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1 Growth, regeneration and colonisation of *Egeria densa* fragments: the effect of autumn  
2 temperature increases.

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10

11           Abstract:

12   The present study analysed the influence of higher temperatures on the growth, regeneration  
13   and colonisation abilities of apical shoot fragments from three naturalized and one cultivated  
14   population of *Egeria densa*. Our hypotheses were that (1) increased temperatures would favour  
15   the growth, regeneration and colonisation of *E. densa* shoots and (2) fragments from naturalized  
16   populations would have higher establishment success than fragments from cultivated plants.  
17   We tested the effect of average minimal autumn temperature (9°C), average maximal autumn  
18   temperature (16°C) and an increase of 3°C above these values, on apical shoots of these four  
19   populations of *E. densa* under controlled conditions in two growth chambers. Our results  
20   showed that temperature and the origin of the population had an effect on the growth rate of *E.*  
21   *densa* fragments, on their regeneration and colonisation abilities at the maximal autumn  
22   temperature. An increase of 3°C stimulated the growth rate of *E. densa* at low temperatures but  
23   had no effect on the plant colonisation and regeneration abilities. The responses of populations  
24   to low temperatures (9-12°C) were more similar than expected. In contrast, at higher  
25   temperatures (16-19°C) the cultivated population showed lower apical growth, higher  
26   regeneration and similar colonisation abilities to the naturalized populations. At these higher  
27   temperatures, the responses also differed among the naturalized populations. These results  
28   suggest that global warming has implications for the invasiveness of *E. densa*.

29

30           *Keywords:* invasive macrophytes; global warming; establishment success; functional  
31   traits.

32

33           **Introduction**

34           Climate change, variability and changes in land use are major drivers of ecosystem  
35 alterations. Non Indigenous Species (NIS) also contribute to ecosystem changes. They cause  
36 environmental damage, and have economic consequences and impacts on human-health.  
37 Interactions exist between these threats and they could exacerbate the impacts of climate change  
38 on ecosystems by changing environmental conditions, and climate change may also enable  
39 further invasions (Hellmann et al. 2008; Mainka and Howard 2010). Climate change could also  
40 affect the dynamics of plant invasions by favouring individual traits of invasive species  
41 (Hellmann et al. 2008). Aquatic non indigenous plants could benefit from the increasing  
42 seasonality and more marked wet and dry cycles.

43           In addition to physical changes, climate change can alter ecosystems and species' life  
44 cycles (Fitter et al. 1995; Bradley et al. 1999). Scientists have traditionally focused their  
45 attention on the seasonal changes in spring rather than those later in the year. Many studies have  
46 focused on spring events in temperate regions, while studies on the basic triggers of autumnal  
47 plant changes are, by comparison, in their infancy. Gallinat et al. (2015) consider that it is  
48 important to investigate the role of autumn climate change on NIS. The survival of invasive  
49 aquatic macrophytes in ecosystems depends, amongst other factors, on their thermal  
50 acclimation. Phenotypic plasticity and rapid evolution allow some invasive species to be more  
51 responsive to warmer autumn temperatures and to later freezing events than many native  
52 species (Richards et al. 2006), but there is a gap in our knowledge regarding invasive aquatic  
53 plant establishment and its responses to predicted climate change.

54           Among the invasive macrophyte species, *Egeria densa* Planch (Hydrocharitaceae), has  
55 been introduced worldwide by aquarium trade. Hence, *E. densa* has been included in the  
56 database of global invasive species (GISD 2015), by the Invasive Species Specialist Group  
57 (ISSG) of the Species Survival Commission of the International Union for Conservation of

58 Nature (IUCN)-World Conservation Union, although it is not in their top 100 list (Curt et al.  
59 2010). *E. densa* is a perennial dioecious aquatic plant native from South America, in the  
60 neotropical range (Yarrow et al. 2009). In its introduced range, in Europe and in the United  
61 States, only male flowers have been observed, thus plants reproduce asexually by fragmentation  
62 (Cook and Urmi-König 1984). The large stands often seen in the US, Canada, New Zealand,  
63 Japan and Europe are considered to be genetic monocultures in each of these countries because  
64 of this sole reproduction strategy (Kadono et al. 1997; Darrin 2009). *E. densa* was introduced  
65 to France in the 1920s as experimental botanical material (St John 1961). These plants were  
66 released into the wild and have become naturalized in France, where their distribution has  
67 spread (Feuillade 1961a; 1961b). *E. densa* is found in both lentic and lotic environments  
68 (Yarrow et al. 2009) and it appears to be confined to warm-temperate and cool subtropical  
69 conditions. Within subtropical and tropical areas, *E. densa* is limited to high altitudes or cold-  
70 water springs (Cook and Urmi-König 1984). It is well adapted to cold climates and can survive  
71 freezing conditions during the winter by storing starch in its leaves and stems. It then uses these  
72 supplies for growth once temperatures rise above 10°C. It can even live for a while under ice  
73 (Cook and Urmi-König 1984). The optimum growth temperature reported is 16°C and the  
74 maximum temperature for growth is 25°C (Cook and Urmi-König 1984). Its growth is affected  
75 by temperature (Barko and Smart 1981; Riis et al. 2012; Hussner et al. 2014) but not by CO<sub>2</sub>  
76 availability under experimental conditions (Hussner et al. 2014). *E. densa* biomass has two  
77 growth maxima in August and December-January in Japan (Haramoto and Ikusima 1988) and  
78 in late summer and late autumn in South Carolina (Getsinger and Dillon 1984).

79         During the introduction phase, non-native aquatic species are usually introduced as stem  
80 fragments. Vegetative propagules such as stem fragments, are essential for the dispersal and  
81 colonisation of Hydrocharitaceae species (Silveira et al. 2009). The colonization of a new site  
82 by plant fragments requires regeneration (the ability of fragments to grow new shoots and

83 rhizomes), and establishment (the ability of fragments to develop roots and become attached to  
84 the sediment) (Barrat-Segretain et al. 1998; Riis et al. 2009). Although abiotic variables may  
85 also influence the survival and colonisation success of plant fragments, their effects on  
86 vegetative propagules are little known. In the Upper Parana River basin, physical and chemical  
87 properties of the water seem to be related to sediment characteristics, and plant fragments  
88 reaching habitats with different physical and chemical properties may differ in their  
89 colonisation and growth success (Silveira et al. 2009). The spread of *E. densa* is a range  
90 expansion from established populations via dispersal by water or via unintentional introduction  
91 by humans (emptying aquariums, propagation of fragments attached to boats, etc.). The present  
92 study analysed the influence of increasing autumn temperatures on the growth, regeneration  
93 and colonisation abilities of *E. densa* shoots from different populations during the first stage of  
94 the introduction process. We tested four populations: three “naturalized” populations and one  
95 “cultivated” population (from an aquarium supply store). Our hypotheses were that (1) an  
96 increase of three degrees would favour growth, regeneration and colonisation of *E. densa*  
97 fragments and (2) naturalized populations would have higher establishment success than a  
98 cultivated population.

## 99 **Methods**

### 100 Experimental design

101 Three sites A (N47°44'44"; W02°15'05"), B (N47°41'20"; W01°55'37") and C (N47°37'39";  
102 W01°51'35") characterized by the presence of dense monospecific beds of *E. densa* were  
103 selected in Brittany, France. To characterize the environmental conditions in which *E. densa*  
104 was growing, we assessed the water quality of each site over the course of one year. At each  
105 sampling site, a water sample was collected in May, June, July, October and November 2013.  
106 Water temperature and the percentage of dissolved oxygen were measured in the field, whereas  
107 other parameters such as pH, conductivity and nutrients ( $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) were analysed in

108 the laboratory. Conductivity and pH were measured using a combined glass electrode and  
109 corrected for temperature (25°C). Reactive soluble phosphorus, nitrates and ammonia were  
110 analysed using a spectrophotometer (by the standard molybdenum blue analytical technique for  
111 phosphates and by the indophenol technique for ammonia, AFNOR, 1990).

112 In autumn 2013, forty shoots of *E. densa* were collected from each site (populations A,  
113 B and C) and forty shoots of *E. densa* were collected from a grower in the aquarium trade  
114 (population D). Shoots of population D had been grown at 26°C in the store.

115 Two experiments were carried out in autumn 2013. Climate change predictions for  
116 northern latitudes suggest an average temperature increase of around 3°C over the course of  
117 this century (McKee et al. 2003). To keep our experiment in line with these predictions, we  
118 subjected the plants from the four populations to two experiments with a temperature increase  
119 of 3°C. Experiment 1 consisted of testing the average minimal autumn temperature (9°C) and  
120 a temperature 3°C above this value, i.e. 12°C. In experiment 2, we tested the average maximal  
121 autumn temperature (16°C), and warmer conditions of 19°C.

122 Each experiment was set up under controlled conditions in two growth chambers  
123 (Percival AR-41L3X and Percival AR-41L3X LT). Water temperatures were maintained at  
124 specified levels ( $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ ) using a temperature regulated chamber possessing both heating and  
125 cooling capacities. At the beginning of the experiment, the shoots from each population of *E.*  
126 *densa* were cleaned gently by hand to remove invertebrates, algae and debris. To each  
127 transparent plastic container (with dimensions L x W x H: 8 cm x 8 cm x 20 cm), we added  
128 sediment composed of 1 cm of substrate (potting soil) overlaid with 1cm of sand. Containers  
129 were filled with 500ml of tap water ( $[\text{NH}_4^+-\text{N}] = 0.030 \text{ mg/l}$ ;  $[\text{NO}_3^--\text{N}] = 5.77 \text{ mg/l}$ ;  $[\text{PO}_4^{3+}-\text{P}]$   
130  $= 0.010 \text{ mg/l}$ ; pH = 8.17; conductivity: 486  $\mu\text{S/cm}$ ). A 10 cm-long apical shoot (with green  
131 leaves and without roots, lateral shoots or flowers) was put into each plastic container. There  
132 were 10 replicates for each population and experimental temperature. The fragments grew

133 under 330  $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  as *E. densa* is reported to have optimum growth under these  
134 light conditions (Riis et al. 2012) in a 12/12 h light/dark cycle. The containers had randomly  
135 assigned positions in the growth chambers.

136 The impact of increasing temperatures on the growth of the fragments of *E. densa* was  
137 examined at the four temperature levels (9°C and 12°C, 16°C and 19°C) after 10 days of  
138 exposure, when the experiments were concluded. Pistori et al. (2004) showed that the Relative  
139 Growth Rate of *E. densa* was the highest between 8 to 12 days after the beginning of an  
140 experiment.

141 We measured 9 morphological traits at the end of the experiment: stem length (distance  
142 from shoot base to the shoot apex), internode length (mean value of ten internodes located 3-  
143 cm below the apex), number of buds, roots, flowers and lateral shoots. Lateral shoots included  
144 any secondary lateral shoots which developed from nodes of the original apical shoot and other  
145 lateral shoots that developed either from the same nodes, or from nodes of the lateral shoots (Di  
146 Nino et al. 2007). We also measured the length of lateral shoots (mean value), the mean root  
147 length and the area of a leaf located below the three-cm long apex. The difference between the  
148 stem length at the beginning and the end of the experiment indicated the relative growth rate  
149 “RGR” (Silveira et al. 2009).

$$150 \quad \text{RGR} = \frac{(\ln L2 - \ln L1)}{(t2 - t1)}$$

151 L1 and L2 refer to total length at times 1 and 2.

## 152 Statistical analyses

153 The normal distribution of the values and homogeneity of variance were checked, and  
154 a two-way ANOVA was performed to test the temperature and the population effects in  
155 experiments 1 and 2. For each significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ), a HSD Tukey’s post-hoc test  
156 was performed to assign these differences between treatments. All data were analysed with  
157 Statistica 10.

158           **Results**

159           Plants were collected in neutral waters with high nutrient contents, moderate  
160 conductivity and low oxygen levels (Table 1). Site A was characterized by lower conductivity  
161 and ammonium concentrations than sites B and C (Table 1).

162           There was a significant interaction between temperature and population for bud and  
163 flower production under the minimal temperature conditions (Figure 1, Table 2), whereas there  
164 was no flower production at maximal autumn temperatures regardless of the population source.  
165 The growth (RGR), regeneration (production of lateral branches) and colonisation abilities  
166 (length of the roots) of *E. densa* fragments depended both on the population and temperature at  
167 the maximal autumn temperatures (Figure 1, Table 3). An increase of 3°C did not affect the  
168 production of buds, internode length or leaf area in any of the experiments. However, an  
169 increase of 3°C did have a significant effect on the apical growth (RGR) of *E. densa* at the  
170 minimal temperatures (experiment 1, 9-12°C), and on the regeneration abilities (production of  
171 lateral branches) at the maximal autumn temperatures (Figure 2; Tables 2, 3). The temperature  
172 increase from 16°C to 19°C also favoured the colonisation abilities (production of *E. densa*  
173 roots and their growth), whereas no roots or lateral branches were produced at 9°C and 12°C  
174 (Figure 2).

175           A significant population effect was established for all of the traits that were measured  
176 in both experiments, except for the RGR at minimal temperatures. Fragments from population  
177 A were characterized by lower growth (RGR and internode length), reduced leaf area and lower  
178 root development (number and length) than those of population C, and lower lateral shoots than  
179 those of the cultivated population (D) at maximal autumn temperatures (Figure 3). Fragments  
180 from population B had the highest leaf area in both experiments and developed high apical  
181 growth rates (RGR, internode length) and root production at maximal autumn temperatures  
182 (Figure 3). Fragments from population C allocated their energy to growth (the highest RGR) at

183 the maximal autumn temperatures (Figure 3). The fragments from the cultivated population D  
184 had lower growth (lowest RGR at 16°C) and higher regeneration abilities (number of lateral  
185 shoots) than the naturalized populations at maximal autumn temperatures (Figure 3). This  
186 population was characterized by low leaf area (the lowest at minimal temperatures and among  
187 the lowest at maximal autumn temperatures). Population D was the only one which produced  
188 flowers at minimal temperatures (Figure 3).

## 189 **Discussion**

190 Our preliminary results showed that temperature and the origin of the population both  
191 had an effect on the growth of *E. densa* (RGR), its regeneration (production of lateral branches)  
192 and its colonisation (the length of the roots) abilities at the maximal autumn temperatures and  
193 also on the production of buds and flowers at minimal autumn temperatures. An increase of  
194 3°C at low temperatures slightly favoured the apical growth (RGR) of *E. densa*, whereas an  
195 increase in temperature from 16°C to 19°C stimulated the regeneration and colonisation  
196 abilities (number and length of roots). Our first hypothesis is supported.

197 We also demonstrated that the potential success of *E. densa* fragments to establish was  
198 strongly influenced by the origin of the population. Fragments of *E. densa* from naturalized  
199 populations elongated much faster than those from the cultivated population. Although the three  
200 naturalized populations were acclimatized in Brittany, they showed different responses to  
201 increasing temperature: fragments from population A had low growth, regeneration and  
202 colonisation abilities, whereas the fragments from populations B and C had high regeneration  
203 abilities and growth rates. Our results must be interpreted conservatively because differences  
204 between the traits of fragments from populations A, B and C could be due to “ecotypes” or  
205 “clonal adaptation”. The cultivated population had lower growth than the naturalized  
206 populations when submitted to autumn temperatures: fragments allocated their energy

207 essentially to the production of lateral shoots (regeneration). Our second hypothesis is also  
208 supported.

209         We found very low growth of *E. densa* at 9°C, but significantly higher growth when the  
210 temperature increased to 12°C. The increase in temperature from 16°C to 19°C stimulated the  
211 production of lateral branches amongst population D and the apical growth of fragments from  
212 all populations. These results are congruent with data in the literature (Getsinger and Dillon  
213 1984; Haramoto and Ikusima 1988; Hussner et al. 2014). Haramoto and Ikusima (1988) showed  
214 that below 10°C, the growth of *E. densa* stops. Similarly, the autumn biomass peak was  
215 recorded when the water temperature had reached approximately 10°C in Lake Marion in South  
216 Carolina (Getsinger and Dillon 1984). Haramoto and Ikusima (1988) also showed that lateral  
217 shoots with roots were developed and elongated towards the water surface when the water  
218 temperature rose above 15°C, and that optimum growth rate occurred at a temperature of  
219 20.7°C. We measured the highest RGR (0.032 day<sup>-1</sup>) for population C at 19°C and the lowest  
220 for population A at 19°C (RGR = 0.018 day<sup>-1</sup>). According to laboratory findings from other  
221 studies, the average measured RGR of fragments from naturalized populations of *E. densa* is  
222 consistent with the data reported in the literature for that temperature range (Barko and Smart  
223 1981; Haramoto and Ikusima 1988; Tanner et al. 1993; Carrillo et al. 2006; Silveira et al. 2009;  
224 Hussner et al. 2014).

225         In this study, we showed that the high capacity of *E. densa* populations to adjust their  
226 growth responses depends on both the environmental temperature conditions and the origin of  
227 the plants. The acclimation potential towards cold temperatures may be closely related to the  
228 temperatures experienced in the area where plants were collected. Indeed, the responses of the  
229 three naturalized populations of *E. densa* when acclimated to 9°C and 12°C were similar, and  
230 differed significantly from the cultivated population for the number of flowers, internode length  
231 and leaf area. All naturalized populations may have partly entered into a dormant stage due to

232 the minimal temperatures, as seen in other studies (Madsen and Brix 1997; Hyldgaard et al.  
233 2014). This possibility is supported by observed morphological changes, such as shoots of the  
234 naturalized plants tested at 9°C and 12 C, which were less compact in structure and had longer  
235 distances between whorls (mean internode length =  $0.36 \pm 0.07$  cm) than the plants exposed to  
236 16°C and 19°C (mean internode length =  $0.50 \pm 0.17$ cm). In contrast, the fragments from the  
237 cultivated population produced flowers and buds when they were exposed to the low  
238 temperatures.

239         The three naturalized populations were collected from neighbouring sites in Brittany  
240 and therefore they had been exposed to the same climatic conditions prior to the experiments.  
241 The environmental conditions in the field could explain some differences in the responses  
242 between the three naturalized populations of *E. densa* tested. Feijoó et al. (2002) found that *E.*  
243 *densa* shows a clear preference for ammonium over nitrate and that most nitrogen was absorbed  
244 from the water column. Moreover *E. densa* can store nutrients in their leaves and stems. The  
245 comparatively high concentration of ammonium in sites B and C could suggest that nitrogen  
246 was stored in the plants and used later for growth (luxury consumption hypothesis). This could  
247 explain the higher growth rate of *E. densa* from the sites B and C. Furthermore, the RGR is  
248 directly controlled by the concentration of N within the plant (Ågren 1985) and high  
249 concentrations of N in the tissues may favour plant growth.

250         In Western Europe, as only male plants and clonal reproduction have been observed, the  
251 wide range of morphological variations within *E. densa* species suggest that either a large  
252 number of diverse clonal lineages were introduced, or that this plant has high levels of somatic  
253 mutation. For functional traits such as growth rate, phenotypic plasticity can allow invasive  
254 plants to benefit from changing environmental conditions (Richards et al. 2006). Morphological  
255 plasticity may evolve rapidly in introduced species, and thereby contribute to their spread and  
256 invasion success after a time-lag (e.g. Sexton et al. 2002). Results of the present study

257 confirmed that *E. densa* could act aggressively as an invasive plant by showing plasticity for  
258 ecological traits that are beneficial to its range expansion. At this time, we do not have  
259 information about potential genetic differences between the different populations of *E. densa*.  
260 Our hypothesis should be tested by genetic approaches.

261 Our preliminary results suggest that *E. densa* may be able to develop taller canopies in  
262 the future, in particular in autumn, which might improve their survival during the winter and  
263 accelerate their growth in early spring. To test our hypothesis, it would be necessary to assess  
264 the responses of these different populations of *E. densa* during a long term study. We emphasize  
265 that our observations were recorded in the early stages of fragment regeneration, and whether  
266 they also pertain to later life stages is a matter for further investigation. Moreover, *E. densa* has  
267 the ability to adapt to seasonal changes in temperature in its natural habitat (Haramoto and  
268 Ikusima 1988). The growth rate of *E. densa* in autumn will be sensitive to the increase of  
269 temperatures expected in the context of global warming. These results should be tested in the  
270 field. The present study has investigated the growth responses of *E. densa* to varying  
271 temperatures, in isolation from a number of other environmental factors which would operate  
272 in the field (e.g. light, macrophyte beds, disturbance, nutrients, water velocity, etc). Research  
273 on the response of this species to increasing temperatures in parallel to other environmental  
274 factors is required to improve our understanding of the impact of global warming on the  
275 invasiveness of aquatic plants.

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367



sites	Temperature			pH			Conductivity			N- NO <sub>3</sub> -			P-PO <sub>4</sub> <sup>3-</sup>			N- NH <sub>4</sub> +			O <sub>2</sub>		
	°C						μS.cm <sup>-1</sup>			mg.L <sup>-1</sup>			μg.L <sup>-1</sup>			μg.L <sup>-1</sup>			%		
A	16.9	±	8.2	7.135	±	1.3	227.5	±	15.2	4.41	±	0.7	0.105	±	0.1	0.375	±	0.1	29	±	20
B	16.3	±	5.9	7.415	±	0.9	415.7	±	60	3.53	±	3.2	0.356	±	0.4	0.992	±	0.5	34	±	1.7
C	15.6	±	4.5	7.958	±	1,0	345.7	±	13.3	3.92	±	3.5	0.118	±	0.1	0.977	±	0.5	27	±	4.9

369

370 Table 1: Water chemical composition of the three sampling sites (annual mean value, n = 4).

371

	Degree of freedom	F	p
<b>Relative Growth Rate</b>			
population	3	1.51	0.22
temperature	1	4.60	<b>0.04</b>
population x temperature	3	1.83	0.15
<b>Number of buds</b>			
population	3	6.28	<b>0.0068</b>
temperature	1	0.56	0.14
population x temperature	3	3.09	<b>0.025</b>
<b>Internode length</b>			
population	3	46.87	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
temperature	1	0.13	0.72
population x temperature	3	0.56	0.65
<b>Leaf area</b>			
population	3	30.20	<b>&lt; 0.0001</b>
temperature	1	0.13	0.72
population x temperature	3	0.30	0.83
<b>Number of flowers</b>			
population	3	6.95	<b>0.0004</b>
temperature	1	6.70	0.01
population x temperature	3	6.95	<b>0.0004</b>

372

373 Table 2: F-Values and significance of two-way ANOVA of the effects of population and  
374 temperature on growth and morphology parameters of *Egeria densa* submitted to minimal  
375 autumn temperature (Experiment 1, 9-12°C).

376



	Degree of freedom	F	p
<b>Relative Growth Rate</b>			
population	3	17.30	< <b>0.0001</b>
temperature	1	2.55	0.11
population x temperature	3	3.66	<b>0.016</b>
<b>Internode length</b>			
population	3	5.11	<b>0.003</b>
temperature	1	0.17	0.68
population x temperature	3	1.22	0.31
<b>Number of Buds</b>			
population	3	6.28	<b>0.0008</b>
temperature	1	0.56	0.46
population x temperature	3	3.09	<b>0.03</b>
<b>Number of lateral branches</b>			
population	3	18.56	< <b>0.0001</b>
temperature	1	4.64	<b>0.03</b>
population x temperature	3	3.15	<b>0.03</b>
<b>Length of Lateral Shoots</b>			
population	3	6.45	<b>0.0006</b>
temperature	1	1.73	0.19
population x temperature	3	1.92	0.13
<b>Number of Roots</b>			
population	3	4.78	<b>0.004</b>
temperature	1	10.19	<b>0.002</b>
population x temperature	3	2.02	0.12
<b>Length of roots</b>			
population	3	7.30	<b>0.0002</b>
temperature	1	7.26	<b>0.009</b>
population x temperature	3	3.93	<b>0.01</b>
<b>Leaf area</b>			
population	3	10.29	< <b>0.0001</b>
temperature	1	0.06	0.80
population x temperature	3	0.85	0.47

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Table 3: F-Values and significance of two-way ANOVA of the effects of population and temperature on growth and morphology parameters of *Egeria densa* submitted to maximal autumn temperature (Experiment 2, 16-19°C).

383 Figure captions

384 Figure 1: Comparison of the effect of population and temperature on bud number at 9-12°C  
385 (experiment 1) and on Relative Growth Rate (RGR) at 16-19°C (experiment 2) between *E.*  
386 *densa* populations. Different letters indicate significant differences for *E. densa* with  
387 temperature and population (ANOVA,  $p < 0.05$ ). Bars indicate standard deviation.

388

389 Figure 2: Comparison of the significant effects of temperature on traits between *E. densa*  
390 populations in experiments 1 and 2. Different letters indicate significant differences for *E. densa*  
391 with temperature (ANOVA,  $p < 0.05$ ). Bars indicate standard deviation.

392

393 Figure 3: Comparison of the significant effects of population on traits between *E. densa*  
394 populations in experiments 1 and 2. Different letters indicate significant differences for *E. densa*  
395 with population according to ANOVA,  $p < 0.05$  and Tukey test. Bars indicate standard  
396 deviation.