

1 **Running title:** Regrowth ability in grassland herbs

2

3 **Variation in regrowth ability in relation to land use intensity and predictability in**

4 **three common grassland herbs**

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18 **Abstract**

19 *Aims*

20 Plant populations in managed grasslands are subject to strong selection exerted by
21 grazing, mowing and fertilization. Many previous studies showed that this can cause
22 evolutionary changes in mean trait values, but little is known about the evolution of
23 adaptive plant phenotypic plasticity in response to grassland management.

24 *Methods*

25 We conducted an outdoor common garden experiment to test if plants from more
26 intensively mown and grazed sites showed an increased ability to regrow after biomass
27 removal. We worked with three common plant species from temperate European
28 grasslands, with seed material from 58 – 68 populations along gradients of land-use
29 intensity, ranging from extensive (only light grazing) to very intensive use (up to four
30 cuts per year).

31 *Important findings*

32 In two species, we found strong population-level variation in regrowth ability of fitness-
33 related traits in response to a clipping treatment, which could reflect adaptation to land-
34 use intensity. While the regrowth ability was unrelated to the land-use intensity of
35 populations of origin, we found a relationship with the predictability of grassland
36 management in *P. lanceolata* where plants experiencing more stable environmental
37 conditions over the last 11 years showed stronger regrowth in reproductive biomass
38 after clipping. In summary, grazing and mowing intensity apparently did not select for
39 regrowth ability, but in some species, predictable heterogeneous environmental
40 conditions created by land use may have caused its evolution.

41

42 **Keywords:** environmental heterogeneity, grazing, mowing, predictability, phenotypic
43 plasticity

44

45 **Introduction**

46 Around 26 % of the earth’s land surface is currently used as grassland in an
47 agricultural context (Foley *et al.* 2011). These managed grasslands provide multiple
48 ecosystem services from provisioning of food and habitat to water purification and
49 recreation (Carlier *et al.* 2009; Gossner *et al.* 2016). In the European temperate zone,
50 grasslands are mainly used as pastures for livestock grazing, as meadows for haymaking
51 or as a combination of both. Thus, they have a high economic and societal value
52 (Heidenreich 2009).

53 A major aspect of environmental variation in managed grasslands are the
54 recurring disturbances exerted by mowing or grazing. Plants are sessile, and therefore,
55 in order to survive, they need to be able to adapt to these disturbances. The effects of
56 land-use intensity on the evolution of plant traits have received increasing attention
57 during the last decades, and previous studies have repeatedly demonstrated genetically
58 based trait changes in morphology, physiology and phenology in response to grassland
59 management. In general, grazing and mowing appear to select for decreased plant size,
60 tolerance to damage, and phenological shifts (Warwick and Briggs 1979; Louault *et al.*
61 2005; Díaz *et al.* 2007; Völler *et al.* 2017). Dwarf morphology and prostrate growth are
62 generally thought to reflect avoidance strategies that reduce the proportion of biomass
63 accessible to livestock or above mowing height (Kotanen and Bergelson 2000), whereas
64 shifts in flowering phenology, oftentimes advanced flowering, are interpreted as
65 “escapes in time” that ensure reproduction (Reisch and Poschlod 2009; Völler *et al.*
66 2017) despite recurrent biomass losses. Other strategies to avoid or tolerate grazing in

67 semi-natural grasslands include decreased plant palatability, or changes in functional
68 traits related to regrowth ability (Louault *et al.* 2005).

69 Common land-use practices not only change the means of environmental
70 conditions, but they also create spatiotemporal heterogeneity (Suzuki 2008). Grazing
71 and mowing in managed grasslands often vary in intensity, timing, duration and
72 frequency (Wang *et al.* 2017) and can create spatially and temporally heterogeneous
73 conditions. Grazing, in particular, creates spatial heterogeneity through selective
74 grazing, trampling and patchy dung deposition. One mechanism for plants to respond to
75 such heterogeneous habitat conditions is through phenotypic plasticity (Schlichting and
76 Levin 1986; Valladares *et al.* 2007), the ability of a genotype to produce multiple
77 phenotypes depending on the environmental conditions (Bradshaw 1965). Phenotypic
78 plasticity could not only buffer against the effects of common land-use practices, but as
79 a genetically controlled trait itself (Pigliucci 2005) it might also evolve when the
80 strengths and patterns of environmental heterogeneity (i.e. land-use practices) differ
81 among populations (Suzuki 2008). Generally, if phenotypic plasticity improves plant
82 performance (i.e. fitness) across environments, it is considered adaptive and expected to
83 evolve given sufficient genetic variation for plasticity (Relyea and Morin 2002; Van
84 Kleunen and Fischer 2005; Pigliucci 2005). In heterogeneous environments where
85 plants need to rapidly adjust their morphology, physiology or reproduction to maintain
86 or improve fitness, plasticity of functional traits should be adaptive and thus evolve
87 (Matesanz *et al.* 2010; Gianoli and Valladares 2012; Scheiner 2013). Many empirical
88 studies have confirmed the importance of phenotypic plasticity for organisms to cope
89 with environmental heterogeneity and ultimately global change (Matesanz *et al.* 2010).
90 In homogeneous environments, in contrast, plasticity should not evolve, or should even

91 be lost if greater plasticity is associated with fitness costs for an organism (Van Kleunen
92 and Fischer 2005).

93 The ability of a plant to maintain relatively constant fitness under stressful
94 conditions is called plant tolerance (Rejmánek 2000; Simms 2000; Barton 2013). In
95 managed grasslands, a key tolerance trait is the ability to (partially) compensate for
96 biomass loss through regrowth (Strauss and Agrawal 1999). Plants with a high tolerance
97 to damage would show a rather flat reaction norm of fitness over a range of damage
98 intensities (Rejmánek 2000; Simms 2000; Richards *et al.* 2006). This will likely be
99 achieved through plasticity in some morphological or physiological traits that affect
100 regrowth and thus fitness (Bradshaw 1965; Strauss and Agrawal 1999; Tiffin 2000),
101 such as increased photosynthetic rates after stress (McNaughton 1979; Sultan *et al.*
102 1998; Strauss and Agrawal 1999) or the use of storage compounds for regrowth after
103 damage (Oesterheld and McNaughton 1988; Strauss and Agrawal 1999).

104 So far, only few studies explored the extent of genetic variation in and evolution
105 of plasticity in plant responses to grazing and mowing. Moreover, most previous studies
106 compared only two contrasting environments, and they often remained limited in their
107 levels of replication. For instance, Carman & Briske (1985) found that regrowth ability
108 after clipping of plants from three grazed sites was greater than in plants from three
109 non-grazed sites, suggesting selection of increased regrowth ability under recurrent
110 biomass removal. Oesterheld & McNaughton (1988) found population differentiation in
111 growth rate, tillering frequency and leaf morphology along a gradient of three grazing
112 intensities in *Themeda triandra* in response to a clipping treatment. Yet, other studies
113 found no differences in plasticity between land-use origins, e.g. Rotundo and Aguiar
114 (2007) studied three *Poa ligularis* populations with different grazing intensity and
115 history and found no differences in their responses to clipping. Similarly, Suzuki (2008)

116 showed that *Persicaria longiseta* plants from one grazed population did not respond
117 differently to clipping than those from two ungrazed populations. Given such studies
118 with contrasting results and low population replication, larger and better replicated
119 studies across multiple species are needed for more powerful tests of the effects of
120 grassland management on the evolution of plasticity and its adaptive value.

121 Many previous studies on the evolution of phenotypic plasticity compared only
122 two contrasting habitats. This however, might be misleading as intermediate
123 environmental states are not considered (Kreyling *et al.* 2018). To overcome this, one
124 could look at plastic responses along a gradient of an environmental condition. In the
125 case of the Biodiversity Exploratories (see methods), grazing and mowing intensities
126 have been measured continuously over the past 14 years on 150 grassland plots and is
127 therefore ideally suited to investigate plant responses along a land-use gradient. As
128 increasing management intensity represents increasing environmental heterogeneity, we
129 would expect the strength of phenotypic plasticity to increase with increasing land-use
130 intensity.

131 Here, we studied the evolution of regrowth ability in relation to grassland
132 management in three temperate grassland plants. In a common garden experiment, we
133 subjected plants from a broad range of land-use intensities to a standardized clipping
134 treatment. Specifically, we asked the following questions: 1) Is there genetic variation
135 for regrowth ability in the three studied plant species? If yes, is variation in regrowth
136 ability associated with 2) land-use intensity, in particular with grazing and mowing
137 intensity? and 3) inter-annual temporal variation in these land-use practices?

138

139 **Material and methods**

140 **Study area**

141 We worked in a system of grasslands plots located in three regions in Germany,
142 embedded in the framework of the Biodiversity Exploratories, a large-scale and long-
143 term project investigating the relationship between land use, biodiversity and ecosystem
144 functioning (<https://www.biodiversity-exploratories.de>). The three regions – UNESCO
145 Biosphere Reserve Schorfheide-Chorin, Hainich National Park and surrounding areas
146 and UNESCO Biosphere Area Schwäbische Alb – span a north-south transect in
147 Germany and are approximately 300 km apart from each other. In each of the three
148 regions, there are 50 grassland plots at distances of a few hundred meters to 30-40 km
149 (mean distance 13.4 km) (Fischer *et al.* 2010; Völler *et al.* 2017). The grassland plots,
150 each with an area of 50 × 50 m, cover a land-use gradient from extensive to very
151 intensive management based on different types (grazing, mowing, fertilization) and
152 intensities of land use. For each plot, annual inventories record the mowing intensity as
153 the number of cuts per year, and grazing intensity as livestock units per hectare,
154 multiplied with the grazing period and weighted by livestock type (cattle, sheep, horse,
155 goat) (Blüthgen *et al.* 2012; Vogt *et al.* 2019). To integrate land-use history and inter-
156 annual variability, we used a long-term measure of grazing and mowing intensity from
157 2006-2016, i.e all available data before 2017, the year of our seed sampling.

158

159 **Study species and seed collection**

160 Between May and September 2017, we collected seeds from three common
161 grassland species (Table 1) – *Achillea millefolium* L., *Plantago lanceolata* L., *Bromus*
162 *hordeaceus* L. – from the plots of the Biodiversity Exploratories. We selected the
163 species based on their frequent occurrence and high abundance in the plots. As the
164 species differ in their timing of seed maturity, we visited all 150 grassland plots several
165 times and collected ripe seeds from a maximum of 12 plant individuals on each plot

166 where the species occurred. However, current land use, especially mowing, might have
167 prevented sampling on every plot where the species occurred. We finally collected
168 seeds of *A. millefolium* from 58 plots, of *B. hordeaceus* from 68 plots and of *P.*
169 *lanceolata* from 63 plots. We generally chose individuals randomly but with at least 1 m
170 distance between each. In the remainder of this paper, the seeds from one individual are
171 referred to as seed families and all collected individuals from one plot as population.
172 We dried all seeds at room temperature and stored them in paper bags at 4°C in the dark
173 until further use.

174

175 **Common garden experiment**

176 In April 2018 we sowed seeds from seven seed families per population per
177 species in cultivation trays (PL, TK series, Pöppelmann GmbH & Co KG Kunststoff-
178 Werkzeugbau, Lohne) filled with a standard potting soil (Topferde CL T, Classic,
179 Einheitserdewerke Werkverband e.V., Sinntal-Altengronau) and placed them in a shade
180 house at the experimental station of the University of Tübingen. In the case of *P.*
181 *lanceolata*, we stratified seeds prior to germination for two weeks at 4°C in the dark.
182 Three weeks (five weeks for *P. lanceolata*) after sowing, we transplanted two seedlings
183 from each of five to seven seed families, depending on germination success, per
184 population in 1L pots (Ø 13 cm, Hermann Meyer KG, Langenau) filled with a sand-
185 soil-mixture (2:1:1, Rheinsand, 0 - 2mm, Flammer Bauunternehmung GmbH & Co.
186 KG, Mössingen : Pro Start, Geb. Brill Substrate GmbH & Co KG, Georgsdorf :
187 Topferde CL T, Classic, Einheitserdewerke Werkverband e.V., Sinntal-Altengronau)
188 and added an equivalent of 60 kg N ha⁻¹ of a NPK slow release fertilizer (Osmocote Pro
189 5-6 M, 19-9-10 + 2MgO + SP, Herman Mayer KG, Langenau). We placed all pots on an
190 individual saucer (Ø 15 cm, Herman Mayer KG, Langenau) in completely randomized

191 order on an experimental field (Fig. S1) covered with weed-control fabric (PPX® 100
192 g/m² Ground Cover, Hermann Mayer KG, Langenau). After four weeks of growth,
193 during which the plants were watered as needed but at least two times per week, we
194 clipped half of the plants (one seedling per seed family) with pruning shears above the
195 soil surface. After the clipping treatment, all plants grew for another 16 weeks with the
196 same watering regime. In September 2018 we harvested the aboveground biomass of all
197 plants, separated it into reproductive and vegetative biomass, dried it for four days at
198 70°C and weighed all samples. Reproductive biomass was defined as flowering stems
199 and inflorescences for *P. lanceolata*, flowering stems (without leaves) and inflorescences
200 for *B. hordeaceus*, and only inflorescences for *A. millefolium*.

201

202 **Statistical analyses**

203 To balance our data for the statistical analyses, we only included seed families
204 where both clipped and unclipped plants had survived the experiment. Therefore, the
205 sample sizes for the statistical analyses were smaller than those in the experiment were
206 (Table 1). To test for genetic variation in regrowth ability and treatment effects on plant
207 performance, we fitted linear mixed effects models that included region, population,
208 treatment and the interaction between population and treatment as fixed effects and seed
209 family as a random effect. We analyzed each species separately, with total biomass at
210 harvest – the sum of reproductive and vegetative biomass at harvest – as response
211 variable for all three species, and additionally reproductive biomass at harvest for *P.*
212 *lanceolata*.

213 To test for the effects of land use on regrowth ability, we first calculated an index
214 of plasticity for each seed family as the log response ratio (LRR) of total biomass
215 between clipped and unclipped plants. Because of zeroes in the reproductive biomass,

216 we could not calculate an LRR of reproductive biomass for seed families in *P.*
217 *lanceolata*, and we therefore first calculated the population means of clipped and
218 unclipped plants and then the LRR of these two. Two populations of *P. lanceolata*
219 where only clipped plants had reproduced were excluded from these analyses. To
220 analyze the variation in LRR of total biomass, we fitted linear mixed models with
221 region and land use as fixed effects and population as random effect. Land use in these
222 models was either mowing intensity, or grazing intensity, or a compound variable of
223 both further called total damage intensity, averaged across 11 years. Total damage
224 intensity is calculated as the square-root of the sum of the standardized grazing and
225 mowing intensities. Following the calculation of the land-use index by Blüthgen et al.
226 (2012), we applied square-root transformation to minimize the effects of outliers and
227 balance the distribution. The variation in LRR of reproductive biomass of *P. lanceolata*
228 was analyzed with a simpler linear model with only region and land use as fixed effects.

229 In order to test for relationships between regrowth ability and temporal
230 heterogeneity in land use, we first calculated the interannual variability of mowing and
231 grazing intensity as the standard deviation of these land-use factors from 2006 to 2016,
232 i.e. all recorded years before the year of our seed sampling. We calculated temporal
233 heterogeneity of total damage intensity as the square root of the sum of the standard
234 deviations of both mowing and grazing from 2006 to 2016. To test for effects of
235 temporal heterogeneity on regrowth ability, we fitted linear mixed models with the LRR
236 of total biomass as response variable, region and one of the measures of temporal
237 heterogeneity in land use as fixed effects, and population as random effect. Again, the
238 LRR of reproductive biomass of *P. lanceolata* was analyzed with simpler linear models
239 that included only region and one of the measures of temporal heterogeneity in land use.

240 To ensure normality and homoscedasticity of model residuals we log-transformed
241 total biomass and square-root-transformed reproductive biomass for all biomass
242 analyses. For the analyses of LRR, residuals were generally normally distributed and
243 homoscedastic without transformation.

244 All statistical analyses were done in R version 3.6.1 (R Core Team 2019), using in
245 particular the *lme4* (Bates *et al.* 2015) and *lmerTest* (Kuznetsova *et al.* 2017) packages.
246 When analyzing multiple species and land-use factors, we generally adjusted false
247 discovery rates (FDR) following Benjamini-Hochberg (Benjamini and Hochberg 1995).

248

249 **Results**

250 **Population differentiation**

251 Populations of *A. millefolium*, *B. hordeaceus* and *P. lanceolata* significantly
252 differed in their mean biomass (Table 2, Fig. 1). Moreover, populations of *A.*
253 *millefolium* also differed in their regrowth response to the clipping treatment
254 (population-by-treatment interaction in Table 2; Fig. 1a), suggesting genetic variation in
255 regrowth ability. In contrast, we found no significant population by treatment
256 interactions for *B. hordeaceus* and *P. lanceolata* (Table 2, Fig. 1b and c), indicating a
257 lack of genetic variation in regrowth ability. However, populations of *P. lanceolata*
258 differed significantly in their production of reproductive biomass as well as in the
259 responses of their reproductive biomass to the clipping treatment (Table 2, Fig. 1d),
260 indicating substantial genetic variation in regrowth ability.

261

262 **Regrowth ability in response to land use**

263 Regrowth ability in response to clipping, estimated as the log response ratio
264 (LRR) of total biomass, or as the LRR of reproductive biomass in *P. lanceolata*, was

265 uncorrelated to mowing intensity, grazing intensity, and total damage intensity in all
266 three studied species (Table 3). The LRRs of total biomass were also unrelated to
267 temporal heterogeneity of land use, but we found that the LRR of *P. lanceolata*
268 reproductive biomass significantly correlated with temporal heterogeneity in mowing
269 intensity (Table 3). With temporally more variable mowing regimes, the LRR of *P.*
270 *lanceolata* reproductive biomass was significantly lower, i.e. populations were
271 responding less plastically to the clipping treatment in our experiment (Fig. 2).

272

273 **Discussion**

274 Temperate grassland plants are regularly subjected to land-use practices such as
275 mowing and grazing. Plenty of studies investigated the ecological and evolutionary
276 effects of land use on mean trait variation. However, as grazing and mowing change the
277 environmental conditions throughout the year and create spatially and temporal
278 heterogeneous habitats, plants may also adapt via plasticity. Furthermore, land-use
279 practices might also change between years, creating temporal variability, which could
280 favor plasticity as well. In this study, we investigated if populations of three common
281 European grassland species along a gradient of grassland management show differences
282 in plasticity, specifically in their regrowth ability after biomass loss, and if these
283 differences are related to mean grazing and mowing intensities or their temporal
284 variability across years.

285

286 **Population differentiation in regrowth ability**

287 We found that grassland populations of *A. millefolium* exhibited genetic
288 variation in regrowth of total biomass in response to a clipping treatment. This
289 population differentiation in the ability to regrow could be caused by the land-use

290 differences between populations and might be facilitated by insect pollination and short
291 seed dispersal distances of *A. millefolium*, limiting gene flow among populations. We
292 found no significant population differences in the total biomass responses of *B.*
293 *hordeaceus* and *P. lanceolata* to the clipping treatment, indicating a lack of genetic
294 variation in regrowth ability in these two species. In contrast, Bergelson and Crawley
295 (1992) found site-specific differences in individual performance in *Ipomopsis aggregata*
296 populations after a clipping treatment. Population differentiation in response to a
297 clipping treatment was also found for root/shoot ratio and reproductive allocation in
298 three tallgrass prairie species (Damhoureyeh and Hartnett 2002). However, three
299 populations of *Persicaria longiseta* responded similarly to a clipping treatment in
300 several traits, suggesting no variation in plasticity among those populations (Suzuki
301 2008).

302 In contrast to the lack of variation in regrowth ability of total biomass, we found
303 significant population differences in regrowth of reproductive biomass in *P. lanceolata*.
304 This observation of genetic variation for plasticity is rather unexpected, as *P. lanceolata*
305 is an obligate outcrosser and wind-pollinated which together should lead to strong gene
306 flow between populations and thus reduce the potential for population differentiation.
307 However, several previous studies, including some from the same study regions, already
308 demonstrated population differentiation in this species. Comparing *P. lanceolata* plants
309 from a late- and early-mown meadow and a pasture, Van Tienderen (1991) showed
310 local adaptation for seed yield, onset of flowering and growth habit. Genetically based
311 population differentiation was also found for reproductive effort and components
312 controlling seed yield between eight *P. lanceolata* populations in North Carolina
313 (Primack and Antonovics 1981, 1982). Additionally, Gáspár et al. (2019) found
314 significant genetic and epigenetic differentiation among populations of *P. lanceolata*

315 from the Biodiversity Exploratories. Thus, genetic and phenotypic differentiation in
316 geographically close populations of *P. lanceolata* are possible and may reflect
317 adaptation to local environmental conditions.

318

319 **Regrowth ability and mean land use intensities**

320 Although we found heritable variation in regrowth ability in *A. millefolium* and
321 *P. lanceolata* after biomass removal, there were no relationships between this variation
322 and the mean mowing or grazing intensities of the populations of origin. Despite our
323 prediction that increasing land-use intensity would result in the evolution of increased
324 ability to regrow after biomass removal, we found no relationship between grazing or
325 mowing and regrowth ability in this particular system. Similarly, *Persicaria longiseta*,
326 with a long history of grazing, exhibited adaptation in mean values of fitness-related
327 traits but did not show evolution of phenotypic plasticity in response to clipping in these
328 traits (Suzuki 2008). In contrast, comparing grazed or mown with unmanaged
329 populations of *Gentianella campestris*, increased regrowth ability evolved only in
330 managed habitats (Lennartsson *et al.* 1997), suggesting selective potential of land use.
331 Likewise, comparing populations of three tallgrass prairie species differing in grazing
332 history, population differentiation in grazing tolerance in response to clipping was
333 related to grazing history (Damhoureyeh and Hartnett 2002). In our experiment,
334 management intensities varied from no mowing at all to around three times mowing per
335 year and from no grazing to a year-round permanent pasture (averaged across 11 years),
336 i.e. our study populations encompassed a rather broad range of management intensities
337 in these types of temperate grasslands. However, looking at total damage, there are no
338 populations that are not subject to recurring biomass removal, through either grazing or
339 mowing. Although we are missing a true zero-point, we would have expected that the

340 strength of the land-use gradient and the heterogeneous conditions this creates within a
341 single growing season would have exerted a selective pressure strong enough to affect
342 regrowth ability of our study species differentially. However, a recorded history of 11
343 years of land use might not be representative of historic management of these
344 populations and might not represent the relevant evolutionary time scale. Nevertheless,
345 as we found population variation in regrowth ability for some traits and species but no
346 relationship with mean land use, other factors may have driven this population
347 differentiation.

348

349 **Regrowth ability and inter-annual land-use variation**

350 Grassland management regimes might change across years, for instance when
351 farmers alter the frequency of mowing or the stocking densities on pastures, creating not
352 only heterogeneous environmental conditions within one year but also temporal
353 heterogeneity in land use across years. We expected that regrowth ability of plant
354 populations would increase with increasing temporal heterogeneity, but to our surprise,
355 we found the opposite: regrowth ability for reproductive biomass of *Plantago*
356 *lanceolata* was higher under temporally less variable mowing conditions. Generally,
357 plasticity evolves under heterogeneous environmental conditions (Scheiner 2013) but is
358 thought to be more advantageous in more predictable environments as plants need to be
359 able to forecast future conditions accurately to benefit from plasticity (Scheiner 1993;
360 Stuefer 1996; Alpert and Simms 2002; Lande 2009; Reed *et al.* 2010). In our study
361 system, low temporal heterogeneity in mowing intensity means that farmers maintained
362 the numbers of cuts per year over the last 11 years compared to high temporal
363 heterogeneity where mowing intensity changed across years. Hence, a temporally less
364 variable mowing regime creates a heterogenous but more predictable environment.

365 While the importance of environmental predictability for the evolution of plasticity has
366 been well-demonstrated in theoretical models (Scheiner 1993; Jong 1999; Lande 2009),
367 empirical tests are more scarce. For instance, plastic responses in allocation and fitness
368 traits to nutrient stress were strongest in *Hordeum spontaneum* plants from a predictable
369 Mediterranean habitat characterized by low inter-annual variation in precipitation (Volis
370 *et al.* 2002). Concluding, theoretical and empirical results, including those from our
371 study on land-use management, highlight the importance of heterogeneous but
372 predictable environmental conditions for the evolution of plasticity.

373 The predictability of environmental cues may also help to explain our different
374 results regarding mowing versus grazing. Mowing usually affects the whole population
375 equally and creates spatially predictable environmental conditions. It might therefore be
376 a reliable cue for initializing regrowth at the population level. Grazing, in contrast, is
377 spatially patchy and does not affect the population equally (Völler *et al.* 2017) but
378 usually creates spatial heterogeneity and might therefore be much less predictable at the
379 population level. In our study, only temporal heterogeneity in mowing intensity (but not
380 grazing intensity) was related to differential regrowth ability after biomass loss. Hence,
381 unpredictable environmental conditions, either within one year or across several years
382 could hamper selection on regrowth ability in response to a land-use gradient.

383 Furthermore, in our study system some grassland plots are managed with a combination
384 of both mowing and grazing, which might have added additional complexity, as the
385 different cues might interfere with each other and create unpredictable conditions.

386 Altogether, we propose that the predictability of biomass removal may be a key factor
387 determining whether population differentiation in regrowth ability will evolve in
388 response to land use, because only reliable cues allow to infer future environmental
389 conditions from current ones (Reed *et al.* 2010).

390 In general, reproductive biomass is a more representative fitness measure than
391 vegetative biomass. Therefore, it might not be surprising that we only found a
392 correlation of one land-use element – mowing – with reproductive biomass of *P.*
393 *lanceolata* as this might be the biomass component selection acts on. To lose unripe
394 seeds, that have received a substantial amount of resources but are still unable to
395 germinate, in a mowing or grazing event is much more costly for a plant than losing
396 only a part of its vegetative biomass. Unfortunately, the other two species produced too
397 few flowering individuals to perform statistical analysis on their reproductive output.
398 Since *B. hordeaceus* is an annual species, the experiment apparently did not provide
399 minimal conditions to fulfil its life cycle. This result therefore reflects a discrepancy
400 between field and experimental conditions, which may also have affected plant
401 responses to clipping.

402

403 **Conclusions**

404 Land use in grasslands creates environmental heterogeneity, which should affect
405 the evolution of phenotypic plasticity in plants. So far, to our knowledge, no previous
406 study explored the effects of inter- and intra-annual heterogeneity in land-use intensity
407 on the evolution of plasticity. We studied plasticity in response to biomass removal in
408 three common grassland plants from 58 – 68 populations and found genetic variation in
409 regrowth ability in two of the three species. While the land-use gradient *per se* was
410 unrelated to variation in regrowth ability, we showed that inter-annual temporal
411 predictability was significantly related to regrowth ability in one of the studied species.
412 Thus, our data suggest that inter- rather than intra-annual variability affected the
413 evolution of regrowth ability in this system. We need more long-term data on temporal

414 land-use variation together with common garden comparisons of the resident
415 populations to test this hypothesis more broadly.

416

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420

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570

571 **Table 1:** The three plant species used in our study, with numbers of individuals and
 572 populations in the experiment and in the final statistical analyses.

	<i>Achillea</i>	<i>Bromus</i>	<i>Plantago</i>
	<i>millefolium</i>	<i>hordeaceus</i>	<i>lanceolata</i>
Plant family	Asteraceae	Poaceae	Plantaginaceae
Pollination type	Insects	Wind	Wind
Life cycle	Perennial	Annual	Perennial
# Individuals (experiment/analyses)	812 / 736	952 / 832	882 / 772
# Populations (experiment/analyses)	58 / 58	68 / 67	63 / 63

573

574 **Table 2:** Results of linear mixed effects models testing effects of region of origin, population, clipping treatment and the interaction of the
 575 latter two on the total biomass of *Achillea millefolium*, *Bromus hordeaceus* and *Plantago lanceolata* as well as the reproductive biomass of
 576 *P. lanceolata*. Bold *P*-values indicate effects that are significant ($P < 0.05$) after FDR correction.

	<i>A. millefolium</i>				<i>B. hordeaceus</i>				<i>P. lanceolata</i>				<i>P. lanceolata</i>			
	Total biomass				Total biomass				Total biomass				Reprod. biomass			
	Num	Den	F	P	Num	Den	F	P	Num	Den	F	P	Num	Den	F	P
	d.f.	d.f.			d.f.	d.f.			d.f.	d.f.			d.f.	d.f.		
Region	2	596	2.55	0.079	2	682	0.11	0.897	2	634	1.60	0.202	2	615	10.68	<0.001
Population	55	309	2.26	<0.001	64	348	1.89	<0.001	60	323	1.53	0.011	60	323	1.90	<0.001
Treatment	1	308	284.02	<0.001	1	347	414.46	<0.001	1	322	338.86	<0.001	1	323	6.67	0.010
Pop:Treat	57	308	1.37	0.049	66	347	0.83	0.823	62	322	1.04	0.414	62	322	1.95	<0.001

577

578 **Table 3:** Results of linear mixed effects models testing for relationships between land-use intensities (mowing, grazing, or both processes
579 combined) and their temporal heterogeneities, and the regrowth abilities, i.e. phenotypic plasticity in response to clipping, of *Achillea*
580 *millefolium*, *Bromus hordeaceus* and *Plantago lanceolata*. We estimated plasticity as the log response ratios (LRR) of total biomass for all
581 three species, and as the LRR of reproductive biomass for *P. lanceolata*. All land-use intensities and their temporal heterogeneities are
582 based on 11 years of data (2006-2016), with temporal heterogeneity calculated as the standard deviations of mowing and grazing intensity,
583 respectively. Bold *P*-values indicate values significant at $P < 0.05$) after FDR correction.

584

	Num d.f.	<i>A. millefolium</i> LRR of total biomass			<i>B. hordeaceus</i> LRR of total biomass			<i>P. lanceolata</i> LRR of total biomass			<i>P. lanceolata</i> LRR of reprod. biomass	
		Den d.f.	F	P	Den d.f.	F	P	Den d.f.	F	P	F	P
Region	2	54	1.80	0.175	400	1.91	0.149	376	1.06	0.349	3.51	0.036
Mowing intensity	1	55	0.10	0.753	400	0.82	0.365	376	0.07	0.791	0.05	0.817
Region	2	54	1.96	0.150	400	1.80	0.167	376	1.34	0.263	3.53	0.036
Grazing intensity	1	53	0.45	0.503	400	0.72	0.397	376	0.54	0.463	0.34	0.562
Region	2	54	1.85	0.167	400	1.49	0.226	376	1.20	0.301	3.52	0.036
Total damage intensity	1	53	0.46	0.500	400	0.24	0.621	376	0.40	0.529	0.23	0.631
Region	2	53	1.80	0.175	400	1.33	0.288	376	1.23	0.293	3.92	0.026
Temporal variation in mowing intensity	1	56	0.20	0.653	400	0.45	0.480	376	0.99	0.320	6.63	0.013
Region	2	54	2.50	0.091	400	1.77	0.172	376	1.40	0.248	3.55	0.035
Temporal variation in grazing intensity	1	52	2.75	0.103	400	0.66	0.419	376	0.81	0.369	0.60	0.442
Region	2	54	2.36	0.105	400	1.73	0.179	376	1.80	0.167	3.71	0.031
Temporal variation in total damage intensity	1	52	1.48	0.230	400	0.41	0.523	376	1.91	0.168	3.27	0.076

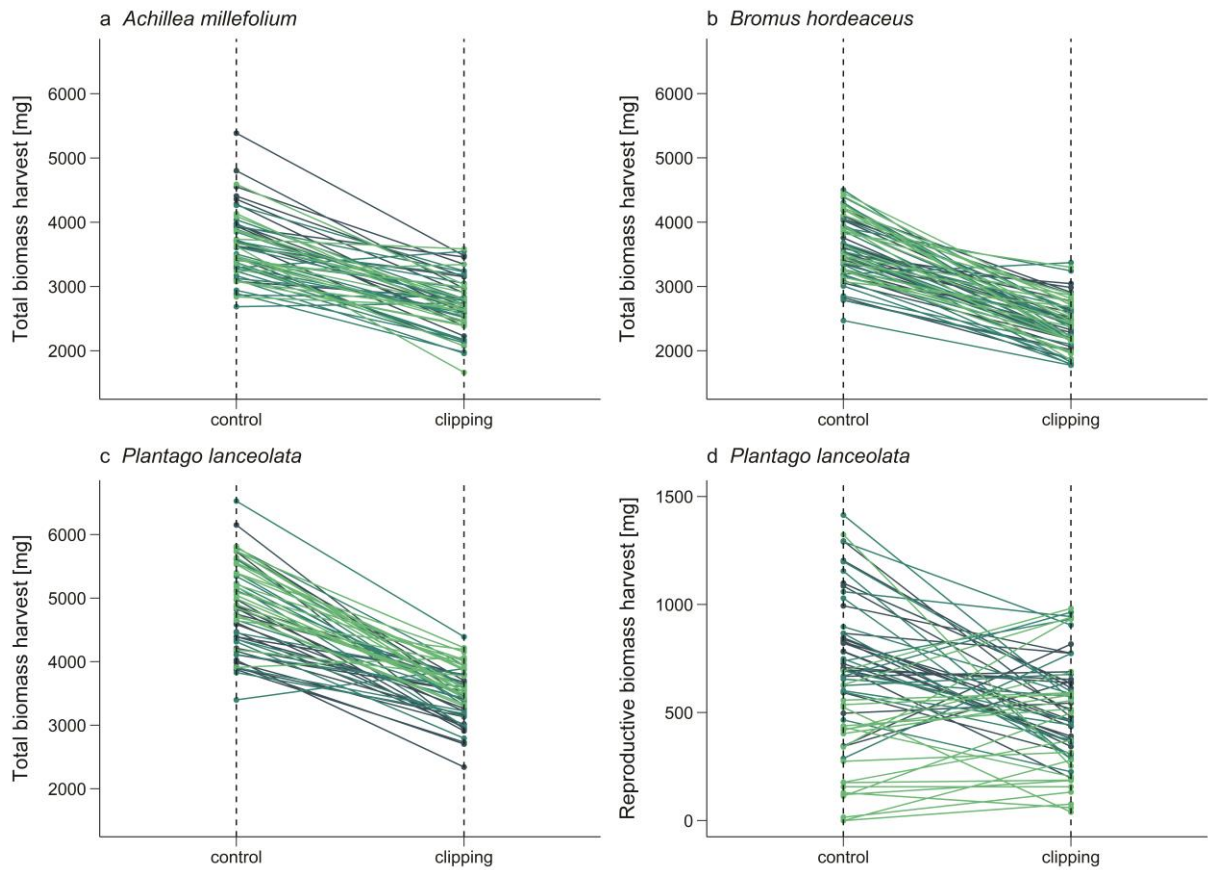
586 **Figure legends**

587 **Figure 1:** Reaction norms for total biomass of *Achillea millefolium* (a), *Bromus*
588 *hordeaceus* (b) and *Plantago lanceolata* (c) and for reproductive biomass of *P.*
589 *lanceolata* (d) in response to clipping (Schwäbische Alb in dark blue, Hainich in cyan,
590 Schorfheide-Chorin in light green). Each reaction norm represents the mean values of
591 five to seven seed families per population.

592

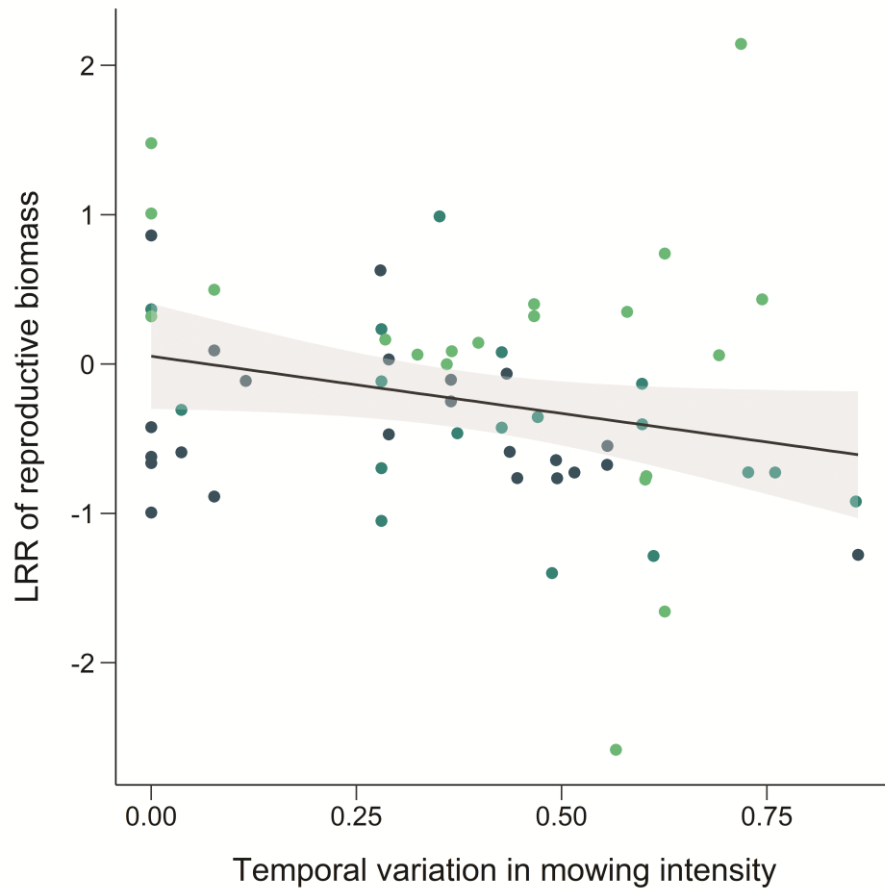
593 **Figure 2:** Relationship between the temporal land-use heterogeneity, calculated as the
594 standard deviation of mowing frequencies across 11 years, and the plastic regrowth
595 ability of 58 *Plantago lanceolata* populations, quantified as the log response ratio
596 (LRR) of their reproductive biomass to experimental clipping (Schwäbische Alb in dark
597 blue, Hainich in cyan, Schorfheide-Chorin in light green).

598 **Figure 1:** Reaction norms for total biomass of *Achillea millefolium* (A), *Bromus*
599 *hordeaceus* (B) and *Plantago lanceolata* (C) and for reproductive biomass of *P.*
600 *lanceolata* (D) in response to clipping (Schwäbische Alb in dark blue, Hainich in cyan,
601 Schorfheide-Chorin in light green). Each reaction norm represents the mean values of
602 five to seven seed families per population.



603

604 **Figure 2:** Relationship between the temporal land-use heterogeneity, calculated as the
605 standard deviation of mowing frequencies across 11 years, and the plastic regrowth
606 ability of 58 *Plantago lanceolata* populations, quantified as the log response ratio
607 (LRR) of their reproductive biomass to experimental clipping (Schwäbische Alb in dark
608 blue, Hainich in cyan, Schorfheide-Chorin in light green).



609

610

611 **Supplementary material**

612 **Figure S1:** Common garden at the experimental station of the University Tübingen. We
613 put the plants on individual saucers in a complete randomized order on weed control
614 fabric. We watered the plants as needed but at least two times per week.

615



616