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1 Subtle variation in shade avoidance responses may have profound consequences
2 for plant competitiveness

3

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8

9 **Running title:** Variation in shade avoidance responses influence competitiveness

10

11 **Abstract**

12 **Background and Aims:** Although phenotypic plasticity has been shown to be beneficial for
13 plant competitiveness for light, there is limited knowledge on how variation in these plastic
14 responses plays a role in determining competitiveness.

15 **Methods:** A combination of detailed plant experiments and functional-structural plant (FSP)
16 modelling was used that captures the complex dynamic feedback between the changing plant
17 phenotype and the within-canopy light environment in time and 3D space. Leaf angle increase
18 (hyponasty) and changes in petiole elongation rates in response to changes in the ratio
19 between red and far-red light, two important shade avoidance responses in *Arabidopsis*
20 *thaliana* growing in dense population stands, were chosen as a case study for plant plasticity.
21 Measuring and implementing these responses into an FSP model, allowed to simulate plant
22 phenotype as an emergent property of the underlying growth and response mechanisms.

23 **Key results:** Both the experimental and model results showed that substantial differences in
24 competitiveness may arise between genotypes with only marginally different hyponasty or
25 petiole elongation responses, due to the amplification of plant growth differences by small
26 changes in plant phenotype. In addition, it illustrated that strong competitive responses do not
27 necessarily have to result in a tragedy of the commons; success in competition going at the
28 expense of community performance.

29 **Conclusions:** Together these findings indicate that selection pressure could likely have
30 played a role in fine-tuning the sensitive shade avoidance responses found in plants. The
31 model approach presented here, provides a novel tool to further analyse how natural selection
32 could have acted on the evolution of plastic responses.

33

34 **Key-words:** Arabidopsis, competition, functional-structural plant model, phenotypic
35 plasticity, shade avoidance, tragedy of the commons

36 **Introduction**

37 Plants compete for resources with their neighbours, which influences species composition and
38 vegetation dynamics in both natural (Kiaer *et al.* 2013; Kunstler *et al.* 2016) and managed
39 plant communities (Olsen *et al.* 2005; Yu *et al.* 2015). Plants experience both above and
40 belowground competition, and the relative importance of the degree of competition for plant
41 performance depends on the availability of resources, e.g. nutrients or light (Kiaer *et al.*
42 2013). The degree of competition for resources and therefore plant functioning is influenced
43 by differences in plant phenotype, created by the component traits and their values (Kunstler
44 *et al.* 2016). These values can be genotype specific but may also be modulated by
45 environmental factors through phenotypic plasticity. Phenotypic plasticity is the ability of a
46 genotype to express multiple phenotypes in various environments (Bradshaw 1965; Sultan
47 2000).

48 Here we emphasize that expression of different phenotypes in different environments
49 is mediated by dynamic organ-level responses to environmental signals. From an evolutionary
50 perspective one can argue that plants have evolved to optimize plastic responses to maximize
51 resource acquisition in different environments (Sultan 2000). Plastic responses to changes in
52 vegetation density and the associated light conditions constitute a well-known form of
53 phenotypic plasticity in plants, called the shade avoidance syndrome (SAS; Casal 2012;
54 Ballaré & Pierik 2017). Increase in stem or petiole extension rate, reduction in branch
55 production, increase in leaf inclination (hyponasty) and advanced flowering time are typical
56 SAS responses that plants exhibit when encountering increased competition for light, though
57 the combination of responses differ between species.

58 Relations between species, component traits and their values, and their relationship
59 with competitiveness have been studied intensively to understand ecosystem processes

60 (Dybzinski *et al.* 2011; Farrior *et al.* 2013; Bardgett *et al.* 2014; Kunstler *et al.* 2016). For
61 instance, game-theoretical studies suggest that because plants compete for resources, plants
62 can evolve traits associated with a relatively large investment in resource harvesting (e.g.
63 leaves, stems and roots) instead of reproduction. This means that under competition, natural
64 selection can result in plant traits that will not optimize performance of the plant population,
65 also referred to as a tragedy of the commons (ToC, Falster & Westoby 2003; McNickle &
66 Dybzinski 2013). The existence of such a ToC may have profound consequences for
67 vegetation performance (Anten and Vermeulen 2016). However, studies that evaluate the role
68 of resource-harvesting traits for competition often do not take phenotypic plasticity into
69 account (but see e.g. Dybzinski *et al.* 2013). Analysing how plastic responses affect
70 competition is challenging because plastic responses affect trait values that influence the
71 dynamic interaction between plant phenotype and environmental conditions and signals.
72 Environmental signals elicit plastic responses that induce small trait changes which in turn
73 change the light climate and thus modify the environmental signals. Furthermore small
74 changes early in plant development eventually can be amplified into substantial consequences
75 for competitiveness. Although phenotypic plasticity is identified to be beneficial for plant
76 performance, illustrated by adequate stem or petiole length matching to different
77 environments (Schmitt *et al.* 1995; Dudley and Schmitt 1996; Pierik *et al.* 2003; Weijsschede
78 *et al.* 2008), it is unknown to what extent subtle variation in the plastic response itself has
79 consequences for plant performance in competitive settings. Large consequences of such
80 subtle variation would likely result in strong selection for a fine-tuned detection and signal-
81 transduction system.

82 Our main objective was to determine to what extent differences in plastic responses
83 between neighbouring plants affect the outcome of competition for light, considering the
84 dynamic feedback between plant phenotype and environment. We use SAS responses in

85 *Arabidopsis thaliana* (*Arabidopsis*) as a case study for phenotypic plasticity. *Arabidopsis*
86 rosettes show two major SAS responses: increased leaf angle (hyponasty) and petiole
87 elongation (Pierik & de Wit, 2014). When *Arabidopsis* plants are grown in dense stands, leaf
88 angles will first increase due to physical touching among growing leaves (de Wit *et al.* 2012).
89 This resulting vertical stand structure will change the ratio of red to far-red (R:FR) light
90 scattered by the elevated leaves. This decrease of R:FR light is the most important signal for
91 the subsequent induction of further leaf hyponasty and petiole elongation (Pierik & de Wit,
92 2014). To quantify the effect of differences in these SAS responses on plant competitiveness,
93 we used a combination of detailed plant experiments and functional-structural plant (FSP)
94 modelling (Bongers *et al.* 2014). FSP models can capture the dynamic feedback between the
95 changing plant phenotype and the surrounding light environment by simulating plant
96 phenotypic development and biomass growth over time in three dimensions at the organ level
97 (Vos *et al.* 2010; Evers 2016). We implemented phenotypic plasticity as the ability to express
98 organ-level plastic responses: changes in the rate of petiole elongation and changes in the rate
99 of hyponasty. These plastic responses were modelled using response curves that relate organ
100 change to R:FR (Gautier *et al.* 2000; Evers and Vos 2013). In parallel with model analysis,
101 variation in these plastic responses was explored in experiments using *Arabidopsis* mutants.
102 Ultimately, by simulating the R:FR distribution as a function of the dynamic 3D plant
103 phenotypes that are created by the interaction of resource acquisition and growth at the organ
104 level, plastic responses at the organ level were quantitatively linked to whole-plant
105 performance during competition.

106

107 **Material and Methods**

108 *Plant experiments*

109 Three independent experiments were conducted to obtain organ-level growth data, petiole
110 elongation response curves, and plant phenotype and performance of various genotypes of
111 *Arabidopsis thaliana*, for model design and validation (outlined in Fig. 1). To obtain organ-
112 level growth data, wild-type Col-0 plants were used. To explore the variation in SAS
113 responses we tested various *Arabidopsis* mutants for their SAS responses (Fig. 2 and Fig. S1,
114 **Supplementary Information**). For model validation the genotypes *hfr1-5* and *rot3-1* were
115 used because of their clear distinct levels of petiole elongation (Fig. 2). *Arabidopsis* seeds
116 were sown on potting soil (mix Z2254, Primasta B.V., the Netherlands), stratified for 4 days
117 at 4°C in the dark after which they germinated and grew in a growth chamber with 9-hour
118 photoperiod of 200 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ PAR and R:FR ratio of 2.3, 20 °C and 70% relative humidity.
119 Ten days after germination, seedlings were transplanted to individual 19 ml pots (\emptyset 2.5 cm)
120 and plants grew in the same growth chamber with bottom up watering for soil water
121 saturation.

122 *Experiments for model design*

123 To obtain organ-level growth data, *Arabidopsis* wild-type Col-0 was grown solitarily (referred
124 to as ‘low density’ in the results) or in high density stands of 7 x 7 plants with inter plant
125 distance (IPD) of 2.5 cm, until bolting. During stand development, R:FR measurements were
126 taken in the high-density stands at seven locations with a LI-COR1800 spectroradiometer
127 (LiCor, Lincoln, USA) using a glass fiber with cosine corrector (SKL 904, spectroSense2,
128 Skye, United Kingdom). R:FR was calculated from the irradiance within the wavelengths of
129 654-664 nm for R and 724-734 nm for FR light. Per location in the stand, readings in four
130 horizontal directions were taken and the average calculated. Between day 21 and day 46,
131 plants were harvested every 2-4 days, and in each harvest two high-density stands and 10
132 individually grown plants were selected. In each stand the outer two rows of plants were
133 excluded from the harvest to diminish border-effects. Before every harvest, leaf angle of rank

134 number 8 and 10 were measured with a protractor. For every harvested plant, laminas and
135 petioles were scanned (at 600 dpi). For all leaves with a rank higher than 6 and with a distinct
136 petiole, all laminas and petioles were pooled separately and dried for 48 hours to obtain
137 lamina and petiole dry weight. The remaining aboveground plant material was pooled and
138 dried to get total aboveground biomass. Root material was not harvested. Leaf scans were
139 analysed with ImageJ (<https://imagej.net>) to collect petiole length and width and lamina area,
140 length, width and shape. Petiole length and lamina area were used to determine parameter
141 values for the organ-growth function (**Supplementary Information - Material and**
142 **Methods**). Data of all harvested plants per developmental stage and density were used to
143 calculate trait value averages. All parameter values used in the model and extracted from this
144 experiment are given in Table S1, **Supplementary Information**.

145 To obtain petiole elongation-response curves for three Arabidopsis genotypes, 10-day-
146 old seedlings were transplanted in 70 ml pots (Ø 5 cm) and grown for 28 days at which time
147 they were subjected to one of eight R:FR ratios (2.3, 1.6, 1.2, 1.0, 0.7, 0.5, 0.2 and 0.1) for 24
148 hours, n = 12 per R:FR. These eight different R:FR ratios were created by supplementing
149 normal light (R:FR 2.3) with FR LEDs (730 nm; Philips Green Power, The Netherlands).
150 Two petioles per plant (start length 4 - 6 mm) were measured at the start and end of the
151 experiment with a digital calliper. The relative elongation per petiole was calculated and the
152 mean of the two petioles per plant was used for further analysis. Relative elongation of all
153 genotypes was described with:

$$154 \quad P = b * R:FR^{-a} \quad (1)$$

155 where P is the relative petiole elongation ($\text{mm mm}^{-1} 24\text{h}^{-1}$), *a* a slope coefficient and b the
156 elongation rate at R:FR 1. Parameters were fitted for each genotype separately.

157 *Experiments for model validation*

158 Three different Arabidopsis genotypes (Col-0, *hfr1-5*, *rot3-1*) were grown solitarily (low
159 density) or in high-density stands of 8 x 8 plants (IPD of 2.5 cm) composed of plants of the
160 same genotype (monoculture) or plants of two genotypes grown in a checkerboard pattern
161 (mixtures; Keuskamp *et al.* 2010). After 46 days of growth, five solitary plants per genotype
162 and five replicated plots per genotype specific monocultures and mixtures were harvested. For
163 all solitary plants and three plants per genotype per plot, laminas and petioles were scanned,
164 dried and measured similar to the first experiment. The mean values of the middle 16 or 8
165 plants per genotype per plot were calculated and used as independent values for further
166 analysis. Paired student's T-test was used to test significant difference between genotypes
167 within the mixture, and unpaired student's T-test was used to test significant difference
168 between monocultures.

169 *Model description*

170 A functional-structural plant (FSP) model (Vos *et al.* 2010; Evers 2016) of Arabidopsis
171 rosette growth and development was constructed using the simulation platform GroIMP v1.5
172 (<https://sourceforge.net/projects/groimp>). The rosettes were represented as a collection of
173 leaves that were composed of petioles and laminas. An additional root compartment
174 functioned only as a sink for carbon assimilates. The leaves were provided with values for
175 reflectance, transmittance and absorbance of PAR, R and FR light, which were used by the
176 radiation model to simulate the light environment and calculate the absorption of PAR and
177 perception of R:FR. The appearance rate and shape of the leaves were based on empirical data
178 and the leaves grew in time in three dimensions based on light interception, photosynthesis
179 and carbon-allocation mechanisms (Explained in more detail in **Supplementary Information**
180 **- Material and Methods** and in Evers and Bastiaans (2016)). During each simulated time
181 step (representing 24 hours) individual leaves absorbed PAR that was converted to an amount

182 of carbon through photosynthesis, and perceived R:FR that determined the shade avoidance
183 responses (see below). Therefore, simulated plant growth depended on the level of
184 competition for light that individual plants experienced with neighbouring plants: plant
185 phenotype, size and biomass were thus an emergent property of the simulated model
186 scenarios. Parameter values for organ structure, physiological processes and environment
187 signals were obtained from the experiments described above and from literature (Table S1).
188 The complete model is available on request from the corresponding author.

189 *Shade avoidance responses*

190 Two SAS responses were included: hyponasty (by touching and by R:FR) and petiole
191 elongation (by R:FR). Hyponasty by leaf touching is induced upon mechanical interaction at
192 the tips of two growing leaves before the R:FR in a canopy decreases significantly (de Wit *et*
193 *al.* 2012). This touch-induced hyponasty was simulated to occur when the distance between
194 lamina tips of neighbouring leaves was smaller than 2 mm. Hyponasty induced by R:FR
195 perception was simulated to happen when the perception of R:FR by the lamina was below a
196 threshold value of 0.5. In every model time-step (24 hours), when touch or low R:FR
197 threshold criteria were met, leaf angle increased by a fixed amount, for which either a default
198 value of 16 degrees (based on measurements on Col-0) was used or a scenario-dependent
199 value (see below *Model scenarios*). The leaf angle over time was therefore a function of the
200 number of time steps in which touch or low R:FR perception occurred, with a maximum leaf
201 angle of 80 degrees (see **Supplementary Information – Video** for hyponastic response of
202 *Arabidopsis* plants in high density). Leaves with rank number up to six did not become
203 hyponastic.

204 The second SAS response incorporated in the model was relative petiole elongation.
205 RFR ratios perceived at lamina level were used as input for the response curves (Kozuka *et al.*

206 2010). The petiole response curve based on Arabidopsis type Col-0 was used as default
207 setting (Fig. 2B), for other settings see *Model scenarios*. The fitted function for the relative
208 petiole elongation obtained from the petiole elongation experiment was normalized for
209 growth at control R:FR light (R:FR 2.3). This way the relative petiole elongation rate could be
210 simulated in addition to petiole growth by carbon allocation. Petiole elongation and related
211 extra investment of substrates was modelled in two steps. First the petiole elongated by
212 multiplying the petiole length with the relative petiole elongation value (representing cell
213 expansion without extra biomass demand; Sasidharan *et al.* 2010; Huber *et al.* 2014). Second,
214 the longer elongated petiole increased its carbon demand to correct for the needed biomass
215 corresponding to the length (representing increased biomass allocation to the petiole; Poorter
216 *et al.* 2012; de Wit *et al.* 2015). Petioles could only show the elongation response during the
217 actual growth phase. Petiole length over time was therefore a result of daily calculated carbon
218 growth based on PAR absorption and petiole elongation based on R:FR perception.

219 *Model scenarios*

220 In all scenarios, plants were simulated solitarily (representing low density) or in high-density
221 monocultures or mixtures (consisting of 8 x 8 plants and IPD of 2.5 cm) for 46 days
222 (**Supplementary Information - Video**), and different plant types were created by adjusting
223 relevant SAS response values. In Scenario 1, three plant types were simulated solitarily and in
224 monocultures to test the extent to which the model could simulate Arabidopsis phenotype and
225 growth: The first plant type had default SAS response values as measured for Arabidopsis
226 wild-type Col-0 (referred to as 'Col-0') in the experiment, two additional plant types had
227 either no hyponastic responses ('noHypo') or no petiole-elongation response ('noPE'). The
228 R:FR ratio in the vegetation stand was captured by placing virtual sensors at soil level that
229 measured R:FR from four directions, to mimic the measurements of R:FR in the experimental
230 Arabidopsis stands. Dynamic changes of leaf angle, petiole length, lamina area and total

231 aboveground biomass of these plant types were compared with data from experimentally
232 grown Col-0 Arabidopsis grown in low or high density stands. In Scenario 2 we simulated
233 two plant types with different values for their petiole elongation curves as measured for the
234 *hfr1-5* and *rot3-1* Arabidopsis genotypes (0.073 for '*hfr1-5*' and 0.028 for '*rot3-1*' plant type)
235 in low and high density stands to validate if variation in the petiole elongation responses
236 curve could result in distinct petiole length differences at low and high density. Of these
237 simulated plant types the petiole lengths per rank after 46 days of growth were compared with
238 measured petiole lengths after 46 days of the two corresponding Arabidopsis genotypes.

239 To quantify the impact of variation in plastic response curves on plant performance in
240 competitive settings, and to determine if stronger response curves would result in high plant
241 competitiveness but sub-optimal population performance (tragedy of the commons), four
242 additional scenarios were simulated (Scenario 3-6). In these scenarios, mixtures of two plant
243 types, placed in a checkerboard design, and the associated monocultures, were simulated for
244 46 days. Organ growth, light absorption and total aboveground biomass during the
245 development of the stands were recorded as model output. In Scenario 3, two plant types were
246 only different in their petiole elongation response curve; 'Col-0' having a slope of 0.054 and
247 '*hfr1-5*' of 0.073 (respectively matching the measured Col-0 and *hfr1-5* Arabidopsis
248 genotypes). Simulated total aboveground biomass was compared with total aboveground
249 biomass measured from the validation experiment with these same genotypes. In Scenario 4,
250 two plant types had different hyponastic responses but similar petiole elongation response
251 curves; plants increased their angle with 10 ('10deg') or 15 ('15deg') degrees per hyponastic
252 event. These hyponasty values were chosen based on observed variation in hyponastic values
253 of different Arabidopsis genotypes (data not shown). To analyse if competitiveness depends
254 on the difference in plastic responses between two competing plant types, we simulated
255 mixtures with distinct differences between the plastic response values of the two plant types.

256 In all mixtures a ‘wild-type’ plant type competed with a ‘competitor’ plant type that had a
257 different value for the petiole elongation response (Scenario 5) or the hyponastic response
258 (Scenario 6). The ‘wild-type’ plant type had a petiole elongation response value of 0.054 and
259 a hyponastic response value of 20 degrees. The absolute difference in aboveground biomass
260 of the ‘competitor’ compared to the ‘wild-type’ was a measure for the degree of
261 competitiveness. In addition, over the same range of petiole elongation and hyponastic
262 response values, monoculture stands were simulated. All model simulations were replicated
263 10 times to capture the variation in plant growth created by the stochastic nature of the light
264 model and the random plant rotation angle. The mean values of the middle 16 (monocultures)
265 or 8 (mixtures) plants per genotype per plot were calculated and used as independent values
266 for further analysis.

267

268 **Results**

269 *Variation in the petiole elongation response curve*

270 Arabidopsis genotypes showed a gradually increasing relative petiole elongation with
271 decreasing R:FR (Fig. 2A and S1). Col-0 and *hfr1-5* showed only a marginally different
272 elongation response, where *rot3-1* clearly had a lower relative petiole elongation rate at the
273 same R:FR conditions compared to the other two. However, all the fitted curves had distinct
274 slope values for their response curves: 0.054 for Col-0, 0.073 for *hfr1-5* and 0.028 for *rot3-1*.
275 The normalization procedure resulted in three response curves with distinct slopes that all
276 increased with decreasing R:FR ratio (Fig. 2B).

277 *Test model design (Scenario 1)*

278 During the development of a dense Arabidopsis stand, leaf area index (LAI) increased and
279 R:FR ratio decreased in time (Fig. S2). This decrease in R:FR is primarily created by

280 increased leaf angles through the touching of leaves (de Wit *et al.* 2012). Consequently, the
281 R:FR decrease induced hyponastic and petiole elongation responses that further change plant
282 phenotype. The dynamic change of leaf angle and petiole length of experimentally grown
283 plants in low and high density stands were best simulated by the plant type that included both
284 SAS responses (referred to as ‘Col-0’) (Fig. 3). When the hyponastic responses were set to
285 zero (‘noHypo’), plants did not become hyponastic in high density compared to the ‘Col-0’
286 type. The simulated ‘Col-0’ plants increased the leaf angles slightly later during stand
287 development than the experimentally measured leaf angles. Plants that had no petiole
288 elongation response (‘noPE’) could not grow longer petioles in high density compared to low
289 density, illustrating that the petiole elongation response curve included in ‘Col-0’ plant type is
290 needed to simulate long petiole lengths in high density population stands. Overall, when
291 including the SAS response values based on wild-type Col-0 (‘Col-0’), the model predictions
292 were in good agreement with the experimental aboveground biomass accumulated during
293 stand development in low and high density stands (Fig. 3C).

294 ***Validation of the petiole elongation response curve (Scenario 2)***

295 Validation of the petiole elongation response curve (Scenario 2) revealed that the magnitude
296 of the experimentally observed petiole length difference between *hfr1-5* plants grown in low
297 or high density stands was predicted by the model that used the ‘*hfr1-5*’ response curve,
298 although petiole lengths of leaves with high ranks were underestimated (Fig. 4A). In addition,
299 the model predicted no petiole length difference when using the ‘*rot3-1*’ response curve,
300 which is in agreement with the experimentally observed petiole lengths of *rot3-1* plants
301 grown in low or high density stands (Fig. 4B). In absolute terms the model overestimated
302 petiole lengths due to the higher constitutive growth of the simulated Arabidopsis plants
303 compared to the natural *rot3-1* plants.

304

305 ***Impact of variation in plastic response values on plant performance (Scenarios 3 and 4)***

306 ‘Col-0’ and ‘*hfr1-5*’ plant types had different simulated aboveground biomass after they were
307 grown 46 days together in a mixture but not when simulated separately in monocultures
308 (Scenario 3; Fig. 5A). This difference of plant performance in monocultures compared to
309 mixtures was also observed in the experimental data with Col-0 and *hfr1-5* Arabidopsis
310 genotypes (Fig. 5B). In this scenario, the ‘*hfr1-5*’ type had slightly longer petioles than ‘Col-
311 0’ both in the monocultures and mixture, but the laminae of ‘*hfr1-5*’ absorbed more PAR than
312 ‘Col-0’ only in the mixture (Fig. 6A,B). The higher PAR absorption at the individual lamina
313 level resulted in higher simulated whole-plant PAR absorption for ‘*hfr1-5*’ compared to ‘Col-
314 0’ in the mixture, whereas in the monocultures there was no difference between the two plant
315 types for lamina or whole-plant PAR absorption (Fig. 6C). Thus, in direct mixed competition
316 the plant type with the slightly stronger petiole elongation response (as reflected in a higher
317 slope in the petiole elongation-R:FR curve) had higher performance because it created slightly
318 longer petioles that could put laminae in a better lit part of the canopy.

319 In the monocultures and the mixture of Scenario 4, in which the strength of the
320 hyponastic response was tested, both plant types showed increased leaf angles at the same
321 developmental stage during stand development, but the ‘15deg’ plant type increased its leaf
322 angle faster (Fig. 7A). In the mixture, this faster increase resulted in higher lamina PAR
323 absorption that also resulted in higher whole-plant PAR absorption, compared to the weaker
324 ‘10deg’ plant type (Fig. 7B,C). In the monocultures, the slightly higher leaf angle of the
325 stronger ‘15deg’ type did not result in higher lamina or whole plant PAR absorption
326 compared to the ‘10deg’ type. These model simulations could not be validated due to the lack
327 of appropriate Arabidopsis mutants that have distinct hyponastic responses but overall similar
328 growth forms.

329 **Competitiveness depends on the difference in plastic responses (Scenario 5 and 6)**

330 To determine how subtle variation in plastic responses can affect plant competitiveness, we
331 simulated multiple mixtures in which a ‘wild-type’ competed with a ‘competitor’ with a
332 different value for the petiole elongation response (Fig. 8A, Scenario 5) or with a different
333 value for the hyponastic response (Fig. 8B, Scenario 6). The plant type with the stronger
334 petiole elongation response always had a higher aboveground biomass, but when the
335 difference in response was very large, the difference in aboveground biomass increased only
336 marginally (Fig. 8A). The plant type with the stronger hyponastic response had only a higher
337 aboveground biomass with absolute hyponastic values up to 30 degrees (Fig. 8B). Increasing
338 the difference in plastic responses when the absolute hyponastic response was larger than 40
339 had no effect or a negative effect on competitiveness. When plant types with increased SAS
340 response values grew in monocultures, the aboveground biomass of the plants decreased
341 slightly (Fig. S3), indicating that performance at population level is sub-optimal when plants
342 increase their plastic response strength.

343

344 **Discussion**

345 In this study we showed that small differences in petiole elongation or hyponastic responses
346 to changes in R:FR conditions can strongly affect plant phenotype and competitiveness.
347 Model simulations illustrated that subtle variation in SAS response curves could influence
348 competitiveness for light because a small change in a structural trait (petiole length or leaf
349 angle) affected the interaction between plant phenotype and light environment, which had
350 direct consequences for simulated PAR absorption and subsequently growth (Figs 6 and 7).
351 Part of the model simulations were validated with a plant competition experiment that
352 resulted in similar biomass accumulation in monocultures and mixtures for two *Arabidopsis*
353 genotypes with similar petiole elongation response curves as used in the model simulations.

354 ***Model assumptions***

355 Before going on to the implications of our work we briefly reflect on the model assumptions,
356 such that our findings can be properly interpreted. For model simplicity, only touch and R:FR
357 ratio were the environmental cues that induced the studied SAS responses. It is however
358 known that additional canopy-related light cues, notably decrease in blue and PAR light
359 intensity, are involved in shade avoidance (e.g. Casal, 2012; Pierik & de Wit, 2014) and can
360 strengthen low R:FR responses (de Wit *et al.* 2016). In all scenarios, parameters related to leaf
361 optical properties and photosynthesis were set to be independent of light conditions or leaf
362 developmental stage. A decrease in potential photosynthesis with canopy depth (Anten *et al.*
363 1995) was not considered, as we assumed that such acclimations of photosynthetic parameters
364 would be negligible in relatively young and quickly developing *Arabidopsis* leaves compared
365 to the role of phenotypic change due to the SAS responses studied. In addition, we assumed
366 that chloroplasts in the petioles contributed to PAR absorption and photosynthesis, in contrast
367 to other light competition models which make a clear distinction between height growth
368 through investments in stems and branches that were considered to not contribute directly to
369 CO₂ fixation and light harvesting organs (leaves) that do fix carbon (Anten 2005; Dybzinski
370 *et al.* 2011). We checked the photosynthetic contribution of petioles, and concluded that even
371 without petiole photosynthesis plants with a slightly different plastic response curve have
372 different performances in mixture but equal performances in monocultures (Fig. S4).

373 Regarding plasticity costs, only two direct consequences of phenotypic changes were
374 considered: 1) substrates invested in petiole length were consequently not available for lamina
375 growth and 2) inclined leaf angles could potentially absorb less light than leaves with a
376 horizontal position. Other indirect costs, such as vulnerability of strongly hyponastic leaves
377 and long petioles to mechanical damage or hydraulic limitations, were not taken into account.
378 Overall, the model predicted the observed relative differences in biomass production between

379 genotypes with different petiole elongation responses well qualitatively (Fig. 5), suggesting
380 that costs and benefits of the petiole elongation response were reasonably well captured in the
381 current model regarding Arabidopsis responses. Modelling the induction of both SAS
382 responses was based on R:FR perception at the lamina (Kozuka *et al.* 2010). However, details
383 on site of perception versus site of response may differ between species, organs and responses
384 (Casal and Smith 1988a; b; Maddonni *et al.* 2002). The kind of organ-level plant modelling
385 presented in this paper makes it possible to explore the environmental context of R:FR
386 distributions and functional implications of localized signalling.

387

388 *Tragedy of the commons*

389 Tragedy of the commons in light competition assumes that plants investing relatively more in
390 light harvesting compared to neighbour plants are the most successful competitors, but
391 because of the costs associated with this investment, such plants will perform less when
392 growing as monocultures (Falster and Westoby 2003; McNickle and Dybzinski 2013). This
393 conflict between individual-based selection and population performance has been proposed to
394 have major consequences for vegetation functioning and knowledge of this phenomenon may
395 provide input for crop management and breeding systems (Anten and Vermeulen 2016). Our
396 experimental results showed that the plant type with the stronger petiole response and thus a
397 higher petiole investment, outcompeted the individual with the weaker response in the
398 mixtures but had equal performance in monoculture (Fig. 5). This is in contrast to (mostly
399 theoretical) studies that evaluate tragedy of the commons in competition for light. Additional
400 model simulations also illustrated that although the competitiveness increased with stronger
401 plastic responses, the population-level performance decreased only marginally (Fig. 8 and
402 Fig. S3). These results suggest that selection on shade avoidance responses that favour light

403 competition does not necessarily result in strong decrease of population-level performance.
404 The extent to which these results can be extrapolated to other plant types such as forest trees
405 or crops that often have different growth forms and associated SAS responses than
406 Arabidopsis, still needs to be explored. However, if the pattern that small difference in SAS
407 responses affect competitive ability with limited or no impact on monoculture performance
408 extends to crops, it could provide useful breeding targets.

409 *Promising avenues*

410 In this study we described plasticity as trait responses to a range of changing environmental
411 conditions during the lifetime of the individual plant. Differences in degree of plasticity were
412 described by different shapes of the response curves (Fig. 2), and these differences in
413 response curves allowed quantification of how variation in trait responses would affect plant
414 competitiveness. The sensitivity of plant competitiveness to small differences in plastic
415 responses due to mutations (i.e. use of Arabidopsis mutants like *hfr1-5* and *rot3-1*) suggest
416 that selection on finely tuned signal transduction pathways is likely. Quantifying more
417 contributors to the signal transduction pathway that influence plastic responses could be a
418 next step in breeding programs that search for optimal plastic genotypes to deal with changing
419 environments.

420 A next step with this model approach could be to analyse how natural selection could
421 have acted on plastic responses in plants. Analysing how natural selection could have acted
422 on trait values has often been approached by using game theoretical models (Falster &
423 Westoby 2003; McNickle & Dybzinski 2013). However, analysing selection for plastic
424 responses is challenging because a model system needs to consider i) the possibility of a
425 single genotype to express multiple phenotypes, ii) the dynamic interaction between
426 phenotypic changes and changes in environmental conditions and iii) variation in plasticity
427 that is incorporated by a single parameter. The model system presented here complies with

428 these three requirements, because genotypes varied in their plastic responses due to different
429 values of a single parameter. In that manner it extends on previous game theoretical studies
430 (e.g. Dybzinski *et al.* 2013; Vermeulen 2015) by explicitly considering dynamic
431 environmental trait responses rather than environment-dependent trait values. We thus argue
432 that our approach provides a novel way to analyse natural selection for plasticity (Bongers *et*
433 *al.*, 2014).

434

435 **Conclusions**

436 In this paper we illustrated that substantial difference in competitiveness may arise between
437 phenotypes with slightly different SAS response levels, due to the amplification of plant
438 growth differences by small changes in plant phenotype. These findings indicate that selection
439 pressure could have played a role in fine-tuning the sensitive shade avoidance responses
440 found in plants.

441

442 **Supplementary Information**

443 **Material and Methods:** Detailed information of model description.

444 **Video:** Visualization of Arabidopsis plants growing in low and high density vegetation stand,
445 simulated by the functional-structural plant model.

446 **Table S1:** Overview of all used parameters in the FSP model of Arabidopsis, with parameter
447 description, unit, value and source of parameter value.

448 **Figure S1:** Experimentally obtained petiole elongation response curves from five Arabidopsis
449 genotypes.

450 **Figure S2:** Dynamically changing R:FR and Lamina Area Index (LAI) during the
451 development of a high density Arabidopsis stand (1600 plants m⁻²)

452 **Figure S3: Simulated aboveground biomass of an individual plant related to the plastic**
453 **response value of the plants in the monoculture**

454 **Figure S4: Simulated total aboveground biomass of an individual plant growing in**
455 **monoculture or mixture.**

456

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463 **Authors' Contributions**

464 All authors designed the research; FJB performed experiments, model simulations and data
465 analysis; All authors interpreted the data; FJB led the writing of the manuscript. All authors
466 contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

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570

571

572 **Figure 1 Overview of the research design, in which three independent experiments**
573 **(bordered in green) are combined with functional-structural plant (FSP) modelling**
574 **(bordered in red) to address three questions (bordered in black).** Data of organ growth
575 and detailed plastic responses of Arabidopsis were used to develop an FSP model that
576 included two plastic responses of the shade avoidance syndrome (SAS); hyponasty and
577 petiole elongation. The model design was tested by comparing phenotypic and performance
578 data from plant experiment and model simulation (Scenario 1; bordered in grey). Additional
579 model simulations and plant experiments were performed to validate model output (Scenario
580 2 & 3) and answer the three research questions (Scenario 2 – 6). See **Supplementary Video**
581 for a visualisation of Arabidopsis plants growing in high and low population density.

582

583 **Figure 2 Petiole elongation response curves from three Arabidopsis genotypes.** (A)
584 Measured relative petiole elongation at different R:FR ratios for Col-0 (black - circle), *hfr1-5*
585 (red-square) and *rot3-1* (blue-triangle) with genotype specific fitted curves (equation 1).
586 Experimental data represents mean \pm SD (n=12). (B) Petiole elongation response curves for
587 the corresponding Arabidopsis genotypes that were used in the model..

588

589

590 **Figure 3 Experimentally and simulated obtained data of plant phenotype and**
591 **performance.** (A) Leaf angle change of plant growing in a high-density stand obtained from
592 experimental data (square) and simulated for plant types that did ('Col-0' - red line) or did not
593 ('NoHypo' - black line) exhibit hyponastic responses. (B) Petiole length change of plants
594 growing in low (open/dotted) and high (solid) density stands, from experimental data
595 (symbols) and simulated for plant types that did not show petiole elongation ('noPE' - black
596 line) or did show petiole elongation ('Col-0' - red line). Petiole rank number 12 was used as
597 it was representative for other leaf ranks. (C) Total aboveground biomass of a plant growing
598 in low (open/dotted) and high (solid) density stands, from experimental data (symbols) and
599 simulated by the default plant type 'Col-0' (lines) that included both hyponastic and petiole
600 elongation responses. Experimental data represent mean \pm SD with n=10 for low and n=18 for
601 high density). Simulated data represents mean (n=10).

602

603 **Figure 4 Petiole lengths of all leaf ranks per plant after 46 days of growth of two**
604 **Arabidopsis genotypes.** (A) Petiole lengths of *hfr1-5* and (B) *rot3-1* plants from
605 experimental data (symbols) or simulated by the model (lines) in low (dotted blue) and high
606 (solid red) population density stands. Experimental data represent mean \pm SD (with n=10 for
607 low and n=18 for high density). Simulated data represents mean (n=10).

608

609 **Figure 5 Total aboveground biomass of an individual Arabidopsis plant grown in a**
610 **monoculture or mixture for 46 days.** Plant biomass simulated by the model (A, Scenario 3)
611 or obtained from experimental data (B). Simulated plant types ‘Col-0’ (dotted) and ‘*hfr1-5*’
612 (solid) had 0.054 and 0.073 or their response curves, respectively. Simulated data represents
613 mean \pm SD (n=10). Experimental data represent mean \pm SD (n=5) and ns; not significant and
614 *; P<0.05.

615

616 **Figure 6 Simulated leaf and plant characteristics during the development of Arabidopsis**
617 **monocultures (black) or mixtures (red) existing of two genotypes with distinct petiole**
618 **elongation response curves (Scenario 3).** ‘*hfr1-5*’ type (solid line) had a stronger petiole
619 elongation response curve than ‘Col-0’ type (dotted line), shown in Fig. 2b. (A) Petiole
620 length, (B) lamina absorbed PAR and (C) whole plant absorbed PAR during stand
621 development. Leaf rank number 12 was used to visualise petiole length and lamina PAR
622 absorption and was representative for other leaf ranks.

623

624 **Figure 7 Simulated leaf specific and whole plant characteristics during the development**
625 **of Arabidopsis monocultures (black) or mixtures (red) existing of two genotypes with**
626 **distinct hyponastic responses (Scenario 4).** The ‘15deg’ plant type (solid line) had a
627 stronger hyponastic response than the ‘10deg’ plant type (dotted line). (A) Leaf angle, (B)
628 lamina absorbed PAR and (C) whole plant absorbed PAR during stand development. Leaf
629 rank number 12 was used to visualise petiole length and lamina PAR absorption and was
630 representative for other leaf ranks.

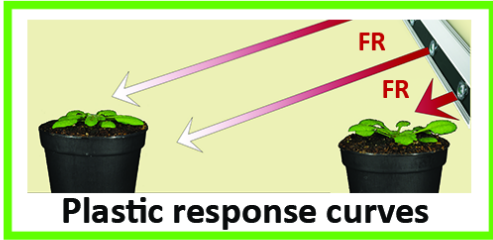
631 **Figure 8 Simulated performance difference related to the difference in plastic response**
632 **values of ‘wild-type’ and ‘competitor’ plant types in high density mixtures (Scenario 6).**
633 Performance difference was calculated by the aboveground biomass of the ‘competitor’ minus
634 the aboveground biomass of the ‘wild-type’ plant type. Performance difference related to the
635 difference in (A) petiole elongation response curve value (Scenario 5) or (B) hyponastic
636 response value. Also expressed the absolute petiole elongation and hyponastic response
637 values for the two plant types. Data represents mean \pm SD (n=10).

638

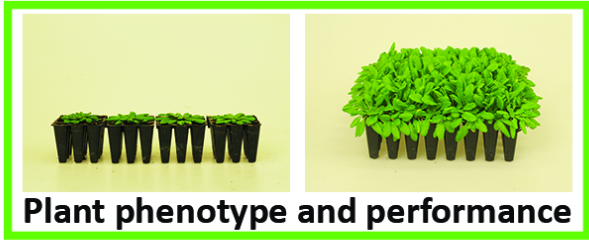
639



Organ-level growth



Plastic response curves



Plant phenotype and performance

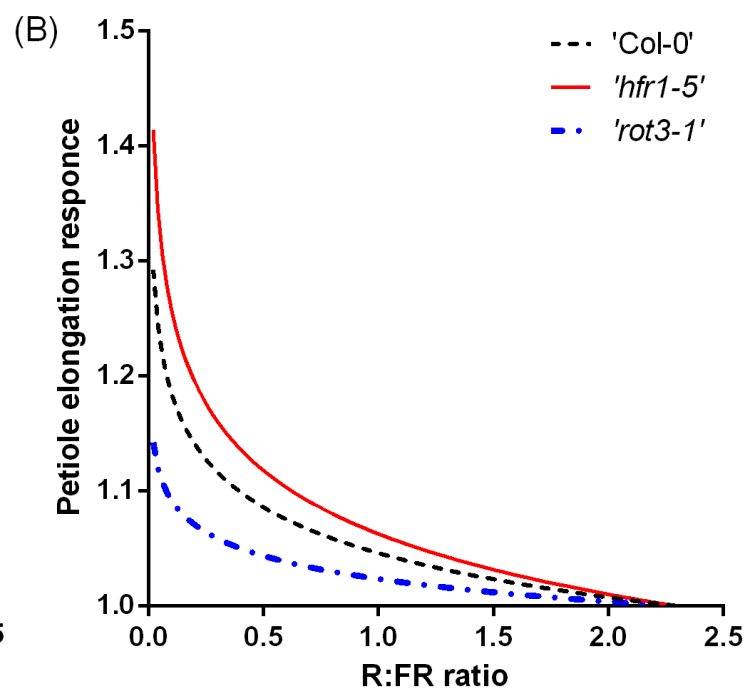
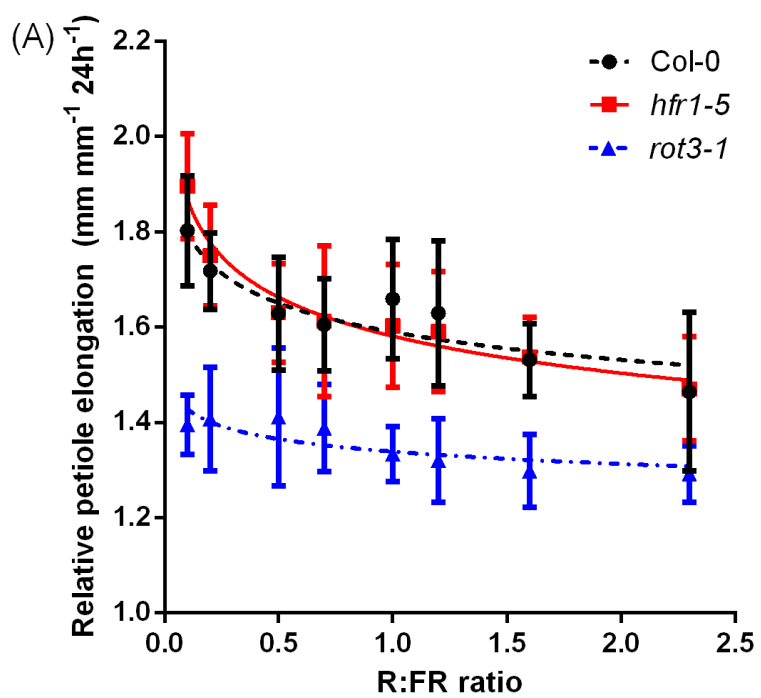
Test model design

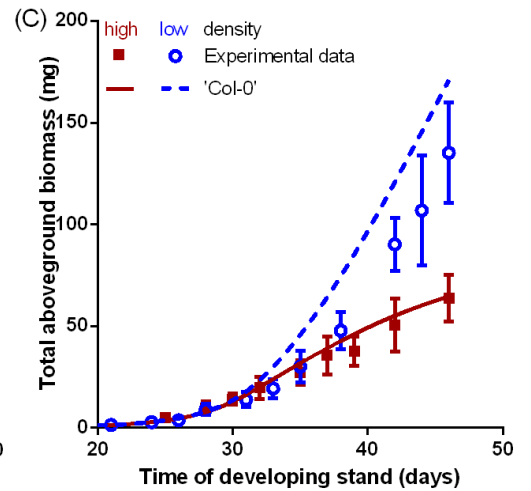
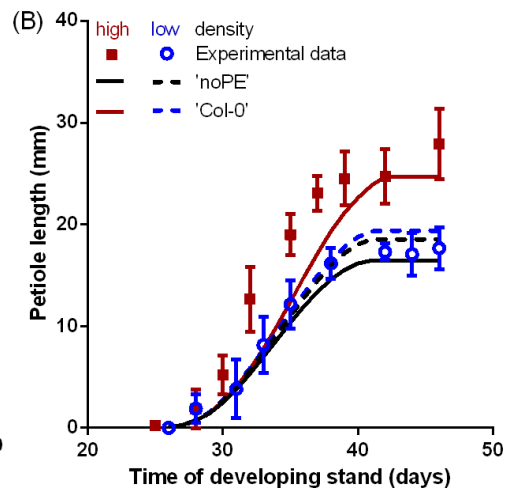
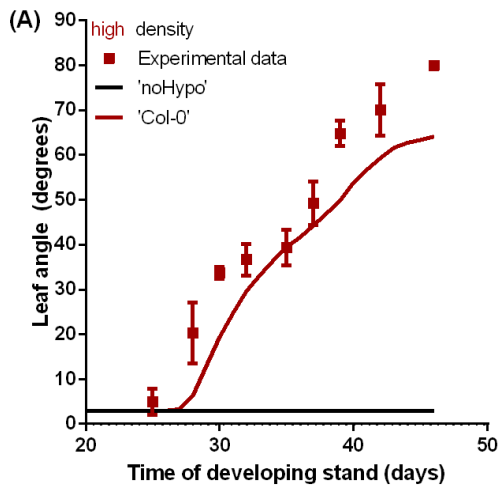


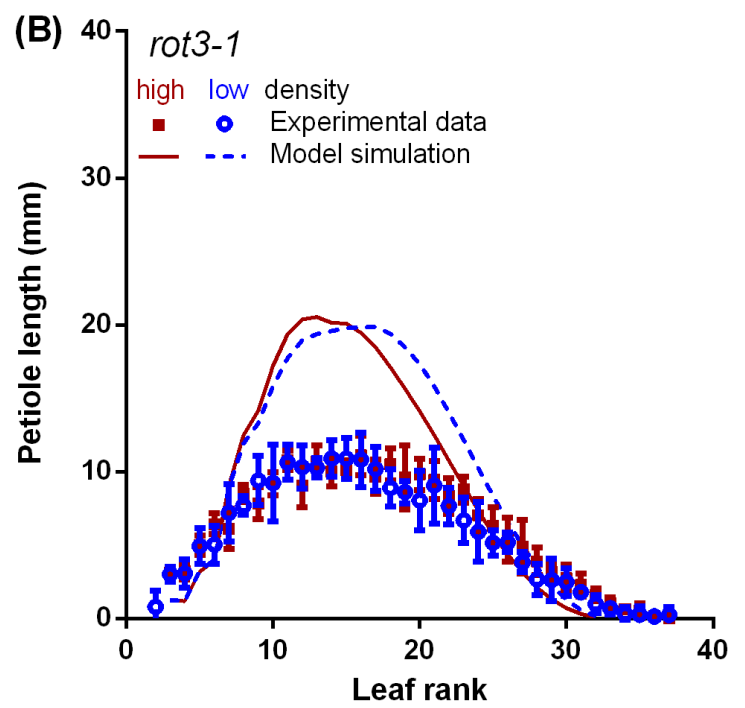
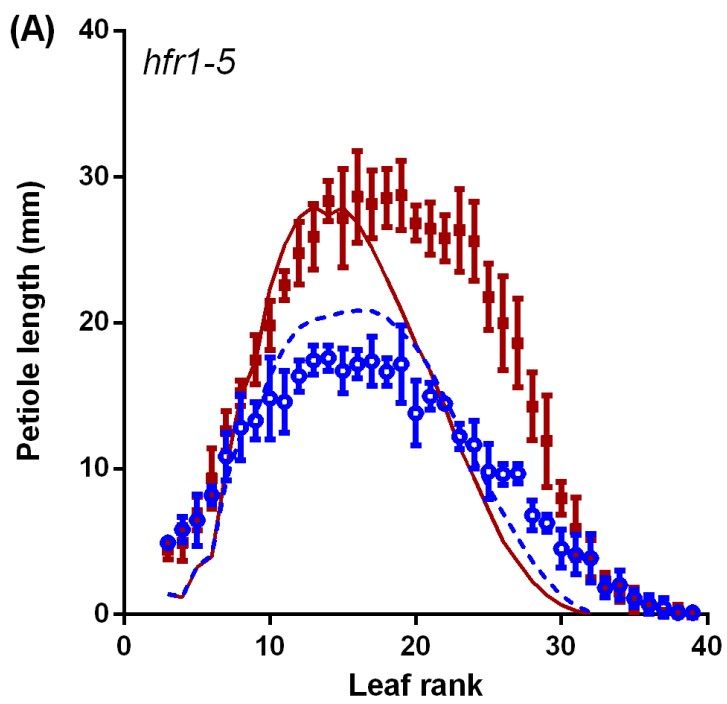
Arabidopsis FSP model + SAS responses

Does variation in plastic response curves result in petiole length differences at low and high density?

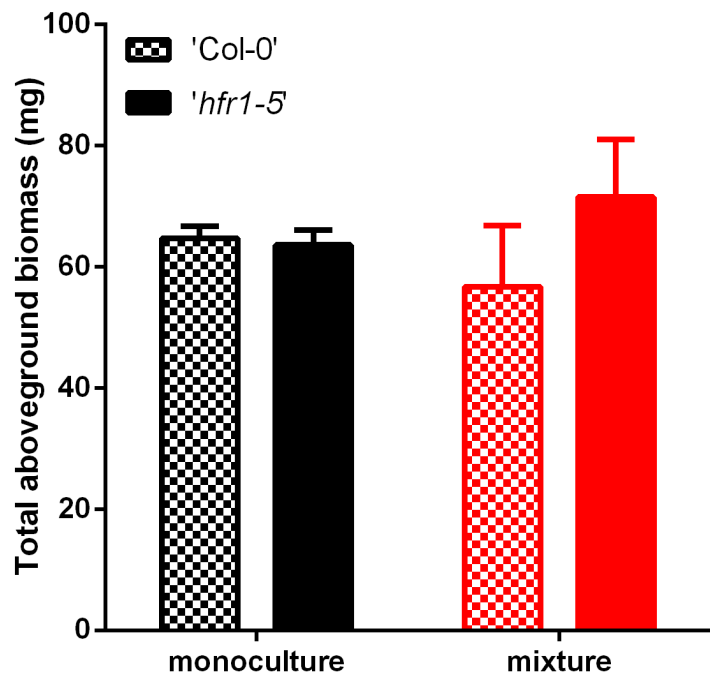
What is the impact of variation in plastic response curves on plant performance at high density? + Does increasing the degree of the plastic response curve result in tragedy of the commons?



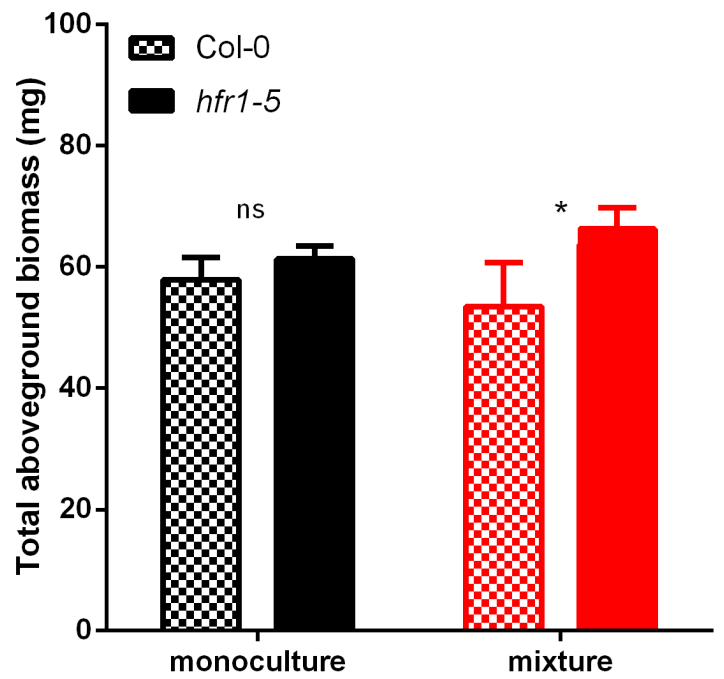


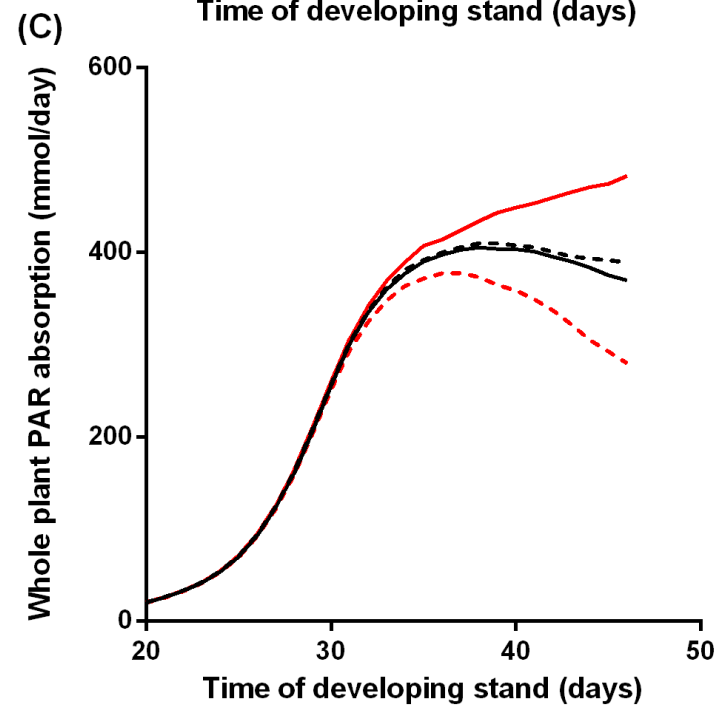
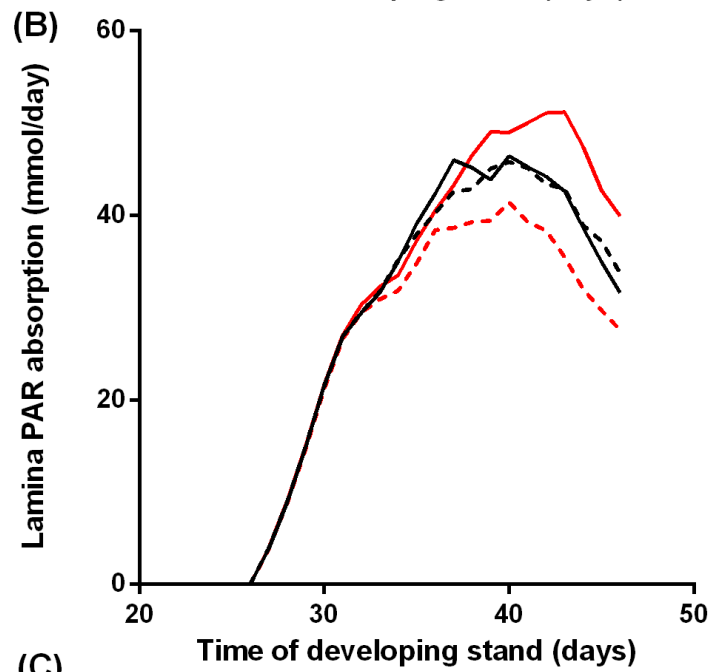
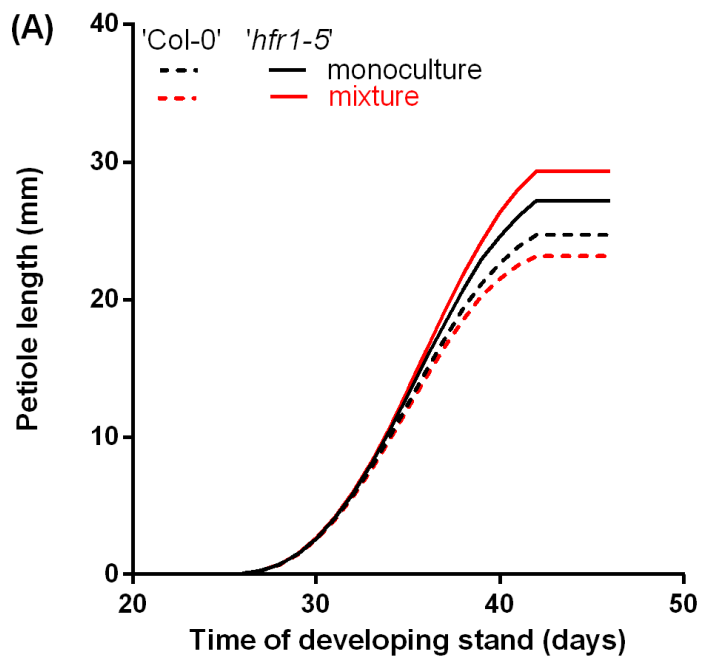


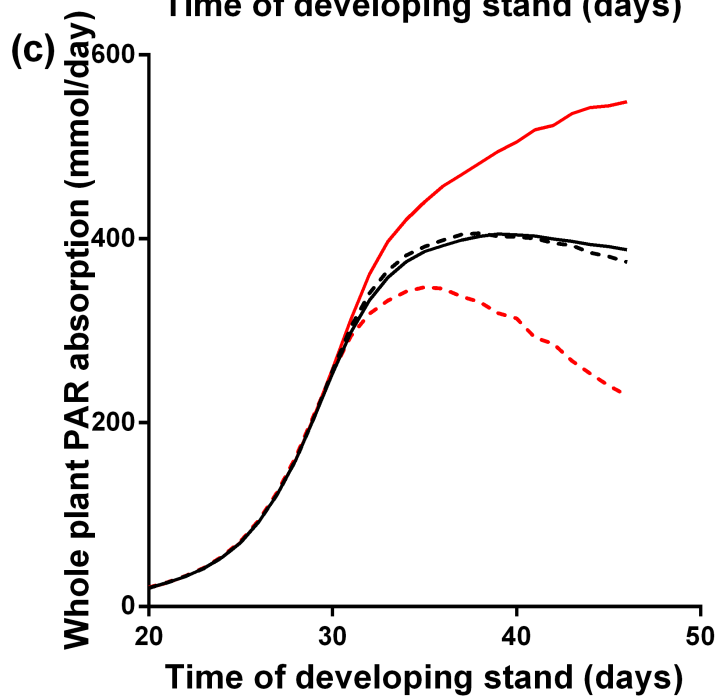
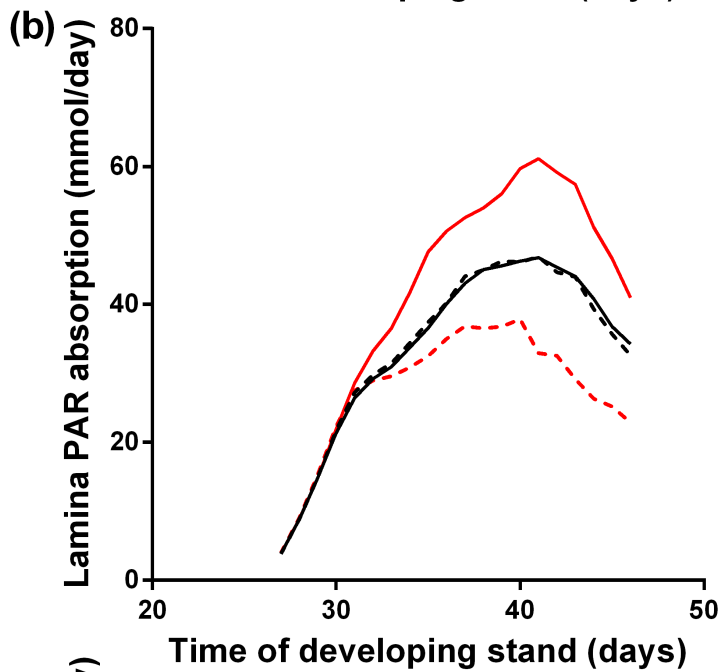
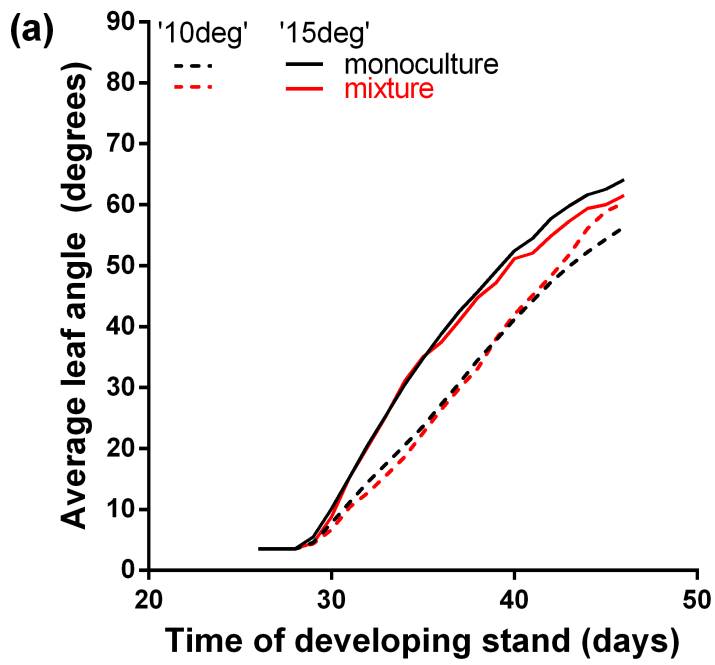
(A) Model simulation

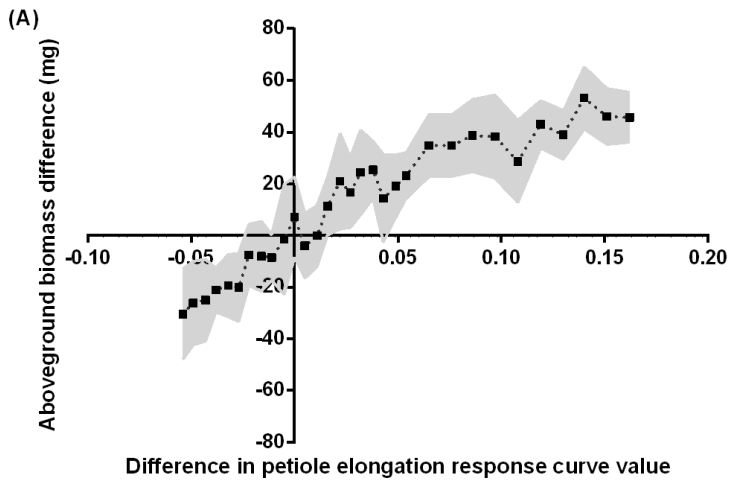


(B) Experimental data

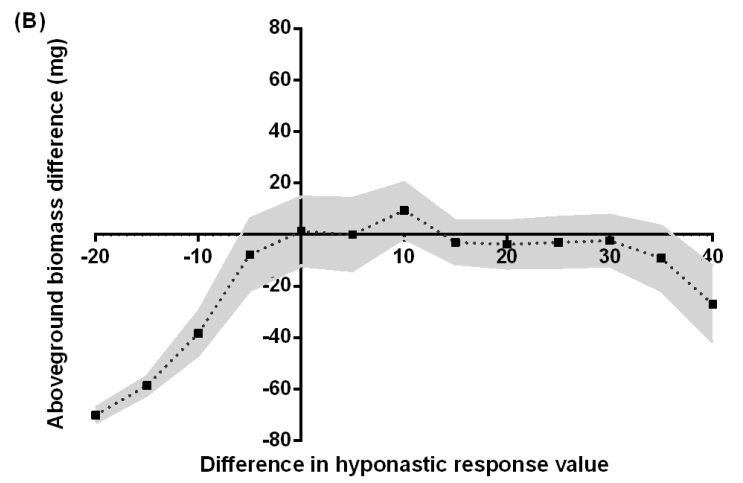








'wild-type'	0.054	0.054	0.054	0.054	0.054	0.054
'competitor'	0.00	0.054	0.108	0.162	0.216	0.270
	Absolute petiole elongation response curve values					



20	20	20	20	20	20	20
0	10	20	30	40	50	60
Absolute hyponastic response values						