CLASSIFICATION: BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES: Evolution

TITLE: Genomics of sorghum local adaptation to a parasitic plant

AUTHORS: Emily S. Bellis[1,12], Elizabeth A. Kelly[2], Claire M. Lorts[1], Huirong Gao[3],

Victoria L. DeLeo[1,2], Germinal Rouhan[4], Andrew Budden[5], Govinal Badiger Bhaskara[6],

Zhenbin Hu[7], Robert Muscarella[8], Michael P. Timko[9], Baloua Nebie[10], Steven M.

Runo[11], N. Doane Chilcoat[3], Thomas E. Juenger[6], Geoffrey P. Morris[7], Claude W.

dePamphilis[1], Jesse R. Lasky[1]

[1]Department of Biology, The Pennsylvania State University, Huck Institutes of the Life

Sciences, University Park, PA, 16802

[2]Intercollege Graduate Program in Plant Biology, The Pennsylvania State University,

University Park, PA, 16802

[3]Corteva Agriscience, 7000 NW 62nd Ave, Johnston, IA, 50131

[4]Institut Systématique Evolution Biodiversité (ISYEB), Muséum national d'Histoire

naturelle, CNRS, Sorbonne Université, EPHE, 57 rue Cuvier, CP39, 75005 Paris,

France

[5]Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, Richmond TW9 3AB, UK

[6]Department of Integrative Biology, 2415 Speedway #C0930, University of Texas,

Austin, TX, 78712

[7]Department of Agronomy, Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas, 66506

[8]Department of Plant Ecology and Evolution, Evolutionary Biology Centre, Uppsala

University, SE-75236 Uppsala, Sweden

[9]Department of Biology, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia, 22904

[10]International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics, BP 320, Bamako,

Mali

[11]Department of Biochemistry and Biotechnology, Kenyatta University, Nairobi, Kenya

[12]Arkansas Biosciences Institute at Arkansas State University, P.O. Box 639, State

University, AR, 72467

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: Emily S. Bellis, Arkansas Biosciences Institute at

Arkansas State University, P.O. Box 639, State University, AR, 72467,

ebellis@astate.edu

ABSTRACT:

Host-parasite coevolution can maintain high levels of genetic diversity in traits involved

in species interactions. In many systems, host traits exploited by parasites are

constrained by use in other functions, leading to complex selective pressures across

space and time. Here, we study genome-wide variation in the staple crop *Sorghum*

bicolor (L.) Moench and its association with the parasitic weed *Striga hermonthica*

(Delile) Benth.*,* a major constraint to food security in Africa. We hypothesize that

geographic selection mosaics across gradients of parasite occurrence maintain genetic

diversity in sorghum landrace resistance. Suggesting a role in local adaptation to

parasite pressure, multiple independent loss-of-function alleles at sorghum *LOW*

GERMINATION STIMULANT 1 (LGS1) are broadly distributed among African landraces

and geographically associated with *S. hermonthica* occurrence. However, low

frequency of these alleles within *S. hermonthica*-prone regions and their absence

elsewhere implicate potential tradeoffs restricting their fixation. *LGS1* is thought to

cause resistance by changing stereochemistry of strigolactones, hormones that control

plant architecture and belowground signaling to mycorrhizae and are required to

stimulate parasite germination. Consistent with tradeoffs, we find signatures of

balancing selection surrounding *LGS1* and other candidates from analysis of genome-

wide associations with parasite distribution. Experiments with CRISPR-Cas9 edited

sorghum further indicate the benefit of *LGS1*-mediated resistance strongly depends on

parasite genotype and abiotic environment and comes at the cost of reduced

photosystem gene expression. Our study demonstrates long-term maintenance of

diversity in host resistance genes across smallholder agroecosystems, providing a

valuable comparison to both industrial farming systems and natural communities.

KEYWORDS: species distribution modeling, environmental niche modeling, genotype-

environment association analysis, Red Queen

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT:

Understanding co-evolution in crop-parasite systems is critical to management of myriad pests and pathogens confronting modern agriculture. In contrast to wild plant communities, parasites in agricultural ecosystems are usually expected to gain the upper hand in co-evolutionary 'arms races' due to limited genetic diversity of host crops in cultivation. Here, we develop a framework to characterize associations between genome variants in global landraces (traditional varieties) of the staple crop sorghum with the distribution of the devastating parasitic weed *Striga hermonthica.* We find long-term maintenance of diversity in genes related to parasite resistance, highlighting an important role of host adaptation for co-evolutionary dynamics in smallholder agroecosystems.

INTRODUCTION:

Host-parasite interactions can be powerful and dynamic selective forces maintaining genetic variation in natural populations (1). In wild plant pathosystems, long-term balancing selection often maintains diverse resistance alleles in host populations (2–4). When rare alleles provide a selective advantage, negative frequency-dependent selection drives cycling of resistance and virulence alleles (i.e. fluctuating Red Queen dynamics *sensu* (5)) (2, 6). Fitness costs of resistance and spatiotemporal changes in selection can also maintain diversity across gradients of parasite pressure (7).

In contrast to wild plant communities where fluctuating Red Queen dynamics have frequently been observed, low host diversity in agricultural settings is often assumed to permit runaway 'arms races' in fast-evolving parasites (4, 8). Relative to smallholder farms, however, industrial scale farming accounts for a fraction of global production for many food crops (9). The dynamics of host adaptation to parasites across diverse smallholder agricultural systems remains poorly known, despite relevance for identifying novel resistance alleles and managing crop genetic resources (e.g. preserving germplasm both *ex situ* and *in situ*; (10)). Are co-evolutionary dynamics in smallholder farming systems more similar to natural plant pathosystems, where high

connectivity among genetically diverse patches can help promote evolution of host
resistance (11)?

Current approaches for identifying and studying the evolution of resistance
alleles often involve scoring large panels of diverse individuals (in genome-wide
association studies, GWAS) or many recombinant individuals deriving from controlled
crosses (in linkage mapping) and using DNA sequence information to identify genomic
regions associated with parasite susceptibility. These mapping studies have revealed
numerous insights to mechanisms of plant-pathogen dynamics (12), but require
extensive phenotyping and genotyping effort for adequate statistical power. By
contrast, if traditional local crop or livestock varieties (known as landraces) are locally
adapted to regions of high parasite prevalence (13–16), then a different 'bottom-up'
approach may be used. Compared to modern improved varieties, which may have lost
resistance alleles due to bottlenecks and selection in optimal environments (17),
landraces and wild relatives may be a rich source of resistance alleles to sympatric
parasites. Specifically, to map loci underlying local adaptation, one can identify loci
where allele frequency is associated with environmental conditions, known as genotype-
environment associations (GEA). GEA of georeferenced landraces have been a
powerful strategy for understanding the genetic basis of local adaptation to gradients of
abiotic stressors (14, 15). Furthermore, landraces can be studied to test the hypothesis
that a putatively environmentally-adapted allele, identified from a limited set of
experimental environments and genetic backgrounds, is indeed adaptive across a wide
range of similar environments and across diverse genetic backgrounds (14).

In this study, we extend GEA to biotic stress gradients to evaluate the frequency
and distribution of alleles in genomes of sorghum that confer resistance to the African
witchweed *Striga hermonthica* (Delile) Benth., a root hemiparasite of the broomrape
family (Orobanchaceae)*. Sorghum bicolor* (L.) Moench is the world's fifth most
important crop and was domesticated from the wild progenitor *Sorghum arundinaceum*
(Desv.) Stapf in Africa more than 5000 years ago (18). Sorghum is particularly
important due to its tolerance of marginal environments compared to maize and rice.
While plant responses to environment are influenced by many processes, in recent
years the role of strigolactones, hormones that regulate shoot branching (19), root

architecture (20) and response to abiotic stress (21), have received increasing attention.

Strigolactones exuded from roots, particularly under nutrient (22) and water (23)

limitation, promote interactions with beneficial arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (24) and

also function as germination stimulants for many root-parasitic plants. *S. hermonthica*

attacks cereal crops and is one of the greatest biotic threats to food security in Africa,

causing $US billions in crop losses annually (25). Several resistance mechanisms have

been reported among cultivated and wild sorghums (26).

Here, we evaluate the hypothesis that a geographical selection mosaic across

gradients of biotic interactions maintains genetic diversity in sorghum landrace

resistance to *S. hermonthica* (27, 28). To identify genomic signatures of host

adaptation to parasites, we first develop species distribution models for *S. hermonthica*

and search for statistical associations between sorghum genotype and modeled

parasite prevalence at the location of origin for each sorghum landrace. We validate

our approach by characterizing diversity and geographic distribution of loss-of-function

alleles at the putative sorghum resistance gene *LOW GERMINATION STIMULANT 1*

(*LGS1*) (29). Loss-of-function mutations at *LGS1,* a gene of unknown function with a

sulfotransferase domain, is thought to underlie a quantitative trait locus (QTL) that alters

stereochemistry of the dominant strigolactone in sorghum root exudates, from 5-

deoxystrigol to orobanchol (29). Orobanchol is considered a weaker stimulant of *S.*

hermonthica germination, conferring resistance (29, 30). Our ecological genetic

analyses of diverse sorghum landraces suggest that *LGS1* loss-of-function mutations

are adaptive across a large region of high *S. hermonthica* prevalence in Africa.

However, using comparisons of CRISPR-Cas9 edited sorghum, we also present

evidence supporting potential trade-offs for *LGS1* loss-of-function due to high sensitivity

of some *S. hermonthica* genotypes to orobanchol and subtle impacts on host fitness. In

addition to focused analyses on *LGS1,* we perform genome-wide tests of association

with parasite distribution. We investigate patterns of polymorphism surrounding

candidate resistance genes with evidence of locally-adaptive natural variation to

determine whether balancing selection has maintained diversity in *S. hermonthica*

resistance over evolutionary time.

RESULTS:

S. hermonthica *distribution model*

We predicted that host alleles conferring resistance or tolerance would be

strongly associated with the geographic distribution of *Striga* parasites. To identify

regions of likely *S. hermonthica* occurrence in the absence of continent-wide surveys,

we built MaxEnt species distribution models (SDMs) (31). This approach uses locations

of known species occurrences and multivariate environmental data to generate

predictions of suitable habitat across a landscape. The optimal model showed good

ability to predict occurrence with an AUC value of 0.86 (Fig. 1). A high degree of overlap

was observed between models generated using all *S. hermonthica* records (*n*=1,050)

and a subset of 262 occurrences that were observed specifically in fields of sorghum

(Schoener's $D = 0.82$; $I = 0.97$). Annual rainfall and total soil N were the most

informative variables for predicting *S. hermonthica* occurrence (Table S1). Compared to

all grid cells in the study background, distributions of environmental values for locations

with high habitat suitability (HS) were generally restricted to a narrower range of

intermediate values of precipitation and soil quality (Fig. S1-2). Locations with the

highest HS scores exhibited mean annual rainfall ranging from ~500-1300 mm/year and

soil nitrogen ranging from ~400 – 1000 g/kg (10th-90th percentiles for all cells with HS

>0.5, Table S1). Soil clay content also contributed substantially to the sorghum-only

model, and clay content in locations with the highest HS scores ranged from 12-29%

(10th-90th percentile, HS > 0.5, all-occurrence model) or up to 36% (sorghum-only

model, Table S1).

LGS1 *associations with* S. hermonthica *occurrence*

We predicted that sorghum resistance alleles would be more common in

parasite-prone regions. Evaluating this prediction also allowed us to validate our

species distribution model-based genotype-environment association approach by

characterizing associations between *S. hermonthica* distribution and genetic variation at

LGS1 (*Sobic.005G213600*). *LGS1* is thought to cause a known QTL for resistance to

Striga spp. (29).

Using whole genome sequencing data (~25x coverage) from 143 sorghum

landraces, we found evidence for three naturally occurring mutations resulting in *LGS1*

loss-of-function (Fig. 2). Two ~30 kb deletions were identified between positions

69,958,377-69,986,892 (*n* = 5 accessions) and 69,981,502-70,011,149 (*n* = 4

accessions, Table S2; Fig. 2A). These deletions appear to be identical to two previously

described as resistance alleles, *lgs1-2* and *lgs1-3* (29), although breakpoint positions

reported by our structural variant caller differed slightly. No SNPs in a separate

genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) dataset of >2000 sorghum landraces tagged *lgs1-2* or

lgs1-3 (Fig. S3), and so we imputed large deletions identified from the WGS dataset to

the GBS dataset based on patterns of missing data (see Methods). Deletion

imputations were validated by testing root exudate from a subset of sorghum

accessions for their ability to induce *S. hermonthica* germination (Fig. S4). We tested

four genotypes with likely deletion alleles, and these genotypes stimulated significantly

fewer *Striga* seeds to germinate compared to eight other genotypes that did not show

strong evidence for *lgs1-2* or *lgs1-3* deletions (linear mixed-effects model with genotype

random effect, deletion genotypes stimulated germination of 8.43 fewer seeds out of 75

per replicate, Wald 95% CI=1.49,15.36).

In addition to *lgs1-2* and *lgs1-3*, we identified a previously unknown two bp

insertion predicted to cause a frameshift variant in the beginning of the *LGS1* coding

region (position 69986146, allele frequency in WGS dataset = 8%). The frameshift was

linked to a SNP genotyped in the GBS dataset (Fig. 2B, T/A at position 69,985,710; D' =

0.93, r^2 = 0.84). All nine accessions with the frameshift in the WGS dataset also shared

a 315 bp deletion (positions 69,984,268-69,984,583) overlapping 143 bp of the 3'-

untranslated region in the 1580 bp second exon of *LGS1*.

Three of the six total independent *LGS1* putative loss-of-function alleles

characterized here and elsewhere (29) were present at low frequency in the GBS panel.

Among accessions with SNP calls in *LGS1*, 7.0% of accessions exhibited SNP calls

consistent with homozygous *lgs1-2* and *lgs1-3* in the GBS dataset and the SNP tagging

the frameshift was present at an allele frequency of 15%. (Supplemental Data File S1).

LGS1 loss-of-function alleles were found in diverse genetic backgrounds and

geographic regions (Fig. S5, Table S2, Supplemental Data File S1), suggesting that

these mutations have had time to spread, their benefit is not strongly masked by

epistasis, and costs of resistance are not strong enough to prevent their spread. Most

landraces with *LGS1* loss-of-function alleles and known botanical race (which largely

correspond to genetic clusters (3)) from the GBS dataset were guinea (211 accessions)

or caudatum (165 accessions, Supplemental Data File S1; 298 lacked assignments).

LGS1 loss-of-function alleles were more common among landraces with high

parasite HS scores (Fig. 2C-D). However, correlations with population structure reduced

power to detect associations with these resistance alleles after accounting for kinship

(Fig. S5). The median *S. hermonthica* HS score was 0.20 for accessions homozygous

for *lgs1-2,* 0.54 for accessions homozygous for *lgs1-3,* 0.25 for accession with the

frameshift, and 0.09 for accessions without evidence for *LGS1* loss-of-function*.* The

difference in *S. hermonthica* HS score between *lgs1-3* and *LGS1* intact accessions was

statistically significant before ($p < 0.001$, Wilcoxon rank sum test) but not after

accounting for relatedness ($p = 0.10$, MLM). Frameshift associations with HS were also

statistically significant prior to correction for relatedness ($p < 0.001$, Wilcoxon rank sum;

$p = 0.69$, MLM). We observed modest support for associations between *lgs1-2* and *S.*

hermonthica HS before correcting for relatedness ($p = 0.06$, Wilcoxon rank sum test; $p =$

0.53, MLM). Results were similar considering a subset of just African accessions (p_{lgs1-}

$_3 < 0.001$, $p_{frameshift} < 0.001,$ and $p_{lgs1-2} = 0.07$; Wilcoxon rank sum test). For sorghum

landraces within parasite-prone regions (200 km from an occurrence record), naturally

occurring *LGS1* loss-of-function alleles were more common among landraces from low

nutrient (particularly low nitrogen) environments ($p_N < 0.001$, $p_P = 0.004$; Kolmogorov-

Smirnov test comparing distribution of soil N or P for *LGS1* intact vs. *LGS1* loss-of-

function landraces) but evenly distributed across precipitation gradients ($p = 0.4$;

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test).

Parasite-associated SNPs across the sorghum genome

We performed genome-wide tests of association with predicted parasite HS

score. A scan of 317,294 SNPs across 2070 sorghum landraces revealed 97 genomic

regions exhibiting significant associations with *S. hermonthica* distribution at a false

discovery rate of 5% (Fig. 3A, Table S4). Of SNPs exceeding the threshold for

significance, 45 were present within 1 kb of a predicted gene model (Table S4). Three

SNPs exceeding this threshold were in QTL previously associated with *Striga* resistance

(32) including one intron variant in the uncharacterized gene model *Sobic.001G227800*

(Table S4). Another SNP was present in an intron of *Sobic.007G090900*, a gene model

with high homology to *SMAX1/D53*, which is degraded in a strigolactone-dependent

manner to control downstream SL signaling and is associated with tillering and height in

rice (33). SNPs among those with the strongest associations to parasite occurrence

were also found in genes related to suberin and wax ester biosynthesis

(*Sobic.007G091200,* synonymous variant) including phenylalanine ammonia-lyase

(*Sobic.006G148800,* intron variant). Phenylalanine ammonia-lyase is highly upregulated

in the resistant rice line Nipponbare compared to a susceptible line during infection with

S. hermonthica (34) and is associated with increased lignin deposition and post-

attachment resistance (35).

Across all gene models tagged by SNPs in the genome-wide analysis (i.e. within

1 kb), no GO term met the threshold for significance after correction for multiple

comparisons. The strongest enrichment scores were in genes with GO terms related to

cell wall organization (GO:0071555; corrected $p = 0.13$, mean p score for 48 genes =

0.27), cell wall (GO:0005618, corrected $p = 0.17$, mean p score for 70 genes = 0.29),

and pectinesterase activity (GO:0030599, corrected $p = 0.22$, mean p score for 39

genes = 0.26). The strongest SNP association to parasite occurrence in a

pectinesterase gene model was in *Sobic.002G138400* (SNP S2_21521798, $p = 0.01$;

Table S4). Although the allele associated with parasite occurrence at S2_21521798 is

not predicted to cause an amino acid change, it tagged a haplotype block

encompassing complex structural variation 204.4 kb upstream of the gene model,

suggesting a potential regulatory variant or nearby presence/absence variation.

Overall, SNPs in genes related to strigolactone biosynthesis and signaling (Table S3)

did not show a significant enrichment for associations with *S. hermonthica* distribution

(uncorrected $p = 0.09$).

Signatures of balancing selection in candidate regions

We further investigated three candidate genes with polymorphism that exhibited
distinct geographic patterns and had known or potential roles in *S. hermonthica*
resistance. Elevated Tajima's D values can indicate an excess of shared polymorphism
at a locus, expected for regions of the genome under balancing selection, whereas
strongly negative values can indicate an excess of low frequency polymorphism,
expected under either purifying or positive selection. Two 5 kb genomic regions,
spanning SNPs in *LGS1* (SNP S5_69986146 in gene model *Sobic.G005G213600*) and
a pectinesterase gene (SNP S2_21521798 in gene model *Sobic.002G138400*,
MAF=0.275) exhibited elevated values of Tajima's D compared to 1000 randomly
sampled 5 kb windows containing or overlapping gene models (Fig. S6; p = 0.02,
Sobic.G005G213600; p = 0.05, *Sobic.002G138400*). Regions of elevated Tajima's D
were localized to relatively small windows centered on SNPs associated with *S.*
hermonthica habitat suitability, and larger window sizes produced weaker signals. We
looked for these alleles in several genomes of wild relatives of sorghum but found no
reads mapping to the pectinesterase gene and no evidence for the *LGS1* loss-of-
function alleles characterized using data from previously sequenced accessions of *S.*
propinquum (Kunth) Hitchc., n=2, and *S. arundinaceum* (as synonym *S. bicolor* subsp.
Verticilliflorum (Steud.) de Wet ex Wiersema & J.Dahlb., n=2)(36).
We did not observe strong departures from the neutral expectation of *D* for the
region surrounding a gene with homology to *SMAX1* (gene model *Sobic.007G090900*
tagged by SNP S7_14459084, p=0.6). The minor allele at S7_14459084 was at low
frequency in the GBS dataset (MAF = 0.014) and most common in West Africa (Fig.
3C), which is not well sampled in the WGS dataset. The signal of association with *S.*
hermonthica occurrence extended more than 7.5 Mb on Chromosome 7 (Fig. 3A), but
we did not have sufficient sampling to suggest that S7_14459084 tags an incomplete or
soft sweep in either the GBS or WGS datasets according to the haplotype-based
statistic nS_L (37).
304
LGS1-*mediated resistance depends on parasite population and environment*
We further characterized the effects of loss-of-function variation at *LGS1* by
comparing multiple aspects of performance of newly generated lines of sorghum with

CRISPR-Cas9 deletions of *LGS1*. Root exudate from these *LGS1* deletion lines

induced substantially lower *S. hermonthica* germination compared to control lines ($p <$

0.001, likelihood ratio test for fixed effect of deletion; Fig. 4A). However, the benefit of

LGS1 deletion was conditional on the specific parasite population (p=0.005; likelihood

ratio test). We observed <1% germination in response to exudate from *LGS1* deletion

lines in an *S. hermonthica* population from Siby, Mali (95% Wald CI: 0.0, 4.0%

germination) under the most stressful treatment (drought and low nutrient) but 6.1%

germination in an *S. hermonthica* population from Kibos, Kenya (95% Wald CI: 0.2,

12.4% germination). In contrast, exudate from wild-type Macia grown under the same

conditions induced mean germination of 40% (Siby; 78% germination in response to 0.1

ppm GR24) or 29% (Kibos; 66% germination in response to 0.1 ppm GR24). The

Kenyan *S. hermonthica* similarly showed higher germination sensitivity to an orobanchol

standard compared to the Malian *S. hermonthica* (Fig. 4C). The fact that Kenyan *S.*

hermonthica showed similar germination response to 5-deoxystrigol and orobanchol

standards, while germinating at a higher rate on intact *LGS1* alleles vs. deletions,

suggests that *LGS1* deletion has effects on SLs in exudate beyond changing the ratio of

5-deoxystrigol to orobanchol in exudate.

LGS1 *loss-of-function reduces expression of photosystem genes*

Changes in strigolactones (and indeed any hormone) are potentially pleiotropic

given their many functions, suggesting trade-offs may be associated with *LGS1*

variation. In CRISPR-Cas9 edited sorghum, we found 505 differentially expressed

genes in roots (244 downregulated in *LGS1* knockout lines and 261 upregulated) or

2167 differentially expressed in shoot (917 downregulated in *LGS1* knockout lines and

1250 upregulated) at 6 weeks after planting compared to wild-type Macia. Of all

differentially expressed genes, 185 were differentially regulated in both root and shoot,

including a transcription factor most highly expressed in sorghum panicles during floral

initiation (*Sobic.010G180200,* downregulated in knockout) and a GRAS family

transcription factor homologous to *RGA*, which in *A. thaliana* represses giberellic acid-

induced vegetative growth and floral initiation (*Sobic.008G168400,* upregulated in

knockout) (38). In shoots, photosystem II genes were most enriched among

differentially expressed genes (GO:0009523, $p<0.001$; 11/36 genes with corrected $p <$

0.05; Supplemental Data File S2). Only GO-terms related to photosystem I

(GO:0009522, $p < 0.001$; 8/10 genes with corrected $p <0.1$) and photosynthetic light

harvesting (GO:0009765, $p < 0.001$; 12/18 genes with corrected $p <0.05$) were enriched

among differentially expressed genes in roots. All differentially expressed photosystem

I, photosystem II, and light-harvesting genes were downregulated in *LGS1* knockout

lines, with lower expression in roots than shoots, and 1.7 to 7.2x higher expression in

Macia wild-type (log_2 fold-change ratios ranging from 0.77 to 2.84; Supplemental Data

File S2).

Six of the light-harvesting or photosystem I genes downregulated in roots of

LGS1 knockout lines were also differentially expressed in nutrient-stressed roots of a

resistant sorghum line (SRN39), which produces high levels of orobanchol, compared to

a susceptible sorghum line (Shanqui Red) that produces mainly 5-deoxystrigol (29)

(Supplemental Data File S2). Strigolactone biosynthesis genes were also upregulated in

the *LGS1*-deficient sorghum line SRN39 compared to the susceptible line, including two

genes with homology to *NSP1* (*Sobic.001G341400*, $p < 0.001$ and *Sobic.002G372100*,

$p = 0.03$), *CCD7* (*Sobic.006G170300*, $p <0.001$), and *LBO* (*Sobic.003G418000*, $p =$

0.01; Fig. S7, Table S3). Of these four genes, only *LBO* was also significantly

upregulated in the CRISPR *LGS1* knockout line (in shoots), suggesting the natural low

germination stimulating line carries additional alleles altering SL profiles.

In addition to reduced expression of photosynthesis genes, we found evidence

for subtle effects of *LGS1* loss-of-function on sorghum growth. Total leaf area of 65-

day-old plants was not significantly different among three independent CRISPR

knockout lines grown in nutrient rich soil (Fig. S8). In contrast, deletion lines had smaller

leaf area relative to wild-type control and two event-null lines ($p < 0.05$, Scheffé's

method, Fig. S8). However, no significant differences were seen in a separate

experiment on younger plants grown under nutrient limitation, in which we did not detect

a significant effect of *LGS1* deletion on dry biomass, specific leaf area, SPAD-based

measurement of leaf chlorophyll, or root number. Consistent with differential expression

of transcription factors involved in growth and floral initiation (e.g. *Sobic.008G168400*), it

may be that phenotypic differences are only detectable later in development or in some
environments.

DISCUSSION:

Pests, pathogens, and parasites threaten human health and food security in a
changing world but understanding mechanisms of resistance across diverse taxa
remains challenging. Here, we evaluate the hypothesis that geographic selection
mosaics maintain genetic diversity in host resistance alleles across gradients of parasite
occurrence in smallholder farming systems. We extended genotype-environment
association analyses to biotic environmental gradients using species distribution models
to model high resolution variation in parasite occurrence at continent scales. We report
strong associations with parasite occurrence for novel candidate resistance loci in the
sorghum-*Striga hermonthica* pathosystem and characterize diverse loss-of-function
mutations in the sorghum resistance gene *LGS1*. Geographic distribution of loss-of-
function alleles suggests that *LGS1*-conferred resistance is stable across some range of
environments and genetic backgrounds. However, the low frequency and paucity of
LGS1 loss-of-function alleles outside of parasite-prone areas, combined with the
germination sensitivity of some parasite populations to orobanchol and impacts on host
photosynthesis regulation, suggest there may be trade-offs associated with *LGS1* loss-
of-function.

Our results support the hypothesis that spatial variation in selective pressures
controls geographic clines in the frequency of host resistance alleles. The patterns we
characterized are likely representative of long-term averaged conditions as opposed to
a snapshot of coevolution because our parasite distribution model used occurrence
records spanning more than 150 years, and the landraces we studied were collected
across the last several decades. In addition to temporal genetic variation (for example,
due to negative frequency-dependent selection), many parasites like *S. hermonthica* are
highly genetically diverse across space (26), so that host resistance phenotype depends
on local parasite genotypes (39). Depending on the parasite genotype used in
experiments, this host by parasite genotype interaction might obscure GWAS for host
resistance (40). By capturing variation at coarse scales, the spatial perspective of

parasite-associated host genomic variation presented here could facilitate

complementary, inexpensive detection of genomic regions contributing to resistance

across diverse parasites.

Our study revealed evidence for locally-adaptive natural variation in genes

related to cell wall modification. Cell wall modifying enzymes including pectinesterases

are highly expressed in the developing haustorium of parasitic plants and in the host-

parasite interface (41–44). Pectinesterases de-esterify pectin in plant cell walls, making

it accessible to other cell wall degrading enzymes and loosening cell walls. However,

some studies have suggested that in the presence of Ca^{2+}, de-esterified pectin forms

egg-box structures and instead stiffens cell walls (45). Rigidification of sorghum cell

walls by their own pectinesterases (such as *Sobic.002G138400*, Table S4) or reduced

activity could help defend against parasitic invaders. Notably, Yang *et al.* (2015)

reported haustorium specific expression and positive selection on pectinesterase

inhibitors in parasitic plant lineages and a pectinesterase inhibitor showed exceptionally

high host species-associated expression in field populations of *S. hermonthica* (46).

Parasite inhibitors could interact with host pectinesterases or help maintain integrity of

parasite cell walls in the face of high pectinesterase expression during haustorial

invasion.

Our results also suggest that *LGS1* loss-of-function alleles may be adaptive in *S.*

hermonthica-prone regions, but that costs of resistance may limit their distribution.

Loss-of-function alleles are relatively uncommon but higher in frequency and broadly

distributed where parasites occur (Fig. 2C). Associations for the putative resistance

locus *LGS1* were not statistically significant after correcting for kinship, likely due to

covariation with genomic background (Fig. S5), which has been shown to substantially

reduce power to detect causal loci in locally-adapted sorghum landraces (14) and in

simulations (47). Experiments with genome-edited sorghum, however, supported an

adaptive role of *LGS1* loss-of-function, particularly in marginal environments (Fig. 4A).

The diversity of loss-of-function variants reported here (Fig. 2A-B) and elsewhere (29),

their wide geographic distribution (Fig. 2C), and an excess of high frequency

polymorphism localized to *LGS1* (Fig. 4) are further consistent with long-term

maintenance of *LGS1* diversity under balancing selection. The underlying mechanisms

could include negative frequency dependent selection or spatiotemporally variable
selection favoring different alleles in different environments, depending on the relative
costs of resistance.

Costs of resistance linked to impacts of SL structural changes on host fitness
could include impaired signaling to AM fungi, susceptibility to *S. hermonthica* genotypes
sensitive to orobanchol, or impacts on endogenous strigolactone signaling. Consistent
with the second hypothesis, we found higher sensitivity to root exudates from CRISPR-
edited *LGS1* deletion lines for *S. hermonthica* from Kenya compared to *S. hermonthica*
from Mali (Fig. 4). Our findings indicate the existence of *S. hermonthica* alleles that
promote germination on orobanchol, alleles that could increase in frequency following
an increase in cultivation of *LGS1* deletion sorghum. Consistent with the third
hypothesis, we found evidence of systemic downregulation of photosystem-related
genes in *LGS1* knockout lines, corresponding to a previously identified role of SLs as
positive regulators of light harvesting (48). Perturbations of photosynthesis regulatory
networks due to changes in strigolactone profiles could be buffered by other
components of the system, ultimately resulting in subtle but detectable impacts on host
fitness (Fig. S8).

Taken together, this study provides evidence of locally-adaptive natural variation
in sorghum parasite resistance genes across African smallholder farming systems. We
describe long-term maintenance of diversity in known and novel candidates implicated
in pre- and post-attachment resistance to the parasitic plant *Striga hermonthica.*
However, the possibility of trade-offs and the existence of orobanchol-sensitive *S.*
hermonthica populations suggest potential pitfalls with widespread deployment of the
LGS1 loss-of function allele in sorghum cultivation, particularly under low nutrient
conditions and in fields with high parasite density. Our findings highlight the complexity
of interacting abiotic, biotic, and human pressures shaping genome polymorphism
across environments in cultivated species.

METHODS:

Species distribution models

Genome-environment association analyses are designed to identify putatively

locally adaptive genetic loci where allelic variation is strongly associated with home

environments (49). To employ this approach with biotic gradients, we required

information on local parasite pressure for each sorghum landrace. We used species

distribution models (SDMs) to estimate habitat suitability of *Striga hermonthica* at the

location of each georeferenced sorghum landrace, under the assumption that modeled

habitat suitability scores are a reasonable proxy of parasite success averaged over the

long term and in comparison with sites where the parasite never occurs.

Striga hermonthica SDMs were constructed with Maxent, a machine learning tool

for predicting habitat suitability for a species of interest given a set of environmental

variables and presence-only data (31). We compiled 1369 occurrence records for *S.*

hermonthica (Supplemental Data File S3; additional details in Supplemental Materials &

Methods). We also created 'sorghum-only' models based on a subset of *S. hermonthica*

records (n = 262) that were annotated as occurring specifically on sorghum.

Environmental variables were chosen based on prior knowledge of the ecology of *S.*

hermonthica (50). We included bioclimatic and topographic variables (annual rainfall,

mean temperature of the wettest quarter, isothermality, potential evapotranspiration

[PET], and topographic wetness index) from CHELSA (51) and ENVIREM datasets (52).

Soil variables (clay content, nitrogen, and phosphorus) were based on continental and

global-scale soil property maps (53, 54). SDMs were implemented and evaluated with

ENMeval, using the 'checkerboard2' method for data partitioning, which is designed to

reduce spatial autocorrelation between testing and training records (55).

Sorghum LGS1 *loss-of-function alleles*

Fine-scale natural variation in sorghum *LGS1* was characterized using whole

genome sequencing (WGS) data from a set of 143 georeferenced landraces from the

sorghum bioenergy association panel (BAP) (56). The BAP includes both sweet and

biomass sorghum types, accessions from the five major sorghum botanical races

(durra, caudatum, bicolor, guinea, and kafir), and accessions from Africa, Asia, and the

Americas. The BAP accessions were sequenced to approximately 25x coverage and

genotyped as part of the TERRA-REF project (www.terraref.org). This whole genome

sequencing derived dataset is referred to throughout the manuscript as the 'WGS

dataset' to distinguish it from the genotyping-by-sequencing dataset used for GEA.

We characterized three loss-of-function alleles in *LGS1* using data from the WGS

dataset. Frameshift and nonsense mutations were identified using *SnpEff* v4.3t for SNP

calls and small indels in *Sobic.005G213600* (57). To characterize large deletion

variants, we quality trimmed reads with BBDuk (sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/;

qtrim=rl, trimq=20) and aligned to the *Sorghum bicolor* v3.1 reference genome (DOE-

JGI, http://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov/) with BWA MEM v0.7.17 (58). Duplicates were

removed with SAMBLASTER v0.1.24 (59) and structural variants were called for each

landrace with LUMPY v0.2.13 (60). SVTYPER v0.6.0 was used to call genotypes for

structural variants ≤ 1 Mb spanning *Sobic.005G213600* (61).

After characterizing the *LGS1* deletion breakpoints using the WGS dataset, we

imputed deletion calls to the GBS dataset. We considered the *LGS1* region to be

deleted if at least one SNP was called in the 5 kb region flanking positions of deletion

breakpoints, but all data were missing between breakpoints. We considered the *LGS1*

region to be present if at least one SNP was called within the *Sobic.005G213600* gene

model. Fifteen low-coverage samples, with missing data extending 5 kb into flanking

regions, were excluded.

Experimental validation of LGS1 *deletion and frameshift alleles*

LGS1 loss-of-function alleles were validated by testing 12 accessions from the

Sorghum Association Panel (SAP) (62) for their ability to stimulate *S. hermonthica*

germination (Table S5). Seed was obtained from the U.S. National Plant Germplasm

System (NGPS) through GRIN (USDA, ARS, PGRCU). Two accessions were previously

reported to be resistant to *S. hermonthica* due to low germination stimulation, two

accessions were susceptible, and eight accessions had unknown resistance (29, 63).

Root exudates were harvested 43 days after planting and used for *S. hermonthica*

germination assays (see Supplemental Materials & Methods for a detailed description of

plant growth conditions and germination assays).

Genome-environment associations

We performed a genome-wide scan for SNPs in the sorghum genome strongly
associated with values of habitat suitability estimated by our *S. hermonthica* distribution
model. Sorghum genotypic information was extracted from a public dataset of
accessions genotyped using genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) (14, 64–66). This
dataset comprises a diverse set of worldwide accessions including germplasm from the
SAP (62), the Mini-Core Collection (67), and the Bioenergy Association Panel (BAP)
(56). Beagle 4.1 was used to impute missing data based on the Li and Stephens (2003)
haplotype frequency model (68). The average missing rate in the non-imputed dataset
is 0.39 (66). After excluding sorghum accessions with missing coordinates and SNPs
with minor allele frequency less than 0.01, the dataset, referred to throughout the
manuscript as the 'GBS dataset', included 1547 African landraces among 2070
georeferenced accessions total genotyped at 317,294 SNPs.

At each location of a georeferenced accession in the GBS dataset, we extracted
logistic output from the *S. hermonthica* distribution model (Supplemental Data File S4-5)
as the environment. To account for regions where predicted habitat suitability is high
but *S. hermonthica* has not been recorded, we cropped model predictions to within 200
km from any occurrence record and set values outside of this range to zero to derive for
each grid cell an *S. hermonthica* occurrence score ranging from zero to one; more than
half of sorghum accessions are from locations with parasite HS scores greater than
zero (Fig. 1B). Genome-wide associations for each SNP with *S. hermonthica*
occurrence were computed for the GBS dataset using a mixed linear model (MLM) fit
with GEMMA v0.94 (69). To take into account relatedness among individuals, we used
a centered kinship matrix (-gk 1) generated from all 317,294 SNPs before calculation of
p score statistics (-lmm 3). P scores were adjusted for multiple comparisons using the
Benjamini and Hochberg (1995) procedure (FDR = 0.05). To visualize genomic regions
previously implicated in resistance to *S. hermonthica,* locations of QTL from the linkage
mapping study of Haussman et al. (2004) in the *S. bicolor* v3.0 genome were
downloaded from the Sorghum QTL Atlas (http://aussorgm.org.au) (70). We tested for
associations with *LGS1* loss-of-function mutations using the same procedure and
kinship matrix as for the genome-wide association analysis.

We identified gene functions enriched for associations with parasite distribution

using the gene score resampling method in ErmineJ (71). This method places higher

value on gene scores than their relative ranking and does not require choice of a

threshold for significance. For each gene model, we used the lowest p score from

GEMMA of any SNP within 1 kb of gene model boundaries, and enrichment analyses

were performed using the mean of all gene scores in the gene set. Gene sets were

created using GO terms for all gene models in the *Sorghum bicolor* v3.0 genome

(annotation version 3.1). We also created a custom gene set comprising 30 gene

models implicated in strigolactone biosynthesis and signaling (Table S3). Enrichment

analysis was performed with 200,000 iterations, excluding gene sets with less than 5 or

more than 200 genes.

Signatures of selection in candidate genomic regions

We performed scans for selection in 1 Mb regions surrounding focal SNPs.

Linkage disequilibrium between sites was determined with vcftools v0.1.15 (--geno-r2

parameter). To identify regions under balancing selection among a subset of African

landraces, we used Tajima's D calculated with vcftools in non-overlapping 5 kb

windows, excluding SNPs with more than 70% missing data. *P*-values for candidate

regions under selection were calculated based on the empirical distribution of Tajima's

D for 1000 randomly sampled 5 kb windows that overlapped or fully encompassed gene

models. We searched for sweeps using the $n\text{S}_\text{L}$ statistic with selscan v1.2.0a (72).

Performance of CRISPR-Cas9 edited sorghum

We evaluated potential trade-offs to *LGS1* loss-of-function by testing *S.*

hermonthica germination response and growth of genome edited sorghum. *LGS1* was

deleted in the sorghum line Macia using the CRISPR-Cas9 system to produce three

independent genome-edited lines, with sequence confirmation using Southern-by-

Sequencing (see Supplemental Materials & Methods).

We measured plant growth rate in a greenhouse at Corteva Agriscience using a

hyperspectal imaging system to determine total leaf area of each plant (day

temperature: 26°C; night temperature: 20°C; 16 hr photoperiod). We compared three

independent CRISPR-edited lines (*lgs1-d* lines 1-3), the wild-type Macia line, and two

event-null transformation lines that had intact *LGS1* but SNPs at the two cutting sites

flanking *LGS1*. Experimental design was unbalanced incomplete block with replications

of 10 to 33 plants. Images were collected weekly on days 23-65 after planting. Total leaf

area per plant was analyzed using one-way ANOVA followed by Scheffé's method.

In a separate experiment at Penn State, we compared the same three CRISPR-

edited lines and two independently bulked seed batches of wild-type Macia under three

conditions: well-watered with high nutrition (WWHN), well-watered with low nutrition

(WWLN), and drought with low nutrition (DLN). Plants ($n = 19$ per line and treatment)

were grown in autoclaved sand in cone-tainers under natural light conditions in a

greenhouse (day temperature: 27°C; night temperature: 24°C). For the WWHN

treatment, plants were fertilized every other day with 15 mL of 1/10th strength Miracle-

Gro Plant Food (24% nitrogen, 8% phosphorus, 16% potassium) and watered with 15

ml of tap water on days without fertilization. Plants were watered every day with 15 mL

tap water (WWLN treatment) or every four days with 15 mL water (DLN treatment).

Three plants per line and treatment were harvested at 21 DAP for collection of root

exudates as described for validation of natural deletion alleles (see Supplemental

Materials & Methods). Germination assays testing root exudate in 12-well plates (three

technical replicates per biological replicate, ~60 seeds per well) were performed in the

USDA quarantine facility at Penn State, using *S. hermonthica* seeds collected in 2016

from a sorghum field in Kibos, Kenya (0°40'S; 34°49'E) and in 2018 from a sorghum

field in Siby, Mali (12°23' N; 8°20' W). Germination assays used a preconditioning

temperature of 29°C for 11 days in 1 mL of diH$_2$O prior to addition of 1.5 mL root

exudate. A complementary assay tested the response of the same *S. hermonthica*

populations to five concentrations (0, $1x10^{-10}$, $1x10^{-8}$, $1x10^{-7}$, and $2x10^{-7}$ M) of

(±)orobanchol and (+)5-deoxystrigol (CAS 220493-64-1 and 151716-18-6; Olchemim,

Czech Republic).

To compare performance of wild-type and CRISPR-edited sorghum, we also

measured biomass (shoot and root dried weight), chlorophyll concentration (measured

via SPAD meter), root architecture traits (number of crown, adventitious [shoot-borne],

and seminal roots), shoot architecture traits (plant height, leaf number, total shoot

length, and leaf internode lengths), and specific leaf area (SLA) at 41 DAP. We tested

significance of deletion alleles using generalized linear mixed models for count data

(root number) or linear mixed effects models (all other traits) in the R package lme4

(73), where deletion and treatment were fixed effects and sorghum lines were random

effects. For germination rate data, fixed effects of *S. hermonthica* population (Kibos or

Siby) and root weight were also included.

LGS1 and expression of genes in strigolactone synthesis and signaling pathways

To assess the impact of putatively locally adaptive variation at *LGS1*, we studied

transcriptomes for roots and shoots (excluding leaf blade) of CRISPR knock-out (*lgs1-d*

line 3) and wild-type Macia lines at 30 days after planting under WWLN, the treatment

under which plants exuded the most SLs (Fig. 4). RNA extractions were performed with

the NucleoSpin RNA Plant kit (Machery-Nagel). We used the 3'-TagSeq approach (74)

which quantifies mRNA based on the 3' end of transcripts. cDNA libraries were

sequenced on a shared lane of an Illumina Nova-Seq at the Genomic Sequencing and

Analysis Facility at the University of Texas at Austin. We recovered between 10 and 15

million raw single-end 100 bp reads per sample and compared expression differences

using the TagSeq v2.0 pipeline (https://github.com/Eli-Meyer/TagSeq_utilities/). We also

generated TagSeq libraries using root tissue from five replicate individuals each of

sorghum lines Shanqui Red (PI 656025) and SRN39 (PI 656027) grown under nutrient

deficient conditions (see Supplemental Materials & Methods). Count data were

analyzed in DESeq2 with FDR correction (α=0.05) (75). Enrichment analysis was

performed as for genome-wide association analysis, except only the set of gene models

with non-zero expression were used as the background.

Data Availability

Raw reads generated for the Tag-Seq study have been deposited in the NCBI SRA

database under BioProject accession PRJNA542394. *S. hermonthica* occurrence

records and species distribution models are available in the supporting information.

Acknowledgments

We thank the many collectors, volunteers, and herbarium curators who made this work

possible and are particularly grateful to Marie-Hélène Weech and the staff of the Royal

Botanic Gardens Kew and the Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle, Paris. Historical

data from French herbaria were obtained thanks to "Les Herbonautes" (MNHN/Tela

Botanica), part of Infrastructure Nationale e-RECOLNAT (ANR-11-INBS-0004). We

thank Alice MacQueen for comments that improved the manuscript, Ping Che for

assistance with tissue culture, Meizhu Yang for molecular analysis of CRISPR mutants,

Eric Schultz for hyperspectral phenotyping, and the Dean of Eberly College and Head of

the Department of Biology for their support in construction of the USDA-APHIS certified

Parasitic Plant Containment Laboratory at Penn State. Whole genome sequence data

used here is from the TERRA-REF project, funded by the Advanced Research Projects

Agency-Energy (ARPA-E), U.S. Department of Energy, under Award Number DE-

AR0000594. This study is based on work supported by a National Science Foundation

Postdoctoral Research Fellowship in Biology to ESB under Grant No. 1711950. The

views and opinions of authors expressed herein do not necessarily state or reflect those

of the United States Government or any agency thereof.

REFERENCES:

1. J. B. S. Haldane, Disease and Evolution. *Ricerca Scientifica* **19**, 68–76 (1949).

2. E. A. Stahl, G. Dwyer, R. Mauricio, M. Kreitman, J. Bergelson, Dynamics of disease resistance polymorphism at the *Rpm1* locus of *Arabidopsis*. *Nature* **400**, 667–671 (1999).

3. A. J. M. Tack, P. H. Thrall, L. G. Barrett, J. J. Burdon, A.-L. Laine, Variation in infectivity and aggressiveness in space and time in wild host-pathogen systems: causes and consequences. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* **25**, 1918–1936 (2012).

4. T. L. Karasov, M. W. Horton, J. Bergelson, Genomic variability as a driver of plant–pathogen coevolution? *Current Opinion in Plant Biology* **18**, 24–30 (2014).

5. M. A. Brockhurst, *et al.*, Running with the Red Queen: the role of biotic conflicts in evolution. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* **281**, 20141382 (2014).

6. J. Bergelson, G. Dwyer, J. J. Emerson, Models and Data on Plant-Enemy Coevolution. *Annual Review of Genetics* **35**, 469–499 (2001).

7. A. Agrawal, C. M. Lively, Infection genetics: gene-for-gene versus matching- alleles models and all points in between. *Evolutionary Ecology Research* **4**, 79–90 (2002).

8. M. Möller, E. H. Stukenbrock, Evolution and genome architecture in fungal plant pathogens. *Nature Reviews Microbiology* **15**, 756–771 (2017).

9. L. H. Samberg, J. S. Gerber, N. Ramankutty, M. Herrero, P. C. West, Subnational distribution of average farm size and smallholder contributions to global food production. *Environ. Res. Lett.* **11**, 124010 (2016).

10. H. R. Jensen, A. Dreiseitl, M. Sadiki, D. J. Schoen, The Red Queen and the seed bank: pathogen resistance of *ex situ* and *in situ* conserved barley. *Evolutionary Applications* **5**, 353–367 (2012).

11. J. Jousimo, *et al.*, Ecological and evolutionary effects of fragmentation on infectious disease dynamics. *Science* **344**, 1289–1293 (2014).

12. C. Bartoli, F. Roux, Genome-Wide Association Studies In Plant Pathosystems: Toward an Ecological Genomics Approach. *Front Plant Sci* **8** (2017).

13. R. S. Meyer, M. D. Purugganan, Evolution of crop species: genetics of domestication and diversification. *Nature Reviews Genetics* **14**, 840–852 (2013).

14. J. R. Lasky, *et al.*, Genome-environment associations in sorghum landraces predict adaptive traits. *Science Advances* **1**, e1400218 (2015).

15. J. A. Romero Navarro, *et al.*, A study of allelic diversity underlying flowering-time adaptation in maize landraces. *Nature Genetics* **49**, 476–480 (2017).

16. E. Vajana, *et al.*, Combining Landscape Genomics and Ecological Modelling to Investigate
Local Adaptation of Indigenous Ugandan Cattle to East Coast Fever. *Front Genet* **9**
(2018).

17. M. D. P. Gaillard, G. Glauser, C. A. M. Robert, T. C. J. Turlings, Fine-tuning the "plant
domestication-reduced defense" hypothesis: specialist vs generalist herbivores. *New*
Phytol. **217**, 355–366 (2018).

18. F. Winchell, C. J. Stevens, C. Murphy, L. Champion, D. Q. Fuller, Evidence for Sorghum
Domestication in Fourth Millennium BC Eastern Sudan: Spikelet Morphology from
Ceramic Impressions of the Butana Group. *Current Anthropology* **58**, 673–683 (2017).

19. V. Gomez-Roldan, *et al.*, Strigolactone inhibition of shoot branching. *Nature* **455**, 189–194
(2008).

20. C. Ruyter-Spira, *et al.*, Physiological Effects of the Synthetic Strigolactone Analog GR24
on Root System Architecture in Arabidopsis: Another Belowground Role for
Strigolactones? *Plant Physiology* **155**, 721–734 (2011).

21. C. V. Ha, *et al.*, Positive regulatory role of strigolactone in plant responses to drought and
salt stress. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **111**, 851–856 (2014).

22. K. Yoneyama, *et al.*, Nitrogen deficiency as well as phosphorus deficiency in sorghum
promotes the production and exudation of 5-deoxystrigol, the host recognition signal for
arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and root parasites. *Planta* **227**, 125–132 (2007).

23. J. M. Ruiz-Lozano, *et al.*, Arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis induces strigolactone
biosynthesis under drought and improves drought tolerance in lettuce and tomato. *Plant,*
Cell & Environment **39**, 441–452 (2016).

24. K. Akiyama, K. Matsuzaki, H. Hayashi, Plant sesquiterpenes induce hyphal branching in
arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. *Nature* **435**, 824–827 (2005).

25. T. Spallek, M. Mutuku, K. Shirasu, The genus *Striga*: a witch profile. *Molecular Plant*
Pathology **14**, 861–869 (2013).

26. M. P. Timko, K. Huang, K. E. Lis, Host Resistance and Parasite Virulence in Striga–Host
Plant Interactions: A Shifting Balance of Power. *Weed Science* **60**, 307–315 (2012).

27. A.-L. Laine, Resistance variation within and among host populations in a plant–pathogen
metapopulation: implications for regional pathogen dynamics. *Journal of Ecology* **92**,
990–1000 (2004).

28. J. N. Thompson, Specific Hypotheses on the Geographic Mosaic of Coevolution. *The*
American Naturalist **153**, S1–S14 (1999).

29. D. Gobena, *et al.*, Mutation in sorghum LOW GERMINATION STIMULANT 1 alters
strigolactones and causes *Striga* resistance. *PNAS* **114**, 4471–4476 (2017).

30. N. Mohemed, *et al.*, Genetic variation in *Sorghum bicolor* strigolactones and their role in
resistance against *Striga hermonthica*. *J Exp Bot* **69**, 2415–2430 (2018).

31. S. J. Phillips, R. P. Anderson, R. E. Schapire, Maximum entropy modeling of species
geographic distributions. *Ecological Modelling* **190**, 231–259 (2006).

32. B. I. G. Haussmann, *et al.*, Genomic regions influencing resistance to the parasitic weed
Striga hermonthica in two recombinant inbred populations of sorghum. *Theor Appl Genet*
109, 1005–1016 (2004).

33. L. Jiang, *et al.*, DWARF 53 acts as a repressor of strigolactone signalling in rice. *Nature*
504, 401–405 (2013).

34. P. J. Swarbrick, *et al.*, Global patterns of gene expression in rice cultivars undergoing a
susceptible or resistant interaction with the parasitic plant *Striga hermonthica. New*
Phytol. **179**, 515–529 (2008).

35. J. M. Mutuku, *et al.*, The structural integrity of lignin is crucial for resistance against *Striga*
hermonthica parasitism in rice. *Plant Physiology*, pp.01133.2018 (2019).

36. E. S. Mace, *et al.*, Whole-genome sequencing reveals untapped genetic potential in
Africa's indigenous cereal crop sorghum. *Nature Communications* **4**, 2320 (2013).

37. A. Ferrer-Admetlla, M. Liang, T. Korneliussen, R. Nielsen, On Detecting Incomplete Soft or
Hard Selective Sweeps Using Haplotype Structure. *Mol Biol Evol* **31**, 1275–1291 (2014).

38. A. L. Silverstone, C. N. Ciampaglio, T. Sun, The Arabidopsis RGA gene encodes a
transcriptional regulator repressing the gibberellin signal transduction pathway. *Plant Cell*
10, 155–169 (1998).

39. N. E. Soltis, *et al.*, Interactions of Tomato and *Botrytis cinerea* Genetic Diversity: Parsing
the Contributions of Host Differentiation, Domestication, and Pathogen Variation. *The*
Plant Cell **31**, 502–519 (2019).

40. A. MacPherson, S. P. Otto, S. L. Nuismer, Keeping Pace with the Red Queen: Identifying
the Genetic Basis of Susceptibility to Infectious Disease. *Genetics* **208**, 779–789 (2018).

41. D. Losner-Goshen, V. H. Portnoy, A. M. Mayer, D. M. Joel, Pectolytic Activity by the
Haustorium of the Parasitic Plant *Orobanche* L. (Orobanchaceae) in Host Roots. *Ann Bot*
81, 319–326 (1998).

42. L. A. Honaas, *et al.*, Functional genomics of a generalist parasitic plant: Laser
microdissection of host-parasite interface reveals host-specific patterns of parasite gene
expression. *BMC Plant Biology* **13**, 9 (2013).

43. Z. Yang, *et al.*, Comparative Transcriptome Analyses Reveal Core Parasitism Genes and
Suggest Gene Duplication and Repurposing as Sources of Structural Novelty. *Mol Biol*
Evol **32**, 767–790 (2015).

44. G. Sun, *et al.*, Large-scale gene losses underlie the genome evolution of parasitic plant
Cuscuta australis. Nature Communications **9**, 2683 (2018).

45. L. Hocq, J. Pelloux, V. Lefebvre, Connecting Homogalacturonan-Type Pectin Remodeling
to Acid Growth. *Trends in Plant Science* **22**, 20–29 (2017).

46. L. Lopez, *et al.*, Transcriptomics of host-specific interactions in natural populations of the
parasitic plant purple witchweed (*Striga hermonthica*). *Weed Science* **67**, 397–411
(2019).

47. B. R. Forester, J. R. Lasky, H. H. Wagner, D. L. Urban, Comparing methods for detecting
multilocus adaptation with multivariate genotype–environment associations. *Molecular*
Ecology **27**, 2215–2233 (2018).

48. E. Mayzlish-Gati, *et al.*, Strigolactones are positive regulators of light-harvesting genes in
tomato. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **61**, 3129–3136 (2010).

49. C. Rellstab, F. Gugerli, A. J. Eckert, A. M. Hancock, R. Holderegger, A practical guide to
environmental association analysis in landscape genomics. *Molecular Ecology* **24**, 4348–
4370 (2015).

50. K. I. Mohamed, L. J. Musselman, C. R. Riches, The Genus *Striga* (Scrophulariaceae) in
Africa. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden* **88**, 60–103 (2001).

51. D. N. Karger, *et al.*, Climatologies at high resolution for the earth's land surface areas.
Scientific Data **4**, 170122 (2017).

52. P. O. Title, J. B. Bemmels, ENVIREM: an expanded set of bioclimatic and topographic
variables increases flexibility and improves performance of ecological niche modeling.
Ecography **41**, 291–307 (2018).

53. T. Hengl, *et al.*, SoilGrids250m: Global gridded soil information based on machine learning.
PLOS ONE **12**, e0169748 (2017).

54. T. Hengl, *et al.*, Soil nutrient maps of Sub-Saharan Africa: assessment of soil nutrient
content at 250 m spatial resolution using machine learning. *Nutr Cycl Agroecosyst* **109**,
77–102 (2017).

55. R. Muscarella, *et al.*, ENMeval: An R package for conducting spatially independent
evaluations and estimating optimal model complexity for Maxent ecological niche models.
Methods in Ecology and Evolution **5**, 1198–1205 (2014).

56. Z. W. Brenton, *et al.*, A Genomic Resource for the Development, Improvement, and
Exploitation of Sorghum for Bioenergy. *Genetics* **204**, 21–33 (2016).

57. P. Cingolani, *et al.*, A program for annotating and predicting the effects of single nucleotide
polymorphisms, SnpEff: SNPs in the genome of *Drosophila melanogaster strain* w[1118];
iso-2; iso-3. *Fly* **6**, 80–92 (2012).

58. H. Li, R. Durbin, Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows–Wheeler transform.
Bioinformatics **25**, 1754–1760 (2009).

59. G. G. Faust, I. M. Hall, SAMBLASTER: fast duplicate marking and structural variant read
extraction. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 2503–2505 (2014).

60. R. M. Layer, C. Chiang, A. R. Quinlan, I. M. Hall, LUMPY: a probabilistic framework for
structural variant discovery. *Genome Biology* **15**, R84 (2014).

61. C. Chiang, *et al.*, SpeedSeq: ultra-fast personal genome analysis and interpretation.
Nature Methods **12**, 966–968 (2015).

62. A. M. Casa, *et al.*, Community Resources and Strategies for Association Mapping in
Sorghum. *Crop Science* **48**, 30–40 (2008).

63. D. E. Hess, G. Ejeta, L. G. Butler, Selecting sorghum genotypes expressing a quantitative
biosynthetic trait that confers resistance to Striga. *Phytochemistry* **31**, 493–497 (1992).

64. R. J. Elshire, *et al.*, A Robust, Simple Genotyping-by-Sequencing (GBS) Approach for High
Diversity Species. *PLOS ONE* **6**, e19379 (2011).

65. G. P. Morris, *et al.*, Population genomic and genome-wide association studies of
agroclimatic traits in sorghum. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **110**,
453–458 (2013).

66. Z. Hu, M. O. Olatoye, S. Marla, G. P. Morris, An Integrated Genotyping-by-Sequencing
Polymorphism Map for Over 10,000 Sorghum Genotypes. *The Plant Genome* **12**, 0
(2019).

67. H. D. Upadhyaya, *et al.*, Developing a Mini Core Collection of Sorghum for Diversified
Utilization of Germplasm. *Crop Science* **49**, 1769–1780 (2009).

68. B. L. Browning, S. R. Browning, Genotype Imputation with Millions of Reference Samples.
Am. J. Hum. Genet. **98**, 116–126 (2016).

69. X. Zhou, M. Stephens, Genome-wide efficient mixed-model analysis for association
studies. *Nat. Genet.* **44**, 821–824 (2012).

70. E. Mace, *et al.*, The Sorghum QTL Atlas: a powerful tool for trait dissection, comparative
genomics and crop improvement. *Theor. Appl. Genet.* (2018)
https:/doi.org/10.1007/s00122-018-3212-5.

71. J. Gillis, M. Mistry, P. Pavlidis, Gene function analysis in complex data sets using ErmineJ.
Nat Protoc **5**, 1148–1159 (2010).

72. Z. A. Szpiech, R. D. Hernandez, selscan: an efficient multithreaded program to perform
EHH-based scans for positive selection. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **31**, 2824–2827 (2014).

73. D. Bates, M. Mächler, B. Bolker, S. Walker, Fitting Linear Mixed-Effects Models Using
lme4. *Journal of Statistical Software* **67**, 1–48 (2015).

74. E. Meyer, G. V. Aglyamova, M. V. Matz, Profiling gene expression responses of coral
larvae (Acropora millepora) to elevated temperature and settlement inducers using a
novel RNA-Seq procedure. *Molecular Ecology* **20**, 3599–3616 (2011).

75. M. I. Love, W. Huber, S. Anders, Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for
RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biology* **15**, 550 (2014).

 FIGURE LEGENDS:

Figure 1: A subset of global sorghum landraces are from parasite-prone areas. A)

Striga hermonthica habitat suitability (HS) scores across Africa based on MaxEnt

species distribution model. To account for areas with suitable habitat where parasites

have not been recorded, HS for accessions more than 200 km from any *S. hermonthica*

record was set to zero; transparent colors demarcate areas of this HS masking. B)

Geographic distribution and frequency histogram of HS scores at locations of all

georeferenced and genotyped sorghum landrace accessions. Landraces with available

genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS, *n*=2070) and whole genome sequence (WGS, *n*=143)

data are shown. C) Geographic distribution and frequency histogram of HS scores at

locations of 1369 *S. hermonthica* occurrence records.

Figure 2. *LGS1* loss-of-function alleles are broadly distributed within parasite-

prone regions. Schematic of large deletion variants (A) and frameshift mutation (B)

impacting sorghum *LGS1*, a locus involved in resistance to *Striga hermonthica*. Grey

shading indicates position of gene models (A) or coding regions (B). Vertical black bars

indicate position of SNPs in the GBS dataset, and horizontal black lines denote 5 kb

flanking regions used to impute deletion calls. In B, vertical white bars show the

frameshift mutation (position 69,986,146) and the SNP at position 69,985,710 that tags

the frameshift in the GBS dataset. C) Geographic distribution of *LGS1* alleles in

sorghum landraces. D) Distribution of parasite habitat suitability (HS) scores at locations

of sorghum accessions with *lgs1-2* (*n*=25), *lgs1-3* (*n*=34), frameshift (*n*=131), or intact

LGS1 (*n*=785).

Figure 3: Sorghum genome-wide associations with parasite distribution implicate

cell wall and strigolactone signaling genes. A) Genome-wide association with

parasite habitat suitability (HS) score, based on 317,294 SNPs with minor allele

frequency (MAF) > 0.01 in 2070 sorghum landraces. SNPs in genomic regions linked to

strigolactone (SL) biosynthesis/signaling (red), resistance through formation of a

mechanical barrier (light blue), or low *Striga hermonthica* germination (orange) are

indicated. The dashed line represents significance threshold at a false discovery rate of

5%. B) Geographic distribution of reference and alternate alleles for a SNP

(S2_21521798) in a pectinesterase gene (MAF = 0.275). C) Distribution of parasite

habitat suitability scores for sorghum accessions segregating for S2_21521798. D)

Geographic distribution of reference and alternate alleles for a SNP (S7_14459084) in a

gene homologous to SMAX1 (MAF = 0.014). E) Distribution of parasite HS scores for

sorghum accessions segregating for S7_14459084.

Figure 4. Efficacy of *LGS1* loss-of-function varies across abiotic and biotic

gradients. A) Germination of two *S. hermonthica* populations in response to root

exudate from 3-wk-old wild-type Macia and CRISPR-Cas9 edited sorghum seedlings

with *lgs1* deletion alleles. Plants were grown under well-watered high nutrient (WWHN),

well-watered low nutrient (WWLN), or drought low-nutrient (DLN) conditions.

Germination was 0% in response to diH$_2$O and 66% (Kibos) or 78% (Siby) in response

to 0.1ppm GR24. B) Origin of two tested *S. hermonthica* populations. C) Germination

of two *S. hermonthica* populations in response to synthetic strigolactones, (+)5-

deoxystrigol (5-DS) or (±)orobanchol (ORO).

A

Parasite HS
1.0
0.8
0.6
0.4
0.2
0.0

1000 km

B Sorghum landraces (host)

accessions

800
600
400
200

0.00 0.25 0.50 0.75 1.00
Parasite HS

GBS
WGS

C *S. hermonthica* (parasite)

records

150
100
50
0

0.00 0.25 0.50 0.75 1.00
Parasite HS

2500 km

A *Sorghum bicolor*
Chr. 5: 69,953,230-70,018,086

PI563009 — *lgs1-3*

BTx623 — *Sobic.005G213600* — reference

PI562991 — *lgs1-2*

B *Sobic.005G213600*
Chr. 5: 69,984,440-69,986,256

69,985,710   69,986,146

LGS1

frameshift

A→ATC

C

0   2000
km

D

Density

LGS1
frameshift
lgs1−2
lgs1−3

0.00   0.25   0.50   0.75
Parasite HS