

1 **Grass leaf structural and stomatal trait responses to climate gradients assessed over the**
2 **20th century and across the Great Plains, USA**

3 **Abstract**

4 Using herbarium specimens spanning 126 years and field-collected measurements, we
5 assessed intraspecific trait (leaf structure and stomata) variability from grass species in the Great
6 Plains of North America. We focused on two widespread, closely-related grasses from tribe
7 Paniceae: *Dichanthelium oligosanthes* subsp. *scribnerianum* (C₃) and *Panicum virgatum* (C₄).
8 Thirty-one specimens per taxon were sampled from local herbaria from the years 1887 – 2013 to
9 assess trait responses across time to changes in atmospheric [CO₂] and growing season
10 precipitation and temperature. In 2021 and 2022, the species were measured from eight
11 grasslands sites to explore how traits vary spatially across natural continental precipitation and
12 temperature gradients.

13 $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ increased with atmospheric [CO₂] for *D. oligosanthes* but decreased for *P.*
14 *virgatum*, likely linked to increases in precipitation in the study region over the past century.
15 Notably, this is the first record of decreasing $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ over time for a C₄ species illustrating ¹³C
16 linkages to climate. As atmospheric [CO₂] increased, C:N increased and ¹⁵N decreased for both
17 species and %N decreased for *D. oligosanthes*. Across a large precipitation gradient, *D.*
18 *oligosanthes* leaf traits were more responsive to changes in precipitation than those of *P.*
19 *virgatum*. In contrast, only two traits of *P. virgatum* responded to increases in temperature across
20 a gradient: specific leaf area (increase) and leaf dry matter content (decrease). The only shared
21 significant trend between species was increased C:N with precipitation. Our work demonstrates
22 that these closely-related grass species with different photosynthetic pathways exhibited various
23 trait responses across temporal and spatial scales, illustrating the key role of scale of inquiry for
24 forecasting leaf trait responses to future environmental change.

26 **Introduction**

27 Plant traits are used to predict species responses to changing environmental conditions
28 including human-induced climate change (Violle et al., 2007; Parmesan & Hanley, 2015), shifts
29 in nutrient cycling (Bouwman et al., 2009), and habitat loss (Helm et al., 2005). The responses of
30 species to environmental change across space and time have consequences for understanding
31 changes to individual water-use strategies (e.g. Voltas et al., 2015; Carlson et al., 2016; Welles &
32 Funk, 2021), plant community composition (e.g. Jiménez et al., 2011; Cleland et al., 2013;
33 Griffin-Nolan et al., 2019), and ecosystem-level nutrient dynamics (e.g. De Graaff et al., 2006;
34 Campbell et al., 2009). These shifts are most commonly assessed by comparing traits across
35 species to understand how environmental change drives shifts in community composition and
36 ecosystem function. However, changes in the environment also impact within-species trait
37 variation (Reich, 2014), and facilitate the existence of some species across large environmental
38 gradients (Bachle et al., 2018). Thus, intraspecific trait variation is a key determinant forecasting
39 responses to future environmental conditions (Violle et al., 2012), including existing spatial
40 variation and assessments of trait responses over time (variation driven by plasticity and/or
41 adaptation).

42 Since the Industrial Revolution, atmospheric CO₂ concentrations have increased from
43 anthropogenic fossil fuel emissions, from around 285 parts per million (ppm) since the year 1850
44 (McCarroll & Loader, 2004) to over 420 ppm as of May 2022 (Keeling et al., 2005). Increased
45 atmospheric [CO₂] increases plant growth and alters plant nutrient concentrations and water-use
46 strategies (Ainsworth & Long, 2005). One major response has been the increased ratio of carbon
47 (C) to nitrogen (N) in plant tissues over time (Peñuelas & Matamala, 1990, McLaughlan et al.,
48 2010; McLaughlan et al., 2017; Brookshire et al., 2020; Peñuelas et al., 2020). All else equal, as
49 atmospheric [CO₂] has become more readily available, plants proportionally acquire more C than
50 other elements, such as N. This proportional stoichiometric decrease of nutrients in plant
51 biomass has broad implications for global C and N cycling (Reich et al., 2006). As low-quality
52 (high C:N) plant litter becomes available for decomposition by microorganisms, decomposition
53 may slow and lead to increased immobilization or decreased rates of N mineralization, which
54 ultimately can feed back to decrease future available N for plants (Reich et al., 2006; Welti et al.,

55 2020). Increases in atmospheric [CO₂] can also decrease soil N availability via progressive N
56 limitation, where elevated rates of photosynthesis retain N in plant biomass (Luo et al., 2004).

57 Plant water-use efficiency (WUE) – the ratio of carbon fixed to water lost via stomata to
58 the atmosphere (Farquhar et al., 1989) – tends to increase with increased atmospheric [CO₂].
59 WUE is determined by the regulation of stomatal conductance of a plant over time, coupled with
60 the concentration gradients of CO₂ inside and outside of the leaf. In general, plant species have
61 been found to have increased WUE when exposed to higher levels of [CO₂] (Jackson et al., 1994;
62 Jianlin et al., 2008; Brodribb et al., 2009; Haworth et al., 2011), though the response may be
63 optimized in angiosperms compared to other lineages, such as ferns and gymnosperms (Brodribb
64 et al., 2009). One key indicator of changes in plant WUE over time due to increased
65 anthropogenic CO₂ is a directional change in the discrimination of ¹³C compared to the lighter
66 ¹²C isotope ($\Delta^{13}\text{C}$) in plant tissues. $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ is an independent measurement of temporal changes of
67 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in plant tissue over time, which is affected by decreasing levels of ¹³C in atmospheric [CO₂]
68 due to the burning of fossil fuels (with relatively lower amounts of ¹³C compared to atmospheric
69 [CO₂]) over the past two centuries (Friedli et al., 1986). Analyses of herbarium samples
70 representing the past 200 years have found patterns of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ in C₃ plant tissue decreasing
71 (Peñuelas & Azcón-Bieto, 1992; Pedicino et al., 2002), increasing (Zhao et al., 2001; Pedicino et
72 al., 2002), and unchanging trends (Pedicino et al., 2002; del Toro et al., 2024). $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ in C₄ plants
73 has been found to both increase (Pedicino et al., 2002; Eastoe & Toolin, 2018; del Toro et al.,
74 2024) and remain unchanged (Marino & McElroy, 1991; Pedicino et al., 2002) over time. These
75 results illustrate that changes in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ do not reflect changes in atmospheric [CO₂] levels; rather,
76 $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ is linked more tightly to photosynthetic pathway (C₃ vs. C₄) or phylogeny (O’Leary, 1988;
77 Farquhar et al., 1989; Stein et al., 2021). In C₃ plants, the bulk of carbon fractionation occurs
78 during carboxylation by RuBisCO as this enzyme discriminates against the heavier C isotope.
79 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in C₄ plants is less variable given that CO₂ is concentrated in the bundle sheath, resulting in
80 a higher amount of ¹³C fixation by RuBisCO (Farquhar et al., 1989).

81 Stomatal trait differences including stomatal size, density, and distribution vary among
82 C₃ and C₄ grass species, and reflect their evolutionary history (Taylor et al. 2012; Zhao et al.
83 2022). Data from herbarium specimens and elevated [CO₂] chamber studies have revealed that
84 some plant species reduce the number of stomata on their leaves in response to increased [CO₂]

85 (Peñuelas & Matamala, 1990; Beerling & Chaloner, 1993a; Beerling & Chaloner, 1993b; Knapp
86 et al., 1994; Woodward & Kelly, 1995; Bettarini et al., 1998; Doheny-Adams et al., 2012; Large
87 et al., 2017). Guard cell length (stomatal size) may also decrease (Miglietta & Raschi, 1993).
88 With higher [CO₂], plants can reduce their stomatal densities to reduce water loss while
89 maintaining similar photosynthetic production. However, this response is not uniform across all
90 species; a wide range of species across different plant families have shown both increases or no
91 changes in stomatal density with increases in [CO₂] (Beerling et al., 1992; Bettarini et al., 1998,
92 Ydenberg et al., 2021). While herbarium specimens have been used to understand changes in
93 non-stomatal grass leaf traits (McLauchlan et al., 2010; Brookshire et al., 2020; del Toro et al.,
94 2024), we lack a clear understanding of how stomatal traits have changed between the varying
95 photosynthetic pathways over recent centuries.

96 Many grass species have broad distributions and high abundance across large
97 environmental gradients. Widespread distributions can be partially explained by trait plasticity
98 that underlies tolerance to disparate environmental conditions (Siefert et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016;
99 Moran et al., 2016; Bachle et al., 2018). On a broad scale, this may be due to plastic responses to
100 differing environmental factors, such as precipitation, temperature, and soil characteristics
101 (Bernard-Verdier et al., 2012; Westerband et al., 2021). Across the North American Great Plains,
102 climate varies substantially due to precipitation and temperature gradients (Kunkel et al., 2013;
103 Nielsen, 2018), with a cold-to-warm gradient running north to south and a dry-to-wet gradient
104 running west to east. Previous research has shown that for both C₃ and C₄ grass species,
105 differences in leaf traits are more often linked to precipitation than temperature gradients, with
106 C₄ grasses exhibiting significantly more variability than C₃ grasses (Oyarzabal et al., 2008).
107 However, it has not been tested how closely-related species with different photosynthetic
108 pathways respond across large environmental gradients. In addition, further insight into how the
109 traits of an individual species respond to differences in precipitation and temperature is necessary
110 to understand how that species may respond to global change.

111 To assess temporal and spatial differences among traits of C₃ and C₄ grasses, we
112 measured a suite of leaf traits (Table 1) on two closely-related (tribe Paniceae), perennial
113 grasses: *Dichanthelium oligosanthes* subsp. *scribnerianum* (C₃) and *Panicum virgatum* (C₄).
114 These two taxa are common throughout the Great Plains (Great Plains Flora Association, 1986)

115 and abundant in local herbarium collections. In this study, we evaluated how functional leaf traits
116 of these two grasses vary over time as atmospheric [CO₂] has increased by measuring traits from
117 herbarium specimens collected in Kansas. We also assessed intra-taxon variability by measuring
118 traits at eight grassland sites across the Great Plains (Fig. 1). For temporal trends, we predicted
119 $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ would decrease in *D. oligosanthes* and exhibit no change in *P. virgatum*. *Dichanthelium*
120 *oligosanthes* is a C₃ species, which we predict will respond to increased [CO₂] concentrations by
121 increasing its WUE to either conserve water while maintaining the same rates of photosynthesis
122 or increase photosynthesis and maintain the same rates of water loss, thus decreasing $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$. We
123 did not expect $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ of *P. virgatum* to respond over time because discrimination in C₄ species is
124 minimally affected by [CO₂] (O’Leary, 1988). We also predicted both grasses will increase
125 tissue C:N ratios and decrease stomatal density and stomatal lengths on both sides of the leaves
126 in response to increased [CO₂] over time. Lastly, we hypothesized %N and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ would decrease
127 for both taxa as others have found (McLauchlan et al., 2010; McLauchlan et al., 2014). Because
128 both taxa are widely distributed across North America and are known to exhibit variation in leaf
129 morphology (Barkworth et al., 2003), we expected SLA to be greater in areas with warmer
130 temperatures but not be correlated with differences in precipitation (Sandel et al., 2021; Griffin-
131 Nolan & Sandel, 2023). We expect LDMC to increase with greater precipitation and decrease
132 with higher temperatures.

133 **Materials and Methods**

134 *Collection of Herbarium Material and Field Study Sites*

135 To measure temporal trends in leaf traits, we sampled 14 specimens each of *D.*
136 *oligosanthes* and *P. virgatum* at the Kansas State University Herbarium (KSC) and 17 specimens
137 each at the Ronald L. McGregor Herbarium at the University of Kansas (KANU). KSC boasts a
138 large (ca. 200,000) collection of plant specimens, many of which are historical specimens dating
139 prior to 1900. KANU hosts approximately double (~400,000) the number of plant specimens as
140 KSC, most of which were collected post-1950. Together these herbaria complement each other,
141 allowing us to sample across a wider range of dates (1887 – 2013) than would have been
142 possible at just one herbarium. For the years 2021 and 2022, plants were collected in the field
143 and pressed and dried before sampling.

144 We used several criteria to standardize our sampling efforts. First, specimens needed to
145 have ample leafy material, a prerequisite for approval for destructive sampling. Second, all
146 specimens sampled were collected from the eastern third of the state of Kansas to minimize
147 environmental variation by location. Third, all specimens sampled were collected during the
148 species' respective growing season (May-July for *D. oligosanthes* and June-August for *P.*
149 *virgatum*) to avoid senesced material.

150 To compare how *D. oligosanthes* and *P. virgatum* leaf traits vary across grasslands of the
151 Great Plains of the United States, we sampled individuals from eight sites over the summers of
152 2021 and 2022 (Fig. 1): (1) Woodworth Station Waterfowl Production Area, North Dakota, (2)
153 Cedar Creek Ecosystem Science Reserve, Minnesota, (3) Valentine National Wildlife Refuge,
154 Nebraska, (4) T. L. Davis Preserve, Nebraska (5) Kish-Ke-Kosh Prairie, Iowa, (6) Konza Prairie
155 Biological Station, Kansas, (7) Wah'Kon-Tah Prairie, Missouri, (8) Joseph H. Williams
156 Tallgrass Prairie Preserve, Oklahoma. We sampled plants growing from remnant native prairies
157 at all sites except the Woodworth Station Waterfowl Production Area, Cedar Creek Ecosystem
158 Science Reserve, and part of Wah'Kon-Tah Prairie. At the Woodworth Station Waterfowl
159 Production Area, all *P. virgatum* represented restored populations. At Wah'Kon-Tah Prairie, two
160 replicates of *P. virgatum* came from restored populations. Both restored populations were seeded
161 with locally sourced seeds. The restored populations at the Cedar Creek Ecosystem Science
162 Reserve were recovered from the seed bank. *Dichanthelium oligosanthes* was not collected at the
163 Woodworth Station Waterfowl Production Area and *P. virgatum* was not collected at Kish-Ke-
164 Kosh Prairie.

165 *Trait Measurements*

166 At each grassland site, five replicates of each species (when possible) were measured for
167 their specific leaf area (SLA), leaf dry matter content (LDMC), leaf thickness, C:N, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$,
168 stomatal density, and stomatal length using standardized sampling methods (Pérez-Harguindeguy
169 et al., 2016). For leaf measurements (SLA, LDMC, and leaf thickness), the most recently
170 produced, but mature leaf was sampled from each replicate. Leaf area and leaf thickness
171 were measured in the field. Leaf area was measured using Leafscan, a mobile app for measuring
172 the surface area of leaves (Anderson & Rosas-Anderson, 2017), and leaf thickness using calipers.

173 To calculate LDMC, leaves were rehydrated by being submerged in water for 24-72 hours for
174 wet mass measurements and dried in a drying oven at 60 °C for at least 48 hours for dry mass.

175 Stable isotope measurements for leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, total C, and total N were performed at
176 the Stable Isotope Mass Spectrometry Laboratory at Kansas State University. Multiple leaves
177 from each replicate were dried for at least 48 hours at 60 °C and homogenized with an
178 amalgamator. Total C and N of homogenized leaf samples were measured using an Elementar
179 vario Pyro cube coupled to an Elementar Vision mass spectrometer for isotope analysis. Isotopic
180 abundance ratios were converted to δ notation using:

181
$$\delta = \left[\frac{R_{sample}}{R_{standard}} - 1 \right] * 1000$$

182 where R is the ratio of heavy to light isotopes for the sample and standard, respectively. Working
183 laboratory standards were annually calibrated against the internationally accepted standard,
184 Vienna Pee-Dee Belemnite for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and atmospheric air for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. Within-run and across-run
185 variability of the laboratory working standard (apple leaves – NIST 1515) was < 0.05‰.

186 For temporal trends, all $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were corrected for changes in atmospheric $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ by
187 converting to carbon isotope discrimination values $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ according to Farquhar et al. 1982:

188
$$\Delta^{13}\text{C} = \frac{\delta^{13}\text{C}_{air} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{plant}}{1 + \delta^{13}\text{C}_{plant}/1000}$$

189 Atmospheric [CO₂] and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{air}$ measurements were retrieved from McCarroll & Loader (2004)
190 for the years preceding 2004 and measurements from the Mauna Observatory Data were used for
191 years 2004 – 2022 (Keeling et al., 2005).

192 We measured stomatal density and length using stomatal peels on herbarium samples and
193 pressed and dried field samples collected from each study site. Stomatal peels were created by
194 applying clear nail varnish to leaves of the specimens and peeling the varnish once dry with clear
195 tape. Both *D. oligosanthes* and *P. virgatum* are amphistomatous, so peels were made on both the
196 abaxial and adaxial surfaces of the leaves. For herbarium specimens, the leaves of *P. virgatum*
197 were long and folded to fit on the mounting sheet, exposing both sides of the same leaf. Thus,

198 abaxial and adaxial peels were taken from the same leaf where the leaf was folded. For *D.*
199 *oligosanthes*, the leaves were short and not folded to fit on the herbarium sheets, so only one side
200 of each leaf was readily available to perform peels. To circumvent this issue, peels of the abaxial
201 and adaxial surfaces were made on different (but similarly-developed) leaves of the same
202 individual. For field-collected material, abaxial and adaxial peels were taken from the same leaf.

203 Two counts of stomatal density were taken for each peel, and five replicates of stomatal
204 lengths were measured for each count of stomatal density (10 total per specimen). Stomata were
205 counted under 20x magnification on the objective lens and 10x magnification on the ocular lens
206 using an Olympus BH-2 Microscope (Shinjuku City, Tokyo, Japan). An image was taken of each
207 leaf section using a Lumenera Infinity 2 microscopy camera (Ottawa, Canada). The area of the
208 image field of view was determined by using a stage micrometer and was 0.120 mm² for each
209 image. Stomatal densities were then converted to stomata per 1 mm². Total stomatal density was
210 measured as the sum of the abaxial and adaxial stomatal densities. Stomatal length (horizontal
211 length of the guard cell from end to end) was measuring using ImageJ; pixel length was
212 converted to mm using a reference length determined from the stage micrometer. Five herbarium
213 specimens of *P. virgatum* that were measured for stable isotopes were unable to be sampled for
214 stomatal densities or lengths, as either the specimens had leaves that were too curled or wrinkled
215 to obtain peels, or stomata were too sunken and not visible on the peels. Additionally, we note
216 that because leaves shrink during dehydration, these measurements are likely overestimations of
217 stomatal densities and underestimations of stomatal lengths compared to fresh leaf tissue.
218 However, because all tissue in this study was dry, the values are all comparable.

219 *Statistical Analyses*

220 All statistical analyses were performed in R V4.2.1 (R Core Team, 2022). For temporal
221 trait responses, we used linear regression models to determine if traits significantly differed due
222 to changes in environmental variables over time. We performed separate linear regression for
223 each trait (Table 1) with atmospheric [CO₂] (ppm) and growing season precipitation (mm) and
224 temperature (°C) as separate predictor variables and month of collection as a random effect to
225 account for natural changes in trait values throughout the growing season. Data for growing
226 season (April – September) total precipitation and average temperature were retrieved from

227 National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's weather station located in Manhattan,
228 Kansas (Lawrimore et al., 2016; Nippert, 2019). Historic precipitation and temperature data for
229 years prior to 1891 were not available. For spatial trait responses, we used linear regression
230 models to determine if traits significantly differed due to climactic variation in precipitation and
231 temperature. We performed separate linear regressions for each trait (Table 1) and performed
232 separate models using the mean 30-year growing season precipitation and the mean 30-year
233 growing season temperature as predictor variables that characterize the local climate. These
234 values were retrieved from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's (NOAA)
235 U.S. Monthly Climate Normals (1991-2020) (Palecki et al., 2021) for the closest weather station
236 to each collection site. We determined the length of the growing season for each site separately
237 based on monthly precipitation and temperature. Mean 30-Year Growing Season Precipitation
238 (mm) was calculated by summing the monthly precipitation normal for each month in the
239 growing season for each site and Mean 30-Year Growing Season Temperature (°C) was
240 calculated by averaging the monthly temperature normal for all months in the growing season for
241 each site (Table S1). All models were performed separately for each taxon.

242 **Results**

243 *Temporal Trends (from Herbarium Specimens)*

244 The $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ of *D. oligosanthes* and *P. virgatum* showed opposite trends as atmospheric
245 $[\text{CO}_2]$ increased over the 20th century. However, the interpretation of these trendlines indicates a
246 similar physiological response - a decrease in WUE over time. The $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ of *D. oligosanthes*
247 exhibited a significant, positive correlation with atmospheric $[\text{CO}_2]$ ($R^2 = 0.09, P = 0.032$; Fig.
248 2a), and the $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ of *P. virgatum* showed a significant, negative correlation with atmospheric
249 $[\text{CO}_2]$ ($R^2 = 0.32, P < 0.001$; Fig. 2b). The %N of *D. oligosanthes* exhibited a significant,
250 negative correlation with atmospheric $[\text{CO}_2]$ ($R^2 = 0.09, P = 0.002$; Fig. 2c), decreasing about
251 20.4% over 126 years. However, %N did not change significantly for *P. virgatum* (Fig. 2d). C:N
252 showed significant, positive correlations with atmospheric $[\text{CO}_2]$ for both *D. oligosanthes* ($R^2 =$
253 0.07, $P = 0.002$; Fig. 2e) and *P. virgatum* ($R^2 = 0.14, P = 0.025$; Fig. 2f). On average, C:N
254 increased about 18.7% for *D. oligosanthes* and about 41.6% for *P. virgatum* over the 126-year

255 period. Leaf $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ showed significant, negative correlations with atmospheric $[\text{CO}_2]$ for both *D.*
256 *oligosanthes* ($R^2 = 0.31, P < 0.001$; Fig. 2g) and *P. virginatum* ($R^2 = 0.17, P = 0.014$; Fig. 2h).

257 For stomatal traits, the abaxial stomatal length of *P. virginatum* significantly decreased as
258 atmospheric $[\text{CO}_2]$ increased ($R^2 = 0.09, P = 0.047$; Fig. 3h) and increased as temperature
259 increased ($R^2 = 0.25, P = 0.010$; Fig. S1a). The adaxial stomatal length of *P. virginatum*
260 significantly decreased as precipitation increased ($R^2 = 0.21, P = 0.019$; Fig. S1b) All other
261 stomatal traits for both species were unchanged over time ($P > 0.05$; Fig. 3a-g).

262 Non-stomatal leaf traits also responded to differences in precipitation or temperature
263 across time. The %N of *D. oligosanthes* showed a significant, negative correlation with
264 precipitation ($R^2 = 0.18, P = 0.008$; Fig. S2a) and a significant, positive correlation with
265 temperature ($R^2 = 0.10, P = 0.009$; Fig. S2b). C:N exhibited a significant, positive correlation
266 with precipitation for *D. oligosanthes* ($R^2 = 0.13, P = 0.027$; Fig. S2c). Lastly, the $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ of *P.*
267 *virgatum* showed a significant, negative correlation with temperature ($R^2 = 0.19, P = 0.021$; Fig.
268 S2d). For both species, leaf $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ did not respond to differences in precipitation or temperature
269 across time.

270 *Spatial Trends (Across Grassland Sites)*

271 Three stomatal traits significantly decreased with increasing precipitation for *D.*
272 *oligosanthes*: adaxial stomatal density ($R^2 = 0.23, P = 0.009$; Fig. 4e), total stomatal density (R^2
273 $= 0.14, P < 0.046$; Fig. 4f), and adaxial:abaxial stomatal ratio ($R^2 = 0.26, P = 0.004$; Fig. 4g).
274 Stomatal traits did not respond to differences in temperature for *D. oligosanthes* and stomatal
275 traits showed no responses to differences in temperature or precipitation for *P. virginatum* (Table
276 S2).

277 Two structural leaf traits, SLA and C:N, increased with increasing precipitation for *D.*
278 *oligosanthes* ($R^2 = 0.15, P = 0.013$; Fig. 4a and $R^2 = 0.20, P = 0.003$; Fig. 4c, respectively),
279 whereas $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ decreased with increasing precipitation ($R^2 = 0.13, P = 0.022$; Fig. 4d). Leaf traits
280 did not respond to differences in temperature for *D. oligosanthes* (Table S2). For *P. virginatum*, we
281 found that LDMC and C:N both increased with increasing precipitation ($R^2 = 0.15, P = 0.023$;

282 Fig. 4b and $R^2 = 0.12$, $P = 0.041$; Fig. 4c, respectively). We also found that SLA decreased with
283 increasing temperature ($R^2 = 0.31$, $P = 0.001$; Fig. 4h) and that LDMC increased with increasing
284 temperature ($R^2 = 0.21$, $P = 0.006$; Fig. 4i) for *P. virginatum*.

285 **Discussion**

286 Here, we measured a suite of leaf traits on two widespread, closely-related grasses
287 representative of the C₃ (*D. oligosanthes*) and C₄ (*P. virginatum*) photosynthetic pathways in the
288 Great Plains of North America. We assessed temporal (century long responses within eastern
289 Kansas) and spatial (across the broader Great Plains of North America) variation in leaf
290 structural and stomatal traits. While we predicted the C₃ species would be more sensitive to
291 changes in [CO₂] and climate over time, we found similar temporal responses in C₃ and C₄
292 species as both showed decreased WUE (measured by changes in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$) and limited changes in
293 stomatal density in response to increased atmospheric [CO₂]. Notably, this is the first time a
294 decrease in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ has been reported for a C₄ species. Across the spatial gradient, we found the C₃
295 species responded more to the precipitation gradient than the C₄ species, while the temporal
296 trend identified different traits and relationships for species responses to climate over the past
297 century. These results highlight the intraspecific trait variability that exists according to
298 environmental gradients and changes in [CO₂], while also clearly illustrating that predictions of
299 spatial trait-climate relationships in the modern record may be unsuitable for predictions of trait-
300 climate relationships over the previous century.

301 *Trait responses to changes in atmospheric [CO₂] and climate since 1887*

302 We found limited changes in stomatal density in response to increased atmospheric [CO₂]
303 or trends in precipitation or temperature over the past 126 years. Our results are contrary to
304 previous studies that have found decreasing stomatal densities in response to elevated [CO₂]
305 (Peñuelas & Matamala, 1990; Beerling & Chaloner, 1993a; Beerling & Chaloner, 1993b;
306 Woodward & Kelly, 1995; Bettarini et al., 1998; Doheny-Adams et al., 2012; Large et al., 2017).
307 Stomatal densities are generally expected to decrease with increased atmospheric [CO₂] resulting
308 in increased WUE by reducing transpiration. However, atmospheric [CO₂] is not the only driver
309 of stomatal density, which is genetically determined and sensitive to environmental conditions

310 during leaf maturation (Xu et al., 2016). Climate data from within the study region (Manhattan,
311 Kansas, USA) over the last century shows a ~7% increase in mean annual precipitation and 0.93
312 °C increase in mean annual temperature (Zheng et al., in press; Sadayappan et al., 2023). A
313 progressively wetter and warmer climate in the region over the past century may have limited
314 changes in stomatal density over time as decreased stomatal density and size can constrain gas
315 exchange and limit photosynthesis and leaf cooling via transpiration (Lin et al., 2015).

316 Limited change in stomatal density and size in *D. oligosanthes* may explain increased
317 $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ over time. The $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ of *D. oligosanthes* significantly increased with atmospheric $[\text{CO}_2]$
318 (Fig. 2a), indicating that WUE has decreased through time in this species. Generally, $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ is
319 expected to decrease in C_3 species in response to elevated $[\text{CO}_2]$ due to decreased stomatal
320 conductance that reduces water loss without limiting photosynthetic rates (Francey & Farquhar,
321 1982; Peñuelas & Azcón-Bieto, 1992; Araus & Buxó, 1993; Pedicino et al., 2002). However,
322 other studies have attributed stable $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ over time to decreases in stomatal density, which
323 maintains c_i/c_a (ratio of intercellular to atmospheric $[\text{CO}_2]$) and $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ under elevated $[\text{CO}_2]$
324 (Pedicino et al., 2002; del Toro et al., 2024). We attribute the increase of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ in *D. oligosanthes*
325 across the studied time period to limited changes in stomatal density corresponding with a
326 century-long trend of increased precipitation in this region.

327 The negative trend of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ over time for *P. virgatum* indicates decreased WUE over the
328 previous century, a response similar to the C_3 species (Fig. 2b,a, respectively). While few studies
329 have measured temporal changes of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ in C_4 species, only increasing (Pedicino et al., 2002;
330 Eastoe & Toolin, 2018; del Toro et al., 2024) and unchanging (Marino & McElroy, 1991;
331 Pedicino et al., 2002) trends have previously been reported. To our knowledge, this is the first
332 time a decreasing response of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ over time has been reported for a C_4 species, a finding that
333 may be owed to little research of temporal variation of $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ in C_4 plants. The $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ of C_4 plants
334 tends to increase when plants are subjected to dry or shady conditions (Buchmann et al., 1996;
335 Fravolini et al., 2002; Ghannoum et al., 2002; Cernusak et al., 2013) or increased $[\text{CO}_2]$ over
336 time (del Toro et al. 2024). Here, it seems unlikely that the decrease in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ over time reflects
337 changes in light conditions, as *P. virgatum* typically grows in full sunlight and these conditions
338 were unchanged over time. $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ also varies by the subtype of C_4 photosynthetic pathway (NAD-
339 ME, NADP-ME, and PEP-CK) due to variation in bundle sheath leakiness. The $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the

340 NADP-ME subtype responds the least, followed by PCK then NAD-ME (Buchmann et al.,
341 1996). As *P. virginatum* has the NAD-ME subtype, the ~1‰ decrease observed since 1887 is
342 reasonable. Thus, the best explanation for the changes reported here are that increased water
343 availability and temperatures over the past century in the study region (Keen et al. in press) may
344 be responsible for the $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ decrease seen in *P. virginatum*. If precipitation continues to increase in
345 the region, both *P. virginatum* and *D. oligosanthes* may be expected to continue to reduce their
346 water use efficiency to maximize growth.

347 Foliar C:N was positively correlated with atmospheric [CO₂], suggesting *D. oligosanthes*
348 and *P. virginatum* have responded to CO₂ fertilization over time (Fig. 2e,f). Plants often increase
349 carbohydrate production more than N uptake under elevated [CO₂] resulting in nutrient dilution
350 (Peñuelas & Matamala, 1990, McLauchlan et al., 2010; Feng et al., 2015; McLauchlan et al.,
351 2017; Brookshire et al., 2020; Peñuelas et al., 2020). Changes in C:N ratios in *D. oligosanthes*
352 were also driven by decreased %N and indicate decreased N availability despite increases in
353 anthropogenic N deposition over this time period (McLauchlan et al., 2010; McLauchlan et al.,
354 2014). Long-term increases in foliar C:N can limit plant N availability by decreasing foliar
355 decomposition rates and increasing microbial N immobilization (Reich et al., 2006; Feng et al.,
356 2015). Interestingly, changes in C:N and %N in *D. oligosanthes* showed a stronger relationship
357 with precipitation than [CO₂], suggesting that directional changes in precipitation may have as
358 large or larger impacts on plant productivity and nutrient dynamics as CO₂ fertilization.
359 However, the effects of [CO₂] and precipitation on foliar nutrient concentrations appear to vary
360 according to species (McLauchlan et al., 2010) and may reflect species-specific resource
361 requirements (Craine et al., 2012) or regional climactic differences (Peñuelas et al., 2020). For
362 example, *P. virginatum* is a highly productive species that can displace dominant grasses in areas
363 with high water and N availability (Dybzinski & Tilman, 2007; Collins et al., 2012; Nieland &
364 Zeglin, 2024). As *P. virginatum* has foliar C:N values nearly double that of *D. oligosanthes*,
365 changes in species composition to more productive species would likely have more profound and
366 lasting consequences on ecosystem nutrient dynamics than shifts in species-level C:N alone.

367 Foliar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is often positively correlated with foliar [N] and terrestrial N availability
368 (McLauchlan et al., 2010). We found that leaf $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ significantly decreased as atmospheric [CO₂]
369 increased for both species (Fig. 2g,h), which supported our hypothesis and is consistent with

370 previously described results from grasses, other herbaceous species, and woody species
371 (Peñuelas & Filella, 2001; McLauchlan et al., 2010; Tang et al., 2022). In our study region, plant
372 N availability has decreased despite increased anthropogenic N deposition since at least the
373 1980s (McLauchlan et al., 2014). Changes in foliar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ over time may reflect increased N
374 limitation as described by the progressive nitrogen limitation hypothesis – the idea that increased
375 atmospheric $[\text{CO}_2]$ causes nitrogen to become more limited in the soil due to increased N
376 immobilization and sequestration of N by plants benefitting from elevated photosynthetic rates
377 (Luo et al., 2004). Alternatively, changes in foliar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ may reflect changes in the isotopic
378 signature of N taken up by the plant rather than changes in N availability (Tang et al., 2022).
379 Foliar depletion of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ may be an artifact of changes to the ecosystem N signature due to N
380 deposition (Tang et al., 2022). Decreased $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ may also reflect increased mycorrhizal activity
381 under elevated $[\text{CO}_2]$ as mycorrhizae tend to deliver depleted N to plants (McLauchlan et al.,
382 2010; Hobbie & Högberg, 2012). While we can't determine the mechanisms driving decreased
383 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in this study, it is likely this often-reported response is due to a combination of N limitation
384 and altered N signature under environmental change.

385 *Trait Variation Across the Great Plains*

386 We measured a suite of traits on individuals of *D. oligosanthes* and *P. virgatum* across
387 eight grassland sites located throughout of the Great Plains of North America. We predicted that
388 we would find differences within stomatal and structural leaf traits across precipitation and
389 temperature gradients for both grasses, as these species persist across a wide range of
390 environments with complex temporal and spatial variability.

391 Species may exhibit intraspecific variation of structural leaf traits to gain competitive
392 advantages across environmental conditions (Reich, 2014) or across climate gradients (Griffin-
393 Nolan et al. 2018). As discussed by Griffin-Nolan & Sandel (2023), inconsistent trait responses
394 by grass species to mean climate conditions can reflect a variety of other biotic and abiotic
395 factors, including soil characteristics, local topography, and canopy cover. Here, we reported
396 several leaf-trait correlated with the axes of climate variability, and a few traits that did not vary
397 by climate. For instance, we found that *P. virgatum* decreased SLA and increased LDMC as
398 temperature increased, whereas leaves of *D. oligosanthes* showed no differences (Fig. 4h,i). In

399 contrast, leaves of *D. oligosanthes* had greater SLA at wetter sites, favoring more rapid growth
400 with increased water availability, whereas the leaves of *P. virginatum* did not change significantly
401 (Fig. 4a). We found that *D. oligosanthes* and *P. virginatum* shared only one similar significant
402 result across all leaf traits we measured: C:N (Fig. 4c). The increase in C:N across greater
403 precipitation is likely due to growth dilution of N, where both grass species accrue more carbon
404 in wetter environments and consequently dilute the abundance of N in leaves with greater area.

405 Though stomatal densities and sizes have been found to change across precipitation and
406 temperature gradients (Pyakurel & Wang, 2014; Hill et al., 2015; Carlson et al., 2016; Du et al.,
407 2021), few differences were found for the species investigated here. Stomatal traits remained
408 unchanged for *P. virginatum* across gradients that differ in mean precipitation or temperature
409 (Table S2). For *D. oligosanthes*, we found that adaxial and total stomatal density and stomatal
410 ratio decreased with increasing precipitation (Fig. 4e-g). This decrease in stomatal density is
411 likely an artifact of increasing SLA and leaf size with increasing precipitation (Fig. 4a); if the
412 number of stomata per leaf remains constant as leaf area increases, then stomatal density will
413 decrease.

414 Lastly, we also observed a decrease in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ with increasing precipitation in *D.*
415 *oligosanthes* (Fig. 4d), a trend that was previously observed in C₃ grasses across a precipitation
416 gradient (Weiguo et al., 2005). In C₃ plants, differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ are strongly driven by
417 instantaneous c_i/c_a , the ratio of intracellular [CO₂] to the ratio of atmospheric [CO₂] (Cernusak et
418 al., 2013). Instantaneous c_i/c_a has a negative relationship with leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Cernusak et al., 2013)
419 and is influenced by many environmental factors including water availability, nutrient
420 availability, irradiance, and reduced CO₂ partial pressures due to elevation (Tieszen, 1991).
421 Tieszen (1991) predicted irradiance affects c_i/c_a the most and water availability second, but *D.*
422 *oligosanthes* was collected in open grasslands at all sites in this study, so differences in
423 irradiance are likely unimportant as drivers of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in this dataset. Reduced water availability
424 decreases c_i/c_a by increasing stomatal regulation and decreasing discrimination against ¹³C,
425 resulting in higher foliar $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (Tieszen, 1991; Cernusak et al., 2013). We conclude that it
426 is unlikely that other factors besides growing season precipitation are driving this trend of
427 decreasing $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ across the precipitation gradient of the Great Plains.

428 **Conclusion**

429 Using a long temporal record and an extensive spatial record, we reported both
430 similarities and unique responses to varying environmental conditions in two closely-related
431 grass species, *D. oligosanthes* (C₃) and *P. virgatum* (C₄). Using herbarium samples, leaf $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$
432 suggested that both species reduced water-use efficiency in response to century-long increases in
433 water availability. For some traits, such as stomatal density, hypothesized responses to
434 environmental changes over the past century were not evident, which contrasts with results from
435 other studies. When the same leaf traits were measured in field populations sampled across a
436 north-south gradient in the Great Plains, we found that many traits, including SLA, LDMC, C:N,
437 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, adaxial stomatal density, total stomatal density, and stomatal ratio had statistically-
438 significant relationships with spatial patterns of precipitation, while fewer traits (SLA and
439 LDMC for *P. virgatum* only) had statistically-significant responses to spatial variation in
440 temperature. These results demonstrate the importance of characterizing trait variation across
441 both temporal and spatial scales. For instance, predictions of how C₃ and C₄ grasslands will
442 change in the future are usually made based on the examination of the results of just a few grass
443 species in the modern record. Our work shows that many typically held assumptions of how
444 traits will change in response to environmental variables vary with different trait-climate
445 relationships across space and time. If we are to understand how plants will respond to global
446 change, especially with regard to changes in precipitation regimes, it may be necessary to first
447 document how plants have responded to historical changes in the environment, as well as the
448 intraspecific trait variation that currently exists.

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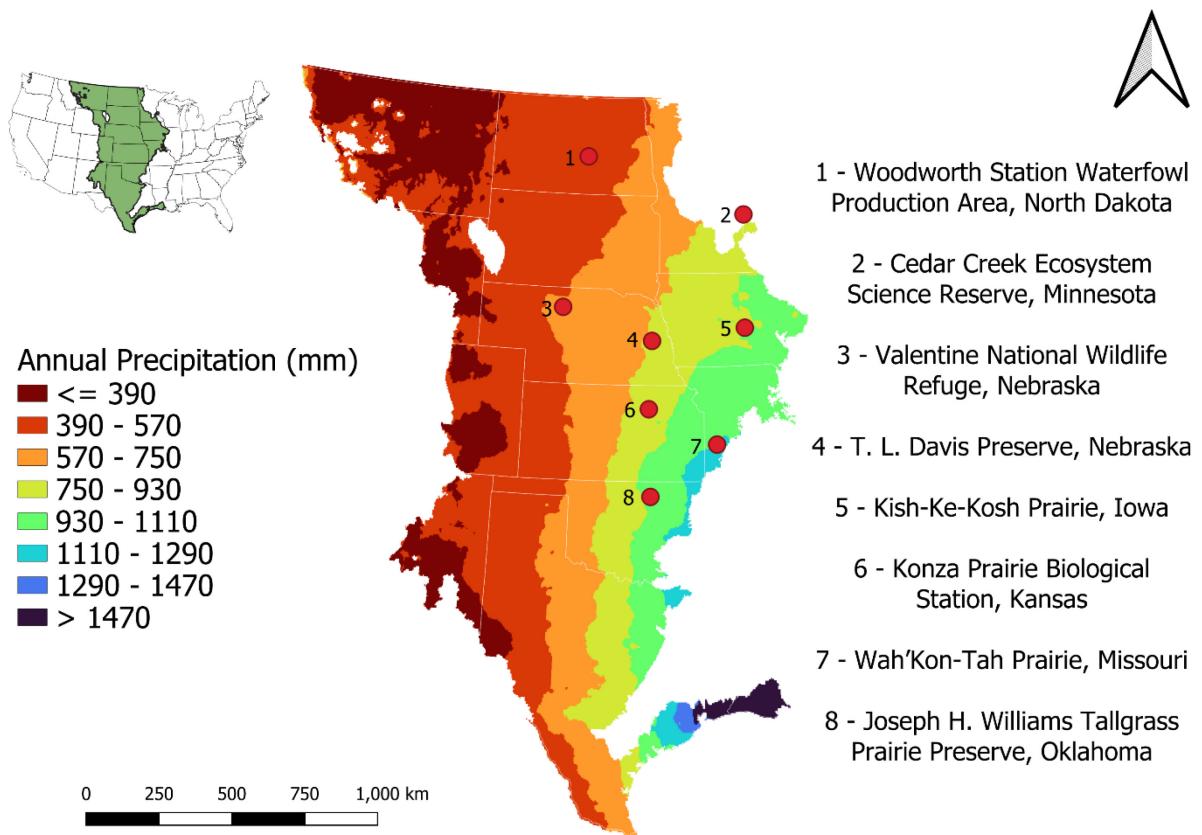
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773 **Tables and Figures**

774 **Table 1:** A list of traits measured in this study.

Traits measured across time	Traits measured across space
Total Stomatal Density (stomata/mm ²)	Total Stomatal Density (stomata/mm ²)
Adaxial Stomatal Density (stomata/mm ²)	Adaxial Stomatal Density (stomata/mm ²)
Abaxial Stomatal Density (stomata/mm ²)	Abaxial Stomatal Density (stomata/mm ²)
Adaxial Stomatal Length (mm)	Adaxial Stomatal Length (mm)
Abaxial Stomatal Length (mm)	Abaxial Stomatal Length (mm)
Stomatal Ratio (Adaxial:Abaxial)	Stomatal Ratio (Adaxial:Abaxial)
$\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)
C:N	C:N
%N	Specific Leaf Area; SLA (cm ² g ⁻¹)
$\delta^{15}\text{N}$	Leaf Dry Matter Content; LDMC
	Leaf Thickness (mm)

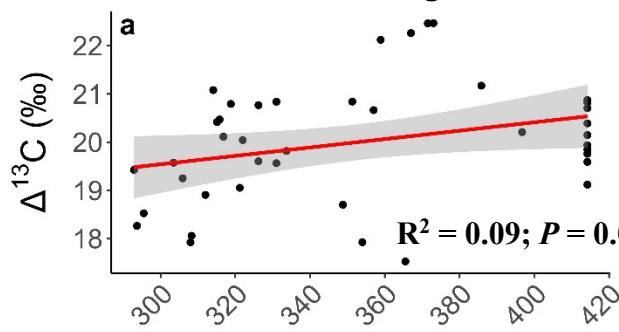
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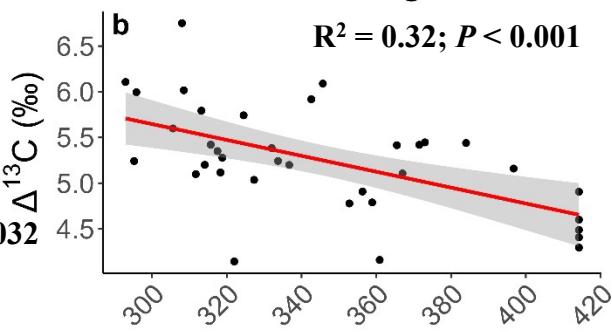
776

777 **Figure 1:** A map of the North American Great Plains ecoregion within the United States and its
 778 average annual total precipitation from 1991 – 2020. Each grassland site is represented by a red
 779 circle and each number corresponds to the site’s name. We used the ecoregion boundary
 780 determined by the United States Environmental Protection Agency’s Level I Ecoregions and
 781 cropped the boundary to be within the continental United States. Annual precipitation data were
 782 retrieved from the PRISM Climate Group at Oregon State University (2022).

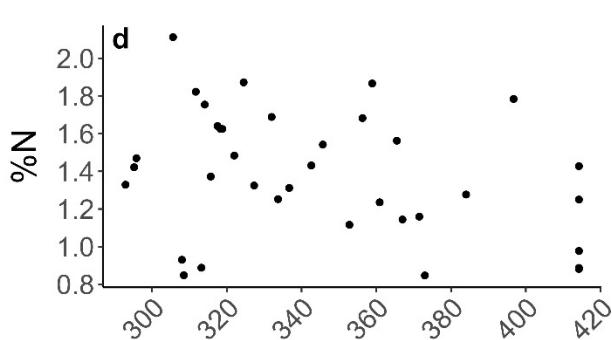
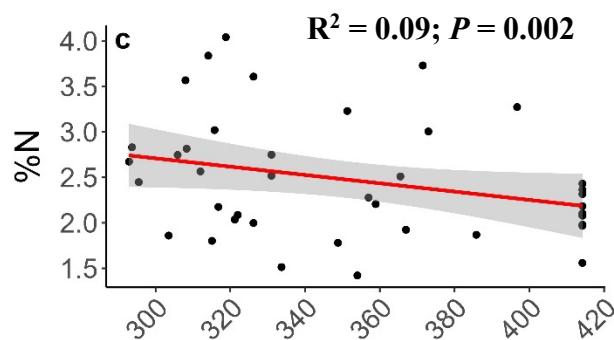
Dichanthelium oligosanthes



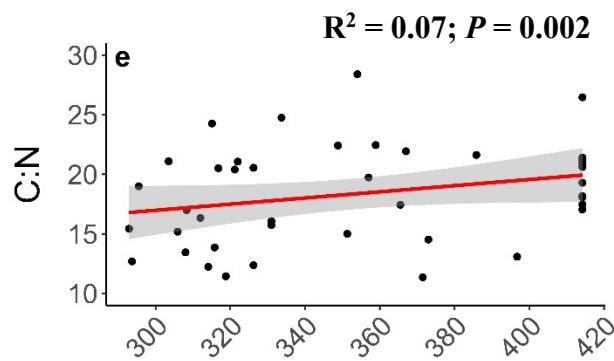
Panicum virgatum



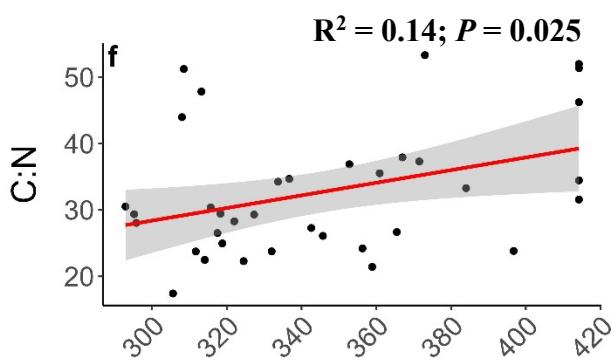
$R^2 = 0.09; P = 0.002$



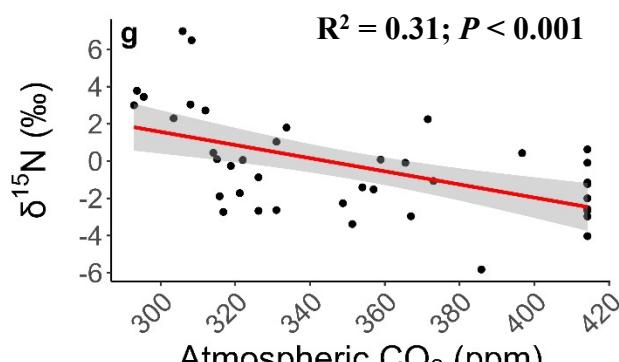
$R^2 = 0.07; P = 0.002$



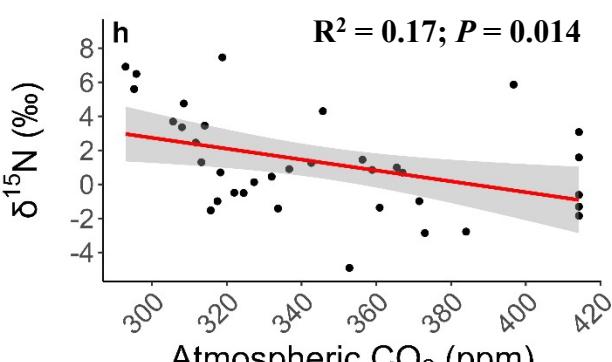
$R^2 = 0.14; P = 0.025$



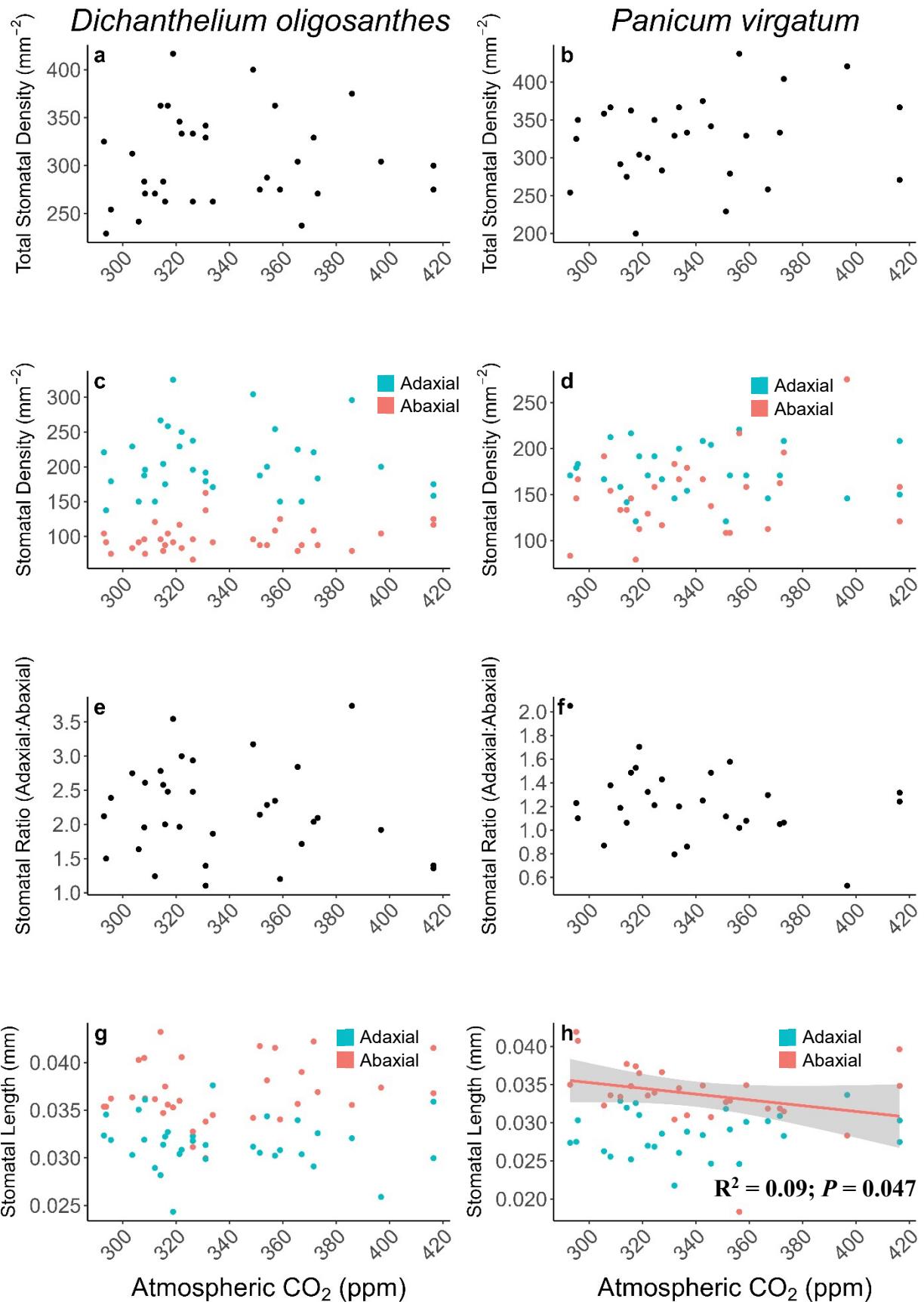
$R^2 = 0.31; P < 0.001$



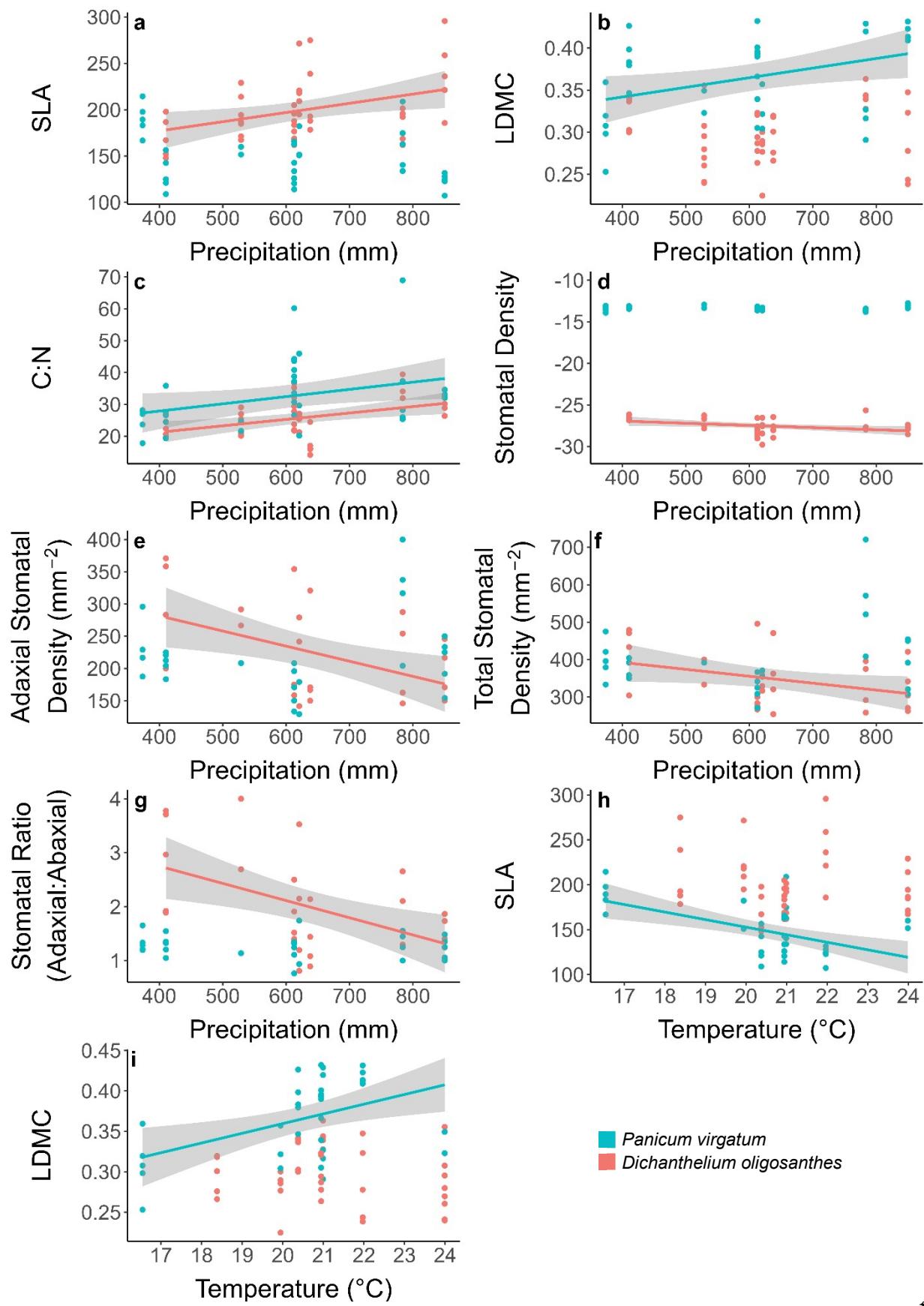
$R^2 = 0.17; P = 0.014$



784 **Figure 2:** The change in $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$, %N, C:N, and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of *D. oligosanthes* (left column) and *P.*
785 *virgatum* (right column) leaves as atmospheric CO₂ increased from the years 1887 – 2020.
786 Regression lines and confidence intervals are displayed when $P < 0.05$. Please note differing
787 scales for trait values on the y-axis for both species.



789 **Figure 3:** The change in stomatal density, stomatal ratio, and stomatal length of *D. oligosanthes*
790 (left column) and *P. virginatum* (right column) leaves as atmospheric CO₂ increased from the years
791 1887 – 2020. Regression lines and confidence intervals are displayed when $P < 0.05$. Please note
792 differing scales for trait values on the y-axis for both species.



794 **Figure 4:** The change of stomatal and structural leaf traits across precipitation and temperature
795 gradients of *D. oligosanthes* (red) and *P. virgatum* (blue). Regression lines and confidence
796 intervals are displayed when $P < 0.05$. Non-significant results for traits not displayed here can be
797 found in Table S2.