

1      **Title: One hundred years into the study of ecotypes, new advances are being made through**  
2      **large-scale field experiments in perennial plant systems**

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45 **ABSTRACT**

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47 A hundred years after Turesson first clearly described how local adaptive variation is distributed  
48 within species, plant biologists are making major breakthroughs in our understanding of mechanisms  
49 underlying adaptation from local populations to the scale of continents. While the genetics of local  
50 adaptation has typically been studied in smaller reciprocal transplant experiments, it is now being  
51 evaluated with whole genomes in large-scale networks of common garden experiments with  
52 perennial switchgrass and poplar trees. These studies support the hypothesis that a complex  
53 combination of loci, both with and without adaptive trade-offs, underlie local adaptation and that  
54 hybridization and adaptive introgression play a key role in the evolution of these species. Future  
55 studies incorporating high-throughput phenotyping, gene expression, and modelling will be used to  
56 predict responses of these species to climate change.

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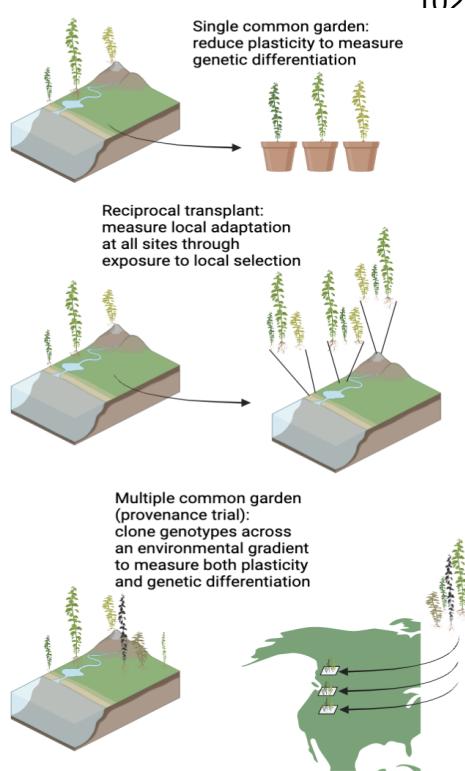
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85 **Introduction**

86 One hundred years ago, the Swedish botanist Göte Turesson reported a series of observations from  
87 common garden experiments in which he found that plants of the same species collected from  
88 different habitats had distinctive genetically based differences in morphology and growth form [1,2].  
89 Turesson cogently argued that the differences among populations were due to natural selection,  
90 which was a rejection of the Lamarckian paradigm that dominated the literature up to that point [3–  
91 7]. To more clearly communicate the phenomena, Turesson coined the term *ecotype* in 1922 to  
92 describe distinct groups of plant populations that are locally adapted to particular habitats. These  
93 ecotypes were identifiable by having a shared suite of genetically-based traits that could be observed  
94 when grown in common garden experiments. A hundred years later, plant biologists continue to build  
95 on Turesson's legacy of understanding how natural selection shapes variation within plant species  
96 through common garden experiments [8]. In this review, we highlight recent advances in  
97 understanding plant adaptations in two perennial plant species through long-term common garden  
98 experiments and outline our perspective on where the field is headed next.

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100 Distinguishing genetic from environmentally-based variation in plant species has required a rigorous  
101 development of experimental methods in plant evolutionary ecology. Turesson's compelling



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123 **Figure 1:** Three types of experiments  
124 that test different aspects of local  
125 adaptation. Poplar icons represent  
126 genotypes.

102 intellectual arguments in early publications have earned him credit for much of the early work to measure locally adaptive variation within species. However, Langlet [9] correctly pointed out that provenance trials in the field of forestry examining the relationship between ecology and genetics, the study of *genecology*, had long recognized within species adaptive genetic variation, even if they had not clearly articulated those findings in an evolutionary context. Provenance trials consist of planting common gardens at multiple locations along environmental gradients to assess the relationship of fitness to distances from a home environment (Figure 1). In the middle of the 20th-century, Clausen, Keck, and Hiesey combined Turesson's ecotype concept with provenance trials across California [10,11] to establish reciprocal transplant experiments as the gold standard for testing whether ecotypes are locally adapted to their home environments.

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128 Today, common garden experiments have entered the population genomic era, as whole-genome data  
129 sets are becoming increasingly available for accessions planted in geographically widespread  
130 common garden experiments. A number of annual and short-lived perennial plant systems, including  
131 *Arabidopsis*, *Mimulus*, and *Boechera*, have begun to bring reciprocal transplant common garden field  
132 studies into the genomic era [12–14]. Here, we focus on two long-lived perennial systems,  
133 switchgrass (*Panicum*) and poplar trees (*Populus*), where larger networks of multiyear common  
134 gardens are being used to gain a more comprehensive understanding of local adaptation across  
135 geographic space. The results from these two systems illustrate current and emerging approaches to  
136 understanding locally adaptive allelic variation is distributed on the scale of continents.

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### 138 **Understanding the role of fitness trade-offs in local adaptation in switchgrass**

139 Switchgrass, *Panicum virgatum*, is a large perennial North American grass species that has a native  
140 range from Central America to Southern Canada [15,16]. Across this range, switchgrass exhibits a  
141 wide array of genetic variation and adaptive phenotypes. Recent common garden research has  
142 leveraged a strategically constructed quantitative trait locus (QTL) mapping population and a large  
143 diversity panel to understand the genomics of adaptation from South Texas to South Dakota [17,18].  
144 This recent work builds on historical efforts by forage grass researchers, who have long recognized  
145 that there are striking patterns of local adaptation of switchgrass across North America. Classic  
146 common garden research by Calvin McMillan in Nebraska and Texas found strong patterns  
147 consistent with local adaptation along a latitudinal gradient stretching across the length of the Great  
148 Plains [19,20]. In addition to these clinal patterns of adaptive variation, other researchers found  
149 evidence that there are several distinct ecotypes of switchgrass that likely originated through  
150 geographic isolation into distinct refugia during glaciation. Researchers generally recognized two  
151 major switchgrass ecotypes, upland and lowland. The lowland ecotype was generally associated with  
152 wetter riparian habitats in the southern United States, while the upland ecotype was thought to  
153 primarily occur in more northern regions and typically drier habitats. In the central US where these  
154 ecotypes co-occur, Porter [21] conducted a series of experiments to demonstrate strong physiological  
155 divergence between the upland and lowland ecotypes. Thus, adaptive genetic variation in switchgrass  
156 is distributed both along environmental gradients correlated with latitude and as a mosaic of more  
157 discrete ecotype variation [16].

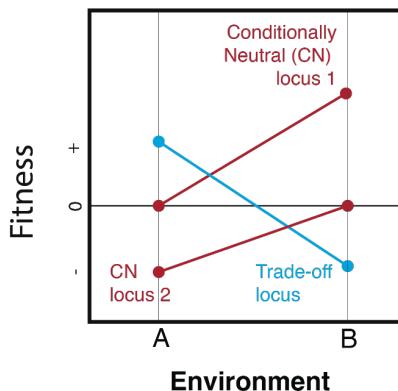
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159 The strength of the switchgrass system in the study of ecological genetics lies in the construction of  
160 large-scale, replicated experiments. While McMillan and Porter were able to document  
161 morphological differentiation that seemed to be adaptive across the species, modern studies have  
162 sought to directly link ecotypic variation to underlying genetic loci. To understand the genetic  
163 architecture of local adaptation between northern upland and southern lowland ecotypes, researchers  
164 developed genetic mapping populations derived from crosses between upland and lowland  
165 germplasm [22,23]. One of these upland  $\times$  lowland mapping populations was clonally divided  
166 through vegetative propagation and planted into 10 field sites spanning 17 degrees of latitude from  
167 South Texas to South Dakota and Michigan in 2015 [17]. This experimental design resulted in the  
168 exact same set of genotypes being planted across 10 different environmental conditions, allowing for

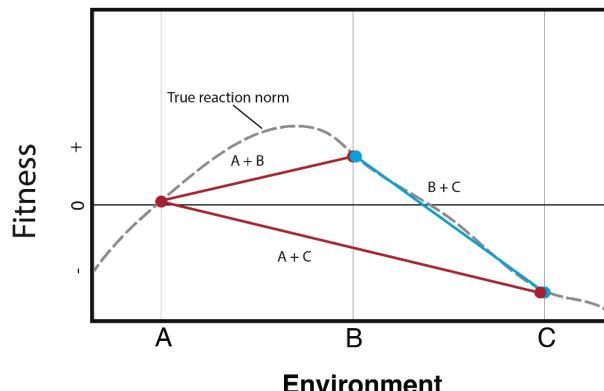
169 a comprehensive analysis of the genotype, environment, and genotype  $\times$  environment contributions  
170 to trait variation and fitness. This experiment has facilitated QTL analyses across all of these sites to  
171 understand how the genetic architecture of trait variation and fitness changes across space [24–27].  
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173 Critically, the network of common gardens has allowed researchers to rigorously test a long-held  
174 prediction of evolutionary theory: that local adaptation is the result of fitness trade-offs at the  
175 individual genetic locus level [28–30]. This theoretical work suggested that the loci involved in  
176 adaptation should exhibit a fitness advantage in their home environment but a fitness cost in a foreign  
177 environment (Figure 2a), leading to increased phenotypic differentiation among habitats. However,  
178 recent studies have indicated that not all loci underlying local adaptation exhibit fitness trade-offs  
179 [31]. Most of these studies only used two field sites in a single year, which means that the lack of  
180 trade-offs could be the result of failure to measure a sufficient proportion of climate space where  
181 trade-offs might manifest (Figure 2b). With the switchgrass common garden network replicated at  
182 many sites, it was possible to determine the extent to which there are trade-offs at individual loci.  
183 While this work detected a few loci with clear trade-offs across space, there were many more loci  
184 that had effects on biomass in one geographic region with non-significant effects in other regions  
185 [17]. Thus, some combination of trade-offs and conditional neutrality is responsible for the overall  
186 patterns of local adaptation, a pattern that also has been observed previously in two-site reciprocal  
187 transplant experiments [31]. Further, using perennial plants for these studies provides the important  
188 context of temporal variation in selection pressure, which may be essential to understanding  
189 adaptation under climate change.

A. Local adaptation by two genetic mechanisms



B. Drawbacks of two-site studies: nonlinear reaction norms

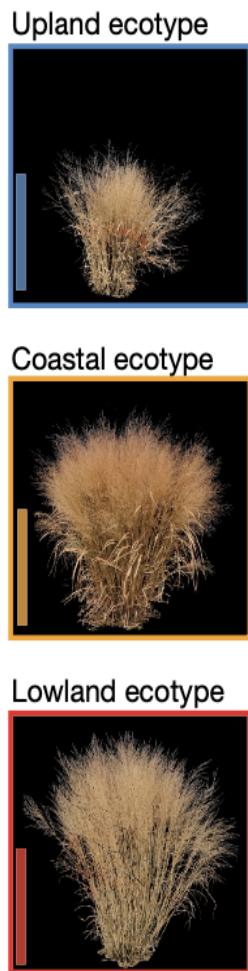


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191 **Figure 2:** Detecting the genetic basis of local adaptation. **A.** Two ways that loci can produce local  
192 adaptation: single *trade-off* locus increases fitness in one environment, while decreasing it in another  
193 (blue reaction norm); two *conditionally neutral* loci can each have effects in only one environment,  
194 but combine to form a local advantage (red reaction norms). **B.** Nonlinear reaction norms can result  
195 in studies misinterpreting local adaptation patterns. In this scenario, the trade-off for the locus will  
196 only be detected if environments B and C are sampled (blue line), owing to an underlying nonlinear  
197 reaction norm (dashed gray line).

198 While QTL mapping populations are powerful tools to understand the impacts of genetic loci on  
199 traits and fitness, Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS) offer improved precision to identify  
200 individual causal genes due to a high number of natural recombination events [12,32,33]. To further  
201 elucidate the complement of genes contributing to local adaptation in switchgrass, researchers  
202 established a new set of common garden experiments with a diversity panel at 10 field sites (only one  
203 site was different from [17]) in North America and 3 sites in Mexico (spanning 24° of latitude) in  
204 2018 and 2019 (Figure 3)[18]. This diversity panel is composed of 732 tetraploid genotypes of  
205 switchgrass collected from across eastern North America and clonally propagated at each field site.  
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207 As expected, the diversity panel revealed a strong signal of local adaptation, with lowland genotypes  
208 generally having higher biomass at southern field sites, while the upland genotypes displayed the  
209 opposite pattern [18]. Winter kill in the north has been by far the largest source of mortality in the  
210 experiment. Overwinter survival has long been known to be important in switchgrass, but it recently

211 received increased research attention due to it being a primary factor limiting the planting of highly productive southern lowland bioenergy cultivars in the northern United States [34–38]. Many candidate genes underlying adaptive trait variation, including overwinter survival, were revealed through GWAS. Further understanding these fitness-related genes will facilitate future gene editing efforts powered by advances in switchgrass *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation [39,40].



One of the key results of genome resequencing in the tetraploid diversity panel was that patterns of population genetic structure were discordant with the morphological clustering of plant accessions into ecotypes [18]. Incorporating switchgrass from the eastern USA revealed a third “coastal” ecotype in addition to the previously recognized upland and lowland ecotypes (Figure 4). Population genomic analyses similarly identified three major groups, but these were surprisingly discordant from the morphological ecotypes. This finding contradicts the assumption that ecotypes exist as structure groups, where both structure in trait variation and population genetic structure are inexorably correlated across geographic space [41]. Of particular interest, numerous genotypes with the upland ecotype from the northeastern US clustered with the genetic group containing the new coastal ecotype. Haplotype-level analyses revealed regions of introgression from the mostly upland population into the mostly coastal population, and further that these introgressed regions were enriched for GWAS-detected loci that enhance winter survival [18]. This result suggests that adaptive introgression from the upland population allowed coastal plants to maintain fitness along the northern Atlantic coast.

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238 **Figure 3:** Representative samples of each recognized switchgrass ecotype. Bars indicate 1 meter.  
239 From [18]

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241 In coming years, the network of switchgrass common garden experiments will facilitate a better  
242 understanding of how specific abiotic and biotic environmental factors have contributed to adaptive  
243 evolution across geographic space. For example, VanWallendael et al. [24] identified two major  
244 QTLs for resistance of switchgrass to pathogenic rust fungi. Interestingly, these QTLs both have  
245 strong effects in northern sites, but were rarely detected in southern sites, suggesting that genotype x  
246 environment interactions play a critical role in shaping biotic interactions across space. In addition to  
247 research on pathogens, mutualistic microbes assist with nutrient uptake and may confer additional  
248 stress tolerance in leaves [42], and are differentially partitioned across portions of roots [43]. In  
249 switchgrass leaves, the fungal microbiome is differentially partitioned across genetic populations, a  
250 pattern that may be driven by variation in plant immune response genes [44].

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252 ***Populus* as a model system for ecological, evolutionary, and community genomics**

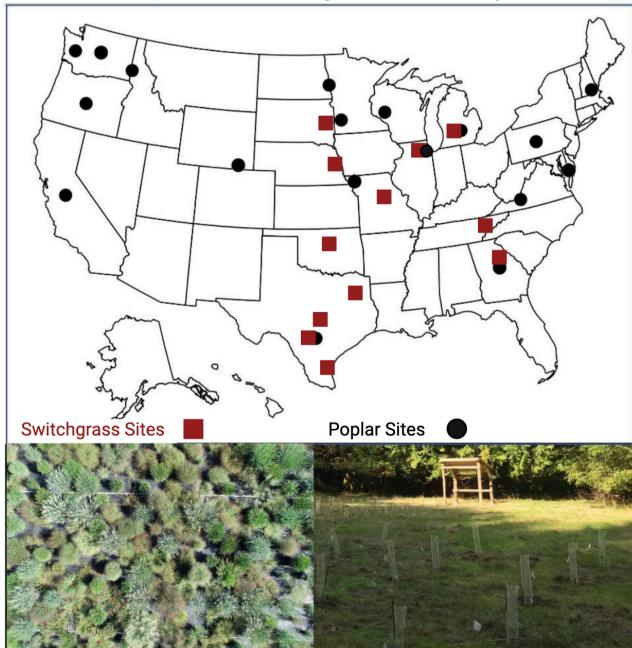
253 Forestry, more than any other field of plant science, has utilized provenance trials to understand the  
254 impact of seed provenance, or origin, on traits important for growth and persistence under varying  
255 abiotic and biotic environments [9,45–47]. Indeed, the field of genecology, commonly applied within  
256 forestry, largely derives from Turesson's observations of the relationship between heritable trait  
257 variation and that of the environment, serving as foundation to the contemporary field of ecological  
258 genomics [48]. Thus, understanding the relationship between genotypic or ecotypic variation across  
259 environments provides a powerful tool to predicting the health and productivity of reforested regions  
260 across space and time [49]. Provenance trials provide invaluable resources which extend our ability  
261 to assess adaptation and evaluate populations' capacity for evolution under changing climatic  
262 conditions. With the inclusion of new whole genome datasets, extension to new statistical  
263 approaches, and the development of new phenotyping platforms the value of provenance trials has  
264 only increased.

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266 *Populus* has become a model genus for studies of local adaptation in forest trees due to its compact  
267 genome, rapid growth, ease of vegetative propagation, and extensive natural genomic and phenotypic  
268 variation [50,51]. Extensive surveys of range-wide genomic variation in poplar species [52,53],  
269 paired with phenotypic measurements from long-term common garden experiments [54–56] have  
270 advanced our understanding of the role natural selection has played in shaping adaptive variation  
271 within and between Poplar species [57–60]. In addition, due to the propensity of *Populus* species to  
272 form natural hybrids and the degree to which hybrids often exhibit heterosis or adaptive introgression  
273 for traits valuable in cultivation, the species has become a key model leading advances in breeding  
274 and functional genomics [59,61–63]. Finally, poplar is a model system for community genetics - or  
275 the study of genetic interactions among species and their abiotic environment [64,65] where heritable  
276 trait variation within poplar genotypes have measurable impact to the biotic community impacting  
277 ecosystem function [65]. Thus, research using *Populus* capitalizes on its value as a keystone species  
278 to understand species' impact across scales of biodiversity, from genes to individuals to populations  
279 and communities, to understand the relationship between genetic and environmental variation  
280 necessary to predict phenotypic responses across complex environments.

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282 The relatively nascent nature of commercial breeding in forest trees, where many species are only  
283 one to three generations from their wild progenitors [66], emphasizes the value that natural hybrid  
284 zones provide. Natural hybrid zones circumvent much of the challenge associated with traditional  
285 breeding in long-lived species by offering natural, replicated hybrid crosses. Moreover, where  
286 ecological differences exist between hybridizing species, zones of contact provide the opportunity to  
287 directly evaluate the role natural selection has had on admixture, providing insight into the  
288 architecture of adaptation. A unique aspect of *Populus* has been the value of comparative genomics  
289 and admixture mapping within naturally replicated contact zones between two species [59,67].  
290 Within the context of climate change, standing genetic variation generated from natural zones of  
291 introgression provides a mechanism to facilitate adaptation to novel environments [68–70]. Notably,  
292 the contact zone between *Populus trichocarpa* x *balsamifera* indicates expansion of the range of *P.*  
293 *trichocarpa*, which traditionally is characterized by a maritime climate has benefitted from  
294 introgression with more continental *P. balsamifera* [59,71]. Thus, a valuable reservoir of adaptive  
295 genetic variation may be maintained within zones of introgression with natural selection structuring  
296 rangewide genomic and phenotypic variation [55,59,68,71]. Efforts to develop an understanding of  
297 the role genome x genome (GxG) interactions may play alongside genotype x environment (GxE)  
298 interactions are underway within *P. trichocarpa* x *balsamifera*. Clonally replicated poplar common  
299 garden experiments have been established at 18 distinct environments across the United States as part  
300 of the PopUp Poplar Network (Figure 5; <http://popup-poplars.com>). These plantings sourced a  
301 latitudinal gradient of native field-collected *P. trichocarpa*, *P. balsamifera*, and their hybrids  
302 spanning six replicated contact zones across the Rocky Mountains, from Washington to Alaska. This  
303 model system pairs whole genome sequences, clonally replicated common gardens, and climate  
304 modeling to understand how genotypic variation, genomic ancestry, and environmental variation  
305 interact to produce phenotypic variation important to climate adaptation and hybrid breeding. This  
306 living laboratory provides an unprecedented resource to quantify the role of hybridization to  
307 evolution and adaptation, the role of natural selection in shaping quantitative trait variation, and the  
308 role interactions between abiotic and biotic factors may have on plant fitness and community and  
309 ecosystem function.



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**Figure 4:** Locations of PopUp Poplar Network sites (black circles) and switchgrass diversity panel planting locations (red squares) across North America. At each poplar location, two replicates of 50 Poplar clones of mixed genomic ancestry between *Populus trichocarpa*, *P. balsamifera*, and their hybrids have been planted and maintained since 2020. Inset pictures of switchgrass gardens at Kellogg Biological Station (left) and poplar at Evergreen State University (right) (Photo Credit: Robert Goodwin and Dylan Fischer)

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### Future Directions: Predicting locally adaptive responses to climate change

Current studies of switchgrass are greatly advancing researchers' understanding of how individual loci contribute to the process of evolution at the scale of a continent. One of the most consequential results of this study being conducted in multiple sites and years is that it has enabled the prediction of locus-specific effects on traits and fitness in unmeasured environments. For example, Lowry et al. [17] developed models based on the QTL results from the ten common garden locations to predict allelic effects of loci based on a suite of local environmental conditions. From this modelling effort, it was possible to construct predictive maps across central North America of where individual alleles would be most beneficial to increasing fitness. In the future, these genetic models can be integrated with climate change models to predict how additive allelic effects will shift over time [72]. This future research will complement recent work on trait and fitness predictions for switchgrass at the cultivar level [73].

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A major recent advance in predicting plant evolution in response to changed or novel environments leverages spatially-informed genomic datasets with genome-environment associations to predict genotype performance across future environments [74]. These predictions, which assess the degree to which genotype-environment associations are perturbed from locally adapted fitness peaks under climate change, provide an ability to forecast the impact climate change may have on fitness [74–77]. Gougherty et al. [77] recently used genes associated with the flowering-time pathway in *Populus*

337 *balsamifera* to characterize the impact disruptions may have to the maintenance of variation  
338 necessary for persistence across the species' range. Broadly, this landscape-level assessment  
339 identified regions across the species' distribution that may lack the variation needed to adapt to  
340 change and those that may benefit from rescue via migration [77,78]. In combination with advances  
341 in machine learning, these new forecasting approaches enhance our ability to predict maladaptation  
342 to changed conditions with practical application to restoration under current and future climates [76].  
343

344 Plant breeding is increasingly incorporating high-throughput phenotyping through unmanned aerial  
345 vehicles (UAVs) through drones and through satellite-based remote sensing of hyperspectral data  
346 [79,80], and local adaptation studies will follow in the not too distant future. These systems provide  
347 models to bridge the genome to phenotype gap for applications both to breeding and evaluation of  
348 intraspecific variation essential to restoration efforts [81,82]. Genetic-based trait detection at this  
349 spatial and temporal resolution will advance the scale of associations needed to quantify genetic  
350 variation for traits important to adaptation. Further, gene expression analyses within hybrid mapping  
351 populations and diversity panels will usher in a new era of expression QTL (eQTL) studies to  
352 understand how gene regulation contributes to local adaptation. Field eQTL mapping has already  
353 recently been conducted in a common garden experiment of a close relative of switchgrass (*Panicum*  
354 *hallii*; [83]). Further, gene expression analyses are now beginning to be incorporated into field  
355 reciprocal transplant experiments [13,84,85]. One hundred years after Turesson [2] first clearly  
356 articulated how ecotype variation arises from natural selection driving local adaptation, rigorous  
357 experimental studies have allowed researchers to more clearly understand the role genetics play in  
358 the generation of within-species variation, but the challenge of understanding plants' response to  
359 global climate change is a reminder that we still have much to learn.  
360

## 361 **Funding**

362 This review is based upon work supported in part by the Great Lakes Bioenergy Research Center,  
363 U.S. Department of Energy, Office of Science, Office of Biological and Environmental Research  
364 under Award Number DE-SC0018409 to DBL, and NSF-RESEARCH-PGR (1856450) to JAH. We  
365 received further funding from the U.S. Department of Energy through a grant (DE-SC0017883) to  
366 DBL.  
367

## 368 **Declaration of competing interest**

369 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships  
370 that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.  
371

## 372 **Acknowledgements**

373 The authors wish to thank the numerous undergraduates, field technicians, graduate students,  
374 postdocs, and collaborators who have spent countless hours in the field maintaining and making  
375 measurements on our networks of switchgrass common garden experiments and PopUp Poplar  
376 Network.  
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431 as well as an incredibly detailed look at the climatic adaptation of this system. Genome-wide  
432 associations made possible by an extensive replicated diversity panel use “multivariate adaptive  
433 shrinkage” to share information between planting sites, and improve estimates of genetic  
434 associations. This technique, combined with climate associations in the study, offer potential future  
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622 of locally adapted populations, but that this plastic response was not fully sufficient to maintain  
623 fitness. These results show the importance of disentangling plasticity and genetic differentiation in  
624 transplant studies, and offer new tools for local adaptation researchers to understand how populations  
625 respond to their environment.

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