

# Evolutionary lineage explains trait variation among 75 coexisting grass species

Ryan C. Donnelly<sup>1</sup> , Emily R. Wedel<sup>1</sup> , Jeffrey H. Taylor<sup>1</sup> , Jesse B. Nippert<sup>1</sup> , Brent R. Helliker<sup>2</sup> , William J. Riley<sup>3</sup> , Christopher J. Still<sup>4</sup>  and Daniel M. Griffith<sup>4,5</sup> 

<sup>1</sup>Division of Biology, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, USA; <sup>2</sup>Department of Biology, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA; <sup>3</sup>Climate and Ecosystem Sciences Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA; <sup>4</sup>Forest Ecosystems and Society, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR 97331, USA; <sup>5</sup>Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, Wesleyan University, Middletown, CT 06459, USA

## Summary

Authors for correspondence:

Ryan C. Donnelly

Email: [ryandonnelly@ksu.edu](mailto:ryandonnelly@ksu.edu)

Jesse B. Nippert

Email: [nippert@ksu.edu](mailto:nippert@ksu.edu)

Received: 25 December 2022

Accepted: 4 April 2023

*New Phytologist* (2023) **239**: 875–887

doi: 10.1111/nph.18983

**Key words:** ecosystem models, grassland, life history, lineage-based functional types, photosynthetic pathway, physiological traits, structural traits, tallgrass prairie.

- Evolutionary history plays a key role driving patterns of trait variation across plant species. For scaling and modeling purposes, grass species are typically organized into C<sub>3</sub> vs C<sub>4</sub> plant functional types (PFTs). Plant functional type groupings may obscure important functional differences among species. Rather, grouping grasses by evolutionary lineage may better represent grass functional diversity.
- We measured 11 structural and physiological traits *in situ* from 75 grass species within the North American tallgrass prairie. We tested whether traits differed significantly among photosynthetic pathways or lineages (tribe) in annual and perennial grass species.
- Critically, we found evidence that grass traits varied among lineages, including independent origins of C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis. Using a rigorous model selection approach, tribe was included in the top models for five of nine traits for perennial species. Tribes were separable in a multivariate and phylogenetically controlled analysis of traits, owing to coordination of important structural and ecophysiological characteristics.
- Our findings suggest grouping grass species by photosynthetic pathway overlooks variation in several functional traits, particularly for C<sub>4</sub> species. These results indicate that further assessment of lineage-based differences at other sites and across other grass species distributions may improve representation of C<sub>4</sub> species in trait comparison analyses and modeling investigations.

## Introduction

Over the past 55–60 million years (Myr), the grass family Poaceae has become one of the world's most diverse and dominant plant families. Currently, there are over 11 500 described species spread across 768 genera and 52 tribes (Soreng *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, biomes with significant grassy layers (grasslands and savannas) cover over one-quarter of the earth's terrestrial surface (Asner *et al.*, 2004) and sequester nearly 40 Pg C yr<sup>-1</sup> (Beer *et al.*, 2010). The global-scale emergence of grass-inhabited biomes and the more local-scale grass lineages that came to populate these early biomes led to lineage-specific environmental selection, and clear examples of both divergent and convergent evolution within Poaceae. For example, the Pooideae lineage evolved to be cold-climate specialists (Edwards & Smith, 2010), and the warm-climate Chloridoideae species are arid-land specialists distinct from the warm-climate Andropogoneae species that inhabit mesic sites (Lehmann *et al.*, 2019). One of the clearest examples of convergent evolution in the grasses – and one of the most critical aspects of Poaceae success globally – has been the

evolution of the C<sub>4</sub> photosynthetic pathway. Despite accounting for c. 1% of all species of plants and fewer than half of all grass species (Osborne *et al.*, 2014; Christenhusz & Byng, 2016), C<sub>4</sub> grasses, including crops, cover c. 19 million km<sup>2</sup>, and have been estimated to account for nearly a quarter of total terrestrial gross productivity (Still *et al.*, 2003).

In Poaceae, the C<sub>4</sub> pathway has evolved independently more than 20 times over the past c. 30 Myr (Grass Phylogeny Working Group II, 2012). The evolution of the C<sub>4</sub> pathway is thought to have been selected for by a combination of low atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and high temperature, but additional selective agents include water limitation and increased aridity in the mid-to-late Miocene (Ehleringer *et al.*, 1997; Sage *et al.*, 2018; Zhou *et al.*, 2018). So even within this oft-cited example of convergent evolution, C<sub>4</sub> physiology within the grasses should not be viewed as a single functional type because of the evolutionary momentum of previous divergences and changing selective agents through time. Such considerations extend even more broadly to the whole of Poaceae, where physiological and structural diversity has been selected for and preserved within separate taxonomic lineages across millions of years.

Due to the inherent physiological differences between the C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> photosynthetic pathways, C<sub>4</sub> grasses are often grouped into a single plant functional type (PFT) in macroecological analyses to simplify community structure and diversity (Griffith *et al.*, 2020). These highly abstracted PFTs are also typically used to represent grass functional biodiversity in most land models (Still *et al.*, 2003). These land models integrate a large (but incomplete) array of physical, biological, and chemical processes and are crucial for climate-related decision-making and policy (Lawrence *et al.*, 2019; Burrows *et al.*, 2020). Plant functional types are popular for capturing first-order ecosystem properties because it becomes nearly impossible to account for species-specific structure and function when creating large-scale models representing ecosystem processes (Woodward & Cramer, 1996). While PFTs may simplify the modeling process, important aspects of C<sub>4</sub> grass diversity resulting from their independent evolutionary origins may be overlooked (Edwards *et al.*, 2007, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2012; Zhou *et al.*, 2023). We note that observational studies have found that differences in C<sub>4</sub> grass traits and growth responses are strongly linked to their lineages (Kellogg, 1999; Taylor *et al.*, 2010; Liu & Osborne, 2015).

One approach to capture this type of functional diversity is to categorize grasses into lineage-based functional types (LFTs), whereby grasses are grouped based on their phylogenetic relatedness (Griffith *et al.*, 2020). The importance of distinct lineages within the grass family and their relationships to traits has long been recognized (Hartley, 1950, 1958a,b; Hartley & Slater, 1960). While recent studies have utilized lineage-based classification to investigate trait–environment relationships within Poaceae (He *et al.*, 2009; Forrestel *et al.*, 2017), this approach is still not commonly incorporated into most macroecological analyses. Grouping grass species by evolutionary lineage, as in LFTs, rather than by photosynthetic type, as in PFTs, presents a promising method to capture the broad diversity of species' traits in an evolutionarily consistent framework since many important plant traits are known to be phylogenetically conserved (Edwards *et al.*, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2012; Coelho de Souza *et al.*, 2016). This approach may help prevent crude oversimplifications inherent to C<sub>3</sub> or C<sub>4</sub> PFTs, where a single PFT may include species in distantly related lineages, each potentially having evolved traits unrelated to C<sub>3</sub> or C<sub>4</sub> pathways (Edwards *et al.*, 2007, 2010). Grouping traits by lineage can also explain trait variation, as seen in Edwards *et al.*'s (2007) study, where traits of *Echinochloa* appeared to be outliers in its C<sub>4</sub> PFT group, suggesting that the genus may have traits unique to its independent C<sub>4</sub> lineage. Furthermore, LFT approaches have the potential to be broadly applicable in other ecosystem types and for remote sensing and scaling applications (Anderegg *et al.*, 2022; Griffith *et al.*, 2023; R. Slapikas *et al.*, unpublished).

However, not all traits are phylogenetically conserved (Cadotte *et al.*, 2017), and factors such as photosynthetic type and life history (i.e. whether a species is annual or perennial) also explain a large proportion of trait variation. For example, Liu *et al.* (2019) showed that life history explained more of the variation in structural traits than photosynthetic pathway in grasses, while the C<sub>3</sub>–C<sub>4</sub> contrast in species explained most of the variation in

physiological traits. Thus, an assessment of trait variation within Poaceae is incomplete, and recent work has called for increased collection of grass traits across lineages (Griffith *et al.*, 2020).

Here, we measured 75 species of Poaceae (Fig. 1) and analyzed physiological and structural traits (Table 1) from *in situ* tallgrass prairie populations located at the Konza Prairie Biological Station (KPBS, Manhattan, KS, USA). We present a full suite of traits that span gas-exchange, hydraulic, and key functional traits. Traits were selected based on those that are currently utilized or show promise for future incorporation into large-scale ecosystem models. Our objective was to understand how commonly studied traits vary across lineages and photosynthetic pathways in species that are growing within a single site. We assessed the ability of evolutionary lineage (tribe and C<sub>4</sub> lineage) and photosynthetic pathway to explain trait variability among annual and perennial species. Measuring a suite of traits from a large diversity of species growing at the same site allowed us to categorize trait variation and illustrate the broad diversity of traits that can occur within a single grassland site. We hypothesized that tribe would be the best predictor of traits, more so than photosynthetic pathway. We further hypothesized that there would be substantial variation of traits in species among the seven C<sub>4</sub> lineages represented at our site. We expected this variation because the evolution of C<sub>4</sub> lineages varies biogeographically, and it is expected that these lineages will conserve traits from the climate of the biomes in which they evolved (Edwards *et al.*, 2007; Crisp *et al.*, 2009).

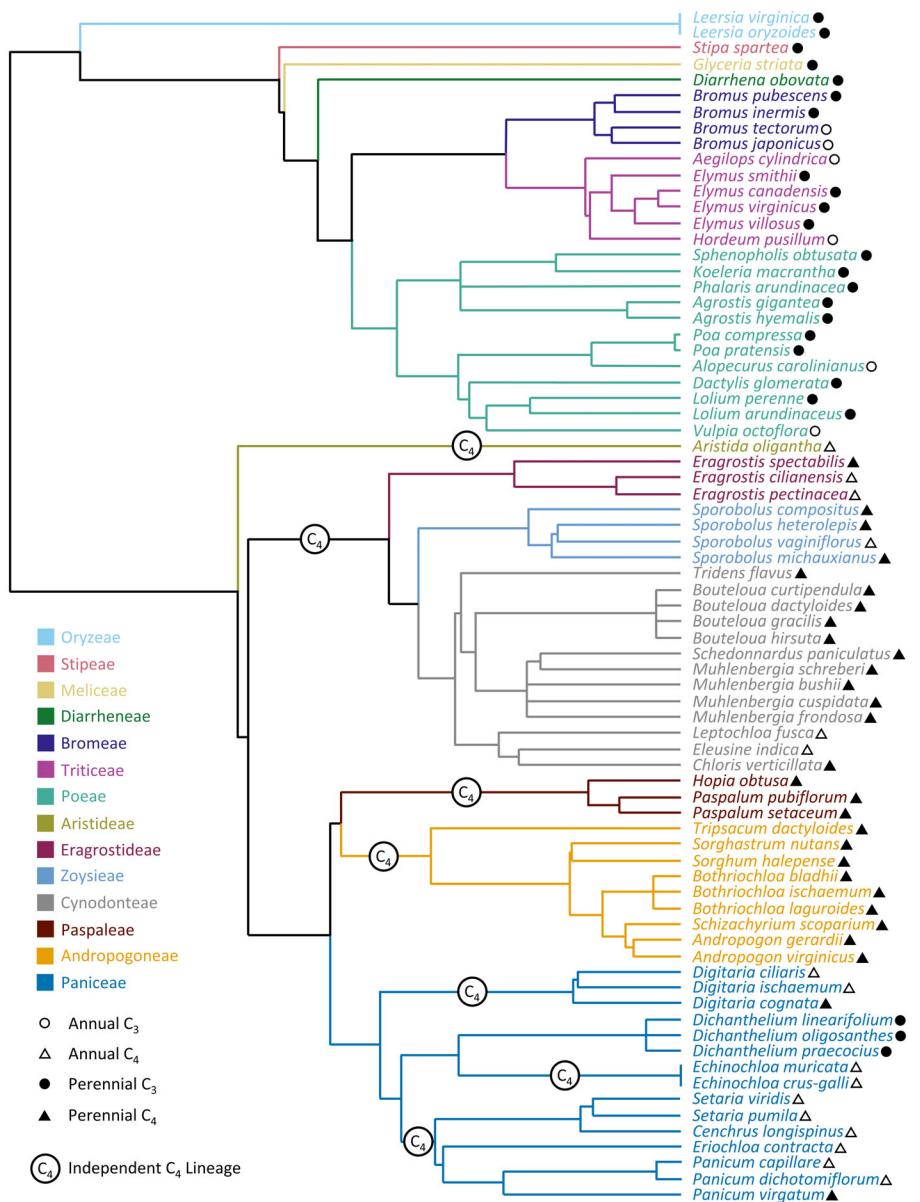
## Materials and Methods

### Site description

Field work and data collection were conducted at the Konza Prairie Biological Station (KPBS), a historically unplowed 3487 ha tallgrass prairie located in the Flint Hills region of northeastern Kansas, USA (39°05', 96°35' W). Konza Prairie Biological Station is divided into 52 different watersheds, each experimentally manipulated in terms of fire frequency (burned once every 1, 2, 4, or 20 yr) and grazing (cattle, bison, or ungrazed). This management of grazing and burning creates a mosaic of microsite conditions that contribute to the high plant species diversity that is representative of the broader tallgrass prairie ecosystem. Mean annual precipitation was 812 mm (1983–2020), the majority (c. 70%) of which was received during the growing season (April–September). Mean growing season temperature was 21°C (1983–2020), during which the mean daytime temperature from 9:00 h to 15:00 h was 24°C.

### Data collection

The flora of KPBS includes 99 grass species comprising annuals, perennials, native, and non-native species (Nippert *et al.*, 2019). In 2020, we sampled 75 grass species that exist within the boundaries of KPBS (Fig. 1). Of the 12 subfamilies and 52 tribes that are currently recognized in Poaceae (Soreng *et al.*, 2017), our study measured species representing five subfamilies (Aristidoideae, Chloridoideae, Oryzoideae, Panicoideae, and Pooideae)



**Fig. 1** Phylogeny of all 75 grass species sampled. The tree was generated using v.PHYLOMAKER (Jin & Qian, 2019). Colors indicate tribe and C<sub>4</sub> markings indicate independent evolution of the C<sub>4</sub> pathway in each lineage.

**Table 1** List of all traits measured in our study.

Trait	Type
Maximum flowering height (cm)	Structural
Maximum vegetative height (cm)	Structural
Specific leaf area (SLA; cm <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )	Structural
Leaf dry matter content (LDMC; g g <sup>-1</sup> )	Structural
Leaf thickness (mm)	Structural
Foliar C : N	Physiological
Osmotic potential (MPa)	Physiological
δ <sup>13</sup> C (‰)	Physiological
V <sub>c</sub> <sub>max</sub> (μmol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	Physiological
J <sub>max</sub> (μmol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	Physiological
V <sub>p</sub> <sub>max</sub> (μmol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	Physiological

and 14 tribes (Fig. 1; Andropogoneae, Aristideae, Bromaeae, Cyndoneteae, Diarrheneae, Eragrostideae, Meliceae, Oryzeae, Paniceae, Paspaleae, Poeae, Stipeae, Triticeae, and Zoysieae).

Importantly, this represented species from seven of the independent C<sub>4</sub> origins in grasses (Fig. 1; Andropogoneae, *Aristida*, Chloridoideae, *Digitaria*, *Echinochloa*, *Paspalum*, and the MPC Clade – the clade which constitutes the subtribes Cenchrinae, Melinidinae, and Panicinae), including the two most dominant lineages globally (Lehmann *et al.*, 2019). Sampling occurred throughout the entirety of the site – there was no specific location for measuring all the species given that we measured naturally established individuals growing within their own viable habitat. Five replicate populations were marked for each species. The replicates varied at distances ranging from a few meters to a few kilometers depending on the abundance of the species to ensure independence. For rare species, it was often difficult to find more than a few individuals across all of KPBS, so replicates of rare species tended to be in closer proximity than the replicates of dominant species. For the dominant species (e.g. *Andropogon gerardii* Vitman) that number in the hundreds of millions of individuals

on-site, capturing the breadth of the population differences was beyond the scope of this project. We also recognize that many of our species were collected in different habitats, such as varying fire regimes, grazing treatments, proximity to water sources, soil type, and canopy cover. However, it is precisely because of this landscape mosaic that KPBS supports such a great diversity of grass species; linking trait differences to specific microsite environmental conditions was not the goal of this project. Instead, our goal was to understand the sympatric trait variability occurring within landscape patterns which many ecosystem models aim to summarize.

A suite of plant traits was collected for each replicate in coordination with the initiation of flowering for each species (Table 1). We used flowering as a key phenological event to synchronize trait measurements. Traits measured include photosynthetic  $A-C_i$  response curves (to derive  $V_{C_{\max}}$ ,  $J_{\max}$ , and  $V_{P_{\max}}$  (for  $C_4$  species)), leaf osmotic potential at full turgor (MPa), specific leaf area (SLA;  $\text{cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ), leaf dry matter content (LDMC;  $\text{g g}^{-1}$ ), leaf thickness (mm), maximum plant flowering and vegetative heights (cm), foliar C : N, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  leaf composition.  $V_{C_{\max}}$  is the maximum rate of carboxylation of Rubisco ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ),  $J_{\max}$  is the maximum rate of electron transport ( $\mu\text{mol electrons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), and  $V_{P_{\max}}$  is the maximum rate of carboxylation of PEPc ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).

Leaf gas exchange was measured with a LI-6400XT Portable Photosynthesis System (Li-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) on leaves for two to three replicates of each species. Measurements were taken between 9:00 h and 15:00 h on healthy, fully expanded leaves and were not affected by diel increases in temperatures or midday depression in assimilation (Supporting Information Fig. S1). Gas exchange measurements for  $A-C_i$  response curves were collected by taking measurements at eight concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the following order: 400, 300, 200, 100, 50, 500, 800, and 1000  $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol}^{-1}$ . The in-chamber PAR intensity was fixed at 2000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , relative humidity was maintained between 40% and 60%, and the leaf was allowed a minimum of 90 s to a maximum of 450 s to equilibrate between changes in  $[\text{CO}_2]$ . Measurements were taken in optimal ambient light conditions with little-to-no cloud cover. Electron transport rate ( $J_{\max}$ ) and maximum carboxylation ( $V_{C_{\max}}$ ) for  $C_3$  species were determined using the curve-fitting procedures described in the 'PLANTECOPHYS' R package (Duursma, 2015). For  $C_4$  species, we used the Excel curve fitting procedure described by Zhou *et al.* (2019).  $A-C_i$  parameters were corrected to a common leaf temperature (25°C).

Osmotic potential, a trait linked to drought tolerances of species and related to the turgor loss point (Bartlett *et al.*, 2012a,b), was measured using a Vapro® Vapor Pressure Osmometer (Model 5600; Logan, UT, USA) for three leaf replicates of each species. For each replicate, one individual grass tiller was harvested and subsequently clipped with the stem underwater. The stems remained underwater overnight before osmotic potential measurements were taken the next day. Our measurement protocol followed Griffin-Nolan *et al.* (2019). In brief, a single, fully hydrated leaf was removed from the grass tiller, punched with a 5-mm leaf tissue punch, and quickly wrapped in aluminum foil

before being submerged in liquid nitrogen for 1 min. Once removed, the frozen tissue was immediately pierced to lyse cell contents. This tissue was then equilibrated in the osmometer's tissue chamber for 10 min before measurement.

For leaf measurements, one leaf was taken from each replicate. Leaf area was measured in the field using Leafscan, a mobile app for measuring the surface area of individual leaves (Anderson & Rosas-Anderson, 2017). Leaf wet mass was measured after leaf rehydration, and leaf dry mass was measured after the leaf had been dried for at least 48 h at 60°C. Rehydration was performed by submerging the leaf in water for 24–72 h. Leaf thickness was derived from  $(\text{SLA} \times \text{LDMC})^{-1}$  and multiplied by 10 to convert to mm (Vile *et al.*, 2005). SLA ( $\text{cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) was calculated as the leaf area divided by the leaf dry mass and LDMC ( $\text{g g}^{-1}$ ) was calculated as the leaf dry mass divided by the leaf wet mass.

Maximum flowering height and maximum vegetative height (cm) were measured from the ground to the highest point of the inflorescence or the uppermost leaf, respectively. At each replicate, five randomly selected individuals were measured; the tallest inflorescence and tallest leaf were used for maximum heights.

Leaf C and N content and stable C isotopic composition were measured at the Stable Isotope Mass Spectrometry Laboratory at Kansas State University. For each replicate, five leaves were dried at 60°C for a minimum of 48 h and then homogenized using an amalgamator. Total C and N of homogenized leaf samples were measured following combustion using an Elementar vario Pyro cube coupled to an Elementar Vision mass spectrometer for isotope analysis. Isotopic abundance ratios were converted to  $\delta$  notation using:

$$\delta = \left[ \frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right] \times 1000,$$

where  $R$  is the ratio of heavy ( $^{13}\text{C}$ ) to light ( $^{12}\text{C}$ ) isotopes for the sample and standard, respectively. Working laboratory standards were annually calibrated against the internationally accepted standard, Vienna Pee-Dee Belemnite for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . Within-run and across-run variability of the laboratory working standard (apple leaves) was  $< 0.05\text{‰}$ .

### Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed in R v.4.2.2 (R Core Team, 2022). For each trait, we used linear mixed effects models with photosynthetic pathway, tribe, or  $C_4$  lineage as predictors in separate models and species as a random effect using the 'NLME' package (Pinheiro *et al.*, 2017):

$$\text{Trait} \sim \text{Predictor} + (1|\text{species}).$$

We analyzed annuals and perennials separately, given the important influence of life history on species traits. Annuals have unique life history trade-offs and comprise a small proportion of vegetation abundance at both the local and regional scales in temperate perennial grasslands. However, we included annuals in this study because they add to the diversity of perennial grasslands,

**Table 2** Akaike information criterion (AICc) comparisons of models with tribe or photosynthetic pathway as predictors and species as a random effect.

Trait	Life History	Factor	AICc
Maximum flowering height (cm)	Annual	Tribe	142.05
	Perennial	Photosynthetic Pathway	144.02
Maximum vegetative height (cm)	Annual	<b>Tribe</b>	<b>126.38</b>
	Perennial	Photosynthetic Pathway	129.46
Specific leaf area (SLA; $\text{cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ )	Annual	<b>Tribe + Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>124.49</b>
	Perennial	Tribe	138.41
Leaf dry matter content (LDMC; $\text{g g}^{-1}$ )	Annual	Photosynthetic Pathway	140.24
	Perennial	<b>Tribe</b>	<b>165.17</b>
Leaf thickness (mm)	Annual	Photosynthetic Pathway	168.60
	Perennial	<b>Tribe + Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>163.75</b>
Foliar C : N	Annual	Tribe	44.022
	Perennial	<b>Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>40.46</b>
Osmotic Potential (MPa)	Annual	Tribe	45.79
	Perennial	<b>Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>38.82</b>
$V_{\text{c}}^{\text{max}}$ ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )	Annual	Tribe + Photosynthetic Pathway	48.20
	Perennial	<b>Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>321.71</b>
$J_{\text{max}}$ ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ )	Annual	Tribe	<b>340.57</b>
	Perennial	Tribe	872.26
	Annual	<b>Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>914.95</b>
	Perennial	Tribe + Photosynthetic Pathway	870.71
	Annual	Tribe	346.75
	Perennial	<b>Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>386.32</b>
	Annual	Tribe	831.47
	Perennial	<b>Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>878.35</b>
	Annual	Tribe + Photosynthetic Pathway	826.65
	Perennial	<b>Tribe</b>	<b>687.31</b>
	Annual	Photosynthetic Pathway	722.04
	Perennial	Tribe	1699.90
	Annual	Photosynthetic Pathway	1746.69
	Perennial	<b>Tribe + Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>1694.32</b>
	Annual	Tribe	50.51
	Perennial	<b>Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>42.11</b>
	Annual	<b>Tribe</b>	<b>87.83</b>
	Perennial	Photosynthetic Pathway	90.47
	Annual	Tribe + Photosynthetic Pathway	91.05
	Perennial	Tribe	60.71
	Annual	<b>Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>53.44</b>
	Perennial	Tribe	170.89
	Annual	<b>Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>145.42</b>
	Perennial	Tribe + Photosynthetic Pathway	158.74
	Annual	<b>Tribe</b>	<b>347.88</b>
	Perennial	Photosynthetic Pathway	389.86
	Annual	Tribe	870.73
	Perennial	Photosynthetic Pathway	953.61
	Annual	<b>Tribe + Photosynthetic Pathway</b>	<b>862.29</b>

Annual and perennial species were analyzed separately. For perennial species, we also included an additive model with tribe and photosynthetic pathway as predictors. Bolded values indicate lowest AICc value ( $\pm 2$ ).

have unique traits, and can dominate disturbed microsites. For annuals and perennials separately, we compared models with tribe or photosynthetic pathway as predictors with species as a random effect using Akaike information criterion (AICc):

$\text{Trait} \sim \text{Tribe} + (1|\text{species})$ ,

$\text{Trait} \sim \text{Photosynthetic Pathway} + (1|\text{species})$ .

We did not test whether interactions were present between tribe and photosynthetic pathway in this study given that these

factors are confounded with one another. For instance, only one of the 14 tribes sampled in this study included both  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  species (Paniceae).

For perennial species, we also included an additive model with tribe and photosynthetic pathway as predictors because Paniceae included both  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  perennial species (Table 2):

$\text{Trait} \sim \text{Tribe} + \text{Photosynthetic Pathway} + (1|\text{species})$ ,

We used Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to visually assess whether certain traits were associated with grass

photosynthetic pathway or tribe. Trait values were averaged across the five replicates for each species. Data were log-transformed and standardized to linearize relationships among traits and ensure each variable held equal weight in the analysis. We imputed  $J_{\max}$  and  $V_{C_{\max}}$  for species that had poor or missing  $A-C_i$  curves (9% of perennial species and 13% of annual species) using the 'PCAMETHODS' package (Stacklies *et al.*, 2007; described in Fridley *et al.*, 2022). We ran a separate PCA for perennial and annual species with the imputed dataset using the `princomp` function. To account for the nonindependence of related species in our ordination, we also ran a phylogenetic PCA using the `phyl.pca` function in the 'PHYTOOLS' package (Revell, 2012). The use of phylogenetic PCA also inherently addresses the influence of different species richness values for lineages at Konza Prairie. We ran a one-way ANOVA to assess whether tribe or photosynthetic pathway primarily explained patterns in the two primary axes, PC1 and PC2.

We considered the use of phylogenetic comparative methods (e.g. PGLS; Phylogenetic Generalized Least Squares), which account for trait nonindependence due to phylogenetic distance. However, we were not interested in trait–trait comparisons and focused instead on lineage differences, which PGLS would not allow as lineage is confounded with the phylogenetic covariance structure. Instead, we were interested in major trait differences distinguishing grass lineages and if those differences would be better explained by lineage or by photosynthetic type.

## Results

### Principal component analyses

The conventional PCA and phylogenetic PCA explained a similar amount of variation in PFTs for perennial and annual species (Fig. 2). In the phylogenetic PCA for perennial species, the association of foliar C : N, plant height, and LDMC is somewhat tighter, and overall alignment of SLA with PC1 is strengthened compared with conventional PCA (Fig. 2a,b). Additionally, the similarity in our PCA and phylogenetic PCA provides confidence that the differing species richness levels for lineages at Konza Prairie do not significantly bias our results. For perennial species, PC1 and PC2 significantly varied by tribe and photosynthetic pathway in the conventional PCA (Table S1; Fig. 2a).  $A-C_i$  parameters,  $V_{C_{\max}}$ , and  $J_{\max}$  differentiated  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  species along PC2 and  $C_4$  species were correlated with high LDMC and foliar C : N. Similar patterns were found when controlling for phylogeny, and PC2 strongly varied by photosynthetic pathway ( $P < 0.001$ ; Table S1) but PC1 did not ( $P > 0.05$ ; Table S1; Fig. 2b). Specific leaf area and leaf thickness were negatively associated with one another and orthogonal to  $V_{C_{\max}}$  in both the conventional and phylogenetic PCA.

For annual species, PC1 and PC2 did not significantly vary by photosynthetic pathway but did vary by tribe ( $P = 0.05$  and 0.006, respectively; Table S1; Fig. 2c). The Paniceae tribe contained the most species and was clustered and strongly associated with leaf thickness and height. Similar to perennial species, the

phylogenetic PCA showed similar patterns and trait associations as the conventional PCA (Table S1; Fig. 2c,d).

### Annual grasses

The following traits significantly differed among tribes for annual grasses: maximum flowering height, maximum vegetative height, SLA, LDMC, foliar C : N, and  $V_{C_{\max}}$  (Fig. S2; Table S2). Only two traits,  $V_{C_{\max}}$  and  $J_{\max}$ , differed significantly among  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  species, and both are photosynthetic traits (Tables S2, S3). Importantly, structural traits did not significantly differ between  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  annual grasses.

We used AICc to assess the best model for each trait (Table 2). Grouping species by photosynthetic pathway was the best model for SLA, LDMC, leaf thickness, osmotic potential, and  $V_{C_{\max}}$ . Grouping species by tribe was the best model for C : N and  $J_{\max}$ . Two traits, maximum flowering height and maximum vegetative height, did not favor models grouping species by tribe or photosynthetic pathway (AICc scores did not differ by  $> 2$ ).

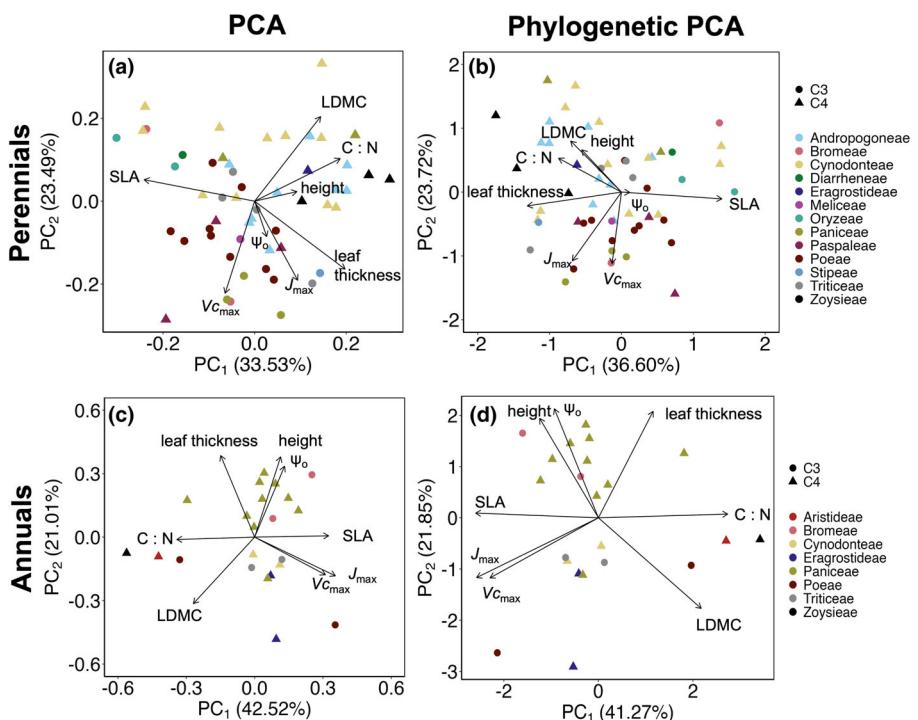
### Perennial grasses

The following traits significantly differed among tribes for perennial grasses: maximum flowering height, maximum vegetative height, SLA, LDMC, leaf thickness, foliar C : N, and osmotic potential (Fig. 3; Table S4). Only three traits differed among  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  perennial grasses: LDMC, C : N, and  $V_{C_{\max}}$  (Tables S3, S4).

We used AICc comparisons of these models to further assess the best model for each trait (Table 2). Of these nine traits, the 'best' model for five traits was either tribe or the additive model (photosynthetic pathway + tribe). In every instance where the best model was the additive model, the second-best model was tribe, indicating that tribe was the more important predictor driving these results compared with photosynthetic pathway in perennial grasses. Grouping species by tribe was the best model for maximum flowering height, maximum vegetative height, and osmotic potential. Grouping species by photosynthetic pathway was the best model for SLA, LDMC, leaf thickness, and  $V_{C_{\max}}$ . The additive model tribe + photosynthetic pathway was the best model for maximum flowering height, maximum vegetative height, C : N, and  $J_{\max}$ . We note that the additive model and the tribe-only model for maximum flowering height and maximum vegetative height were equal candidates (AICc did not differ by  $> 2$ ).

### $C_4$ lineages

We found that five traits significantly differed across  $C_4$  lineages: maximum flowering height, maximum vegetative height, LDMC,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , and osmotic potential (Fig. 4). Importantly, traits of the two dominant  $C_4$  lineages in our region, the Andropogoneae and the Chloridoideae, varied substantially. On average, members of the Andropogoneae lineage had higher maximum flowering heights (Fig. 4a), maximum vegetative heights (Fig. 4b),  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Fig. 4g), and osmotic potential (Fig. 4h) compared with the Chloridoideae lineage.



**Fig. 2** Conventional Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and phylogenetic PCA of all species and eight functional traits sampled at KPBS. Species are separated by annual and perennial life histories. Points are classified by C<sub>3</sub> (circle) and C<sub>4</sub> (triangle) photosynthetic pathways. Colors represent grass tribes. Boxplots for visual representation for how variation of traits is partitioned among tribes and photosynthetic pathways for the two primary PCA axes are available in Supporting Information Figs S3–S6.

### $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and C<sub>4</sub> subtype

We also found significant differences in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  by C<sub>4</sub> biochemical subtype (PCK, NAD-ME, and NADP-ME;  $P < 0.0001$ ; Table S5). PCK species had the lowest  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $-13.99 \pm 0.17\text{‰}$ ), a similar value to that of NAD-ME species ( $-13.84 \pm 0.09\text{‰}$ ), while NADP-ME species had the highest  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  ( $-12.70 \pm 0.06\text{‰}$ ). *Bouteloua curtipendula* (Michx.) Torr., a mixed NAD-ME/PCK species (Gutierrez *et al.*, 1974), had a  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value of  $-13.96 \pm 0.11\text{‰}$ . Lastly, three *Sporobolus* species (*Sporobolus compositus* (Poir.) Merr., *Sporobolus heterolepis* (A. Gray) A. Gray, and *Sporobolus vaginiflorus* (Torr. ex A. Gray) Alph. Wood) had an average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of  $-13.59 \pm 0.11\text{‰}$ . It is not currently known whether these three species utilize NAD-ME or PCK pathways.

## Discussion

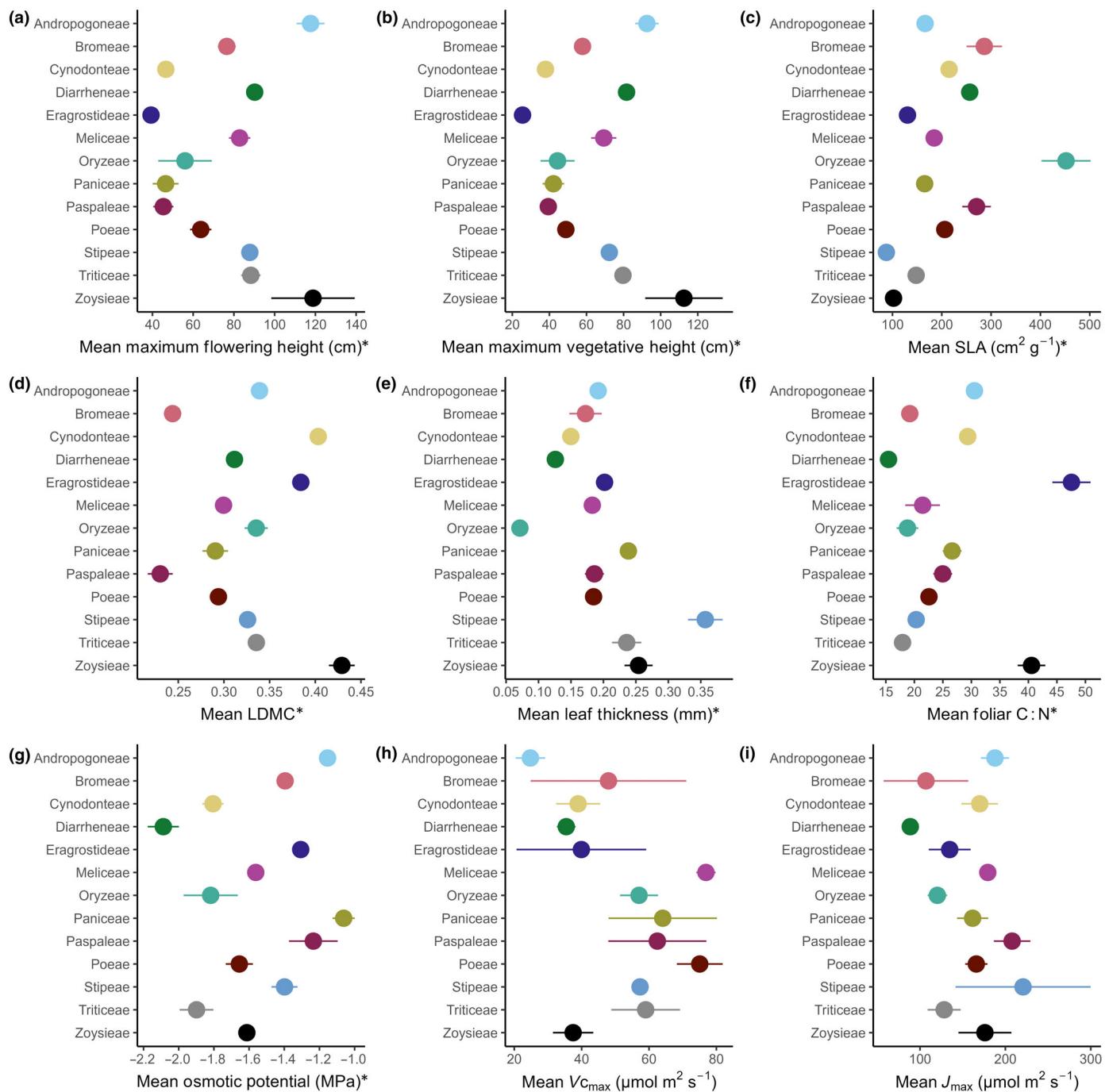
### Evolutionary lineage captures differences in trait variation

Here, we illustrate that grouping grass species based on both PFT (plant functional type) and LFT (lineage-based functional types) frameworks captures structural and ecophysiological trait variation present in a highly diverse community. While our results suggest there are advantages for both grouping frameworks, we first highlight the trait variability exhibited by different lineages of grasses despite all species inhabiting the same site. A framework based on evolutionary relatedness (LFT) reflects key trait differences that occur within a single site without oversimplifying community diversity. A PFT approach to trait measurements in grassy ecosystems, particularly for dominant C<sub>4</sub> grasses, misses important trait variation that exists across the landscape, and the LFT grouping may serve as a constructive framework for

improving functional trait representation in grassland macroecological analyses and ecosystem models (Griffith *et al.*, 2020).

By combining ecophysiological and plant functional trait variability within a multivariate analysis of broad phylogenetic extent, we found previously unobserved patterns of trait coordination among suites of grass functional traits and gas-exchange parameters. While SLA and leaf thickness load strongly onto PC1, we found that V<sub>c</sub>max was orthogonal, being associated more with PC2 and LDMC. This result expands upon previous studies that find stronger relationships between SLA and leaf thickness than with LDMC (e.g. Niinemets, 2001; Griffith *et al.*, 2016). Similarly, this result complements patterns of coordination between hydraulic traits and LDMC (Griffith *et al.*, 2016; Griffin-Nolan *et al.*, 2023) that are critical for describing ecosystem drought responses (Blumenthal *et al.*, 2020; Wilcox *et al.*, 2021). In our phylogenetically controlled analysis, tall plants with higher LDMC and foliar C:N are associated with lower V<sub>c</sub>max. Expected leaf economics patterns between SLA and C:N were maintained in both annuals and perennials. Overall, these patterns contributed to a strong clustering by tribe in ordination space for both annuals and perennials.

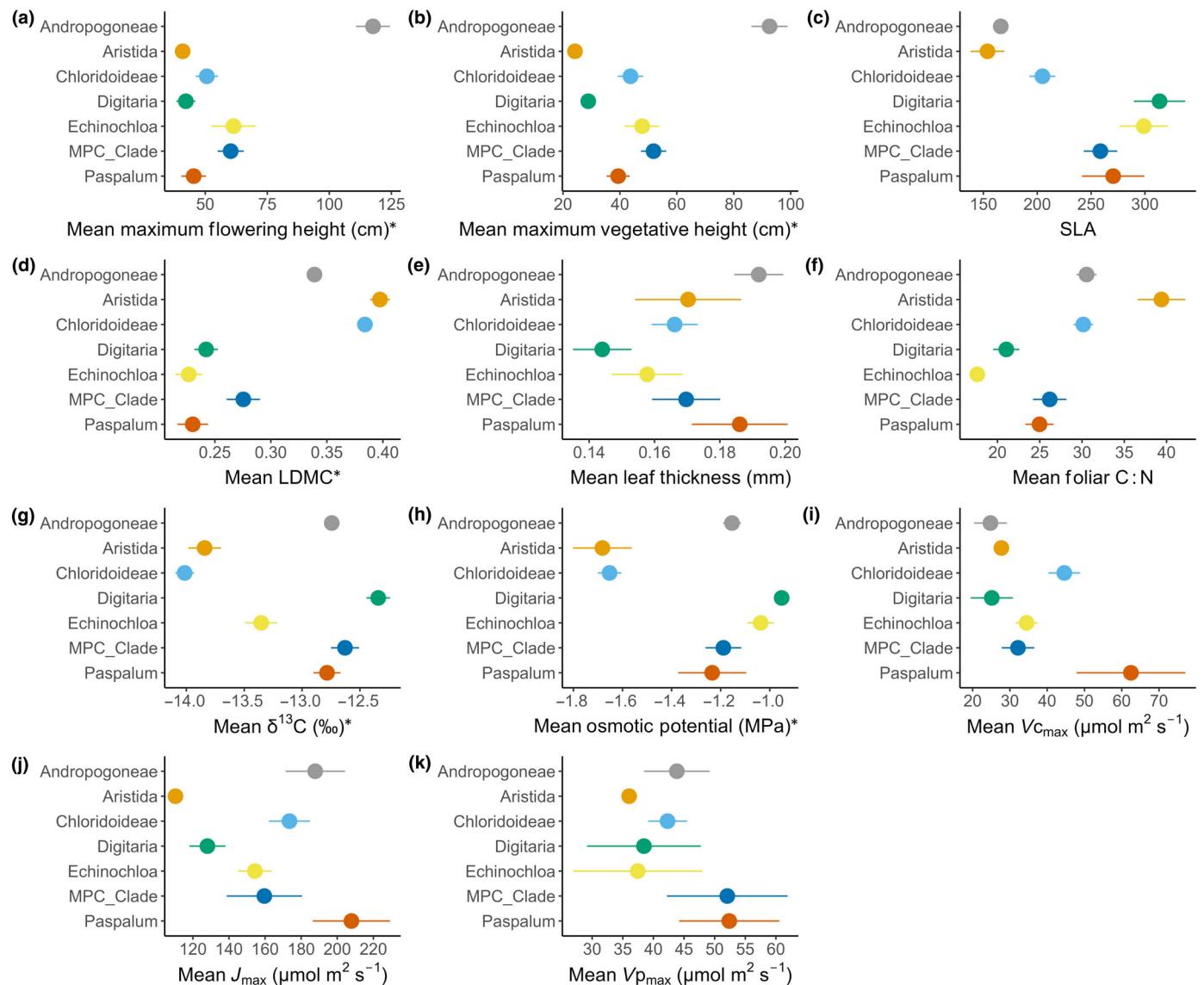
Structural traits are commonly measured in plant surveys to draw inferences on plant life history strategies and physiology at large scales (Wright *et al.*, 2004; Reich, 2014). In our grassland system, photosynthetic type did not explain any differences found in structural traits except C:N and LDMC in perennial grasses (Tables S3, S4). By contrast, between both annual and perennial grasses there were significant differences found among tribes for all structural traits except the leaf thickness of annual species (Tables S2, S4). Structural traits are typically indicative of the life history strategy utilized by a particular species (Liu *et al.*, 2019). Slower growing, perennial species tend to allocate



**Fig. 3** Mean values for the structural and physiological traits in perennial grass species grouped by tribe. Error bars represent  $\pm 1\text{SE}$ . \*Indicates traits that significantly differed by tribe ( $P < 0.05$ ). LDMC, Leaf dry matter content; SLA, specific leaf area.

greater resources toward nonphotosynthesizing tissues, trading off maximizing photosynthesis for resource intensive and more durable leaves and stems, along with a high investment in the root system for acquiring water, nutrients, and prolonging life span (Grime, 1977; Monaco *et al.*, 2003; Reich, 2014). By contrast, fast-growing annual species allocate most resources toward producing thin, broad leaves to quickly maximize photosynthesis, investing energy into reproductive tissue before senescence (Grime, 1977; Garnier & Laurent, 1994; Garnier *et al.*, 1997;

Reich, 2014). However, results from this study demonstrate stark differences in structural traits among tribes containing annual and perennial life histories. For instance, the perennial species we measured in Andropogoneae, a globally dominant tribe in high precipitation and fire-prone grassy ecosystems, had lower SLA and LDMC and greater leaf thickness, maximum flowering height, and maximum vegetative height than perennial species in another dominant tribe, Cynodonteae, which tends to dominate drier sites than Andropogoneae (Fig. 3). We highlight these



**Fig. 4** Mean values for the structural and physiological traits in  $C_4$  species grouped by  $C_4$  lineage. Error bars represent  $\pm 1SE$ . Each of these lineages represents an independent origin of  $C_4$  photosynthesis. \*Indicates traits that significantly differed by  $C_4$  lineage ( $P < 0.05$ ). LDMC, Leaf dry matter content; SLA, specific leaf area.

differences because these dominant, perennial species in our grassland system all have the same life history strategy but differ in their structural traits. Furthermore, such trait differences may also facilitate co-occurrence of closely related, dominant species (Gray & Smith, 2022). Our results show many commonly measured structural traits do not vary by photosynthetic type in this grassland despite known growth advantages of the  $C_4$  photosynthetic pathway in hot environments (Atkinson *et al.*, 2016; Simpson *et al.*, 2020). These important distinctions among perennial species in dominant lineages are not captured when grouping grasses by photosynthetic pathway.

We also highlight that unusual trait variation among species may be best understood when models are based on evolutionary lineage. For example, the Oryzeae tribe directly contradicts some conventional expectations for perennial species. In our study, Oryzeae consisted of two perennial  $C_3$  species (*Leersia virginica*

Willd. and *Leersia oryzoides* (L.) Sw.), both of which exhibited traits typical of annual species. For instance, Oryzeae had the highest mean SLA and the lowest mean leaf thickness among both annual and perennial grasses (Figs 3c,e, S2c,e). In studies that do not consider phylogeny, this stark outlier may appear unusual. Both species share the same genus and occupy similar niches in the tallgrass ecosystem; they are rhizomatous species that grow near streams and within wet areas (Darris & Bartow, 2004; Ritz, 2012) and bloom later in the season than almost any other  $C_3$  grass species at KPBS. It may not be as important for these species to invest heavily in expensive stem or leaf tissues since they occupy entirely different habitats than dominant grass species at KPBS. Although *Leersia* is a dominant genus in grasslands in other regions of the world, such as in South America (Dirven, 1965; Medina & Motta, 1990; Andrade *et al.*, 2019), these two *Leersia* species are not ecologically dominant in this

region and do not contribute greatly to broad ecosystem function in North American tallgrass prairie. However, they provide an excellent illustrative example of how species can have traits that differ from common predictions made based on life histories or photosynthetic pathways.

### Trait variation within the C<sub>4</sub> photosynthetic pathway

Beyond analyzing trait variation solely from different tribes, we also analyzed how traits differed in unique lineages using the C<sub>4</sub> photosynthetic pathway. Critically, we found that nearly half of the traits we measured varied among C<sub>4</sub> lineages. If all C<sub>4</sub> species were grouped into a singular PFT, this variation would be overlooked. Focusing on the two dominant lineages of C<sub>4</sub> grass in North America (Andropogoneae and Chloridoideae) illustrates this point, as the Andropogoneae evolved to occupy wetter environments than the arid-specializing Chloridoideae (Lehmann *et al.*, 2019). Andropogoneae species measured at our site were taller (Fig. 4a,b) and had higher average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Fig. 4g) and osmotic potential (Fig. 4h), which may reflect differences in water use strategies among these C<sub>4</sub> lineages. Systematic differences in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  within C<sub>4</sub> plant lineages seem to be associated with water use differences among photosynthetic subtypes and are of sufficient magnitude to be considered when choosing end members in isotope studies (Hattersley, 1982). These trait differences suggest grouping grasses by photosynthetic type likely overlooks large differences in ecosystem water and carbon cycling among C<sub>4</sub> plants (Liu & Osborne, 2015). These differences may actually reflect differences in photosynthetic subtype between Chloridoideae (primarily NAD-ME) and Andropogoneae (NADP-ME) that are better captured when grouping grasses by lineage (Liu & Osborne, 2015; Griffith *et al.*, 2020).

### PFTs, lineages, and grassland ecosystem modeling

Our results are consistent with other studies (Taylor *et al.*, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2012; Griffith *et al.*, 2020) that demonstrate the importance of incorporating phylogenetic history into trait comparison analyses. Grouping grasses by lineage allows studies to account for the evolutionary histories of species, where important functional traits may be conserved (Edwards *et al.*, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2012; Coelho de Souza *et al.*, 2016). However, our work also validates the use of PFTs in certain instances. For example, several traits analyzed in this study are known to be highly sensitive parameters in commonly used land models. Differences in measurements of these influential traits disproportionately drive uncertainty in land models outputs, such as gross primary productivity, and include SLA, foliar C:N, and  $V_{\text{Cmax}}$  (Göhler *et al.*, 2013; Ricciuto *et al.*, 2018; Fisher *et al.*, 2019; Huo *et al.*, 2019). Our results from AICc suggest that SLA and  $V_{\text{Cmax}}$  were best represented by PFTs but C:N was best represented by tribe (Table 2). Thus, while SLA and  $V_{\text{Cmax}}$  may be appropriately represented by PFTs in land models, C:N would be better represented by evolutionary lineage.

For use in land models, it may be especially important to consider how well PFTs represent existing trait variation in dominant

lineages of grasses, especially in influential traits. In the CLM4.5, for example, C<sub>4</sub> grasses are represented by a single PFT with a mean  $V_{\text{Cmax}}$  of  $51.6 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  while C<sub>3</sub> grass PFTs have a mean  $V_{\text{Cmax}}$  of  $78.2 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  (Oleson *et al.*, 2013). In our study, the mean  $V_{\text{Cmax}}$  of perennial species in the dominant C<sub>3</sub> tribe Poeae was  $75.1 \pm 6.8 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  (Fig. 3h), indicating that the C<sub>3</sub> PFTs represent our dominant C<sub>3</sub> species well. However, the two dominant C<sub>4</sub> lineages in our study, Andropogoneae and Chloridoideae, have mean  $V_{\text{Cmax}}$  of  $24.8 \pm 4.4 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and  $44.6 \pm 4.2 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively (Fig. 4i). In this case, the C<sub>4</sub> PFT represents Chloridoideae better than the Andropogoneae, indicating that functional trait variation within the Andropogoneae would not be accounted for in CLM4.5 in the North American tallgrass prairie ecosystem. A primary motivation of our study was to better understand and constrain trait variation at a single site that might be represented as one data point in macroecological analyses; however, we acknowledge that there are limitations to this approach. For example, many grassland ecosystems do not have multiple dominant lineages of grasses spanning different photosynthetic pathways.

The trait differences among tribes and C<sub>4</sub> lineages reported here come from species existing in the same local environment within a relatively small geographic site. Despite the high variability in trait values, evolutionary lineage was a strong predictor of alternative trait combinations that allow species to persist in the variable intercontinental climate of tallgrass prairie. If species were sampled at the macroecological scale – across different regions or environments – we expect to see even more distinct trait variation among lineages. Trait differences among lineages shown in this study are likely conservative, as we expect larger variation across sites. Further work comparing the traits of grass species globally is warranted to more accurately determine how traits vary across lineages.

### Conclusions

We found that evolutionary lineage and photosynthetic pathway explain differences in both structural and physiological traits among the 75 species of grasses we measured. Additionally, important structural and physiological traits differed across C<sub>4</sub> lineages, emphasizing how dominant lineages of C<sub>4</sub> grasses may exhibit trait variation within a single grassland site. We conclude that while PFTs represent a valid strategy for grouping grass species for some analyses, incorporating evolutionary history is important for capturing trait diversity among C<sub>4</sub> lineages. This strategy will improve the representation of grass functional diversity and highlight unique trade-offs of grass species to local environmental variability.

### Acknowledgements

We thank KPBS for allowing us to safely wander the prairie during a global pandemic. RCD, ERW, JHT, and JBN were supported by NSF award nos 1926345 and 2025849, CJS and DMG were supported by NSF award no. 1926431, BRH was supported by NSF award no. 1926114, and WJR was supported

by the Director, Office of Science, Office of Biological and Environmental Research of the US Department of Energy under contract no. DE-AC02-802 05CH11231 as part of the Belowground Biogeochemistry SFA. We would also like to thank Mark Mayfield for species identification assistance. Finally, we thank three anonymous reviewers and Dr Iversen for their time and helpful feedback on earlier versions of this manuscript.

## Competing interests

None declared.

## Author contributions

RCD and JBN designed the study. RCD, JBN and JHT collected the data. RCD, ERW, DMG and JBN analyzed the data. RCD, ERW, JHT, JBN, BRH, WJR, CJS and DMG contributed to the revising and editing of the manuscript.

## ORCID

Ryan C. Donnelly  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4628-2376>  
Daniel M. Griffith  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7463-4004>  
Brent R. Helliker  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7621-2358>  
Jesse B. Nippert  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7939-342X>  
William J. Riley  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4615-2304>  
Christopher J. Still  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8295-4494>  
Jeffrey H. Taylor  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1636-9569>  
Emily R. Wedel  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6956-0530>

## Data availability

Trait data collected for this project are available from the Konza Prairie LTER Data Catalog <http://lter.konza.ksu.edu/data> (doi: [10.6073/pasta/f5a57d6436f931690d7f7529f87772db](https://doi.org/10.6073/pasta/f5a57d6436f931690d7f7529f87772db)).

## References

Anderegg LDL, Griffith DM, Cavender-Bares J, Riley WJ, Berry JA, Dawson TE, Still CJ. 2022. Representing plant diversity in land models: an evolutionary approach to make “Functional Types” more functional. *Global Change Biology* 28: 2541–2554.

Anderson CJR, Rosas-Anderson PJ. 2017. LEAFSCAN (v.1.3.21). [Mobile application software]. [WWW document] URL [leafscanapp.com](http://leafscanapp.com) [accessed 04 May 2022].

Andrade BO, Bonilha CL, Overbeck GE, Vélez-Martin E, Rolim RG, Bordignon SAL, Schneider AA, Vogel Ely C, Lucas DB, Garcia ÉN *et al.* 2019. Classification of South Brazilian grasslands: implications for conservation. *Applied Vegetation Science* 22: 168–184.

Asner GP, Elmore AJ, Olander LP, Martin RE, Harris AT. 2004. Grazing systems, ecosystem responses, and global change. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources* 29: 261–299.

Atkinson RRL, Mockford EJ, Bennett C, Christin P-A, Spriggs EL, Freckleton RP, Thompson K, Rees M, Osborne CP. 2016. C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis boosts growth by altering physiology, allocation and size. *Nature Plants* 2: 16038.

Bartlett MK, Scoffoni C, Ardy R, Zhang Y, Sun S, Cao K, Sack L. 2012a. Rapid determination of comparative drought tolerance traits: using an osmometer to predict turgor loss point. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 3: 880–888.

Bartlett MK, Scoffoni C, Sack L. 2012b. The determinants of leaf turgor loss point and prediction of drought tolerance of species and biomes: a global meta-analysis. *Ecology Letters* 15: 393–405.

Beer C, Reichstein M, Tomelleri E, Ciais P, Jung M, Carvalhais N, Rödenbeck C, Arain MA, Baldocchi D, Bonan GB *et al.* 2010. Terrestrial gross carbon dioxide uptake: global distribution and covariation with climate. *Science* 329: 834–838.

Blumenthal DM, Mueller KE, Kray JA, Ocheltree TW, Augustine DJ, Wilcox KR. 2020. Traits link drought resistance with herbivore defence and plant economics in semi-arid grasslands: the central roles of phenology and leaf dry matter content. *Journal of Ecology* 108: 2336–2351.

Burrows SM, Maltrud M, Yang X, Zhu Q, Jeffery N, Shi X, Ricciuto D, Wang S, Bisht G, Tang J *et al.* 2020. The DOE E3SM v1.1 biogeochemistry configuration: description and simulated ecosystem-climate responses to historical changes in forcing. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems* 12: e2019MS001766.

Cadotte MW, Davies TJ, Peres-Neto PR. 2017. Why phylogenies do not always predict ecological differences. *Ecological Monographs* 87: 535–551.

Christenhusz MJM, Byng JW. 2016. The number of known plant species in the world and its annual increase. *Phytotaxa* 261: 201.

Coelho de Souza F, Dexter KG, Phillips OL, Brienen RJW, Chave J, Galbraith DR, Lopez Gonzalez G, Monteagudo Mendoza A, Pennington RT, Poorter L *et al.* 2016. Evolutionary heritage influences Amazon tree ecology. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 283: 20161587.

Crisp MD, Arroyo MTK, Cook LG, Gandolfo MA, Jordan GJ, McGlone MS, Weston PH, Westoby M, Wilf P, Linder HP. 2009. Phylogenetic biome conservatism on a global scale. *Nature* 458: 754–756.

Darris D, Bartow A. 2004. *Plant fact sheet for rice cutgrass (Leersia oryzoides)*. Corvallis, OR, USA: USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service, Plant Materials Center.

Dirven JGP. 1965. Some important grassland types in Surinam. *Netherlands Journal of Agricultural Science* 13: 102–113.

Duursma RA. 2015. PLANTECOPHYS – an R package for analysing and modelling leaf gas exchange data. *PLoS ONE* 10: e0143346.

Edwards EJ, Osborne CP, Strömberg CAE, Smith SA, Bond WJ, Christin P-A, Cousins AB, Duvall MR, Fox DL, Freckleton RP *et al.* 2010. The origins of C<sub>4</sub> grasslands: integrating evolutionary and ecosystem science. *Science* 328: 587–591.

Edwards EJ, Smith SA. 2010. Phylogenetic analyses reveal the shady history of C<sub>4</sub> grasses. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA* 107: 2532–2537.

Edwards EJ, Still CJ, Donoghue MJ. 2007. The relevance of phylogeny to studies of global change. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 22: 243–249.

Ehleringer JR, Cerling TE, Helliker BR. 1997. C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis, atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, and climate. *Oecologia* 112: 285–299.

Fisher RA, Wieder WR, Sanderson BM, Koven CD, Oleson KW, Xu C, Fisher JB, Shi M, Walker AP, Lawrence DM. 2019. Parametric controls on vegetation responses to biogeochemical forcing in the CLM5. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems* 11: 2879–2895.

Forrestel EJ, Donoghue MJ, Edwards EJ, Jetz W, du Toit JCO, Smith MD. 2017. Different clades and traits yield similar grassland functional responses. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA* 114: 705–710.

Fridley JD, Bauerle TL, Craddock A, Ebert AR, Frank DA, Heberling JM, Hinman ED, Jo I, Martinez KA, Smith MS *et al.* 2022. Fast but steady: an integrated leaf-stem-root trait syndrome for woody forest invaders. *Ecology Letters* 25: 900–912.

Garnier E, Cordonnier P, Guillerm J-L, Sonié L. 1997. Specific leaf area and leaf nitrogen concentration in annual and perennial grass species growing in Mediterranean old-fields. *Oecologia* 111: 490–498.

Garnier E, Laurent G. 1994. Leaf anatomy, specific mass and water content in congeneric annual and perennial grass species. *New Phytologist* 128: 725–736.

Göhler M, Mai J, Cuntz M. 2013. Use of eigendecomposition in a parameter sensitivity analysis of the community land model: sensitivity of a land surface model. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Biogeosciences* 118: 904–921.

Grass Phylogeny Working Group II. 2012. New grass phylogeny resolves deep evolutionary relationships and discovers C<sub>4</sub> origins. *New Phytologist* 193: 304–312.

Gray JE, Smith MD. 2022. Contrasting intra-annual population dynamics of two codominant species are consistent across spatial and temporal scales. *Journal of Ecology* 1–11.

Griffin-Nolan RJ, Chieppa J, Knapp AK, Nielsen UN, Tissue DT. 2023. Coordination of hydraulic and morphological traits across dominant grasses in eastern Australia. *Functional Ecology* 37: 1126–1139.

Griffin-Nolan RJ, Ocheltree TW, Mueller KE, Blumenthal DM, Kray JA, Knapp AK. 2019. Extending the osmometer method for assessing drought tolerance in herbaceous species. *Oecologia* 189: 353–363.

Griffith DM, Byrd KB, Taylor N, Allan E, Bittner L, O'Brien B, Parker VT, Vasey MC, Pavlick R, Nemani RR. 2023. Variation in leaf reflectance spectra across the California flora partitioned by evolutionary history, geographic origin, and deep time. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Biogeosciences* 128: e2022JG007160.

Griffith DM, Osborne CP, Edwards EJ, Bachle S, Beerling DJ, Bond WJ, Gallaher TJ, Helliker BR, Lehmann CER, Leatherman L *et al.* 2020. Lineage-based functional types: characterising functional diversity to enhance the representation of ecological behaviour in land surface models. *New Phytologist* 228: 15–23.

Griffith DM, Quigley KM, Anderson TM. 2016. Leaf thickness controls variation in leaf mass per area (LMA) among grazing-adapted grasses in Serengeti. *Oecologia* 181: 1035–1040.

Grime JP. 1977. Evidence for the existence of three primary strategies in plants and its relevance to ecological and evolutionary theory. *The American Naturalist* 111: 1169–1194.

Gutierrez M, Gracen VE, Edwards GE. 1974. Biochemical and cytological relationships in C<sub>4</sub> plants. *Planta* 119: 279–300.

Hartley W. 1950. The global distribution of tribes of the gramineae in relation to historical and environmental factors. *Australian Journal of Agricultural Research* 1: 355.

Hartley W. 1958a. Studies on the origin, evolution and distribution of the Gramineae. I. The tribe Andropogoneae. *Australian Journal of Botany* 6: 116.

Hartley W. 1958b. Studies on the origin, evolution, and distribution of the Gramineae. II. The tribe Paniceae. *Australian Journal of Botany* 6: 343.

Hartley W, Slater C. 1960. Studies on the origin, evolution, and distribution of the Gramineae. III. The tribes of the subfamily Eragrostoideae. *Australian Journal of Botany* 8: 256.

Hattersley P. 1982. δ<sup>13</sup> values of C<sub>4</sub> types in grasses. *Functional Plant Biology* 9: 139.

He J-S, Wang X, Flynn DFB, Wang L, Schmid B, Fang J. 2009. Taxonomic, phylogenetic, and environmental trade-offs between leaf productivity and persistence. *Ecology* 90: 2779–2791.

Huo X, Gupta H, Niu G, Gong W, Duan Q. 2019. Parameter sensitivity analysis for computationally intensive spatially distributed dynamical environmental systems models. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems* 11: 2896–2909.

Jin Y, Qian H. 2019. V.PHYLOMAKER: an R package that can generate very large phylogenies for vascular plants. *Ecography* 42: 1353–1359.

Kellogg E. 1999. Growth responses of C<sub>4</sub> grasses of contrasting origin to elevated CO<sub>2</sub>. *Annals of Botany* 84: 279–288.

Lawrence DM, Fisher RA, Koven CD, Oleson KW, Swenson SC, Bonan G, Collier N, Ghimire B, Van Kampenhout L, Kennedy D *et al.* 2019. The community land model v.5: description of new features, benchmarking, and impact of forcing uncertainty. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems* 11: 4245–4287.

Lehmann CE, Griffith DM, Simpson KJ, Anderson TM, Archibald S, Beerling DJ, Bond WJ, Denton E, Edwards EJ, Forrester EJ *et al.* 2019. Functional diversification enabled grassy biomes to fill global climate space. *BioRxiv*. doi: 10.1101/583625.

Liu H, Edwards EJ, Freckleton RP, Osborne CP. 2012. Phylogenetic niche conservatism in C<sub>4</sub> grasses. *Oecologia* 170: 835–845.

Liu H, Osborne CP. 2015. Water relations traits of C<sub>4</sub> grasses depend on phylogenetic lineage, photosynthetic pathway, and habitat water availability. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 66: 761–773.

Liu H, Taylor SH, Xu Q, Lin Y, Hou H, Wu G, Ye Q. 2019. Life history is a key factor explaining functional trait diversity among subtropical grasses, and its influence differs between C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> species. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 70: 1567–1580.

Medina E, Motta N. 1990. Metabolism and distribution of grasses in tropical flooded savannas in Venezuela. *Journal of Tropical Ecology* 6: 77–89.

Monaco TA, Johnson DA, Norton JM, Jones TA, Connors KJ, Norton JB, Redinbaugh MB. 2003. Contrasting responses of intermountain west grasses to soil nitrogen. *Journal of Range Management* 56: 282.

Niinemets Ü. 2001. Global-scale climatic controls of leaf dry mass per area, density, and thickness in trees and shrubs. *Ecology* 82: 453–469.

Nippert JB, Blair JM, Taylor JH. 2019. PPS01 Konza prairie plant species list. *Environmental Data Initiative*. doi: 10.6073/pasta/60a4887a6843f6fa9f660626ecf38b7a.

Oleson K, Lawrence M, Bonan B, Drewniak B, Huang M, Koven D, Lewis S, Li F, Riley J, Subin M *et al.* 2013. Technical description of v.4.5 of the community land model (CLM) (No. NCAR/TN-503+STR). doi: 10.5065/D6RR1W7M.

Osborne CP, Salomaa A, Kluyver TA, Visser V, Kellogg EA, Morrone O, Vorontsova MS, Clayton WD, Simpson DA. 2014. A global database of C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis in grasses. *New Phytologist* 204: 441–446.

Pinheiro J, Bates D, DebRoy S, Sarkar D, Heisterkamp S, Van Willigen B, Maintainer R. 2017. *Package 'nlme'*. Linear and nonlinear mixed effects models, v.3. [WWW document] URL <https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/nlme/index.html> [accessed 12 December 2022].

R Core Team. 2022. *R: a language and environment for statistical computing*, v.4.2.2. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing.

Reich PB. 2014. The world-wide 'fast-slow' plant economics spectrum: a traits manifesto. *Journal of Ecology* 102: 275–301.

Revell LJ. 2012. PHYLTOOLS: an R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other things). *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 3: 217–223.

Ricciuto D, Sargsyan K, Thornton P. 2018. The impact of parametric uncertainties on biogeochemistry in the E3SM land model. *Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems* 10: 297–319.

Ritz SE. 2012. *Plant guide for whitegrass (Leersia virginica)*. Alderson, WV, USA: USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service, Appalachian Plant Materials Center.

Sage RF, Monson RK, Ehleringer JR, Adachi S, Pearcey RW. 2018. Some like it hot: the physiological ecology of C<sub>4</sub> plant evolution. *Oecologia* 187: 941–966.

Simpson KJ, Bennett C, Atkinson RRL, Mockford EJ, McKenzie S, Freckleton RP, Thompson K, Rees M, Osborne CP. 2020. C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis and the economic spectra of leaf and root traits independently influence growth rates in grasses. *Journal of Ecology* 108: 1899–1909.

Soreng RJ, Peterson PM, Romaschenko K, Davidse G, Teisher JK, Clark LG, Barberá P, Gillespie LJ, Zuloaga FO. 2017. A worldwide phylogenetic classification of the Poaceae (Gramineae) II: an update and a comparison of two 2015 classifications. *Journal of Systematics and Evolution* 55: 259–290.

Stacklies W, Redestig H, Scholz M, Walther D, Selbig J. 2007. PCAMETHODS – a bioconductor package providing PCA methods for incomplete data. *Bioinformatics* 23: 1164–1167.

Still CJ, Berry JA, Collatz GJ, DeFries RS. 2003. Global distribution of C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> vegetation: carbon cycle implications. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles* 17: 6–1.

Taylor SH, Hulme SP, Rees M, Ripley BS, Ian Woodward F, Osborne CP. 2010. Ecophysiological traits in C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> grasses: a phylogenetically controlled screening experiment. *New Phytologist* 185: 780–791.

Vile D, Garnier É, Shipley B, Laurent G, Navas M-L, Roumet C, Lavorel S, Díaz S, Hodgson JG, Lloret F *et al.* 2005. Specific leaf area and dry matter content estimate thickness in laminar leaves. *Annals of Botany* 96: 1129–1136.

Wilcox KR, Blumenthal DM, Kray JA, Mueller KE, Derner JD, Ocheltree T, Porensky LM. 2021. Plant traits related to precipitation sensitivity of species and communities in semiarid shortgrass prairie. *New Phytologist* 229: 2007–2019.

Woodward FI, Cramer W. 1996. Plant functional types and climatic change: introduction. *Journal of Vegetation Science* 7: 306–308.

Wright IJ, Reich PB, Westoby M, Ackerly DD, Baruch Z, Bongers F, Cavender-Bares J, Chapin T, Cornelissen JHC, Diemer M *et al.* 2004. The worldwide leaf economics spectrum. *Nature* 428: 821–827.

Zhou H, Akçay E, Helliker B. 2023. Optimal coordination and reorganization of photosynthetic properties in C<sub>4</sub> grasses. *Plant, Cell & Environment* 46: 796–811.

Zhou H, Akçay E, Helliker BR. 2019. Estimating C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis parameters by fitting intensive  $A/C_i$  curves. *Photosynthesis Research* 141: 181–194.

Zhou H, Helliker BR, Huber M, Dicks A, Akçay E. 2018. C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis and climate through the lens of optimality. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA* 115: 12057–12062.

## Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

**Fig. S1** Diurnal time series of photosynthetic rates at CO<sub>2</sub> = 400 ppm extracted from the A–C<sub>i</sub> curves.

**Fig. S2** Mean values of each trait for annual grass species grouped by tribe.

**Fig. S3** Boxplot of PC1 and PC2 scores for annual species (conventional PCA).

**Fig. S4** Boxplot of PC1 and PC2 scores for annual species (phylogenetic PCA).

**Fig. S5** Boxplot of PC1 and PC2 scores for perennial species (conventional PCA).

**Fig. S6** Boxplot of PC1 and PC2 scores for perennial species (phylogenetic PCA).

**Table S1** *P*-values of PC1 and PC2 for the conventional PCA and phylogenetic PCA of annual and perennial grass species.

**Table S2** *F*, df, and *P* of all trait comparisons with either tribe or photosynthetic pathway as the predictor for annual grasses.

**Table S3** Mean values of each trait for C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> species sorted by life history (annuals and perennials).

**Table S4** *F*, df, and *P* of all trait comparisons with either tribe or photosynthetic pathway as the predictor for perennial grasses.

**Table S5** *F*, df, and *P* of δ<sup>13</sup>C comparisons among C<sub>4</sub> subtypes.

Please note: Wiley is not responsible for the content or functionality of any Supporting Information supplied by the authors. Any queries (other than missing material) should be directed to the *New Phytologist* Central Office.