

1 *Running head:* variation in leaf isotopes

2

3 Disentangling the role of shared ancestry and the environment on leaf stable isotopes

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22 samples for laboratory analysis. MJS analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript with editorial  
23 input from SW.

24 **Abstract**

25 Stable carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) isotopes in plants are important indicators of plant water use  
26 efficiency and N acquisition strategies. While often regarded as being under environmental  
27 control, there is growing evidence that evolutionary history may also shape variation in stable  
28 isotope ratios ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ) among plant species. Here we examined patterns of foliar  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  
29  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in alpine tundra for 59 species in 20 plant families. To assess the importance of  
30 environmental controls and evolutionary history, we examined if average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$   
31 predictably differed among habitat types, if individual species exhibited intraspecific trait  
32 variation (ITV) in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , and if there were a significant phylogenetic signal in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  
33  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ . We found that variation among habitat types in both  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  mirrored well-known  
34 patterns of water and nitrogen limitation. Conversely, we also found that 40% of species  
35 exhibited no ITV in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and 35% of species exhibited no ITV in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , suggesting that some  
36 species are under stronger evolutionary control. However, we only found a modest signal of  
37 phylogenetic conservatism in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and no phylogenetic signal in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  suggesting that shared  
38 ancestry is a weaker driver of tundra wide variation in stable isotopes. Together, our results  
39 suggest that both evolutionary history and local environmental conditions play a role in  
40 determining variation in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and that considering both factors can help with  
41 interpreting isotope patterns in nature and with predicting which species may be able to respond  
42 to rapidly changing environmental conditions.

43

44 **Keywords:** Alpine,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , Intraspecific trait variation, Phylogenetic signal

45

46 **Introduction**

47 Understanding the relative importance of evolutionary history and the environment on  
48 physiological and morphological traits is a long-standing question at the intersection of  
49 evolutionary biology and ecology (Felsenstein 1985; Lauder 1981; Losos 1990). With the greater  
50 availability of functional trait data, trait based approaches in community ecology are becoming  
51 more prevalent (e.g., Adler et al. 2013; Carmona et al. 2016; Hulshof and Swenson 2010; Kraft  
52 et al. 2008) and there has been an increased interest in linking functional trait data with  
53 phylogenetic patterns (Cavender-Bares et al. 2009; Swenson 2011; Webb 2000). As a result of  
54 these advances in functional and phylogenetic ecology, it is increasingly evident that some plant  
55 functional traits are labile and respond rapidly to changes in the environment (i.e., Bloor and  
56 Grubb 2004; Gratani 2014), while other plant functional traits are phylogenetically conserved  
57 and have maintained functional trait similarity through evolutionary time (i.e., Cavender-Bares et  
58 al. 2006; Swenson and Enquist 2007) without a clear indication of when shared ancestry or  
59 environmental control are more important (Bhaskar et al. 2016; Flores et al. 2014; Forrestel et al.  
60 2015; Yang et al. 2014). One approach for resolving this issue is to focus on “hard” plant  
61 functional traits that correlate strongly with physiological processes (i.e., stable isotope ratios) as  
62 opposed to “soft” traits that are influenced by multiple processes simultaneously (i.e., specific  
63 leaf area, tissue N; Goud and Sparks 2018). Distinguishing between the contributions of  
64 environment and evolutionary history in shaping hard traits will help clarify patterns of  
65 functional diversity along environmental gradients, improving our predictions of species  
66 responses to global change.

67 Two key isotopes that are linked to physiological processes are  $^{13}\text{C}$  and  $^{15}\text{N}$ . Foliar  
68 carbon isotope ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) values in a plants are related to the balance of photosynthesis and stomatal  
69 conductance and their coupled response to variation in the environment (Cernusak et al. 2013;

70 Farquhar et al. 1989; Farquhar et al. 1982). Specifically,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is controlled by the ratio of  
71 intercellular ( $c_i$ ) to ambient ( $c_a$ )  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations where plants become enriched in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  by any  
72 process that increases the difference between  $c_i$  and  $c_a$  (Farquhar et al. 1982). Importantly, there  
73 is a significant relationship between  $c_i/c_a$  and plant water use efficiency (WUE) where  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
74 provides an estimate of the long-term WUE of a plant (Ehleringer 1989; Farquhar et al. 1989).  
75 Due to this relationship plants adapted to more xeric environments often have lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (and  
76 WUE) when grown in more mesic environments, or vice-versa (Anderson et al. 1996; Korner et  
77 al. 1991; Yang et al. 2015), suggesting strong evolutionary control on  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . However, in other  
78 cases individual plants respond to decreased water availability by increasing their WUE and thus  
79  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , suggesting stronger environmental control (Corcuera et al. 2010; Farquhar et al. 1989;  
80 Ramírez-Valiente et al. 2010).

81 Foliar nitrogen isotope ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ) values in plants can shed light on short-term dynamics of  
82 the N cycle (Craine et al. 2015), though variation in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  is much more difficult to explain than  
83 variation in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . Variation in observed foliar  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  within and among species is dependent on a  
84 combination of available nitrogen from atmospheric deposition, soils, or bedrock (Kolb and  
85 Evans 2002) and symbioses (e.g. mycorrhizal fungi and N-fixing rhizobia; Hobbie et al. 2000;  
86 Hobbie and Hobbie 2006). As seen with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , foliar  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  may be under stronger evolutionary  
87 control where species maintain  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values across habitat types (Miller and Bowman 2003; Yang  
88 et al. 2015), or alternatively  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  may vary greatly between conspecific individuals in response  
89 to differences in soil N availability (Bustamante et al. 2004).

90 To date there have been relatively few tests of a phylogenetic signal in plant foliar stable  
91 isotopes with most studies assuming strong environmental control. In one of the few studies to  
92 examine the relative roles of environment control and phylogenetic signal in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  for

93 plants, Goud and Sparks (2018) found that both  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  exhibited significant trait  
94 conservatism (closely related species were more similar than expected by chance) for a group of  
95 57 plant species in the Ericaceae. Moreover, by sampling over broad environmental gradient  
96 including swamps and riparian zones in the south-eastern United States, California chaparral, and  
97 arctic tundra in northern Canada, they found that evolutionary history played a stronger role in  
98 influencing isotope values than the environment, except in some specialized environments (Goud  
99 and Sparks 2018). While this work by Goud and Sparks (2018) provides an excellent broad scale  
100 assessment, they used very broad scale environmental gradients (vapor pressure deficit from  
101 nearby weather stations) and we lack a clear picture of if these patterns are consistent across a  
102 broader phylogeny (multiple families) or if the relative importance of phylogenetic signal and the  
103 environment differs at smaller spatial scales.

104         Here, we examined patterns of foliar  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  for 59 species across 20 plant  
105 families in alpine tundra. Due to the redistribution of snow by wind in the alpine tundra, strong  
106 gradients of productivity, soil moisture, nutrient availability, and physical stress results in a  
107 mosaic of habitat types across alpine tundra landscapes (Bowman et al. 2003; Bowman and Fisk  
108 2001; Litaor et al. 2008; Seastedt et al. 2004; Walker et al. 2001). These habitat types include:  
109 fellfield, dominated by cushion plants and lichens; dry meadow dominated by xeric sedges and  
110 forbs, moist meadow, co-dominated by grasses and forbs; wet meadow, dominated by sedges and  
111 mesic forbs; late melting snow banks, dominated by forbs and sedges (May and Webber 1982;  
112 Walker et al. 1993; Walker et al. 2001). We sampled across these habitats and asked: 1) are foliar  
113  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values in alpine tundra plant species phylogenetically conserved traits or are they  
114 environmentally driven responses; and 2) is phylogenetic conservatism of these isotopic values  
115 tundra wide or restricted to specific habitat types?

116

117 **Methods**

118 *Study location.* This study was conducted in alpine tundra at the Niwot Ridge Long Term  
119 Ecological Research site (40°03'N, 105°35'W). Located in the Front Range of the Colorado  
120 Rocky Mountains. Niwot Ridge has a short growing season (approximately 2–3 months) with a  
121 mean annual temperature of -2.3C (6.5 C in the growing season) and an average annual  
122 precipitation of 884mm, with the majority of the precipitation (94%) falling as snow (Litaor et al.  
123 2008). Annual daily wind speeds average 8.1 m s<sup>-1</sup>, with an average annual daily maximum  
124 wind speed of 19.8 m s<sup>-1</sup> (Losleben and Chowanski unpublished data). Due to these high wind  
125 speeds, an important environmental factor in alpine tundra is the redistribution of snow by wind  
126 (Bowman and Fisk 2001). Wind keeps Fellfield and Dry Meadow habitats relatively snow-free  
127 all winter and these low productivity habitats are characterized by temperature stress, low water  
128 availability, and low nitrogen availability (Billings and Mooney 1968; Walker et al. 2001).  
129 Blown snow accumulates in Snow Bank habitats which are buffered from wind scour and  
130 temperature stresses in the winter and snow melt during the growing season enhances water and  
131 nitrogen availability in Moist and Wet Meadow habitats found downhill of Snow Banks habitats  
132 which tend to be energy limited due to the large snow accumulation. Soil moisture is  
133 significantly correlated with snowfall amounts and terrain factors that affect snow accumulation  
134 (Taylor and Seastedt 1994).

135

136 *Trait collection.* We collected leaves from 59 species in 20 plant families and four functional  
137 groups (Supplementary Table 1) during the summers of 2017 and 2018. Samples were largely  
138 collected next to 88 permanent 1-m<sup>2</sup> plots established in 1989 to track changes in vegetation over

139 time in the different community types found on Niwot Ridge (noted above). Species for  
 140 collection were chosen haphazardly within each community type and 20 of the 59 species were  
 141 found in multiple habitat types. For each species in each community type we collected one leaf  
 142 from 5-20 separate individuals (all individuals were greater than 1m apart to ensure that  
 143 individuals were not clones connected belowground). Leaves were oven dried at 60°C for 4 days.  
 144 Approximately 10g of dry material was then shipped to the University of Wyoming Stable  
 145 Isotope Facility (<http://www.uwyo.edu/sif/>) where samples were ground with a steel ball mill and  
 146 analyzed for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  on a Carlo Erba 1110 Elemental Analyzer coupled to a Thermo Delta  
 147 V IRMS. Isotope ratios were calculated as

$$148 \quad \delta[^{13}\text{C}, ^{15}\text{N}]_{\text{samples}} = \left( \frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right) \times 100$$

149 Where  $R_{\text{sample}}$  and  $R_{\text{standard}}$  are the  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  or  $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$  molar abundance ratios of samples, with 36-  
 150 UWSIF-Glutamic 1 and 39-UWSIF-Glutamic 2 use as reference samples.

151  
 152 *Phylogenetic tree.* To evaluate the importance of evolutionary history, we created a phylogenetic  
 153 tree for all genera in our dataset based on the phylogeny produced by Zanne et al. (2014). Prior  
 154 to calculations of phylogenetic signal, we resolved polytomies using the multi2di function in the  
 155 ape package (Paradis et al. 2004). Note that resolving polytomies in this way does not affect  
 156 branch lengths and consequently maximum likelihood estimates of Pagel's  $\lambda$  do not vary. We  
 157 then calculated Pagel's  $\lambda$  (Pagel 1999) for both isotopes using the multiPhylosignal function in  
 158 the PICANTE package in R (Kembel et al. 2010). We used Pagel's  $\lambda$  to quantify phylogenetic  
 159 signal, because it has been shown to be robust to branch length uncertainty and many of the  
 160 calibration issues that affect supertrees (Münkemüller et al. 2012). Pagel's  $\lambda$  is a branch scaling  
 161 parameter that ranges from 0 to 1 where a  $\lambda$  values of 0 indicate no phylogenetic signal and a  $\lambda$

162 values of 1 indicates a phylogenetic signal found under a Brownian motion model of trait  
163 evolution (Pagel 1999). We then used the contMap function in the phytools package (Revell  
164 2012) to plot isotope values along our trimmed phylogeny. All phylogenetic analyses were  
165 conducted in R (R Core Team 2019)

166

167 *Statistical Analysis.* To test for differences in species mean isotopic values among habitat types  
168 we used a one-way ANOVA and Tukey post-hoc comparisons to compare each habitat type in  
169 To compare intraspecific variation in isotope values among habitats for the 20 species found in  
170 multiple habitats we use used a one-way ANOVA and Tukey post-hoc comparisons to compare  
171 values among each habitat type. Both analyses were conducted in JMP version 13 (SAS Institute  
172 Inc., Cary, N.C.).

173 To assess the degree to which closely related species were more similar to each other in  
174 isotope values than expected by chance, we tested whether Pagel's  $\lambda$  was  $> 0$  by comparing the  
175 log-likelihood of the fitted  $\lambda$  with that of  $\lambda = 0$  using a log-likelihood ratio test using the  
176 'phylosig' function in the phytools R package (Revell 2012). Variables with a  $\lambda$  greater 0.5 (at  $P$   
177 = 0.05) have phylogenetic signal (i.e., closely related species are more similar to each other than  
178 expected by random chance) (Münkemüller et al. 2012).

179

## 180 **Results**

181 *Habitat variation.* We found that species mean isotope signatures varied among habitats for both  
182  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  ( $F_{4,81}=3.29$ ,  $P=0.01$  and  $F_{4,81}=3.31$ ,  $P=0.01$  respectively; Fig. 1) with the least  
183 negative  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in dry meadow and the most negative in wet meadow, and the highest values for  
184  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in wet meadow and the lowest in fellfield. Tukey post-hoc comparisons revealed that only



185 dry meadow and wet meadow significantly differed from each other in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Fig. 1), and only  
186 wet meadow and fellfield differed in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  (Fig. 1).

187

188 *Intraspecific trait variation.* We found significant intraspecific trait variation (ITV) in either  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
189 or  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  for 18 out of the 20 species that occurred across multiple habitat types. This ITV varied  
190 highly among species and isotopes (Figs. 2 and 3) with 7 species exhibiting ITV in both isotopes,  
191 two different sets of 5 species exhibiting ITV in only one isotope, and 3 species exhibiting no  
192 ITV in either isotope. Moreover, we found no general patterns in ITV within or among  
193 functional groups with some grasses, some forbs, and some N-fixers exhibiting significant ITV  
194 and some exhibiting none.

195

196 *Phylogenetic signal.* Tundra wide, we found evidence for a weak phylogenetic signal in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
197 (Pagel's  $\lambda = 0.29$ , Fig. 3, Table 1) where phylogenetic signal was significantly greater than 0  
198 ( $P=0.004$ ), but not greater than 0.5 which would indicate closely related species are more similar  
199 to each other than expected by random chance. For  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  we found no evidence of a phylogenetic  
200 signal (Pagel's  $\lambda < 0.01$ , Fig. 3, Table 1) and it did not significantly differ from 0 ( $P=1$ ). Within  
201 habitats we found evidence for strong trait conservatism in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  only in moist meadow and wet  
202 meadow (Table 1) and no significant phylogenetic signal in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in any habitat type (Table 1).

203

## 204 **Discussion**

205 While many studies have generally assumed strong environmental control on plant foliar stable  
206 isotopes (but see Goud and Sparks 2018), we find a much more complex picture where tundra-  
207 wide patterns largely mirror the patterns expected under strong environmental control, but

208 individual species and habitat specific phylogenetic patterns suggest evolutionary history also  
209 plays an important role in influencing stable isotopes. Together, these results suggest that while  
210 species-sorting is occurring generally at the habitat scale (i.e., more water-use-efficient species  
211 are generally in more water limited habitats) individual species may have evolved a variety of  
212 strategies for coping with the strong environmental gradients in alpine tundra. Importantly, these  
213 species specific patterns may be indicative of a species' potential to cope with changing  
214 environmental conditions (i.e., Botero et al. 2015) where some species are able to plastically  
215 respond to changing environmental conditions and some species are not (Lauteri et al. 2004;  
216 Nicotra et al. 2010).

217

#### 218 *Habitat variation.*

219 We found that when integrating across all species, isotope values generally varied among  
220 habitats in a manner mirroring well-established differences among habitats in water and nitrogen  
221 availability (e.g., Bowman et al. 2003; Bowman and Fisk 2001; Litaor et al. 2008; Seastedt et al.  
222 2004; Walker et al. 2001). We found the highest average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in dry meadow and the lowest in  
223  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  wet meadows, which as their names indicate, differ significantly in soil moisture. Although  
224 we lack on the ground measurements of soil moisture, we can see predictable changes in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in  
225 the tundra, with the driest habitats (dry meadow and fellfield) having the species with the highest  
226 WUE, moist meadow having species with intermediate WUE, and the wettest habitats (wet  
227 meadow and snowbank) have the species with the lowest WUE. Similarly, we found the highest  
228 average  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in wet meadow and the lowest average  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in the fellfield. Patterns of nitrogen  
229 limitation in the alpine largely mirror pattern of water limitation with the lower nitrogen  
230 availability in dry meadow and fellfield, and higher nitrogen availability in moist meadow, wet

231 meadow and snowbank habitats (Bowman et al. 2003). Similarly, Yang et al. (2015) found  
232 variation in both  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  along an elevation gradient in the Swiss Alpine suggesting a key  
233 role for environmental control of foliar isotopes in alpine plant species.

234

235 *Intraspecific trait variation.*

236 In addition to predictable variation among habitats, we found significant intraspecific trait  
237 variation (ITV) in either  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  or  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  for most (18 out of 20) of the species that occurred across  
238 multiple habitat types. Twelve of the 20 species exhibited ITV in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Fig. 2), suggesting that  
239 some species are able to modify their WUE to cope with variation in water availability either  
240 through phenotypic plasticity or local adaptation (Albert et al. 2011; Botero et al. 2015; Cleland  
241 et al. 2007). Interestingly, 8 species did not respond to the habitat scale gradient in water  
242 availability, suggesting that these species may be under stronger evolutionary control (Albert et  
243 al. 2011) and may have a bet-hedging strategy for coping with different environmental  
244 conditions (Botero et al. 2015). Similarly, 12 of 20 species exhibited ITV in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  (Fig. 3; though  
245 not the same 12 species), again suggesting that some species are able modify their phenotype to  
246 cope with variation in nitrogen availability and others are not. In total, 7 species exhibited  
247 significant ITV in both  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  among habitat types. Overall, these results suggest that  
248 some alpine plant species are highly variable and are able to adjust their phenotype to a wide  
249 range of variability in both water and nitrogen. These species are likely the least threatened by  
250 changing environmental conditions in the alpine (Diaz et al. 2003) and likely have the greatest  
251 capacity to adapt to changing environments (Botero et al. 2015) if this variation is associated  
252 with phenotypic plasticity. Of the 7 species we found to have ITV in both isotopes, 4 out of 7  
253 (*Artemisia scopulorum*, *Caltha leptosepala*, *Lloydia serotina*, *Luzula spicata*) were found to be

254 increasing in abundance over a 21 year period in long term monitoring plots (Spasojevic et al.  
255 2013) while 2 species remained stable (*Bistorta bistortoides*, *Ranunculus adoneus*) and only 1  
256 was declining in abundance (*Geum rossii*).

257         On the other hand, several of our species are able to adjust their phenotype to a wide  
258 range of conditions for one resource (i.e., nitrogen) but are under stronger evolutionary control  
259 for another (i.e., water), suggesting their ability to track changing environmental condition will  
260 depend on which resource is changing the most rapidly. At our study site, atmospheric nitrogen  
261 deposition has reached critical levels (Bowman et al. 2006) and is resulting in changes in some  
262 alpine plant communities (Bowman et al. 2018; Simkin et al. 2016). At the same time, Niwot  
263 Ridge is experiencing extended summers (prolonged midsummer drought; unpublished data  
264 Niwot Ridge LTER) which is reducing soil moisture during the growing season. Interestingly,  
265 we find that 4 of the 5 species that exhibit ITV in only  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  are increasing in abundance over  
266 time in our long-term plots (Spasojevic et al. 2013), while only 2 of 5 species that exhibit ITV in  
267 only  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  are increasing over time in those same plots. These patterns suggest that species that  
268 exhibit ITV in WUE may be less at risk to environmental change than species that exhibit ITV in  
269 their nitrogen acquisition strategy. Importantly, these two global changes drivers interact (water  
270 availability influences nitrogen availability; Bowman et al. 2003; Bowman et al. 1993) making  
271 predictions of species changes much more complex.

272         Lastly, a few species are under strong evolutionary control for multiple isotopes (2 out of  
273 20 species in our dataset). Similarly, Yang et al. (2015) found that isotope values for several  
274 congeners of our study species were insensitive to obvious environmental control and largely  
275 under evolutionary control in the Swiss Alps. These species likely have the least ability to cope  
276 with rapid environmental change (Botero et al. 2015). Taken together our results suggest a broad

277 range of mechanisms for coping with dynamic environments. It is important to note that while  
278 previous studies have noted that phenotypic plasticity occurs in several congeners of our study  
279 species, we lack any data on population genetic structure of these species to know if local  
280 adaptation or phenotypic plasticity is the mechanism underlying ITV in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  or  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ .

281

282 *Phylogenetic signal.*

283 Unlike Goud and Sparks (2018) who found a strong phylogenetic signal in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , we  
284 found a relatively modest (though significant) phylogenetic signal tundra wide and only found a  
285 strong signal when we focused in on particular habitat types for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . This difference between  
286 our results and the results of Goud and Sparks (2018), may be related to the focus of our studies;  
287 Goud and Sparks (2018) focused on a single plant family (the Ericaceae), while we examined 59  
288 species across 20 families including both monocots and dicots. While we lack the resolution do  
289 examine phylogenetic signal within families due to using a super tree and having only a few  
290 species within a given family, we do see that generally both the Salicaceae (Willows) and  
291 Cyperaceae (Sedges) all have species with similar values of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ . Interestingly, the Cyperaceae  
292 shows the opposite trend with  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  where we see both the highest and lowest values of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$   
293 among the species in this family. Nitrogen is a limiting resource in the tundra and evidence  
294 suggests that some species coexist by partitioning different forms of nitrogen (Ashton et al.  
295 2008; Miller and Bowman 2003; Miller et al. 2007). While this has not been explored  
296 experimentally within the genus *Carex* for these species, this pattern suggests that these sedges  
297 are using potentially using different sources of nitrogen. While some sedge species are spatially  
298 segregated (i.e. *Carex rupestris* and *Carex scopulorum* are largely found in different habitats), in  
299 our dataset we found 6 species of sedge in dry meadow, and 5 species of sedge in moist meadow,

300 suggesting that nitrogen partitioning may be a way that these closely related species coexist  
301 (Silvertown 2004).

302 While we only found a modest signal of phylogenetic conservatism in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  tundra wide  
303 we did find a significant phylogenetic signal in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  within moist and wet meadow tundra  
304 habitats, suggesting that  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were significantly more similar among closely related  
305 species than expected by chance. We found no significant signal for the other habitat types. This  
306 pattern suggests that plant species in these wetter habitats are converging on similar functional  
307 strategies within a given family and that different strategies may have evolved among different  
308 families. Lastly, a key source of variation between our results and those of Goud and Sparks  
309 (2018) is that they used a more finely resolved phylogeny while we used a super-tree with  
310 polytomies at the genus level. Despite the long history of stable isotope studies, few studies have  
311 examined phylogenetic signal and our results coupled with the results of Goud and Sparks (2018)  
312 suggest that more studies are needed across a greater portion of the plant phylogeny to truly  
313 understand the degree of phylogenetic conservatism in plant stable isotopes.

314

315 *Conclusions.*

316 Our results suggest that isotopes are under both evolutionary and environmental control and that  
317 both factors need to be considered when interpreting foliar isotope data in plants. We found  
318 significant variation among habitats mirroring predicted resource limitation, but these patterns  
319 did not hold for all species and some species did not vary among habitat types. These patterns  
320 coupled with some evidence for phylogenetic conservatism in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  suggest that some species  
321 may have the capacity to adapt to environmental change, while other may not.

322

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327 Colorado Mountain Research Station, and the Niwot Ridge LTER.

328

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- 488

489 **Tables**

490 Table 1. Tundra wide and habitat specific values for Pagel's  $\lambda$ . Bold values indicate that Pagel's  
 491  $\lambda$  was significantly greater than 0. Values great than 0.5 indicate closely related species are more  
 492 similar to each other than expected by random chance.

Habitat type	Pagel's $\lambda$	
	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$
Tundra wide	<b>0.29</b>	<0.01
Fellfield	0.43	0.75
Dry Meadow	0.09	<0.01
Moist Meadow	<b>0.86</b>	<0.01
Wet Meadow	<b>1.00</b>	0.75
Snow Bank	<0.01	0.14

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508 **Figure Legends**

509 Figure 1. Variation in A)  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and B)  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  among habitat types in alpine tundra. Each data point  
 510 represents a species level mean. The longer horizontal line represents the mean value for each  
 511 habitat type and shorter horizontal lines represent the standard error of the mean. Letters  
 512 represent significant differences among habitat types based on Tukey post-hoc comparisons.

513

514 Figure 2. Intraspecific variation in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  among species sampled in multiple habitat types in  
 515 alpine tundra. Habitats with no data points indicate that species was not present in that habitat  
 516 type. The longer horizontal line represents the mean value for each habitat type and shorter  
 517 horizontal lines represent one standard deviation. Letters represent significant differences among

518 habitat types based on Tukey post-hoc comparisons. A) *Artemisia scopulorum* (Artsco,

519  $F_{4,47}=5.26$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); B) *Bistorta bistortoides* (Bisbis,  $F_{3,41}=5.29$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); C) *Caltha leptosepala*

520 (Callep,  $F_{2,27}=10.13$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); D) *Carex rupestris* (Carrup,  $F_{2,26}=2.57$ ,  $P=0.09$ ); E) *Carex*

521 *scopulorum* (Carsco,  $F_{2,32}=7.10$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); F) *Deschampsia caespitosa* (Desces,  $F_{3,43}=2.37$ ,

522  $P=0.08$ ); G) *Erigeron simplex* (Erisim,  $F_{2,23}=0.75$ ,  $P=0.48$ ); H) *Festuca brachyphylla* (Fesbra,

523  $F_{1,26}=14.71$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); I) *Geum rossii* (Geuros,  $F_{4,49}=6.39$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); J) *Kobresia myosuroides*

524 (Kobmyo,  $F_{1,13}=3.66$ ,  $P=0.07$ ); K) *Lloydia serotina* (Lloser,  $F_{2,22}=10.75$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); L) *Luzula*

525 *spicata* (Luzspi,  $F_{1,10}=5.38$ ,  $P=0.04$ ); M) *Mertensia lanceolata* (Merlan,  $F_{2,23}=1.94$ ,  $P=0.17$ ); N)

526 *Minuartia obtusiloba* (Minobt,  $F_{3,36}=10.19$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); O) *Oreoxis alpina* (Orealp,  $F_{1,18}=1.35$ ,

527  $P=0.26$ ); P) *Ranunculus adoneus* (Ranado,  $F_{1,18}=7.76$ ,  $P=0.01$ ); Q) *Silene acaulis* (Silaca,

528  $F_{1,18}=12.39$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); R) *Tetraneuris acaulis* (Tetaca,  $F_{1,18}=0.26$ ,  $P=0.63$ ); S) *Trifolium*

529 *dasyphyllum* (Tridas,  $F_{1,17}=5.72$ ,  $P=0.03$ ); U) *Trifolium parryi* (Tripar,  $F_{2,29}=1.14$ ,  $P=0.33$ ).

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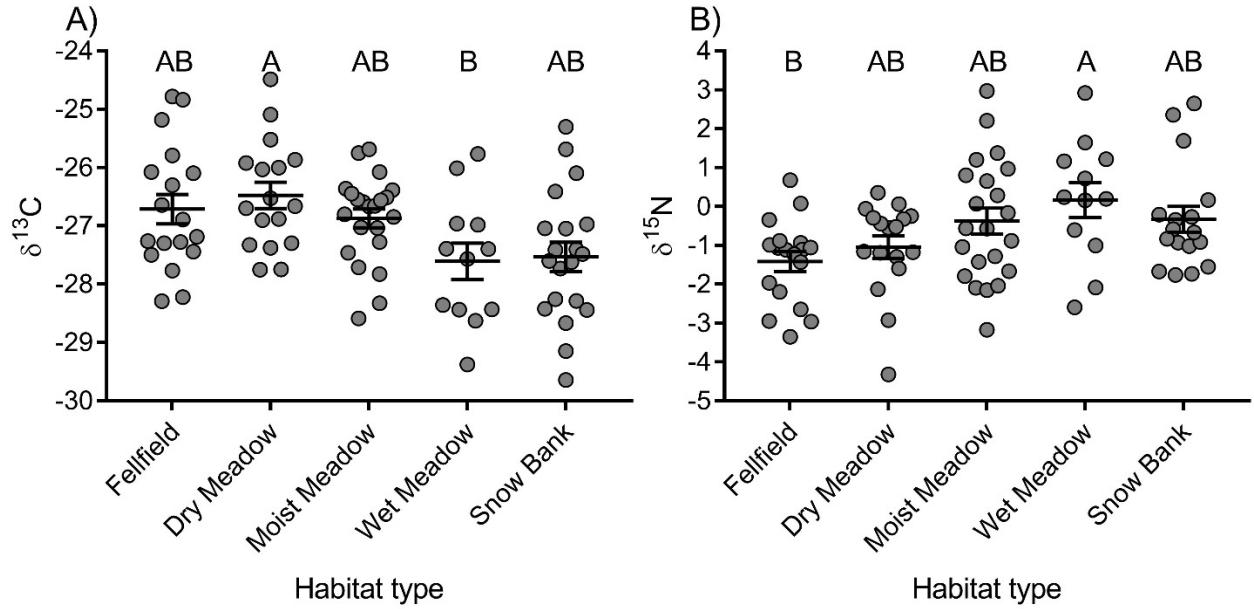
531 Figure 3. Intraspecific variation in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  among species sampled in multiple habitat types in  
 532 alpine tundra. Habitats with no data points indicate that species was not present in that habitat  
 533 type. The longer horizontal line represents the mean value for each habitat type and shorter  
 534 horizontal lines represent one standard deviation. Letters represent significant differences among  
 535 habitat types based on Tukey post-hoc comparisons. A) *Artemisia scopulorum* (Artsco,  
 536  $F_{4,47}=4.19$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); B) *Bistorta bistortoides* (Bisbis,  $F_{3,41}=4.01$ ,  $P=0.01$ ); C) *Caltha leptosepala*  
 537 (Callep,  $F_{2,27}=1.86$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); D) *Carex rupestris* (Carrup,  $F_{2,26}=1.48$ ,  $P=0.25$ ); E) *Carex*  
 538 *scopulorum* (Carsco,  $F_{2,32}=1.09$ ,  $P=0.35$ ); F) *Deschampsia caespitosa* (Desces,  $F_{3,43}=4.78$ ,  
 539  $P<0.01$ ); G) *Erigeron simplex* (Erisim,  $F_{2,23}=7.19$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); H) *Festuca brachyphylla* (Fesbra,  
 540  $F_{1,26}=1.34$ ,  $P=0.26$ ); I) *Geum rossii* (Geuros,  $F_{4,49}=7.59$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); J) *Kobresia myosuroides*  
 541 (Kobmyo,  $F_{1,13}=16.18$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); K) *Lloydia serotina* (Lloser,  $F_{2,22}=10.28$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); L) *Luzula*  
 542 *spicata* (Luzspi,  $F_{1,10}=14.15$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); M) *Mertensia lanceolate* (Merlan,  $F_{2,23}=15.44$ ,  $P<0.01$ );  
 543 N) *Minuartia obtusiloba* (Minobt,  $F_{3,36}=1.09$ ,  $P=0.36$ ); O) *Oreoxis alpina* (Orealp,  $F_{1,18}=1.00$ ,  
 544  $P=0.33$ ); P) *Ranunculus adoneus* (Ranado,  $F_{1,18}=28.88$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); Q) *Silene acaulis* (Silaca,  
 545  $F_{1,18}=0.00$ ,  $P=0.97$ ); R) *Tetraneuris acaulis* (Tetaca,  $F_{1,18}=13.92$ ,  $P<0.01$ ); S) *Trifolium*  
 546 *dasyphyllum* (Tridas,  $F_{1,17}=1.42$ ,  $P=0.25$ ); U) *Trifolium parryi* (Tripar,  $F_{2,29}=0.08$ ,  $P=0.92$ ).  
 547

548 Figure 4. Tundra wide variation in A)  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and B)  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  among plant species in alpine tundra. We  
 549 found a weak phylogenetic signal in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (Pagel's  $\lambda = 0.29$ ) where phylogenetic signal was  
 550 significantly greater than 0 ( $P=0.004$ ), but not greater than 0.5 which indicates closely related  
 551 species are more similar to each other than expected by random chance.

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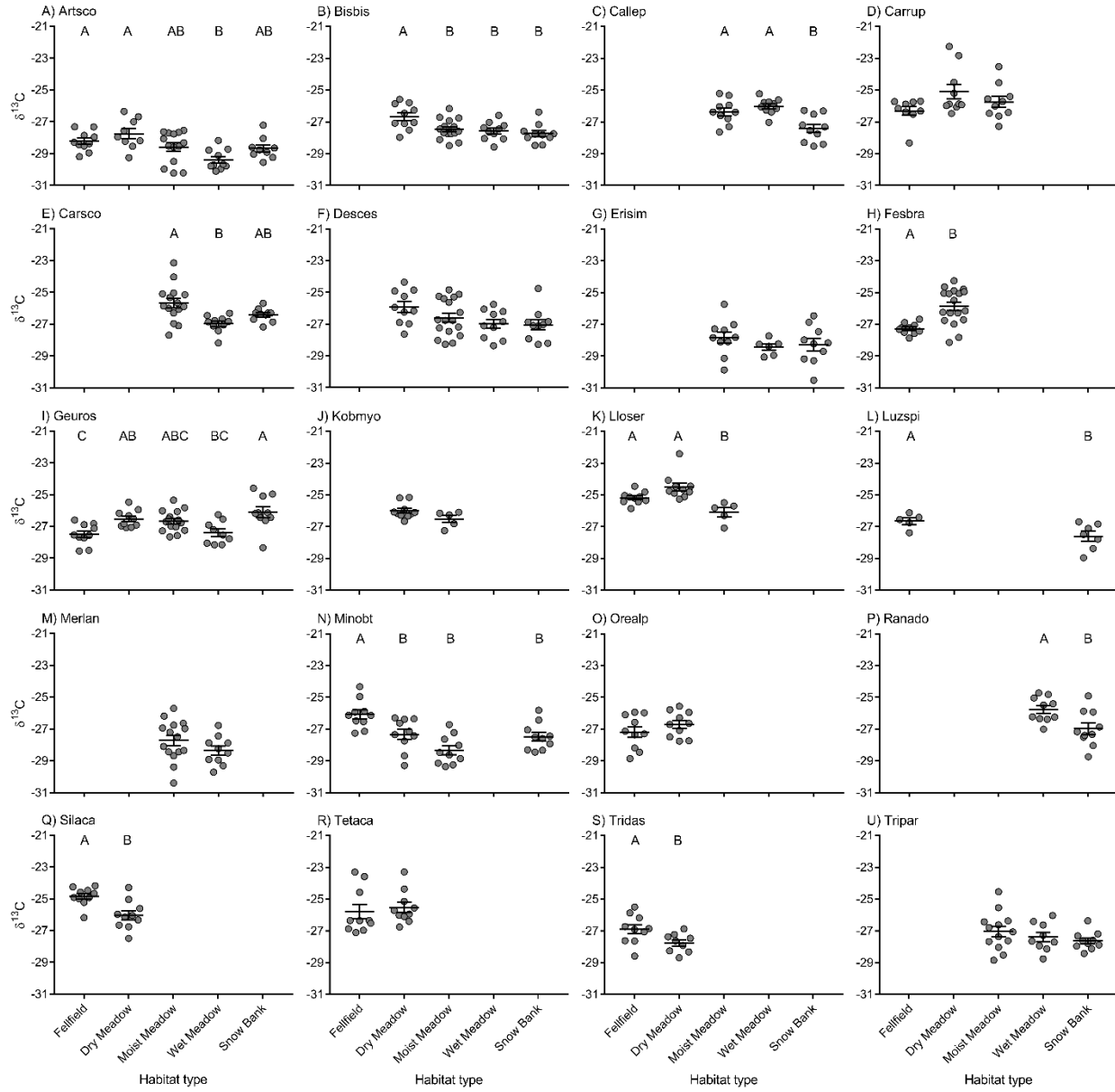
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554 **Figures**



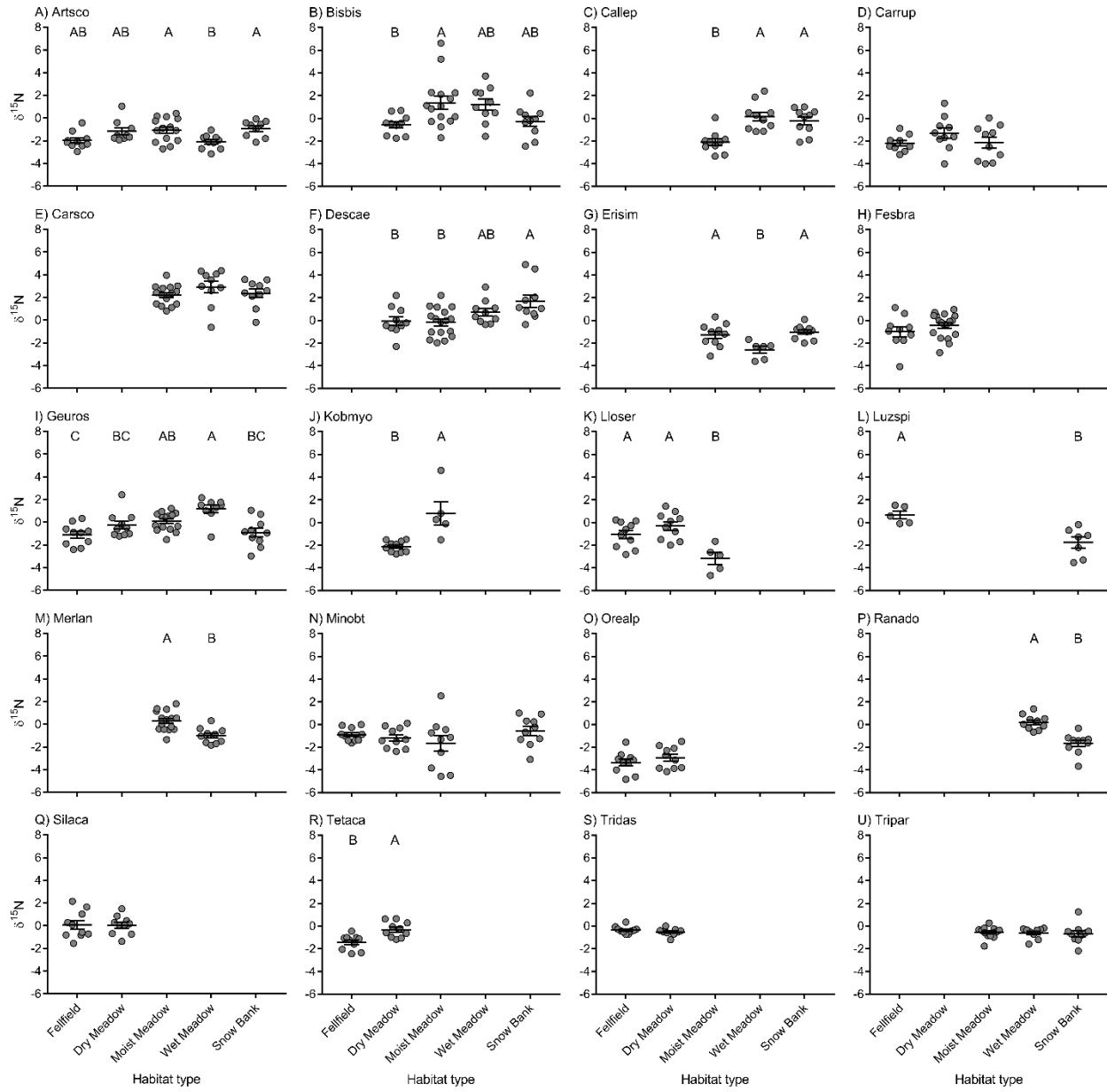
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556 Figure 1.



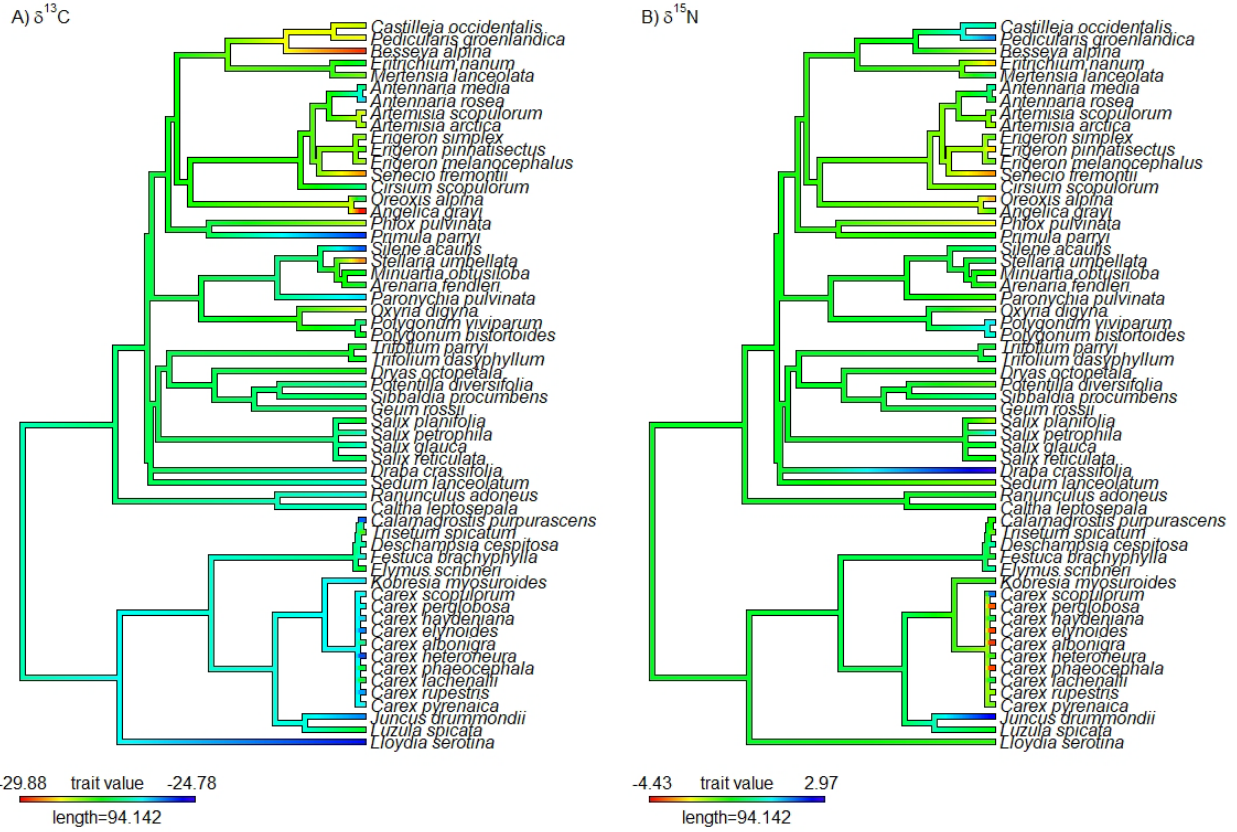
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558 Figure 2.



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560 Figure 3.



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562 Figure 4.

563 **Supplementary Material**564 **Supplementary Table 1. Mean isotope values for each of 62 species**

Species	Family	Functional group	Mean <sup>15</sup> N	Mean <sup>13</sup> C
<i>Angelica grayi</i>	Apiaceae	Forb	-1.42705	-29.8801
<i>Oreoxis alpina</i>	Apiaceae	Forb	-3.13854	-26.9411
<i>Antennaria media</i>	Asteraceae	Forb	0.347703	-26.9023
<i>Antennaria rosea</i>	Asteraceae	Forb	-0.73262	-25.9745
<i>Artemisia arctica</i>	Asteraceae	Forb	-2.03287	-28.1945
<i>Artemisia scopulorum</i>	Asteraceae	Forb	-1.4221	-28.5373
<i>Cirsium scopulorum</i>	Asteraceae	Forb	-1.59712	-26.8806
<i>Erigeron melanocephalus</i>	Asteraceae	Forb	-1.55108	-28.2583
<i>Erigeron pinnatisectus</i>	Asteraceae	Forb	-2.95142	-27.7673
<i>Erigeron simplex</i>	Asteraceae	Forb	-1.48394	-28.1437
<i>Senecio fremontii</i>	Asteraceae	Forb	-3.38198	-29.1469
<i>Tetranneuris acaulis</i>	Asteraceae	Forb	-0.87676	-25.6595
<i>Hymenoxys grandiflora</i>	Asteraceae	Forb	-1.19299	-27.3755
<i>Eritrichium nanum</i>	Boraginaceae	Forb	-2.96747	-27.2604
<i>Mertensia lanceolata</i>	Boraginaceae	Forb	-0.23383	-27.9698
<i>Draba crassifolia</i>	Brassicaceae	Forb	2.965355	-26.3877
<i>Arenaria fendleri</i>	Caryophyllaceae	Forb	-1.06706	-27.2981
<i>Minuartia obtusiloba</i>	Caryophyllaceae	Forb	-1.07875	-27.3032
<i>Silene acaulis</i>	Caryophyllaceae	Forb	0.065092	-25.4342
<i>Stellaria umbellata</i>	Caryophyllaceae	Forb	-0.28723	-29.225
<i>Sedum lanceolatum</i>	Crassulaceae	Forb	-1.79133	-26.4461
<i>Gentiana algida</i>	Gentianaceae	Forb	1.199709	-26.8042
<i>Lloydia serotina</i>	Liliaceae	Forb	-1.17772	-25.0833
<i>Castilleja occidentalis</i>	Orobanchaceae	Forb	0.235086	-28.4376
<i>Pedicularis groenlandica</i>	Orobanchaceae	Forb	1.639541	-28.6262
<i>Phlox pulvinata</i>	Polemoniaceae	Forb	-2.65099	-28.2927
<i>Oxyria digyna</i>	Polygonaceae	Forb	-1.70019	-28.4405
<i>Paronychia pulvinata</i>	Polygonaceae	Forb	-1.22812	-26.0999
<i>Bistorta bistortoides</i>	Polygonaceae	Forb	0.54241	-27.369
<i>Bistorta viviparum</i>	Polygonaceae	Forb	0.966662	-26.8467
<i>Primula parryi</i>	Primulaceae	Forb	-0.83107	-25.3016
<i>Caltha leptosepala</i>	Ranunculaceae	Forb	-0.71647	-26.5955
<i>Ranunculus adoneus</i>	Ranunculaceae	Forb	-0.73883	-26.3695
<i>Dryas octopetala</i>	Rosaceae	Forb	-0.93536	-27.4404
<i>Geum rossii</i>	Rosaceae	Forb	-0.20873	-26.8118
<i>Potentilla diversifolia</i>	Rosaceae	Forb	-1.42432	-26.6574
<i>Sibbaldia procumbens</i>	Rosaceae	Forb	0.165595	-27.0414
<i>Besseyia alpina</i>	Scrophulariaceae	Forb	-2.18539	-29.6413
<i>Carex albonigra</i>	Cyperaceae	Graminoid	-4.43429	-26.8349
<i>Carex elynoides</i>	Cyperaceae	Graminoid	-4.30962	-25.5602

<i>Carex haydeniana</i>	Cyperaceae	Graminoid	-0.19473	-26.0505
<i>Carex heteroneura</i>	Cyperaceae	Graminoid	-1.09424	-25.2246
<i>Carex lachenalii</i>	Cyperaceae	Graminoid	-0.34446	-27.4033
<i>Carex perglobosa</i>	Cyperaceae	Graminoid	-4.13385	-26.333
<i>Carex phaeocephala</i>	Cyperaceae	Graminoid	-4.32405	-27.297
<i>Carex pyrenaica</i>	Cyperaceae	Graminoid	-1.59725	-26.2382
<i>Carex rupestris</i>	Cyperaceae	Graminoid	-1.87347	-25.6958
<i>Carex scopulorum</i>	Cyperaceae	Graminoid	2.450562	-26.258
<i>Kobresia myosuroides</i>	Cyperaceae	Graminoid	-1.15172	-26.1738
<i>Juncus drummondii</i>	Juncaceae	Graminoid	2.648734	-25.6878
<i>Luzula spicata</i>	Juncaceae	Graminoid	-0.74869	-27.2016
<i>Calamagrostis purpurascens</i>	Poaceae	Graminoid	-1.11659	-24.7803
<i>Deschampsia cespitosa</i>	Poaceae	Graminoid	0.437937	-26.6307
<i>Elymus scribneri</i>	Poaceae	Graminoid	0.248101	-27.3611
<i>Festuca brachyphylla</i>	Poaceae	Graminoid	-0.6425	-26.3692
<i>Trisetum spicatum</i>	Poaceae	Graminoid	-1.73252	-28.4203
<i>Trifolium dasyphyllum</i>	Fabaceae	N fixing Forb	-0.43103	-27.2997
<i>Trifolium parryi</i>	Fabaceae	N Fixing Forb	-0.61177	-27.3166
<i>Salix glauca</i>	Salicaceae	Shrub	-0.56828	-26.5468
<i>Salix petrophila</i>	Salicaceae	Shrub	0.650729	-26.5646
<i>Salix planifolia</i>	Salicaceae	Shrub	-2.04392	-27.2793
<i>Salix reticulata</i>	Salicaceae	Shrub	-0.88636	-27.0354