1 Original Article

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3 Intraspecific variation in land use-related functional traits in

- 4 Plantago lanceolata
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14

15 Abstract

16 Background and aims Intraspecific variation in functional traits is essential for the evolutionary success of organisms. The co-variation between trait variation and 17 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 constrained by trait correlations and trade-offs. In managed grasslands, plants experience 20 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.

Methods We studied variation in land use-related traits in the common grassland plant
 Plantago lanceolata. In a common environment, we quantified the competitive ability
 (*R**), clipping tolerance and responses to a nitrogen pulse of plants from 54 populations
 with different land use intensities across Germany.

• **Key results** We found significant population differentiation in competitive ability but there was little evidence that trait variation was related to land use intensity. There was a positive relationship between competitive ability and clipping tolerance at the population level, indicating a genetic, and possibly functional, link between these two traits. In contrast, clipping tolerance and nitrogen responses were negatively correlated at the levels of plant individuals, indicating a physiological trade-off between plant responses to these two land-use processes.

Conclusions Our results show that there is substantial intraspecific variation in some of
 the key functional traits for plant success in managed grasslands, and that rapid evolution
 and adaptation is therefore possible in these traits.

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.

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

Competition ultimately reduces the survival, growth or reproduction of an individual 64 65 plant (Aarsen & Keogh, 2002), and plant species differ in the degree to which they they are impacted by neighbours (e.g. Keddy, 1990; Aarssen, 1992; Tokeshi, 2009). Plant competitive 66 67 ability can be quantified in different ways (Aarssen & Keogh, 2002), and at the species level it appears to be particularly the ability to persist at low nutrient levels that makes some plant 68 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 variation in R^* has so far not been examined. 74

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.

The third key process in grasslands is recurrent biomass removal. While strong mowing or grazing generally reduce fitness, plants possess the ability to regrow and to some extent compensate for such damage. Because of this, some species are able to maintain their fitness or even overcompensate and increase it in response to moderate levels of herbivory (McNaughton, 1983; Strauss & Agrawal, 1999). Plant tolerance to biomass damage has been extensively researched, and previous studies have repeatedly demonstrated not only species
differences but also heritable variation within and among natural populations (e.g. Bergelson
& Crawley, 1992; Agrawal, 1998; Strauss & Agrawal, 1999; Johnson, 2011), although rarely
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 region, the plots cover a broad range of land use types and intensities. The detailed land use 110 111 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 of plots, makes it a powerful system for studying evolution in managed grasslands. 114

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 relationship between land use and the variation in these traits? (3) Are there trade-offs 123 124 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

To test the questions outlined above, we worked with Plantago lanceolata L. 128 129 (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.

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 cm³ soil sample from each pot that was later analysed for total nitrogen content with a 143 144 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 aboveground biomass of all plants, dried it at 70°C for three days, and weighed it. 152

153

154 Data Analysis

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

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

al., 2015; Soliveres *et al.*, 2016). To improve the normality of error distributions, the data for
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).

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 relationship between pulse response and clipping tolerance (F = 9.08, P = 0.025 for mowing x 200 201 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

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

Besides quantifying intraspecific variation in the three functional traits and their relationships with land use, we also tested for interrelationships between traits, and we did this at three levels: plant individuals, maternal seed families and populations. Each of these levels provides us with different answers: at the level of individuals, trait correlations are most likely related to functional-physiological constraints or necessities, whereas at the level of seed families they reflect underlying genetic correlations, and at the level of populations they 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 traits. However, our results suggest that competitive ability evolves independently. The only 276 277 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.

Surprisingly, plant responses to nutrient pulses were negatively correlated to clipping tolerance at the levels of individuals and maternal seed families. Together with the lack of a 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).

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- 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			
	F	Р	LRT	Р		
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		

- 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.	F	Р	Est.	F	Р	Est.	F	Р
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

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.	F	Р	Est.	F	Р	Est.	F	Р
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

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

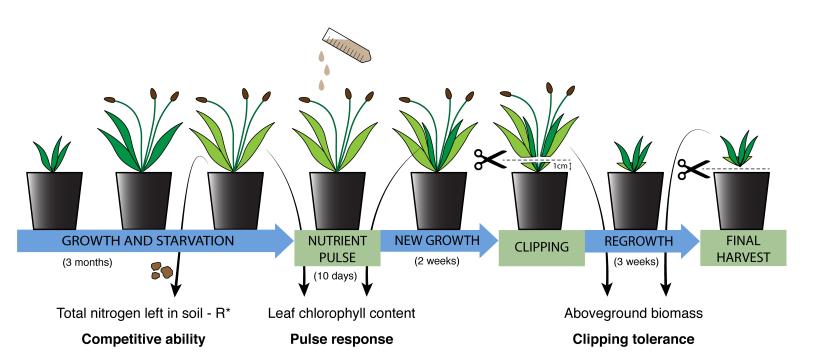
474 Figure 2. Variation among populations (boxplots) and seed families (black dots within 475 boxplots) in three functional traits in *Plantago lanceolata*. The boxplots are based on all 476 individuals per population and indicate medians, 25th/75th percentiles, and the 1.5 x 477 interquartile ranges.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

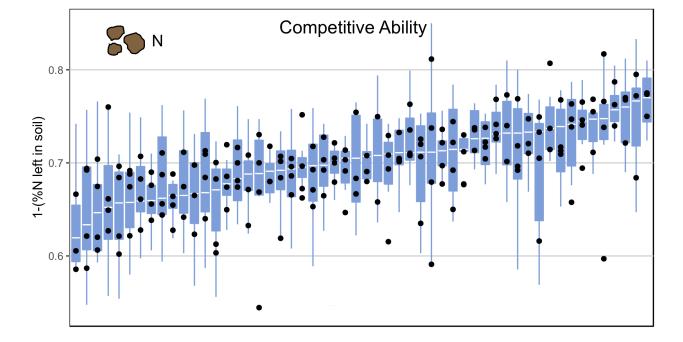
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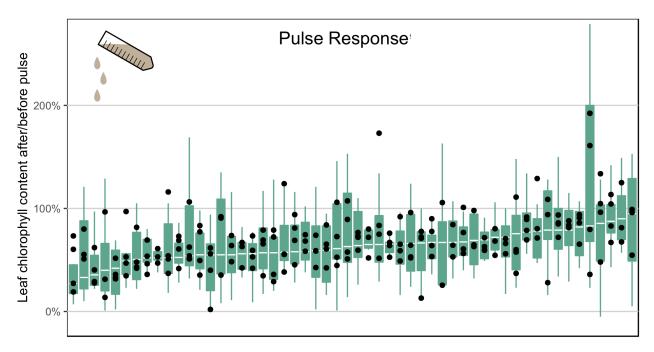
Figure 3. Relationships between the three studied functional traits of *Plantago lanceolata* at the levels of individuals, seed families and populations. Solid and dashed line plots indicate the fitted models for significant and non-significant relationships, respectively, with their 95% confidence intervals.

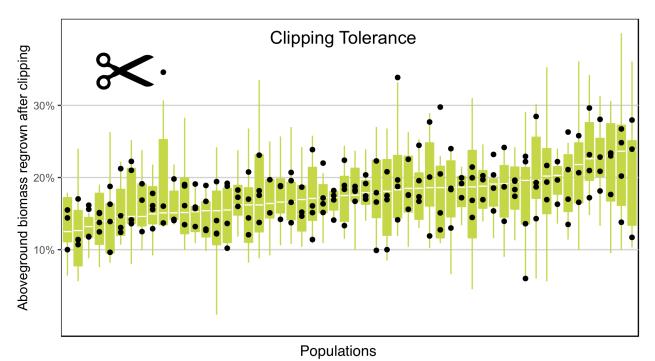
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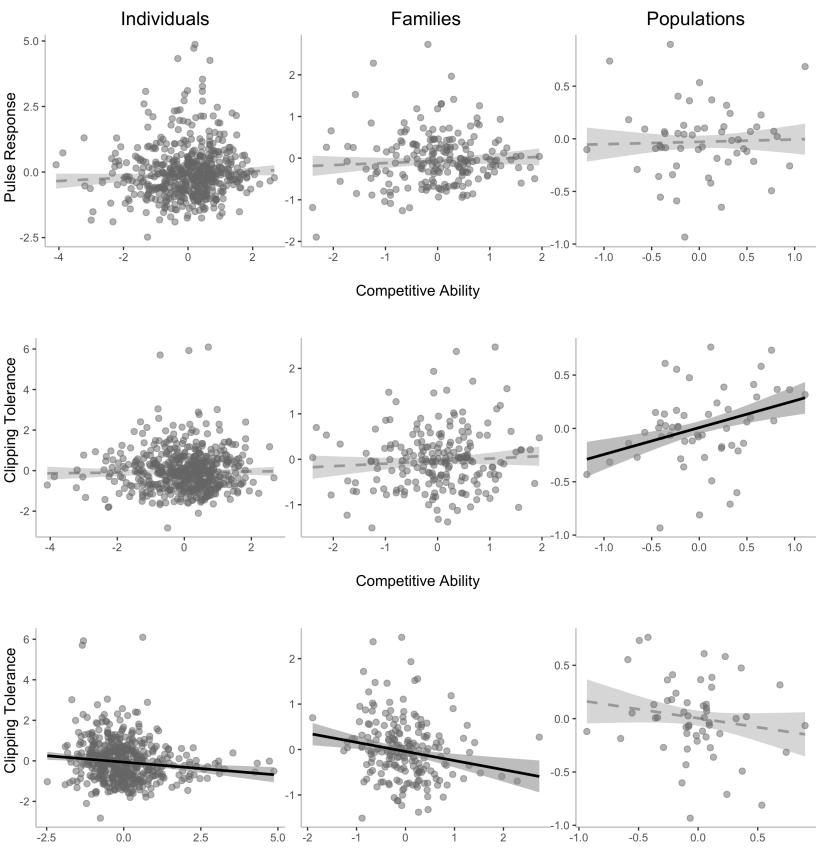
484 Figure 4. The mowing intensity of their grasslands of origin affects functional trait 485 correlations in *Plantago lanceolata*. Each dot represents a plant individual grown in a 486 common environment.











Pulse Response

