

Studying the genetic basis of ecological interactions with intergenomic epistasis

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Abstract

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

Keywords: GxG interactions, species interactions, co-evolution, host-pathogen interactions, community genetics, epistasis, eco-evolutionary dynamics, evolutionary theory

24 Introduction

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

42 The above examples illustrate how species' genomes interact with each other and how this interaction
43 can affect ecological and evolutionary processes. We here focus on interactions between genotypes
44 because, even though the mapping between genotypes, phenotypes, and fitness is complex (e.g., involving
45 development and plasticity), ultimately, there is an underlying genetic basis of heritable variation (e.g.,
46 Promislow, 2005). Known consequences of between-species genetic interactions are their effect on genetic
47 diversity within and across species (Hafer-Hahmann & Vorburger, 2020), their involvement in ecosystem
48 processes (reviewed in Stange et al., 2020; Whitham et al., 2012), and their impact on evolutionary
49 trajectories of species (Kauffman & Johnsen, 1991). Due to their ecological and evolutionary importance,
50 there is great interest in describing between-species genetic interactions meaningfully. Recently, such
51 between-species genetic interactions have increasingly been referred to as **intergenomic epistasis**,

52 analogous to the classical definition of **(intragenomic) epistasis** in genetics (Batstone, 2022; Heath,
53 2010; Sørensen et al., 2021; Turkarslan et al., 2021; Wade, 2007).

54 Here, we discuss the concept of intergenomic epistasis as a means of studying the genetic basis of
55 ecological interactions. Guided by a mathematical definition of intergenomic epistasis (Box 1), (i) we lay
56 out how intergenomic epistasis is a useful umbrella term that encompasses central concepts commonly
57 used to describe between-species genetic interactions, (ii) we explain how studying intergenomic epistasis
58 can improve our understanding of the genetic architecture of traits underlying ecological interactions,
59 and (iii) we argue how, as a natural extension of intragenomic epistasis, intergenomic epistasis provides
60 a genetics-aware avenue of deciphering co-evolution between species.

61 **Intergenomic epistasis as an umbrella term for between-species genetic interactions**

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

75 *Known mechanisms underlying between-species genetic interactions*

76 There is a rich literature on the topic of between-species genetic interactions, especially in the context
77 of host-pathogen systems. A common way of differentiating between genetic interaction types is by
78 classifying them based on their varying degrees of specificity, i.e. whether interactions are mediated at the

79 genotype- or individual-gene level (e.g., reviewed in Buckingham and Ashby, 2022). For example, when
80 interactions between different pairs of genotypes produce distinct phenotypes, they are often described as
81 genotype-specific (comprehensively illustrated in Box 2 of Lambrechts et al. (2006)). Genotype-specific
82 interactions have been observed in systems with mutualistic (Heath, 2010; Heath & Tiffin, 2007; M. P.
83 Parker, 1995; Sørensen et al., 2021; Turkarlan et al., 2021), host-parasite (Carius et al., 2001; Lambrechts
84 et al., 2005; Peever et al., 2000; Salvaudon et al., 2005; Webster et al., 2004) and defensive symbiotic
85 interactions (Hafer-Hahmann & Vorburger, 2020; B. J. Parker et al., 2017). In host-pathogen systems, it
86 was suggested that genotype-specific interactions are associated with **negative frequency-dependent**
87 **selection**. Here, pathogens evolve to infect abundant host genotypes, and hosts evolve to be resistant
88 against abundant pathogen genotypes, which can lead to co-evolutionary arms races with **Red Queen**
89 **dynamics** driven by reciprocal selection acting on coupled genes (reviewed in Brockhurst et al., 2014;
90 Christie and McNickle, 2023; Ebert and Fields, 2020).

91 Genotype-specific interactions are often described in systems using lines or strains that were isolated
92 from nature (e.g., Salvaudon et al., 2005) where the exact genetic basis of the traits mediating the
93 ecological interaction may be unknown. However, in some well-studied host-parasite systems, pathogenicity
94 could be attributed to the state of individual genes. Such gene-specific interactions, often termed
95 **gene-for-gene interactions**, have been described in several plant-pathogen systems (reviewed in Flor,
96 1956; Thompson and Burdon, 1992). Even more specific **allele-matching** systems were discovered in
97 host-parasite systems such as in *Daphnia magna* and the parasitic bacterium *Pasteuria ramosa* (Bento
98 et al., 2017; Luijckx et al., 2013). Gene-for-gene interactions and allele-matching are usually considered
99 qualitative resistance mechanisms that rely on the recognition, or the “matching”, of complementary genes
100 or alleles in host and pathogen (Thrall et al., 2016). For example, classical gene-for-gene interactions in
101 plant-pathogen systems work via pattern-recognition-receptors in the plant that bind pathogen virulence
102 factors. Binding of the virulence factors and thus recognition by the plant triggers the plant’s immune
103 system, leading to resistance. Direct mapping of such plant receptors to their corresponding resistance
104 genes and pathogen virulence factors to their respective **avirulence genes** has been successful in
105 cultivated flax (e.g., Flor, 1956), wheat (e.g., Hatchett and Gallun, 1970), rice (e.g., Jia et al., 2000),
106 and various other crop systems (e.g, Chen et al., 2024; Delourme et al., 2007; Van den Ackerveken et al.,
107 1992).

108 The terms explained above describe how a phenotype or fitness can be affected by genetic variants
109 of a focal species that interact with genetic variants in another species, i.e., they all represent cases of
110 intergenomic epistasis. However, the use and applicability of these terms differ depending on both the
111 research field and the current knowledge of the genetic basis. For example, reports of gene-for-gene
112 interactions are overrepresented in crop systems, which might not necessarily reflect the absence of
113 gene-for-gene interactions from other systems (Ebert & Fields, 2020) but rather be the consequence
114 of historical discoveries in crop systems (e.g., Dodds, 2023; Flor, 1956; Kaur et al., 2021). Furthermore,
115 the classification depends on how well resolved the genetic basis of the trait in question is. For example,
116 before the specific alleles involved in the interaction were discovered, the allele-matching interaction
117 between *D. magna* and *P. ramosa* was described as genotype-specific (Carius et al., 2001; Luijckx et al.,
118 2011). Finally, some systems may not fit the specific categories of genetic interactions laid out above, for
119 example, when resistance and susceptibility in a gene-for-gene interaction are not perfectly binary. In the
120 following two sections, we argue how we can resolve some of these challenges by asserting intergenomic
121 epistasis based upon a formal mathematical definition (Box 1).

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

123 Epistasis traditionally describes genetic interactions within the same genome of an individual (Box 2).
124 However, the concept of epistasis naturally extends to describing genetic interactions between species,
125 also referred to as intergenomic epistasis (Wade, 2007) (see Box 3 for different applications of the
126 terminology). In the context of ecological communities, intergenomic epistasis is used to describe genetic
127 interdependence between ecologically interacting species (Batstone, 2022; Heath, 2010; Sørensen et al.,
128 2021; Turkarslan et al., 2021, and reviewed in Wade, 2007). Accordingly, already Flor, the first to
129 describe gene-for-gene interactions in cultivated flax *Linum usitatissimum* and its fungal pathogen, flax
130 rust *Melampsora lini* (Flor, 1942), highlighted that “[...] the genetics of rust resistance involves the study
131 of the interaction of the genes conditioning reaction in the host with those conditioning pathogenicity in
132 the parasite” (Flor, 1956).

133 The original verbal definition of intergenomic epistasis is based on the statistical definition of epistasis
134 (Wade, 2007) *sensu* Fisher (1919), commonly used in population genetics (Lehner, 2011; Phillips, 2008;
135 see Box 2). This statistical definition describes epistasis as genetic interactions between loci that lead to

136 non-additive effects on a phenotype or fitness. Noting down the mathematics of this statistical definition
137 (see Box 1) shows that intergenomic epistasis captures the overarching phenomenon of all between-species
138 genetic interactions, which can be broken down into varying levels of specificity depending on the genetic
139 details that confer non-additive fitness effects (see Fig. 3). Consequently, concepts such as gene-for-gene
140 interactions and allele-matching emerge as subcategories of intergenomic epistasis, for which the genetic
141 interactions between the interacting species result from specific genetic mechanisms.

142 *Non-zero interaction terms indicate the genetic mechanisms underlying intergenomic epistasis*

143 We propose a mathematical model to (i) formally define intergenomic epistasis, (ii) describe between-species
144 genetic interactions, and (iii) differentiate between different genetic mechanisms that underlie ecological
145 interactions (Box 1). Following our understanding of intergenomic epistasis explained above, we define
146 intergenomic epistasis in the mathematical model as any between-species interaction where the measured
147 phenotype or fitness of a genotype in a focal species is affected by the genome of at least one partner
148 species. Therefore, intergenomic epistasis in our model can arise due to effects of single genetic variants
149 in a partner species' genome, by genetic interactions involving pairwise or higher-order epistatic effects,
150 or a combination of both (see Fig. 2 for examples).

151 The mathematical definition delineates the conditions to assert different genetic mechanisms compatible
152 with the flowchart in Fig. 3. Inference of the interaction parameters (as exemplified in Figure Fig. 2)
153 categorises genetic interaction types and demonstrates how they all fit under the umbrella of intergenomic
154 epistasis. For example, we find that pairwise or higher-order effects can play an important role in
155 much-studied genetic interactions such as gene-for-gene interactions and allele-matching (Fig 2c,d). Here,
156 the epistatic interactions across genomes are not only essential for the mechanism of resistance (here, the
157 “matching” of genes or alleles) but are also masking the presence of multiple resistance genes. This
158 masking is a specific feature of qualitative resistance mechanisms (Thrall et al., 2016).

159 Notably, according to our definition, the assertion of intergenomic epistasis is specific to the focal
160 species. This implies that intergenomic epistasis includes effects on phenotype or fitness of a focal species
161 caused by genetic variants in the partner species without requiring reciprocal effects on the partner species.
162 In this case, the observed effects are comparable to genotype-by-environment ($G \times E$) interactions.

163 Investigating the genetic basis of between-species ecological interactions with 164 intergenomic epistasis

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

170 *How to assert between-species genetic interactions*

171 With the continued development of genomic tools, new methods for detecting between-species genetic
172 interactions are emerging. Various reviews have discussed options for how to detect genomic signatures
173 of genetic interdependence (e.g., see Ebert and Fields, 2020; Märkle et al., 2021; Nuismer et al., 2022).
174 Newly developed approaches allow for the joint analysis of polymorphism data of interacting species.
175 One example of such joint genome analysis is to perform co-evolutionary Genome Wide Association
176 Studies (co-GWAS) between interacting species (reviewed in Märkle et al., 2021; Nuismer et al., 2022).
177 Co-GWAS reveal associations between polymorphisms in interacting species, which can be quantified as
178 interspecies linkage disequilibrium (iLD) (reviewed in Ebert and Fields, 2020). In particular, Märkle
179 et al. (2024) recently developed a co-GWAS approach to infer different patterns of genotype-specific
180 interactions in human-pathogen systems. The authors categorised interactions based on a given set
181 of interaction patterns (such as gene-for-gene interactions or allele-matching interactions). Using this
182 method, they inferred gene-for-gene interactions between variants at the human major histocompatibility
183 complex (MHC) and Hepatitis C virus.

184 In a complementary manner, our mathematical definition asserts to which extent within-species
185 genetic variation that is associated with genetic variation in a (putatively) interacting species (e.g.
186 identified using co-GWAS) satisfies the definition of intergenomic epistasis. To apply our model to
187 empirical data, we would ideally measure a focal phenotype or fitness metric in multiple between-species
188 (isogenic) genotype combinations. This would allow us to fit the proposed system of equations and to infer
189 the interaction terms within and between genomes (see Fig. 2 for examples). In the minimal case, inferring

190 intergenomic epistasis for a focal species requires comparing measurements of a phenotype of interest when
191 the same genotype of the focal species is grown in the presence of each of two genotypes of one partner
192 species. Inferring reciprocal intergenomic epistasis or genotype-specific interactions as described by the
193 2-species 2-locus model presented in Box 1 would require phenotype (or fitness) measurements for all four
194 genotype combinations of focal and partner genotypes; the model and test requirements become more
195 complex if multiple loci or species are to be considered.

196 A strength of our proposed approach is that the assessment of between-species genetic interactions
197 does not require *a priori* knowledge or assumption of the specific interaction type between the species.
198 Moreover, no detailed understanding of the genetic basis underlying the interactions is necessary; the
199 model can be applied at the strain, locus or allele level and the inference can be readjusted or refined
200 when additional genetic information becomes available. Denoting the interaction type as gene-for-gene
201 interactions *versus allele-matching, for example, can be done* a posteriori when the necessary resolution
202 of the genetic data is available.

203 Frequency-dependent selection could pose challenges to the inference of interaction parameters when
204 multiple genotypes are segregating in a population. These challenges are circumvented when individual
205 genotypes or strains of the interacting species are available to allow for the experimental assessment
206 of reciprocal between-species genotype combinations. However, measuring the focal phenotype across
207 combinations of populations with differently abundant genotypes in nature could yield approximate
208 estimates of the model parameters when such experiments are impossible.

209 *The mathematical definition of intergenomic epistasis captures complex genetic architectures*

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

218 et al., 2023). Describing this interaction as strictly gene-for-gene would be reductive and missing out
219 on the importance of the intragenomic epistasis that shapes the outcome of fungal infection. Besides
220 showing the involvement of complex genetic interactions, this example highlights how the classification
221 of genetic mechanisms depends on the genetic information available. For example, testing resistance
222 of wheat to different pathogenicity genes of *Zymoseptoria tritici* on the same fungal background would
223 reveal gene-for-gene interactions but be insufficient to detect the effects of intragenomic epistasis in the
224 fungal genome.

225 If we applied our mathematical definition (extended to multiple loci) to the above explained wheat-*Z.*
226 *tritici* system, we would likely classify the interaction between the two species as genotype-specific rather
227 than a gene-for-gene interaction since the resistance mechanism is not strictly qualitative. Moreover,
228 we could use our model to infer the complex interactions in detail, e.g. by including intragenomic
229 epistatic terms (see Fig. 1b). Here, conceptualising between-species genetic interactions through the lens
230 of intergenomic epistasis challenges us to dissect the specific kinds of interactions between genomes and
231 the resulting genetic architecture. Thus, our proposed approach adds a genetics-aware route to studying
232 ecological interactions.

233 **Deciphering co-evolution through intergenomic epistasis**

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

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

244 Our definition of intergenomic epistasis in Box 1 is species-specific; an interaction between species that
245 is considered intergenomic epistasis for one species in a species pair might not satisfy the definition of
246 intergenomic epistasis for the other species. This could be the case in species pairs for which the strength of
247 the ecological interaction between species is asymmetric. We can imagine such asymmetrical interactions
248 in systems where interactions are newly established; a hypothetical example is given below. In such
249 cases, the identification of intergenomic epistasis could mark co-evolution in its early stages. In contrast,
250 ongoing co-evolution would be characterised by reciprocal intergenomic epistasis (e.g., genotype-specific
251 interactions).

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

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

266 In addition to using inferred intergenomic epistasis as a putative indicator of co-evolution, we propose
267 that considering theoretical models of intergenomic epistasis can advance the study of co-evolutionary
268 dynamics. Specifically, borrowing concepts established in the context of intragenomic epistasis allows
269 researchers to investigate co-evolution in communities through the lens of intergenomic epistasis. For

270 example, intragenomic epistasis is known to constrain evolutionary trajectories (reviewed in Bank, 2022;
271 Fragata et al., 2019; Johnson et al., 2023), e.g. by altering adaptive routes favoured by selection (McLeod
272 & Gandon, 2022), or by introducing historical contingencies, where mutations are only beneficial when
273 they appear in a specific genetic background (Blount et al., 2012, 2008; Karageorgi et al., 2019; Nosil
274 et al., 2020). Applying the framework of epistasis to ecological systems carries the potential to reveal
275 similar mechanisms in pairs of interacting species, providing new insights into co-evolutionary processes.

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

284 Conclusions

285 Genetic interactions among and between species have important consequences on fitness and evolution
286 of species, as evidenced by an increasing body of literature from different fields. Multiple established
287 concepts describe different mechanisms of genetic interactions between species at varying levels of specificity.
288 Here, we argued by means of a mathematical definition how intergenomic epistasis can be used as a
289 flexible umbrella term encompassing such between-species genetic interactions. Our formalised definition
290 of intergenomic epistasis characterises the genetic architecture underlying between-species interactions.
291 We propose this definition as universal reference for researchers who investigate between-species genetic
292 interactions. Our definition flexibly incorporates genetic mechanisms of varying levels of specificity and
293 complexity, thus encouraging a closer look at the genetic architecture underlying ecological interactions.

294 Beyond using intergenomic epistasis as a descriptor for genetic dependence between species, we
295 highlighted potential applications of intergenomic epistasis for the study of co-evolution. Namely, we
296 proposed intergenomic epistasis as a prerequisite for co-evolution and as a driver of ongoing co-evolution.
297 Thus, the concept of intergenomic epistasis provides a framework for studying co-evolution in ecological

298 systems. Approaching systems of interacting species through the lens of intergenomic epistasis opens
299 up new ways of investigating systems of genetic (inter)dependence by borrowing tools from studying
300 intragenomic epistasis. Borrowing from research on epistasis is a natural step to advancing the field of
301 co-evolution because much of the study of co-evolution is already centred around interactions between
302 genes of interacting species. In this context, we encourage researchers to consider interacting species
303 with respect to intergenomic epistasis because its detection paves the way to explaining (co-)evolutionary
304 dynamics (e.g., Gupta et al., 2022; Kauffman and Johnsen, 1991) and advancing our understanding of
305 co-evolution.

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

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a) $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P) = f_0 + a_1\sigma_1 + a_2\sigma_2 + e_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2$ (within genome effects)

focal fitness $+ a_3\sigma_3 + a_4\sigma_4 + e_{34}\sigma_3\sigma_4$ (intergenomic epistasis)

$+ e_{13}\sigma_1\sigma_3 + e_{14}\sigma_1\sigma_4 + e_{23}\sigma_2\sigma_3 + e_{24}\sigma_2\sigma_4$ (intergenomic epistasis)

$+ e_{123}\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_3 + e_{124}\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_4 + e_{123}\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_3 + e_{234}\sigma_2\sigma_3\sigma_4$ (intergenomic epistasis)

$+ e_{1234}\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_3\sigma_4$ (intergenomic epistasis)

b)

additive effect $a_1\sigma_1$ ($\sigma_1 = 1, \sigma_2 = 1$)

intragenomic epistasis $e_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2$

partner additive effect $a_3\sigma_3$ ($\sigma_3 = 1, \sigma_4 = 0$)

within-partner epistasis $e_{34}\sigma_3\sigma_4$ ($\sigma_3 = 1, \sigma_4 = 1$)

pairwise intergenomic effect $e_{24}\sigma_2\sigma_4$ ($\sigma_1 = 0, \sigma_2 = 1$)

higher-order intergenomic effects $e_{124}\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_4, e_{1234}\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_3\sigma_4$ ($\sigma_1 = 1, \sigma_2 = 1$)

metagenome ($\sigma_3 = 1, \sigma_4 = 1$)

Figure 1: Visual representation of our mathematical definition of intergenomic epistasis in Box 1, 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 definition with all possible interaction terms between loci within and between genomes for two loci in both genomes of the species pair ($L_F = L_P = 2$), i.e. a total of four loci ($i = 1, 2, 3, 4$). 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 $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$, which do not involve any direct interactions between the two genomes (“within-genome effects”). Where the two boxes intersect, we find terms that contribute to the fitness of the focal species, f_F , independently of the focal genome. According to our definition, these terms, when non-zero, indicate intergenomic epistasis; however, one could alternatively (or additionally) classify these terms as indicators of genotype-by-environment interactions ($G \times E$), where the focal species’s fitness is altered by the biotic environment (which, here, is given by the partner genotype). **b)** is a visual representation of the types of interactions between loci that are encoded in a). Each panel represents a metagenome containing loci $i = 1, 2$ that are located in the focal genome (orange), and loci $i = 3, 4$ that are located in the partner genome (purple). Each locus 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 loci in the focal genome g_F (e.g., $a_1\sigma_1$, red arrow), or epistatic interactions between loci 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 loci can introduce intergenomic epistasis (e.g., $a_3\sigma_3$, red arrow); in the second panel we show interactions between two loci 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 loci across genomes (e.g., $e_{124}\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_4, e_{1234}\sigma_1\sigma_2\sigma_3\sigma_4$, purple arrows).

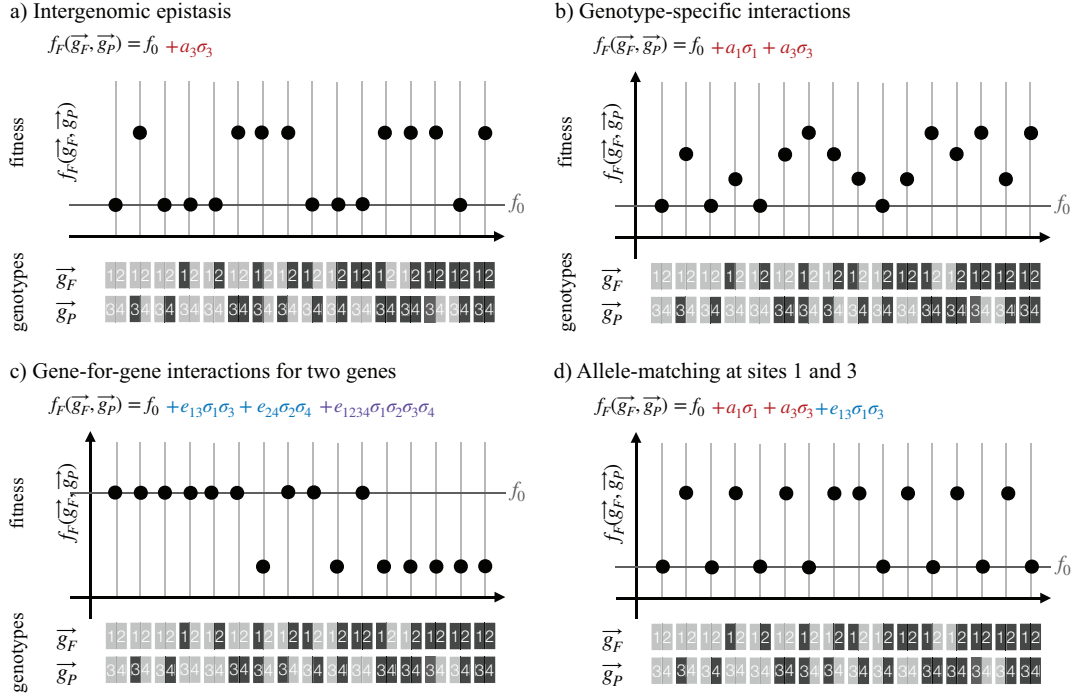


Figure 2: Illustration of potential fitness patterns when there is intergenic epistasis. Here, we show examples of how the fitness of a focal species $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$ could depend on the focal genotype (\vec{g}_F ; different genetic variants in light and dark grey) and its interactions with the genotype of a partner species (\vec{g}_P ; different genetic variants in light and dark grey), how these patterns are captured by our mathematical definition, and how we would categorise the interaction type according to the flowchart in Fig. 3. As in Fig. 1 we show four loci ($L = 2$ for two species), where loci $i = 1, 2$ are located in the focal genome and loci $i = 3, 4$ are located in the partner genome. In **a**), the focal species has increased fitness when the partner species carries a genetic variant at locus three ($\sigma_3 = 1$), which qualifies as intergenic epistasis. However, the genotype of the focal species, \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. Indeed, this is arguably a genotype-by-environment interaction, where the ($\sigma_3 = 1$) effectively changes the biotic environment for the focal species. In **b**), the fitness of the focal species depends on the combination of focal and partner genotypes. Since the focal species' fitness $f_F(g_F, g_P)$ depends on both g_F and the genotype it is paired with g_P , interactions are genotype-specific. Here, this interaction is mediated by one locus in each species ($i = 1, 3$). In **c**) and **d**), the 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.

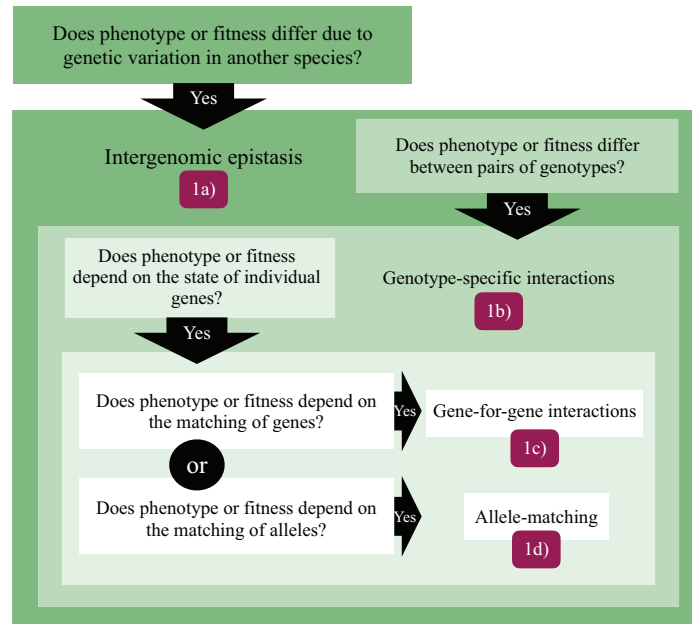


Figure 3: We propose intergenomic epistasis as a useful umbrella term for between-species genetic interactions that encompass different genetic mechanisms. Here, we subdivide types of genetic interactions according to their known specificity. We move from a general understanding of genetic interdependence between species to concrete and highly specific genetic interactions at the gene or allele level. We propose a mathematical definition elaborated in Box 1 to classify the types of genetic interactions according to this flowchart. Empirical application of this definition would require measuring a phenotype of interest or fitness across genotype combinations, followed by inference of additive and interaction terms. Purple boxes correspond to the panels in Fig. 2 that represent exemplary patterns of fitness expected for different interaction types.

Box 1: Formal mathematical definition of intergenomic epistasis

We define a mathematical model to describe the minimal conditions for intergenomic epistasis and to distinguish between different mechanisms of between-species genetic interactions. In the most general definition, consider a community of N species, $\vec{S} = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_N\}$. Each species S_k is represented by a genome of length L_{S_k} , where each genotype \vec{g}_{S_k} is a vector of L_{S_k} loci with m possible genetic variants from the set $A = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m\}$. For example, genetic variants could be considered binary ($m = 2$), encompass nucleotide variants ($m = 4$), amino-acid variants ($m=20$), structural or antigen variants (m as (large) integer, potentially depending on S_k), depending on the available data, study system, and research question. We express the fitness of a focal species S_k as a function of the genotypes 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 locus and interaction effects between loci within and between species. (Common empirical fitness measures or proxies of fitness are growth rate, lifetime reproductive success, or survival. Alternatively, we could measure a phenotype of interest, such as above-soil biomass of plants in a meadow community.) In the following, we describe the conditions for intergenomic epistasis in a two-species community with two loci and two genetic variants per locus per species.

Consider two species $\vec{S} = \{F, P\}$, representing a ‘‘Focal’’ and a ‘‘Partner’’ species, with $L_{tot} = L_F + L_P$ diallelic loci, where each locus i in the resulting **metagenome** is encoded by $\sigma_i \in \{0, 1\}$ to represent the absence (0) or presence (1) of a genetic variant. Loci $i \leq L_F$ correspond to loci in the genome of the focal species F , and loci $L_F < i \leq L_{tot}$ correspond to loci in the genome of the partner species P . We 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 \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 f_0 plus additive effects a_i of genetic variants at each locus i , pairwise epistatic terms e_{ij} between two loci i and j , for $i \neq j$, and higher-order epistatic terms $e_{ij\dots}$, for genetic interactions within and between genomes (see Fig. 1b). We present the resulting equations for $\vec{S} = \{F, P\}$, $L_F = L_P = 2$ in Fig. 1a. (The notation can be adapted to multiplicative effects when desired, e.g., in the context of discrete-time theoretical models.)

In the two-species community $\vec{S} = \{F, P\}$, we define the minimal conditions for (i) intergenomic epistasis and (ii) genotype-specific interactions, and the criteria for (iii) gene-for-gene interactions and

523 (iv) allele-matching. (i) The minimal condition for intergenomic epistasis in our model is met when the
524 focal fitness $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$ depends on at least one interaction term that involves a locus in the partner
525 genome ($i > L_F$; see grey box in Fig. 1). This includes all pairwise or higher-order interactions between
526 genomes, additive effects at loci in the partner genome (a_i for $i > L_F$), and genetic interactions within
527 the partner genome (e.g., e_{ij} for $i, j > L_F$; “within partner epistasis”). Thus, according to our definition,
528 intergenomic epistasis can be caused by a single (additive) genetic variant in the partner genome and
529 does not require reciprocal genetic interactions between genomes (see Fig. 2a). Essentially, such additive
530 effects at loci in the partner genome (a_i for $i > L_F$) correspond to genotype-by-environment interactions,
531 where the environment is represented by the genotype(s) of the partner species. Notably, the assessment
532 of intergenomic epistasis in our model is specific to the focal species.

533 Following the flowchart in Fig. 3, the minimal conditions for genotype-specific interactions are
534 satisfied when the focal fitness $f_F(\vec{g}_F, \vec{g}_P)$ depends on at least one interaction term that involves a
535 locus in the partner genome and at least one locus in the focal genome. This can mean two separate
536 interaction terms (e.g., a_i and a_j for $i \leq L_F, j > L_F$; see Fig. 2b), or a single interaction term
537 describing pairwise or higher-order epistatic interactions between loci in both genomes (e.g., e_{ij} for
538 $i \leq L_F, j > L_F$). Gene-for-gene interactions require pairwise epistatic interactions between loci in both
539 species (the “matching” mechanism) and higher-order epistatic effects masking the effects of multiple
540 resistance genes due to the qualitative nature of gene-for-gene resistance mechanisms (Thrall et al., 2016)
541 (see Fig. 2c). Finally, allele-matching requires additive effects in the focal and the partner species for
542 alleles conferring resistance, and pairwise epistatic interactions between the loci of both genomes to
543 “match” the alleles (see Fig. 2d).

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

545 Originally, epistasis was described by Bateson (1909) as the suppression of an allelic phenotype by an
546 allele at another locus. However, epistasis has a long history of being used to describe various phenomena
547 (e.g., reviewed in Domingo et al., 2019; Lehner, 2011; Phillips, 2008). Some of these definitions of epistasis
548 are focused on molecular interactions of gene products (e.g., functional epistasis (Phillips, 2008)), whereas
549 other definitions are statistical in nature (e.g., in the context of fitness landscapes (e.g., Fragata et al.,
550 2019) or population genetics (Lehner, 2011; Phillips, 2008)). Here, we use epistasis in its statistical

551 sense to describe interactions between genetic variants that lead to non-additive effects on a phenotype
552 or fitness. This statistical definition, originally proposed by Fisher (1919), measures epistasis as the
553 deviation from the additive combination of two genetic variants in their effect on a phenotype or fitness.

554 Although intergenomic epistasis is conceptualised here as a statistical relationship, mechanistic definitions
555 of epistasis, such as the above-mentioned functional epistasis, can be satisfied as well. For example, in a
556 system in which the interaction between a pathogen and its host is mediated by pattern-recognition-receptors
557 (e.g., in gene-for-gene interactions), changes in the receptor's binding affinity affect the outcome of
558 the pathogen's host invasion, essentially displaying functional intergenomic epistasis (see Dodds and
559 Rathjen, 2010; Kaur et al., 2021; Märkle et al., 2022 for reviews on the molecular basis of plant-pathogen
560 interactions). Defining intergenomic epistasis primarily as a statistical relationship rather than a mechanistic
561 one encompasses the effects of many types of genetic interactions mediated by single proteins or more
562 complex phenotypes.

563 **Box 3: Applications of intergenomic epistasis**

564 Usually, epistasis refers to interactions between genetic variants in the same genome. However, the term
565 intergenomic epistasis was coined to describe interactions between genetic variants in different genomes.
566 This concept has been applied to study genomic interactions at different levels, from within to between
567 individuals, and between individuals of the same or different species. Intergenomic epistasis within an
568 individual has been used to describe interactions between mitochondrial and nuclear DNA (e.g., Dowling
569 et al., 2007; Immonen et al., 2020) and hybrid incompatibilities (e.g., Woods et al., 2009). Intergenomic
570 epistasis between individuals has been described in socially interacting individuals of the same species,
571 such as ants, where the interactions between genotypes can affect brood development (e.g., Linksvayer,
572 2007; Piekarski et al., 2023; Teseo et al., 2014), or in ecologically interacting individuals of different
573 species, as discussed in this paper.

Allele-matching	an interaction type where, if a parasite's alleles match the alleles of its host, infection is successful. This is a qualitative resistance mechanism that either results in complete resistance or full susceptibility based on the pairing of genetic variants between focal and partner species.
Avirulence genes	genes in pathogens that encode proteins which bind to receptors in the host, encoded by corresponding resistance genes, which allow the host to recognise the infection and defend itself against the pathogen.
Co-evolution	selective pressures in two species leading to reciprocal evolutionary changes.
Community genetics	a research field concerned with the genetic processes between and among co-evolving species in an ecological community.
Extended phenotype	the phenotypic effects of genes outside of the individual they are expressed in, i.e. effects on the environment, other individuals of the same species, or individuals from other species.
Gene-for-gene interactions	an interaction type where, if a resistance gene in the host matches a corresponding avirulence gene in the pathogen, the pathogen is recognised by the host and infection is unsuccessful.
Genotype-specific interactions	an interaction type where different pairs of interacting genotypes produce different phenotypes or fitness. This interaction type is sometimes also referred to as genotype-by-genotype interactions.
Indirect Genetic Effects	the effects on a phenotype in a focal individual caused by genes that are expressed in another individual; usually applied to interactions between individuals of the same species.
Intergenomic epistasis	genetic interactions between genes in different genomes; here we use intergenomic epistasis in the context of genetic interactions between ecologically interacting species - for other applications of the term, see Box 3.

Intragenomic epistasis	genetic interactions between genes in the same genome and individual; this is the classic application of the term epistasis (see Box 2 for definitions of epistasis).
Metagenome	in our mathematical model, we treat the genomes of all interacting species in a community as a single genome (thus a metagenome) to facilitate the description of the genetic interactions between genetic variants of different species.
Negative frequency-dependent selection	when genotypes at low frequencies are at a selective advantage, and genotypes at high frequencies are at a selective disadvantage.
Red Queen Dynamics	evolutionary dynamics in a species pair, where each adaptation in the focal species is matched by a counteracting adaptation in the partner species, resulting in continual evolutionary change, where the average relative fitnesses of the interacting species remain approximately constant.

Table 1