

Nectar-living yeasts of a tropical host-plant community: diversity and effects on community-wide floral nectar traits

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We characterize the diversity of nectar-living yeasts and measure the associations between yeasts and nectariferous plants and the effect of yeasts on nectar traits in a tropical environment. Using a series of hierarchically nested sampling units, we extracted nectar from an assemblage of host plants representative of the diversity of life forms, flower shapes, and pollinator types occurring in the tropical area of Yucatan-Mexico. Yeasts were isolated from single nectar samples and DNA-identified, yeast cell density in nectar was estimated, and sugar composition and concentration were quantified using HPLC. In contrast to previous studies from temperate region, diversity of nectar-living yeasts in the plant community was characterized by a relatively high number of equally-common species with low dominance. Analyses predict highly diverse nectar yeast communities in a relatively narrow range of tropical vegetation. Significant associations between specific yeast species and host plants were also detected and the impact of the interaction between yeasts and host plants on the effect of yeast cell density on nectar sugars was evident. This study provides an overall picture of the diversity of nectar-living yeasts in tropical host plants and suggests that a key factor affecting community-wide patterns of nectar traits is not nectar chemistry, but rather the kind of yeasts in interaction with host plants associated to flower visitors.

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13 **ABSTRACT**

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INTRODUCTION

Floral nectars are sugar-rich environments that frequently harbor distinctive microbial communities. Studies on microbial diversity conducted, among other, by Brysch-Herzberg (2004), Pozo, Herrera & Bazaga (2011), Álvarez-Pérez & Herrera (2013), Jacquemyn et al. (2013) and Mittelbach et al. (2015) have revealed that floral nectar is frequently colonized by specialized sugar-consumer yeasts in the Ascomycota and Basidiomycota, along with several bacterial groups. However, most of the studies addressing questions about nectar-living microorganisms have been conducted in temperate areas, resulting in a still-poor knowledge of nectar microbial diversity in tropical habitats. Only three preliminary assessments of the frequency of microbial-cell density in floral nectars in several tropical environments have been conducted so far (Herrera et al., 2009; Canto & Herrera, 2012; Belisle et al., 2014). Altogether, these earlier studies showed that the incidence of microorganisms in tropical nectars was higher than in temperate areas, and provided a glimpse of the high diversity harbored in tropical host plant communities. Diversity assessments in tropical nectars are still necessary to obtain a more complete view of microbial distribution linked to nectars across different environments and latitudes. Other aspect of the impact of nectar-microbial diversity is that microorganisms can account for a significant fraction of community-wide variance of nectar traits, since presence of yeast cells alters nectar sugar composition and concentration (the microbial imprint; Canto & Herrera, 2012). So far, the evidence indicates that differential yeast effect on nectars is associated with characteristics inherent to plant (type of nectar) and pollinator type. For example, pollinators are the main source of inocula for the initial establishment of microbial communities in nectars as they introduce their mouthparts into the nectaries in their search for nectar rewards (Canto et al., 2008). The initial assemblage of microorganisms colonizing a flower will therefore largely depend on the type of pollinator visiting host plants (Belisle, Peay & Fukami, 2012; de Vega & Herrera, 2013; Mittelbach et al., 2015). However, after initial colonization, the order of yeast species arrival to nectar and nectar features will strongly influence the growth of arriving microorganisms and allow some species thriving but not others, with the consequence that the resulting microbial community consists of a cluster of phylogenetically related species (Herrera et al., 2010, Peay, Belisle & Fukami, 2012; Vannette & Fukami, 2014). It has been therefore hypothesized that, in a given community of nectariferous plants, nonrandom plant-

microorganism associations can produce a mosaic of different qualities of floral nectars at the community level with potential effects on plant-pollinator interactions (Canto & Herrera 2012).

To characterize diversity of nectar-living microorganisms in a tropical environment and to gain insights on factors driving community-wide variance in nectar traits, we analyze in this paper the assemblage of yeast and yeast-like species (collectively termed ‘yeasts’ hereafter) occurring in floral nectars of tropical environments of the Yucatan Peninsula, Mexico. By isolating and identifying culturable yeasts from the floral nectar from many animal-pollinated plants species and individuals, quantifying their population densities in nectar, and estimating nectar sugar concentration and composition in the host plant nectar, we will specifically assess (1) how diverse is the community of nectar-living yeasts in a tropical environment, (2) the existence of predictable associations between nectar yeasts and host plants, and (3) the differential impact of yeasts on nectar sugar composition associated with different host plants. Yeast diversity is discussed in relation to the different nectars structuring the plant community sampled and the role of different host plants and types of yeasts as sources of associations between plants and yeasts, all of which will ultimately influence the plant-pollinator interactions. Our results predicts the existence of a relatively high diverse assemblage of nectar-living yeasts showing significant correspondence with the diversity of their host plants, as well as a significant impact of the interaction between yeasts and host plants in the effect that yeasts exert on floral nectars.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study area

Field sampling was conducted from September 2008 to November 2009 at 28 localities from an area of tropical vegetation (approx. 430 km²), located between Chuburna and Dzilam de Bravo towns and the Cuxtal Ecological Reserve in north-western Yucatan, Mexico. The study area includes coastal dune and adjacent dry forest environments, which elevation ranges between 1-10 m. Climate is semi-arid at the coastal dune strip and subtropical at the dry forest, with a mean temperature of 26 °C in both types and annual rainfall of 370 mm and 1077 mm, respectively. The vegetation is a low, open scrub dominated by xerophytes, halophyte herbs, thorny bushes, palms and 1-3 m treelets growing on sandy, nutrient-poor soils in the dune strip. The dry forest is made up of cacti, thorny shrubs and deciduous medium-height trees (3-8 m tall) growing on

limestone bedrock soil with a thick litter layer (Chan-Vermont, Rico-Gray & Flores, 2002; Canto & Herrera, 2012). Permission to collect in natural areas of Yucatan was granted by Secretaría del Medio Ambiente y Recursos Naturales, Delegación Yucatán-Subsecretaría de Gestion para la Protección Ambiental: Dirección General de Vida Silvestre (oficio 00837/09).

Sampling method

To provide an overall picture of the diversity of nectar-living yeasts in floral nectars of the studied area, nectar samples were obtained from an assemblage of 18 host plant species belonging to 14 genera and 10 botanical families (Table 1), representing the diversity of life forms, flower shapes, pollinator types and taxonomic categories occurring in the area. Plant species were individually sampled in their respective flowering peak, trying to include as possible main all flowering periods occurring during the year. At each locality a single plant species was sampled (usually only one plant species was flowering in each place at the time of nectar collection), except for species from coastal dune environments where nectar collection was done at several sites and times. We adopted a five-tiered series of hierarchically nested sampling units for nectar collection, namely nectar samples or drops (Drop), individual plants (Individual), plant species (Species), plant genus (Genus), and botanical family (Family). Individual plants for nectar collection were chosen at random from the assemblage of individuals growing at the respective locality and the criteria used for collecting nectar samples in each individual plant was that flowers were approximately the same age, not wilting, but already open at the time of collection in the field. This allowed that flowers were exposed to prior pollinator visitation and the nectar therefore susceptible to have been colonized by yeasts. Three single nectar samples (drops) were extracted from each flower using sterile microcapillary tubes with calibrated scale of volume (Drummond®). The volume of nectar drops ranged from < 0.50 to 1 µL. Flowers used in the sampling were fully open at the time of nectar collection. Three to six flowers were individually sampled from each plant and 6-10 individual plants were surveyed by plant species. Of the three of nectar drops obtained from each flower, one was used for DNA-based identification of yeasts, another for quantification of yeast cell density and the other to estimate the sugar composition and concentration, using in each case methods described below (see Appendix for further details in the numbers of nectar drops used in each method).

Yeast isolation and DNA-identification

The respective nectar drops were individually streaked onto YM agar plates (1.0 % glucose, 0.5 % peptone, 0.3 % malt extract, 0.3 % yeast extract, 2.0 % agar) with 0.01 % chloramphenicol, and incubated at 25 °C until microbial colonies were detectable (2-20 days). From 439 nectar drops plated, a total of 158 colonies (approximately 1-5 colonies grew per agar plate) were resulted. Colonies were observed at 10x-40x magnification under a microscope (Olympus CX31) and phenotypically different colonies were purified by streak-plating. A single clone (an entire colony) of each purified morphotype was used for species identification. As much as possible, all colonies produced by nectar drop were DNA-sequenced. The large-subunit (26S) ribosomal DNA gene (D1/D2 region) was two-way sequenced for each clone using the primer combination NL1-NL4, according to Kurtzman & Robnett (1998) and Lachance et al. (1999). Raw sequences were edited, assembled and consensus sequences were obtained using Geneious Pro 8.1.7 bioinformatics software (Biomatters Ltd, Auckland, New Zealand). Nucleotide collection databases at GenBank were queried with the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST; Altschul et al., 1997) to look for named yeast species with DNA sequences matching those obtained for the isolates. All sequences queried yielded significant correlations with named yeast accessions in GenBank databases, generally at 98-100 % of sequence coverage and identity. Resulting DNA-species and the associated sampling information (Drop, Individual, Species, Genus and Botanical family) was used in the analyses of yeast diversity. The yeasts studied are maintained in the Centro de Investigación Científica de Yucatán (CICY) and their corresponding DNA sequences have been deposited in GeneBank under the accessions listed in Table 1.

Cell counts and nectar sugar composition and concentration

The density of yeast cells was estimated in the respective nectar drop using a Neubauer chamber and standard cell count procedures (Herrera et al., 2009). To do this, the initial volume of nectar drops was measured with calibrated micropipettes (Dafni 1992), then each nectar sample was diluted using a 0.5 % lactophenol cotton blue solution to obtain a final volume up to 1.5-6 times more than the initial volume. Each diluted sample was loaded on the counting chamber and examined under a microscope. Cells were counted in each of 16 quadrants of the counting chamber and cell density was calculated using the formula: cells per μL = average number of cells counted in the quadrants multiplied by the dilution factor and for the fixed volume of the chamber.

The sugar composition and concentration of nectar was measured following procedures described by Herrera et al. (2006) and Canto et al. (2011) and using ion-exchange high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). Samples of nectar selected were individually blotted onto a 10 mm x 12 mm sterile Whatman 3MM paper wick and immediately after absorption, were placed into sterile envelopes and stored at 25-26 °C in silica gel. For analytical procedure, nectar-containing wicks were individually placed into Eppendorf tubes and 1 mL of HPLC-grade water was added to each one. Each diluted sample was filtered using a 0.4 µm polyvinylidenedifluoride (PVDF) filter and 5 µL of that solution injected into a Dionex DX 500 HPLC system (Dionex, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). The HPLC system was equipped with an effluent degas module, a GP 40 gradient pump, a CarboPac PA10 (4 mm x 50 mm) guard column and a CarboPac PA10 (4 mm x 250 mm) analytical column. It also had an ED40 electrochemical detector for pulsed amperometric detection in integrated amperometric mode, with the normal preloaded wave form for sugar detection (Dionex Corp., 1994). The column was eluted (flow rate 1 mL min⁻¹) isocratically with 40 mM NaOH (50 % solution; J.T. Baker, Deventer, The Netherlands) and kept at 24 °C during analysis. The concentrations of sucrose, glucose and fructose in each nectar sample (g of solute per 100 mL solution) were calculated by integrating the area under the corresponding chromatogram peaks, then using linear regression models fitted to the data of standard sugar-solutions, and then calculating the expected values of concentration corresponding with the integrated area of each type of sugar contained in the analyzed samples. Two independent HPLC measurements were done on each diluted sample, and replicate results averaged for the analyses.

Data analysis

In order to characterize the species diversity of nectar yeasts and to compare diversity estimates across the different hierarchical sampling levels considered (i.e., Drop, Individual, Species, Genus, Family), the analytical framework suggested by Chao et al. (2014) was performed with the R package iNEXT (Hsieh, Ma & Chao, 2016). This method generalizes the sample-size-based approach of Colwell et al. (2012) and the coverage-based approach of Chao & Jost (2012) to produce and expand rarefaction-extrapolation curves of species based on Hill numbers (Hill, 1973). Hill numbers are a mathematically unified family of diversity indices, differing among themselves only by an exponent q . These indices provide a suitable framework for measuring

diversity because (1) they are expressed in units of effective numbers of species, (2) by using algebraic transformation, they are easily associated to key diversity indexes such as Shannon entropy and Gini-Simpson index, and (3) their estimations can be effectively generalized to incorporate hierarchical levels of diversity in a species assemblage (Chao et al., 2014). For each sampling level (Drop, Individual, Species, Genus, and Family), an incidence matrix was built up by recording the presence-absence across sampling units of each of the 158 DNA-species identified. The first three Hill numbers (Hill, 1973), which are associated to estimators of species richness and species dominance, were calculated for each level and their corresponding rarefaction and extrapolation curves were constructed. The first Hill number ($q = 0$) used in the analysis estimates the expected yeast-species richness (number of species) in the assemblage of nectar host plants. The second Hill number ($q = 1$) is the exponential of Shannon entropy index and estimates yeast diversity with respect to equally-common species and species richness (Shannon diversity). The third Hill number ($q = 2$) is the inverse Simpson concentration index and measures the dominance of yeast species in the species assemblage (Simpson diversity); see Hill (1973) for further details of Hill numbers. To compare among hierarchical sampling levels, rarefaction and extrapolation sample-size-based were produced for each level to provide asymptotic estimators of diversity based on Hill numbers with their respective 95 % confidence intervals constructed by a bootstrap method (Chao et al., 2014). One potential issue in our sampling is that it included many different plant species each with a relatively low replication. To account for this as far as possible, firstly, all yeast species that occurred only once were excluded from the analysis, as they were likely to be allochthonous; secondly, an analysis of sampling completeness was conducted to estimate the sample size needed to achieve that the proportion of undetected autochthonous species remains unchanged even when the sample size increases (Chao & Jost, 2012). To this end, a sample completeness curve was constructed by combining the sample-size-based and the coverage-based estimations. Extrapolations were extended up to double the initial sample size (i.e., 122 nectar samples) for all sampling levels, which allow us to make predictions about the yeast diversity that can be detected in each sampling level using a similar sampling effort. The number of nectar samples examined in each level was 122, 54, 17, 13, 10 for Drop, Individual, Species, Genus, and Family, respectively.

Correspondence analysis was conducted using the R package ca (Greenacre, Nemadic & Friendly, 2016) to obtain a statistical and graphical visualization of associations between nectar-

living yeasts and host plants. This analysis is a geometric technique for displaying the rows and the columns of a contingency table as points in a low-dimensional space such that the positions of the row and column points are consistent with their associations in the table. The analysis produces correspondence-dimensions based on the profiles (relative frequency of yeast taxa corresponding with the respective host plant), weighted average of profiles (centroid of the space representation), chi-square Euclidean-distances (proximity between points), and the total inertia (total contribution of yeast taxa and host plant to the between-taxa correspondence). For yeasts and host plants data, contingency tables were produced using yeast species as column variables and plant species as row variables. All singletons were excluded from the analysis. The first three dimensions obtained from the analysis were plotted to generate biplots representing correspondence between yeast and host plant taxa.

A power model with two categorical factors (Zahn, 2010) was proposed to test both, the association between the logarithm (+1) of yeast cell density and the logarithm of nectar sugars concentration in nectar samples and, the contribution of different types of yeasts and host plants after taking out the variance due to yeast cell density. This variable was set as causal variable and the sugar concentration as response variable. Different groups of yeasts (Yeast) and host plants species (Plant) were treated as co-factors in the model. Sample sizes in a number of combinations between yeast and host plants are less than five and yeast groups do not occur across all host plants, therefore in order to get a robust analysis, the Yeast was classified into five groups. Groups of yeast were *Metschnikowia*, *Papilotrema*, *Ustilago*, Other yeasts, and Without yeasts. The *Metschnikowia* group included to the close related *Metschnikowia ipomoeae*, *M. koreensis*, *M. lochheadii*, and *Metschnikowia* sp. Similarly, The *Papilotrema* included to *Cryptococcus laurentii* var. *laurentii*, *P. nemorosus*, and *P. rajasthanensis*, and The *Ustilago* group included *Ustilago sparsa* and *Ustilago* sp. The yeast species with very small sample size were included in the named Other yeasts group and the Without yeasts group, contained all cases that did not have yeast cells in nectar and not produce any microbial colony when plated. Given that data are structured as an incomplete design, an interaction term (Yeast x Plant) was added to test multiplicative effects of yeasts and host plants, rather than additive effects. A Type III approach for unbalanced data was used to calculate the sums of squares. The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) was applied to measure the goodness of fit of the power model taking into account the number of parameters included and to find the best model that fits the data with the

minimum number of parameters. Power regressions were calculated separately for sucrose, glucose, and fructose. In four cases, nectar samples produced more than one yeast species. In each of those cases, yeast identity assigned in the analysis was selected at random drawing from yeast species co-occurring in the respective case. Analyses were done with R software (R Development Core Team, 2016).

RESULTS

Yeast diversity

A total of 39 species of yeasts were identified, comprising 48 % Ascomycota and 52 % Basidiomycota (Table 1). The number of colonies produced by nectar drop is reported in the raw data file, the number of nectar drops by host plant species is reported in the Appendix. There was practically a single yeast species per nectar drop in all cases and only in four nectar samples occurred two or three different yeast species (see raw data). The most frequent ascomycetous yeasts were *Metschnikowia koreensis* ($n = 13$), *M. lochheadii* ($n = 11$), and *Kurtzmaniella cleridarum* ($n = 12$), and for basidiomycetous yeasts were *Ustilago* species ($n = 14$) *Cryptococcus laurentii* var. *laurentii* ($n = 12$), and *Sympodiomyces paphiopedili* ($n = 8$). Analysis of diversity predicts that the overall species richness of yeasts in the sampled nectar community (Hill number $q = 0$) was between 25-34 species, which was in the same order of magnitude as the number of equally-common species ($q = 1$, 22-34 species) or dominant species ($q = 2$, 19-33 species). Rarefaction and extrapolation curves were consistent in showing that there remained a number of unrecorded yeasts at Genus and Family sampling levels of the plant community surveyed. None of the three diversity estimates used reached an asymptote at those levels in the sampling hierarchy. At the Species level, species richness reached an asymptote at sample size doubling initial sampling effort, i.e., $n = 17$. Analyses also showed that the number of species harbored at Drop and Plant levels was nearly complete sampled since the three estimators of diversity reached an asymptote at approximately 100 and 50 sampling units, respectively. The maximum predicted species values were 25 for species richness ($q = 0$), and 22 for equally-common species ($q = 1$) and 19 for dominant species ($q = 2$). At all levels, estimation of the species richness is roughly comparable to the dominance.

Rarefaction and extrapolation curves also allow us to make two predictions of Hill numbers for equally-common species ($q = 1$) and dominance ($q = 2$) of yeasts in the host plant community. In the first scenario, Drop and Individual sampling categories for nectar collection reach an asymptote and harbor relatively low yeast diversity. In the second, Species, Genus and Family categories do not reach an asymptote; even when extrapolations double initial sample size and they keep relatively high, unrecorded yeast diversity. These last categories have the highest predicted diversity of yeasts (Fig. 1, $q = 0$, $q = 1$, $q = 2$). Completeness curves show that sample completeness was nearly achieved at the Drop and Individual levels (1 and 0.99 respectively) with the current sample size. At Species level sampled completeness was close to one (0.89) and at higher-order levels, the maximum sample completeness was 0.76 and 0.65 for Genus and Family respectively (Fig. 1, sampling completeness).

Yeast-plant association

Correspondence analysis revealed a significant number of associations between yeasts and host plants (Fig. 2). The most extreme correspondence was observed between *K. cleridarum* with *Opuntia dillenii*. The other closest associations were *Starmerella* sp. and *Metschnikowia ipomoeae* corresponding to the host plant *Ipomoea crinicalyx*, *Clavispora lusitaniae* with *Agave angustifolia*, and *M. koreensis* with *Tecoma stans*. Looser associations were *Candida sorbosivorans* with *Passiflora foetida*, *Metschnikowia* sp. with *Lonchocarpus longistylus*, *Sporidiobolus ruineniae* with *Merremia dissecta*, *Papilotrema flavescens* with *Bravaisia berlandieriana*, and *Kwoniella mangrovensis* with *Operculina pinnatifida*. The weakest associations were observed between two groups of species, including *Saitozyma flava*, *Ustilago sparsa*, and *Ustilago* sp. with *Ipomoea hederifolia* and *Ipomoea triloba*, and *Vishniacozyma taibaiensis*, and *Naganishia liquefaciens* with *Piscidia piscipula* (Fig. 2).

Yeast effects on nectar sugars

Nectar samples containing yeasts have lower average concentration of sucrose, glucose, and fructose than which nectar samples not containing yeasts, irrespectively of the yeast species and host plant (Table 2). In general, significant regressions were found between yeast-cell density and nectar sugar concentration. The concentrations of sucrose, glucose and fructose decreased with increasing density of yeast cells (Fig. 3). Different yeasts groups (Yeast) showed no

different impacts on the concentration of nectar sugars (Table 3). In contrast, different plant species (Plant) tend to show different impacts on the concentration of nectar sugars after taking out the overlap variance of yeast cell density (Table 3). For instance, nectar samples of *P. foetida* had the highest concentration of glucose ($8.4 \text{ g} \times 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$) and fructose ($8.8 \text{ g} \times 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$) while samples of *O. pinnatifida* showed consistently the lowest concentration in both sugars (0.1 and $0.2 \text{ g} \times 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ for glucose and fructose respectively). For sucrose concentration, nectar samples of *L. longistylus* showed the highest concentration ($17.5 \text{ g} \times 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$) and samples of *Gymnopodium floribundum* the lowest ($0.06 \text{ g} \times 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$). However, the AIC reveals that the multiplicative impact of the interaction between Yeast and Plant was more important to the regression model than the additive effect of each factor (Table 3). The best power model that fits the data is one that includes the yeast cell density as predictor of nectar sugar concentration and a multiplicative effect of the interaction between yeasts and host plant species (Table 3). To illustrate the interaction between Yeast and Plant factors and its impact on nectar sugar concentration along with the overlap effect of yeast cell density, scatter plots for representative yeast species and their respective host plant species are showed (Fig. 4).

DISCUSSION

No other studies on nectar-living yeasts have been conducted in tropical nectariferous plants so far, excepting Herrera et al. (2009) and Canto & Herrera (2012), where frequency of yeasts in floral nectar samples was assessed in three regions, two at Southern Spain and one in Southern Mexico. Diversity of nectar yeasts, however, was not explicitly addressed in these two previous studies, although their results suggest differences between temperate and tropical regions. Another similar study was conducted by Mittelbach et al. (2015) in a subtropical environment of the Canary Islands. We will first discuss diversity patterns found in the present study and then compare them with previous findings. Then we will discuss on the association between yeast species and host plants and on the implications of differential yeast effects on nectar sugars.

Yeast diversity

Our results indicate that the assemblage of yeasts in the plant community surveyed was made up of a relatively high number of species at the highest sampling levels (plant genera and botanical families), along with a substantial number of equally-common species and relatively low species

dominance at all sampling levels considered. Low dominance in the assemblage is pointing a bias inherent in the diversity estimates due to under-sampling at higher sampling levels and oversampling at lower levels (Chao & Jost, 2015). This tropical plant community harbored a higher diversity of nectar yeasts than our sampling design was able to detect. While the expected yeast diversity at the drop- and individual-based levels was acceptably estimated with the sample size set in this study, the analysis predicts that diversity remarkably increased at higher levels in the sampling hierarchy. Reducing the number of nectar drops replicates per plant, as well as the number of individual plants per species, while increasing the number of plant species by genera and families, will probably achieve a more encompassing picture of diversity of nectar-living yeasts in the tropical plant assemblage studied.

One frequent diversity patterns of animal and plant diversity is the latitudinal gradient of species richness (Pianka, 1966; Hillebrand, 2004). Although latitudinal clines in species richness are discernible in several groups of marine bacterioplankton and phytoplankton microorganisms (e.g. Fuhrman et al., 2008; Schattenuhofer et al., 2009; Barton et al., 2010), these clines for microbial diversity have been less studied, in particular for diversity associated to tropical floral nectars. Although more studies are necessary, our results along with those of the other studies reveal a possible tendency of lower latitudes to support more nectar-living yeast species than which higher latitudes. For example, in temperate communities, Herzberg, Fischer & Titze (2002) studied microfungal diversity in the nectars of native plants of Germany, reporting a species richness of 20 yeasts in a total of 25 different plant species. Pozo, Herrera & Bazaga (2011) found 12 yeast taxa in 24 plant species in Southern Spain, later Álvarez-Pérez & Herrera (2013) in a large plant assemblage from Southern Spain found 20 yeasts in nectar of 30 plant species. Most recently, Mittelbach et al. (2015) reported nectar fungal diversity from a subtropical plant community in the Canary Islands. A total of 34 yeasts species were found in 8 native plant species. Belisle et al. (2014) reported 38 microfungi species, associated to mouthparts of 21 hummingbirds and 6 bats species of Costa Rica. In this work, corresponding to a tropical environment, 18 nectariferous plants were surveyed, finding a total of 39 yeast taxa. Yeast species richness seems therefore to steadily decrease from tropical community of Yucatan and subtropical community in the Canary Islands to temperate plant communities of Southern Spain and Germany.

357 *Yeast-plant associations*

358 The diversity of nectar-living yeasts in our sample was also shaped by associations between
 359 yeast, host plants and flower visitors. This pattern creates a mosaic of nectar-environments at
 360 community level where habitat features are filters that influence the probability that the taxa with
 361 their specified traits are able to join and persist as members of a local community (Soininen,
 362 2012; Hillebrand & Blenckner, 2002). According to our results and previous evidence (e.g.,
 363 Lachance et al., 2001; Lachance et al., 2008; Lachance et al., 2016), two kinds of non-exclusive
 364 filters may have an effect on nectar-yeast interactions. First, floral nectar may act as a yeast
 365 community filter owing to its physicochemical and nutritional factors such as availability of
 366 nutrients, water activity and presence of yeast limiting/enhancing solutes, which altogether can
 367 lead to physiological specialization in nectar-living yeasts (Lievens et al., 2015). Our results
 368 show the existence of frequent yeast and host plant correspondences, which is compatible with
 369 the existence of nectar filters that ‘sieve’ yeasts arriving to nectar and drive yeast distribution
 370 across host plants. However, experimental evidence culturing yeasts under different nectar
 371 environments are necessary in order to test the existence of this kind of filter. Second, flower
 372 visitors can be also seen as ecological filter as they show particular associations with yeasts.
 373 Different plant species have different pollinators that can transport different yeast species to
 374 floral nectars. In a preliminary nectar-yeast assessment from South African plants, de Vega,
 375 Herrera & Johnson (2009) observed that differences among plant species in yeast incidence were
 376 related to variations in pollinator types. Mittelbach et al. (2015) also found that differences in
 377 pollinator types partly explained variation in nectar yeast composition between the Canary
 378 Islands plants. Pollinators of plants sampled for this study included solitary bees, stingless bees,
 379 hummingbirds, beetles, and bats. It thus seems reasonable to postulate that these different groups
 380 will carry different yeast species, and the closest yeast-plant correspondences are also resulted
 381 from particular flower visitors carrying particular yeasts to flowers. For example,
 382 correspondence between *K. cleridarum* and the cactus *O. dillenii* is explained by the association
 383 of this yeast with beetles of genus *Carpophilus*, which arrive to cactus flowers to feed on nectar
 384 and pollen and release yeast cells to this environment (Lachance & Starmer, 2008).
 385 Correspondence showed by *Starmerella* sp. and *M. ipomoeae* with *I. criniticalyx* denote that the
 386 flower visitors are bees and nitidulid beetles (Rosa et al., 2003; Lachance et al., 2001). The
 387 strong association of *M. ipomoeae* and *M. lochheadii* with *Ipomoea* species is resulted from the

association of these yeasts with *Conotelus* beetles (Lachance et al., 2001). In contrast, looser yeast-plant correspondences involved mostly basidiomycetous yeasts (except *C. sorbosivorans*) that have been isolated in non-flower, non-nectar substrates and probably arrive to nectar through accidental contamination or air dispersal (Lachance et al., 2001; Valério, Gadanho & Sampaio, 2002; Fell & Tallman, 1980; Yang et al., 2010). Additionally, plant-yeast species correspondences mostly involved ascomycetous yeasts. In fact, ascomycetous yeasts showing correspondence with plants all belong to the same class Saccharomycetes (subphylum Saccharomycotina), while basidiomycetous taxa isolated from nectar belong to several classes such as Tremellomycetes, Ustilaginomycetes, Microbotryomycetes, and Hyphomycetes (subphyla Agaricomycotina, Pucciniomycotina, and Ustilaginomycotina).

Yeast effects on nectar

Our results show that the overall effect of yeast cell density on nectar sugars generally involves changes in the composition of nectar sugars that denote not only a chemical signature of yeast metabolism, but also a nectar quality-impoverishment, since sugar concentration decreases with increasing yeast cell density. This phenomenon has been previously reported by Herrera, García & Pérez (2008) and de Vega & Herrera (2013). By reducing the nutritional value of nectar, foraging behavior of pollinators is affected and nectar-living yeasts become a factor that drives plant-pollinator interactions (Herrera, Pozo & Medrano, 2013; see also Vannette, Gauthier & Fukami, 2013; Good et al., 2014; Schaeffer & Irwin, 2014). Although more data from additional tropical communities are needed, it is reasonable to expect that nectar-living yeasts will have ecologically significant implications in plant-pollinator interactions at the community level because of their effects on community-wide floral nectar traits and foraging behavior of flower visitors. Results in this study also show that nectar alteration by yeasts is not a rare phenomenon in the community of host plants surveyed and probably, is more frequent in tropical plant communities than currently acknowledged.

Yeast cell density and the interaction between different yeast groups and host plants account for the majority of the variance observed in nectar sugars concentration in this study. Although different yeast groups were found to have no different impacts on nectar traits, their interaction with host plants impacted on nectar sugars concentration. One explanation is that initial sugar concentration of nectar depends on the variance inherent to plant species in their nectar secretion.

Nectar-living yeasts can match or mismatch with traits of initial nectar (e.g. because of physiologic requirements of yeasts), therefore, different types of yeasts will differ in their ability to grow in different nectars of different plants (Herrera, Pozo & Bazaga, 2014). Moreover floral nectars frequently contain plant metabolites that prevent for yeast degradation of nectar (Adler, 2000; Thornburg et al., 2003; Herrera et al., 2010; Heil, 2011; Nepi, 2012). The final result is that some types (or species) of yeast will occur in some specific host plants but will not occur in others. That pattern was observed across host plants in this study. For example, *Metschnikowia* group occur in *I. crinicalyx*, *O. pinnatifida* and *T. stant* but it did not occur in the rest of the host plants. Similarly, *Papilotrema* group occurred only in *I. hederifolia*, *M. aegyptia*, *M. dissecta* and *O. pinnatifida*, and *Ustilago* group occurred only in *I. hederifolia*, *I. nil*, *I. triloba*, and *M. dissecta*.

The observed diversity of nectar-living yeasts in the assemblage of host plants surveyed most likely represent only a small portion of actual species numbers occurring in floral nectar in the area, suggesting that tropical communities of nectars harbor an impressive, so far undiscovered diversity of yeast taxa associated to flower-nectar environments. The diversity of this type of yeasts is not only characterized by an important number of equally-common species with low dominance, but also by significant species correspondences between yeasts and nectariferous plants. Finally, the impact that the interaction between different types of yeasts and nectariferous plants exert on nectar sugars observed in this study, suggest for the existence of a nectar filtering process that sieves the initial assemblage of yeast species arriving to nectar from pollinators mouthparts, thus opening the opportunity to yeast specialization.

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Figure 1

Diversity of tropical nectar-living yeasts

Diversity of nectar-living yeasts at the different hierarchically nested sampling levels used in nectar collection: nectar drops (Drop), individual plants (Individual), plant species (Species), plant genus (Genus), and botanical family (Family). Plots show (A) species richness (Hill number for $q = 0$), (B) equally-abundant species ($q = 1$), (C) dominance ($q = 2$), and (D) sample completeness curve. Diversity curves were constructed using rarefied (solid lines) and extrapolated nectar samples (dashed lines) with sample-size-based (left panels) estimations. Each curve was extrapolated up to double the base reference sample size. Observed reference size for each category curve is denoted by a different symbol. The 95 % confidence intervals (color-shaded regions) were obtained by a bootstrap method based on 200 replications.

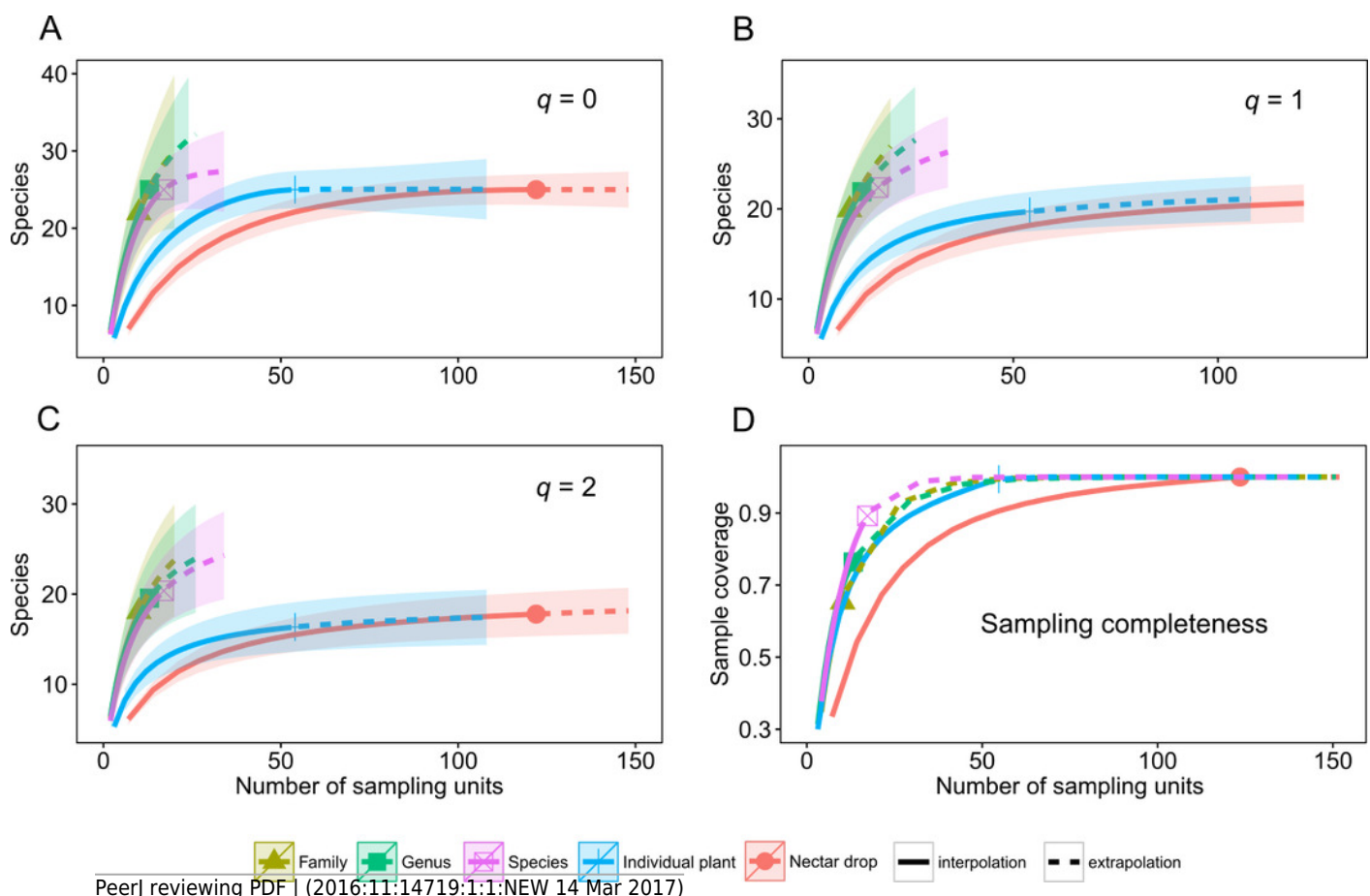


Figure 2

Correspondence analysis for nectar-living yeasts

Correspondence analysis for yeasts isolated from floral nectar samples. Plots show the associations between yeasts and host plants. Yeasts are depicted by filled triangles and letters and Host plants by filled circles and numbers. Distances among points depict the similarity between members of the same yeast group or of the same plant group. Whiting dashed-line ellipses indicate significant ($p < 0.05$) correspondences between yeasts and host plants. Percentage of contribution of each dimension to total variation is shown in parenthesis in the respective dimension. The points depicting the extreme correspondence of *Kurtzmaniella cleridarum* with *Opuntia dillenii* were extracted from the graphic analysis so that the remained correspondences are better observed. Yeasts: (a) *Starmerella* sp., (b) *Wickerhamiella occidentalis*, (c) *Candida sorbosivorans*, (e) *Clavispora lusitaniae*, (f) *Metschnikowia ipomoeae*, (g) *Metschnikowia lochheadii* (h) *Metschnikowia* sp., (i) *Metschnikowia koreensis*, (k) *Vishniacozyma taibaiensis*, (l) *Saitozyma flava* (m) *Cryptococcus* sp.1, (n) *Cryptococcus laurentii* var. *laurentii*, (o) *Papilotrema flavescens*, (p) *Cryptococcus* sp.2, (q) *Naganishia liquefaciens*, (r) *Hannaella siamensis*, (s) *Kwoniella mangrovensis*, (t) *Rhodotorula paludigena*, (u) *Sporidiobolus ruineniae*, (v) *Sympodiomyopsis paphiopedili*, (w) *Ustilago sparsa*, (x) *Ustilago* sp. Host plants: (1) *Agave angustifolia*, (2) *Bravaisia berlandieriana*, (3) *Gymnopodium floribundum*, (4) *Ipomoea crinicalyx*, (5) *Ipomoea hederifolia*, (6) *Ipomoea nil*, (7) *Ipomoea triloba*, (8) *Lonchocarpus longistylus*, (9) *Merremia dissecta*, (10) *Operculina pinnatifida*, (12) *Passiflora foetida*, (13) *Piscidia piscipula*, (14) *Tecoma stans*.

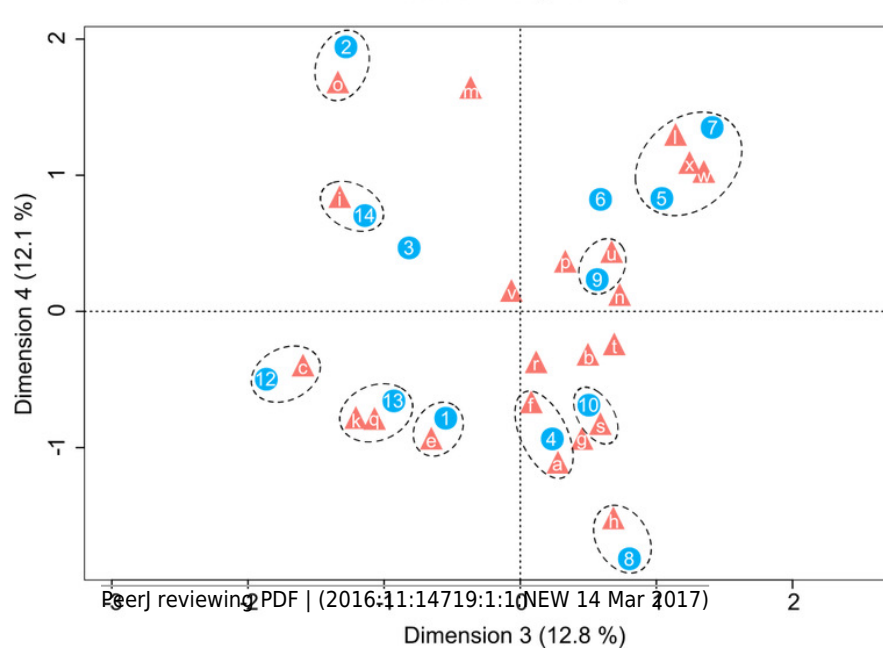
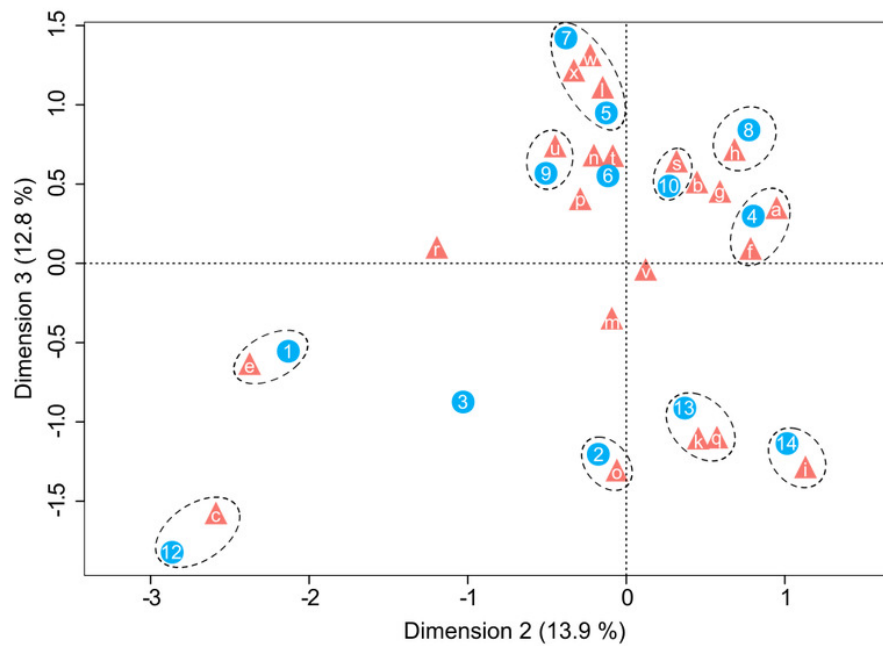
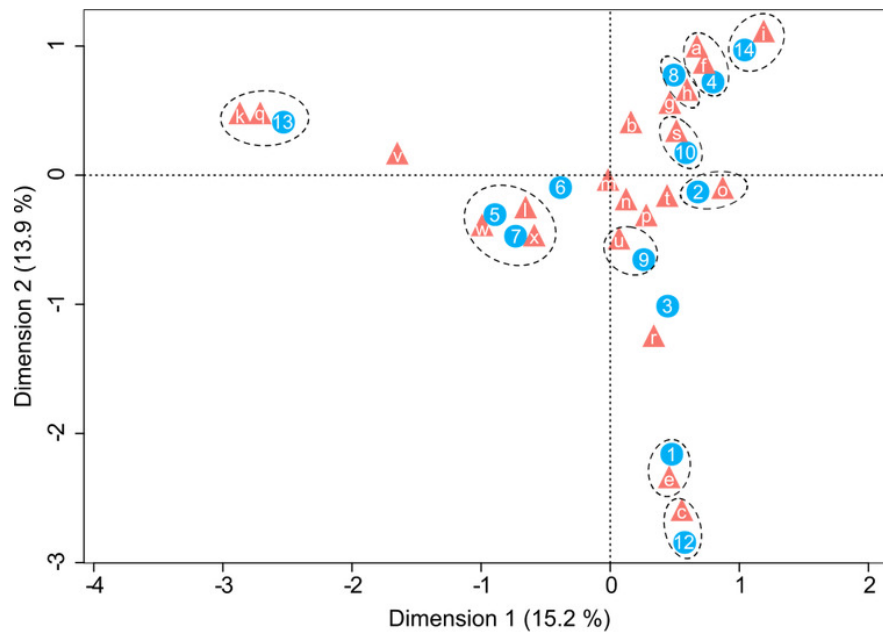


Figure 3

The relationship between nectar sugars and yeast cell density.

Overall power regression between yeast cell density and the concentration of three nectar sugars: (A) sucrose, (B) glucose and (C) fructose). Models are shown in each panel along with their statistical significance. The percentages of variance of each sugar explained by each model (adjusted R^2) are 10 %, 30 %, and 36 % for sucrose, glucose, and fructose, respectively.

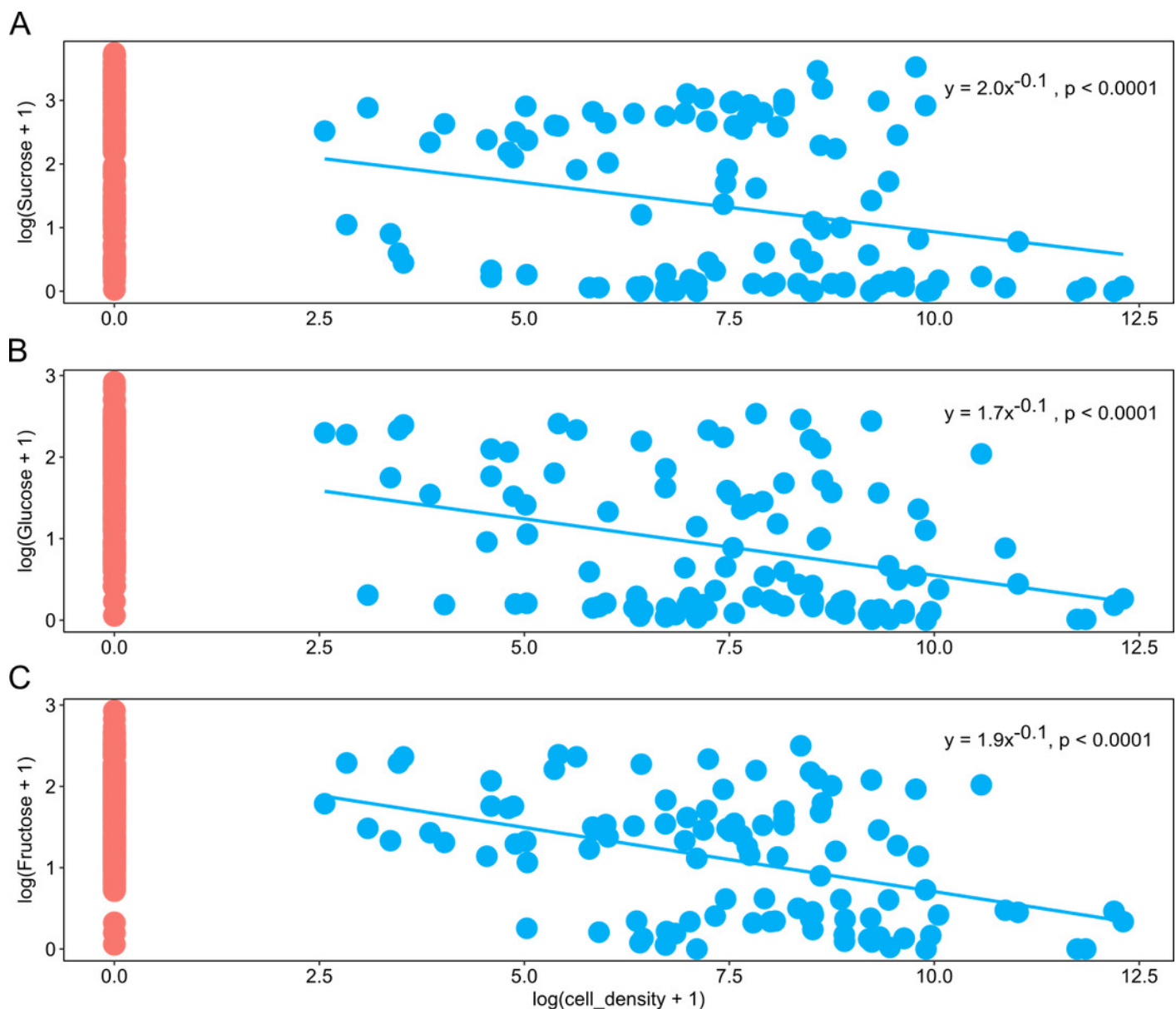


Figure 4

Differential effects of nectar-living yeasts.

The effect of the interaction of different types of yeasts and host plants on the relationship between yeast cell density and the concentration of sugar in nectar samples. Data are shown only for fructose concentration in nectar of (A) *Ipomoea crinicalyx*, (B) *Ipomoea hederifolia*, (C) *Ipomoea nil*, (D) *Ipomoea triloba*, (E) *Merremia aegyptia*, (F) *Merremia dissecta*, (G) *Operculina pinnatifida*, (H) *Opuntia dillenii*, and (I) *Tecoma stans*. Not all yeasts are distributed in all host plants, some yeasts seem to be specific to some plants.

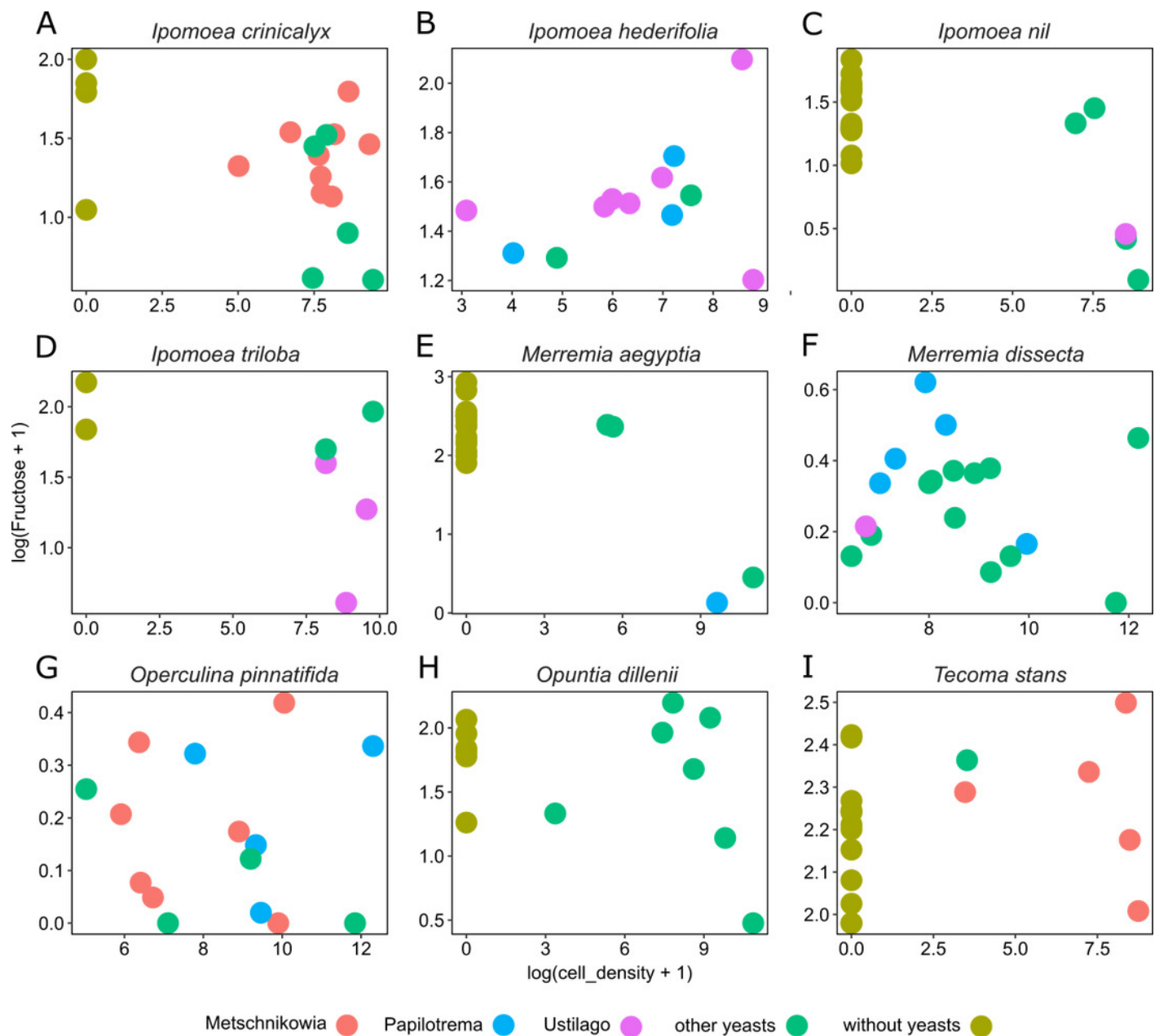


Table 1(on next page)

Nectar-living yeasts obtained from floral nectar of tropical plants

Yeast species isolated from floral nectar in a tropical community of host-plants. Plant species, their respective botanical family, as well number of nectar samples or drops collected by plant species and individuals are reported along with frequency of each yeast species in nectar samples and accession numbers.

Table 1. Yeast species isolated from floral nectar in a tropical community of host-plants. Plant species, their respective botanical family, as well number of nectar samples or drops collected by plant species and individuals are reported along with frequency of each yeast species in nectar samples and accession numbers.

Plant species (Botanical family)	Designation	n	Accession numbers	
			CICY	NCBI
<i>Agave angustifolia</i> (Agavaceae)	<i>Candida sorbosivorans</i>	1	CICYRN019	KX908033
	<i>Clavispora lusitaniae</i>	4	CICYRN016	KX908034
	<i>Hannaella siamensis</i>	3	CICYRN007	KX908035
<i>Bravaisia berlandieriana</i> (Acanthaceae)	<i>Papilotrema flavescens</i>	3	CICYRN004	KX908036
	<i>Cryptococcus</i> sp.1	1	CICYRN011	KX908037
<i>Cordia sebestena</i> (Boraginaceae)	<i>Candida apicola</i>	1	CICYRN065	KX908038
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i> (Malvaceae)	<i>Candida versatilis</i>	1	CICYRN061	KX908039
	<i>Vishniacozyma taibaiensis</i>	1	CICYRN053	KX908040
	<i>Starmerella bombicola</i>	1	CICYRN055	KX908041
	<i>Sympodiomycesopsis paphiopedili</i>	1	CICYRN063	KX908042
<i>Gymnopodium floribundum</i> (Polygonaceae)	<i>Candida sorbosivorans</i>	1	CICYRN041	KX908043
	<i>Cryptococcus laurentii</i> var. <i>laurentii</i>	1	CICYRN040	KX908044
	<i>Papilotrema flavescens</i>	1	CICYRN039	KX908045
<i>Ipomoea crinalyx</i> (Convolvulaceae)	<i>Candida etchellsii</i>	1	CICYRN313	KX908046
	<i>Candida powellii</i>	1	CICYRN303	KX908047
	<i>Metschnikowia ipomoeae</i>	2	CICYRN320	KX908048
	<i>Metschnikowia lochheadii</i>	8	CICYRN304	KX908049
	<i>Metschnikowia</i> sp.	1	CICYRN310	KX908050
	<i>Starmerella</i> sp.	2	CICYRN337	KX908051
	<i>Wickerhamiella occidentalis</i>	1	CICYRN341	KX908052
	<i>Cryptococcus laurentii</i> var. <i>laurentii</i>	3	CICYRN225	KX908053
<i>Ipomoea hederifolia</i> (Convolvulaceae)	<i>Hannaella sinensis</i>	1	CICYRN264	KX908054
	<i>Pseudozyma</i> sp.	1	CICYRN249	KX908055
	<i>Sympodiomycesopsis paphiopedili</i>	2	CICYRN325	KX908056
	<i>Ustilago</i> sp.	3	CICYRN228	KX908057
	<i>Ustilago sparsa</i>	6	CICYRN256	KX908058
	<i>Cryptococcus</i> sp.1	1	CICYRN217	KX908059
<i>Ipomoea nil</i> (Convolvulaceae)	<i>Saitozyma flava</i>	1	CICYRN207	KX908060
	<i>Sporidiobolus ruineniae</i>	1	CICYRN201	KX908061
	<i>Sympodiomycesopsis paphiopedili</i>	1	CICYRN218	KX908062
	<i>Ustilago</i> sp.	1	CICYRN180	KX908063
	<i>Wickerhamiella occidentalis</i>	1	CICYRN182	KX908064
<i>Ipomoea triloba</i>	<i>Saitozyma flava</i>	1	CICYRN280	KX908065

(Convolvulaceae)	<i>Ustilago</i> sp.	3	CICYRN277	KX908066
	<i>Pseudozyma</i> sp.	1	CICYRN286	KX908067
<i>Lonchocarpus longistylus</i> (Fabaceae)	<i>Metschnikowia</i> sp.	3	CICYRN002	KX908068
<i>Malvaviscus arboreus</i> (Malvaceae)	<i>Candida versatilis</i>	1	CICYRN058	KX908069
<i>Merremia aegyptia</i> (Convolvulaceae)	<i>Aureobasidium</i> sp.	1	CICYRN221	KX908070
	<i>Papilotrema nemorosus</i>	1	CICYRN208	KX908071
	<i>Priceomyces melissophilus</i>	1	CICYRN210	KX908072
	<i>Sympodiomycopsis paphiopedili</i>	1	CICYRN209	KX908073
<i>Merremia dissecta</i> (Convolvulaceae)	<i>Cryptococcus laurentii</i> var. <i>laurentii</i>	4	CICYRN105	KX908074
	<i>Cryptococcus</i> sp.2	6	CICYRN166	KX908075
	<i>Cryptococcus</i> sp.3	1	CICYRN179	KX908076
	<i>Hannaella siamensis</i>	3	CICYRN107	KX908077
	<i>Papilotrema rajasthanensis</i>	1	CICYRN169	KX908078
	<i>Rhodotorula paludigena</i>	1	CICYRN188	KX908079
	<i>Sporidiobolus ruineniae</i>	4	CICYRN109	KX908080
	<i>Ustilago</i> sp.	1	CICYRN177	KX908081
<i>Operculina pinnatifida</i> (Convolvulaceae)	<i>Candida parazyza</i>	1	CICYRN165	KX908082
	<i>Cryptococcus laurentii</i> var. <i>laurentii</i>	4	CICYRN132	KX908083
	<i>Hannaella siamensis</i>	1	CICYRN134	KX908084
	<i>Kwoniella mangrovensis</i>	2	CICYRN127	KX908085
	<i>Metschnikowia ipomoeae</i>	4	CICYRN161	KX908086
	<i>Metschnikowia lachancei</i>	1	CICYRN155	KX908087
	<i>Metschnikowia lochheadii</i>	3	CICYRN144	KX908088
	<i>Metschnikowia</i> sp.	2	CICYRN150	KX908089
	<i>Rhodotorula paludigena</i>	1	CICYRN185	KX908090
	<i>Wickerhamiella occidentalis</i>	1	CICYRN137	KX908091
<i>Opuntia dillenii</i> (Cactaceae)	<i>Kurtzmaniella cleridarum</i>	12	CICYRN094	KX908092
	<i>Candida etchellsii</i>	1	CICYRN080	KX908093
<i>Passiflora foetida</i> (Passifloraceae)	<i>Candida bombi</i>	1	CICYRN051	KX908094
	<i>Candida sorbosivorans</i>	3	CICYRN014	KX908095
<i>Piscidia piscipula</i> (Fabaceae)	<i>Vishniacozyma taibaiensis</i>	3	CICYRN042	KX908096
	<i>Naganishia liquefaciens</i>	6	CICYRN046	KX908097
	<i>Sympodiomycopsis paphiopedili</i>	3	CICYRN048	KX908098
<i>Tecoma stans</i> (Bignoniaceae)	<i>Metschnikowia koreensis</i>	13	CICYRN036	KX908099
	<i>Metschnikowia ipomoeae</i>	3	CICYRN027	KX908100
	<i>Cryptococcus</i> sp.2	1	CICYRN024	KX908101

Table 2(on next page)

Nectar samples with yeasts and nectar samples without yeasts

Comparisons of average (\pm SD) concentrations of the three nectar sugars between nectar samples containing yeast cells and nectar samples without cells. T-tests and statistical significance are shown for each sugar.

Table 2. Comparisons of average (\pm SD) concentrations of the three nectar sugars between nectar samples containing yeast cells and nectar samples without cells. T-tests and statistical significance are shown for each sugar.

Nectar sugars	Nectar samples (g of solute per 100 mL solution)		t	d.f	p
	With yeasts	Without yeasts			
Sucrose	6.3 \pm 7.8	10.6 \pm 11.1	4.48	215	< 0.0001
Glucose	2.5 \pm 3.2	5.5 \pm 3.8	7.95	196	< 0.0001
Fructose	2.9 \pm 2.9	5.6 \pm 3.5	8.81	172	< 0.0001

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Table 3(on next page)

Power model analysis for the effect of yeast cell density, different yeast types and host plants

Statistical significance for power models of the effects of yeast cell density on the concentration of the three nectar sugars. The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) values are shown for each variable/factor included in models. The lower AIC, the better the power model fits to the data . F-values were calculated based on Type III sum of square approach.

- 1 **Table 3.** Statistical significance for power models of the effects of yeast cell density on the concentration of the three nectar sugars. The Akaike
- 2 Information Criterion (AIC) values are shown for each variable/factor included in models. The lower AIC, the better the power model
- 3 fits to the data. F-values were calculated based on Type III sum of square approach.

	Sucrose				Glucose				Fructose			
	F	d.f	P-value	AIC	F	d.f	P-value	AIC	F	d.f	P-value	AIC
Yeast cell density	5.88	1, 73	0.0177	-120.79	7.85	1, 73	0.0064	-197.73	4.48	1, 73	0.0375	-186.11
Yeast	1.19	3, 73	0.3170	-126.77	0.43	3, 73	0.7298	-206.26	0.84	3, 73	0.4950	-190.26
Plant	26.90	17, 73	< 0.0001	-126.77	21.44	17, 73	< 0.0001	-206.26	15.85	17, 73	< 0.0001	-190.26
Yeast x Plant	2.57	8, 73	0.0155	-117.15	2.81	8, 73	0.0089	-194.57	2.64	8, 73	0.0133	-180.08
Total AIC				-126.77				-197.73				-206.26

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