

Global change and the evolution of phenotypic plasticity in plants

Silvia Matesanz^{a, b}, Ernesto Gianoli^{c, d, e}, and Fernando Valladares^{a, f}

^a Laboratorio Internacional de Cambio Global (LINC-Global), Instituto de Recursos Naturales, CCMA-CSIC, c/ Serrano 115. dpdo, 28006, Madrid, Spain; ^b Department of Biology, Wesleyan University, Middletown, CT, 06459, USA; ^c Departamento de Botánica, Universidad de Concepción, Casilla 160-C Concepción, Chile; ^d Departamento de Biología, Universidad de La Serena, Casilla 599 La Serena, Chile; ^e Center for Advanced Studies in Ecology and Biodiversity (CASEB), P. Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago, Chile; ^f Departamento de Biología y Geología. Universidad Rey Juan Carlos, c/ Tulipán s/n, 28933 Móstoles, Spain

Abstract

Global change drivers include climate and land use change, biotic introductions, overexploitation and pollution. These drivers create new environmental scenarios and selective pressures, affecting plant species in many and interacting ways. Phenotypic changes observed in plants include changes in phenology, physiology and reproduction, with consequences for biotic interactions, community composition and ecosystem functioning. Phenotypic plasticity is a major means by which plants respond to environmental variation, and we review here the information on plant plasticity under global change scenarios. Our aim is to illustrate promising approaches to investigate the evolution of phenotypic plasticity and to describe constraints to its evolution. Moreover, we discuss the largely ignored role of phenotypic plasticity in range shifts, which can profoundly affect the predictions of changes in species distributions and extinctions rates. We take advantage of the extensive literature on invasive species using them as model systems to test rapid evolution under novel environments. Experimental studies show that plastic responses to global change drivers are ubiquitous across species and affect a wide range of functional traits. Phenotypic plasticity can play a role both in the short-term response of plant populations to global change as well as in the maintenance of the genetic variation, and thus in the long term fate of plant populations. In addition, plasticity can be relevant in the establishment and persistence of plants in new environments, which is crucial both for plants introduced to new areas and for populations at the colonizing front edge in range shifts induced by climate change. If the new environmental conditions are different from the original conditions, plasticity of certain functional traits may be beneficial (i.e. the plastic response is accompanied by a fitness advantage) and thus selected for. In this regard, some of the reviewed studies proved that plasticity was adaptive. However, a striking finding is the lack of

experimental data to support the bulk of theoretical models on the evolution of phenotypic plasticity. Future research should be aimed at empirically testing whether plasticity is adaptive and whether it can evolve under different global change scenarios, including complex and realistic environments where different stresses occur simultaneously. Promising tools in this regard are the use of resurrection protocols and artificial selection experiments. We conclude that the evolution of phenotypic plasticity is crucial for plant adaptation to global change but also that our understanding of it remains fragmentary.

Keywords: global change, phenotypic plasticity, natural selection, invasive plants, adaptive, constraints, novel environment

1. Global change and phenotypic plasticity in plants

Natural systems have been profoundly transformed by human activities since the nineteenth century, but over the last three decades these changes are occurring at an unprecedented rate. Fundamental questions for evolutionary ecologists in a global change context are how plant species will respond to these new and complex environmental scenarios and what mechanisms will be involved in the process.^[1]

Phenotypic plasticity is a proposed mechanism by which plant species may persist when faced with these rapid environmental changes.^[2]

Although the term *global change* is widely used, there is no clear consensus on its definition, and many studies refer to global change and climate change indistinctly. However, a wider and more realistic definition is needed to accurately measure and predict plants' responses to global change.^[3] In the context of this review, we define global change as any anthropogenic environmental change that alters the atmosphere, the oceans and the terrestrial systems (e.g. climate change), including those changes that, although occurring locally, have global effects or are so widespread as to be considered global (e.g. land use changes) (modified from ^[4]). An obvious consequence that arises from this definition is that global change does not refer exclusively to climate change. Global change components, or drivers, can be grouped in five categories ^[5]: climate change, land use change, overexploitation, pollution and invasive species (see Fig. 1). These drivers of change impact plant species and communities in various and interacting ways and exert new selective pressures to which plants respond and possibly adapt.

The study of climate change-driven effects on plants has so far gained more attention than any other global change driver. Changes in the atmospheric CO₂ concentration, air and water temperatures, rainfall patterns and even the amount of solar

radiation reaching the Earth's surface have been altered due to human activities,^[6, 7] and the associated impacts in plants have been extensively documented across biomes.^[1, 8, 9] Overall, climate change has been shown to affect the phenology, abundance and distribution of plant species, as well as the composition of plant communities.^[9, 10] Other aspects of global change that have received great consideration are land use change and overexploitation, which refer to the alteration of ecosystems due to human activities like agriculture, industry and forestry (Fig. 1). These changes transform the landscape and cause habitat fragmentation, soil degradation and desertification.^[11, 12] Since 1850, 6 million km² of forest and woodland surface worldwide have been cleared for croplands or extensively managed,^[13] with dramatic consequences for the natural habitat of many plant species. For example, habitat fragmentation reduces the size and genetic variability of plant populations and may disrupt plant-pollinator interactions, eventually reducing individual plant fitness and reproduction.^[14, 15]

Alongside climate change and land use changes, the introduction of alien species is considered among the greatest threats to biodiversity.^[4] In Europe alone, more than 6000 plant species have been classified as aliens.^[16] Invasive species alter plant-plant interactions, reduce the abundance or even displace the native flora and affect ecosystem functioning.^[17] Finally, we define pollution as all the contaminants that are introduced in the environment as well as naturally-occurring substances -like greenhouse gases or nitrogen- whose concentrations have increased due to human activities (Fig. 1). Pollution can cause local extinction of plant species, affect physiology and biomass allocation and alter the composition of plant communities due to different sensitivities of species to the presence of contaminants or altered nitrogen supplies.^[18]

Importantly, most plant species in natural conditions face multiple global change drivers simultaneously.^[19, 20] For example, plants in fragmented landscapes may also face increases in temperature or reductions in rainfall. Although the responses of plant species to interacting global change drivers remain largely unknown, there are some studies showing evidence of synergistic interactions that modify the response of plant species to multiple stresses.^[3, 21] For instance, Matesanz et al.^[3] found that the interaction between fragmentation and habitat quality led to lower survival and lower relative growth in plants of the Mediterranean species *Centaurea hyssopifolia*.

Plants cope with these changing environments in different ways. One way in which plants respond to environmental variation is through phenotypic plasticity, i.e., the capacity of a given genotype to express different phenotypes under different environmental conditions.^[22] Plastic responses can affect the performance and reproductive success of individual plants and the ecological breadth of plant species.^[23, 24] Phenotypic plasticity is a trait itself and, therefore, is subject to evolution by natural selection or other evolutionary mechanisms.^[22, 25] If there is genetic variation for plasticity of functional traits (genotype by environment interaction),^[22] and some response results in a fitness advantage, phenotypic plasticity can evolve by natural selection. Many empirical studies have shown evidence of plastic responses to key ecological factors of several functional and life-history traits, including morphology, physiology and reproduction (e.g. ^[26-28]). In cases where plasticity in these traits improves plant survival and reproduction, this plasticity is considered adaptive (see section 3).^[29] Phenotypic plasticity may be one of the main responses of plant populations to global change in the short term. Moreover, if there exists genetic variation for adaptive phenotypic plasticity in natural plant populations, the evolution of

phenotypic plasticity may ultimately play a major role in the successful response of plants to global change.

Over the last decades, the study of phenotypic plasticity has received extensive attention from ecologists and evolutionary biologists. However, despite the theoretical and experimental effort devoted to this field, the evolution of phenotypic plasticity in plants and its implications in a global change context remain largely understudied. In this review, we address the role of adaptive phenotypic plasticity in plant adaptation to global change. We first summarize the accounts of plant plasticity in global change scenarios, particularly focusing on the studies showing evidence for selection on plasticity. We also review general studies on evolution of phenotypic plasticity in plants, and discuss the insights that they provide for potential evolution of plasticity under global change. Moreover, we review the existing literature on the evolution of plasticity in invasive species, as they represent model systems to test rapid evolution in novel environments, and show how plasticity can be related to other described plant responses to global change such as range shifts. We discuss some important constraints for the evolution of phenotypic plasticity and identify promising approaches to study the evolution of plasticity. Finally, we identify key questions for future research.

2. Accounts of phenotypic plasticity in a changing world

As sessile organisms, plants exhibit a remarkable capacity to adjust their morphology, physiology and reproduction to a particular set of environmental conditions by means of phenotypic plasticity. There is currently abundant evidence of plant plastic responses to global change drivers. Observed plastic responses span over a broad variety of functional traits, as different components of global change affect different traits (Table 1). One of the most ubiquitous – and largely studied – forms of phenotypic plasticity is the change in phenology in response to changes in climate, which has been observed in many plant species worldwide (reviewed in ^[1, 9, 30]). For example, in a recent meta-analysis, Menzel et al. ^[10] reported a 2.5 days-per-decade advance in spring and summer events for 542 plant species as a response to the warming weather.^[10] Although these studies usually do not include a genetically structured sample and therefore can confound evolutionary and plastic responses, studies performed in phenological garden networks in which the same genotypes are observed every year show similar patterns.^[31, 32] As climate change elicits plastic responses in plant phenology, other global change drivers such as nitrogen deposition, elevated CO₂, habitat fragmentation or pollution also affect plant phenology.^[33, 34] For example, Power et al. ^[34] found an advance in bud-burst in *Calluna vulgaris* plants that had an experimental manipulation of nitrogen availability, and Ryser and Sauder ^[35] found a delay in flowering date in plants growing in metal-contaminated soil. Similarly, Sigurdsson ^[36] reported plastic responses in the autumn phenology of seedlings of *Populus trichocarpa* as a response to a combination of nitrogen addition and elevated CO₂.

In addition to changes in phenology, many studies have documented morphological and physiological plastic responses to other components of environmental change such as drought,^[37-41] light gradients,^[42-46] changes in

temperature,^[47] elevated CO₂,^[48-50] pollution^[51-54] or combinations of global change drivers.^[3, 43, 55, 56]

These plastic responses range from changes at the leaf level, like adjustments in stomatal conductance or increases in water use efficiency, to whole-plant responses, including changes in growth patterns or biomass allocation, and may be beneficial for plant performance in stressful and/or changing environments, reducing the fitness consequences of anthropogenic environmental change.^[57] For example, allocation to root mass or increases in root length maximize water acquisition under drought conditions,^[40, 41, 58, 59] and advances in phenology when conditions are stressful may enable plant species to escape stress and reproduce.^[60, 61]

Although the mere observation of a plastic response to a given environment does not necessarily mean that this response is adaptive,^[39, 62] if plants achieve greater fitness in the new environment –or maintain fitness in a stressful environment– as a consequence of plasticity, then plasticity is adaptive. If this is the case, plastic responses to the human-induced environmental change may affect the phenotypes without genetic change to the population, buffering the strength of selection and consequently preventing plant populations from reductions in genetic variability.^[57, 63-65] This is of critical importance in a global change context, as the maintenance of genetic variation increases the potential for adaptation to new environments.^[66] It is also noteworthy that even in the case that the plastic response does not produce an optimum phenotype in the novel environment, plasticity may allow plants to survive and establish, at least initially, under the new conditions.^[63, 67]

In conclusion, both observational and experimental studies show that plastic responses to environmental variation are common across species, not only as a response to climate change but also to other global change drivers. Moreover, phenotypic

plasticity may play a role both in the short-term response of plant populations to global change as well as in the maintenance of the genetic variation. Altogether, this suggests that the standing phenotypic plasticity might be an important mechanism to deal with global change.

3. Selection on phenotypic plasticity and global change

So far, studies on plant responses to global change have mostly focused on the role of existing plasticity –usually considering plasticity as an alternative to evolution^[20, 57] or on the evolution of mean traits as a response to new selective forces.^[1, 9, 68] We have shown evidence that plants are responding plastically throughout the world to the new environmental conditions. However, a usually overlooked but potentially important component of plant response to global change is the evolution of phenotypic plasticity.^[69]

Phenotypic plasticity is a trait under genetic control, and therefore is subject to evolution by different mechanisms such as natural selection or drift.^[22, 25, 29, 62] One of the most critical characteristics of anthropogenic global change is that it is leading to a completely new array of environmental scenarios that plants may have not experienced before,^[70] creating new and strong selective pressures. If the new environmental conditions are different from the original conditions, plasticity of certain functional traits may be beneficial and therefore selected for, if some norms of reaction confer a fitness advantage in the novel environment.^[22, 71]

For evolution of phenotypic plasticity by natural selection to occur, several conditions need to be satisfied. Firstly, there is a need for environmental heterogeneity.^[22] In nature, this is hardly a limitation, because constant environments, either spatially or temporally, are virtually nonexistent. This is especially relevant in a climate change context, since increases in the interannual variation of temperature and rainfall and in the frequency of extreme climatic events have been predicted for different regions.^[72] Consequently, it has been proposed that there will be selection pressures for increased plastic responses to variations in climate.^[67, 73] In this context, some studies have shown greater adaptive plasticity in plants occurring in

heterogeneous environments compared to more homogeneous ones,^[39, 74-76] suggesting that the evolution of phenotypic plasticity can indeed be favored in heterogeneous environments as long as the environmental cues that promote the plastic response remain reliable and plastic responses can take place on time (see section 6).^[22, 69]

Secondly, phenotypic plasticity of functional traits can evolve only when there is within-population genetic variation for plasticity in the functional traits, i.e. different genotypes respond differently to the same set of environments. So far, studies have reported genetic variation for plasticity, measured as the genotype-by-environment interaction.^[45, 74, 77-80] In this context, recent studies have also shown that a certain amount of cryptic genetic variation may exist in plant genomes, being expressed when the organism encounters rare or novel environments.^[81, 82] The concept of the “hidden reaction norm” arises from the idea that parts of these unexpressed sources of variation would be expressed when environmental change occurs (see ^[81] Fig. 2 for a graphical example). This hidden genetic variation may play a critical role in phenotypic evolution to global change, as it may modulate the potential for evolution to novel environments.

Thirdly, and most importantly, for plasticity to be adaptive, and therefore selected for, it needs to have an impact on plant fitness. There are now some examples showing evidence of adaptive plasticity as a response to different environmental factors.^[27, 39, 40, 44, 45, 74, 77-80, 83-85] For example, Heschel et al.^[40] found that plastic responses in water use efficiency were adaptive under drought conditions in the species *Polygonum persicaria*, and in a recent study, van Kleunen et al.^[85] found that plastic responses of morphological traits of *Ranunculus reptans* to flooding were adaptive and had evolved in response to direct selection on plasticity.

Different global change scenarios may alternatively lead to the evolution of reduced plasticity. For instance, there may be certain functional traits for which the

expression of a flat norm of reaction in a specific set of environments is adaptive. For example, maintaining high photosynthetic rates in both moist and dry conditions is likely to be adaptive in both environments. If there is genetic variation for plasticity in the population, the genotypes expressing the most canalised (flat) norm of reaction will be selected. If this is the case, there will be evolution of reduced plasticity.

Likewise, evolution of reduced plasticity may occur through genetic assimilation. Plasticity may initially allow the establishment of a plant species in a new environment (see section 4). Over time, selection will favor the most successful phenotype in the new environment and, if the original environment is not experienced anymore and/or there are costs to plasticity, genetic variation for plasticity (and for mean traits) may be lost from the population.^[63, 66, 67, 71, 86] Moreover, if gene flow is limited and therefore no new genetic variation enters the population, this process will compromise the potential for adaptation of the population to further changes in the environment.^[66, 67] For example, a prolonged (more than one season) and intense drought may act as a strong selection force in a population of an annual species. In that case, selection will act very fast favoring the genotypes that have higher fitness in the dry environment, therefore losing genetic variability from the population. Reduced genetic variability may not only alter fitness by increased inbreeding,^[15] but also will affect the persistence of the population in moist years and microhabitats.

A survey of the literature leads to two main conclusions. First, studies showing adaptive plastic responses are usually performed in very simple environments varying mainly in one or two abiotic factors such as light and water. As we have shown in section 2, plastic responses to other global change drivers like elevated CO₂ or nitrogen availability have been addressed in a number of studies (e.g. ^[50, 87-90]), but hardly any of these studies have tested whether these plastic responses are adaptive by assessing

fitness consequences (but see ^[83, 91, 92]). Second, plasticity is in itself a trait that can evolve as a response to environmental variation, and there is some evidence that plasticity may be adaptive and selected for. Moreover, there is evidence that there can be cryptic genetic variation that could be expressed in novel global change scenarios. This, together with the predicted increase of the environmental heterogeneity suggests that there could be opportunities for selection on plasticity under global change. Therefore, it becomes clear that phenotypic plasticity may play a relevant role both in short-term responses but also in plant adaptation to global change. However, it also stands out that our understanding of the potential for evolution of phenotypic plasticity as a response to global change is still very limited, primarily due to the lack of experimental data testing the predictions shown in the great amount of theoretical studies available on this subject.^[93] Future research should be aimed at empirically testing whether plasticity is adaptive in different global change scenarios, including more complex and novel environments where different stresses occur simultaneously (see section 7 for promising approaches to study the evolution of plasticity).^[20]

4. Phenotypic plasticity and range shifts

One of the most documented responses of plant species to climate change are range shifts, i.e., the dispersal or migration of plant species towards higher latitudes and altitudes, where environmental conditions are more similar to environments in the species historic range.^[94, 95] So far, there are several examples throughout the world showing changes in plant species distributions as a response to climate change,^[95-98] and great effort has been devoted to the simulation and prediction of future species distributions and local extinctions.^[99, 100] Despite the fact that these simulations are very helpful in a global change context, an important limitation of this approach is that they often fail to account for the role that phenotypic plasticity may play in the persistence and later adaptation of plants to novel environments.^[99, 100]

Phenotypic plasticity may play an important role in the establishment of plant populations in novel environments, either after colonization of a new habitat or as a response to the change in the *in situ* environmental conditions.^[22, 71, 74] If plasticity has evolved as a response to environmental heterogeneity in a specific habitat, and this within-habitat variation resembles the differences between two different habitats, plasticity may allow the establishment and persistence of the population in the novel environment.^[74] For example, plasticity may evolve in a population as a response to spatial (different microhabitats) or temporal (seasonal) heterogeneity in water availability. If some of the genotypes from this population colonize a consistently drier (or moister) habitat and are able to express plastic responses that lead to functional (although maybe not the fittest) phenotypes, plasticity may allow them to persist in this novel habitat.^[101, 102]

In the same context, phenotypic plasticity may further facilitate local adaptation to novel habitats that may arise as a result of global change.^[63] For example, if the

colonizing genotypes express a suboptimal phenotype in the new environment,^[22] directional selection will occur favoring the phenotypes that express the closest phenotype to the optimum in the new environment, therefore facilitating adaptation to the new conditions.^[63, 65] As we have mentioned in section 3, plasticity may be or maybe not lost after establishing in the new conditions.^[63]

Likewise, plasticity may also favor adaptation to new environments by limiting gene flow between the original and the newly colonized population. In a recent study, Levin ^[103] showed that individuals colonizing new habitats often experiment plastic phenological shifts, delaying or advancing flowering and reproduction as a response to the new conditions. This environment-driven change in flowering time results in assortative (non-random) mating within populations, reducing gene flow between populations and promoting the evolution of local adaptation in a newly colonized environment.

In this context, it is noteworthy mentioning that plasticity may also be relevant as an indirect response to global change. For example, if a plant species shifts its distribution to track changes in climate, it might be exposed to other new environmental conditions to which it may also respond plastically. For example, a plant species may migrate northward to keep the climatic conditions constant. However, soil features and the composition of the plant community in the new environment may be different, as species differ in the ability to track changes in climate.^[100] Thus, species interactions and soil nutrient availability can be rather different in the new environment, despite similarities in climate.

Alongside the role of plasticity in colonization and adaptation to novel environments, the evolution of phenotypic plasticity may be critical for the persistence of plant populations in complex scenarios where different global change drivers interact.

In cases where opportunities for dispersal and distributions shifts are limited by natural barriers or habitat fragmentation, rapid adaptation may be necessary to prevent extinction of plant species subject to global change^[1, 70] For example, in fragmented or alpine habitats where dispersal and migration to other favorable sites is limited or even prevented, evolutionary processes, including the evolution of plasticity, play a more important role in adaptation to changing environmental conditions.^[61, 67]

Another and relatively unknown form of plasticity that may be very beneficial in these situations is transgenerational plasticity, i.e. the effects of the maternal environment on the development of the offspring. Some studies have reported adaptive transgenerational plasticity when the maternal and the offspring environments are correlated.^[104] For example, in a recent study, Sultan et al. ^[59] found that drought-stressed plants of *Polygonum persicaria*, a plant that occurs in a wide variety of moisture conditions, produced offspring that grew longer roots and greater biomass when grown in dry conditions.^[59] Likewise, it has been shown that once they find physical support, *Ipomoea purpurea* twining vines develop thicker stems and shorter internodes as compared to prostrate vines, and the attained phenotype is associated with better performance,^[105] interestingly, the offspring of supported mother plants showed thicker stems and shorter internodes than the offspring of unsupported mother plants.^[106]

The role of phenotypic plasticity in colonization and adaptation has important consequences for simulations of changes in species distributions and predictions of local extinctions due to global change. Phenotypic plasticity not only allows colonization and adaptation to novel environments but also may be very beneficial in critical situations where dispersal is limited. Altogether, this suggests that the projections of shrinkage of species ranges or local extinctions may be overestimated or misleading. Future research

should be aimed at combining multispecies studies on range shifts with fine-grain studies that incorporate the role of plasticity.

5. Phenotypic plasticity and invasive species

Biological invasions have long been considered a widespread component of human-caused global change.^[4] The number of plant species accidentally or purposely transported by humans across continents has significantly increased in the last centuries.^[17] Some of these species become abundant in their introduced range and spread rapidly across diverse habitats, outcompeting native species, changing the structure and functioning of native plant communities, and causing both environmental and economic problems.^[107, 108]

Despite the enormous amount of effort dedicated over the last two decades to the study of invasive plant species, the evolutionary mechanisms that lead to invasiveness in introduced species remain unclear in many cases.^[109] It is commonly thought that if a species is able to maintain fitness across a broad variety of environmental conditions it is more likely to become invasive.^[71, 110] A major way that plants achieve this kind of niche breadth is by means of adaptive phenotypic plasticity.^[24, 74, 111] Two main non-exclusive hypotheses have been posed to explain the role of phenotypic plasticity in plant invasions.^[71, 112] First, invasive species may be more plastic than native or alien non-invasive species, and second, invasive populations may be more plastic compared to populations in the native range. The last hypothesis is especially interesting as it allows for tests of the evolution of phenotypic plasticity in the introduced range.

In support of the first hypothesis, previous studies on the phenotypic plasticity of invasive plants have compared invasive and native species, addressing the role of plasticity in the performance of invasives compared to their native neighbors (reviewed in ^[71, 113]). Some of these studies used related species to compare the differences in plasticity between native and introduced species, therefore accounting for the phylogenetic history of the species compared. While several studies support the idea

that invasive species are more plastic for physiological and morphological traits affecting fitness in response to ecologically relevant environments than their native counterparts ^[71], recent evidence challenges the generality of this pattern (Palacio-López & Gianoli, unpublished).^[114, 115]

It has also been hypothesized that invasive species are able to undergo rapid evolutionary change.^[116-119] Invasions of novel environments usually involve changes in selection forces that may lead to evolutionary change.^[117, 118] In this context, rapid evolution of plasticity may play an important role in the success of introduced species in introduced habitats if plasticity in functional traits is accompanied by a fitness advantage in the novel environment.^[71] Alternatively, phenotypic plasticity may grant initial survival in novel habitats, and then natural selection could operate at the local scale, driving evolution of ecotypes (see section 4).^[120]

As mentioned before, an experimental approach to test for the evolution of plasticity in invasive species is the comparison of a sample of populations of a particular species from both the introduced and the native range.^[71, 119] In the introduced range, selection may act on mean trait values and/or on the plasticity of functional traits, i.e. it may drive the evolution of both the elevation and the slope of the reaction norm (Figure 2). While there a number of studies focusing on the differences in mean functional traits between populations of different origin (e.g. tests on the evolution of increased competitive ability, EICA hypothesis,^[121, 122]), only a few studies have compared patterns of phenotypic plasticity in native versus introduced populations (Table 2). These studies span a wide variety of taxa and growth forms and assess changes in plasticity to several ecologically relevant factors such as water, light and nutrient availability, soil pH and presence of predators. While all the reviewed studies showed significant plastic responses of the invasive species from both the native and

introduced range, there is no clear pattern as to whether phenotypic plasticity is higher in introduced populations, as only half of the studies showed evidence for an increased plasticity in the populations of the introduced range. Moreover, the observation of increased plasticity in the introduced populations does not necessarily mean that plasticity has evolved as adaptation after the introduction.^[123] Other processes such as the filtering of genotypes that are not preadapted or founder effects may account for higher plasticity in the introduced range.^[124, 125] For example, Bossdorf et al.^[123] found greater plasticity for root biomass as a response to fertilization in the introduced populations of *Senecio inaequidens*, but they were also less genetically variable and similar to a group of the native populations, suggesting that plastic preadapted genotypes from the native range have been able to invade the introduced range, without undergoing adaptive evolution of plasticity, i.e. although strictly speaking the population has evolved, there has not been adaptive evolution in the population, as the surviving genotypes were already present in the population.

In this context, it is also worth mentioning that plasticity may evolve in the introduced range, but the resulting plasticity does not necessarily need to be higher than in the native populations. As we have mentioned in section 3, there may be functional traits for which the expression of a flat norm of reaction is adaptive. This suggests that the expected outcome of these comparisons does not necessarily need to be evolution of increased plasticity, as it is both trait and environment-dependent. Formal tests of whether the change in plasticity translates into fitness advantages and knowledge of the introduction history and genetic relatedness of the populations may help to elucidate whether plasticity has evolved in the introduced range.

It was rather surprising to find that only the studies by Kaufman and Smouse^[126] and van Kleunen and Fischer^[127] assessed within-population genetic variation for

phenotypic plasticity (Table 2), i.e. differences in plasticity among genotypes (maternal families) within each population. Both studies found significant genetic variation for phenotypic plasticity. It is generally recognized that increasing the number of sampled populations at the expense of maintaining maternal families within each population results in a better knowledge of the differences in plasticity between the introduced and the native range of the invasive species.^[71, 128] In the case of using the first approach, only one individual per genotype is included in the experiment, as opposed to including different replicates (siblings or clones) of the same genotype (maternal family) and assign them to the different environments. The evolutionary implications of within-population variability highlight the need for studies accounting for this source of variation. As outlined in previous sections, within-population genetic variation for plasticity (G x E) is a measure of its potential for evolution in the population. This parameter can aid in understanding the dynamics of the invasive species in the introduced range and its potential for adaptation to new environmental conditions.

Finally, as well as the invasive species may undergo evolutionary processes when they are introduced in a new plant community, they also represent new environments for the native species, and might thus affect the evolution of plasticity in native species.^[64] For example, Lau ^[129] found that the exotic plant *Medicago polymorpha* and an exotic herbivore altered the strength and direction of natural selection on the competitive ability and anti-herbivore defenses of the native plant *Lotus wrangelianus*. Evolution of plasticity in the native species in traits involved in the persistence in invaded communities may therefore be a critical component of the evolutionary response of native plants to invasive species.

6. Constraints on the evolution of phenotypic plasticity

The expression and evolution of phenotypic plasticity in plants may be limited by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors, which have been extensively listed and discussed ([62, 102, 130-134]; see Valladares et al. [2] Fig. 1 for a summarizing scheme). Moreover, evolution of phenotypic plasticity, being itself a trait, [78, 135, 136] is subject to the typical constraints to evolution of any phenotypic trait, which has been comprehensively studied. [137-140]

We will focus here on two constraints to the evolution of plasticity in plants. The first one limits the expression of phenotypic plasticity and hence its possibility of being target of natural selection. This constraint is phenotypic integration –the network of character correlations– and, to our knowledge, it has not been explicitly considered in earlier lists of costs and limits of phenotypic plasticity. The study of phenotypic integration as a likely constraint to the evolution of plasticity may be relevant in the context of global change because of the simultaneous occurrence of potential selective factors –namely global change drivers– that affect different target traits that could be correlated. The second constraint is related to the adaptive value of phenotypic plasticity in the novel environment in connection to the environmental cue triggering the plastic response. This is one of a few specific unambiguous plasticity costs, i.e., distinct from those ascribable to any phenotypic trait. Addressing the relationship between environmental heterogeneity and phenotypic plasticity has significant bearings on global change research in view of the unpredictability of climatic regimes associated with this global pattern.

Phenotypic integration refers to the pattern and magnitude of character correlations [141] and is usually estimated as the number of significant phenotypic correlations between traits. [102, 142, 143] A classical study on phenotypic integration by Berg [144] showed a decoupling between correlation pleiades of reproductive and

vegetative traits in several herbaceous plants. It is thought that patterns of trait variation and covariation may be consequence of correlational selection or, alternatively, of the genetic/developmental architecture of the organism.^[145] It has been recently shown that phenotypic plasticity may be inversely related to phenotypic integration. Gianoli and Palacio-López^[146] reported for the perennial species *Convolvulus chilensis* and *Lippia alba* that plasticity of a given trait to shading and drought, respectively, decreased with the number of significant correlations that it had with the other phenotypic traits. The notion that phenotypic integration might constitute an internal constraint to phenotypic plasticity was suggested in earlier studies,^[2, 105, 136, 142, 147, 148] but experimental evidence was not available. This finding reveals an apparent trade-off between two essential features of organism functioning, namely flexibility and coherence, whose evolutionary implications should be further investigated,^[146] particularly if phenotypic correlations reflect genetic correlations, as has been shown for several plant species.^[149] Progress in this area requires a better understanding of the ecological and evolutionary significance of phenotypic integration, which can be viewed as a constraint as well as an adaptation.^[150] While there is some evidence of pollinator-mediated selection on intrafloral integration (^[151], but see ^[152]), evidences of the adaptive value of phenotypic integration at the whole-plant level are lacking. It has been reported for several plant species that phenotypic integration increases with environmental stress,^[75, 142, 153-155] but it is currently unknown whether this pattern reflects a functional response or it is merely a stress symptom. Furthermore, in order to gain insights into the nature (and possibly, hierarchy) of relationships between traits in the context of phenotypic plasticity, we need a –not yet available– tractable quantitative framework where the outcome of the complex network of interactions among characters and the environment may be represented in multivariate phenotypic spaces (see ^[156]).

For plasticity to be adaptive there should be a good match between the attained phenotype and the environment. Consequently, phenotypic plasticity will not be adaptive when the environmental cues eliciting plant responses are unreliable, i.e., when these cues are not significantly associated with the environment of selection.^[76, 131, 157-159] Such a mismatch may occur when the response time of the trait is similar to or longer than the duration of the environmental state that triggered the response. This is more relevant for developmental plasticity, which is hardly reversible, than for physiological responses, which may be reversed over short time scales. When should temporal heterogeneity select for phenotypic plasticity? Pigliucci ^[22] provides a thoughtful analysis of evolutionary outcomes regarding plasticity in the presence and absence of environmental cues and depending on the duration of temporal fluctuation as compared to generation time. Empirical support to these theoretical expectations is needed.^[22] In fact, at this point there is little quantitative evidence for a significant and positive relationship between temporal environmental heterogeneity and phenotypic plasticity in plant populations. Table 3 shows nine studies where this relationship was evaluated or could be inferred, and in five cases it was verified. , not all of these five cases reported adaptive phenotypic plasticity. We stress the need to gather more empirical information on the relationship between temporal heterogeneity and phenotypic plasticity, which perhaps has been over-theorized, in order to adequately address some basic issues. For instance, i) Under which conditions is this relationship verified? And ii) Which is the more relevant temporal scale selecting for plasticity, within-year or between years? iii) Does growth habit influence this hypothesized relationship? Table 3 shows that all four perennials verified the hypothesis, but this evidence is clearly insufficient to draw any conclusion. These issues are particularly important in view of the rapid rate of climate change and complex pattern of

environmental variation associated with its strengthening, which includes increased unpredictability in within-year and between-years regimes of rainfall and temperature, and increased frequency of extreme climatic events.^[72] A comprehensive understanding of the ecological scenarios under which plasticity can evolve will help us to estimate the chances of plant species and populations to successfully cope with the current rapid rate of global environmental change.

7. Promising approaches to test for the evolution of phenotypic plasticity

The evolution of phenotypic plasticity has been treated extensively in the literature from a theoretical standpoint.^[130, 158, 160-167] How should we experimentally approach the evolution of phenotypic plasticity in plants in the context of global change? Here, we advocate the use of two particularly promising approaches to test for the evolution of phenotypic plasticity: artificial selection and resurrection experiments. We recommend these methods because they both involve experimental tests of the evolution of plasticity, contrary to theoretical studies, and because they allow determining whether evolution has occurred and/or the potential for evolution of plasticity.

Selection experiments can be classified in two categories: artificial selection and quasi-natural selection.^[93] In an artificial selection experiment, a specific and known selective force is imposed on a phenotypic trait (or on phenotypic plasticity as a trait itself) by selecting those individuals that show extreme values for the trait.^[93, 168, 169] On the contrary, in a quasi-natural selection experiment, specific environmental conditions are established and selection acts on the whole organism, i.e. evolution occurs as a function of fitness. Studies selecting for phenotypic plasticity require the estimation of phenotypic plasticity by measuring a target trait and the plasticity for that trait across environments (usually two) in replicates of the same genotypes. There are a number of limitations associated to this type of experiments. For example, it is not feasible to perform artificial experiments using species with long juvenile periods. Also, in the case of fast-growing annual species, the high amount of resources required to perform long-term experiments can be a constraint. Despite these limitations, artificial selection is the best way to determine if and how fast a target trait will evolve under a given strength of selection.^[20, 93, 168, 169] It also allows testing for the ability of species or populations to

adapt to novel environments, and therefore, this approach may be very useful to test the short-term evolutionary effects of global change on plants.

Table 4 shows artificial selection studies assessing the evolution of phenotypic plasticity in plants, either when measured as a correlated response or as the target trait of selection. The number of studies available is quite limited, probably due to the fact that the design, protocols and interpretation of the results of these studies can be extremely challenging.^[168] It is also noteworthy that many studies focus on model plants like *Arabidopsis thaliana* or other Brassicaceae relatives. More than half of the studies showed either low heritability of plasticity compared to mean trait heritability, or no response of plasticity to selection whatsoever. These results may be due to a combination of different factors. First, initial genetic variation for plasticity in the base populations may be low (i.e. studies showing low heritabilities), which may drastically limit the potential for evolution. Second, the number of generation included in these studies is usually low (in most cases 3 or fewer generations), which may also limit the capacity to observe a response to selection.^[62] Finally, there may be limits and costs of plasticity constraining its evolution (see section 6).^[62, 93] More studies are required to assess the response of plasticity to selection by global change drivers, including long-term studies assessing the potential for evolution of non-model species in complex and realistic global change scenarios.

An emerging approach to test for the evolution of plasticity is the use of resurrection experiments,^[68] which allow for comparisons between plant genotypes from different generations within the same populations, stored as seeds, and grown simultaneously under controlled conditions. There are some limitations inherent to this approach, such as the confounding effects of gene flow or the possibility that the genotypes sampled at each generation are a biased sample of the population (due to

interannual variations in climate and/or persistent seed banks;^[68]). However, this protocol can provide some evidence of evolutionary change within natural populations over a known period of time. In this regard, preliminary results of a series of resurrection experiments suggest the potential for rapid evolution in the increasingly invasive annual *Polygonum cespitosum* (s.l.), introduced in North America. One experiment compared genotypes collected from the same three field populations in 1994 and in 2005 grown at ambient and elevated CO₂ concentrations at a Free Air Concentration Enrichment (FACE) site. Although there was no evidence of recent evolution for the number of fruits each plant produced, plants from two of the populations had evolved to produce larger fruits in both CO₂ treatments, with a more pronounced increase in plants grown at elevated CO₂. Results also suggest that both physiological and life-history traits are evolving rapidly in populations of this species in ways that affect performance in ambient but not elevated CO₂ conditions (T. Horgan-Kobelski, S.E. Sultan, and S.P. Long, unpublished data).

In conclusion, despite their limitations, the two proposed approaches can be very useful to understand whether plasticity has evolved as a response to the change in environmental conditions, but also can shed light on the evolutionary potential for plant phenotypic plasticity to enhance performance under global change scenarios.

8. Concluding remarks

The aim of this review was to understand phenotypic plasticity of plants in a global change context. We have shown that plastic responses to global change scenarios are abundant and occur at different levels across individuals, populations and species. However, evidence of adaptive plasticity remains scarce, particularly under novel environmental conditions. The understanding of phenotypic plasticity -and particularly of its evolution- in a changing world is still very limited, primarily due to the lack of experimental data. Future research should aim at filling this gap with experimental rather than theoretical studies, testing for adaptive plasticity as a response to complex and realistic environments. In this context, field studies are crucial to understand the complex environments where plants evolve. This knowledge, together with the predictions of climatic conditions that plants will face in the future can be used as the basis for controlled common garden experiments. Also, we want to stress the importance of a reliable genetic sampling within populations to understand the potential for evolution of plasticity. In this sense, comparisons of less than 6-8 genotypes per population may lack the statistical power to detect differences in mean traits and plasticity across genotypes.^[40]

Important questions involving promising future research emerged from this review. A relatively unexplored field in the context of phenotypic plasticity and global change is to understand whether populations of different co-occurring species have different genetic variation for plasticity and thus have different potential for evolution of plasticity as a response to the same changing environment. This may have important consequences as it may affect plant-plant interactions and alter plant community composition, as some species are likely to express and evolve plasticity faster than others. Multispecies comparisons of plasticity patterns with a good population sampling

can provide relevant information in this regard (see ^[170] for a discussion on comparisons of plasticity patterns across species).

Finally, a paramount question in the face of plant adaptation to global change that still remains open and controversial is whether phenotypic changes are due to plasticity, genetic change or a combination of both. As we have shown, plasticity may prevent evolutionary change by shielding populations from natural selection ^[171] but also may promote evolution.^[63, 172] We have also shown that global change is leading to important phenotypic changes, and it has been suggested that the rate of environmental change imposed by human activities is so rapid that most phenotypic changes observed in natural populations are due to plasticity.^[57] But plasticity itself and its potential for evolution is challenged by global change. Global change typically involves simultaneous changes in several environmental factors, usually imposing multifactor stresses (e.g. extreme temperatures and altered water and nutrient availabilities), and plasticity is expected to be limited by several co-occurring stresses.^[2, 42] In this regard, studies of climate change effects on birds are particularly illustrative. These studies show contrasting results: while Visser (see ^[173] for a synthesis) concluded that phenotypic plasticity is not sufficient to keep up with a warming world, Charmantier et al. ^[174] showed that plastic behaviour enabled great tit to track rapid climatic changes very closely. It is thus clear that more empirical information is needed to interpret the evolutionary implications of the large contribution of phenotypic plasticity to the rapid phenotypic changes already observed in response to global change.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank Tim Horgan-Kobelski and Sonia Sultan for the data presented in this manuscript and for the fruitful discussions about phenotypic plasticity. SM was funded by a Marie Curie IOF fellowship (7th Framework Programme EC-PEOPLE-IOF-2008). Funding was provided by Acción Bilateral Convenio CSIC-CONYCIT (2007CL0031) and by the grants REMEDINAL-CM (S-0505/AMB/000335) and CONSOLIDER Montes (CSD 2008-000400) from the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation.

References

1. Parmesan, C. 2006. Ecological and evolutionary responses to recent climate change. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.* 37: 637-669
2. Valladares, F., E. Gianoli & J. M. Gomez. 2007. Ecological limits to plant phenotypic plasticity. *New Phytol.* 176: 749-763.
3. Matesanz, S., A. Escudero & F. Valladares. 2009. Impact of three global change drivers on a mediterranean shrub. *Ecology* 90: 2609-2621.
4. Vitousek, P. M. 1992. Global environmental-change - an introduction. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* 23: 1-14.
5. Millennium Ecosystem Assessment. 2005. Millennium ecosystem assessment: Ecosystems and well being. Biodiversity synthesis. Island Press. World Resources Institute, Washington, DC.
6. Stanhill, G. & S. Cohen. 2001. Global dimming: A review of the evidence for a widespread and significant reduction in global radiation with discussion of its probable causes and possible agricultural consequences. *Agric. Forest Meteo.* 107: 255-278.
7. Wild, M., *et al.* 2005. From dimming to brightening: Decadal changes in solar radiation at earth's surface. *Science* 308: 847-850.
8. Parmesan, C. 2007. Influences of species, latitudes and methodologies on estimates of phenological response to global warming. *Glob. Change Biol.* 13: 1860-1872.
9. Walther, G.-R., *et al.* 2002. Ecological responses to recent climate change. *Nature* 416: 389-395.
10. Menzel, A., *et al.* 2006. European phenological response to climate change matches the warming pattern. *Glob. Change Biol.* 12: 1-8.
11. Reynolds, H. L., *et al.* 1997. Soil heterogeneity and planta competition in an annual grassland. *Ecology* 78: 2076-2090.
12. Vitousek, P. M. 1994. Beyond global warming: Ecology and global change. *Ecology* 75: 1861-1876.
13. Ramankutty, N. & J. A. Foley. 1999. Estimating historical changes in global land cover: Croplands from 1700 to 1992. *Glob. Biogeochem. Cycle* 13: 997-1027.
14. Aguilar, R., *et al.* 2006. Plant reproductive susceptibility to habitat fragmentation: Review and synthesis through a meta-analysis. *Ecol. Lett.* 9: 968-980.
15. Ellstrand, N. C. & D. R. Elam. 1993. Population genetic consequences of small population size: Implications for plant conservation. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* 24: 217-242.
16. DAISIE. 2008. European invasive alien species gateway (<http://www.Europe-aliens.Org>).
17. Mack, R. N., *et al.* 2000. Biotic invasions: Causes, epidemiology, global consequences, and control. *Ecol. Appl.* 10: 689-710.
18. Bobbink, R. 1998. Impacts of tropospheric ozone and airborne nitrogenous pollutants on natural and semi-natural ecosystems: A commentary. *New Phytol.* 139: 161-168.
19. Sala, O. E., *et al.* 2000. Global biodiversity scenarios for the year 2100. *Science* 287: 1770-1774.

20. Reusch, T. & T. Wood. 2007. Molecular ecology of global change. *Mol. Ecol.* 16: 3973–3992.
21. Honnay, O., *et al.* 2002. Possible effects of habitat fragmentation and climate change on the range of forest plant species. *Ecol. Lett.* 5: 525-530.
22. Pigliucci, M. 2001. Phenotypic plasticity: Beyond nature and nurture. The Johns Hopkins University Press.
23. Gonzalez, A. V. & E. Gianoli. 2004. Morphological plasticity in response to shading in three convolvulus species of different ecological breadth. *Acta Oecolo.* 26: 185-190.
24. Sultan, S. E. 2001. Phenotypic plasticity for fitness components in polygonum species of contrasting ecological breadth. *Ecology* 82: 328-343.
25. Pigliucci, M. & N. Byrd. 1998. Genetics and evolution of phenotypic plasticity to nutrient stress in arabidopsis: Drift, constraints or selection? *Biol. J. Linn. Soc.* 64: 17-40.
26. Donohue, K., *et al.* 2000. Evidence of adaptive divergence in plasticity: Density- and site-dependent selection on shade-avoidance responses in *Impatiens capensis*. *Evolution* 54: 1956-1968.
27. Dudley, S. A. & J. Schmitt. 1996. Testing the adaptive plasticity hypothesis: Density-dependent selection on manipulated stem length in *Impatiens capensis*. *Am. Nat.* 147: 445-465.
28. Sultan, S. E. 2000. Phenotypic plasticity for plant development, function and life history. *Trends Plant Sci.* 5: 537-542.
29. Sultan, S. E. 1995. Phenotypic plasticity and plant adaptation. *Acta Bot. Neerl.* 44: 363-383.
30. Root, T. L., *et al.* 2003. Fingerprints of global warming on wild animals and plants. *Nature* 421: 57-60.
31. van Vliet, A. J. H., *et al.* 2003. The european phenology network. *Int. J. Biometeorol.* 47: 202-212.
32. Wolfe, D. W., *et al.* 2005. Climate change and shifts in spring phenology of three horticultural woody perennials in northeastern USA. *Int. J. Biometeorol.* 49: 303-309.
33. Herreras-Diego, Y., *et al.* 2006. Effects of forest fragmentation on phenological patterns and reproductive success of the tropical dry forest tree *Ceiba aesculifolia*. *Conserv. Biol.* 20: 1111-1120.
34. Power, S. A., *et al.* 2006. Ecosystem recovery: Heathland response to a reduction in nitrogen deposition. *Glob. Change Biol.* 12: 1241-1252.
35. Ryser, P. & W. R. Sauder. 2006. Effects of heavy-metal-contaminated soil on growth, phenology and biomass turnover of *Hieracium piloselloides*. *Environ. Pollut.* 140: 52-61.
36. Sigurdsson, B. D. 2001. Elevated [co₂] and nutrient status modified leaf phenology and growth rhythm of young *Populus trichocarpa* trees in a 3-year field study. *Trees-Structure and Function* 15: 403-413.
37. Aspelmeier, S. & C. Leuschner. 2004. Genotypic variation in drought response of silver birch (*Betula pendula*): Leaf water status and carbon gain. *Tree Physiol.* 24: 517-528.
38. Bell, D. L. & S. E. Sultan. 1999. Dynamic phenotypic plasticity for root growth in polygonum: A comparative study. *Am. J. Bot.* 86: 807-819.
39. Gianoli, E. & M. Gonzalez-Teuber. 2005. Environmental heterogeneity and population differentiation in plasticity to drought in *Convolvulus chilensis* (convolvulaceae). *Evol. Ecol.* 19: 603-613.
40. Heschel, M. S., *et al.* 2004. Population differentiation and plastic responses to drought stress in the generalist annual *Polygonum persicaria*. *Inter. J. Plant Scie.* 165: 817-824.
41. Sultan, S. E. & F. A. Bazzaz. 1993. Phenotypic plasticity in *Polygonum-persicaria*. 2. Norms of reaction to soil-moisture and the maintenance of genetic diversity. *Evolution* 47: 1032-1049.
42. Niinemets, U. & F. Valladares. 2006. Tolerance to shade, drought, and waterlogging of temperate northern hemisphere trees and shrubs. *Ecol. Monogr.* 76: 521-547.
43. Sack, L. & P. J. Grubb. 2002. The combined impacts of deep shade and drought on the growth and biomass allocation of shade-tolerant woody seedlings. *Oecologia* 131: 175-185.
44. Saldana, A., E. Gianoli & C. H. Lusk. 2005. Ecophysiological responses to light availability in three *Blechnum* species (pteridophyta, blechnaceae) of different ecological breadth. *Oecologia* 145: 252-257.
45. Sultan, S. E. & F. A. Bazzaz. 1993. Phenotypic plasticity in *Polygonum-persicaria*. 1. Diversity and uniformity in genotypic norms of reaction to light. *Evolution* 47: 1009-1031.
46. Valladares, F., *et al.* 2000. Plastic phenotypic response to light of 16 congeneric shrubs from a panamanian rainforest. *Ecology* 81: 1925-1936.
47. Atkin, O. K., *et al.* 2006. Phenotypic plasticity and growth temperature: Understanding interspecific variability. *J. Exp. Bot.* 57: 267-281.
48. Bloor, J. M. G., L. Barthes & P. W. Leadley. 2008. Effects of elevated co₂ and n on tree-grass interactions: An experimental test using *Fraxinus excelsior* and *Dactylis glomerata*. *Funct. Ecol.* 22: 537-546.

49. Curtis, P. S. & X. Z. Wang. 1998. A meta-analysis of elevated CO₂ effects on woody plant mass, form, and physiology. *Oecologia* 113: 299-313.
50. Tonsor, S. J. & S. M. Scheiner. 2007. Plastic trait integration across a CO₂ gradient in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Am. Nat.* 169: E119-E140.
51. Abbruzzese, G., *et al.* 2009. Leaf morphological plasticity and stomatal conductance in three *Populus alba* l. genotypes subjected to salt stress. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 66: 381-388.
52. Audet, P. & C. Charest. 2008. Allocation plasticity and plant-metal partitioning: Meta-analytical perspectives in phytoremediation. *Environ. Pollut.* 156: 290-296.
53. Dechamps, C., *et al.* 2007. Reaction norms of life history traits in response to zinc in *Thlaspi caerulescens* from metalliferous and nonmetaliferous sites. *New Phytol.* 173: 191-198.
54. Eranen, J. K., *et al.* 2009. Mountain birch under multiple stressors - heavy metal-resistant populations co-resistant to biotic stress but maladapted to abiotic stress. *J. Evol. Biol.* 22: 840-851.
55. Fraser, L. H., *et al.* 2009. Adaptive phenotypic plasticity of *Pseudoroegneria spicata*: Response of stomatal density, leaf area and biomass to changes in water supply and increased temperature. *Annals of Botany* 103: 769-775.
56. Maestre, F. T., *et al.* 2007. Individual vs. Population plastic responses to elevated CO₂, nutrient availability, and heterogeneity: A microcosm experiment with co-occurring species. *Plant Soil* 296: 53-64.
57. Hendry, A. P., T. J. Farrugia & M. T. Kinnison. 2008. Human influences on rates of phenotypic change in wild animal populations. *Mol. Ecol.* 17: 20-29.
58. Reader, R. J., *et al.* 1993. A comparative-study of plasticity in seedling rooting depth in drying soil. *J. Ecol.* 81: 543-550.
59. Sultan, S. E., K. Barton & A. M. Wilczek. 2009. Contrasting patterns of transgenerational plasticity in ecologically distinct congeners. *Ecology* 90: 1831-1839.
60. Cohen, D. 1976. The optimal timing of reproduction. *Am. Nat.* 110: 801-807.
61. Franks, S. J., S. Sim & A. E. Weis. 2007. Rapid evolution of flowering time by an annual plant in response to a climate fluctuation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 104: 1278-1282.
62. van Kleunen, M. & M. Fischer. 2005. Constraints on the evolution of adaptive phenotypic plasticity in plants. *New Phytol.* 166: 49-60.
63. Ghalambor, C. K., *et al.* 2007. Adaptive versus non-adaptive phenotypic plasticity and the potential for contemporary adaptation in new environments. *Funct. Ecol.* 21: 394-407.
64. Strauss, S. Y., J. A. Lau & S. P. Carroll. 2006. Evolutionary responses of natives to introduced species: What do introductions tell us about natural communities? *Ecol. Lett.* 9: 357-374.
65. Price, T. D., A. Qvarnstrom & D. E. Irwin. 2003. The role of phenotypic plasticity in driving genetic evolution. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London Series B-Biological Sciences* 270: 1433-1440.
66. Jump, A. S., R. Marchant & J. Peñuelas. 2009. Environmental change and the option value of genetic diversity. *Trend in Plant Science* 14: 1360-1385.
67. Jump, A. S. & J. Peñuelas. 2005. Running to stand still: Adaptation and the response of plants to rapid climate change. *Ecol. Lett.* 8: 1010-1020.
68. Franks, S. J., *et al.* 2008. The resurrection initiative: Storing ancestral genotypes to capture evolution in action. *Bioscience* 58: 870-873.
69. Chown, S. L., *et al.* 2010. Population responses within a landscape matrix: A macrophysiological approach to understanding climate change impacts. *Evol. Ecol.* DOI 10.1007/s10682-009-9329-x.
70. Lande, R. 2009. Adaptation to an extraordinary environment by evolution of phenotypic plasticity and genetic assimilation. *J. Evol. Biol.* 22: 1435-1446.
71. Richards, C. L., *et al.* 2006. Jack of all trades, master of some? On the role of phenotypic plasticity in plant invasions. *Ecol. Lett.* 9: 981-993.
72. Christensen, J. H., *et al.* 2007. Regional climate projections. Contribution of working group I to the fourth assessment report of the intergovernmental panel on climate change. *In Climate change 2007: The physical science basis.* S. Solomon, *et al.*, Eds.: 847-943. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.
73. Gutschick, V. P. & H. BassiriRad. 2003. Extreme events as shaping physiology, ecology, and evolution of plants: Toward a unified definition and evaluation of their consequences. *New Phytol.* 160: 21-42.
74. Donohue, K., *et al.* 2001. Adaptive divergence in plasticity in natural populations of *impatiens capensis* and its consequences for performance in novel habitats. *Evolution* 55: 692-702.
75. Gianoli, E. 2004. Plasticity of traits and correlations in two populations of *Convolvulus arvensis* (convolvulaceae) differing in environmental heterogeneity. *Inter. J. Plant Sci.* 165: 825-832.

76. Weinig, C. 2000. Plasticity versus canalization: Population differences in the timing of shade-avoidance responses. *Evolution* 54: 441-451.
77. Pigliucci, M. & C. D. Schlichting. 1996. Reaction norms of arabis. Iv. Relationships between plasticity and fitness. *Heredity* 76: 427-436.
78. Scheiner, S. M. 1993. Genetics and evolution of phenotypic plasticity. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* 24: 35-68.
79. Schmitt, J. 1993. Reaction norms of morphological and life-history traits to light availability in *impatiens capensis*. *Evolution* 47: 1654-1668.
80. Wolfe, L. M. & S. J. Mazer. 2005. Patterns of phenotypic plasticity and their fitness consequences in wild radish (*Raphanus sativus*: Brassicaceae). *Int. J. Plant Sci* 166: 631 - 640.
81. Schlichting, C. D. 2008. Hidden reaction norms, cryptic genetic variation, and evolvability. Year in Evolutionary Ecology. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* 1133: 187-203.
82. Schlichting, C. D. & H. Smith. 2002. Phenotypic plasticity: Linking molecular mechanisms with evolutionary outcomes. *Evol. Ecol.* 16: 189-211.
83. Caruso, C. M., H. Maherali & M. Sherrard. 2006. Plasticity of physiology in *Lobelia*: Testing for adaptation and constraint. *Evolution* 60: 980-990.
84. Etterson, J. R. 2004. Evolutionary potential of *Chamaecrista fasciculata* in relation to climate change. 1. Clinal patterns of selection along an environmental gradient in the great plains. *Evolution* 58: 1446-1458.
85. van Kleunen, M., *et al.* 2007. Selection on phenotypic plasticity of morphological traits in response to flooding and competition in the clonal shore plant *Ranunculus reptans*. *J. Evol. Biol.* 20: 2126-2137.
86. Crispo, E. 2007. The baldwin effect and genetic assimilation: Revisiting two mechanisms of evolutionary change mediated by phenotypic plasticity. *Evolution* 61: 2469-2479.
87. Gedroc, J. J., K. D. M. McConnaughay & J. S. Coleman. 1996. Plasticity in root shoot partitioning: Optimal, ontogenetic, or both? *Funct. Ecol.* 10: 44-50.
88. Ponton, S., *et al.* 2002. Comparison of water-use efficiency of seedlings from two sympatric oak species: Genotype x environment interactions. *Tree Physiol.* 22: 413-422.
89. Pritchard, S. G., *et al.* 1999. Elevated CO₂ and plant structure: A review. *Glob. Change Biol.* 5: 807-837.
90. Bernacchi, C. J., *et al.* 2000. Biomass allocation in old-field annual species grown in elevated CO₂ environments: No evidence for optimal partitioning. *Glob. Change Biol.* 6: 855-863.
91. Funk, J. L., C. G. Jones & M. T. Lerdau. 2007. Leaf- and shoot-level plasticity in response to different nutrient and water availabilities. *Tree Physiol.* 27: 1731-1739.
92. Stewart, J. & C. Potvin. 1996. Effects of elevated CO₂ on an artificial grassland community: Competition, invasion and neighbourhood growth. *Funct. Ecol.* 10: 157-166.
93. Scheiner, S. M. 2002. Selection experiments and the study of phenotypic plasticity. *J. Evol. Biol.* 15: 889-898.
94. Parmesan, C. & G. Yohe. 2003. A globally coherent fingerprint of climate change impacts across natural systems. *Nature* 421: 37-42.
95. Peñuelas, J., *et al.* 2007. Migration, invasion and decline: Changes in recruitment and forest structure in a warming-linked shift of european beech forest in Catalonia (NE Spain). *Ecography* 30: 829-837.
96. Kullman, L. 2002. Rapid recent range-margin rise of tree and shrub species in the swedish scandes. *J. Ecol.* 90: 68-77.
97. Lenoir, J., *et al.* 2008. A significant upward shift in plant species optimum elevation during the 20th century. *Science* 320: 1768-1771.
98. Peñuelas, J. & M. Boada. 2003. A global change-induced biome shift in the Montseny mountains (NE Spain). *Glob. Change Biol.* 9: 131-140.
99. Guisan, A. & W. Thuiller. 2005. Predicting species distribution: Offering more than simple habitat models. *Ecol. Lett.* 8: 993-1009.
100. Thuiller, W. 2003. Biomod - optimizing predictions of species distributions and projecting potential future shifts under global change. *Glob. Change Biol.* 9: 1353-1362.
101. Losos, J. B., *et al.* 2000. Evolutionary implications of phenotypic plasticity in the hindlimb of the lizard *Anolis sagrei*. *Evolution* 54: 301-305.
102. Pigliucci, M. & E. T. Marlow. 2001. Differentiation for flowering time and phenotypic integration in *Arabidopsis thaliana* in response to season length and vernalization. *Oecologia* 127: 501-508.
103. Levin, D. A. 2009. Flowering-time plasticity facilitates niche shifts in adjacent populations. *New Phytol.* 183: 661-666.

104. Mousseau, T. A. & C. W. Fox. 1998. Maternal effects as adaptations. Oxford University Press.
105. Gianoli, E. 2003. Phenotypic responses of the twining vine *Ipomoea purpurea* (convolvulaceae) to physical support availability in sun and shade. *Plant Ecol.* 165: 21-26.
106. Gianoli, E. 2002. Maternal environmental effects on the phenotypic responses of the twining vine *ipomoea purpurea* to support availability. *Oikos* 99: 324-330.
107. Pimentel, D. 2000. Biological control of invading species. *Science* 289: 869-869.
108. Wilcove, D. S., *et al.* 1998. Quantifying threats to imperiled species in the united states. *Bioscience* 48: 607-615.
109. Lavergne, S. & J. Molofsky. 2007. Increased genetic variation and evolutionary potential drive the success of an invasive grass. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 104: 3883-3888.
110. Hulme, P. E. 2008. Phenotypic plasticity and plant invasions: Is it all jack? *Funct. Ecol.* 22: 3-7.
111. Sultan, S. E., *et al.* 1998. Contrasting ecological breadth of co-occurring annual polygonum species. *J. Ecol.* 86: 363-383.
112. Zou, J. W., W. E. Rogers & E. Siemann. 2009. Plasticity of *sapium sebiferum* seedling growth to light and water resources: Inter- and intraspecific comparisons. *Basic Appl. Ecol.* 10: 79-88.
113. Daehler, C. C. 2003. Performance comparisons of co-occurring native and alien plants: Implications for conservation and restoration. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution and Systematics* 34: 183-211.
114. Funk, J. 2008. Differences in plasticity between invasive and native plants from a low resource environment. *J. Ecol.* 96: 1162-1173.
115. Godoy, O. 2009. Rasgos funcionales y plasticidad fenotípica de plantas exóticas invasoras. Ph. D. Thesis, Universidad de Alcalá, Madrid, Spain.
116. Lee, C. E. 2002. Selection and physiological evolution during biological invasion events. *Integr. Comp. Biol.* 42: 1264-1264.
117. Mooney, H. A. & E. E. Cleland. 2001. The evolutionary impact of invasive species. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 98: 5446-5451.
118. Sakai, A. K., *et al.* 2001. The population biology of invasive species. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* 32: 305-332.
119. Bossdorf, O., *et al.* 2005. Phenotypic and genetic differentiation between native and introduced plant populations. *Oecologia* 144: 1-11.
120. Sexton, J. P., J. K. McKay & A. Sala. 2002. Plasticity and genetic diversity may allow saltcedar to invade cold climates in North America. *Ecol. Appl.* 12: 1652-1660.
121. Blossey, B. & R. Nötzold. 1995. Evolution of increased competitive ability in invasive nonindigenous plants: A hypothesis. *J. Ecol.* 83: 887-889.
122. Maron, J. L., M. Vila & J. Aronson. 2004. Loss of enemy resistance among introduced populations of st. John's wort (*Hypericum perforatum*). *Ecology* 85: 3243-3253.
123. Bossdorf, O., A. Lipowsky & D. Prati. 2008. Selection of preadapted opulations allowed *Senecio inaequidens* to invade Central Europe. *Divers. Distrib.* 14: 676-685.
124. Maron, J. L., *et al.* 2004. Rapid evolution of an invasive plant. *Ecol. Monogr.* 74: 261-280.
125. Williams, J. L., H. Auge & J. L. Maron. 2008. Different gardens, different results: Native and introduced populations exhibit contrasting phenotypes across common gardens. *Oecologia* 157: 239-248.
126. Kaufman, S. R. & P. E. Smouse. 2001. Comparing indigenous and introduced populations of *Melaleuca quinquenervia* (Cav.) Blake: Response of seedlings to water and ph levels. *Oecologia* 127: 487-494.
127. van Kleunen, M. & M. Fischer. 2008. Adaptive rather than non-adaptive evolution of *Mimulus guttatus* in its invasive range. *Basic Appl. Ecol.* 9: 213-223.
128. Cano, L., *et al.* 2008. Increased fitness and plasticity of an invasive species in its introduced range: A study using *Senecio pterophorus*. *J. Ecol.* 96: 468-476.
129. Lau, J. 2008. Beyond the ecological: Biological invasions alter natural selection on a native plant species. *Ecology* 89: 1023-1031.
130. van Tienderen, P. H. & H. P. Koelewijn. 1994. Selection on reaction norms, genetic correlations and constraints. *Genet. Res.* 64: 115-125.
131. DeWitt, T. J., A. Sih & D. S. Wilson. 1998. Costs and limits of phenotypic plasticity. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 13: 77-81.
132. Weinig, C. & L. F. Delph. 2001. Phenotypic plasticity early in life constrains developmental responses later. *Evolution* 55: 930-936.
133. Givnish, T. J. 2002. Ecological constraints on the evolution of plasticity in plants. *Evol. Ecol.* 16: 213-242.
134. Auld, J. R., A. A. Agrawal & R. A. Relyea. 2010. Re-evaluating the costs and limits of adaptive phenotypic plasticity. *Proc. R. Soc. Biol. Sci. Ser. B* 277: 503-511.

135. Bradshaw, A. D. 1965. Evolutionary significance of phenotypic plasticity in plants. *Adv. Genet.* 13: 115–155.
136. Schlichting, C. D. 1986. The evolution of phenotypic plasticity in plants. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* 17: 667-693.
137. Antonovics, J. 1976. Nature of limits to natural-selection. *Ann. Mo. Bot. Gard.* 63: 224-247.
138. Cheverud, J. M. 1984. Quantitative genetics and developmental constraints on evolution by selection. *J. Theor. Biol.* 110: 155-171.
139. Arnold, S. J. 1992. Constraints on phenotypic evolution. *Am. Nat.* 140: S85-S107.
140. Agrawal, A. F. & J. R. Stinchcombe. 2009. How much do genetic covariances alter the rate of adaptation? *Proceedings of the Royal Society B-Biological Sciences* 276: 1183-1191.
141. Pigliucci, M. & K. Preston. 2004. Phenotypic integration - studying the ecology and evolution of complex phenotypes - introduction. *Phenotypic Integration: Studying the Ecology and Evolution of Complex Phenotypes*. XI-XV.
142. Schlichting, C. D. 1989. Phenotypic integration and environmental-change what are the consequences of differential phenotypic plasticity - of traits. *Bioscience* 39: 460-464.
143. Pigliucci, M. 2002. Touchy and bushy: Phenotypic plasticity and integration in response to wind stimulation in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Inter. J. Plant Sci.* 163: 399-408.
144. Berg, R. L. 1960. The ecological significance of correlation pleiades. *Evolution* 14: 171-180.
145. Armbruster, W. S., *et al.* 2004. Floral integration, modularity, and accuracy. *In Phenotypic integration*. Pigliucci, M. & K. Preston, Eds.: 23-49. Oxford University Press. Oxford.
146. Gianoli, E. & K. Palacio-López. 2009. Phenotypic integration may constrain phenotypic plasticity in plants. *Oikos* 118: 1924-1928.
147. Pigliucci, M., J. Whitton & C. D. Schlichting. 1995. Reaction norms of *Arabidopsis* .1. Plasticity of characters and correlations across water, nutrient and light gradients. *J. Evol. Biol.* 8: 421-438.
148. Gianoli, E. 2001. Lack of differential plasticity to shading of internodes and petioles with growth habit in *Convolvulus arvensis* (convolvulaceae). *Inter. J. Plant Sci.* 162: 1247-1252.
149. Waitt, D. E. & D. A. Levin. 1998. Genetic and phenotypic correlations in plants: A botanical test of cheverud's conjecture. *Heredity* 80: 310-319.
150. Merilä, J. & M. Björklund. 2004. Phenotypic integration as a constraint and adaptation. *In Phenotypic integration*. Pigliucci, M. & K. Preston, Eds.: 107-129. Oxford University Press. Oxford.
151. Ordano, M., *et al.* 2008. The adaptive value of phenotypic floral integration. *New Phytol.* 179: 1183-1192.
152. Herrera, C. M. 2001. Deconstructing a floral phenotype: Do pollinators select for corolla integration in *Lavandula latifolia*? *J. Evol. Biol.* 14: 574-584.
153. Waitt, D. E. & D. A. Levin. 1993. Phenotypic integration and plastic correlations in *Phlox drummondii* (Polemoniaceae). *Am. J. Bot.* 80: 1224-1233.
154. Kawano, S. & T. Hara. 1995. Optimal balance between propagule output, propagule size, and cost of propagule production in plants with special reference to its evolutionary—ecological implications. *Plant Species Biol.* 10: 119-125.
155. Pigliucci, M. 2004. Studying the plasticity of phenotypic integration in a model organism. *In Phenotypic integration*. Pigliucci, M. & K. Preston, Eds.: 155-175. Oxford University Press. Oxford.
156. Pigliucci, M. 2007. Finding the way in phenotypic space: The origin and maintenance of constraints on organismal form. *Ann. Bot. (Lond.)* 100: 433-438.
157. Scheiner, S. M. 1993. Plasticity as a selectable trait - reply. *Am. Nat.* 142: 371-373.
158. Tufto, J. 2000. The evolution of plasticity and nonplastic spatial and temporal adaptations in the presence of imperfect environmental cues. *Am. Nat.* 156: 121-130.
159. Alpert, P. & E. L. Simms. 2002. The relative advantages of plasticity and fixity in different environments: When is it good for a plant to adjust? *Evol. Ecol.* 16: 285-297.
160. Falconer, D. S. 1990. Selection in different environments: Effects on environmental sensitivity (reaction norm) and on mean performance. *Genetic Research* 56.
161. Gavrillets, S. & S. M. Scheiner. 1993. The genetics of phenotypic plasticity. V. Evolution of reaction norm shape. *J. Evol. Biol.* 6: 31-48.
162. Gomulkiewicz, R. & M. Kirkpatrick. 1992. Quantitative genetics and the evolution of reaction norms. *Evolution* 46: 390-411.
163. Padilla, D. K. & S. C. Adolph. 1996. Plastic inducible morphologies are not always adaptive: The importance of time delays in a stochastic environment. *Evol. Ecol.* 10: 105-117.
164. Scheiner, S. M. 1998. The genetics of phenotypic plasticity. Vii. Evolution in a spatially-structured environment. *J. Evol. Biol.* 11: 303-320.
165. Scheiner, S. M. & R. F. Lyman. 1989. The genetics of phenotypic plasticity. I. Heritability. *J. Evol. Biol.* 2: 95-108.

166. Van Tienderen, P. H. 1997. Generalists, specialists, and the evolution of phenotypic plasticity in sympatric populations of distinct species. *Evolution* 51: 1372-1380.
167. Via, S. & R. Lande. 1985. Genotype-environment interaction and the evolution of phenotypic plasticity. *Evolution* 39: 505-522.
168. Callahan, H. S. 2005. Using artificial selection to understand plastic plant phenotypes. *Integr. Comp. Biol.* 45: 475-485.
169. Conner, J. K. 2003. Artificial selection: A powerful tool for ecologists. *Ecology* 84: 1650-1660.
170. Valladares, F., D. Sanchez-Gomez & M. Zavala. 2006. Quantitative estimation of phenotypic plasticity: Bridging the gap between the evolutionary concept and its ecological applications. *J. Ecol.* 94: 1104-1116.
171. Schlichting, C. D. & M. Pigliucci. 1998. *Phenotypic evolution: A reaction norm perspective*. Sinauer.
172. Pigliucci, M., C. J. Murren & C. D. Schlichting. 2006. Phenotypic plasticity and evolution by genetic assimilation. *J. Exp. Biol.* 209: 2362-2367.
173. Visser, M. E. 2008. Keeping up with a warming world; assessing the rate of adaptation to climate change. *Proc. R. Soc. Biol. Sci. Ser. B* 275: 649-659.
174. Charmantier, A., *et al.* 2008. Adaptive phenotypic plasticity in response to climate change in a wild bird population. *Science* 320: 820-833.
175. Quiroz, C. L., *et al.* 2009. Alpine dandelions originated in the native and introduced range differ in their responses to environmental constraints. *Ecol. Res.* 24: 175-183.
176. DeWalt, S. J., J. S. Denslow & J. L. Hamrick. 2004. Biomass allocation, growth, and photosynthesis of genotypes from native and introduced ranges of the tropical shrub *Clidemia hirta*. *Oecologia* 138: 521-531.
177. Cook, S. A. & M. P. Johnson. 1968. Adaptation to heterogeneous environments .I. Variation in heterophylly in *Ranunculus flammula* l. *Evolution* 22: 496-&.
178. Molina-Montenegro, M. A., C. Atala & E. Gianoli. 2010. Phenotypic plasticity and performance of *Taraxacum officinale* (dandelion) in habitats of contrasting environmental heterogeneity. *Biol. Inv.* DOI 10.1007/s10530-009-9638-6.
179. Hermanutz, L. A. & S. E. Weaver. 1996. Agroecotypes or phenotypic plasticity? Comparison of agrestal and ruderal populations of the weed *Solanum ptycanthum*. *Oecologia* 105: 271-280.
180. Brumpton, R. J., H. Boughey & J. L. Jinks. 1977. Joint selection for both extremes of mean performance and of sensitivity to a macro-environmental variable. 1. Family selection. *Heredity* 38: 219-226.
181. Potvin, C. & D. Tousignant. 1996. Evolutionary consequences of simulated global change: Genetic adaptation or adaptive phenotypic plasticity. *Oecologia* 108: 683-693.
182. Van Hinsberg, A. 1998. Maternal and ambient environmental effects of light on germination in *Plantago lanceolata*: Correlated responses to selection on leaf length. *Funct. Ecol.* 12: 825-833.
183. Stanton, M. L., B. A. Roy & D. A. Thiede. 2000. Evolution in stressful environments. I. Phenotypic variability, phenotypic selection, and response to selection in five distinct environmental stresses. *Evolution* 54: 93-111.
184. van Kleunen, M., M. Fischer & B. Schmid. 2002. Experimental life-history evolution: Selection on the allocation to sexual reproduction and its plasticity in a clonal plant. *Evolution* 56: 2168-2177.
185. Fischer, M., M. Van Kleunen & B. Schmid. 2004. Experimental life-history evolution: Selection on growth form and its plasticity in a clonal plant. *J. Evol. Biol.* 17: 331-341.
186. Callahan, H. S. & M. Pigliucci. 2005. Indirect consequences of artificial selection on plasticity to light quality in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *J. Evol. Biol.* 18: 1403-1415.

Table 1. Functional traits expected to be affected by different global change components. The traits listed under “invasive species” refer to those of the native species. Notes: Ps: photosynthetic rate; g_s : stomatal conductance; WUE: water use efficiency; R: respiration; SLA: specific leaf area; C:N: carbon:nitrogen ratios.

| Global change components | Traits expected to be affected |
|--|---|
| Land use change | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Growth traits ▪ Phenology ▪ Reproductive traits |
| Climate change | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Biomass allocation ▪ Phenology ▪ Physiological traits (Ps, g_s, WUE, R) ▪ Reproductive traits ▪ SLA |
| Invasive species | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Biomass allocation ▪ Flowering morphology ▪ Herbivore defenses ▪ Phenology ▪ Physiological traits (Ps, g_s, WUE, R) ▪ Reproductive traits ▪ Tolerance to allelopathy |
| Pollution (including elevated CO ₂ and N deposition) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ C:N ratios, leaf N content ▪ Growth traits ▪ Phenology ▪ Physiological traits (Ps, g_s, WUE, R) ▪ Plant biomass and allocation |
| Overexploitation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Growth traits ▪ Survival |

Table 2. Evidence of changes in phenotypic plasticity in introduced versus native populations of invasive plant species. Species name, growth form, sample size, treatments and traits measured are also shown. Only studies specifically assessing changes in phenotypic plasticity are included. (Y) and (N) indicate whether within-population genetic variation for plasticity was or not quantified, respectively.

| Species | Growth form | Number of populations | Experimental treatments | Functional traits measured | Fitness traits measured | Evidence of changes in plasticity | Reference |
|--------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|---|--|---------------------------|--|-----------|
| <i>Cynoglossum officinale</i> | Biennial herb | 10 native/10 introduced (N) | 3 levels of nutrient availability | Plant size and flowering date | Plant fecundity | Phenotypic plasticity for size and fecundity was higher among introduced populations, but due to founder effects | [125] |
| <i>Taraxacum officinale</i> | Annual herb | 2 native/2 introduced (N) | 2 levels of water and 3 levels of nutrient availability | Biomass and root:shoot ration | Survival and reproduction | No evidence of increased plasticity in the introduced populations | [175] |
| <i>Sapium sebiferum</i> | Tree | 5 native/5 introduced (N) | 4 combinations of water and light availability | Height growth, leaf area, leaf biomass and aboveground biomass | -- | Increased plasticity of leaf area and biomass to light in the introduced range | [112] |
| <i>Senecio inaequidens</i> | Perennial herb | 12 native/11 introduced (N) | 4 levels of nutrients availability and presence of aphids | Branch number and shoot and root biomass | Flower number | Increased plasticity of root biomass to fertilization in the introduced range | [123] |
| <i>Senecio pterophorus</i> | Perennial shrub | 4 native/4 introduced (N) | 4 levels of disturbance and water availability | Leaf morphology, chlorophyll fluorescence and reproduction | Plant fecundity | Increased plasticity of morphological and reproduction traits to disturbance and water availability | [128] |
| <i>Mimulus guttatus</i> | Perennial herb | 17 native/7 introduced (Y) | 2 levels of water availability | Growth | Plant fecundity | No | [127] |
| <i>Phalaris arundinacea.</i> | Perennial grass | 6 native/6 introduced (N) | Moisture gradient | Stem height, tillering rate and leaf number | -- | Increased plasticity of morphological traits to water conditions in the introduced range | [109] |
| <i>Hypericum perforatum</i> | Perennial forb | 18 native/17 introduced (N) | Cross-continental common gardens | Leaf physiology and morphology | Plant fecundity | No | [124] |
| <i>Clidemia hirta</i> | Perennial shrub | 4 native/4 introduced (N) | 2 levels of light availability | Growth rate, biomass allocation and physiological traits | -- | No | [176] |
| <i>Melaleuca quinquenervia</i> | Tree | 3 native/4 introduced (Y) | 6 levels of water availability and pH | Seedling biomass and growth rate | -- | Increased plasticity to soil pH in the introduced range | [126] |

Table 3. Studies evaluating phenotypic plasticity in plant populations with contrasting temporal environmental heterogeneity. Adaptive phenotypic plasticity refers to positive associations between plasticity and plant fitness, or congruence between phenotypic patterns and ecophysiological predictions regarding optimal resource allocation/exploitation. *Yes* indicates that adaptive plasticity was verified at least for one plant trait.

| Species | Growth form | N pop | Environmental factor/ Heterogeneity scale | Plant traits | Result | Adaptive phenotypic plasticity? | Reference |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|-------|--|--|---|---------------------------------|-----------|
| <i>Convolvulus arvensis</i> | Perennial herb – weed | 2 | Soil moisture / Within year | Leaf and stem morphology; shoot biomass; flowering time; seed size and number | Greater plasticity in the population from the more variable habitat | Yes | [75] |
| <i>Convolvulus chilensis</i> | Perennial herb | 3 | Soil moisture / Between years | Leaf morphology; foliar trichome density | Greater plasticity in the population from the more variable habitat | Yes | [39] |
| <i>Ranunculus flammula</i> | Perennial herb | 10 | Water level / Between years | Heterophylly (blade:petiole width above water / blade:petiole width below water) | Degree of heterophylly positively associated with habitat heterogeneity | Yes | [177] |
| <i>Taraxacum officinale</i> | Perennial herb – weed | 2 | Soil moisture / Within year | Photosynthetic performance; flowering time | Greater plasticity in the population from the more variable habitat | No | [178] |
| <i>Polygonum persicaria</i> | Annual - weed | 2 | Light intensity / Between years | Photosynthetic rate; leaf morphology; biomass allocation; plant biomass; fruit number and size | Similar plasticity in both populations ¹ | Yes | [45] |
| <i>Polygonum persicaria</i> | Annual - weed | 2 | Soil moisture / Between years | Leaf morphology; biomass allocation; plant biomass; fruit number and size | Similar plasticity in both populations ¹ | Yes | [41] |
| <i>Polygonum persicaria</i> | Annual - weed | 3 | Soil moisture / Within year | Photosynthetic rate; stomatal conductance; water use efficiency; leaf size; biomass allocation; # fruits | Similar plasticity in all three populations | Yes | [40] |
| <i>Abutilon theophrasti</i> | Annual - weed | 4 | Late-season neighbor shade / Within year | Internodes length at later growth stage | Greater plasticity in the population from the more variable habitat | Yes | [76] |
| <i>Solanum ptycanthum</i> | Annual - weed | 4 | Soil nutrients / Between years | Shoot morphology; biomass allocation; life history traits | Similar plasticity in populations from two contrasting habitats | Yes | [179] |

5 ¹ The authors did not compare plasticity levels between populations. Outcome inferred after statistical comparison of F-ratios.

Table 4. Artificial selection studies (including quasi-natural selection) on plants. Selection environments, traits target of selection and number of generations of selection are also shown. Only studies assessing evolution of plasticity (either as the focal trait or as a correlated response) are shown. Only the studies addressing evolution of plasticity specifically are included. See ^[20] for a review of selection experiments simulating global change selecting on mean traits.

| Species | Growth form | Evolution in response to? | Traits under selection | Number of generations | Results | Reference |
|-----------------------------|----------------|---|---|-----------------------|--|-----------|
| <i>Nicotiana rustica</i> | Annual herb | Different sowing dates | Flowering date and height. Selection on both trait means and their plasticities | 2 | Lower realized heritability of plasticity compared to that of the traits mean. Mean trait value and plasticity were positively genetically correlated | [180] |
| <i>Brassica juncea</i> | Annual herb | Increased CO ₂ concentrations | Fruit biomass. 14 morphological and reproductive traits in common garden after selection | 7 | Small evidence of evolutionary response of the measured traits or adaptive plasticity | [181] |
| <i>Plantago lanceolata</i> | Perennial herb | Light quality environments | Leaf length | 4 | Selection for leaf length affected plasticity in seed germination. Evidence that plasticity can evolve as a correlated response to mean trait values | [182] |
| <i>Sinapis arvensis</i> | Annual herb | Several abiotic stresses (low nutrients, low water, low light, etc) | Plant fecundity | 3 | Evidence of evolution of trait means that enhanced fitness in stressful habitats, but plastic responses to stress conditions were not consistent with adaptive phenotypic plasticity | [183] |
| <i>Ranunculus reptans</i> | Clonal herb | Competition with a coexisting species | Allocation to reproductive biomass and its plasticity | 2 | High heritability and potential for further evolution of the proportion of flowering rosettes but not for its plasticity | [184] |
| <i>Ranunculus reptans</i> | Clonal herb | Competition with a coexisting species | Growth form and its plasticity | 2 | No significant direct response of plasticity | [185] |
| <i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> | Annual herb | Light quality environments | Plasticity in leaf number | 3 | Evidence of moderate evolution of plasticity | [186] |

Figure 1. Components of anthropogenic global change and their impacts on plant species and populations. The dashed arrows represent interactions between drivers and can occur between any drivers.

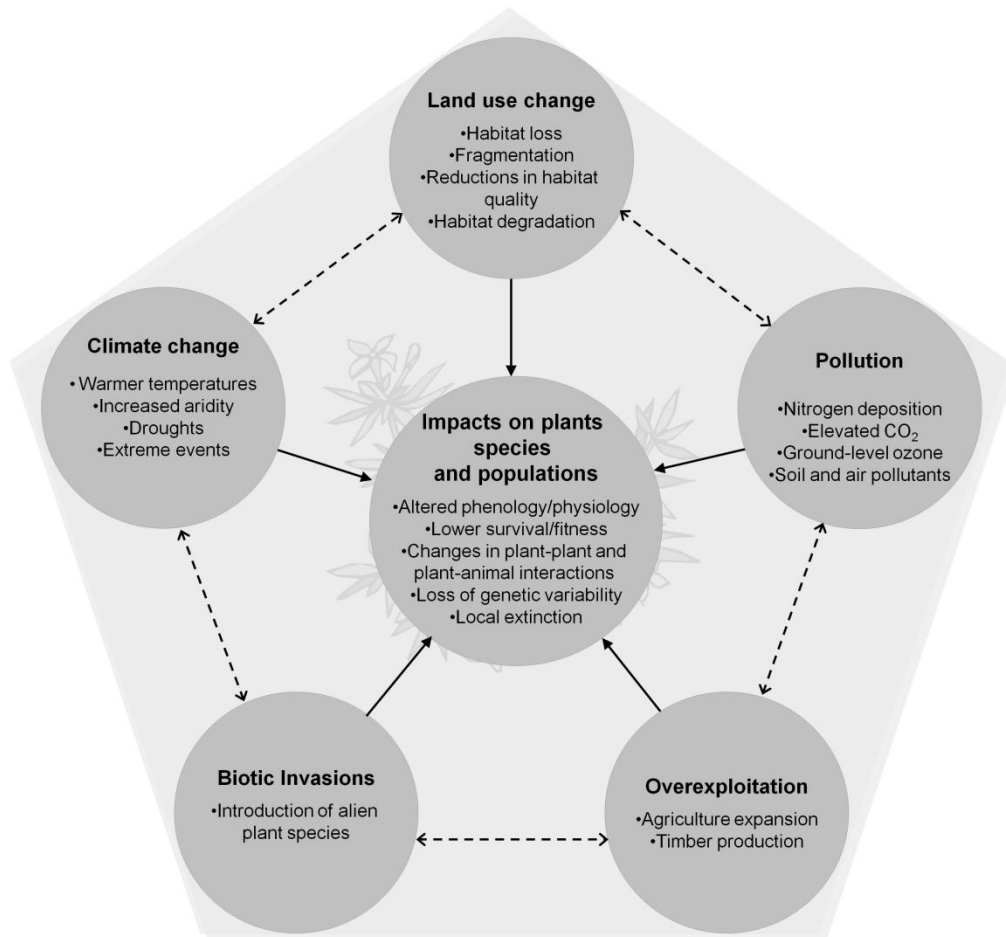
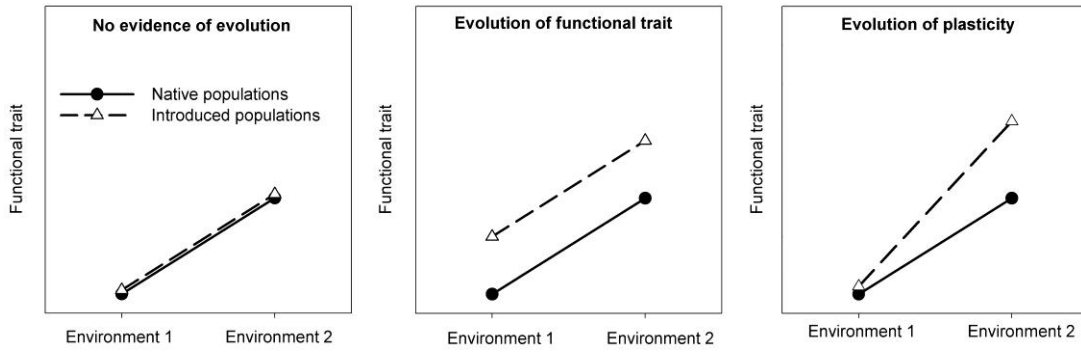


Figure 2. Evolution of a functional trait and its norm of reaction after the introduction of alien species.



5