#### **URBAN EVOLUTION**

# Global urban environmental change drives adaptation in white clover

James S. Santangelo<sup>1,2</sup>, Rob W. Ness<sup>1,2</sup>, Beata Cohan<sup>1</sup>, Connor R. Fitzpatrick<sup>3</sup>, Simon G. Innes<sup>4,1</sup>, Sophie Koch<sup>1</sup>, Lindsay S. Miles<sup>1,2</sup>, Samreen Munim<sup>5,1</sup>, Pedro R. Peres-Neto<sup>6</sup>, Cindy Prashad<sup>1</sup>, Alex T. Tong<sup>1</sup>, Windsor E. Aguirre<sup>7</sup>, Philips O. Akinwole<sup>8</sup>, Marina Alberti<sup>9</sup>, Jackie Álvarez<sup>10</sup>, Jill T. Anderson<sup>11</sup>, Joseph J. Anderson<sup>12</sup>, Yoshino Ando<sup>13</sup>, Nigel R. Andrew<sup>14</sup>, Fabio Angeoletto<sup>15</sup>, Daniel N. Anstett<sup>16</sup>, Julia Anstett<sup>17,18</sup>, Felipe Aoki-Gonçalves<sup>19</sup>, A. Z. Andis Arietta<sup>20</sup>, Mary T. K. Arroyo<sup>21,22</sup>, Emily J. Austen<sup>23</sup>, Fernanda Baena-Díaz<sup>24</sup>, Cory A. Barker<sup>25</sup>, Howard A. Baylis<sup>26</sup>, Julia M. Beliz<sup>27,28</sup>, Alfonso Benitez-Mora<sup>29</sup>, David Bickford<sup>30</sup>, Gabriela Biedebach<sup>30</sup>, Gwylim S. Blackburn<sup>31</sup>, Mannfred M. A. Boehm<sup>16</sup>, Stephen P. Bonser<sup>32</sup>, Dries Bonte<sup>33</sup>, Jesse R. Bragger<sup>34</sup>, Cristina Branquinho<sup>35</sup>, Kristien I. Brans<sup>36</sup>, Jorge C. Bresciano<sup>37</sup>, Peta D. Brom<sup>38</sup>, Anna Bucharova<sup>39</sup>, Briana Burt<sup>40</sup>, James F. Cahill<sup>41</sup>, Katelyn D. Campbell<sup>25</sup>, Elizabeth J. Carlen<sup>42</sup>, Diego Carmona<sup>43</sup>, Maria Clara Castellanos<sup>44</sup>, Giada Centenaro<sup>45</sup>, Izan Chalen<sup>10,46</sup>, Jaime A. Chaves<sup>10,47</sup>, Mariana Chávez-Pesqueira<sup>48</sup>, Xiao-Yong Chen<sup>49,50</sup>, Angela M. Chilton<sup>51</sup>, Kristina M. Chomiak<sup>40</sup>, Diego F. Cisneros-Heredia<sup>10,46</sup>, Ibrahim K. Cisse<sup>40</sup>, Aimée T. Classen<sup>52</sup>, Mattheau S. 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LaMontagne<sup>7,119</sup>, Christian Lampei<sup>39</sup>, Carlos Lara<sup>120</sup>, Erica L. Larson<sup>121</sup>, Adrián Lázaro-Lobo<sup>122</sup>, Jennifer H. Le<sup>123</sup>, Deleon S. Leandro<sup>124</sup>, Christopher Lee<sup>99</sup>, Yunting Lei<sup>125</sup>, Carolina A. León<sup>29</sup>, Manuel E. Lequerica Tamara<sup>98</sup>, Danica C. Levesque<sup>126</sup>, Wan-Jin Liao<sup>127</sup>, Megan Ljubotina<sup>41</sup>, Hannah Locke<sup>57</sup>, Martin T. Lockett<sup>128</sup>, Tiffany C. Longo<sup>34</sup>, Jeremy T. Lundholm<sup>55</sup>, Thomas MacGillavry<sup>68</sup>, Christopher R. Mackin<sup>44</sup>, Alex R. Mahmoud<sup>27</sup>, Isaac A. Manju<sup>101</sup>, Janine Mariën<sup>70</sup>, D. Nayeli Martínez<sup>63,129</sup>, Marina Martínez-Bartolomé<sup>130,122</sup>, Emily K. Meineke<sup>131</sup>, Wendy Mendoza-Arroyo<sup>116</sup>, Thomas J. S. Merritt<sup>126</sup>, Lila Elizabeth L. Merritt<sup>126</sup>, Giuditta Migiani<sup>68</sup>, Emily S. 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Scheepens<sup>160,117</sup>, Menno Schilthuizen<sup>161</sup>, Adam C. Schneider<sup>69,1</sup>, Tiffany Scholier<sup>149,162</sup>, Jared L. Scott<sup>163</sup>, Summer A. Shaheed<sup>34</sup>, Richard P. Shefferson<sup>164</sup>, Caralee A. Shepard<sup>69</sup>, Jacqui A. Shykoff<sup>165</sup>, Georgianna Silveira<sup>166</sup>, Alexis D. Smith<sup>111</sup>, Lizet Solis-Gabriel<sup>63</sup>, Antonella Soro<sup>167</sup>, Katie V. Spellman<sup>168,144</sup>, Kaitlin Stack Whitney<sup>169</sup>, Indra Starke-Ottich<sup>145</sup>, Jörg G. Stephan<sup>170,149</sup>, Jessica D. Stephens<sup>171</sup>, Justyna Szulc<sup>172</sup>, Marta Szulkin<sup>172</sup>, Ayco J. M. Tack<sup>45</sup>, Ítalo Tamburrino<sup>22</sup>, Tayler D. Tate<sup>101</sup>, Emmanuel Tergemina<sup>79</sup>, Panagiotis Theodorou<sup>167</sup>, Ken A. Thompson<sup>59,173</sup>, Caragh G. Threlfall<sup>98</sup>, Robin M. 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Urbanization transforms environments in ways that alter biological evolution. We examined whether urban environmental change drives parallel evolution by sampling 110,019 white clover plants from 6169 populations in 160 cities globally. Plants were assayed for a Mendelian antiherbivore defense that also affects tolerance to abiotic stressors. Urban-rural gradients were associated with the evolution of clines in defense in 47% of cities throughout the world. Variation in the strength of clines was explained by environmental changes in drought stress and vegetation cover that varied among cities. Sequencing 2074 genomes from 26 cities revealed that the evolution of urban-rural clines was best explained by adaptive evolution, but the degree of parallel adaptation varied among cities. Our results demonstrate that urbanization leads to adaptation at a global scale.

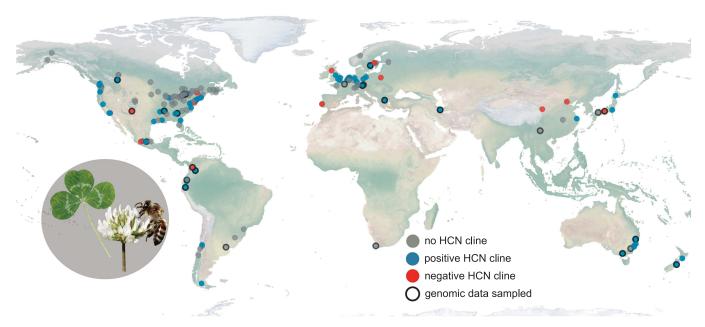
rbanization is a driver of both environmental and evolutionary change. Towns and cities are rapidly expanding throughout the world to accommodate human population growth. These urban areas represent novel ecosystems, in which urban development alters multiple environmental factors (1). Recent research

shows that urban environmental change can influence four evolutionary processes: mutation, genetic drift, gene flow, and adaptation due to natural selection (2, 3). Despite numerous examples of how urbanization affects genetic drift and gene flow (4, 5), the effects of urbanization on adaptive evolution have received less attention (6-8). Adaptation to

urban environments can affect species' conservation (9), the spread of pests and disease (2), and eco-evolutionary feedbacks (10), as well as urban planning and human society (11). However, the few examples of adaptation to urban environments focus on just one or a small number of cities in a single region (2). It is therefore unclear whether populations can adapt to urban habitats in similar ways across cities throughout the world.

Parallel adaptive evolution is most likely when populations experience similar environmental selective pressures on the same genes or phenotypes (12, 13). For urbanization to drive parallel evolution, urban areas must converge in environmental features that affect

\*Corresponding author. Email: marc.johnson@utoronto.ca †Affiliations are listed at the end of this paper.



**Fig. 1. Cities sampled for urban environmental and evolutionary change.** Blue dots indicate cities with positive clines for hydrogen cyanide (HCN) production along urban-rural gradients (HCN<sub>urban</sub> < HCN<sub>rural</sub>). Red dots show negative clines (HCN<sub>urban</sub> > HCN<sub>rural</sub>). Gray dots indicate cities without a cline. Plants from the 26 cities outlined in black underwent whole-genome sequencing. Inset: White clover and a honey bee.

an organism's fitness. Urbanization can lead to similar environmental changes across cities (14), but whether urban environmental convergence causes parallel evolution has never been examined at a global scale.

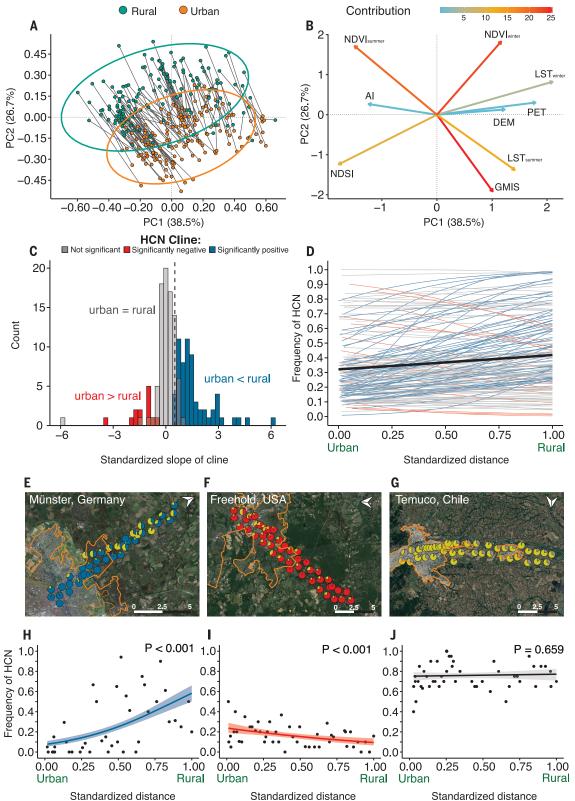
Here we test how global urbanization affects environmental change and evolution in a cosmopolitan plant species, white clover (Trifolium repens L., Fabaceae). White clover populations are polymorphic for the production of hydrogen cyanide (HCN), an antiherbivore chemical defense controlled by two genes (15). At least one functional allele at each of two unlinked loci (Ac and Li) is required to produce HCN following tissue damage, whereas plants that are homozygous for gene deletions (ac and li alleles) at either locus lack HCN (16, 17). Notably, these deletions occur throughout the world, resulting in standing genetic variation on which selection can act (18). Previous work showed that herbivores select for the production of HCN, and abiotic stressors (e.g., freezing and drought) influence the costs and benefits of the metabolic components underlying the defense (19, 20). Variation in these environmental factors is credited with driving the evolution of clines in HCN production at continental and regional scales (21, 22), including in response to urban environments (23-25). Thus, HCN production could evolve in response to urbanization if there are urban-rural gradients in herbivory, winter temperature, or drought.

We examined global urban environmental and evolutionary change across the diverse climates that white clover inhabits. To this end, we created the Global Urban Evolution Project to test for parallel evolution and urban adaptation in natural populations across white clover's worldwide range. The present study builds on our previous work on white clover (23-25) by sampling cities globally across diverse climates in both the native (Europe and western Asia) and introduced ranges, by quantifying many environmental factors from each population and by integrating evolutionary genomic analyses using whole-genome sequence data. This project spanned 160 cities across 26 countries (Fig. 1) (15) in white clover's native and introduced ranges (Fig. 1 and fig. S1). From these cities, we phenotyped 110,019 plants from 6169 sampling sites (hereafter "populations," table S1). Populations within each city were sampled along an urban-rural transect, with half of each transect in urban and suburban areas (i.e., areas with high building density) and the other half in rural areas (Fig. 2, E to G) (15).

Across 160 cities, we tested whether urban white clover habitats converged to be more similar among cities and less variable within cities in their environmental characteristics compared to rural habitats (15). Urban and rural habitats significantly diverged (MANOVA Ho:  $urban_{mean} = rural_{mean}, P_{bootstrapped} < 0.01,$ Fig. 2A) along two principal-component axes that accounted for 65% of the variation in the multivariate environments between the two habitats across cities. Urban locations consistently had more impervious surface, higher summer temperatures, and less vegetation than rural populations (Fig. 2B and fig. S2). The remaining environmental variables changed along urban-rural gradients in many cities, but these changes were less consistent in direction among cities (fig. S2 and table S2). Although urban and rural environments diverged on average, urban-rural changes in the environment were not always parallel (MANOVA H<sub>0</sub>: parallel urban-rural changes among cities,  $P_{\text{bootstrapped}}$  < 0.01, Fig. 2A). Additionally, environmental variance among urban populations within a city was lower than the environmental variance among rural populations ( $F_{9,1570} = 31.76$ , P < 0.001, fig. S3). Together these results show that on average, urbanization leads to similar and less-variable environmental conditions in some factors (e.g., impervious surface, summer temperature, summer vegetation) but not in others (e.g., potential evapotranspiration, snow cover, winter vegetation), which could lead to variation in the degree of parallel evolution.

We next tested whether convergent urban environmental change causes parallel evolution in an ecologically important trait of white clover. We examined evolution in response to urbanization by testing for a relationship between HCN production and distance to the urban center (i.e., an "HCN cline"), as well as other metrics of urbanization (15). Our model explained 28% of the variation in the frequency of HCN production within populations (table S3). Across 160 cities, distance from the city center was positively related to the frequency of HCN-producing plants (distance:  $\chi_{df=1}^2 = 12.35, P < 0.001$ ). The probability that a plant produced HCN increased by 44% on average from the center of an urban area to the furthest rural population (Fig. 2C, D). However, cities varied in the strength and direction

Fig. 2. Urban environmental and evolutionary change across cities. (A) Principal component analysis showing environmental differences between urban (orange dots) and rural (green dots) habitats; ovals represent 95% confidence interval (CI). Lines connect urban and rural habitats from the same city. (B) The eigenvectors for environmental variables, colored according to their contribution to PC2. The environmental variables included vegetation in winter (NDVI<sub>winter</sub>) and summer (NDVI<sub>summer</sub>), snow accumulation (NDSI), surface temperature in winter (LST<sub>winter</sub>) and summer (LST<sub>summer</sub>), aridity index (AI), potential evapotranspiration (PET), impervious surface (GMIS), and elevation (DEM). (C) Histogram of the slopes from binomial regressions of the relationship between HCN production within populations and distance from the city center. Distance was standardized to vary between 0 (urban center) and 1 (furthest rural population) in each city, so that cities that varied in size were compared on the same scale. The dashed vertical line corresponds to the mean slope across cities, and overlap between bars showing cities with significant (blue and red) and nonsignificant clines (grey) is shown as muted colors. (**D**) The relationship between HCN production within populations and distance for each city; colors correspond to those in (C). The black line shows the positive main effect of distance across cities (P < 0.001). (**E** to **G**) Examples of transects, with the orange lines showing the urban boundary, and pie charts (jittered to reduce overlap) showing the propor-



tion of HCN+ plants colored in yellow. (H to J) Frequency of HCN production versus distance for the cities shown in (E) to (G). The line shows the regression line ± 95% CI.

of clines (distance  $\times$  city interaction:  $\chi^2_{\rm df=1}$ = 1001, P < 0.001; Fig. 2, C and D). Overall, 47% of cities exhibited a significant (P < 0.05) cline (15), with 39% of cities (62 of 160) showing a

positive cline in which HCN production was less common in urban than rural populations, and 8% of cities (13 of 160) had negative clines (Fig. 2 and table S4). Positive and negative

clines occurred in both the native and introduced ranges, with the former being more prevalent among continents and across diverse climates (Fig. 1). Given the prevalence of HCN clines at a global scale, we sought to identify the evolutionary processes driving variation in the strength and direction of clines. In addition to natural selection, nonadaptive evolution can lead to the evolution of clines (26). Notably, the epistatic genetic architecture of HCN

production makes the loss of the trait more likely with increased genetic drift (26). Therefore, the prevalence of positive clines could reflect stronger drift in urban populations (4, 5). To examine whether urban populations exhibited stronger drift, we estimated pairwise nucleotide diversity ( $\pi$ ) of putatively neutral sites

В Α Nucleotide diversity ( $\pi$ ) P = 0.62P = 0.87Slope of HCN cline 3 0.01905 2 0.01900 0.01895 0.01890 ~0.0005 0.0015,0010 Rural Urban  $\pi_{\text{urban}}$ – $\pi_{\text{rural}}$ Habitat C D 10 P = 0.24Slope of HCN cline P = 0.25Number of cities 8 6 4 0.01-0.02 0.02.0.03 F<sub>ST</sub> 0-0.01 →0.<del>03</del> 0.01 0.02 0.03 0.04  $F_{ST}$ Ε F % Cities *Ac/Li* F<sub>5T</sub> > F<sub>5T neutral</sub> % 0.0 % 2.0 % 0.0 0.0 % 0.0 100 P = 0.067P = 0.007% Cities HCN<sub>diff</sub> > Neutral<sub>diff</sub> 90 80 70 60 50 40 30 20 10 Absent Present Absent Present **HCN Cline HCN Cline HCN Cline:** Not significant Significantly negative Significantly positive

Fig. 3. Genetic diversity and differentiation within and between urban and rural habitats. (A) Mean ( $\pm$  SE) pairwise nucleotide diversity ( $\pi$ ) for urban (orange) and rural (green) plants across cities. (B) The relationship between the slope of HCN clines versus the difference in nucleotide diversity between habitats, where each point is a city. (C) Histogram showing the distribution of genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}$ ) between urban and rural habitats for each city, colored with respect to the significance of HCN clines. (D) Relationship between the absolute value of the slope of HCN clines versus  $F_{ST}$ . (E) Percentage of cities in which differentiation between urban and rural habitats at Ac or Li exceeds neutral expectation in cities with or without significant HCN clines (15). (F) Percentage of cities with differentiation in HCN production between urban and rural habitats that exceeds neutral expectation in cities with or without significant HCN clines (15). P values in (E) and (F) correspond to  $\chi^2$  test for independence.

using whole-genome sequence data from ~80 individuals per city, with samples equally split between urban and rural habitats across 26 cities (N=2,074) (15). These cities were selected to capture variation in the strength and direction of clines, geography, and climate (Fig. 1) (15).

Genetic diversity was not consistently different between urban and rural habitats and did not explain variation in the slope of HCN clines along urban-rural gradients. On average, urban and rural habitats did not differ in neutral genetic diversity ( $F_{1, 25} = 0.028$ , P = 0.87; Fig. 3A). Furthermore, the difference in  $\pi$  between urban and rural habitats within a city was not strongly related to the slope of HCN clines ( $F_{1, 24} = 0.25$ , P = 0.62; Fig. 3B and fig. S4), and urban-rural differences in genetic diversity were similar between cities with and without clines ( $F_{1, 24} = 0.017$ , P = 0.90).

Variation in the strength of genetic differentiation and gene flow between urban and rural habitats can influence the ability of populations to adapt to urban environments (27). To test the association between genetic differentiation and the evolution of HCN clines, we estimated population genetic differentiation between urban and rural populations using both F<sub>ST</sub> and principal components analysis (PCA) (fig. S5), in addition to urban-rural admixture (fig. S6) (15). Urban-rural  $F_{ST}$  was low [mean =  $0.012 \pm 0.002$  (SE)] and did not differ significantly between cities with and without clines ( $F_{1, 24}$  = 1.47, P = 0.24; Fig. 3C and fig. S4). Neither  $F_{ST}$  ( $F_{1, 24}$  = 1.42, P = 0.25; Fig. 3D) nor urban-rural differentiation measured using PCA  $(F_{1, 24} = 1.10, P = 0.31, fig. S5)$  predicted the strength of clines in HCN production. The absence of strong differentiation was associated with extensive admixture between urban and rural populations (fig. S6). Because genetic differentiation is consistently low and gene flow appears to be high among urban and rural populations, the repeated evolution of clines suggests strong selection on HCN production along urban-rural gradients. This conclusion is further supported by direct tests of selection on the Ac and Li loci, as well as HCN production, in which differentiation (using a statistic equivalent to  $F_{ST}$ ) between urban and rural populations was stronger than expected under neutral evolution in cities with HCN clines compared to cities without clines (Fig. 3, E and F) (15).

Multiple environmental stressors are known to influence the evolution of HCN production at continental scales (20–22, 28), so we asked: What environmental factors explain variation in the evolution of HCN production along urban-rural gradients? Environmental factors related to drought and vegetation cover were the strongest predictors of variation in HCN clines, accounting for 11.3% of the variation in the strength of clines (tables S5 and S6). Change in potential evapotranspiration (PET) along urban-rural gradients was one of the

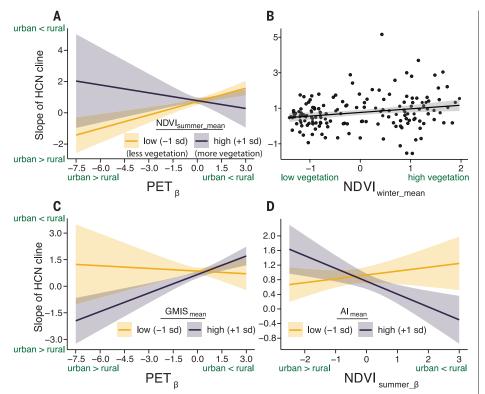


Fig. 4. Environmental predictors of urban-rural clines in HCN production. (A) Change in potential evapotranspiration along urban-rural gradients (PET<sub>B</sub>) interacts with the regional amount of summer vegetation (i.e., NDVI<sub>summer mean</sub>) to explain variation in the slopes of HCN clines. (B) The relationship between the slopes of HCN clines and the regional amount of winter vegetation (NDVI<sub>winter mean</sub>). (C) PET<sub>β</sub> interacts with the regional amounts of impervious surface (GMIS<sub>mean</sub>) to predict the slope of HCN clines. (**D**) Change in summer vegetation along urban-rural gradients (NDVI $_{summer\_\beta}$ ) interacts with regional aridity (AI $_{mean}$ ) to explain variation in the slope of HCN clines. Acronyms as in Fig. 2.

most consistent predictors of evolution in HCN production (table S5); the frequency of HCN production tended to be higher in rural than urban populations in cities where PET was also greater in rural habitats (Fig. 4, A and C, and fig. S7). Because high PET can lead to plant water stress under low soil moisture, this result is consistent with drought selecting for higher HCN production, a pattern also observed at continental scales (21). However, the effect of PET on the evolution of HCN production only occurs when the amount of vegetation in and around cities is low (Fig. 4A). When vegetation cover is relatively high (and impervious surface is low) along the whole urban-rural transect, HCN clines tend to be positive regardless of variation in PET (Fig. 4, A to C). Notably, the amount of vegetation is positively correlated with invertebrate herbivore biomass and diversity (29), which can select for increased HCN production (20). When combined with the observation that herbivores are often less abundant in urban habitats (30), our evidence suggests that herbivores are selecting for greater HCN production in rural than urban areas. The positive association between urban-rural changes in vegetation and the positive slope of HCN clines in some cities further supports this interpretation (Fig. 4D). Put simply, herbivory seems to select for higher HCN production in rural areas, but in the absence of strong herbivore pressure (i.e., when there is less vegetation across the whole gradient), drought is the main selective agent. Contrary to previous findings, urban-rural changes in temperature and snow cover did not explain changes in HCN production (24), suggesting that urban-rural changes in these abiotic factors are not a general explanation for the evolution of clines at a global scale.

Our results have general implications for understanding how environmental change affects adaptation in widespread species. Parallel evolution is a hallmark of natural selection because it suggests that adaptation proceeds in a repeatable way when populations face similar environments (12, 13). However, departures from parallel evolution are common, and a major goal of recent research involves quantifying how ecological and evolutionary factors interact to influence variation in adaptive responses to similar environments (12). Our results show that white clover rapidly adapts to urban environments on a global scale, but there is considerable variation in the strength and direction of HCN clines that is driven by variation in particular biotic and abiotic factors that differ in how they change along urbanrural gradients among cities. Variation in additional unmeasured factors (e.g., gene flow from agricultural varieties, pollution, etc.) might further explain variation in the strength of clines, and future work will seek to explore such mechanisms.

Urbanization is increasingly transforming rural and natural environments into unique ecosystems that Earth's biodiversity has never experienced, and these changes are altering the evolution of life. If adaptation to urban environments is common, then this could have cascading effects on populations and ecosystems. This knowledge could help conserve some of Earth's most vulnerable species (9), mitigate the impacts of pests (2), improve human wellbeing (8, 11), and contribute to understanding fundamental eco-evolutionary processes (10).

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<sup>1</sup>Department of Biology, University of Toronto Mississauga, Mississauga, ON, Canada, <sup>2</sup>Centre for Urban Environments, University of Toronto Mississauga, Mississauga, ON, Canada. <sup>3</sup>Department of Biology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC, USA. <sup>4</sup>Department of Biology, University of Louisiana, Lafayette, LA, USA. <sup>5</sup>Department of Biology, Queen's University, Kingston, ON, Canada. <sup>6</sup>Department of Biology, Concordia University, Montreal, QC, Canada. Department of Biological Sciences, DePaul University, Chicago, IL, USA. 8Department of Biology, DePauw University, Greencastle, IN, USA. <sup>9</sup>Department of Urban Design and Planning, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA. 10 Colegio de Ciencias Biológicas y Ambientales, Universidad San Francisco de Quito USFQ, Quito, Ecuador. 11 Department of Genetics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA. 12 Department of Ecology and Genetics, Evolutionary Biology Centre, Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden. <sup>13</sup>Field Science Center for Northern Biosphere, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Hokkaido, Japan. 14 Natural History Museum, Zoology, University of New England, Armidale, NSW, Australia. 15 Programa de Pós-Graduação em Geografia da UFMT, campus de Rondonópolis, Cuiabá, Brazil, <sup>16</sup>Department of Botany and Biodiversity Research Centre, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, Canada. 17Graduate Program in Genome Sciences and Technology, Genome Sciences Centre, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada. <sup>18</sup>Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada. 19Red de Biología Evolutiva, Instituto de Ecología, A. C., Xalapa, Mexico. <sup>20</sup>School of the

Environment, Yale University, New Haven, CT, USA. <sup>21</sup>Departamento de Ciencias Ecológicas, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad de Chile. Santiago, Chile. <sup>22</sup>Instituto de Ecología y Biodiversidad, Universidad de Chile, Santiago, Chile. <sup>23</sup>Department of Biology, Mount Allison University, Sackville, NB, Canada. <sup>24</sup>Red de Ecoetología, Instituto de Ecología A. C., Xalapa, Mexico. <sup>25</sup>Department of Biology, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, ON, Canada. <sup>26</sup>Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK. 27 Department of Biology, Washington University in St. Louis, St. Louis, MO, USA. 28 Department of Biology, University of Miami, Miami, FL, USA. <sup>29</sup>Centro de Investigación en Recursos Naturales y Sustentabilidad (CIRENYS), Universidad Bernardo O'Higgins, Santiago, Chile. 30 Department of Biology, University of La Verne, La Verne, CA, USA. 31Département des sciences du bois et de la forêt, Université Laval, Quebec, QC, Canada. 32 Evolution & Ecology Research Centre, School of Biological, Earth and Environmental Sciences, UNSW Sydney, Sydney, NSW, Australia. <sup>33</sup>Department of Biology, Ghent University, Ghent, Belgium. <sup>34</sup>Department of Biology, Monmouth University, West Long Branch, NJ, USA. 35Centre for Ecology, Evolution and Environmental Changes, Faculdade de Ciências, Universidade de Lisboa, Campo Grande, Lisboa, Portugal. 36Department of Biology, KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium. <sup>37</sup>School of Agriculture and Environment, Wildlife and Ecology group, Massey University, Palmerston North, Manawatu, New Zealand. <sup>38</sup>Department of Biological Sciences, University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa. 39Institute of Landscape Ecology, University of Münster, Münster, Germany. 40Gosnell School of Life Sciences, Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, NY, USA. <sup>41</sup>Department of Biological Sciences, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB, Canada. 42Louis Calder Center and Department of Biological Sciences, Fordham University, Armonk, NY, USA. 43Departamento de Ecología Tropical, Universidad Autónoma de Yucatán, Mérida, Yucatán, México. 44School of Life Sciences, University of Sussex, Brighton, UK, 45Department of Ecology, Environment and Plant Sciences, Stockholm University, Stockholm, Sweden. 46iBIOTROP Instituto de Biodiversidad Tropical, Universidad San Francisco de Quito, Quito, Ecuador. 47Department of Biology, San Francisco State University, San Francisco, CA, USA. 48 Unidad de Recursos Naturales, Centro de Investigación Científica de Yucatán AC, Mérida, Yucatán, México. 49School of Ecological and Environmental Sciences, East China Normal University, Shanghai, China. 50Shanghai Engineering Research Center of Sustainable Plant Innovation, Shanghai 200231. China. 51 Centre for Ecosystem Science, School of Biological, Earth and Environmental Sciences, UNSW Sydney, Sydney, NSW, Australia. <sup>52</sup>Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, USA. <sup>53</sup>Department of Biosciences, Rice University, Houston, TX, USA. <sup>54</sup>IFEVA, Universidad de Buenos Aires, CONICET, Facultad de Agronomía, Buenos Aires, Argentina <sup>55</sup>Biology Department, Saint Mary's University, Halifax, NS, Canada. <sup>56</sup>Department of Biological Sciences, Universidad de los Andes, Bogotá, Colombia. 57 Department of Biology and Biochemistry, University of Houston, Houston, TX, USA. 58 ECOBIO (Ecosystèmes, biodiversité, évolution), Université de Rennes, Rennes, France. <sup>59</sup>Department of Zoology and Biodiversity Research Centre, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, Canada. 60 Department of Environmental Studies, Dordt University, Sioux Center, IA, USA. <sup>61</sup>Department of Biology, Minneapolis Community and Technical College, Minneapolis, MN, USA. 62 Department of Natural Sciences, Ecology and Environment Research Centre, Manchester Metropolitan University, Manchester, UK. 63 Instituto de Investigaciones en Ecosistemas y Sustentabilidad, UNAM, Morelia, Mexico. 64Department of Botany, School of Biology, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, Greece. <sup>65</sup>Faculty of Biological and Environmental Science, Organismal & Evolutionary Biology Research Programme, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland. 66Corporación Científica Ingeobosque, Medellín, Antioquia, Colombia. <sup>67</sup>GTA Colombia S.A.S. Envigado, Antioquia, Colombia. <sup>68</sup>Institute of Biodiversity, Animal Health and Comparative Medicine, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, Scotland, UK. <sup>69</sup>Department of Biology, Hendrix College, Conway, AR, USA. 70 Department of Ecological Science, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam, Netherlands. 71Departamento de Ciencias Biológicas y Agropecuarias, Universidad Técnica Particular de Loja, Loja, Ecuador. <sup>72</sup>Departamento de Biologia, Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM), Santa Maria, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil. 73Department of Plant Sciences, School of Biology, College of Science, University of Tehran, Tehran, Iran. 74NTNU University Museum, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, 7491 Trondheim, Norway. <sup>75</sup>Red de Estudios Moleculares Avanzados, Instituto de Ecología A. C., Xalapa, Mexico. <sup>76</sup>School of Biological Sciences, University of Reading, Whiteknights Park, Reading, Berkshire, UK. 77Department of Biology, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, AZ, USA. 78 Department of Biological Sciences, MacEwan University, Edmonton, AB, Canada. 79Max Planck Institute for Plant Breeding Research, Cologne, Germany. 80 Departamento

de Ecología Evolutiva, Instituto de Ecología, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Ciudad de México, México. 81 Max Planck Institute of Molecular Plant Physiology, Potsdam-Golm, Germany. <sup>32</sup>BIO5 Institute, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ, USA. <sup>83</sup>Alaska Center for Conservation Science, University of Alaska Anchorage, Anchorage, AK, USA. 84Tropical Diversity, Royal Botanical Garden of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK. 85Département de biologie, Université de Moncton, Moncton, New Brunswick, Canada. <sup>86</sup>Department of Biological Sciences, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, MB, Canada. <sup>87</sup>Departments of Microbiology & Statistics, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, MB, Canada. 88 Department of Biology, University of New Brunswick, Fredericton, NB, Canada. <sup>89</sup>Department of Biology, Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo, MI, USA. <sup>90</sup>BioProtection Research Centre, Lincoln University, Lincoln, Canterbury, New Zealand. 91Departamento de Ciencias, Facultad de Artes Liberales, Universidad Adolfo Ibáñez, Santiago, Chile. <sup>92</sup>Department of Ecology, Evolution, and Behaviour University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, USA. 93Department of Biological Sciences, Brock University, St. Catharines, Ontario, Canada. <sup>94</sup>Department of Environmental Toxicology, University of California, Davis, CA, USA. 95ICB - University of Talca, Chile. 96School of Molecular and Life Science, Curtin University, Perth, Australia. <sup>97</sup>College of Science, Health, Engineering and Education, Murdoch University, Murdoch, WA, Australia. <sup>98</sup>School of Life and Environmental Sciences, The University of Sydney, Sydney, NSW, Australia. <sup>99</sup>School of Biological Sciences, Monash University, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. 100 Department of Biological Sciences, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI, USA. 101 Department of Biology, Western Oregon University, Monmouth, OR, USA. 102School of Natural Resources and the Environment, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ, USA. 103 Departamento de Ecología Humana, Cinvestav Mérida, Yucatan, México. 104 Departamento de Ciencias Biológicas y Departamento de Ecología y Biodiversidad, Facultad de Ciencias de la Vida, Universidad Andrés Bello, Santiago, Chile. 105 Institute of Ecology and Biodiversity (IEB), Chile. <sup>106</sup>Department of Biology, Lund University, Lund, Sweden. <sup>107</sup>Department of Biology, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Trondheim, Norway. 108 Escuela Superiro de Desarrollo Sustentable, Universidad Autónoma de Guerrero -CONACYT, Las Tunas, Mexico. 109 Clarkson Secondary School, Peel District School Board, Mississauga, ON. Canada. 110 Homelands Sr. Public School, Peel District School Board, Mississauga, ON, Canada. 111 Department of Biological Sciences, University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA. 112St. James Catholic Global Learning Centre, Dufferin-Peel Catholic District School Board, Mississauga ON, Canada. 113 Department of Biosciences, University of Calgary, Calgary, AB, Canada. <sup>114</sup>Ecological Processes Branch, U.S. Army ERDC-CERL, Champaign, IL, USA. 115 Department of Biology, Oberlin College, Oberlin, OH, USA. 116 Escuela Nacional de Estudios Superiores Unidad Morelia, UNAM, Morelia, Mexico. 117 Institute of Evolution and Ecology, University of Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany. 118 Department of Evolutionary Biology and Environmental Studies, University of Zurich, Winterthurerstrasse, Zurich, Switzerland. <sup>119</sup>Urban Wildlife Institute, Department of Conservation and Science, Lincoln Park Zoo, Chicago, IL, USA. <sup>120</sup>Departamento de Ecología, Universidad Católica de la Santísima Concepción, Concepción, Chile. 121 Department of Biological Sciences, University of Denver, Denver, CO, USA. <sup>122</sup>Department of Biological Sciences, Mississippi State University, Starkville, MS, USA. 123Department of Biology, Center for Computational & Integrative Biology, Rutgers University-Camden, Camden, NJ, USA. <sup>124</sup>Programa de Pós-Graduação em Geografia da UFMT, campus de Rondonópolis, Brasil. 125 Kunming Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Kunming, Yunnan, China. <sup>126</sup>Department of Chemistry & Biochemistry, Laurentian University. Sudbury, ON, Canada. <sup>127</sup>Ministry of Education Key Laboratory for Biodiversity Science and Ecological Engineering, College of Life Sciences, Beijing Normal University, Beijing, China. <sup>128</sup>School of BioSciences, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. <sup>129</sup>Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Coyoacán, Mexico City, 04510, Mexico. 130 Department of Biological Sciences, Auburn University, Auburn, AL, USA. <sup>131</sup>Department of Entomology and Nematology, University of California, Davis, CA, USA. <sup>132</sup>Department of Biology, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM, USA. 133 Department of Biology, University of Wisconsin - Eau Claire, Eau Claire, WI 54701. <sup>134</sup>Agriculture Institute, Iranian Research Organization for Science and Technology (IROST), Tehran, Iran. 135 Department of Biology, Colby College, Waterville, ME, USA. <sup>136</sup>Instituto de Biología, Universidad de Antioquia, Medellín, Colombia. 137 Department of Biology, University of Massachusetts Boston, Boston, MA, USA. <sup>138</sup>Agricultural Biology, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO, USA. 139 Departamento de Biología Vegetal y Ecología, Facultad de Biología, Universidad de Sevilla, Av. Reina Mercedes s/n, 41012

Sevilla, Spain. 140 Facultad de Estudios Interdisciplinarios, Centro GEMA- Genómica, Ecología y Medio Ambiente, Universidad Mayor, Santiago, Chile. <sup>141</sup>Evolutionary Ecology Group, Naturalis Biodiversity Center, Leiden, Netherlands. 142 Department of Biology and Chemistry, Nipissing University, North Bay, ON, Canada. <sup>143</sup>Center for Ecological Research, Kyoto University, Otsu, Shiga, Japan. 144Bonanza Creek Long Term Ecological Research Program, University of Alaska Fairbanks, Fairbanks, AK, USA. <sup>145</sup>Department of Botany and Molecular Evolution, Senckenberg Research Institute and Natural History Museum Frankfurt, Frankfurt am Main, Germany. 146 Departamento de Biodiversidade, Instituto de Biociências, Univ Estadual Paulista - UNESP, Rio Claro, São Paulo, Brazil. 147 Nelson Institute for Environmental Studies, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI, USA. 148 Department of Biology, California State University, Northridge, Los Angeles, CA, USA. 149 Department of Ecology, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Uppsala, Sweden. <sup>150</sup>Facultad de Ciencias y Biotecnologia, Universidad CES, Medellín, Colombia. <sup>151</sup>Department of Biology, Hofstra University, Long Island, NY, USA. <sup>152</sup>Faculty of Biosciences and Aquaculture, Nord University, Bodø, Norway. <sup>153</sup>Division of Biological Sciences, University of California San Diego, San Diego, CA, USA. 154Department of Biology, University of Richmond, Richmond, VA, USA. <sup>155</sup>Estación de Biodiversidad Tiputini, Colegio de Ciencias Biológicas y Ambientales, Universidad San Francisco de Quito USFQ, Quito, Ecuador. 156Department of

Biological Sciences, Institute of Environment, Florida International University, Miami, FL, USA. 157 Agronomy Department, University of Almería, Almería, Spain. 158 Department of Biological Sciences and Center for Urban Ecology and Sustainability, Butler University, Indianapolis, IN, USA. <sup>159</sup>Department of Biological Sciences, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, LA, USA. 160 Faculty of Biological Sciences, Goethe University Frankfurt, Frankfurt am Main, Germany. 161 Institute of Biology Leiden, Leiden University, Leiden, Netherlands. 162 Department of Biological and Environmental Science, University of Jyväskylä, Jyväskylä, Finland. <sup>163</sup>Department of Biology, University of Louisville, Louisville, KY, USA. 164 Organization for Programs on Environmental Science, University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan. 165 Université Paris-Saclay, CNRS, AgroParisTech, Ecologie Systématique et Evolution, 91405, Orsay, France. <sup>166</sup>Department of Biology, Providence College, Providence, RI, USA. 167 General Zoology, Institute for Biology, Martin Luther University Halle-Wittenberg, Halle, Germany. 168 International Arctic Research Center, University of Alaska Fairbanks, Fairbanks, AK, USA. 169 Science, Technology and Society Department, Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, NY, USA. 170 SLU Swedish Species Information Centre, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Uppsala, Sweden. <sup>171</sup>Department of Biology, Westfield State University, Westfield, MA, USA. <sup>172</sup>Centre of New Technologies, University of Warsaw, Warsaw, Poland. 173 Department of Biology, Stanford

University, Stanford, CA, USA. <sup>174</sup>UMR 0980 BAGAP, Agrocampus Ouest-ESA-INRA, Rennes, France. <sup>175</sup>Plant Biology Department, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, USA. <sup>176</sup>Biology Department, Davidson College, Davidson, NC, USA. <sup>177</sup>College of Horticulture and Forestry Sciences/ Hubei Engineering Technology Research Center for Forestry Information, Huazhong Agricultural University, Wuhan, China, Hubei, China. <sup>178</sup>School of Life Sciences, Technical University of Munich, Munich, Germany. <sup>179</sup>School of Life Sciences, Lanzhou University, Lanzhou, China. <sup>180</sup>Institute of Ecology and Evolution, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland. <sup>181</sup>Department of Evolution, Ecology and Behaviour, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, UK.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

science.org/doi/10.1126/science.abk0989 Material and Methods Supplementary Text Figs. S1 to S16 Tables S1 to S15 References (32–125) MDAR Reproducibility Checklist

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## Global urban environmental change drives adaptation in white clover

James S. SantangeloRob W. NessBeata CohanConnor R. FitzpatrickSimon G. InnesSophie KochLindsay S. MilesSamreen MunimPedro R. Peres-NetoCindy PrashadAlex T. TongWindsor E. AguirrePhilips O. AkinwoleMarina AlbertiJackie ÁlvarezJill T. AndersonJoseph J. AndersonYoshino AndoNigel R. AndrewFabio AngeolettoDaniel N. AnstettJulia AnstettFelipe Aoki-GonçalvesA. Z. Andis AriettaMary T. K. ArroyoEmily J. AustenFernanda Baena-DíazCory A. BarkerHoward A. BaylisJulia M. BelizAlfonso Benitez-MoraDavid BickfordGabriela BiedebachGwylim S. BlackburnMannfred M. A. BoehmStephen P. BonserDries BonteJesse R. BraggerCristina BranquinhoKristien I. BransJorge C. BrescianoPeta D. BromAnna BucharovaBriana BurtJames F. CahillKatelyn D. CampbellElizabeth J. CarlenDiego CarmonaMaria Clara CastellanosGiada Centenarolzan ChalenJaime A. ChavesMariana Chávez-PesqueiraXiao-Yong ChenAngela M. ChiltonKristina M. ChomiakDiego F. Cisneros-Heredialbrahim K. CisseAimée T. ClassenMattheau S. ComerfordCamila Cordoba FradingerHannah CorneyAndrew J. CrawfordKerri M. CrawfordMaxime DahirelSantiago DavidRobert De HaanNicholas J. DeaconClare DeanEk del-ValEleftherios K. DeligiannisDerek DenneyMargarete A. DettlaffMichelle F. DiLeoYuan-Yuan DingMoisés E. Domínguez-LópezDavide M. DominoniSavannah L. DraudKaren DysonJacintha EllersCarlos I. EspinosaLiliana EssiMohsen Falahati-AnbaranJéssica C. F. FalcãoHayden T. FargoMark D. E. FellowesRaina M. FitzpatrickLeah E. FlahertyPádraic J. FloodMaría F. FloresJuan FornoniAmy G. FosterChristopher J. FrostTracy L. FuentesJustin R. FulkersonEdeline GagnonFrauke GarbschColin J. GarrowayAleeza C. GersteinMischa M. GiassonE. Binney GirdlerSpyros GkelisWilliam GodsoeAnneke M. GolemiecMireille GolemiecCésar González-LagosAmanda J. GortonKiyoko M. GotandaGustaf GranathStephan GreinerJoanna S. GriffithsFilipa GriloPedro E. GundelBenjamin HamiltonJoyce M. HardinTianhua HeStephen B. HeardAndré F. HenriquesMelissa Hernández-PovedaMolly C. Hetherington-RauthSarah J. HillDieter F. HochuliKathryn A. HodginsGlen R. HoodGareth R. HopkinsKatherine A. HovanesAva R. HowardSierra C. HubbardCarlos N. Ibarra-CerdeñaCarlos Iñiguez-ArmijosPaola Jara-ArancioBenjamin J. M. JarrettManon JeannotVania Jiménez-LobatoMae JohnsonOscar JohnsonPhilip P. JohnsonReagan JohnsonMatthew P. JosephsonMeen Chel JungMichael G. JustAapo KahilainenOtto S. KailingEunice Kariñho-BetancourtRegina KarousouLauren A. KirnAnna KirschbaumAnna-Liisa LaineJalene M. LaMontagneChristian LampeiCarlos LaraErica L. LarsonAdrián Lázaro-LoboJennifer H. LeDeleon S. LeandroChristopher LeeYunting LeiCarolina A. LeónManuel E. Lequerica TamaraDanica C. LevesqueWan-Jin LiaoMegan LjubotinaHannah LockeMartin T. LockettTiffany C. LongoJeremy T. LundholmThomas MacGillavryChristopher R. MackinAlex R. MahmoudIsaac A. ManjuJanine MariënD. Nayeli MartínezMarina Martínez-BartoloméEmily K. MeinekeWendy Mendoza-ArroyoThomas J. S. MerrittLila Elizabeth L. MerrittGiuditta MigianiEmily S. MinorNora MitchellMitra Mohammadi BazarganiAngela T. MolesJulia D. MonkChristopher M. MoorePaula A. Morales-MoralesBrook T. MoyersMiriam Muñoz-RojasJason Munshi-SouthShannon M. MurphyMaureen M. MurúaMelisa NeilaOurania NikolaidisIva Njunji#Peter NoskoJuan Núñez-FarfánTakayuki OhgushiKenneth M. OlsenØystein H. OpedalCristina OrnelasAmy L. ParachnowitschAaron S. ParatoreAngela M. Parody-MerinoJuraj PauleOctávio S. PauloJoão Carlos PenaVera W. PfeifferPedro PinhoAnthony Piotliga M. PorthNicholas PoulosAdriana PuentesJiao QuEstela Quintero-VallejoSteve M. RacitiJoost A. M. RaeymaekersKrista M. RavealaDiana J. RennisonMilton C. RibeiroJonathan L. RichardsonGonzalo Rivas-TorresBenjamin J. RiveraAdam B. RoddyErika Rodriguez-MuñozJosé Raúl RománLaura S. RossiJennifer K. RowntreeTravis J. RyanSantiago SalinasNathan J. SandersLuis Y. Santiago-RosarioAmy M. SavageJ.F. ScheepensMenno SchilthuizenAdam C. SchneiderTiffany ScholierJared L. ScottSummer A. ShaheedRichard P. SheffersonCaralee A. ShepardJacqui A. ShykoffGeorgianna SilveiraAlexis D. SmithLizet Solis-GabrielAntonella SoroKatie V. SpellmanKaitlin Stack WhitneyIndra Starke-OttichJörg G. StephanJessica D. StephensJustyna SzulcMarta SzulkinAyco J. M. TackÍtalo TamburrinoTayler D. TateEmmanuel TergeminaPanagiotis TheodorouKen A. ThompsonCaragh G. ThrelfallRobin M. TinghitellaLilibeth Toledo-ChelalaXin TongLéa UroyShunsuke UtsumiMartijn L. VandegehuchteAcer VanWallendaelPaula M. VidalSusana M. WadgymarAi-Ying WangNian WangMontana L. WarbrickKenneth D. WhitneyMiriam WiesmeierJ. Tristian WilesJianqiang WuZoe A. XirocostasZhaogui YanJiahe YaoJeremy B. YoderOwen YoshidaJingxiong ZhangZhigang ZhaoCarly D. ZiterMatthew P. ZuelligRebecca A. ZufallJuan E. ZuritaSharon E. ZytynskaMarc T. J. Johnson

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### Plants adapt to city environments

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Urban development alters the local environment, potentially driving rapid evolution. Santangelo *et al.* collected data on white clover populations from 160 cities to test for consistent responses to urban environments. They found that the production of an antiherbivore chemical defense increased with greater distance from the urban center in many cities. Genomic data suggest that this trend is adaptive, likely in response to lowered drought stress and herbivory pressure in urban centers. This study from the Global Urban Evolution Project provides evidence of widespread adaptation to urbanization.—BEL

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