

1 Studying the genetic basis of ecological interactions with intergenomic epistasis

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6 **Abstract**

7 In a community, the phenotype or fitness of a focal genotype of one species can depend on the
8 genotypes of other species. Such between-species genetic interactions are increasingly referred to as
9 intergenomic epistasis, analogous to the classical definition of (intragenomic) epistasis in genetics.
10 Here, we propose the first mathematical definition of intergenomic epistasis, which formalises the
11 minimal conditions for the existence of inter-species genetic interactions. By discussing empirical
12 studies of interacting species from the literature, we argue that intergenomic epistasis is a useful
13 umbrella concept that engulfs multiple co-evolutionary relationships of interacting species, such as
14 genotype-specific or gene-for-gene interactions. Consequently, intergenomic epistasis can be asserted
15 in a study system when (i) the specific ecological interactions are unknown, (ii) the genetic basis of
16 between-species interactions is unidentified, or (iii) the underlying genetic architecture is complex and
17 involves genetic interactions within and between genomes. Moreover, the term itself highlights the
18 importance of genetic factors in the study of ecological interactions, thus encouraging links between
19 research in genetics and ecology. Finally, we argue how models incorporating intergenomic epistasis
20 may facilitate the study of co-evolution.

21 Introduction

22 When species interact, the phenotype or fitness of a focal genotype in one species can depend on the geno-
23 types of other species. The nature of these between-species genetic interactions and their ecological and
24 evolutionary consequences depends on the system they are observed in and on the type of between-species
25 ecological interaction. For example, between-species genetic interactions frequently exist in host-symbiont
26 or host-parasite relationships, where fitness in either species can depend strongly on the genotype of its
27 interacting partner (e.g., Lambrechts et al., 2005; Salvaudon et al., 2005; Webster et al., 2004). In such
28 systems, between-species genetic interactions are associated with selective pressures in both species lead-
29 ing to reciprocal evolutionary changes, i.e. co-evolution (see Glossary in Box 1; reviewed in Buckingham
30 and Ashby, 2022; Thompson, 1989; Wade, 2007). In other species, less intuitive between-species genetic
31 interactions play an important role in shaping the local ecological community. One example of this is
32 the mimicry success of a *Heliconius* butterfly, which depends on the colour morphs present in the local
33 butterfly community. In this example, the genetically determined morph composition of a focal species
34 depends not only on the presence of other butterfly species but also on the genotypic diversity within
35 each species that encodes the intraspecific phenotypic variation in colour morphs (Merrill et al., 2015;
36 Sherratt, 2008). Thus, the outcomes of many ecological interactions depend on the genotypes of multiple
37 species living in a community, linking the reproductive success of a genotype from one species to the
38 present genotypes of other species.

39 The above examples illustrate how species' genomes interact with each other and how this interac-
40 tion can affect ecological and evolutionary processes. We here focus on interactions between genotypes
41 because, even though the mapping between genotypes, phenotypes, and fitness is complex (e.g., involv-
42 ing development and plasticity), ultimately there is an underlying genetic basis. Known consequences
43 of between-species genetic interactions are their effect on genetic diversity within and across species
44 (Hafer-Hahmann & Vorburger, 2020), their involvement in ecosystem processes (reviewed in Stange et
45 al., 2020; Whitham et al., 2012), and their impact on evolutionary trajectories of species (Kauffman &
46 Johnsen, 1991). Due to their ecological and evolutionary importance, there is great interest in describing
47 between-species genetic interactions meaningfully. Recently, such between-species genetic interactions
48 have increasingly been referred to as **intergenomic epistasis**, analogous to the classical definition of

49 **(intragenomic) epistasis** in genetics (see Box 2) (Batstone, 2022; Heath, 2010; Sørensen et al., 2021;
50 Turkarslan et al., 2021; Wade, 2007).

51 Here, we discuss the concept of intergenomic epistasis as a means of studying the genetic basis of
52 ecological interactions. To this end, (i) we lay out how intergenomic epistasis is a useful umbrella term
53 that encompasses central concepts commonly used to describe between-species genetic interactions, (ii)
54 we explain how studying intergenomic epistasis can improve our understanding of the genetic architecture
55 of traits underlying ecological interactions, and (iii) we argue how, as a natural extension of intragenomic
56 epistasis, intergenomic epistasis provides a new genetics-aware avenue of deciphering co-evolution between
57 species.

58 **Intergenomic epistasis as an umbrella term for between-species genetic inter-** 59 **actions**

60 The concept of intergenomic epistasis was first synthesised by Wade (2007), focussing on the selective
61 pressures that favour co-transmission of gene combinations across species in the context of **community**
62 **genetics** (Antonovics, 1992) (*cf.* the **extended phenotype** by Dawkins, 1982, or **Indirect Genetic**
63 **Effects** (IGEs) by Wolf et al., 1998). Since Wade (2007), various notable empirical studies investigat-
64 ing intergenomic epistasis have been published (Gupta et al., 2022; Heath, 2010; Sørensen et al., 2021;
65 Turkarslan et al., 2021). For example, Heath (2010), Sørensen et al. (2021), and Turkarslan et al. (2021)
66 studied intergenomic epistasis in mutualistic systems, in which different between-species genotype combi-
67 nations affected fitness of the species involved. Such genetic interactions have previously been described
68 as **genotype-specific** or genotype-by-genotype ($G \times G$) interactions. Thus, we clarify (i) other commonly
69 used concepts describing between-species genetic interactions such as genotype-specific interactions, (ii)
70 the definition of intergenomic epistasis, and (iii) how we can differentiate between different genetic mech-
71 anisms underlying ecological interactions, in order to establish the standing of intergenomic epistasis as
72 an umbrella term.

73 *Known mechanisms underlying between-species genetic interactions*

74 There is a rich literature on the topic of between-species genetic interactions, especially in the context of
75 host-pathogen systems. A common way of differentiating between different types of genetic interactions is
76 by classifying them based on their varying degrees of specificity, i.e. whether interactions are mediated on
77 a genotype- or individual-gene level (e.g., reviewed in Buckingham and Ashby, 2022). For example, when
78 interactions between different pairs of genotypes produce distinct phenotypes, they are often described
79 as genotype-specific (see Box 2 by Lambrechts et al. (2006) for a useful visualisation). Genotype-specific
80 interactions have been observed in systems with mutualistic (Heath, 2010; Heath & Tiffin, 2007; M. P.
81 Parker, 1995; Sørensen et al., 2021; Turkarlan et al., 2021), host-parasite (Carius et al., 2001; Lambrechts
82 et al., 2005; Peever et al., 2000; Salvaudon et al., 2005; Webster et al., 2004) and defensive symbiotic
83 interactions (Hafer-Hahmann & Vorburger, 2020; B. J. Parker et al., 2017). In host-pathogen systems, it
84 was suggested that genotype-specific interactions are associated with **negative frequency-dependent**
85 **selection**. Here, pathogens evolve to infect abundant host genotypes and hosts evolve to be resistant
86 against abundant pathogen genotypes, which can lead to co-evolutionary arms races with **Red Queen**
87 **dynamics** driven by reciprocal selection acting on coupled genes (reviewed in Brockhurst et al., 2014;
88 Christie and McNickle, 2023; Ebert and Fields, 2020).

89 Genotype-specific interactions are often described in systems using isolated lines or strains from nature
90 (e.g., Salvaudon et al., 2005) where the exact genetic basis of the traits mediating the ecological interaction
91 may be unknown. However, in some well-studied systems, the involved genes were identified. This is the
92 case in certain host-parasite systems, where pathogenicity could be attributed to the state of individual
93 genes. Such gene-specific interactions, like **gene-for-gene interactions**, have been described in several
94 plant-pathogen systems (reviewed in Flor, 1956; Thompson and Burdon, 1992). Even more specific **allele-**
95 **matching** systems were discovered in host-parasite systems such as in *Daphnia magna* and the parasitic
96 bacterium *Pasteuria ramosa* (Bento et al., 2017; Luijckx et al., 2013). Gene-for-gene interactions and
97 allele-matching are usually considered qualitative resistance mechanisms that rely on the recognition, or
98 the “matching”, of complementary genes or alleles in host and pathogen (Thrall et al., 2016). For example,
99 classical gene-for-gene interactions in plant-pathogen systems work via pattern-recognition-receptors in
100 the plant that bind pathogen virulence factors. Binding of the virulence factors and thus recognition by

101 the plant triggers the plant’s immune system leading to resistance. Direct mapping of such plant receptors
102 to their corresponding resistance genes, and pathogen virulence factors to their respective **avirulence**
103 **genes** has been described for cultivated flax (e.g., Flor, 1956), wheat (e.g., Hatchett and Gallun, 1970),
104 rice (e.g., Jia et al., 2000), and various other crop systems (e.g, Chen et al., 2024; Delourme et al., 2007;
105 Van den Ackerveken et al., 1992).

106 The terms explained above describe how a phenotype or fitness can be affected by genetic variants of
107 a focal species that interact with genetic variants in another species. However, the use and applicability
108 of these terms differ depending on (i) the research field and the (ii) available knowledge of the genetic
109 basis. This makes it difficult to relate the terms to each other. For example, reports of gene-for-gene
110 interactions are over-represented in crop systems, which might not necessarily reflect the absence of
111 gene-for-gene interactions from other systems (Ebert & Fields, 2020), but rather be the consequence of
112 historical discoveries in crop systems (e.g., Dodds, 2023; Flor, 1956; Kaur et al., 2021). Furthermore, the
113 classification depends on how well resolved the genetic basis of the trait in question is. For example, before
114 the specific alleles involved in the interaction were discovered the allele-matching interaction between *D.*
115 *magna* and *P. ramosa* was described as genotype-specific (Carius et al., 2001; Luijckx et al., 2011).
116 Moreover, some systems may not fit the specific categories of genetic interactions laid out above. In the
117 following two sections, we argue how we can resolve some of these challenges by asserting intergenomic
118 epistasis.

119 *Intergenomic epistasis covers all between-species genetic mechanisms*

120 Already Flor, the first to describe gene-for-gene interactions in cultivated flax *Linum usitatissimum* and
121 its fungal pathogen, flax rust *Melampsora lini* (Flor, 1942), highlighted that “[...] the genetics of rust
122 resistance involves the study of the interaction of the genes conditioning reaction in the host with those
123 conditioning pathogenicity in the parasite” (Flor, 1956). Naturally, one way of describing interactions
124 between genes is within the context of epistasis. Epistasis generally describes interactions of genes within
125 the same genome. However, the concept readily applies to interactions between genes in different genomes
126 - termed intergenomic epistasis (Wade, 2007) (also, see Box 3 for different applications of intergenomic
127 epistasis). In the context of ecological communities, intergenomic epistasis is used to describe genetic
128 interdependence between ecologically interacting species (Batstone, 2022; Heath, 2010; Sørensen et al.,

129 2021; Turkarslan et al., 2021, and reviewed in Wade, 2007).

130 The original definition of intergenomic epistasis is based on the statistical definition of epistasis (Wade,
131 2007) *sensu* Fisher (1919), commonly used in population genetics (Lehner, 2011; Phillips, 2008; see Box 2).
132 This statistical definition describes epistasis as genetic interactions between loci that lead to non-additive
133 effects on a phenotype or fitness. It is due to this statistical definition that intergenomic epistasis can be
134 seen as an overarching phenomenon of between-species genetic interactions, which can be broken down
135 into varying levels of specificity depending on the exact genetic mechanism conferring non-additive fitness
136 effects (see Fig. 1). Consequently, concepts such as gene-for-gene interactions and allele-matching emerge
137 as subcategories of intergenomic epistasis, for which the genetic interactions between the interacting
138 species result from specific genetic mechanisms.

139 *A mathematical model indicates the genetic mechanisms underlying intergenomic epistasis*

140 We propose a mathematical model to (i) delineate the minimal conditions for intergenomic epistasis, (ii)
141 describe between-species genetic interactions, and (iii) differentiate between different genetic mechanisms
142 that underlie ecological interactions (Box 4). Following our understanding of intergenomic epistasis
143 explained above, we define intergenomic epistasis in the mathematical model as any between-species
144 interaction where the measured phenotype or fitness of a genotype in a focal species is affected by the
145 genome of at least one partner species. Our model shows that intergenomic epistasis can be caused by the
146 effects of single genetic variants in a partner species' genome, by genetic interactions involving pairwise
147 or higher-order epistatic effects, or a combination of both (see Fig. 3 for examples). The assertion
148 of intergenomic epistasis is specific to the focal species: it can be caused by genetic variants in the
149 partner species without requiring reciprocal genetic interactions between species. The equations show
150 how pairwise or higher-order effects play an important role in much-studied genetic interactions such
151 as gene-for-gene interactions and allele-matching. Here, the epistatic interactions across genomes are
152 not only essential for the mechanism of resistance (the "matching" of genes or alleles) but are also
153 characteristic for masking the effects of several resistance genes, a feature of these qualitative resistance
154 mechanisms (Thrall et al., 2016). Overall, the mathematical model delineates the conditions to assert
155 different genetic mechanisms compatible with the flowchart in Fig. 1. This allows us to categorise different
156 types of genetic interactions due to their individual mathematical signatures whilst demonstrating how

157 they all fit under the umbrella of intergenomic epistasis.

158 **Investigating the genetic basis of between-species ecological interactions with** 159 **intergenomic epistasis**

160 In the previous section, we highlighted different genetic mechanisms of between-species interactions and
161 how they fit under the umbrella of intergenomic epistasis. In this section, we propose how to apply this
162 knowledge to assess genetic interactions in natural systems. To this end, we discuss (i) how to assert
163 intergenomic epistasis in a system of ecologically interacting species and (ii) how identifying intergenomic
164 epistasis helps investigate interactions with a complex genetic basis.

165 *How to assert between-species genetic interactions*

166 With the continued development of genomic tools, new methods for detecting between-species genetic
167 interactions are emerging. Various reviews have discussed options for how to detect genomic signatures
168 of genetic interdependence (e.g., see Ebert and Fields, 2020; Märkle et al., 2021; Nuismer et al., 2022).
169 Newly developed approaches allow for joint analysis of polymorphism data of interacting species. One
170 example of such joint genome analysis is to perform co-evolutionary Genome Wide Association Studies
171 (co-GWAS) between interacting species (reviewed in Märkle et al., 2021; Nuismer et al., 2022). Co-
172 GWAS reveal associations between polymorphisms in interacting species, which can be quantified as
173 interspecies linkage disequilibrium (iLD) (reviewed in Ebert and Fields, 2020). In particular, Märkle
174 et al. (2023) recently developed a co-GWAS approach to infer different patterns of genotype-specific
175 interactions in human-pathogen systems. The authors categorised interactions based on a given set
176 of interaction patterns (such as gene-for-gene interactions or allele-matching interactions). Using this
177 method, they inferred gene-for-gene interactions between variants at the human major histocompatibility
178 complex (MHC) and the Hepatitis C virus.

179 In a complementary manner, our mathematical model assesses to which extent within-species genetic
180 variation that is associated with genetic variation in a (putatively) interacting species (e.g. identified
181 using co-GWAS) satisfies the definition of intergenomic epistasis. To apply our model to empirical
182 data, we would ideally measure a focal phenotype or fitness metric in multiple between-species genotype

183 combinations. This would allow us to fit the proposed system of equations and to infer the interaction
184 terms within and between genomes (see Fig. 3 for examples). In the minimal case, inferring intergenomic
185 epistasis for a focal species requires comparing measurements of a phenotype of interest when the same
186 genotype of the focal species is grown in the presence of each of two genotypes of one partner species.
187 Inferring reciprocal intergenomic epistasis or genotype-specific interactions as described by the 2-species
188 2-locus model presented in Box 4 requires phenotype (or fitness) measurements for all four genotype
189 combinations of focal and partner genotypes; the model and test requirements become more complex if
190 multiple loci or species are to be considered. However, in order to detect gene-for-gene interactions or
191 allele-matching requires genetic resolution at the gene or allele level, respectively.

192 To circumvent the challenges posed by frequency-dependent selection, the ideal application of the
193 model requires that individual genotypes or strains of the interacting species have been isolated to allow for
194 the experimental assessment of reciprocal between-species genotype combinations. However, measuring
195 the focal phenotype across combinations of populations with different dominant genotypes in nature could
196 yield approximate estimates of the model parameters when such experiments are impossible. A strength
197 of our proposed approach is that the assessment of between-species genetic interactions does not require
198 *a priori* knowledge or assumption of the specific interaction type between the species. Moreover, no
199 detailed understanding of the genetic basis underlying the interactions is necessary; the model can be
200 applied at the strain, locus or allele level and the inference can be readjusted or refined when additional
201 genetic information becomes available.

202 *Complex genetic architectures are covered by the mathematical model*

203 Asserting the presence of intergenomic epistasis between ecologically interacting species is a first step
204 to understanding genetic interdependence between species. The second step is to identify the type of
205 genetic mechanisms involved in the interaction. This identification can be complicated when there are
206 complex genetic interactions between multiple genes within and across genomes (Langlands-Perry et al.,
207 2023; Sugihara et al., 2023). For instance, Langlands-Perry et al. (2023) described the complex genetic
208 interactions underlying the infection of wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) by the fungal pathogen *Zymoseptoria*
209 *tritici*. In this system, fungal pathogenicity is polygenic and depends on individual gene-for-gene interac-
210 tions, as well as on the fungal genetic background, due to intragenomic epistasis within the fungal genome

211 (Langlands-Perry et al., 2023). Describing this interaction as strictly gene-for-gene would be reductive
212 and missing out on the importance of the intragenomic epistasis that shapes the outcome of fungal infec-
213 tion. Besides showing the involvement of complex genetic interactions, this example highlights how the
214 classification of genetic mechanisms depends on the genetic information available. For example, testing
215 resistance of wheat to different pathogenicity genes of *Zymoseptoria tritici* on the same fungal background
216 would reveal gene-for-gene interactions but be insufficient to detect the effects of intragenomic epistasis
217 in the fungal genome.

218 If we applied our mathematical model to the above explained wheat-*Z. tritici* system, we would likely
219 classify the interaction between the two species as genotype-specific rather than a gene-for-gene interaction
220 since the resistance mechanism is not strictly qualitative. Moreover, we could use our model to specify
221 the complex interactions in detail, e.g. by including within-genome epistatic terms (see Fig. 2b). Here,
222 conceptualising between-species genetic interactions through the lens of intergenomic epistasis challenges
223 us to dissect the specific kinds of interactions between genomes and the resulting genetic architecture.
224 Thus, this approach encourages a more genetics-aware way to address genetic interdependence between
225 ecologically interacting species.

226 **Intergenomic epistasis to learn about co-evolution**

227 So far, we have explained how using epistasis to address the genetic interdependence between species
228 puts emphasis on the genetic architecture of the traits involved in ecological interactions. In this section,
229 we address the role of intergenomic epistasis in the study of co-evolution. Following our definition of
230 intergenomic epistasis, where genetic change in one species can affect phenotypes or fitness in another
231 species, we infer that intergenomic epistasis (i) is a prerequisite for co-evolution, and (ii) forms the
232 mechanistic basis of genetic interactions underlying co-evolution (Carmona et al., 2015). From this, two
233 important hypotheses arise, namely that (i) asserting intergenomic epistasis could identify the early stages
234 of co-evolution, and that (ii) we can borrow concepts from research on (intragenomic) epistasis to study
235 co-evolution.

236 *Intergenomic epistasis as a prerequisite for co-evolution*

237 Our definition of intergenomic epistasis implies that intergenomic epistasis can be species-specific and
238 that an interaction between species that is considered intergenomic epistasis for one species in a species
239 pair might not satisfy the definition of intergenomic epistasis for the other species (Box 4). This could
240 be the case in species pairs for which the strength of interaction between species is asymmetric. We
241 can imagine such asymmetrical interactions in systems where interactions are newly established. In such
242 cases, the identification of intergenomic epistasis could mark co-evolution in its early stages. In contrast,
243 ongoing co-evolution would be characterised by reciprocal intergenomic epistasis (e.g., genotype-specific
244 interactions).

245 For example, in cross-feeding interactions (reviewed in Smith et al., 2019), one species might evolve
246 a genotype with increased metabolite secretion, which increases the fitness of the partner species feeding
247 on it. Here, fitness in the partner species will depend on the presence of the secretion variant, leaving a
248 statistical signal (intergenomic epistasis). At this stage, there might not be any fitness increase for the
249 species that secretes the metabolite. The initially one-sided relationship can lead to interspecies cooper-
250 ation (e.g., Douglas et al., 2017) and, eventually, co-evolution, when it results in reciprocal adaptations
251 between species. By determining how the genetic background of two interacting species affects cross-
252 feeding, we can determine potential drivers of ecological interactions and predict incipient co-evolution.
253 Identifying the genes that mediate interactions, such as cross-feeding relationships, is important for under-
254 standing the cooperation and evolution of ecological systems like the gut microbiome (Culp & Goodman,
255 2023; Rakoff-Nahoum et al., 2016). Furthermore, by asserting intergenomic epistasis, we can point out
256 genetic dependencies that have potential ecological and (co-)evolutionary consequences but that do not
257 fit strict co-evolutionary concepts of genetic interactions contingent on reciprocity.

258 *Revealing new co-evolutionary dynamics through intergenomic epistasis*

259 In addition to being a putative indicator of co-evolution, we propose that considering models of interge-
260 nomic epistasis can advance the study of co-evolutionary dynamics. Specifically, borrowing concepts
261 established in the context of intragenomic epistasis allows researchers to investigate co-evolution in com-
262 munities through the lens of intergenomic epistasis. For example, intragenomic epistasis is known to

263 constrain evolutionary trajectories (reviewed in Bank, 2022; Fragata et al., 2019; Johnson et al., 2023),
264 e.g. by altering adaptive routes favoured by selection (McLeod & Gandon, 2022), or by introducing
265 historical contingencies, where mutations are only beneficial when they appear in a specific genetic back-
266 ground (Blount et al., 2012, 2008; Karageorgi et al., 2019; Nosil et al., 2020). Applying the framework of
267 epistasis to ecological systems carries the potential to reveal similar mechanisms in pairs of interacting
268 species, providing new insights into co-evolutionary processes.

269 In this vein, Gupta et al. (2022) studied the co-evolution between the bacteriophage λ and its host
270 *Escherichia coli*, showing cross-species historical contingencies. Specifically, the phage was more likely to
271 evolve a second path for invasion of *E. coli*, if adaptation to resistant *E. coli* was preceded by a phase of
272 adaptation to ancestral *E. coli*. This led the authors to update a previous model of co-evolution between
273 the two species (Meyer et al., 2012). Moreover, the authors found host-dependent epistasis (mutation
274 by mutation by host interactions), which might affect the course of the phage’s evolution by impacting
275 the phage’s range of infectivity (Ashby et al., 2014). This study is a powerful example of how explicitly
276 considering intergenomic epistasis improves our understanding of co-evolution.

277 **Conclusions**

278 Genetic interactions among and between species have important consequences on fitness and evolution
279 of species. Multiple established concepts describe different mechanisms of genetic interactions between
280 species at varying levels of specificity. Here, we showed how intergenomic epistasis acts as an umbrella
281 term for such between-species genetic interactions. Furthermore, we discussed how intergeomic epistasis
282 can be used to describe the underlying genetic basis of ecological interactions without being reductive
283 or ignoring complex genetic interactions, where other concepts might neglect important features of the
284 genetic architecture. We formalised the definition of intergenomic epistasis through a mathematical
285 model, which characterises the genetic architecture underlying between-species interactions. We propose
286 this model as universal reference for researchers who investigate between-species genetic interactions. The
287 model incorporates genetic mechanisms of varying levels of specificity and complexity, thus encouraging
288 a closer look at the genetic architecture underlying ecological interactions.

289 Beyond using intergenomic epistasis as a descriptor for genetic dependence between species, we high-
290 lighted two applications of intergenomic epistasis for the study of co-evolution. Namely, we proposed

291 intergenomic epistasis as a prerequisite for co-evolution and as a driver of ongoing co-evolution. Thus, in-
292 tergenomic epistasis provides a framework for studying co-evolution in ecological systems. Approaching
293 systems of interacting species through the lens of intergenomic epistasis opens up new ways of inves-
294 tigating systems of genetic (inter)dependence by borrowing tools from studying intragenomic epistasis.
295 Borrowing from research on epistasis is a natural step to advancing the field of co-evolution because much
296 of the study of co-evolution is already centred around interactions between genes of interacting species.
297 In this context, we encourage researchers to consider interacting species with respect to intergenomic
298 epistasis because its detection paves the way to explaining (co-)evolutionary dynamics (e.g., Gupta et al.,
299 2022; Kauffman and Johnsen, 1991) and advancing our understanding of co-evolution.

300 Concludingly, we see intergenomic epistasis as a promising concept that bridges genetics, ecology and
301 evolution, which carries great potential for the study of eco-evolutionary dynamics.

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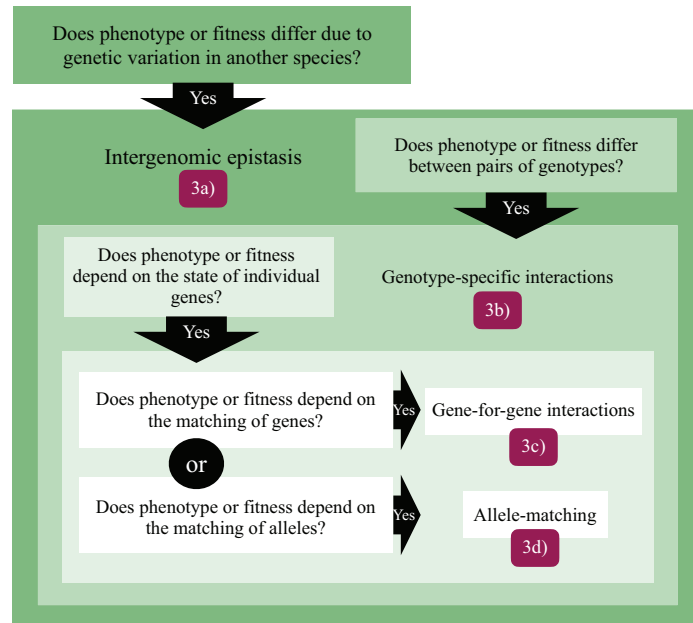


Figure 1: Here we show how intergenomic epistasis operates as an umbrella term for between-species genetic interactions that encompass different genetic mechanisms. One way of subdividing types of genetic interactions is according to their known specificity, as shown here. We move from a general understanding of genetic interdependence between species to concrete and highly specific genetic interactions at the gene or allele level. By measuring a phenotype of interest or fitness across genotype combinations we propose a mathematical model elaborated in Box 4 to classify the types of genetic interactions according to this flowchart. The purple boxes correspond to the subfigures in Fig. 3 that represent the exemplary patterns of fitness expected for each genetic interaction.

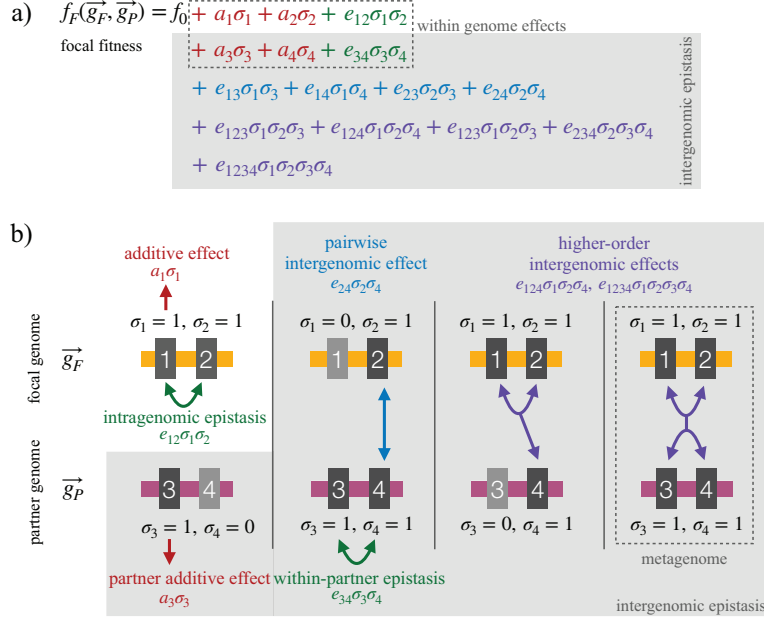


Figure 2: The representation of our mathematical model in Box 4, where fitness of a focal species $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$ depends on its own genotype \vec{g}_F and the genotype of a partner species \vec{g}_P in a two-species community ($\vec{S} = \{F, P\}$).

a) shows the full mathematical model with all possible terms of interactions between sites within and between genomes for two sites in both genomes of the species pair ($L_F = L_P = 2$), i.e. a total of four sites ($i = 1, 2, 3, 4$). All terms that represent the effect of \vec{g}_P on $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$ and therefore contribute to intergenomic epistasis are highlighted with a grey box. We further highlight terms that contribute to $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$ that do not involve any direct interactions between the two genomes (“within genome effects”). Where these two boxes intersect, we find terms that contribute to focal fitness f_F independently of the focal genome. **b)** is a visual representation of the types of interactions between sites that are encoded in **a)**. Each panel represents a metagenome containing sites $i = 1, 2$ that are located in the focal genome (orange), and sites $i = 3, 4$ that are located in the partner genome (purple). Each site i can carry a genetic variant ($\sigma_i = 1$, dark grey) which can cause deviations from f_0 ($\sigma_i = 0$, light grey). Again, we highlight interactions contributing to intergenomic epistasis with a grey box. From the left: in the first panel, in the focal genome we indicate genetic effects on fitness f_F that do not fall under the intergenomic epistasis umbrella, such as additive effects at sites in the focal genome g_F (e.g., $a_1\sigma_1$, red arrow), or epistatic interactions between sites in the focal genome g_F (e.g., $e_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2$, green arrow), and in the partner genome we indicate how genetic variants at individual sites can introduce intergenomic epistasis (e.g., $a_3\sigma_3$, red arrow); in the second panel we show interactions between two sites that can cause intergenomic epistasis, if at least one (e.g., $e_{24}\sigma_2\sigma_4$, blue arrow) or both of them (e.g., $e_{34}\sigma_3\sigma_4$, green arrow) are located in the partner genome. Finally, we depict higher-order intergenomic interactions between three or more sites across genomes (e.g., $e_{124}\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_4, e_{1234}\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_3\sigma_4$, purple arrows).

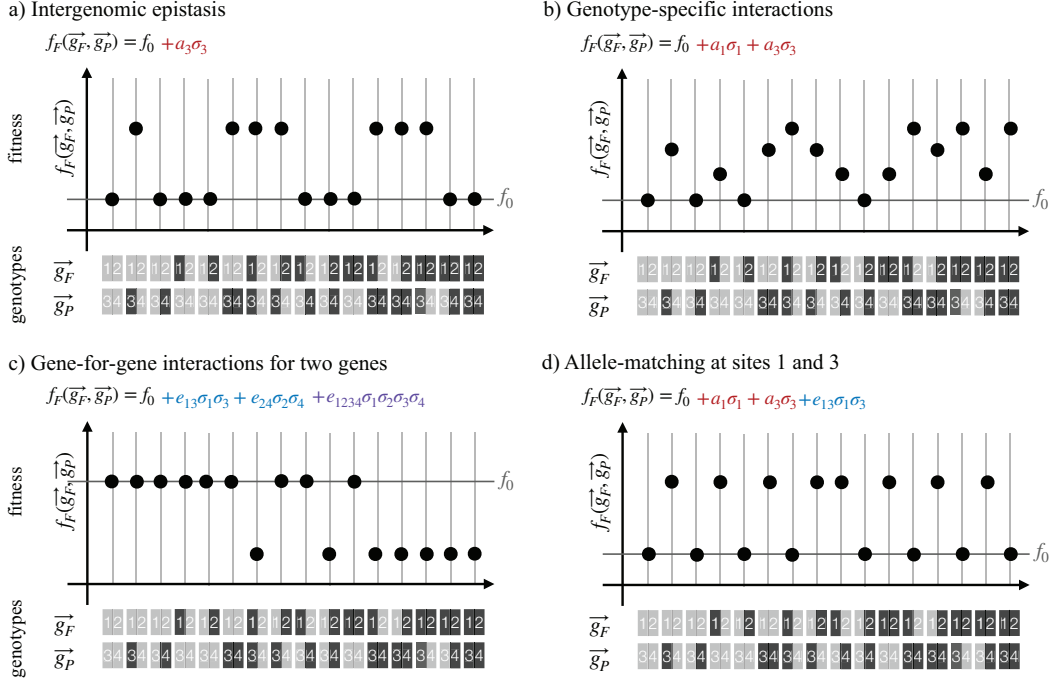


Figure 3: Genetic interactions between species can result in different fitness patterns. Here, we show examples of how the fitness of a focal species, such as a bacteriophage, $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$ could depend on the focal genotype (\vec{g}_F ; different genetic variants in light and dark grey) and on interactions with the genotype of a partner (\vec{g}_P ; different genetic variants in light and dark grey), how we would describe them with our mathematical model, and how we would categorise them according to the flowchart in Fig. 1. As in Fig. 2 we show four genetic sites ($L = 2$ for two species), where sites $i = 1, 2$ are located in the focal genome and sites $i = 3, 4$ are located in the partner genome. For the examples shown here, we assume that the fitness of the partner species (such as a bacterial host) will be negatively correlated with the focal fitness. In **a)**, the focal species has increased fitness when the partner carries a genetic variant at site three ($\sigma_3 = 1$), which qualifies as intergenomic epistasis. However, \vec{g}_F does not have an effect on focal or partner fitness, which is why we would not consider this a genotype-specific interaction. In **b)** however, the fitness of both partners depends the combination of of focal and partner genotype. And since focal fitness $f_F(g_F, g_P)$ depends on g_F , and the genotype it is paired with g_P , interactions are genotype-specific. Here, this interaction is mediated by one site in each species ($i = 1, 3$). In **c)** and **d)** this genotype-specificity is mediated by individual genes, either by species matching genes (gene-for-gene interactions **c)**), or alleles (allele-matching **d)**), resulting in qualitative (“all-or-nothing”) resistance patterns.

485 **Box 1: Glossary**

- 486 • **Allele-matching** - an interaction type where, if the parasite's alleles match those of its host,
487 infection is successful. This is a qualitative resistance mechanism, that either results in complete
488 resistance or full susceptibility.
- 489 • **Avirulence genes** - genes in pathogens that encode proteins which bind to receptors in the host,
490 encoded by corresponding resistance genes, which allow the host to recognise the infection and
491 defend itself against the pathogen
- 492 • **Community genetics** - a research field concerned with the genetic processes between and among
493 co-evolving species in an ecological community
- 494 • **Extended phenotype** - the phenotypic effects of genes outside of the individual they are expressed
495 in, i.e. effects on the environment, other individuals of the same species or individuals from other
496 species
- 497 • **Gene-for-gene interactions** - an interaction type where, if a resistance gene in the host matches a
498 corresponding avirulence gene in the pathogen, the pathogen is recognised by the host and infection
499 is averted.
- 500 • **Genotype-specific interactions** - an interaction type where different pairs of interacting geno-
501 types produce different phenotypes or fitness. These are sometimes also termed genotype-by-
502 genotype interactions
- 503 • **Indirect Genetic Effects** - the effects on a phenotype in a focal individual caused by genes that
504 are expressed in another individual; usually applied to interactions between individuals of the same
505 species
- 506 • **Intergenomic epistasis** - genetic interactions between genes in different genomes; here we use
507 intergenomic epistasis in the context of ecologically interacting species - for other applications of
508 the term, see Box 3
- 509 • **Intragenomic epistasis** - genetic interactions between genes in the same genome; the classic
510 application of epistasis (see Box 2 for more on epistasis)

- 511 • **Metagenome** - in our mathematical model, we treat the genomes of all interacting species in a
512 community as a single linearised genome (thus a metagenome) to facilitate the description of the
513 genetic interactions between genetic sites of different species
- 514 • **Negative frequency-dependent selection** - when genotypes at low frequencies are at a selective
515 advantage, and genotypes at high frequencies are at a selective disadvantage
- 516 • **Red Queen Dynamics** - evolutionary dynamics in a species pair, where each adaptation in the
517 focal species is matched by a counteracting adaptation in the partner species, resulting in continual
518 evolutionary change, where average relative fitness remains constant.

519 **Box 2: The definition(s) of epistasis**

520 Originally, epistasis was described by Bateson (1909) as the suppression of an allelic phenotype by an
521 allele at another locus. However, epistasis has a long history of being used to describe various phenomena
522 (e.g., reviewed in Domingo et al., 2019; Lehner, 2011; Phillips, 2008). Some of these definitions of epistasis
523 are focused on molecular interactions of gene products (e.g., functional epistasis (Phillips, 2008), whereas
524 other definitions are statistical in nature (e.g., in the context of fitness landscapes (e.g., Fragata et al.,
525 2019) or population genetics (Lehner, 2011; Phillips, 2008)). Here, we use epistasis in its statistical sense
526 to describe genetic interactions between loci that lead to non-additive effects on a phenotype or fitness.
527 This statistical definition, originally proposed by Fisher (1919), measures epistasis as the deviation from
528 the additive combination of two genetic variants in their effect on a phenotype or fitness.

529 Although intergenomic epistasis is conceptualised here as a statistical relationship, mechanistic defini-
530 tions of epistasis, such as the above-mentioned functional epistasis, can be satisfied as well. For example,
531 in a system in which the interaction between a pathogen and its host is mediated by pattern-recognition-
532 receptors (e.g., in gene-for-gene interactions), changes in the receptor's binding affinity affect the outcome
533 of the pathogen's host invasion, essentially displaying functional intergenomic epistasis (see Dodds and
534 Rathjen, 2010; Kaur et al., 2021; Märkle et al., 2022 for reviews on the molecular basis of plant-pathogen
535 interactions). Defining intergenomic epistasis primarily as a statistical relationship rather than a mech-
536 anistic one encompasses the effects of many types of genetic interactions mediated by single proteins or
537 more complex phenotypes.

538 **Box 3: The applications of intergenomic epistasis**

539 Usually, epistasis refers to interactions between genetic variants in the same genome. However, the
540 term intergenomic epistasis was coined to describe interactions between genetic variants in different
541 genomes. This concept has been applied to study genomes separated at different levels, from within to
542 between individuals and for individuals of the same or different species. Intergenomic epistasis within an
543 individual has been used to describe interactions between mitochondrial and nuclear DNA (e.g., Dowling
544 et al., 2007; Immonen et al., 2020) and hybrid incompatibilities (e.g., Woods et al., 2009). Intergenomic
545 epistasis between individuals has been described in socially interacting individuals of the same species,
546 such as ants, where the interactions between genotypes can affect brood development (e.g., Linksvayer,
547 2007; Piekarski et al., 2023; Teseo et al., 2014), or in ecologically interacting individuals of different
548 species, as discussed in this paper.

549 **Box 4: Mathematical definition of intergenomic epistasis**

550 We define a mathematical model to describe the minimal conditions for intergenomic epistasis and distin-
551 guish between different mechanisms of between-species genetic interactions. In the most general model,
552 consider a community of N species, $\vec{S} = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_N\}$. Each species S_k is represented by a genome
553 of length L_{S_k} , where each genotype \vec{g}_{S_k} is a vector of L_{S_k} sites with m possible allelic states from the set
554 $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$. We express the fitness of a focal species S_k as a function of the present genotype
555 of all species in the community, $f_{S_k}(\vec{g}_{S_1}, \dots, \vec{g}_{S_{N-1}})$, which is determined by additive effects at each site
556 and interaction effects between sites. (Common fitness measures are growth rate, lifetime reproductive
557 success, or survival. Alternatively, we could measure a phenotype of interest, such as above-soil biomass
558 of plants in a meadow community.) In the following, we describe the conditions for intergenomic epistasis
559 in a two-species community with two sites per species.

560 Consider two species $\vec{S} = \{F, P\}$, representing a “Focal” and a “Partner” species, with $L_{tot} = L_F + L_P$
561 diallelic sites, where each site i in the resulting **metagenome** is encoded by $\sigma_i \in \{0, 1\}$ to represent the
562 absence (0) or presence (1) of a genetic variant. Sites $i \leq L_F$ correspond to sites in the genome of the
563 focal species F , and sites $L_F < i \leq L_{tot}$ correspond to sites in the genome of the partner species P . We
564 then compute the fitness of the focal species $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$ as a function of the genotype of the focal species

565 \vec{g}_F and the genotype of the partner species \vec{g}_P . $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$ is defined by a baseline (“wildtype”) fitness
566 f_0 plus additive effects a_i of genetic variants at each site i , pairwise epistatic terms e_{ij} between two sites
567 i and j , for $i \neq j$, and higher-order epistatic terms $e_{ij\dots}$, for genetic interactions within and between
568 genomes (see Fig. 2b). We present the resulting equations for $\vec{S} = \{F, P\}$, $L_F = L_P = 2$ in Fig. 2a.

569 Using the two-species community $\vec{S} = \{F, P\}$ as an example, we define the minimal conditions for
570 (i) intergenomic epistasis and (ii) genotype-specific interactions, and the criteria for (iii) gene-for-gene
571 interactions and (iv) allele-matching. (i) The minimal condition for intergenomic epistasis in our model
572 is met when the focal fitness $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$ depends on at least one interaction term that involves a site
573 in the partner genome ($i > L_F$; see grey box in Fig. 2). This includes all pairwise or higher-order
574 interactions between genomes, additive effects at sites in the partner genome (a_i for $i > L_F$), and genetic
575 interactions within the partner genome (e.g., e_{ij} for $i, j > L_F$; “within partner epistasis”). Notably,
576 according to our definition, intergenomic epistasis can be caused by a single (additive) genetic variant in
577 the partner genome and does not require reciprocal genetic interactions between genomes (see Fig. 3a).
578 Consequently, the assessment of intergenomic epistasis in our model is specific to the focal species.

579 Following the flowchart in Fig. 1, the minimal conditions for genotype-specific interactions are satisfied
580 when the focal fitness $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$ depends on at least one interaction term that involves a site in the
581 partner genome and at least one site in the focal genome. This can mean two separate interaction terms
582 (e.g., a_i and a_j for $i \leq L_F, j > L_F$; see Fig. 3b), or a single interaction term describing pairwise or
583 higher-order epistatic interactions between sites in both genomes (e.g., e_{ij} for $i \leq L_F, j > L_F$). Gene-
584 for-gene interactions require pairwise epistatic interactions between sites in both species (the “matching”
585 mechanism) and higher-order epistatic effects masking the effects of multiple resistance genes due to the
586 qualitative nature of gene-for-gene resistance mechanisms (Thrall et al., 2016) (see Fig. 3c). Finally, allele-
587 matching requires additive effects in the focal and the partner species for alleles conferring resistance,
588 and pairwise epistatic interactions between the sites of both genomes to “match” the alleles (see Fig. 3d).