

1 **Seedling performance in a dioecious tree species is similar near female and male**
2 **conspecific adults despite differences in colonization by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi**

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15 Keywords: Janzen-Connell hypothesis, plant-soil feedback, negative conspecific density

16 dependence, intraspecific variation, plant-mycorrhizal mutualism, seed production

17 **Abstract**

18 Patterns of seedling growth and survival near conspecific plants have important consequences for
19 species diversity in plant communities, but the factors causing intraspecific variation in seedling
20 performance are unclear. Greater seed production or size of adult plants could both drive the
21 local accumulation of specialized antagonist species in the environment and affect conspecific
22 seedling performance. Experiments with dioecious species, in which only female individuals
23 produce seeds, decouple these factors in areas of high conspecific density. To assess whether
24 conspecific seedling performance is reduced in the environments associated with seed-producing
25 female trees relative to male or heterospecific trees, we conducted shadehouse and field
26 experiments with a dioecious tropical tree species, *Virola surinamensis* (Myristicaceae), on
27 Barro Colorado Island, Panama. The shadehouse experiment isolated the effect of soil microbial
28 communities on seedling performance and allowed us to quantify colonization by mutualistic
29 arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi, while the field experiment allowed us to assess seedling
30 performance in a context that included the effects of nearby conspecific trees. Seedling biomass
31 at the end of the 8-mo shadehouse experiment was similar between experimental plants exposed
32 to soil microbial communities from underneath female conspecific, male conspecific, and
33 heterospecific adult trees. However, seedling colonization by AM fungi was higher in male soil
34 microbial communities. Similarly, at the end of the 7-mo field experiment, survival and biomass
35 did not differ among experimental seedlings grown in female, male, and heterospecific
36 environments (but biomass was reduced near larger conspecific adults). Together, our
37 experiments did not support the hypothesis that conspecific seedling performance is reduced in
38 female environments relative to male environments, despite reductions in colonization by
39 mutualistic AM fungi in female soil microbial communities. Thus, intraspecific variation in the

- 40 biotic interactions between conspecific seedlings, established adults, and mutualist species may
- 41 not translate directly to patterns of tropical tree seedling survival.

42 **Introduction**

43 In many ecological communities, whether a given species recruits successfully depends
44 on its identity and abundance, as well as the composition and traits of neighboring individuals,
45 and has important ecological and evolutionary consequences. Recruitment is often suppressed by
46 the density or proximity of conspecific neighbors (Janzen, 1970; Connell, 1971; Chesson, 2000),
47 a form of negative conspecific density (or distance) dependence (CDD). This phenomenon has
48 been demonstrated in a variety of plant ecosystems and may be caused by a combination of (i)
49 the accumulation of host-specific natural enemies (reviewed by Carson & Schnitzer, 2008;
50 Comita et al., 2014; Hülsmann et al., 2021; Song et al., 2021) or (ii) intraspecific competition for
51 shared resources (Suzuki et al., 2003; Pujol & Mckey, 2005; Adler et al., 2018) in areas of high
52 conspecific density. Patterns of negative CDD may be driven by plant–soil feedbacks between
53 established plants and host-specific pathogenic soil microbes that negatively influence seedling
54 performance (reviewed by Kulmatiski et al., 2008; van der Putten et al., 2013). Variation in
55 negative CDD is often quantified among co-occurring plant species and attributed to differences
56 in species’ life history strategies and related traits (Kobe & Vriesendorp, 2011; Lebrija-Trejos et
57 al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2020; Zang et al., 2021), species relative abundance (Comita
58 et al., 2010), or mycorrhizal associations (Bennett et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2020; Jevon et al.,
59 2022). Though experiments have shown that variation in seedling performance near conspecifics
60 may also occur within species (Packer & Clay, 2003; Hood et al., 2004; Bell et al., 2006; Eck et
61 al., 2019), the factors that contribute to intraspecific variation in conspecific neighbor effects are
62 rarely studied (Freckleton & Lewis, 2006; but see Liu et al., 2015). Elucidating the factors
63 causing variation in seedling recruitment and performance within species’ populations may allow

64 better predictions of how negative CDD influences important ecological and evolutionary
65 dynamics in plant communities.

66 Variation in the composition and abundance of host-specific natural enemies in the soil
67 near parent or other established plants is a prime driver of performance and recruitment success
68 (Packer & Clay, 2003; Reinhart & Clay, 2009; Kotanen, 2010; Chanthorn et al., 2013; Liang et
69 al., 2016; Chen et al., 2019). Despite this, the influence of variation among individuals (such as
70 in genotype, size, or functional traits) on the local accumulation of natural enemies remains
71 poorly understood. For example, differences in the fruit or seed crop could lead to variation in
72 natural enemy abundance (Hubbell, 1980). Because of limited dispersal distances, many seeds
73 fall beneath or close to parent trees (Swamy et al., 2011). The presence of conspecific seeds and
74 seedlings has been shown to contribute to density-dependent mortality in tropical tree seedlings
75 (Harms et al., 2000; Wright et al., 2005; Queenborough et al., 2007a; Comita et al., 2010; Metz
76 et al., 2010; Lebrija-Trejos et al., 2014), presumably by increasing host-specific enemy densities
77 (or competition among seedlings for shared resources; but see Paine et al., 2008). Thus, seed
78 production is one potential factor that may impact enemy densities and/or conspecific seedling
79 performance or recruitment near adult plants, though this hypothesis has rarely been tested (but
80 see Hood et al., 2004).

81 Though the strength of negative CDD on performance and recruitment varies among life
82 stages (Piao et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2015), it is unclear whether the size and/or age of established
83 plants influences conspecific seedling performance (Uriarte et al., 2004). Because larger
84 individuals have older and more extensive root systems, higher pathogen densities or more
85 specialized pathogen communities could accumulate in the soils near larger individuals. Because
86 larger or older individuals may also be more fecund (Aarssen & Jordan, 2001), teasing apart the

87 effects of adult size from adult reproduction is challenging in many species. Dioecious plant
88 species, in which male flowers that produce pollen and female flowers that produce seeds occur
89 on separate individuals, offer the opportunity to decouple the effects of the size versus seed
90 production of established plants on seedling performance in their soils.

91 The negative effects of variation in natural enemy conditions on seedling performance are
92 well documented, but positive effects from mutualistic microbes (such as mycorrhizal fungi)
93 may also influence patterns of seedling performance and CDD (Bever, 2002; Mangan et al.,
94 2010a; Bachelot et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2015; Bachelot et al., 2017; Bennett et al., 2017; Jevon
95 et al., 2022). For example, arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungal association may help seedlings
96 counter conspecific distance- and density-dependent mortality due to pathogens (Liang et al.,
97 2015; Bachelot et al., 2017), via either increases in plant growth or nutritional status (Smith &
98 Read, 2008; reviewed by Delavaux et al., 2017) or activation of plant defensive pathways
99 (Newsham et al., 1995; Pozo & Azcón-Aguilar, 2007). Like enemies, the accumulation of
100 mutualist species in soil is subject to host availability, and variation in mutualist-mediated CDD
101 could result from variation in the size or seed production of nearby host individuals.

102 Despite recent evidence of intraspecific variation in CDD, the factors driving variation in
103 conspecific seedling performance within plant populations remain unclear. To address this issue,
104 we focused our study on a dioecious tropical tree species, isolating the effect of seed production
105 on seedling performance from other potential factors in the vicinity of conspecifics. We
106 conducted shadehouse and field experiments with *Virola surinamensis* (Myristicaceae) on Barro
107 Colorado Island, Panama, to answer the following questions: 1) does seedling performance vary
108 in the soil environment associated with female conspecifics versus soil associated with male
109 conspecifics? 2) does the size or seed production of conspecific adults influence seedling

110 performance in their associated soil? and 3) does seedling colonization by mutualistic AM fungi
111 vary between female and male soil environments? We hypothesized that: i) seedling performance
112 would be reduced in the soil environments of female conspecifics, because repeated inputs of
113 conspecific seeds and/or seedlings into female soils over time should cause greater accumulation
114 of host-specific soil pathogens, ii) seedling performance would be reduced in the soil
115 environments of larger conspecific trees, because their larger root systems will have accumulated
116 higher densities of host-specific soil pathogens; iii) seedling performance would be reduced in
117 the soil environments of conspecific trees that produce more seeds, because the input of greater
118 numbers of conspecific seeds into the soil should increase the accumulation of host-specific
119 pathogens, and iv) seedling colonization by AM fungi would be higher in female soils, because
120 the repeated input of conspecific seeds and/or seedlings over time in their soils present host
121 resources for AM fungal growth.

122 The shadehouse experiment allowed us to isolate the effect of soil microbial communities
123 on seedling performance, while the field experiment allowed us to assess seedling performance
124 in female and male conspecific environments in an ecologically relevant context. To investigate
125 the factors influencing seedling performance more fully in conspecific soils, we quantified
126 colonization by mutualistic AM fungi in the experimental seedlings, seed production by focal
127 conspecific adults, and nutrient conditions in our experimental soil treatments. With this study,
128 we aim to better understand the sources of intraspecific variation in plant–soil feedbacks and
129 CDD, allowing better predictions of how these phenomena influence species diversity and
130 evolution in plant communities.

131

132 **Materials and Methods**

133 **Study site and species**

134 Our study focused on *Virola surinamensis* (Rol. ex Rottb.) Warb. (Myristicaceae), a
135 dioecious tropical tree species occurring on Barro Colorado Island (BCI), Republic of Panama
136 (9°09' N, 79°51' W). BCI is a 15.6 km² moist tropical lowland forest (Croat, 1978) receiving
137 ~2600 mm of rainfall per year (punctuated by a distinct dry season; Windsor, 1990). *Virola*
138 *surinamensis* is native to tropical and subtropical wet lowland forests in Central America and
139 Amazonia. It is a shade-tolerant (Howe, 1990), drought-sensitive (Fisher *et al.*, 1991) canopy
140 tree, and occurs commonly in slope and stream habitats on BCI (Harms *et al.*, 2001).

141 The minimum reproductive size for *V. surinamensis* is ~ 30 cm diameter at 1.3 m above
142 ground (DBH) (Riba-Hernández *et al.* 2014). Adult *V. surinamensis* are spatially aggregated
143 (Condit *et al.*, 2000; Riba-Hernández *et al.*, 2014) but the sexes are distributed randomly relative
144 to one another (Riba-Hernández *et al.* 2014). Flowers are fly-pollinated (Jardim & Mota, 2007).
145 On BCI, flowering occurs in the dry season (~ Jan.) and seed production in the following wet
146 season (~ July) (Zimmerman *et al.*, 2007). Seeds are large (~ 2 cm) and borne singly inside a
147 heavy, inedible capsule: ~ 62 % of seeds are dispersed away from the maternal tree by animals
148 (Howe & Vande Kerckhove, 1981). Herbivores predate many seeds and/or seedlings below
149 maternal crowns, but seedlings experience higher survival if dispersed > 20 m away from the
150 maternal tree (Howe, 1990).

151

152 **Soil inoculation shadehouse experiment**

153 To isolate the effect of soil microbes on the performance of seedlings near female and
154 male conspecific trees, we conducted a soil microbial inoculation experiment in a shadehouse on
155 BCI. Seeds were collected from beneath the canopy of 11 fruiting (female) *V. surinamensis* on

156 BCI during the peak of the species' fruiting in 2014 (between June – July). We also selected five
157 reproductive-size male *V. surinamensis* (because flowers could not be sexed in the field,
158 maleness was assumed because of lack of seed production during the study years, 2014 – 2016).
159 All trees were 50 – 100 cm DBH and were located by exploring a ~ 3.5 km² area of BCI (see
160 Fig. 1A for a map). Selected trees were located ~ 30 m to ~ 2 km apart. Seeds from each
161 maternal source were surface-sterilized (10 % bleach for 1 m, rinse, 70 % ethanol for 30 s, rinse),
162 air dried, and germinated in a shadehouse in autoclaved BCI soil (collected from the forest edge
163 near the shadehouse). One-month post-germination, a minimum of 12 healthy seedlings per
164 maternal seed source were randomly selected for inclusion in the experiment (more seedlings
165 were selected if available).

166 We then collected samples of the soil microbial community beneath the canopy of each
167 of the source trees to use as inocula in the experiment. To create one soil microbial inoculum per
168 tree, we collected soil at a depth of 10 cm from three randomly-selected points within 3 m of
169 each trunk (to roughly correspond to fine roots, where soil microbes are likely to be most active),
170 then coarsely sieved and homogenized the soil from these three points. To act as a control, we
171 also created soil microbial inocula from beneath the canopy of five reproductive-size
172 heterospecific trees within the study area (Fig. 1A). Heterospecific trees (abbreviated as H1 –
173 H5) were chosen to represent a range of common species and families (H1: *Spondias mombin* L.
174 (Anacardiaceae); H2: *Ormosia macrocalyx* Ducke (Fabaceae); H3: *Anacardium excelsum*
175 (Bertero & Balb. ex Kunth) Skeels (Anacardiaceae); H4: *Platypodium elegans* Vogel (Fabaceae);
176 H5: *Protium tenuifolium* (Engl.) Engl. (Burseraceae)). Each seedling was assigned to the soil
177 inoculum of only one of the 21 adult trees in the study (i.e., the 11 female conspecific trees, five
178 male conspecific trees, or five heterospecific trees). Thus, seedlings from each maternal seed

179 source were assigned at random to each of three soil inoculum treatments: female conspecific
180 soil inoculum ($n = 144$ seedlings), male conspecific soil inoculum ($n = 60$ seedlings), and
181 heterospecific soil inoculum ($n = 57$ seedlings). More seedlings were planted in female soil
182 inoculum because the experiment was designed to test concurrently for the effect of relatedness
183 on seedling performance in maternal soils (Eck et al., 2019). All soil inocula were collected in
184 September 2014 and used in the experiment within two days.

185 In a shadehouse on BCI, 261 experimental seedlings were transplanted into individual 2-
186 L pots in September 2014 (at ~ 1–2 mo of age). Each pot contained 20 % by volume of soil
187 microbial inoculum from the seedling’s assigned tree and 80 % by volume of a common soil
188 medium (a steam-sterilized 1:1 mixture of BCI field soil:potting sand). Inoculum was placed in
189 the center of the potting medium in each pot using a ‘core’ method. Relatively small volumes of
190 field soil inoculum were used to minimize the potential impact of differences in soil nutrients
191 among inocula on seedling performance. Seedling pots were placed across four shadehouse
192 benches in a balanced, randomized design (see Fig. 1B for a photograph of the shadehouse
193 experiment). Shadehouse benches were covered with two layers of 80 % shade cloth (to mimic
194 shady understory conditions) and were shielded from rainfall with a roof of clear plastic lining.
195 Stem height, the number of leaves, and the length and width of each leaf were measured for each
196 seedling immediately after transplant. Seedlings remained in their experimental treatments for ~
197 8 mo and were amply watered three times per week. In May 2015, the 250 surviving seedlings
198 were harvested. Final oven-dried biomass, stem height, leaf area, and foliar damage were
199 measured for each seedling. Foliar damage was measured as the number of leaves showing any
200 sign or symptom of disease or predation and the % damage by area was visually estimated on
201 each damaged leaf. Initial oven-dried biomass was estimated for each experimental seedling

202 based on stem height at the time of transplant using an allometric model ($F_{(1,42)} = 338.1$, $p <$
203 0.001 , $R^2 = 0.887$). Because dry biomass measurements require seedling harvest (and thus could
204 not be obtained for actual experimental seedlings), this linear regression model was built based
205 on measurements of height and dry biomass of a randomly harvested sample of potential
206 experimental seedlings at the beginning of the experiment. Seedlings with missing initial or final
207 biomass data were excluded from all models.

208 To quantify colonization by AM fungi in the surviving seedlings, we used the magnified
209 root intersect method (McGonigle *et al.*, 1990) described in Eck *et al.* 2019. To test whether
210 nutrient availability during the experiment varied among soil inocula or was linked to seedling
211 performance, we also quantified soil nutrient conditions in each soil inocula at the end of the
212 experiment using the method described in Eck *et al.* 2019. Finally, to explore the effect of the
213 tree size and seed production of conspecific soil inoculum source trees on seedling performance
214 in their soil microbial communities, we measured DBH and quantified seed production by the *V.*
215 *surinamensis* trees providing soil inocula in the experiment using the method described in
216 Queenborough *et al.* 2007b (see Supplementary Methods for details).

217

218 **Field experiment**

219 To test whether seedling performance was reduced beneath female conspecific trees
220 relative to male conspecific and heterospecific trees in an ecologically-relevant setting, we
221 conducted a field experiment in the BCI forest. We collected seeds from beneath the canopy of
222 six female *V. surinamensis* during the June–July 2015 fruiting season. Because of seed
223 availability and germination rates, two of the female trees from the shadehouse experiment were
224 also used in the field experiment (V5 and V11). Additional females were located by exploring

225 the same ~ 3.5 km² area of BCI as in the shadehouse study (see Fig. 3A for a map). All five male
226 *V. surinamensis* and four of the heterospecific trees studied in the shadehouse experiment were
227 included in the field experiment (H2 was replaced with a new heterospecific tree, H6: *Sterculia*
228 *apetala* (Jacq.) H. Karst). Seeds from each maternal source were surface-sterilized, air dried, and
229 germinated in autoclaved BCI forest soil in a shadehouse under two layers of 80 % shadecloth.

230 One month post-germination, a minimum of 18 healthy seedlings per maternal seed
231 source were randomly selected for inclusion in the field experiment. Within each seed source,
232 seedlings were randomly assigned to one of three experimental field treatment groups: beneath a
233 male conspecific adult, beneath a female conspecific adult, or beneath a heterospecific adult.
234 Seedlings were randomly assigned to be transplanted beneath one adult tree within their
235 treatment group, and into one of 3–6 seedling plots (1 m²) beneath the canopy of their assigned
236 tree. Plot locations were randomized with respect to direction and distance from the base of the
237 focal tree (1–4 m). Plots contained 3–5 experimental seedlings, each of which were randomly
238 assigned to a 25-cm² position within the plot. Because the field experiment was designed to
239 concurrently test for the effect of conspecific relatedness on seedling performance (Eck *et al.*,
240 2019), female trees had, on average, more plots per tree and more seedlings per plot than male
241 trees.

242 The 249 experimental seedlings were transplanted at ~ 1 mo of age into their field
243 treatment plots. Immediately after transplant (August 2015), stem height, the number of leaves,
244 and the length and width of each leaf were measured for each seedling. Each seedling was also
245 stem-tagged with a unique identification number. All seedlings were censused every 1–2 mo,
246 during which time survival was recorded, and the stem height and number of leaves were
247 measured for all surviving seedlings. We also recorded instances of seedling stem breakage and

248 uprooting (likely caused by mammalian herbivores). Seedlings that disappeared (with or without
249 their tags being found) were recorded as dead during the census of their disappearance. After ~ 7
250 mo in the field experimental treatments (late March 2016), the 40 surviving seedlings were
251 harvested and their total oven-dried biomass, stem height, and total leaf area were measured.

252

253 **Statistical analyses**

254 *Seedling performance in the shadehouse experiment*

255 To test whether seedling performance was reduced in female conspecific soil microbial
256 communities relative to male and heterospecific soil microbial communities in the shadehouse
257 experiment (Q1), we built a series of linear mixed-effects models (LMMs). We focused on
258 growth (i.e., biomass) of seedlings that survived until the end of the experiment because survival
259 rates in the experiment were high (95.8 %). First, we modelled seedling oven-dried biomass at
260 harvest in all conspecific and heterospecific soils. Fixed effects in this model included soil
261 microbial treatment (female conspecific, male conspecific, or heterospecific) and estimated
262 initial seedling biomass. Maternal seed source, soil inoculum source, and shadehouse bench were
263 included as crossed random effects.

264 Next, we tested whether seedling biomass at harvest was explained by the size of the
265 conspecific tree whose soil microbial community the seedling was grown in (Q2). Because we
266 only expect size to affect seedling performance in conspecific soils (due to the accumulation of
267 host-specific microbes), we tested this using a separate LMM that excluded seedlings planted in
268 heterospecific soils. Because dioecious species may increase in size without increasing in seed
269 production, this allowed us to decouple tests of size from seed production (Fig. S2 & Table S1).
270 Fixed effects in this model included the size (DBH) of the conspecific soil inoculum source and

271 estimated initial seedling biomass; maternal seed source, soil inoculum source, and shadehouse
272 bench were included as crossed random effects. Then, we tested whether seedling biomass at
273 harvest was explained by the amount of seed production by female conspecific trees (Q2) using a
274 third LMM (excluding seedlings planted in male conspecific and heterospecific soils). Fixed
275 effects in this model included a log-transformed estimate of the total number of seeds produced
276 by the female conspecific soil inoculum source and estimated initial seedling biomass; maternal
277 seed source, soil inoculum source, and shadehouse bench were included as crossed random
278 effects.

279 To better investigate the factors contributing to seedling growth, we then analyzed
280 whether seedling biomass at harvest was related to i) seedling colonization by AM fungi or ii)
281 nutrient conditions in the soil inocula at the end of the experiment (Supplementary Methods). We
282 also tested whether nutrient conditions at the end of the experiment varied among the female
283 conspecific, male conspecific, and heterospecific soil microbial treatments (Supplementary
284 Methods). As another measure of seedling performance, we tested whether seedling foliar
285 damage was i) higher in female conspecific soil inocula (relative to male conspecific and
286 heterospecific soil inocula) or ii) related to the size or seed production of the conspecific soil
287 inoculum source (Supplementary Methods). All statistical analyses in our study were conducted
288 in the R statistical environment (R Core Team 2022). All mixed-effects models in our study were
289 constructed using the lme4 package (Bates et al., 2015). P values for LMM predictors were
290 obtained using the lmerTest package (Kuznetsova et al., 2016).

291

292 *Seedling colonization by AM fungi*

293 To test whether seedling colonization by AM fungi in the shadehouse experiment was
294 higher in female conspecific soil microbial inocula relative to male conspecific and
295 heterospecific soil inocula (Q3), we built a generalized linear mixed-effects model (GLMM).
296 The proportion of root intersects colonized by any AM fungal structure was modelled in each
297 seedling that survived until the end of the shadehouse experiment using the glmmTMB package
298 (Brooks et al., 2017). Fixed effects in this model included soil microbial treatment and estimated
299 initial seedling biomass. To check whether patterns of AM fungal colonization were related to
300 nutrient conditions in the soil inocula at the end of the experiment, we included soil nutrient
301 conditions as a fixed effect in this model (Supplementary Methods). To account for potential
302 variation between the two researchers that quantified AM fungal colonization in the seedlings,
303 we also included observer as a fixed effect in the model. Random effects in the model included
304 maternal seed source, soil inoculum source, and shadehouse bench. Model family was set to
305 beta-binomial (to counter overdispersion) and weights were set to the number of root intersects
306 quantified in each seedling.

307 Next, we tested whether seedling colonization by AM fungi was explained by the size of
308 the conspecific soil inoculum source tree using a second GLMM. Fixed effects in this model
309 included the size (DBH) of the conspecific soil inoculum source, estimated initial seedling
310 biomass, observer, and soil nutrient conditions. Like in the model above, maternal seed source,
311 soil inoculum source, and shadehouse bench were included as random effects. Finally, we tested
312 whether seedling colonization by AM fungi was explained by the seed production of female
313 conspecific soil inoculum sources using a third GLMM. Fixed effects in this model included a
314 log-transformed estimate of the total number of seeds produced by the female soil inoculum
315 source, estimated initial seedling biomass, observer, and soil nutrient conditions. Random effects

316 in this model included maternal seed source, soil inoculum source, and shadehouse bench.
317 Because preliminary analyses using the proportion of root intersects colonized by arbuscules
318 yielded similar results, we focus here on analyses utilizing data on all visible AM fungal
319 structures. P values for GLMM predictors were obtained using the car package (Fox &
320 Weisberg, 2019).

321

322 *Seedling performance in the field experiment*

323 To test whether seedling performance in the field was reduced in female conspecific
324 environments relative to male conspecific and heterospecific environments, we built a series of
325 mixed-effects models analyzing seedling survival and growth. First, the survival of seedlings in
326 all conspecific and heterospecific environments was modelled at the end of the field experiment
327 as a binary response variable using a GLMM (with family set to binomial). Because including
328 seedlings that were damaged in the field (likely by mammalian herbivores) did not affect the
329 results of the model, we included whether a seedling experienced stem breakage and/or
330 uprooting (at any point during the field experiment) as a binary fixed effect in the model.
331 Additional fixed effects in the model included field environment (female conspecific, male
332 conspecific, or heterospecific) and estimated initial seedling biomass. Maternal seed source and
333 the identity of the adult tree each seedling was planted near were included as random effects.

334 Next, we tested whether seedling survival was explained by the size (DBH) of the
335 conspecific adult they were planted near using a separate GLMM (excluding seedlings in
336 heterospecific field environments). Estimated initial seedling biomass and whether a seedling
337 was damaged by mammalian herbivores were also included as fixed effects in this model, while
338 maternal seed source and focal adult identifier were included as random effects. Because the

339 number of experimental seedlings varied among field plots, we also included the number of
340 experimental seedlings in the plot as a fixed effect in this model (this factor could not be
341 included in the previous model because it was correlated with field environment). In preliminary
342 analyses, we included the exact distance between the seedling and the focal adult (in m) as a
343 fixed effect; because seedling performance was not related to the distance to the focal adult at
344 this small spatial scale (within 1 – 4 m of the trunk and beneath the canopy), this factor was
345 removed from all final field models.

346 As another measure of seedling performance in the field, we then tested whether the
347 biomass of the seedlings that survived until the end of the field experiment varied among female
348 conspecific, male conspecific, and heterospecific field environments. First, we modelled the
349 oven-dried harvest biomass of the seedlings that survived until the end of the experiment in all
350 conspecific and heterospecific environments using a LMM. Explanatory factors in the model
351 included field environment (female conspecific, male conspecific, or heterospecific), estimated
352 initial seedling biomass, and whether the seedling was damaged by mammalian herbivores.
353 Maternal seed source and the identity of the focal adult each seedling was planted near were
354 included as random effects. Finally, we tested whether seedling biomass was explained by the
355 size of the conspecific adult they were planted near using a separate LMM (excluding seedlings
356 in heterospecific field environments). Explanatory factors in the model included the DBH of the
357 conspecific adult, estimated initial seedling biomass, seedling damage by mammalian herbivores,
358 and the number of experimental seedlings in the field plot. Like in the model above, maternal
359 seed source and focal adult identifier were included as random effects in the model.

360

361 **Results**

362 **Seedling performance in the shadehouse experiment**

363 At the end of an 8-mo shadehouse experiment, we found that *V. surinamensis* seedlings
364 grown in a soil microbial community associated with a female conspecific tree had similar
365 biomass as seedlings grown in a soil microbial community associated with a male conspecific
366 tree or a heterospecific tree (Fig. 1C & Table S2; $F = 0.87$, $p = 0.44$; $n = 246$ seedlings).
367 Seedlings grew substantially during the experiment: the average biomass of seedlings at the end
368 of the experiment was 2.58 ± 1.08 g versus an estimated 0.40 ± 0.14 g at the beginning of the
369 experiment. We also did not find a relationship between seedling biomass and the size (Fig. 1D
370 & Table S3; $F = 0.32$, $p = 0.59$, $n = 184$ seedlings) of the conspecific soil inoculum source, or the
371 number of seeds produced by female conspecific soil inoculum sources (Fig. 1E & Table S4; $F =$
372 1.75 , $p = 0.23$, $n = 130$ seedlings). Soil nutrient conditions at the end of the experiment were
373 similar among seedlings grown in the female conspecific, male conspecific, and heterospecific
374 soil microbial treatments (Fig. S4 & Table S5; $F = 0.98$, $p = 0.40$, $n = 21$ soil inocula), and we
375 did not find a relationship between seedling biomass and nutrient conditions in the soil inocula
376 (Fig. S5 & Table S6; $F = 2.12$, $p = 0.16$; $n = 246$ seedlings). Similarly, we found that the
377 incidence of seedling foliar damage was not affected by the soil microbial treatment (Fig. S6 &
378 Table S7; $p = 0.82$; $n = 241$ seedlings), nor related to the size of the conspecific soil inoculum
379 source (Fig. S7A & Table S8; $p = 0.45$, $n = 184$ seedlings) or seed production by female
380 conspecific trees (Fig. S7B & Table S9; $p = 0.35$; $n = 130$ seedlings).

381

382 **Seedling colonization by AM fungi**

383 Most of the seedlings (82.5 %) were colonized by AM fungi after 8-mo of growth in the
384 shadehouse experiment. We found that seedlings grown in a soil microbial community associated

385 with a male conspecific tree had higher proportions of colonization by AM fungi in their roots
386 than seedlings grown in a soil microbial community associated with a female conspecific tree or
387 a heterospecific tree (Fig. 2A & Table S10; $p = 0.04$; $n = 230$ seedlings). This result was
388 consistent across soil inoculum sources: in four out of the five male *V. surinamensis* trees in our
389 study, the predicted mean proportions of seedling colonization by AM fungi were higher than the
390 means predicted for any of the 11 female *V. surinamensis* trees (Fig. 2B). We found that seedling
391 colonization by AM fungi was not related to the size of the conspecific tree providing the soil
392 inocula (Fig 2C & Table S11; $p = 0.37$; $n = 174$ seedlings) or the number of seeds produced by
393 female conspecific soil inoculum source trees (Fig. 2D & Table S12; $p = 0.55$; $n = 121$
394 seedlings). We did not find a relationship between seedling biomass and seedling colonization by
395 AM fungi at the end of the experiment (Fig. S8 & Table S13; $F = 0.91$, $p = 0.34$; $n = 230$
396 seedlings). We found a marginally significant effect of nutrient conditions in the female
397 conspecific soil inocula at the end of the experiment on seedling colonization by AM fungi in
398 those inocula (Table S12; $p = 0.08$; $n = 121$ seedlings).

399

400 **Seedling performance in the field experiment**

401 At the end of the field experiment (Figs. 3A & 3B), we found that seedling survival was
402 similar among seedlings planted in female conspecific environments, male conspecific
403 environments, and heterospecific environments in the field (Fig. 3C & Table S14; $p = 0.79$; $n =$
404 249 seedlings). Seedling mortality was high with only 16.1 % of the experimental seedlings alive
405 after 7 mo. We found a marginally significant positive effect of the size of the conspecific tree
406 the seedling was planted near on seedling survival (Fig. 3D & Table S15; $p = 0.08$, $n = 198$
407 seedlings). In contrast, we found that seedlings in field plots that contained higher densities of

408 experimental seedlings at the beginning of the experiment had lower survival (Fig. 3E & Table
409 S15; $p = 0.01$; $n = 198$ seedlings).

410 As with survival, the harvest biomass of seedlings that survived until the end of the field
411 experiment was similar among female conspecific, male conspecific, and heterospecific field
412 environments (Fig. 4A & Table S16; $F = 1.05$, $p = 0.38$; $n = 40$ seedlings). We found a
413 significant negative effect of the size of the conspecific tree the seedling was planted near on
414 seedling biomass in the field (Fig. 4B & Table S17; $F = 5.14$, $p = 0.05$; $n = 32$ seedlings).
415 Seedling biomass at the end of the field experiment was not related to the initial density of
416 experimental seedlings in the field plots (Table S17; $F = 2.95$, $p = 0.11$; $n = 32$ seedlings).

417

418 **Discussion**

419 Though recent studies have focused on quantifying patterns of CDD among co-occurring
420 species and determining whether such patterns are caused primarily by natural enemies,
421 mutualists, or competition with neighbors (Chanthorn et al., 2010; Kotanen, 2010; Lebrija-Trejos
422 et al., 2014), less is known about the patterns and causes of intraspecific variation in conspecific
423 seedling performance. In parallel shadehouse and field experiments with a dioecious tropical tree
424 species in Panama, we examined variation in conspecific seedling performance beneath
425 established conspecific adult trees and tested whether seedling growth and survival were
426 negatively impacted by seed input or size of the conspecific adult and whether such effects were
427 mediated by soil microbes. We did not find evidence in support of the hypothesis that seed
428 production by female trees decreases seedling performance in female soils. In the field and in the
429 shadehouse, seedling survival and growth were similar among seedlings grown in female
430 conspecific, male conspecific, and heterospecific soils. However, unexpectedly, seedling

431 colonization by AM fungi was more frequent in the roots of seedlings grown in male soils than
432 in the roots of seedlings grown in female or heterospecific soils. Together, our results suggest
433 that though plant–mycorrhizal interactions differ between seedlings in male and female soils,
434 these differences do not necessarily translate to differences in seedling growth or survival.

435 Traits that vary among individuals within populations are often overlooked in community
436 ecology but are an important source of intraspecific variation in ecological dynamics (Freckleton
437 & Lewis, 2006). In our study, we asked whether intraspecific variation in factors such as size or
438 seed production of established plants could underlie variation in the performance of conspecific
439 seedlings in their soils. Though we hypothesized that variation in seed production by adult trees
440 would cause variation in the accumulation of host-specific natural enemies, and consequently,
441 variation in conspecific seedling performance in their environments, we did not find evidence in
442 support of this hypothesis. Seedling survival, growth, and leaf damage in conspecific soils were
443 independent of the amount of seeds produced by females and of the stark contrast in seed
444 production between male and female adults of the species. In a shadehouse experiment with
445 another dioecious tropical tree species in Ghana, Hood et al. (2004) found reductions in survival
446 and higher disease incidence for seedlings grown in female relative to male soils, indicating that
447 such differences may occur in other species. Because we did not quantify enemy densities in our
448 study, we cannot rule out the possibility that seed production could cause short- or long-term
449 changes to the density or composition of natural enemy communities near established plants.
450 However, our study suggests that any such changes, if they occur, do not have a strong influence
451 on conspecific seedling performance in our study species. Effects of seed production on
452 conspecific seedling performance via natural enemies (or mutualists) could still occur in other
453 species, emerge over longer time periods or during later developmental stages, or could be

454 critically determined during or immediately after seed germination. In contrast, we found that
455 increases in the number of experimental conspecific seedlings in our field plots negatively
456 affected seedling survival, in line with other studies showing the importance of conspecific
457 seedling neighbors in determining seedling performance (Harms et al., 2000; Queenborough et
458 al., 2007a; Comita et al., 2010; Metz et al., 2010; Lebrija-Trejos et al., 2014).

459 We also asked whether the size of established conspecifics might influence the
460 performance of conspecific seedlings in their soils. By studying a dioecious species, we were
461 able to decouple the influences of size and seed production, because male trees are as large as
462 females but do not produce fruit. In the field, we found some effects of the size of the conspecific
463 adult a seedling was growing near on its survival. Specifically, seedling survival was slightly
464 higher in the soils of larger conspecific trees relative to smaller ones. In contrast, seedling growth
465 was reduced in the soils of larger conspecific trees relative to smaller ones. Growth–defense
466 tradeoffs are common in plants (reviewed by Huot et al., 2014); together, these findings could
467 indicate a tradeoff in which seedlings in the soils of larger conspecific adults invest energetic
468 resources in defense (thus aiding survival), while divesting resources away from growth. This
469 could occur if natural enemy conditions are more limiting in the soils of larger conspecific adults
470 relative to smaller ones. However, we did not observe any effects of conspecific tree size in the
471 shadehouse experiment, suggesting that any differences in seedling performance due to
472 conspecific size are not caused by soilborne microbes. Thus, such effects may be driven by other
473 types of host-specific enemies (e.g., foliar pathogens or insect herbivores) or stronger
474 competition for resources near larger adult trees. Future studies that quantify enemy abundances
475 and seedling–enemy interactions, as well as resource competition, in the environments of

476 conspecific trees that vary in size are necessary to conclude whether adult size is an important
477 factor influencing conspecific seedling performance.

478 Plant genotype and the level of genetic relatedness between seedlings and nearby adults
479 may also influence seedling performance in conspecific soils (Browne & Karubian, 2016; Eck et
480 al., 2019). In our study species, shadehouse seedlings that were grown in the soil microbial
481 community associated with their maternal tree had lower biomass than seedlings that were grown
482 in the soil microbial community of an unrelated conspecific female adult (Eck et al., 2019). This
483 finding demonstrates that the shadehouse experimental approach utilized in our study is capable
484 of detecting differences in conspecific soil effects. Together, these shadehouse results suggest
485 that genetic relatedness to the seedling, rather than the size or seed production of nearby adults,
486 determines the effect of conspecific soil microbial communities on seedling performance. Lack
487 of differences in seedling growth between male and female conspecific soil microbial inoculum
488 sources in our study could be because i) we did not account for relatedness of the soil donor tree
489 to the focal seedling and ii) the soil donor trees likely had varying levels of relatedness to the
490 experimental seedlings. In addition, though negative plant-soil feedbacks have also been
491 documented in our study species (Mangan et al., 2010b), we did not find differences between *V.*
492 *surinamensis* seedling performance in conspecific soils versus heterospecific soils in our study.
493 However, because plant-soil feedbacks arise from pairwise interactions between co-occurring
494 species (rather than from comparisons of the performance of one species in conspecific versus
495 heterospecific soils), our result does not necessarily contradict prior studies demonstrating
496 negative plant-soil feedbacks in *V. surinamensis*. Thus, host-specific soil-borne pathogens could
497 still be a key factor determining seedling performance in our study species. Furthermore, a study
498 of a subtropical tree community at the Heishiding Nature Reserve in China found a positive

499 relationship between the density of conspecific adults and soil pathogens that led to higher
500 conspecific seedling mortality (Liang et al., 2016); thus, the density of conspecific adults may
501 have a larger effect on enemy densities than the size or seed production of just the nearest
502 conspecific adult.

503 Mutualistic AM fungi are also thought to be important in influencing CDD and seedling
504 performance (Bever, 2002; Mangan et al., 2010b; Bachelot et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2015;
505 Bachelot et al., 2017; Bennett et al., 2017; Jevon et al., 2022). We hypothesized that the repeated
506 input of conspecific seeds and/or seedlings near female trees would result in more opportunities
507 for the growth of AM fungi, and subsequently, higher colonization rates by AM fungi in
508 seedlings grown in female conspecific soils relative to male soils. Contrary to our expectations,
509 colonization by AM fungi was higher in seedlings grown in male conspecific soils relative to
510 female conspecific soils. This result suggests that another mechanism may be affecting AM
511 fungal abundance, such as the release of AM fungal growth (or seedling association with AM
512 fungi) in male soils from pathogen suppression in female soils (or other constraints). Though
513 nutrient conditions were similar among seedlings grown in female and male soil inocula at the
514 end of the experiment, nutrient conditions were more strongly linked to AM fungal colonization
515 rates in female soils than in conspecific soils in general. In the dioecious tropical tree *Milicia*
516 *regia* (Moraceae), Hood et al. (2004) found differences in AM fungal colonization depending on
517 whether seedlings were grown in conspecific versus distant soils, but not between female versus
518 male soils, suggesting that these dynamics could vary among plant species. In addition, in our
519 study differences in AM fungal colonization did not translate to differences in seedling
520 performance in the soil microbial communities associated with male conspecific versus female
521 conspecific trees. Though negative impacts of the soil microbial communities near adults on

522 conspecific seedlings appear to be more common than positive impacts, especially in AM fungal-
523 associated trees (Mangan et al. 2010a, Liu et al. 2012, McCarthy-Neumann & Ibáñez 2013,
524 Bennett et al. 2017, Eck et al., 2019), AM fungal benefits to seedlings are strong enough to
525 balance the negative impact of host-specific pathogens in at least some tree species (Mangan et
526 al., 2010b; Liang et al. 2015). Because AM fungal-associating tree species tend to show stronger
527 negative CDD than EM fungal-associating tree species (Jiang et al., 2020; Delavaux et al., *in*
528 *prep.*), this could indicate that the impact of AM fungi are relatively weak in these systems.

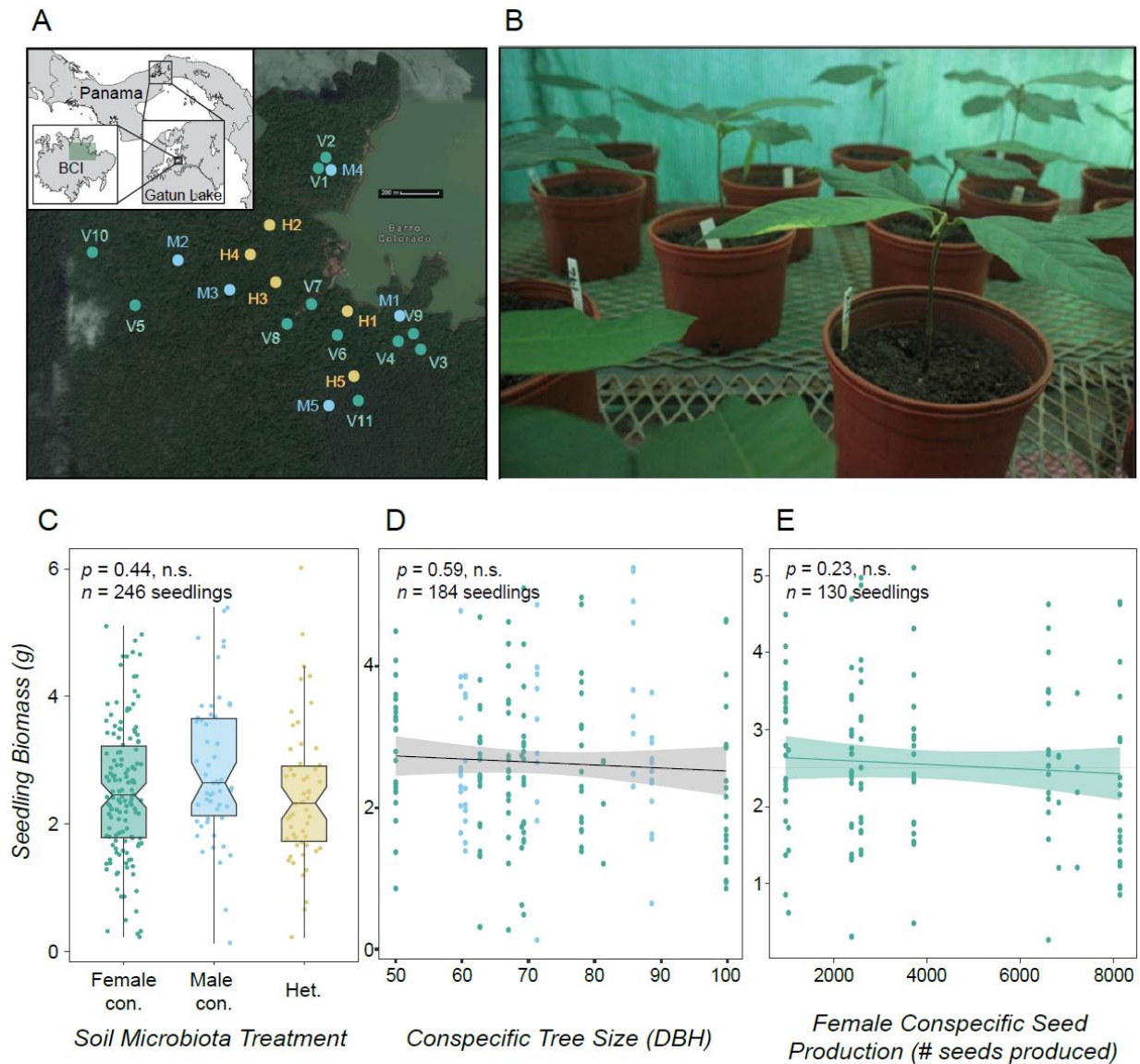
529 The advantages and disadvantages of the dioecious reproductive system and how
530 dioecious species are maintained in plant communities is an important topic of current research
531 (Bruijning et al., 2017). Our study adds to this discussion by suggesting that male environments
532 may provide some advantages over female environments for conspecific seedlings, mainly in
533 colonization by mutualist AM fungi. Sex ratios in dioecious tree species tend to be male-biased
534 (Queenborough et al., 2007b), though the sex ratio is uniform in *V. surinamensis* (Riba-
535 Hernandez et al. 2014). The distributions of adult *V. surinamensis* are aggregated, with males
536 and females occurring equally frequently within patches (Riba-Hernandez et al., 2014). In our
537 study, AM fungal colonization in the soil inocula of female conspecific trees was not related to
538 the quantity of seeds the female produced. This indicates that the influence of seed production on
539 seedling-AM fungal dynamics in adult soils is likely more qualitative, i.e., related to broader
540 qualities that may differ among female and male environments, rather than quantitative, i.e.,
541 related specifically to variation in the quantity of seeds produced. In the context of dioecy, higher
542 colonization by AM fungi (or other mutualist advantages) in some conspecific sites could cause
543 reductions in negative CDD within species and act as a selection force on species coexistence
544 (Montesinos et al., 2007). However, because we did not find differences in seedling growth or

545 survival near male and female trees, our study suggests overall tolerance of seedlings to female
546 seed production (and any associated environmental changes). This tolerance could help seedlings
547 withstand any potentially negative impacts of aggregated seed production (e.g., higher enemy
548 densities).

549 The causes and consequences of interspecific and intraspecific variation in negative CDD
550 continue to be an important area of future research (Comita & Stump, 2020). The demographic
551 patterns predicted by Janzen (1970) and Connell (1971) have been shown to occur in a variety of
552 plant communities worldwide (reviewed by Carson & Schnitzer 2008; Terborgh, 2011; Comita
553 et al., 2014), and theoretical studies demonstrate that they can enhance local species richness
554 (Adler & Muller-Landau, 2005; but see Stump & Comita, 2018) and structure the relative
555 abundance of species in plant communities (Mangan et al., 2010b). Recently, studies expanding
556 on the Janzen–Connell hypothesis to consider intraspecific effects within populations and have
557 found that within-species variation may also contribute to the maintenance of species diversity
558 and the evolution of plant traits, such as seed dispersal (Schupp et al., 1992; Liu et al., 2015;
559 Browne & Karubian, 2016; Marden et al., 2017; Eck et al., 2019). Variation in conspecific
560 seedling survival due to variation in plant-enemy or plant-mutualist interactions within species
561 could help to enhance plant species diversity by enabling species to differ in the distributions of
562 their responses to the environment (Clark, 2010). Our study does not provide evidence of
563 variation in negative CDD within species, but instead shows variation in biotic interactions
564 between conspecific seedlings and adults and mutualists. Intraspecific variation in negative
565 conspecific effects was not explained by differences in seed inputs or size of established
566 conspecific adults. Understanding the factors that influence conspecific seedling survival near

567 adult plants will help us better understand how natural enemies and mutualists structure plant
568 diversity and abundance.

569 **Figures**

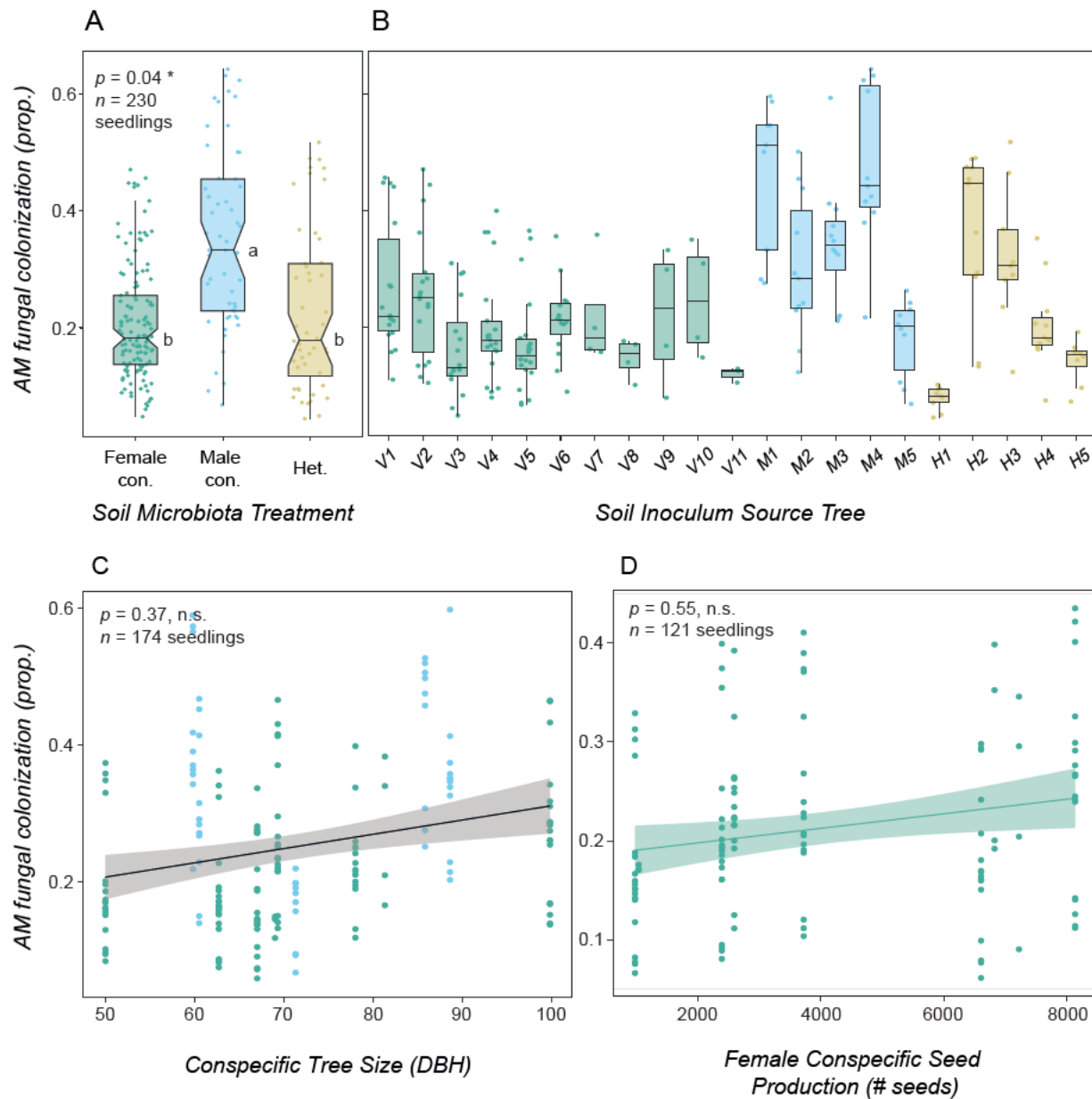


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571 **Figure 1: In a shadehouse experiment, seedling biomass was similar in female conspecific**
572 **and male conspecific soil microbial communities.** Panel A: *Virola surinamensis* and
573 heterospecific trees used as soil inoculum sources in the shadehouse experiment are located on
574 Barro Colorado Island (BCI), Panama (the study area is shaded in green on the BCI map).
575 Female *V. surinamensis* are marked in green (V1 - V15), male *V. surinamensis* in blue (M1 -
576 M5), and heterospecific trees in yellow (H1 - H5). Map data: Google, ©2017. Map inset
577 modified from Baldeck *et al.*, 2014. Panel B: In a shadehouse on BCI, we planted *V.*
578 *surinamensis* seedlings in three soil microbial community inoculation treatments: female
579 conspecific soil, male conspecific soil, or heterospecific soil. Panel C: At the end of the 8-mo
580 shadehouse experiment, the biomass of *V. surinamensis* seedlings grown in the soil microbial
581 community associated with female conspecific trees was similar to seedlings grown in the soil
582 microbial community associated with male conspecific trees or heterospecific trees (Table S2).

583 *Panel D*: Seedling biomass at the end of the shadehouse experiment was not related to the size of
584 the conspecific tree whose soil microbial community the seedlings were grown in (*Panel D*;
585 Table S3) or the amount of seed production by the female conspecific tree whose soil microbial
586 community the seedlings were grown in (*Panel E*; Table S4). In *C*, box belts show the median
587 values, box notches represent a 95 % confidence interval for comparing medians, box hinges
588 correspond to the first and third quartiles, and box whiskers extend to the largest and smallest
589 value no further than $1.5 \times$ the interquartile range from the hinges. In *D* & *E*, shaded areas
590 represent 95 % confidence interval bands surrounding the best fit regression lines.

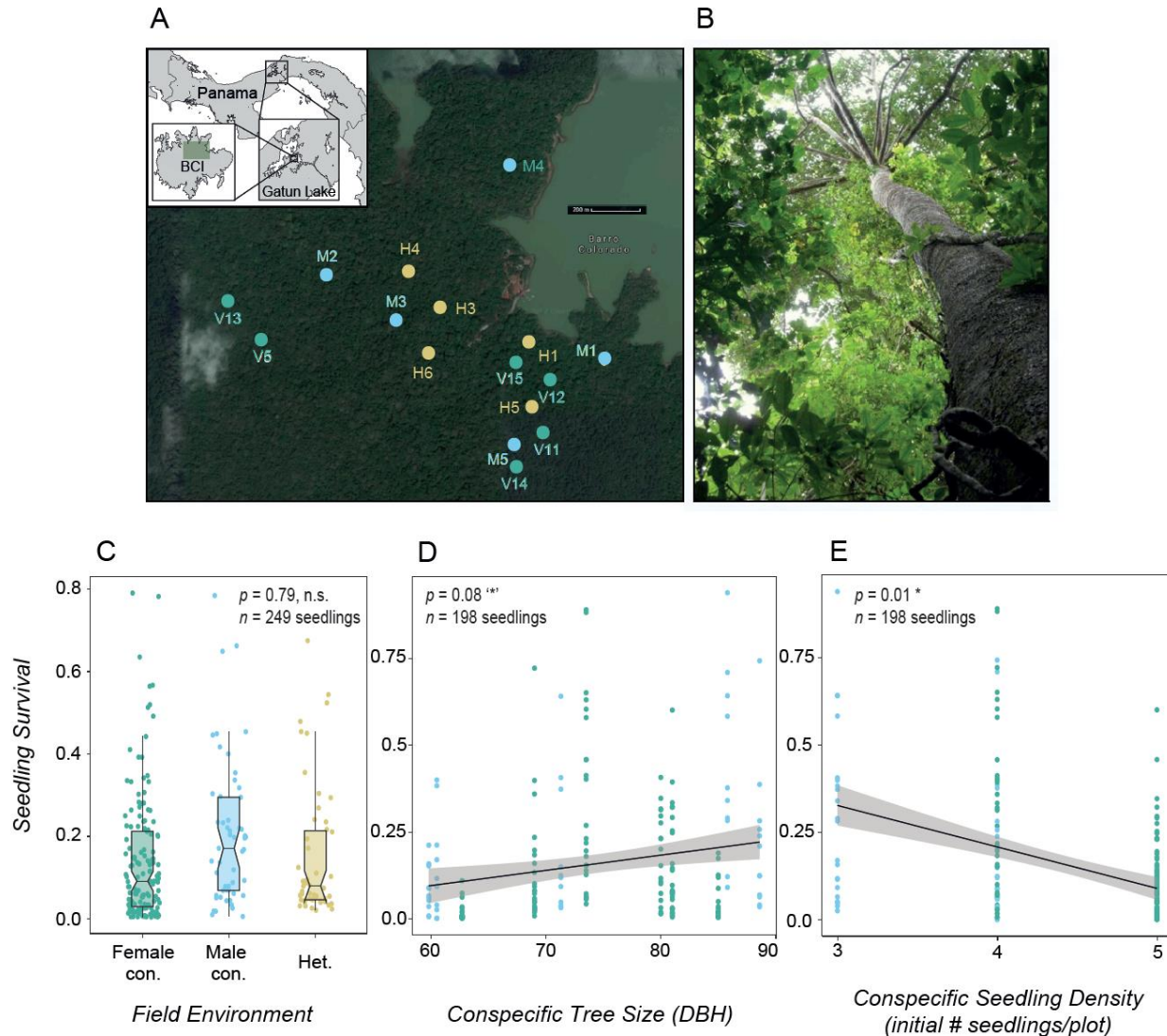
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593

594 **Figure 2. Seedling colonization by AM fungi was higher in the soil microbial communities**
595 **associated with male conspecific trees in a shadehouse experiment.** *Panel A:* At the end of
596 the 8-mo shadehouse experiment on Barro Colorado Island (Panama), colonization by AM fungi
597 was higher in *Virola surinamensis* seedlings grown in the soil microbial communities associated
598 with male conspecific trees relative to seedlings grown in soil microbial communities associated
599 with female conspecific trees or heterospecific trees (Table S10). *Panel B:* In four of the five
600 male soil microbial communities tested, the median predicted values for AM fungal colonization
601 were higher than in any of the 11 female soil microbial communities tested. *Panel C:* At the end
602 of the shadehouse experiment, AM fungal colonization was similar in seedlings grown in the soil
603 microbiota from larger and smaller conspecific soil inoculum source trees (Table S11). *Panel D:*

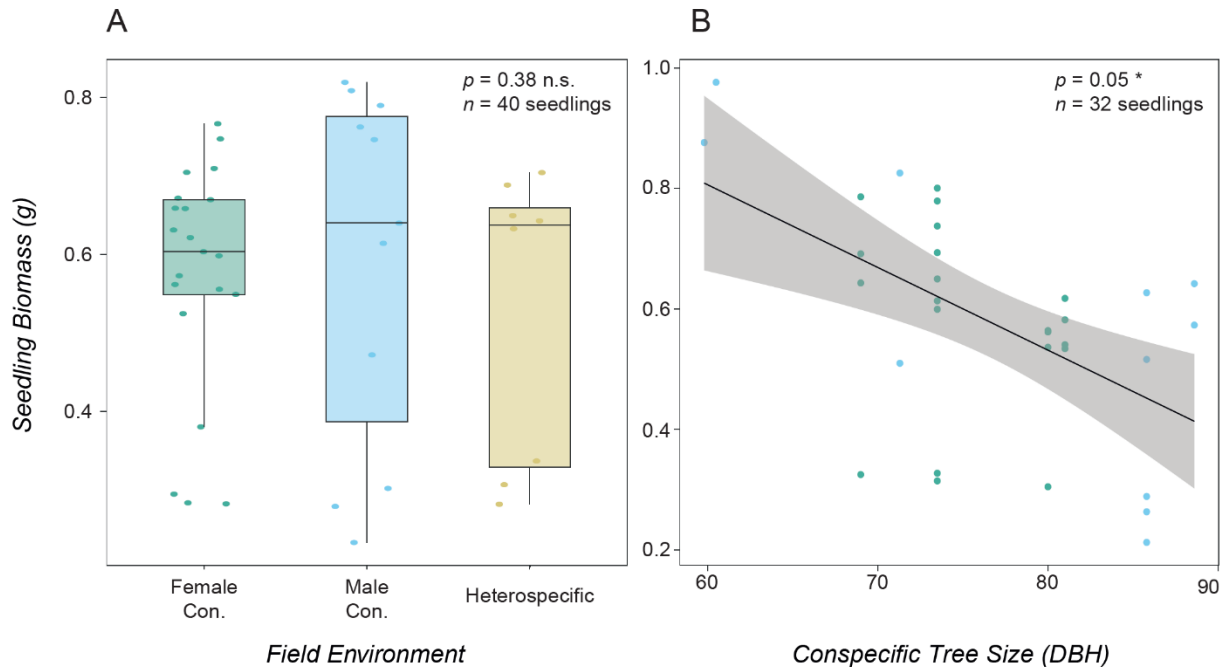
604 AM fungal colonization at the end of the shadehouse experiment was also similar in seedlings
605 grown in the soil microbiota from female conspecific trees that produced more or less seeds
606 (Table S12). In *A* & *B*, box belts show the median predicted values, box hinges correspond to the
607 first and third quartiles, while box whiskers extend to the largest and smallest value no further
608 than $1.5 \times$ the interquartile range from the hinges (predicted values are plotted to show patterns
609 after accounting for covariates). In *A*, box notches represent a 95 % confidence interval for
610 comparing predicted medians. In *C* & *D*, shaded areas represent 95 % confidence interval bands
611 surrounding the best fit regression lines.



612
613

614 **Figure 3. In a field experiment, seedling survival was similar in female conspecific and male**
 615 **conspecific environments but was influenced by other factors.** *Panel A:* *Virola surinamensis*
 616 and heterospecific trees used as soil inoculum sources in the field experiment are located on
 617 Barro Colorado Island (BCI), Panama (the study area is shaded in green on the BCI map).
 618 Female *V. surinamensis* are marked in green (V5, V11 - V15), male *V. surinamensis* in blue (M1
 619 - M5), and heterospecific trees in yellow (H1, H3 - H6). Map data: Google, ©2017. Map inset
 620 modified from Baldeck *et al.*, 2014. *Panel B:* In a field experiment on BCI, we planted *V.*
 621 *surinamensis* seedlings in three field treatments: female conspecific environments, male
 622 conspecific environments, or heterospecific environments. *Panel C:* At the end of the 7-mo field
 623 experiment, the survival of *V. surinamensis* seedlings was similar among female conspecific,
 624 male conspecific, and heterospecific field environments (Table S14). *Panel D:* At the end of the
 625 field experiment, we found a marginally significant positive effect of the size of the adult
 626 conspecific tree on the survival of experimental seedlings (Table S15). *Panel E:* In the field
 627 experiment, seedling survival decreased as the number of experimental conspecific seedlings in
 628 the field plots increased (Table S15). In C, predicted values are plotted as points, box belts show
 629 the median predicted values, box notches represent a 95 % confidence interval for comparing

630 predicted medians, box hinges correspond to the first and third quartiles, while box whiskers
631 extend to the largest and smallest value no further than $1.5 \times$ the interquartile range from the
632 hinges. In D & E , shaded areas represent 95 % confidence interval bands surrounding the best fit
633 regression lines.



634
635

636 **Figure 4. In a field experiment, seedling biomass was similar among female conspecific and**
637 **male conspecific environments but was influenced by tree size. Panel A:** At the end of a 7-mo
638 field experiment on Barro Colorado Island (Panama), the biomass of the *Virola surinamensis*
639 seedlings that survived until the end of the experiment was similar among seedlings growing in
640 female conspecific, male conspecific, and heterospecific field environments (Table S16). *Panel*
641 *B:* We found a negative effect of conspecific tree size on seedling biomass at the end of the field
642 experiment (Table S17). In A, predicted values are plotted as points, box belts show the median
643 predicted values, box notches represent a 95 % confidence interval for comparing predicted
644 medians, box hinges correspond to the first and third quartiles, while box whiskers extend to the
645 largest and smallest value no further than $1.5 \times$ the interquartile range from the hinges. In B, the
646 shaded area represents 95 % confidence interval bands surrounding the best fit regression line.

647 **Author Contributions**

648 JLE and LSC designed the experiments, with help from SAQ and CSD. JLE, CSD, and
649 DMW collected the data. JLE, LSC, and SAQ analyzed the data. JLE wrote the first draft of the
650 manuscript. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

651

652 **Acknowledgements**

653 We would like to thank Oris Acevedo, Luis Aguilar, Abdiel Chevarria, Blexein Contreras,
654 Mitzila Gaitan, Lourdes Hernández, Belkys Jiménez, and Roni Saenz for assistance conducting
655 the study in Panama and the Soils Lab at the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute for assistance
656 in generating the soil nutrient data. Funding was provided by National Science Foundation
657 Division of Environmental Biology Grants 1457571 and 1457515 to LSC. JLE acknowledges
658 support from Yale University, The Ohio State University, and a Smithsonian Institute Predoctoral
659 Fellowship.

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