

1 **Abstract:** Plant traits are useful for predicting how species may respond to environmental
2 change and/or influence ecosystem properties. Understanding the extent to which traits vary
3 within species and across climatic gradients is particularly important for understanding how
4 species may respond to climate change. We explored whether climate drives spatial patterns of
5 intraspecific trait variation for three traits (specific leaf area (SLA), plant height, and leaf
6 nitrogen content (Nmass)) across 122 grass species (family: Poaceae) with a combined
7 distribution across six continents. We tested the hypothesis that the sensitivity (i.e., slope) of
8 intraspecific trait responses to climate across space would be related to the species' typical form
9 and function (e.g., leaf economics, stature, and lifespan). We observed both positive and negative
10 intraspecific trait responses to climate with the distribution of slope coefficients across species
11 straddling zero for precipitation, temperature, and climate seasonality. As hypothesized, variation
12 in slope coefficients across species was partially explained by leaf economics and lifespan. For
13 example, acquisitive species with nitrogen-rich leaves grew taller and produced leaves with
14 higher SLA in warmer regions compared to species with low Nmass. Compared to perennials,
15 annual grasses invested in leaves with higher SLA yet decreased height and Nmass in regions
16 with high precipitation seasonality. Thus, while the influence of climate on trait expression may
17 at first appear idiosyncratic, variation in trait-climate slope coefficients is at least partially
18 explained by the species' typical form and function. Overall, our results suggest that a species'
19 mean location along one axis of trait variation (e.g., leaf economics) could influence how traits
20 along a separate axis of variation (e.g., plant size) respond to spatial variation in climate.

21 **Key words:** functional traits, grass, intraspecific trait variation, Poaceae, climate, specific leaf
22 area, leaf nitrogen, plant height

23 **Introduction**

24 Characteristics of individual plants (i.e., traits) can influence both their response to
25 environmental change and their effect on climate and ecosystem processes (Suding et al. 2008).
26 Globally, plant traits are coordinated such that three quarters of trait variation between species
27 can be explained by a two-dimensional spectrum of plant form and function describing a species
28 relative size and its leaf economic strategy (Diaz et al. 2016). Size-related traits, such as plant
29 height, can reflect competitive ability, particularly with regards to light acquisition (Westoby
30 1998). Traits of the leaf economic spectrum separate species along a continuum of conservative
31 to acquisitive resource-use strategies, where acquisitive species are generally short-lived and
32 have higher specific leaf area (SLA; leaf area per gram of dry leaf mass), mass-based leaf
33 nitrogen content (Nmass), and rates of photosynthesis (Wright et al. 2004; Shipley 2006). Such
34 traits can be predictive of where species grow and how they respond to climate. For example,
35 low SLA species tend to be more abundant in arid environments and reduce their SLA further
36 during drought (Reich 2014; Dwyer et al. 2014). Importantly, these traits can also vary
37 considerably within species (up to 40% of total variation for some traits), reflecting genetic
38 diversity and phenotypic plasticity (Kattge et al. 2011; Siefert et al. 2015). Characterizing how
39 plant traits vary intraspecifically with climate is not only important for understanding
40 physiological adaptations to climate change (Dong et al. 2020), but can also inform predictions
41 of plant trait values in regions where measurements are still lacking (Sandel et al. 2021).

42 Here, we examine the global patterns of intraspecific trait variation and its association
43 with climate for grasses (family: Poaceae), a species-rich and globally distributed plant family
44 with massive ecological and economic importance (Clayton and Renvoize 1986). Grasses are a
45 highly successful group of plants from an evolutionary perspective with ~11,500 species

46 worldwide (Soreng et al. 2017). They are the dominant growth form of grasslands, which cover
47 52 million km², or roughly 40% of Earth's terrestrial land surface (Gibson 2009), and make a
48 significant contribution to the terrestrial carbon sink (Fisher et al. 1994; Still et al. 2003; Wigley
49 et al. 2020). Humans are heavily dependent on grasses for food (e.g., corn, rice, and wheat),
50 building materials (e.g., bamboo), and forage for livestock (Hodkinson et al. 2018). Despite their
51 ecological, economic, and cultural importance (Nowak-Olejnik et al. 2020), grasses have
52 received relatively little attention in the plant traits literature, with most analyses focusing on
53 interspecific comparisons (Sandel et al. 2016, Jardine et al. 2020). Therefore, many of our
54 expectations about how climate influences intraspecific variation in grass traits are informed by
55 interspecific comparisons.

56 Our understanding of trait responses to climate stems from analyses of spatial patterns in
57 species mean traits along broad environmental gradients (Reich and Oleksyn 2004). For
58 example, grass species with high Nmass often inhabit arid climates with high temperature and
59 low precipitation (Jardine et al. 2020). This is likely because a large portion of leaf N is allocated
60 to Rubisco (Evans 1989; Hikosaka 2004; Funk et al. 2013), and higher Rubisco content improves
61 water-use efficiency by allowing plants to achieve higher carbon assimilation at lower rates of
62 stomatal conductance (Wright et al. 2001). Similar spatial analyses suggest that variation in SLA
63 is not (or only weakly) correlated with climate (Wright et al. 2004; Jardine 2020), although
64 positive relationships between SLA and both precipitation and temperature were observed *within*
65 grass species in California (Sandel et al. 2021). Taller grass species often inhabit wetter and
66 warmer regions (Sandel et al. 2016; Jardine et al. 2020). Within species, however, grass
67 individuals are generally taller in warmer regions, but not necessarily wetter regions (Sandel et
68 al. 2021). A lack of a general pattern between height and precipitation within species may be due

69 to individuals of some grass species growing taller in dry areas where they're supported by
70 deeper rooting systems (Hoffman et al. 2020).

71 While we'd expect intraspecific trait-climate relationships to generally match those
72 observed between species, the sensitivity of traits to climate is likely highly variable among
73 species. This could be due to genetic constraints on trait variability, interactions with
74 neighboring biota, or differences in microclimate that mask broad environmental gradients
75 (Westerband et al. 2021). We aimed to better understand variation in trait-climate relationships
76 and potential modifying effects. First, we test a novel hypothesis that the strength (slope) and
77 direction (sign) of intraspecific trait-climate relationships for a species depend on its relative
78 location along the two major axes of the global spectrum of plant form and function (leaf
79 economics and stature; Fig. 1). For example, if we consider two species of similar stature but on
80 opposite ends of the leaf economic spectrum, individuals of the acquisitive species should
81 theoretically be able to capitalize on greater resource availability in wetter areas and grow taller
82 compared to a more conservative species. In this scenario, we would expect to observe a higher
83 slope for the intraspecific relationship between height and precipitation for species with high
84 SLA and leaf Nmass (Fig. 1). Second, we explored differences in trait-environment relations
85 based on a species' lifespan (annual vs. perennial) and photosynthetic pathway (C₄ vs. C₃) given
86 the known linkages between these categorical traits and leaf economics (Still et al. 2003;
87 Frenette-Dussault et al. 2012; Kooyers 2015). A species' lifespan is an important determinant of
88 resource use strategies; annuals must complete their reproductive lifecycle within a limited
89 period of time compared to perennials, which may influence their trait expression along climate
90 gradients. Similarly, we'd expect photosynthetic pathway to modify trait responses to climate
91 given C₄ grasses are generally more tolerant of high temperatures and drought (Still et al. 2003).

92 We tested these hypotheses by analyzing intraspecific relationships between commonly
93 measured traits (SLA, Nmass, and height) and temperature, precipitation, and climate seasonality
94 using a global trait dataset for 122 grass species. We expected individuals of a species to grow
95 taller and have higher SLA in wetter and warmer climates (i.e., positive intraspecific trait-climate
96 relationships for SLA and Height) (Moles et al. 2014; Jardine et al. 2020; Sandel et al. 2021).
97 Additionally, we expected individuals in warmer and drier regions to produce leaves with high
98 Nmass to increase water-use efficiency (i.e., negative intraspecific trait-climate relationships for
99 Nmass) (Wright et al. 2001). Finally, we hypothesized that variation among species in the
100 strength and direction of these intraspecific trait-climate relationships would be related to their
101 typical form and function (Fig. 1).

102 **Methods**

103 *Trait and climate data*

104 We measured traits of grasses across the Bay Area of California and obtained additional
105 records from published papers (Appendix 1) and trait databases, including TRY (Kattge et al.
106 2011), TTT (Bjorkman et al. 2018), BIEN (Maitner et al. 2018), BROT2 (Tavşanoğlu and Pausas
107 2018), and AusTraits (Falster et al. 2021). For this analysis, we focus on three traits of interest:
108 specific leaf area (SLA), plant height, and mass-based leaf nitrogen content (Nmass). All trait
109 measurements were georeferenced with latitude and longitude coordinates. For each trait
110 measurement, we extracted and paired the following high resolution (30 arc sec, ~1km) climate
111 statistics from CHELSA V2.1 (Karger et al. 2017; <https://chelsa-climate.org/>): mean annual
112 precipitation (MAP), mean annual temperature (MAT), precipitation seasonality (PS; the
113 standard deviation of the monthly precipitation estimates expressed as a percentage of the mean

114 of those estimates (i.e. the annual mean)), temperature seasonality (TS; standard deviation of the
115 monthly mean temperatures), mean monthly precipitation of the warmest and coldest quarter of
116 the year (P_{warm} and P_{cold} , respectively), and mean monthly temperature of the warmest and
117 coldest quarter of the year (T_{warm} and T_{cold} , respectively).

118 To avoid over-weighting regions that were heavily sampled (i.e., parts of Europe and
119 North America, see Fig. 2), we aggregated our trait-climate dataset by rounding latitude-
120 longitude coordinates to the nearest first decimal point and averaging climate and trait values for
121 a species within that binned coordinate. We then subset this binned dataset to include only
122 species for which we had at least 10 records spanning a MAP gradient of 100 mm, a MAT
123 gradient of 2°C, and a correlation between MAP and MAT of no more than 0.8. This was done to
124 prevent fitting models when MAP and MAT were highly collinear or when all measurements
125 were made over a narrow range of climate values which might result in extreme slope
126 coefficients (Sandel et al. 2021). Based on these criteria, our final global grass trait-climate
127 dataset spanned six continents, covered all of Earth's major terrestrial biomes, and included
128 2,648 measurements of SLA (n= 109 species), 1,359 measurements of Nmass (n = 61 species),
129 and 1,439 measurements of plant height (n = 66 species) (Fig. 2).

130 *Analysis*

131 Trait data were log-transformed prior to analyses to meet assumptions of normality. For
132 each species and trait, we ran two separate simultaneous autoregressive (SAR) models predicting
133 trait values from climate variables using the `errorsarlm()` function in the *spdep* package (Bivand
134 et al. 2015), with the neighborhood of a point being defined as the three nearest points. The first
135 model included mean climate characteristics (MAP, MAT, PS, TS) while the second included

136 mean monthly climate of the warmest and coldest quarters of the year (P_{warm} , P_{cold} , T_{warm} , and
137 T_{cold}). The use of SAR models accounts for spatial autocorrelation in our data, a common
138 phenomenon in ecology where nearby observations are more similar than would be expected by
139 chance (Legendre 1993). These models each produced 12 trait-climate slope coefficients (3
140 traits, 4 climate variables). Using Student t-tests, we assessed whether the mean of each SAR
141 slope coefficients across species was significantly different from zero (Bonferroni-adjusted p-
142 values for 12 independent tests; $\alpha = 0.004$).

143 To test whether variation in intraspecific sensitivity of traits to climate could be explained
144 by mean species traits, we ran phylogenetic generalized least squares (PGLS) regression models
145 with the intraspecific trait-climate slope coefficients (e.g., MAP vs. SLA slope) as the dependent
146 variable and the following mean species traits as independent variables: SLA, Nmass, height,
147 lifespan (i.e., perennial or annual), and photosynthetic pathway (i.e., C₄ or C₃ photosynthesis).
148 We used PGLS models to account for the possibility that more closely related species have more
149 similar responses to climate than would be expected by chance (see Fig. S1 for complete
150 phylogenetic tree). In our models, we log transformed continuous mean traits (SLA, Nmass, and
151 Height). To simplify these global models and determine which mean traits were most important
152 for understanding variability in the trait-climate slope coefficients, we performed an automated
153 model selection using the dredge() function in the *MuMln* package (Barton and Barton 2015).
154 We then performed model averaging on those models with a delta AICc of <2, and produced
155 partial residual plots to visualize the effects of individual significant predictor variables on
156 variation in the slope coefficients while also considering other components of the final model.

157 Finally, we explored the correlation between mean continuous traits for all species used
158 in this study (n=122) using standard major axis (SMA) regression (sma function in the *smatr*

159 package; Warton et al. 2018) and tested for trait differences based on photosynthetic pathway
160 and lifespan using two-sample t-tests. This was done to confirm that the mean traits for our
161 species were similarly coordinated according to global spectrum of plant form and function
162 (Diaz et al. 2016). All statistical analyses and data visualization were performed in R (version
163 4.2.2).

164 Results

165 Across the 122 grass species included in this study, mean leaf trait associations broadly
166 met the assumptions of the global spectrum of plant form and function (Reich 2014; Diaz et al.
167 2016). As expected, we observed a positive relationship between SLA and Nmass ($R^2 = 0.181$),
168 suggesting acquisitive grass species with high SLA also have high leaf Nmass (Fig. 3a). Leaf
169 Nmass of annuals was higher than that of perennials ($p < 0.01$; Fig. 3b) and C₃ grasses had
170 higher Nmass than C₄ grasses ($p < 0.01$; Fig. 3c) reflecting the higher nitrogen-use efficiency of
171 C₄ photosynthesis. We observed no significant relationship between SLA and plant height (Fig.
172 3d). Annuals had higher SLA than perennials ($p < 0.01$; Fig. 3e) while SLA did not differ based
173 on photosynthetic pathway (Fig. 3f). We observed a weak negative relationship between leaf
174 Nmass and height ($R^2 = 0.036$, $p = 0.04$, Fig. 3g). This negative relationship is perhaps due to the
175 taller stature of C₄ species (Fig. 3i) which also had lower leaf Nmass than C₃ species (Fig. 3 c).

176 Across species, the trait-climate SAR slope coefficients straddled zero and were, on
177 average, not significantly different from zero (Fig. 4, Fig. S2). However, this was driven by
178 similar numbers of positive and negative relationships, many of which were individually
179 statistically significant (Table 1). Variation across species in their trait responses to mean annual
180 climate was partially explained by a species' typical form and function (Table S1). For example,

181 individuals of species with high Nmass grew taller in warmer areas (Fig. 5a). Annual grasses,
182 short species, and those with low SLA grew shorter in regions with high precipitation seasonality
183 (Fig. 5 b, c, and d), and perennials grew taller in regions with high temperature seasonality (Fig.
184 5e). Species with low Nmass grew shorter in regions with high T_{warm} (Fig. S3). Compared to
185 perennials, annuals grew taller in regions with high T_{cold} and P_{warm} but low P_{cold} (Fig. S3).

186 We observed similarly species-specific slope coefficients for intraspecific Nmass-climate
187 relationships (Fig. 4, Table 1), with mean traits explaining some of the variability across species
188 (Table S2). For example, annual grasses and tall species decreased leaf Nmass in regions with
189 greater precipitation seasonality (Fig. 5 f and g). Species with high SLA increased Nmass in
190 regions with high T_{warm} but decreased Nmass in regions with high T_{cold} (Fig. S3). The opposite
191 response was observed for species with high Nmass (Fig. S3), which was surprising given the
192 correlation between Nmass and SLA (Fig. 3). Annuals increased Nmass in regions with high
193 P_{warm} , more so than perennials (Fig. S3).

194 Finally, both positive and negative relationships between SLA and mean climate were
195 observed (Fig. 4, Table 1), with lifespan and leaf Nmass explaining some of this variation (Fig.
196 5; Table S3). Species with high leaf Nmass increased SLA in warmer regions (Fig. 5h) as well as
197 regions with low precipitation seasonality (Fig. 5j). Annuals increased SLA in areas with high
198 precipitation seasonality and low MAT, while SLA of perennials was less responsive (Fig. 5 i
199 and k). Compared to perennials, annuals decreased SLA more in regions with high T_{warm} (Fig.
200 S3). Finally, species with high Nmass and/or low SLA increased SLA in regions with high P_{warm}
201 (Fig. S3)

202

203 **Discussion**

204 Using a trait dataset for 122 globally distributed grass species, we investigated how the
205 typical form and function of a species modifies its intraspecific trait responses to climate. On
206 average, traits did not respond consistently to climate as both positive and negative responses
207 were observed across species; however, some of this variation was explained by a species' mean
208 traits. For example, acquisitive species with high leaf Nmass grew taller and produced leaves
209 with higher SLA in warmer regions compared to species with less nitrogen-rich leaves.
210 Compared to perennials, annual grasses invested in leaves with higher SLA yet decreased height
211 and Nmass in regions with high precipitation seasonality. These findings suggest that
212 intraspecific trait responses to climate are variable (both positive and negative responses
213 observed) but both the direction and magnitude of responses can depend on a species' lifespan as
214 well as its mean traits.

215 While we expected certain grass traits would respond consistently to climate, this was not
216 the case (Fig. 4). The lack of a consistent relationship between height and climate across grasses
217 could be due to the variable growth strategies grasses exhibit (e.g., caespitose, rhizomatous, or
218 stoloniferous). For example, grasses can increase aboveground biomass without growing taller if
219 lateral spread is more advantageous (Navas et al. 2005). We also did not find support for our
220 hypothesis that species would produce N-rich leaves in warm dry regions (Jardine et al. 2020;
221 Sandel et al. 2021). Nitrogen in plant leaves can be allocated to a variety of processes including
222 photosynthesis, defense against herbivory (e.g., secondary metabolites), and leaf structure (e.g.,
223 investment in cell wall proteins) (Funk et al. 2013). Thus, intraspecific variation in allocation to
224 these processes may have masked some relationships between climate and water-use efficiency
225 as it relates to total Nmass. Alternatively, temperature may not reflect water stress as well as

226 other climate variables such as vapor pressure deficit. Indeed, recent work suggests Nmass is
227 negatively related to temperature, but positively related to vapor pressure deficit (Dong et al.
228 2020). Our results generally corroborate previous findings that SLA is not strongly correlated
229 with precipitation (Wright et al. 2004; Sandel et al. 2021). Interspecific variation in SLA is often
230 better explained by temperature (Wright et al. 2004; Moles et al. 2014), such that warmer regions
231 support grasses with higher SLA (Sandel et al. 2021). However, our analysis did not reveal
232 consistently positive intraspecific responses of SLA to temperature either (Fig. 4).

233 There are many reasons why mean climate statistics may not explain variation in plant
234 traits. For instance, two sites with the same mean climate can have drastically different soil water
235 holding capacity depending on soil texture (Noy-Meir 1973; English et al. 2005) which may lead
236 to different trait expressions. Additionally, differences in topographical slope or aspect can alter
237 the local temperature and soil moisture of microclimates within a landscape (Stark and Fridley
238 2022), which may not be accounted for in the coarse climate data from CHELSA (~1 km grid).
239 Plants may also be more responsive to antecedent precipitation and temperature than the mean
240 climate at the time of measurement (Walter et al. 2013). And finally, canopy cover and the
241 presence or absence of vegetation and associated competitive vs. facilitative interactions with
242 neighboring plants can influence resource availability and an individual's realized functional
243 niche (Sthultz et al. 2007). These biotic and abiotic factors can alter local resource availability
244 and plant trait expression leading to unexpected global patterns. Additionally, species vary in
245 their potential for plastic adjustment, a major driver of intraspecific trait variability (Hoffman et
246 al. 2020).

247 Despite these potential caveats and the lack of consistency in trait-climate relationships
248 across species, we did observe many significant individual positive and negative relationships

249 (Table 1). As we hypothesized, variation across species in the direction and strength of these
250 slope coefficients was partially explained by a species' typical form and function. We predicted
251 that species with more acquisitive leaf economics traits (e.g., high Nmass and SLA) would grow
252 taller in warmer and wetter regions (Wright et al. 2004; Shipley 2006). We found some support
253 for this as MAT-height coefficients (and T_{warm} -height coefficients; Fig. S3) across species was
254 positively correlated with a species' mean leaf Nmass (Fig. 5a). Given that species with high
255 Nmass are generally more water-use efficient (Wright et al. 2001), this result could indicate
256 water-use efficient grasses have greater growth potential in areas with higher evaporative
257 demand. Furthermore, species with high SLA grew taller in regions with higher precipitation
258 seasonality, suggesting the height of acquisitive species is maximized in warmer regions with
259 variable climates. Regions with high precipitation seasonality are often characterized by either
260 winter growing seasons (e.g., Mediterranean climate) or monsoon rains (e.g., desert ecosystems)
261 where pulse dynamics drive ecosystem properties and plant resource use strategies (Noy-Meir
262 1973). To be successful in such an environment, many plant species adopt a drought escape
263 strategy characterized by acquisitive traits (e.g., high SLA and Nmass) which allow them to
264 grow quickly and take advantage of temporally scarce soil moisture resources (Kooyers, 2015).
265 The height of such species may be maximized in highly seasonal regions where this strategy is
266 most advantageous. Taken together, this pattern suggests a grass species' mean location along
267 one axis of the global spectrum of plant form and function (e.g., leaf economic traits such as
268 Nmass and SLA) could influence how its traits along a separate axis of variation (e.g., plant size
269 traits such as height) respond to spatial variation in climate. While the data presented in the
270 original global spectrum of plant form and function incorporated many more species with a range

271 of heights (including woody species) (Diaz et al. 2016), our global grass dataset covers a large
272 portion of the herbaceous plant functional space, at least for these three traits (Fig. 1).

273 Interestingly, intraspecific responses of SLA and Nmass to climate also depended on a
274 species' relative location along the leaf economic spectrum. For example, species with high leaf
275 Nmass increased SLA in warmer regions (Fig. 5 h). Higher temperatures impose greater
276 evaporative water stress (De Boeck et al. 2011), so increasing SLA may seem maladaptive.
277 However, species with high Nmass are generally more water-use efficient (Wright et al. 2001).
278 Therefore, the positive effect of temperature on SLA observed elsewhere (Sandel et al. 2021)
279 may only apply to water-use efficient species that can afford to invest in higher SLA and thus
280 greater carbon assimilation as temperature increases, while species with low Nmass decrease
281 SLA to reduce water loss via transpiration. We also observed a positive relationship between
282 mean Nmass and SLA- P_{warm} slope coefficients, which suggests acquisitive species produce
283 leaves with higher SLA in regions with high summer precipitation (Fig. S3). However, this same
284 slope coefficient was negatively correlated with a species' mean SLA, suggesting the oft cited
285 positive effect of precipitation on SLA may be restricted to species with on average low SLA, at
286 least for grasses. Finally, species with on average low Nmass or high SLA increased Nmass in
287 regions with high T_{warm} and low T_{cold} (Fig. S3), implying species with high potential for
288 evapotranspiration (high SLA) or low average water use efficiency (low Nmass) may increase
289 Nmass to compensate for an inefficient water use strategies in temperate regions with hot
290 summers and cold winters. This suggests functionally similar responses are achieved through
291 either high SLA or low Nmass, which is intriguing given the positive correlation of these traits
292 among species (Fig. 3).

293 We found fewer significant effects of plant height on intraspecific trait-climate
294 coefficients. Notably, taller species grew taller and produced leaves with lower Nmass in regions
295 with greater precipitation seasonality (Fig. 5 c and f). Plant height is indicative of both
296 competitive vigor and biomass production in grasses (Westoby 1998; Cornelissen et al. 2003;
297 Chieppa et al. 2020). Therefore, this result suggests competitive grass species become even more
298 competitive, but perhaps less water-use efficient in regions with high variation in precipitation,
299 such as desert ecosystems. It is unclear what drives this pattern; however, tall plants often have
300 thicker roots (Garbowski et al. 2021) which may allow them to acquire more water and invest
301 less in their N-based water use efficiency in climatically variable environments.

302 Annual and perennial plants differed from one another in their resource use strategies and
303 leaf economics (Fig. 3). On average, annual grasses were more acquisitive given the need for
304 them to complete their lifecycle within one growing season. As such, we hypothesized these two
305 functional groups would differ in their trait responses to climate. Indeed, we found the traits of
306 annuals and perennials often responded to climate in an opposite manner, which likely explains
307 why we observed both positive and negative trait-climate coefficients (Fig. 4). Compared to
308 perennials, annual grasses grew taller in regions with low climate seasonality (Fig. 5) suggesting
309 consistent resource availability is conducive to growth for these acquisitive species.

310 Additionally, annuals grew taller in regions with relatively wet summers and/or warm dry
311 winters, again indicative of an annual strategy benefiting from optimal growing seasons. We also
312 found that annual species produced leaves with lower Nmass in regions with high precipitation
313 seasonality (Fig. 5). Given that annuals were shorter in such environments, investing in less N-
314 rich leaves may simply be indicative of their slower growth rates. Finally, annual grasses
315 produced leaves with lower SLA in regions with high summer temperature (i.e., more negative

316 SLA-T_{warm} slope coefficients than perennials; Fig. S3) and/or low precipitation seasonality (Fig.
317 5). Reducing SLA in regions with high evaporative demand is likely a mechanism to reduce
318 water loss (Dwyer et al. 2014), which we'd expect for both annuals and perennials, although
319 SLA of perennials was less responsive to summer temperature. While we cannot be sure of the
320 mechanism behind all of these trends, it is clear that the lifespan of grasses has a strong influence
321 on how its traits respond to climate.

322 We also hypothesized that the traits of C₄ grasses would respond to climate differently
323 than C₃ grasses. The carbon concentrating mechanism of C₄ photosynthesis means C₄ grasses can
324 achieve higher water use efficiency than C₃ plants, particularly at warm temperatures (Still et al.
325 2003), which is likely to impact how species respond morphologically to climate. However,
326 photosynthetic pathway was not a significant predictor in any of our PGLS models. The C₄
327 photosynthetic pathway has evolved multiple times across the grass family, but still shows very
328 strong phylogenetic signal (Sage 2004). Thus, it may be difficult to separate the role of the
329 photosynthetic pathway with other similarities due to shared descent.

330 Earth's climate is rapidly changing and there is an urgent need to understand how plant
331 species will respond. Intraspecific relationships between plant traits and climate can benchmark
332 predictions of how individuals of a species may respond to environmental change. While many
333 of the species-specific trait-climate relationships we explored were not significant, variation in
334 trait-climate sensitivity (i.e., slope coefficients) across species was explained by a species'
335 typical form and function (e.g., SLA, Height, leaf Nmass, and lifespan). The results here provide
336 evidence for the hypothesis that the location of a species within the global spectrum of plant
337 form and function influences the direction and slope of its intraspecific trait-climate relationship.

338 However, independent studies beyond grasses are still needed to confirm and generalize these
339 results.

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Table 1. The number of slope coefficients from individual simultaneous autoregressive models that were positive or negative. The number of slope coefficients that were significantly different from zero ($p < 0.05$) are shown in parentheses. MAP = mean annual precipitation; MAT = mean annual temperature; PS = precipitation seasonality; TS = temperature seasonality; SLA = specific leaf area; Nmass = mass-based leaf nitrogen content; Height = plant height.

	SLA				Nmass				Height			
	MAP	MAT	PS	TS	MAP	MAT	PS	TS	MAP	MAT	PS	TS
# Positive	60 (20)	55 (20)	58 (19)	47 (16)	31 (15)	28 (11)	34 (13)	27 (12)	38 (15)	37 (17)	33 (16)	36 (15)
# Negative	49 (22)	54 (15)	51 (22)	62 (24)	30 (10)	33 (11)	27 (11)	34 (11)	28 (12)	29 (12)	33 (15)	30 (26)
Total	109 (42)	109 (35)	109 (41)	109 (40)	61 (25)	61 (22)	61 (24)	61 (23)	66 (27)	66 (29)	66 (31)	66 (41)

Figure Descriptions

Figure 1. Hypothetical framework describing how a species' typical form and function may influence its intraspecific trait sensitivity to climate. The central PCA depicts a partial projection of the global spectrum of plant form and function *sensu* Diaz et al. (2016) using only the traits involved in the present study. The solid arrows depict the direction and weighting of vectors describing three traits: leaf mass per area (LMA; the inverse of SLA), leaf nitrogen content (Nmass) and plant height (H). The colored clouds represent high (red) and low (yellow) probability of species occurrence in the trait space, with contour lines indicating 0.5, 0.95 and 0.99 quantiles. The mean traits of the 122 grass species included in this analysis are overlaid on the PCA as larger points colored by annual (orange) or perennial lifespan (white). These species are well distributed within the herbaceous plant trait space (lower left cloud). While each point represents the mean traits for a single grass species, there is known intraspecific variation to that mean, which may be driven by climate. Depicted on the left and right are hypothetical intra-specific relationships between height and precipitation for two species of similar mean height but drastically different leaf economic strategies. Each point in these relationships represents an individual of that species along a spatial gradient of precipitation. We hypothesize that individuals of more acquisitive species (left panel) should be able to acquire resources more efficiently than conservative species (right panel) and thus grow larger where resources are more plentiful. The PCA was created using the PhenoSpace shiny application (Segrestin et al. 2021).

Figure 2. Global distribution of grass trait measurements for (A) specific leaf area (SLA), (B) mass-based leaf nitrogen content (Nmass), and (C) maximum plant height. For clarity, data are binned with the density of measurements depicted as a gradient from low (purple) to high

(yellow). The number of measurements and species covered varied by trait with 2648 measurements of SLA for 109 species, 1359 measurements of Nmass for 61 species, and 1439 measurements of plant height 66 species. (D) Our measurements span the major terrestrial biomes, as defined by mean annual temperature and precipitation, but are concentrated in grasslands and shrublands. The Whittaker plot of biomes was produced using the *plotbiomes* package (Stefan and Levin 2018).

Figure 3. Standard major axis (SMA) regressions between the log-transformed continuous traits of interest: specific leaf area (SLA), mass-based leaf nitrogen content (Nmass), and maximum plant height (panels A, D, and G). The black lines in panels A and G are the significant SMA regression relationships and grey bands depict bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals around these relationships. We did not observe a significant correlation between height and SLA (panel D) so no line is shown. Mean trait values (\pm standard errors) for perennial and annual as well as C₃ and C₄ grasses are shown in panels to the right along with p-values if significant differences were observed.

Figure 4. Boxplots showing the distribution of the slope coefficients from simultaneous autoregressive (SAR) models of the form: Trait ~ MAP + MAT + PS + TS. The trait-climate slope coefficients from these models are grouped in panels based on the climate of interest and color coded based on the trait. On average, each trait-climate SAR slope coefficients is not significantly different from zero (Bonferroni adj p-values). This is driven by both statistically significant positive and negative responses to climate across species (Table 1).

Figure 5. The effect of a species' mean traits on its intraspecific trait responses to climate.

Shown are partial residual plots (or just means \pm SE for categorical traits) for significant predictors of intraspecific trait-climate slope coefficients including: Height-climate slope coefficients (A-E; in blue), Nmass-climate slope coefficients (F-G; in yellow), and SLA-climate slope coefficients (H-K; in grey). The slope coefficients (on the y-axis in each panel) are the response variables in the phylogenetic generalized least squares regression models shown in Table S1, S2, and S3. Grey bands represent the 95% confidence interval for the partial residual plots.

Figure 1

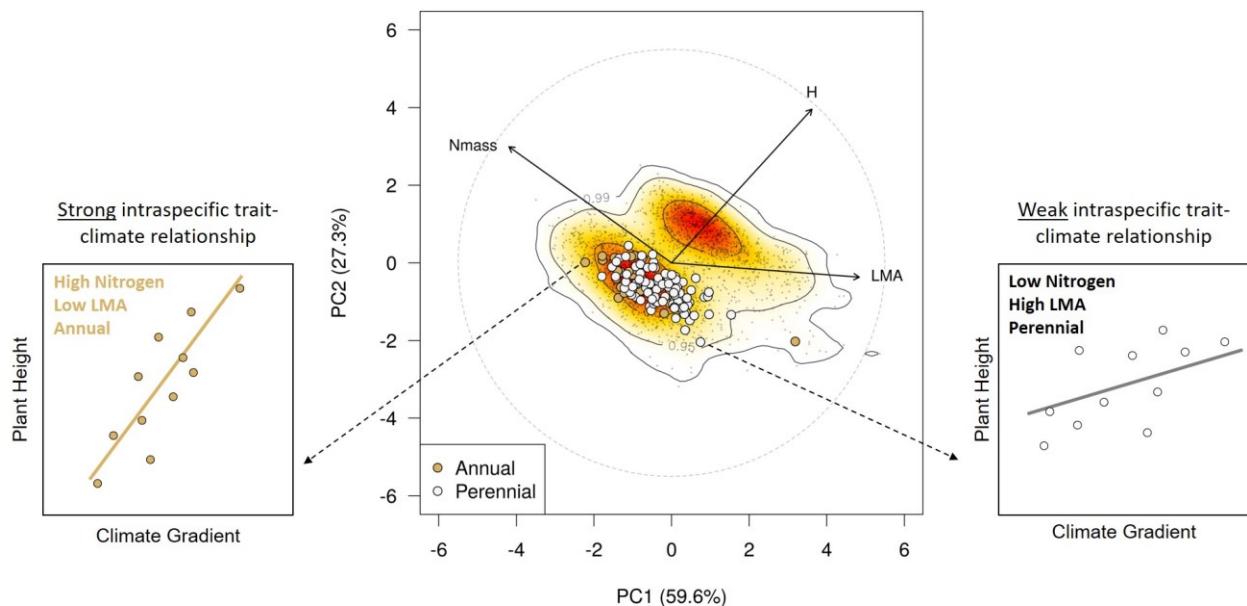


Figure 2

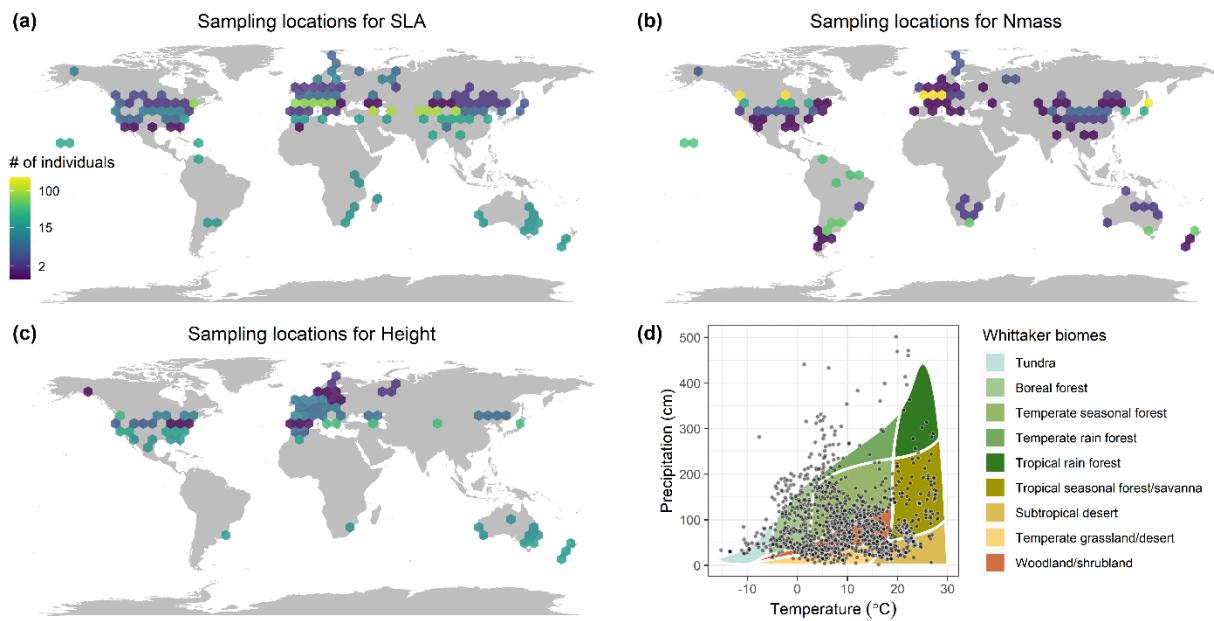


Figure 3

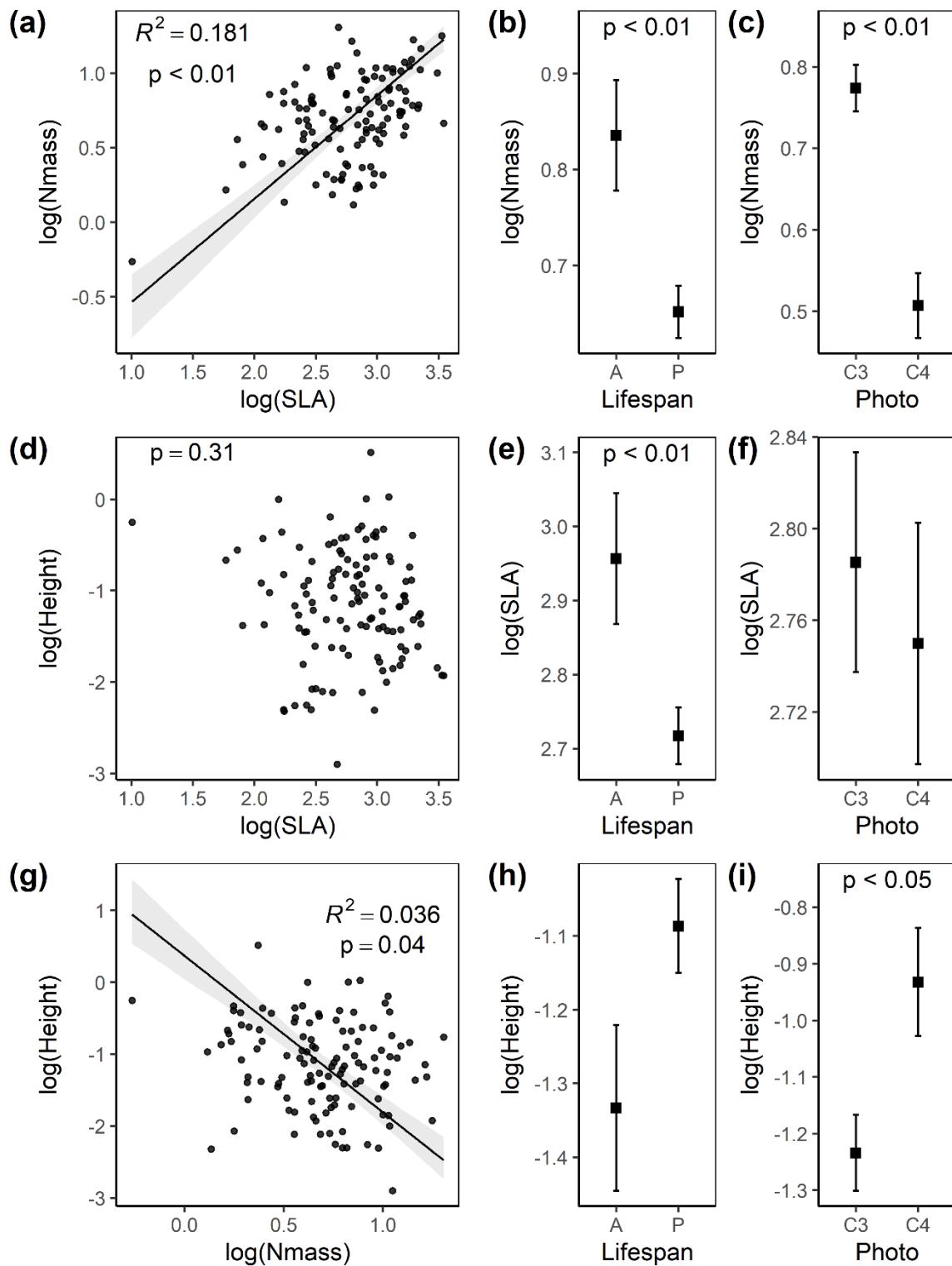


Figure 4

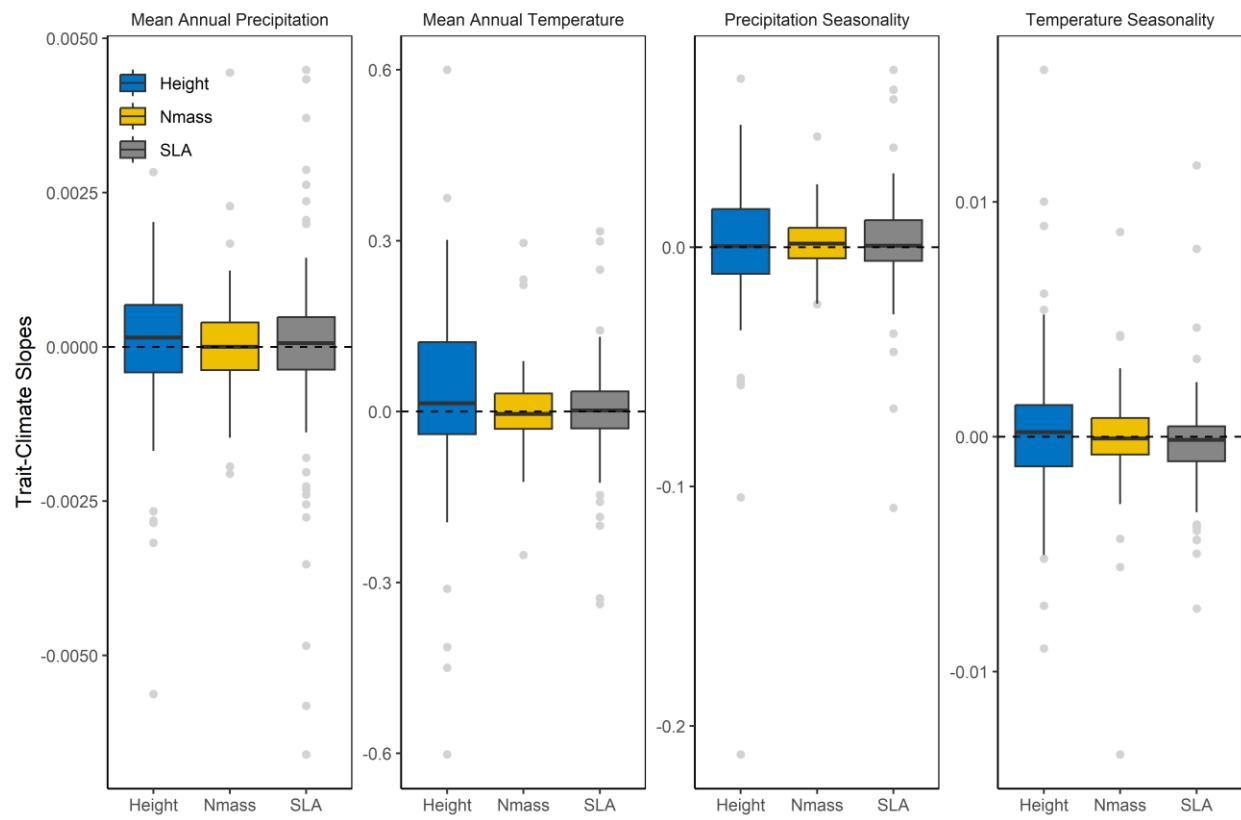


Figure 5

