is available in Supplement 1. Visualization
252 was conducted using the ggplot2 package (Wickham 2009) in R. All analyses were conducted
253 using R (R Core Team 2013).

254

255 RESULTS

256 The R^2 of the statistical models ranged from 0.11 to 0.92; specific values for each species
257 model are reported in Appendix S5. The parameter estimates for each statistical model are
258 reported in Appendix S6; in this section we focus on the results of the distance and density
259 related parameters (β and κ).

260 *Distance dependent biotic relationships across scales*

261 Foliar disease: For several species, seedlings had higher disease when they were planted
262 within 10 m of a conspecific adults compared to when they were planted further from
263 conspecific adults (Fig. 3, top row). For some species this relationship occurred for damage
264 incidence (*A. rubrum*, *C. glabra*, and *Q. alba*) whereas for others it was apparent in damage
265 severity (*A. rubrum* and *Robinia pseudoacacia*). Seedlings of these species had even less disease
266 when they were planted hundreds of kilometers from conspecifics (i.e., conspecifics were absent
267 from the region). In contrast, *Liriodendron tulipifera* did not show signs of differing amounts of
268 disease either within its range or beyond its range edge. However, *Quercus velutina* had less
269 foliar disease when planted farther than 10 m from conspecific adults in sites where conspecifics
270 occurred, but experienced less foliar disease when planted in areas beyond its range, although
271 less than most other migrant species (Fig. 3).

272 Foliar herbivory: The effects of distance from conspecific adults on seedling herbivory
273 varied by species and there were fewer statistically significant relationships than for disease (Fig.

274 3, bottom row). Some species had greater herbivory close to adult conspecifics within sites (*A.*
275 *rubrum* and *Q. velutina*) whereas another had higher herbivory farther from adults (*Q. rubra*). In
276 three cases, a lack of strong intra-range differences in herbivory continued beyond range edges
277 (*L. tulipifera*, *Q. alba*, and *R. pseudoacacia*) and in another case distance dependent increases in
278 herbivory continued beyond range edges (*C. glabra*). However, for *Q. velutina*, there was
279 reduced herbivory when planted in sites where conspecific adults occurred but the seedling was
280 farther than 10 m from the nearest conspecific adult.

281 *Density dependent biotic relationships*

282 Foliar disease: Higher conspecific basal area (within 10 m) was associated with higher
283 disease for three species (*A. rubrum*, *C. glabra*, and *Q. alba*; Fig. 4). One species had
284 significantly lower disease severity at higher conspecific basal area (*R. pseudoacacia*). Only *Q.*
285 *rubra* had significantly higher disease at higher congeneric local basal area, although *Q. velutina*
286 showed a similar but non-significant pattern. Conspecific relative basal area at a site was
287 correlated with higher disease severity for *Q. rubra* (Fig. 5). Both *Q. alba* and *Q. velutina* tended
288 to have more disease at higher congeneric basal area, but this was not statistically significant.

289 Foliar herbivory: Higher conspecific basal area (within 10 m) was associated with higher
290 foliar herbivory for *Q. alba* and *R. pseudoacacia* and lower foliar herbivory for *C. glabra* and *Q.*
291 *rubra* (Fig. 4). Both *A. rubrum* and *Q. rubra* had significantly higher herbivory where there was
292 higher congeneric basal area. Higher conspecific relative basal area at each site reduced
293 herbivory for *Q. rubra*, and higher congeneric relative basal area significantly reduced herbivory
294 for *Q. alba* (Fig. 5).

295 DISCUSSION

296 Potential differences in biotic interactions beyond range edges hampers our ability to predict how
297 plant species distributions will shift in response to climate change. In this study, we assessed
298 differences in biotic interactions across the range edges of several tree species that are common
299 in eastern North American forests, and determined whether intra-range distance and density
300 dependent biotic interactions explained biotic interactions beyond range edges. We found that
301 the species that experienced lower disease incidence or severity when planted farther from
302 conspecific adults within their ranges tended to have even lower disease incidence or severity
303 when planted beyond their range edges. The resulting decreases in disease beyond range edges
304 have the potential to affect migrant plant population growth and range expansion dynamics,

305 although they did not in this experiment (Katz and Ibáñez, *manuscript in review*). Most species
306 that that did not experience lower damage incidence or severity when planted farther from
307 conspecific adults within ranges did not experience different damage incidence or severity
308 beyond their range; this encompasses almost all examples of herbivory in our study. The idea
309 that species that are most affected by distance and density dependent interactions with natural
310 enemies within their range are those with the greatest potential for experiencing relatively less
311 damage from natural enemies beyond their range is supported at a broad scale in invasion
312 biology (Blumenthal et al. 2009, Prior et al. 2015). Overall, our findings show that distance
313 dependent biotic interactions at small spatial scales, the strength of which varies considerably by
314 species, have some capacity to predict differences in biotic interactions across range edges. This
315 in turn suggests that species in other functional groups or in other ecosystems that experience
316 stronger distance dependent interactions with natural enemies will have more potential for
317 reduced damage beyond range edges.

318 *Interspecific differences in the strength of distance dependence.* – Tests of the JCH and
319 ERH provide many instances where plants that are isolated from conspecifics on spatial scales of
320 meters and thousands of kilometers are associated with fewer natural enemies and receive less
321 damage, but there almost as many counter examples (Liu and Stiling 2006, Johnson et al. 2012,
322 Comita et al. 2014, Heger and Jeschke 2014, Schultheis et al. 2015). A similar spectrum is
323 evident in our results; the presence and strength of distance dependence varies between species
324 and damage type. While much effort has been put in to determining the overall effect size of
325 distance dependence, less is known about the causes of interspecific variation. The answer to this
326 question is tied to natural enemy communities, and while we did not identify foliar pathogens in
327 this study, we did conduct three years of insect censuses on these seedlings (Katz, *unpublished*
328 *data*), which may provide a way to test competing explanations for herbivory. Here, we explore
329 some of the potential mechanisms that could lead to variation in distance dependence for disease;
330 future studies could test these by identifying natural enemies and linking them to their
331 symptoms.

332 First, some insight may be gained from a close examination of our study species. For
333 example, *L. tulipifera* seedlings did not have different amounts of damage when planted closer to
334 or near more conspecific adults. This may be because *L. tulipifera* is uncommon even in our
335 southernmost study region, and could therefore be exposed to fewer relevant natural enemies

336 even at the one site in which it occurred. This would explain why another study found signs of
337 density dependence for this species (Johnson et al. 2014) but we did not. For other species, we
338 may simply have planted seedlings near conspecific adults with especially active specialist
339 pathogens; for example, *C. glabra* seedlings were more likely to have diseased leaves when they
340 were planted near more conspecific adults, or when planted close to conspecific adults. Indeed,
341 on some *C. glabra* seedlings planted within their range, we observed symptoms consistent with
342 those created by hickory downy leaf spot (*Microstroma juglandis*; Katz, *personal observation*).
343 On a more general level, the number of pathogens native plant species have within their own
344 range, as well as their effects, have been linked to growth vs. defense tradeoffs, physiology, size
345 of individuals, the size of their distribution, and the number of habitats the plant occupies
346 (Blumenthal et al. 2009, Mitchell et al. 2010, Cronin et al. 2010). Thus, future studies may be
347 able to use these ecological and biogeographic traits to explain variation in distance dependent
348 interactions with natural enemies, as they have in invasion biology (e.g., Van Kleunen et al.
349 2010); a better understanding of distance dependence for these species could in turn lead to a
350 better understanding of how biotic interactions with natural enemies will affect range expansion.

351 *Differences between disease and herbivory.* – Isolated seedlings were far more likely to
352 escape from disease than from herbivory. One plausible explanation is that the most important
353 herbivores in this system have high host breadth, which could lead to consistent amounts of
354 damage at varying distances from conspecific adults. This is supported by studies that show the
355 importance of generalist herbivores to plant fitness (e.g., Halbritter et al. 2012) as well as by the
356 fact that some of the more important feeding guilds in temperate forests tend to have relatively
357 broad host breadth (Forister et al. 2015). In this system, some of the most abundant insect
358 families (e.g., *Cicadellidae* and *Aphididae*) were found on most seedling species at most sites
359 (Katz, *unpublished data*) and invertebrate community composition on native *Q. rubra* seedlings
360 was fairly similar across sites (Appendix S7). While generalist natural enemies can selectively
361 target alien plants (Parker and Hay 2005), that is less likely to cause changes in herbivory during
362 intra-continental range expansion; plant communities do not shift cohesively in response to
363 climate change (Williams and Jackson 2007), and many of the plants and natural enemies along
364 this latitudinal gradient are likely to have some shared evolutionary history.

365 Two observations that suggest an alternate explanation were that *C. glabra* and *Q. rubra*
366 actually had higher herbivory farther from conspecifics and when there were fewer conspecifics

367 within 10 m or at the site. This could potentially be explained by species accumulating mutualists
368 near conspecific adults. Specifically, isolated seedlings might be less likely to attract or interact
369 with mutualists that can reduce herbivory by providing indirect defenses (e.g., via attracting
370 predators and parasitoids by releasing volatile organic compounds; Heil 2008, Farkas and Singer
371 2013). Likewise, endophytes and mycorrhizae can directly reduce plant palatability or enhance
372 seedling performance and therefore defensive capabilities, although their effects vary according
373 to herbivore feeding guild and specialization (Hartley and Gange 2009, Koricheva et al. 2009).
374 In one case, higher abundances of mycorrhizae around conspecific adults is credited with
375 counter-acting the negative distance dependent effects of soil pathogens in a sub-tropical forest
376 (Liang et al. 2015). Although we lack the relevant information to assert this was the case in our
377 study system, in a multi-trophic interaction like herbivory, this dynamic could lead to
378 idiosyncratic results, like the ones we report, where some species experience less foliar damage
379 farther from conspecifics (e.g., *A. rubrum*) whereas others experience less foliar damage closer
380 to conspecifics (e.g., *C. glabra*), depending on the relative accumulation of mutualists and
381 natural enemies around conspecific adults. If host plants' mutualists and natural enemies have
382 similar host breadth, then a plant beyond its range could be exposed to fewer of each, effectively
383 canceling out the signals of distance dependence.

384 *Phylogenetic conservation of natural enemies.*— Several species were planted near adult
385 congeneric trees and for *A. rubrum*, *Q. alba*, and *Q. rubra* congeneric trees affected foliar
386 damage rates, although usually less than conspecific adults (Fig. 3). One point of interest is that
387 *Q. alba* had less herbivory when there was more congeneric relative basal area at a site, whereas
388 *Q. rubra* had higher foliar disease and herbivory when there were more congeneric adults within
389 10 m. Regardless of whether these findings are caused by shared environmental niches that we
390 did not capture with our environmental measurements or overlapping mutualists and natural
391 enemies, our results suggest that biotic interactions could facilitate the establishment of *Q. alba*
392 during range expansion in forests where *Q. rubra* is dominant. Spatial correlations between
393 related species occurrence or density could also underlie some of the patterns we found, such as
394 the apparent contradiction that *Q. velutina* had higher rates of disease when conspecifics were
395 present at the site compared to when conspecifics were present within 10 m, yet it tended to have
396 higher rates of disease when basal area within 10 m was higher. Depending on spatial
397 correlations, the abundant *Q. rubra*, which is closely related to and often hybridizes with *Q.*

398 *velutina*, may be overwriting the signals of distance dependence. This possibility is supported by
399 the general phylogenetic conservation of pathogens and herbivore host breadth (Gilbert and
400 Webb 2007, Pearse and Hipp 2009, Barrett et al. 2009, Forister et al. 2015) and by the
401 phylogenetic clustering of plant defenses (Ricklefs 2008). Accounting for phylogenetic distance
402 has been important in understanding disease in other systems (Parker et al. 2015) and may be of
403 use here too.

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584 **Supporting Information**

585 Appendix S1: Description of sites used in the transplant experiment

586 Appendix S2: Plot environmental characteristics

587 Appendix S3: Seed sources

588 Appendix S4: Covariates included in statistical models

589 Appendix S5: Model fit

590 Appendix S6: Covariate parameter estimates

591 Appendix S7: Insect community composition for *Quercus rubra*

592

593 Supplement 1: Model code

594

595 **Data Availability**

596

597 Data associated with this paper have been deposited in Dryad:

598 <http://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.1b433>

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Table 1. Plant species used in transplant experiments and their residency status at each study region. Species residency status (native, naturalized [defined as species that were introduced to a region but have self-sustaining populations], and migrant [defined as species that are predicted to be able to colonize an area in future climates]) was determined using Little's range maps, FIA data (via the Climate Change Tree Atlas; Prasad et al. 2007-ongoing), and county data from the USDA Plants database and the Michigan Flora Online. In some cases these data sources provide conflicting information, which is indicated with an asterisk. The number of seedlings of each species planted in each region is also included.

Species	Species code	Common name	Region A most southern	Region B southern	Region C northern	Region D most northern
<i>Acer rubrum</i>	acru	Red maple	Native 487	Native 75	Native 282	Native 0
<i>Carya glabra</i>	cagl	Pignut hickory	Native 930	Migrant 344	Migrant 344	Migrant 110
<i>Liriodendron tulipifera</i>	litu	Tulip tree	Native/naturalized* 836	Migrant 255	Migrant 656	Migrant 255
<i>Quercus rubra</i>	quru	Red oak	Native 1937	Native 345	Native 989	Native 315
<i>Quercus alba</i>	qual	White oak	Native 829	Native 140	Migrant/rare* 344	Migrant 187
<i>Quercus velutina</i>	quve	Black oak	Native 777	Migrant/rare* 417	Migrant 417	Migrant 230
<i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i>	rops	Black locust	Native/naturalized* 806	Migrant; planted	Migrant; planted 476	Migrant 270

		165		
Total planted	6602	1741	3508	1367

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Figure 1. We hypothesize that distance dependent biotic interactions with natural enemies within species ranges will predict differences in biotic interactions across range edges. In this conceptual figure, species A experiences distance dependent reductions in damage within its range and is hypothesized to have even lower amounts of damage beyond its range whereas species B does not experience distance dependent reductions in damage within its range and is therefore not hypothesized to have differences in interactions with natural enemies beyond its range.

Figure 2. The study area in North America (a); the study regions (b) which encompass the approximate range edges of several focal species (line between regions A and B). Each region (A - D) contained one to four sites (c), each located in distinct forest types (e.g., sites C1 - C4). Each site had between two and 21 plots (gray boxes) and a datalogger (star) (d). Each plot had between one and three subplots (white boxes), in which seedlings were planted (black dots) (e). Trees within 10 m of seedlings were mapped and identified to species (colored circles).

Figure 3. Effects of distance from adult conspecifics on foliar damage. Parameter estimates represent the difference in model intercepts between seedlings that were within 10 m of a conspecific adult and seedlings that were at other distances from conspecific adult trees (present within the site, present within the region, and absent in the region). The 95% credible intervals that are below the zero line show that seedlings in that distance category had significantly less foliar disease than seedlings within 10 m of a conspecific (zero line).

Figure 4. The effects of conspecific and congeneric local density (basal area within 10 m) on foliar damage. Parameter estimates above 0 indicate a positive effect of basal area on the amount of leaf damage; 95% credible intervals that cross zero are not statistically significant. Three species had insufficient neighboring congeneric adults to calculate their effects on foliar damage.

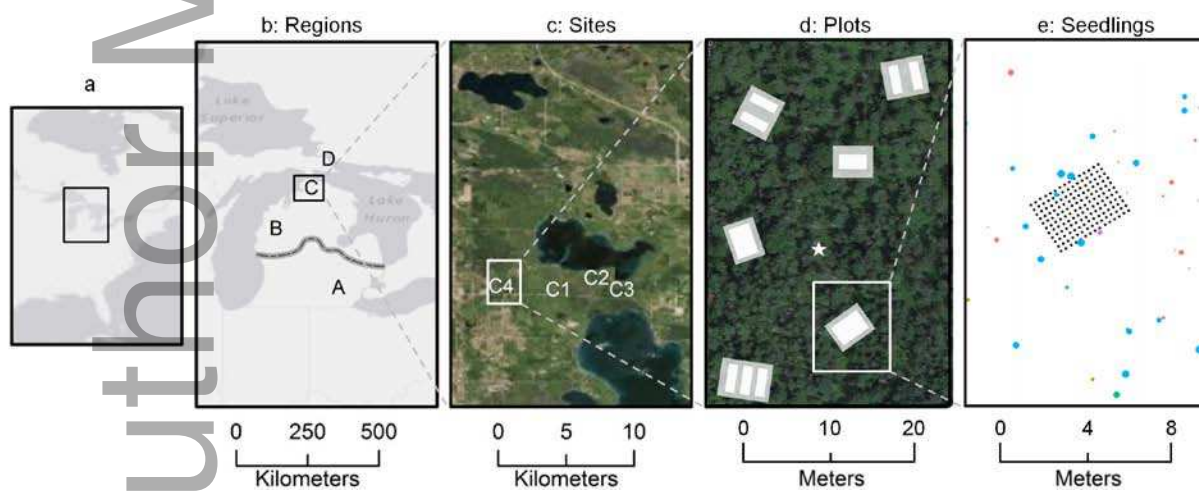
Figure 5. Parameter estimates for the effects of conspecific and congeneric relative basal area at the site level on foliar disease and herbivory. Only *A. rubrum* and *Q. rubra* occurred at enough sites (8 and 9, respectively) to assess this relationship for conspecific adults. Similarly, the effects of congeneric relative basal area were only assessed for *A. rubrum*, *Q. alba*, and *Q.*

velutina. Parameter estimates above 0 indicate a positive effect on the amount of leaf damage; 95% credible intervals that cross zero are not statistically significant.

Figure 1



Figure 2



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Figure 3

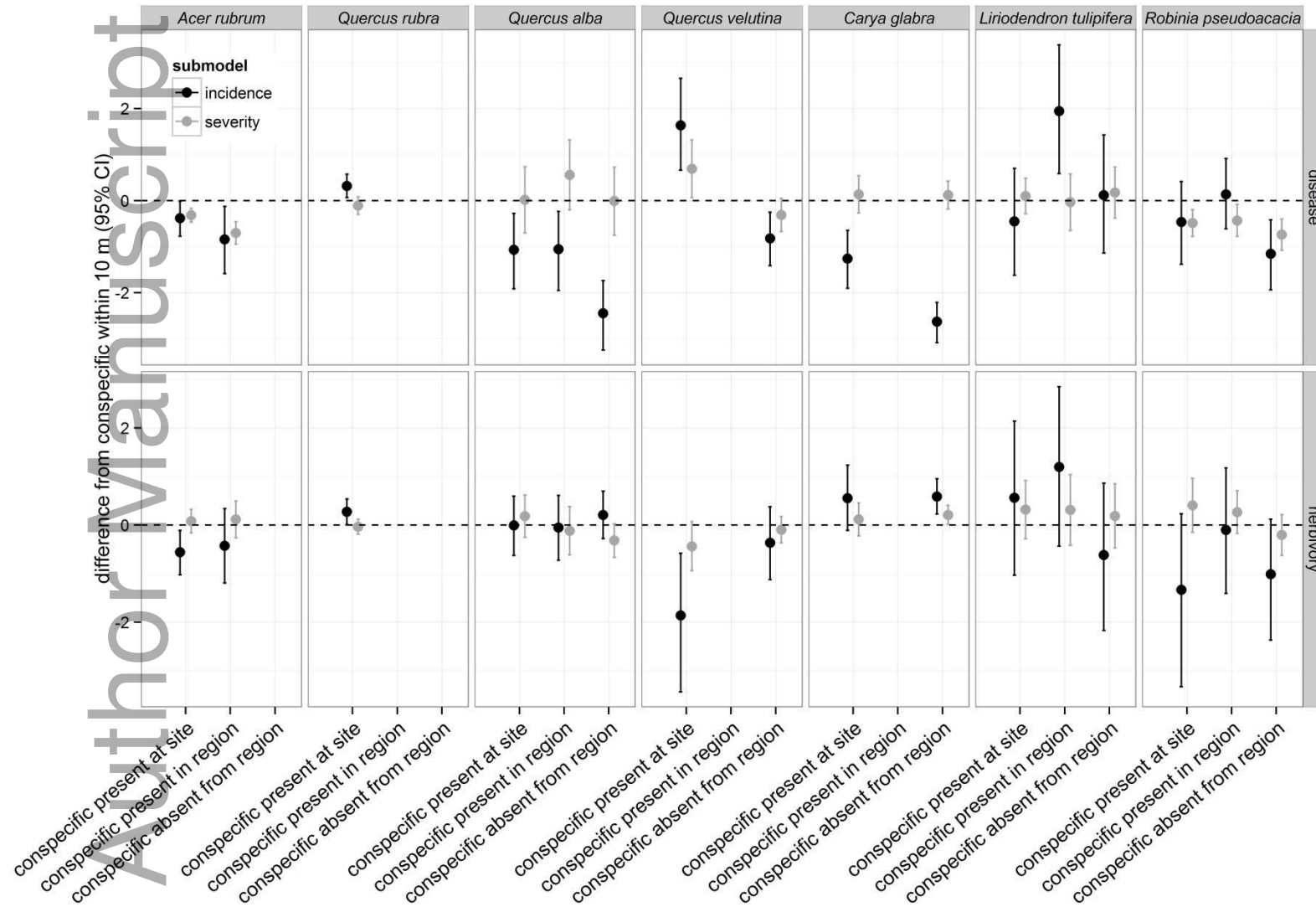


Figure 4

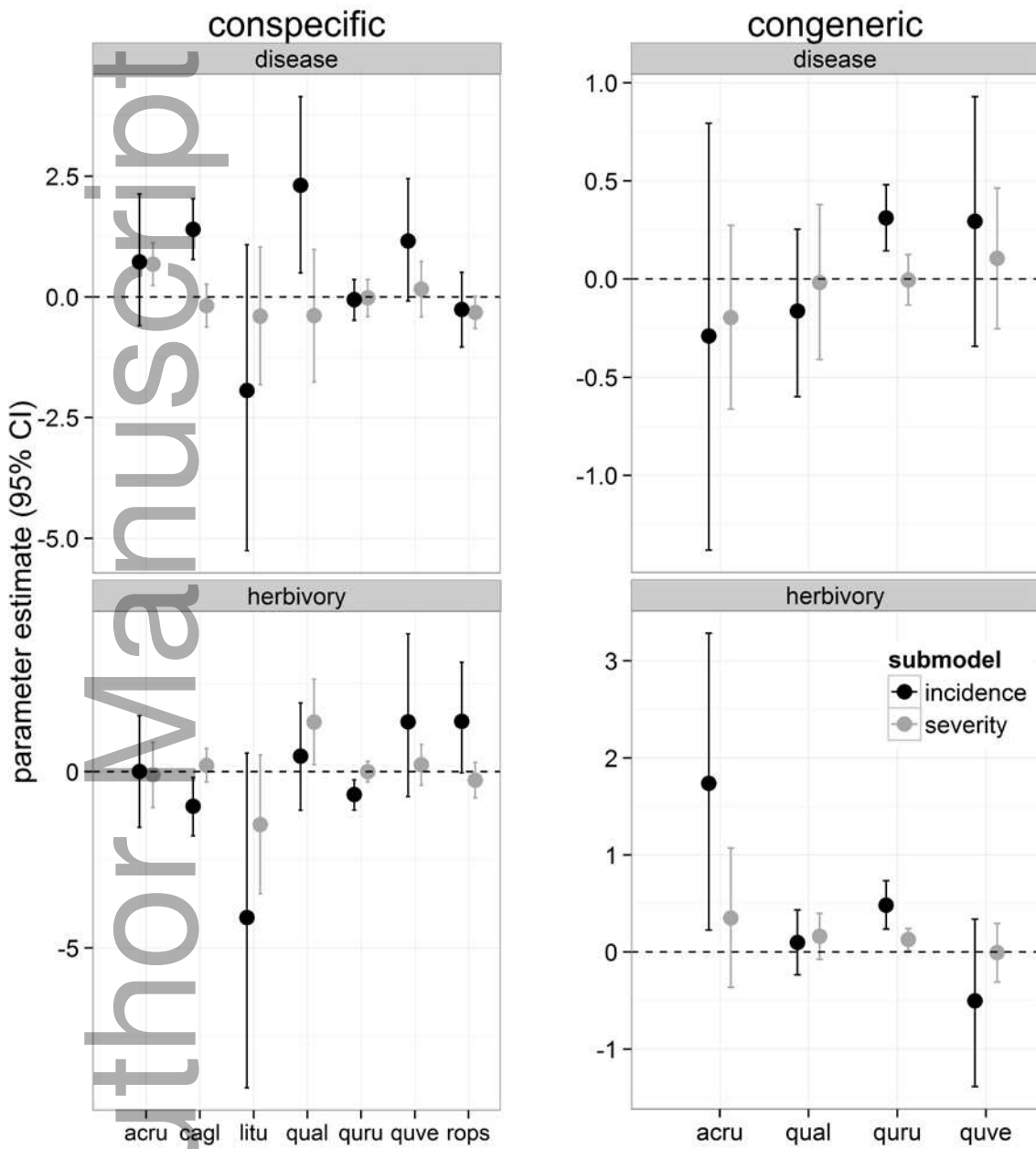


Figure 5

