

1 Original Article

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3 **Intraspecific variation in land use-related functional traits in**

4 ***Plantago lanceolata***

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6 Bence Gáspár^{1,2*}, Oliver Bossdorf¹, Madalin Parepa¹

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8 ¹ *Institute of Evolution and Ecology, University of Tübingen, Auf der Morgenstelle 5, 72070*

9 *Tübingen, Germany*

10 ² *Department Community Ecology, Helmholtz-Centre for Environmental Research – UFZ,*

11 *Theodor-Lieser-Str. 4, 06120 Halle, Germany*

12

13 **Author for correspondence. Email: bence.gaspar@uni-tuebingen.de*

14

15 **Abstract**

- 16 • **Background and aims** Intraspecific variation in functional traits is essential for the
17 evolutionary success of organisms. The co-variation between trait variation and
18 environment, as well as between different traits, can help us to understand which
19 ecological factors drive habitat adaptation, and to what extent adaptation may be
20 constrained by trait correlations and trade-offs. In managed grasslands, plants experience
21 a combination of competition, recurrent biomass removal and nutrient pulses. Each of
22 these ecological challenges requires specific plant tolerances, and populations should
23 locally adapt if intraspecific variation exists in these traits.
- 24 • **Methods** We studied variation in land use-related traits in the common grassland plant
25 *Plantago lanceolata*. In a common environment, we quantified the competitive ability
26 (R^*), clipping tolerance and responses to a nitrogen pulse of plants from 54 populations
27 with different land use intensities across Germany.
- 28 • **Key results** We found significant population differentiation in competitive ability but
29 there was little evidence that trait variation was related to land use intensity. There was a
30 positive relationship between competitive ability and clipping tolerance at the population
31 level, indicating a genetic, and possibly functional, link between these two traits. In
32 contrast, clipping tolerance and nitrogen responses were negatively correlated at the
33 levels of plant individuals, indicating a physiological trade-off between plant responses to
34 these two land-use processes.
- 35 • **Conclusions** Our results show that there is substantial intraspecific variation in some of
36 the key functional traits for plant success in managed grasslands, and that rapid evolution
37 and adaptation is therefore possible in these traits.

38

39 **Introduction**

40 Understanding evolution in response to land use in grassland plants is of great interest
41 because of the wide distribution and economic importance of these ecosystems, and because
42 land use change is the strongest driver of global change (Foley *et al.*, 2005, Díaz *et al.*, 2019).
43 Already from the early 20th century, grassland researchers showed that different management
44 regimes resulted in rapid evolutionary changes in a range of grassland species. For instance,
45 in a common-garden collection of over 400 *Dactylis glomerata* ecotypes, Stapledon (1928)
46 found that there were persistent growth form differences between plants from different kinds
47 of pastures and meadows. Later, Warwick and Briggs, in their classic studies on the
48 “genecology of lawn weeds”, found similar results for several grassland species, e.g. dwarf,
49 prostrate morphotypes originating from frequently mown lawns, and more erect ones in
50 neighbouring populations that lacked the frequent mowing (Warwick & Briggs 1978, 1979).
51 Evolution in response to land use was also found in the famous long-term Park Grass
52 Experiment where Snaydon and Davies (1976) demonstrated local adaptation of *Antoxanthum*
53 *odoratum* to different fertilisation and liming treatments (see also Davies & Snaydon 1973,
54 1976). In all of these classic studies, however, researchers compared simple categories of land
55 use such as pastures versus meadows, or different types of fertilisation regimes, whereas
56 finer-resolution analyses of land use processes are still rare. Moreover, previous studies
57 usually focused on traits relevant for agriculture, such as yield, growth form and phenology,
58 whereas other ecologically relevant functional traits received less attention.

59 From a plant eye's view, three of the key processes in grasslands are (1) competition
60 with neighbouring plants, (2) the temporary nutrient pulses created by animal droppings or
61 fertilisation, and (3) the regular disturbance and biomass removal imposed by mowing or
62 grazing. The abilities of plants to compete with neighbours, exploit nutrient pulses, and
63 tolerate biomass removal are thus important functional traits in grassland plants.

64 Competition ultimately reduces the survival, growth or reproduction of an individual
65 plant (Aarsen & Keogh, 2002), and plant species differ in the degree to which they they are
66 impacted by neighbours (e.g. Keddy, 1990; Aarssen, 1992; Tokeshi, 2009). Plant competitive
67 ability can be quantified in different ways (Aarssen & Keogh, 2002), and at the species level
68 it appears to be particularly the ability to persist at low nutrient levels that makes some plant
69 species outcompete others (resource ratio hypothesis; Tilman 1985). The significance of the
70 so-called R^* value of species – the lowest resource level that allows persistence – has been
71 proven by many species-level experimental studies (Wilson *et al.*, 2007). At the intraspecific
72 level, a number of previous studies demonstrated genetically-based variation in competitive
73 ability and the selective agency of neighbouring plants (Cheplick, 2015), but intraspecific
74 variation in R^* has so far not been examined.

75 The second key process are nutrient pulses. Many ecosystems experience fluctuating
76 resource availability, e.g. because of snowmelt, seasonal weather events or fires (Ostfeld &
77 Keesing, 2000). Human activity is especially associated with such pulses, either indirectly
78 through causing extreme climatic events (Coumou & Rahmstorf, 2012), or more directly
79 through intentional nutrient deposition in agricultural landscapes. Resource pulses can impact
80 population dynamics across communities and trophic networks (Gratton & Denno, 2003;
81 Yang *et al.*, 2008) as well as across generations (Miao *et al.*, 1991), and they tend to promote
82 particular plant species over others (Bilbrough & Caldwell, 1997), or even the spread of plant
83 invaders (Parepa *et al.*, 2013). However, to our knowledge no previous study has investigated
84 plant responses to nutrient pulses at the intraspecific level.

85 The third key process in grasslands is recurrent biomass removal. While strong mowing
86 or grazing generally reduce fitness, plants possess the ability to regrow and to some extent
87 compensate for such damage. Because of this, some species are able to maintain their fitness
88 or even overcompensate and increase it in response to moderate levels of herbivory
89 (McNaughton, 1983; Strauss & Agrawal, 1999). Plant tolerance to biomass damage has been

90 extensively researched, and previous studies have repeatedly demonstrated not only species
91 differences but also heritable variation within and among natural populations (e.g. Bergelson
92 & Crawley, 1992; Agrawal, 1998; Strauss & Agrawal, 1999; Johnson, 2011), although rarely
93 in relation to land use (but see Lennartsson *et al.*, 1997, 1998).

94 While all of the three described functional traits are expected to be important for
95 success in managed grasslands, it seems unlikely that plants can evolutionarily improve all of
96 them simultaneously. Increased competitive ability (= lower R^*) requires greater resource-
97 efficiency, while stronger responses to nutrient pulses are only possible if plants are on the
98 faster (= less resource-efficient) side of the fast-slow plant economy spectrum (Reich, 2014).
99 Tolerance to biomass removal is usually based on belowground storage of resources, which
100 means that some resources are not available for other purposes anymore. In general, we
101 should expect evolutionary trade-offs (Agrawal *et al.*, 2010) between the three functional
102 traits, and that the specific phenotypes evolving in different grasslands depend on the local
103 intensities of fertilisation versus mowing and grazing damage.

104 We addressed these questions in the framework of the Biodiversity Exploratories
105 project (www.biodiversity-exploratories.de), a large-scale and long-term network of
106 ecological study sites for understanding relationships between land use, biodiversity and
107 ecosystem functioning. The project includes 150 grassland plots across Germany (Fischer *et*
108 *al.*, 2010), with 50 plots in each of the three regions Schorfheide-Chorin (northern Germany),
109 Hainich-Dün (central Germany) and Schwäbische Alb (southwest Germany). Within each
110 region, the plots cover a broad range of land use types and intensities. The detailed land use
111 information available for these plots, with precise data on mowing frequencies, livestock
112 densities and amounts of fertilisation, obtained from annual surveys (Blüthgen *et al.*, 2012), is
113 a unique feature of the Biodiversity Exploratories project and, together with the large number
114 of plots, makes it a powerful system for studying evolution in managed grasslands.

115 There is already evidence from the Biodiversity Exploratories that the phenotypes of
116 several grassland species evolve in response to land use (Kloss *et al.*, 2011; Völler *et al.*,
117 2013, 2017). We built on these studies and examined 54 populations of the common perennial
118 *Plantago lanceolata*. Unlike the previous studies, which only conducted simple phenotyping
119 in a common environment, we carried out a greenhouse experiment with a series of treatments
120 (Fig. 1) which allowed us to quantify the R^* values of plants, as well as their nutrient pulse
121 responses and clipping tolerances. Specifically, we asked the following questions: (1) Is there
122 intraspecific variation in the three functional traits in *P. lanceolata*? (2) What is the
123 relationship between land use and the variation in these traits? (3) Are there trade-offs
124 between the three traits, and are these trade-offs influenced by land use intensity?

125

126 **Materials and Methods**

127 *Study species and experimental design*

128 To test the questions outlined above, we worked with *Plantago lanceolata* L.
129 (Plantaginaceae), a short-lived perennial rosette herb that is very common in European
130 grasslands and grows under a wide range of environmental conditions. *P. lanceolata* is also
131 one of the most common plant species in the Biodiversity Exploratories, occurring on over
132 100 of the 150 grassland plots. In September 2015, we collected ripe seeds of *P. lanceolata* in
133 each of the three regions, and from the broadest possible land-use gradient in each
134 (Supplementary Table S2). Altogether, we sampled seeds from 54 plots, with 5–12 individual
135 plants per plot.

136 We stratified the seeds at 5°C under moist and dark conditions for three weeks (Pons,
137 1992) and transplanted the germinated seedlings to 1-L pots filled with a 7:1.5:1 mixture of
138 nutrient-poor soil, vermiculite and sand, with 5–12 individuals per population and a total of
139 540 plants (Supplementary Table S2). The pots were placed in a climate-controlled
140 greenhouse with temperature set to 21°C/15°C at a 16h/8h day/night cycle. After six weeks,

141 we rearranged all pots into a randomised block design, and we let the plants grow for another
142 seven weeks to ensure strong nutrient depletion in all pots (Fig. 1). At this point, we took a 5
143 cm³ soil sample from each pot that was later analysed for total nitrogen content with a
144 EuroEA Elemental Analyser (HEKAtech, Wegberg, Germany) at the Soil Biogeochemistry
145 Lab at Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, and we measured the chlorophyll content of two
146 leaves on each plant with a SPAD 502 chlorophyll meter (Konica-Minolta, Tokyo, Japan).
147 After that, we fertilised each plant with 10 ml of liquid NPK fertiliser (Wuxal
148 Universaldünger; Hauert MANNA Düngerwerke GmbH, Nürnberg, Germany) at a
149 concentration equivalent to 50 kg N/ha. Ten days later, we measured chlorophyll content
150 again on two newly grown leaves of each plant. Two weeks after adding the fertiliser, we
151 clipped all plants one centimetre above ground. After another three weeks, we harvested the
152 aboveground biomass of all plants, dried it at 70°C for three days, and weighed it.

153

154 *Data Analysis*

155 Our data analyses generally focused on three variables: (1) the competitive ability of each
156 plant, estimated as $1-R^*$ (Tilman, 1985) where R^* was the fraction of total nitrogen in the
157 potting soil left after 11 weeks of growth, (2) the pulse response as the ratio between the leaf
158 chlorophyll contents after and before the fertilisation, with higher values indicating more
159 successful utilisation of the added nitrogen, and (3) the clipping tolerance of plants, calculated
160 as the ratio between their aboveground biomass from the second and first harvest, again with
161 higher values indicating faster recovery from clipping damage.

162 Prior to the main analyses, we simplified our data by removing sources of variation that
163 were not relevant to our study questions. We fitted linear models with the three regions of the
164 Biodiversity Exploratories and the blocks in the greenhouse as fixed factors to each dependent
165 variable, and we used the residuals from these models for all subsequent analyses (Manning *et*

166 *al.*, 2015; Soliveres *et al.*, 2016). To improve the normality of error distributions, the data for
167 pulse response and clipping tolerance were additionally log-transformed.

168 First, we tested for intraspecific variation in the three focus traits with mixed-effect
169 models that included populations as fixed factors and maternal seed families nested within
170 populations as random factors (Zuur *et al.*, 2009; see Supplementary Information Table S1 for
171 model formulas). Second, we tested for relationships between land use and the three traits by
172 fitting separate mixed models for each combination of land use intensities (mowing,
173 fertilisation, grazing) and trait (competitive ability, pulse response, clipping tolerance), with
174 each model including one of the land use intensities as explanatory variable plus population
175 and maternal seed families nested within populations as random factors (Table S1). Next, we
176 tested for trade-offs between the three focus traits by examining their statistical relationships
177 at the level of individuals, seed families and populations. At the individual-level, we fitted
178 mixed models with random intercept and slope that included the respective other trait as
179 explanatory variable, plus population and family nested within population as random factors.
180 At the family level, we analysed family means and included only population as random factor,
181 and at the population level, we used simple linear models regressing the population means of
182 two traits against each other. In the cases where we found significant relationships between
183 the traits, we proceeded to the final step in our analyses where we tested the effects of land
184 use on trait relationships. We did this through a series of mixed models with random
185 intercepts and slopes that included the respective other trait, one of the three land use
186 intensities, and their interactions, as fixed factors, plus populations and families nested within
187 populations as random factors. All statistical analyses were done in R (R Development Core
188 Team, 2008). We corrected all *P*-values for false discovery rates (FDR).

189

190 **Results**

191 We found significant heritable variation, both at the population and seed family level, for
192 competitive ability, but only marginally significant family-level variation in clipping
193 tolerance, and no significant variation at all in pulse response (Table 1 and Figure 2). There
194 were no significant relationships between land use intensity and the three studied functional
195 traits (Table 2). When we tested for relationships between competitive ability, pulse response
196 and clipping tolerance, we found significant negative relationships between pulse response
197 and clipping tolerance at the level of individuals and seed families, and a significant positive
198 relationship between competitive ability and clipping tolerance at the population level (Table
199 3 and Fig 3). Furthermore, we found a significant effect of mowing on the individual-level
200 relationship between pulse response and clipping tolerance ($F = 9.08$, $P = 0.025$ for mowing x
201 pulse response interaction), with the negative relationship between the two traits disappearing
202 at higher mowing intensities (Fig 4). There were no other significant land use effects on trait
203 relationships.

204

205 **Discussion**

206 To understand plant intraspecific variation in relation to land use, we studied 54 grassland
207 populations of *Plantago lanceolata* that strongly differed in their intensities of mowing,
208 grazing and fertilisation. We specifically examined three functional traits that we expected to
209 be important for plant survival in grasslands: competitive ability, clipping tolerance and the
210 ability of plants to quickly respond to nutrient pulses. We found substantial intraspecific
211 variation in competitive ability (R^*) but not in the other two traits, and there was no evidence
212 for population-level relationships between traits and land-use intensity. However, there were
213 several positive or negative relationships between functional traits at the levels of individuals,
214 families or populations, indicating physiological or evolutionary links between these traits.
215 Below, we discuss the results in detail, and attempt to place them into a broader context.

216

217 *Intraspecific variation*

218 A necessary prerequisite for genetic differentiation and local adaptation in the examined traits
219 is that our study system harbours significant intraspecific variation. We did not find any
220 significant family- or population-level variation in clipping tolerance and plant responses to a
221 nutrient pulse, but there was substantial intraspecific variation in R^* competitive ability, both
222 at the level of seed families and populations. To our knowledge, this is the first time that
223 intraspecific variation, and thus microevolution, in this aspect of competitive ability has been
224 studied and demonstrated in plants.

225 We were surprised to not find population differentiation in clipping tolerance because
226 intraspecific variation has been repeatedly shown in other plant species (e.g. Agrawal *et al.*,
227 1999; Johnson, 2011; Juenger & Bergelson, 2000; Strauss & Agrawal, 1999; Deng *et al.*
228 unpublished). We also found no population differentiation in pulse response, and there are no
229 previous studies on intraspecific variation in this trait. With 54 populations and 199 seed
230 families, a lack of statistical power is an unlikely explanation in our case. Instead, we think
231 that it may have been a combination of weak true patterns and high signal-to-noise ratio. First,
232 since *Plantago lanceolata* is wind-pollinated and self-incompatible (Kuiper & Bos, 1992),
233 there is generally strong gene flow and relatively weak population differentiation in this
234 species (Gáspár *et al.* 2019). Second, we worked with an F_1 generation that had random
235 fathers (from the field) but that, unlike under field conditions, was not experiencing strong
236 natural selection. This likely further increased variation among individuals and therefore
237 lowered the signal-to-noise ratio in our system. Finally, clipping tolerance and pulse response
238 are both derived traits based on several, error-prone measurements, and thus error propagation
239 could have further added to this problem. However, in spite of all this, we did find significant
240 family- and population-level variation in R^* , which underlines the ecological and
241 evolutionary significance of this result.

242

243 *No relationships with land use*

244 We found no relationships between the land-use intensities recorded in the Biodiversity
245 Exploratories and the three studied functional traits. This contrasts with previous studies in
246 the Biodiversity Exploratories (Völler *et al.*, 2013, 2017) as well as in other systems that
247 demonstrated land use-related phenotypic changes in plants (e.g. Aarssen & Turkington,
248 1985a, b, c, 1987; Lennartsson *et al.*, 1997; Briggs, 2009). In principle, there are three
249 possible explanations: (1) a true pattern could not be detected because of statistical or
250 methodological shortcomings, (2) there was no pattern yet because the land use has not been
251 acting long enough yet in our system, or (3) there is no pattern. As already explained above,
252 our study did not lack statistical power, and it covered a broad range of land use intensities,
253 also compared to previous studies. Moreover, although there is some interannual variation in
254 land use in the Biodiversity Exploratories (Blüthgen *et al.*, 2012; Allan *et al.*, 2014), which
255 could potentially impede the impacts of natural selection, previous studies already found land
256 use-related differentiation of plant phenotypes in our system (Völler *et al.*, 2013, 2017). It is
257 also known from other studies that that a couple of years can be enough for stable shifts in
258 plant phenotypes between differential management (Briggs, 2009). Therefore, explanations
259 (1) and (2) both appear unlikely, and we need to consider the third option that there might
260 simply be no relationships between land use and the three studied functional traits; possibly
261 because of the derived nature of the traits, or evolutionary constraints particular to these traits
262 and land use in this system.

263

264 *Correlations between three functional traits*

265 Besides quantifying intraspecific variation in the three functional traits and their relationships
266 with land use, we also tested for interrelationships between traits, and we did this at three
267 levels: plant individuals, maternal seed families and populations. Each of these levels

268 provides us with different answers: at the level of individuals, trait correlations are most likely
269 related to functional-physiological constraints or necessities, whereas at the level of seed
270 families they reflect underlying genetic correlations, and at the level of populations they
271 rather indicate trait syndromes associated with habitat adaptation.

272 We found no relationships between competitive ability and pulse response at any of
273 these levels. This was surprising as lower R^* values (i.e. better competitive ability) should be
274 coupled to a resource-conservative plant economy, whereas strong responses to nutrient
275 pulses require a large metabolic capacity. We therefore expected a trade-off between the two
276 traits. However, our results suggest that competitive ability evolves independently. The only
277 observed trait correlation involving competitive ability was a positive population-level
278 correlation between competitive ability and clipping tolerance, indicating both traits might be
279 beneficial in the same environments. Resprouting in *Plantago lanceolata* is based on
280 belowground resource storage (Latzel & Klimesová, 2009; Latzel *et al.*, 2014). Thus, in
281 contrast to pulse response, both clipping tolerance and R^* competitive ability are resource-
282 conservative, and therefore both traits should be beneficial in the less nutrient-rich pastures or
283 meadows which make up part of the grassland plots in the Biodiversity Exploratories.
284 However, the two traits were not significantly correlated at the level of individuals or seed
285 families, indicating that they are not physiologically or genetically linked. Another potential
286 explanation for the lack of a family-level relationship could be the inflated genetic variation in
287 the F_1 generation already explained above (see also Gáspár *et al.*, 2019). However, while F_1
288 plants from the same mother may have many different fathers, these most likely come from
289 the same population (Kuiper & Bos, 1992, p. 226), so that population-level differences may
290 have been maintained, and could thus be detected, in our study.

291 Surprisingly, plant responses to nutrient pulses were negatively correlated to clipping
292 tolerance at the levels of individuals and maternal seed families. Together with the lack of a
293 population differentiation in these traits, this indicates physiological and/or genetic links

294 between them. Again, resource economy appears to be the best explanation. Clipping
295 tolerance is generally thought to be more prevalent in species or genotypes with a more
296 conservative metabolism and more root-, non-structural carbohydrate reserves, whereas a
297 stronger response to a nutrient pulse should requires higher metabolic rate and less storage
298 (Strauss & Agrawal, 1999; Reich, 2014). Thus, there could be a classic resource allocation
299 trade-off between the two traits. The explanation is further supported by the fact that we
300 found the negative correlation mainly in plants from plots with less than one mowing event
301 per year, whereas the relationship tended to disappear at higher mowing frequencies. In the
302 Biodiversity Exploratories, frequent mowing is usually associated with strong fertilisation
303 (Blüthgen *et al.*, 2012). Thus, the resource trade-off disappears when resources become less
304 limiting (Agrawal *et al.*, 2010).

305

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322

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455

456 **Table 1.** Results of mixed models testing for heritable variation in three functional traits in
457 *Plantago lanceolata*, with populations and seed families as fixed and random factors,
458 respectively. LRT = likelihood-ratio test. All *P*-values are FDR-corrected.

	Population		Seed family	
	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>LRT</i>	<i>P</i>
Competitive ability	1.60	0.049	16.82	0.000
Pulse response	1.01	0.463	0.04	0.835
Clipping tolerance	1.30	0.169	4.05	0.066

459

460 **Table 2.** Results of mixed models testing for the effects of mowing, fertilisation and grazing
461 on three functional traits in *Plantago lanceolata*, with populations and seed families included
462 as random factors. Est. = slope estimate of the models. All *P*-values are FDR-corrected.

	Mowing			Fertilisation			Grazing		
	Est.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	Est.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	Est.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Competitive ability	0.142	4.31	0.387	0.050	1.51	0.504	-0.071	1.68	0.504
Pulse response	0.014	0.08	0.838	0.001	0.04	0.838	0.009	0.06	0.838
Clipping tolerance	0.007	1.85	0.838	0.011	1.60	0.504	0.007	0.39	0.838

463

464 **Table 3.** Results of random slope and intercept mixed effects models testing for relationships
465 between competitive ability (CA), pulse response (PR) and clipping tolerance (CT) in
466 *Plantago lanceolata*, with populations and seed families included as random factors. Est. =
467 slope estimate of the models. All *P*-values are FDR-corrected, and *P*<0.05 are in bold.

	Individuals			Families			Populations		
	Est.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	Est.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	Est.	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
CA ~ PR	0.07	3.26	0.162	0.12	1.31	0.336	0.01	0.00	0.967
CA ~ CT	-0.01	0.01	0.967	0.11	1.33	0.336	0.44	6.21	0.048
PR ~ CT	-0.05	11.47	0.009	-0.05	8.81	0.018	-0.05	2.52	0.212

468

469

470 **Figure 1.** Schematic of the sequence and duration of experimental treatments used to estimate
471 competitive ability (R^*), pulse response and clipping tolerance in *Plantago lanceolata* plants
472 from 54 grasslands of different land-use intensities.

473

474 **Figure 2.** Variation among populations (boxplots) and seed families (black dots within
475 boxplots) in three functional traits in *Plantago lanceolata*. The boxplots are based on all
476 individuals per population and indicate medians, 25th/75th percentiles, and the 1.5 x
477 interquartile ranges. For each trait, populations are ordered by their median values.

478

479 **Figure 3.** Relationships between the three studied functional traits of *Plantago lanceolata* at
480 the levels of individuals, seed families and populations. Solid and dashed line plots indicate
481 the fitted models for significant and non-significant relationships, respectively, with their 95%
482 confidence intervals.

483

484 **Figure 4.** The mowing intensity of their grasslands of origin affects functional trait
485 correlations in *Plantago lanceolata*. Each dot represents a plant individual grown in a
486 common environment.







