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Co-ordination in morphological leaf traits of early diverging angiosperms is maintained following exposure to experimental palaeo-atmospheric conditions of sub-ambient O₂ and elevated CO₂

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10 atmosphere

11 **Abstract**

12 In order to be successful in a given environment a plant should invest in a vein network and stomatal
13 distribution that ensures balance between both water supply and demand. Vein density (D_v) and
14 stomatal density (SD) have been shown to be strongly positively correlated in response to a range of
15 environmental variables in more recently evolved plant species, but the extent of this relationship has
16 not been confirmed in earlier diverging plant lineages. In order to examine the effect of a changing
17 atmosphere on the relationship between D_v and SD, five early-diverging plant species representing
18 two different reproductive plant grades were grown for seven months in a palaeo-treatment
19 comprising an O₂:CO₂ ratio that has occurred multiple times throughout plant evolutionary history.
20 Results show a range of species-specific D_v and SD responses to the palaeo-treatment, however we
21 show that the strong relationship between D_v and SD under modern ambient atmospheric
22 composition is maintained following exposure to the palaeo-treatment. This suggests strong inter-
23 specific co-ordination between vein and stomatal traits for our study species even under relatively
24 extreme environmental change. This co-ordination supports existing plant function proxies that use
25 the distance between vein endings and stomata (D_m) to infer plant palaeo-physiology.

26 **Introduction**

27 Global diversity in plant and leaf architecture reflects a plasticity in morphology that allows plants to
28 survive in a range of environments (Díaz et al., 2016). In this current era of rapid climate change,
29 understanding the relationships between plant morphological traits and how they might be influenced
30 by the surrounding environment is of the utmost importance, enabling predictions of plant responses
31 over the coming decades as atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) rises. Plants are a critical component
32 of the hydrological cycle, influencing the amount of water vapour that is returned to the atmosphere
33 via the process of transpiration (Rodell et al., 2015). The predicted future increases in CO₂ and global

34 temperatures will have an impact on plant physiological function and morphological traits and will
35 consequently influence the hydrological cycle (Gedney et al., 2006; Betts et al., 2007). The present
36 study focuses on vein and stomatal density, two plant morphological traits that play a pivotal role in
37 the transpirational pathway, and attempts to understand how one may influence the other as a plant
38 encounters environmental change.

39 Stomata are microscopic pores on a leaf surface that regulate gas exchange. CO₂ from the atmosphere
40 which is essential for photosynthesis is exchanged for water vapour from the inside of the leaf (Jones,
41 1992). Stomata respond to environmental cues, opening in response to increasing light, low carbon
42 dioxide, and high humidity (Assmann 1999; Outlaw 2003; See review by Roelfsema and Hedrich
43 2005; Vavasseur and Raghavendra 2005; Shimazaki et al., 2007; Lawson 2009). Stomatal opening
44 results in an increase in stomatal pore aperture which leads to an increase in both carbon uptake and
45 water loss from the leaf. Stomatal density (SD) is the number of stomata per mm² of leaf tissue and it
46 is determined by various genetic (Nadeau and Sack 2002; Shpak et al., 2005) and environmental
47 factors (McElwain and Chaloner 1995; Woodward and Kelly 1995; Casson and Gray 2008). A
48 change in SD alters gas exchange along the plants' diffusional pathway, influencing transpiration and
49 therefore water demand. Veins are found in the leaves of plants, and are differentiations of the
50 vascular bundles that transport water and nutrients from the soil to leaves, as well as sucrose from
51 leaves to the storage sites of the plant (Sack and Holbrook 2006). A network of major and minor
52 veins (some species only have major veins) carries water throughout the leaf tissue to the stomata
53 where it is lost to the atmosphere as water vapour. Vein density (D_v) is the length of veins per leaf
54 area (mm mm⁻²), and in angiosperms it is determined predominantly by the minor veins, as they
55 make up > 80% of the total vein length of the leaf (Sack et al., 2012). Minor vein density has been
56 shown to be an important functional plant trait, exerting a strong influence over xylem conductivity
57 (K_x) and outside xylem conductivity (K_{ox}), parameters that determine leaf hydraulic conductance
58 (K_{leaf}) (Sack and Frole 2006; McKown et al., 2010). Thus it could be said that in the same way that
59 stomatal density and size influence the water demands of a plant, the vein architecture influences its
60 water supply.

61 In order to be successful in a given environment a plant should invest in a vein network and stomatal
62 distribution that ensures balance between both water supply and demand. Maintaining this balance
63 via co-ordinated shifts in venation and stomatal traits should ensure that the plant is operating at
64 optimal efficiency in terms of carbon uptake and water loss, conforming to the optimality principle
65 (Sack and Scoffoni 2013). Previous studies have found a strong relationship between D_v and SD in
66 response to light (Brodribb and Jordan 2011) and vapour pressure deficit (Carins Murphy et al.,
67 2014) in certain derived plant species and between SD and transpiration (T) across a range of ferns,
68 conifers, and angiosperms from both tropical and temperate ecosystems (Boyce et al., 2009). D_v and
69 SD have been shown to be strongly correlated with modelled maximum theoretical stomatal
70 conductance (g_{max}) in a diverse range of Proteaceae species (Brodribb et al., 2013). Furthermore, a
71 recent study using a range of modern and basal plant species grown in greenhouse conditions has also
72 reported a strong correlation between D_v and g_{max} (McElwain et al., 2016a), suggesting that this
73 balance does indeed exist. Moreover, other studies combine anatomical and physiological
74 measurements to uncover the links between the architectural properties of a leaf and photosynthetic
75 potential. For example, a proxy for leaf photosynthetic capacity has been developed based on the
76 mesophyll path length (D_m) between vein endings and stomata. In multi-veined species, veins should
77 be optimally placed to minimise D_m ensuring maximum photosynthetic capacity (Brodribb et al.,
78 2007). These results together demonstrate the potential link between leaf hydraulic morphology and
79 photosynthetic physiology and also highlight the ability of plants to maintain a balance between leaf
80 phenotypic traits under environmental change.

81 The co-ordination between water supply (D_v) and demand (SD) traits is critical to plant success and
82 the relationship between the two seems to be conserved across the major plant groups under present
83 day atmospheric conditions (Boyce et al., 2009; Brodribb and Jordan 2011; Brodribb et al., 2013;
84 Carins Murphy et al., 2014; McElwain et al., 2016a). However, it is not known whether this
85 relationship is maintained when levels of oxygen (O_2) and CO_2 in the atmosphere change. Co-
86 ordination between these two morphological traits may have been critical throughout the past 400
87 million years during times of fluctuating atmospheric O_2 and CO_2 . Maintaining this balance between
88 water supply and demand may have allowed certain species to operate more efficiently in their
89 environment. For example, it has been widely proposed that the co-evolution of leaf traits (an
90 increase in D_v and SD) during the Cretaceous decline in atmospheric CO_2 allowed angiosperms to
91 outcompete other plant groups as they transitioned from predominantly moist to drier habitats (Boyce
92 and Zwieniecki 2012; de Boer et al., 2012; McElwain et al., 2016a).

93 Stomatal density has been shown to be inversely proportional to atmospheric CO_2 (McElwain and
94 Chaloner 1995; Woodward and Kelly 1995; Beerling and Woodward 1996; Royer 2001; Konrad et
95 al., 2008; Franks and Beerling 2009a, 2009b) and it has been accepted as a palaeo-environmental
96 proxy for CO_2 on this basis. Studies examining SD responses to concurrent changes in atmospheric
97 O_2 and CO_2 are scarce, as are those investigating D_v responses to atmospheric change. In one of the
98 few studies, examining both living and herbarium material of *Acer monspessulanum* L. and *Quercus*
99 *petraea* Liebl, no change was observed in D_v in response to an increase in CO_2 from 280ppm to
100 350ppm (Uhl and Mosbrugger 1999). However, in other studies D_v has been shown to respond to
101 environmental change (Brodribb and Jordan 2011; Sack and Scoffoni 2013; Carins Murphy et al.,
102 2014) and has also been used in models to predict both atmospheric carbon dioxide partial pressure
103 and temperature (Blonder and Enquist 2014). Furthermore, D_v has the potential to be a useful palaeo-
104 environmental proxy, as venation networks are often preserved in fossilised plant material. For
105 example, studies have shown an increase in D_v in angiosperms during the Cretaceous period when
106 CO_2 was declining (Feild et al., 2011b; Boyce and Zwieniecki 2012).

107 Using a range of early diverging plant species (Figure 1), this study examines for the first time the
108 effect of changing atmospheric conditions on the relationship between D_v , SD, and g_{max} . Using four
109 angiosperm and one fern species, the plasticity and co-ordination of these morphological plant traits
110 was assessed in a low O_2 /high CO_2 atmosphere. In the context of this study, co-ordination in plant
111 traits refers to either inter-specific or intra-specific co-ordination. Inter-specific co-ordination is taken
112 to mean an observable trend in morphological plant traits across the experimental species. Intra-
113 specific co-ordination on the other hand, is when the direction of change of plant traits is the same
114 within a single species. We acknowledge that the number of species studied here is relatively small
115 and experimental conditions limited to one palaeo-treatment, and as such, results discussed here are
116 merely intended to be a suggestion of the possible behaviour of early diverging plant species under
117 changing atmospheric conditions. Further studies using a wider range of species and palaeo-
118 treatments will build on the current study and will allow more robust conclusions to be drawn.

119 Results were used to determine the robustness of plant function proxies that rely on co-ordination in
120 morphological traits (such as the use of D_m as a proxy for palaeo-assimilation rate (Brodribb et al.,
121 2007; Wilson et al., 2015)), specifically when applied at times of the geological past when the
122 atmospheric composition was different from that of today. Theoretical maximum stomatal
123 conductance (g_{max}) is a plant functional trait calculated using both SD and anatomical measurements
124 of stomatal geometry (Franks and Beerling 2009a). This trait has been used in palaeo- CO_2 proxy
125 models (Franks et al., 2014) to infer past CO_2 levels from the stomatal conductance (g_s) of ancient
126 fossil species. The extent of the relationship between g_{max} and operational stomatal conductance (g_{op})

127 has been shown in two angiosperm species (Franks et al., 2009; Dow et al., 2014) and more recently
 128 in a range of basal angiosperm, gymnosperm, and fern species (McElwain et al., 2016a). Across this
 129 range of basal species g_{\max} and g_{op} were found to be strongly related ($r^2 = 0.54$), with a scaling
 130 relationship of $g_{\text{op}} = 0.25 g_{\max}$. Therefore g_{\max} was used in the current study as a means to infer
 131 changes in physiological behaviour with a change in the concentration of O_2 and CO_2 and to relate
 132 this to changes in D_v .

133 **Materials and Methods**

134 Species and growth conditions

135 Plant species from two different evolutionary plant groups, ferns (*Cyathea australis*) and
 136 angiosperms (*Chimonanthus praecox*, *Magnolia delavayi*, *Cornus capitata*, and *Zantedeschia*
 137 *aethiopica*), were grown for approximately 7 months in Conviron (Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada)
 138 BDW-40 walk-in plant growth chambers at PÉAC (Programme for Experimental Atmospheres and
 139 Climate), Rosemount Environmental Research Station, University College Dublin. For each of these
 140 plant groups, the earliest diverging species obtainable from each plant family was used in order to
 141 follow the nearest living relative (NLR) protocol (Mosbrugger 2009), whereby the responses of
 142 extant plant species can be said to reflect the responses of their extinct relatives. Growth conditions
 143 were set to ambient (2 chambers at 21% O_2 and 400 ppm CO_2 , $\text{O}_2:\text{CO}_2$ ratio of 525) and a palaeo-
 144 treatment of low O_2 /high CO_2 (3 chambers at 16% O_2 and 1900 ppm CO_2 , $\text{O}_2:\text{CO}_2$ ratio of 84.21).
 145 These conditions represent prehistoric modelled atmospheres (Bergman et al., 2004; Berner 2009)
 146 that likely occurred multiple times throughout the last 400 million years, for example in the Devonian
 147 (~ 419-359 mya), the late Triassic (~ 218-201 mya), and Jurassic periods (~ 201-145 mya) (Willis
 148 and McElwain 2014). Plants were given water and nutrients according to the individual species
 149 requirements (See Table S1). Chambers were set to a 16h day/8h night schedule, with day/night
 150 temperatures of 20°C /15°C, relative humidity of 65% and a photosynthetic photon flux density
 151 (PPFD) of 600 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

152 SD, D_v , and g_{\max} quantification

153 SD and D_v were quantified on three leaves per plant, and four plants per species per treatment using a
 154 modified vein density protocol (Berlyn and Miksche, 1976; Perez-Harguindequy et al., 2013). Leaves
 155 were cleared in 5% NaOH, bleached, and then brought through a series of 30%, 50%, 70%, and
 156 100% ethanol. Leaves were then stained using Safranin and Fast Green before being brought back
 157 through the ethanol series in the reverse order (100% - 30% ethanol). Leaves were then suspended in
 158 distilled water before being mounted on glass slides for microscopy. For SD quantification, multiple
 159 images (on average 6 images) were taken over an area of approximately 1cm^2 per leaf and stomatal
 160 counts performed using Image J software inside a superimposed grid of 0.09mm^2 on each image
 161 (this area was already determined to be the most representative of the entire leaf using the protocol of
 162 Poole and Kürschner from Jones and Rowe (1999)). For D_v quantification, images were taken on
 163 three areas of each leaf (an area of approximately 2mm^2 near the tip, centre, and bottom of the leaf
 164 near the petiole) and using Image J software the length of veins in these areas was manually traced
 165 (using a Wacom Intuos4 pen tablet) and D_v calculated in Excel. Minor D_v is independent of leaf size
 166 and accounts for the majority (>80%) of total vein length per area in most angiosperms (Sack et al.,
 167 2012), therefore vein length per area was calculated only on minor veins (quaternary orders
 168 upwards), major veins being excluded from analysis. Images were taken using a Leica DM2500
 169 microscope with Leica DFC300FX camera (Leica® Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) attached and

170 Syncroscopy Automontage (Syncroscopy, Cambridge, United Kingdom) digital imaging software
171 was used to impose grids and scale bars on each image.

172 For g_{\max} quantification, anatomical measurements of 120 stomata per species and per treatment were
173 obtained using the same images used for SD determination (See Table 1 for parameter values). g_{\max}
174 was calculated using the following diffusion equation (Parlange and Waggoner 1970; Franks and
175 Beerling 2009a):

$$g_{\max} = \frac{\left(\frac{dw}{v} \cdot SD \cdot pa_{\max}\right)}{pd + \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \sqrt{pa_{\max}/\pi}}$$

176 dw = diffusivity of water vapour at 25°C (0.0000249 m² s⁻¹), v = molar volume of air (0.0224 m³
177 mol⁻¹), SD = Stomatal density (m⁻²), pa_{\max} = max stomatal pore area (m²), pd = stomatal pore depth
178 (m). The maximum stomatal pore area was calculated (treating the pore as an ellipse) by using
179 stomatal pore length as the long axis, pore length/2 as the short axis and taking the stomatal pore
180 depth as being equal to the width of a fully turgid guard cell (Franks and Beerling 2009a, 2009b). It
181 is important to note here that guard cells examined in the current study were not experimentally
182 maintained at maximum turgor before anatomical measurements were made. Even though this might
183 lead to a slight underestimation of g_{\max} , this approach is in line with that used in many other palaeo-
184 studies (Franks and Beerling 2009a, 2009b).

185 Vein density responses of a selection of non-angiosperm species from 2009 palaeo-experiment

186 In order to assess whether other non-angiosperm species show a change in D_v under different
187 atmospheric compositions, dried plant material from a previous palaeo-experiment was analysed for
188 D_v . Representatives of both the gymnosperms (*Agathis australis*, *Lepidozamia peroffskyana*, and
189 *Ginkgo biloba*) and ferns (*Osmunda regalis*) were grown for 18 months in walk-in Conviron growth
190 chambers in both an ambient and low O₂/high CO₂ atmosphere (Ambient treatment: 20.9 % O₂ and
191 380ppm CO₂, low O₂/ high CO₂ treatment: 13% O₂ and 1500 ppm CO₂, O₂:CO₂ ratios 552.63 and
192 86.67 respectively). These species have either parallel or dichotomously branching major veins,
193 therefore it was not necessary to clear and stain leaves for D_v observation. D_v was calculated on one
194 leaf per plant and three plants per species per treatment. Leaves were imaged using a Nikon
195 SMZ1000 stereomicroscope with Leica DFC490 camera attached (Leica[®] Microsystems, Wetzlar,
196 Germany), and using Image J software the length of veins was manually traced and D_v calculated in
197 Excel in an area between 20mm² and 60mm².

198 Statistical analysis

199 Data were first checked for normal distribution and Generalised Linear Models were run in Minitab
200 (version 16.1.1) statistical software to investigate differences in SD , D_v , and g_{\max} between treatments
201 (Figure 2). Minitab (version 16.1.1) statistical software was also used for correlation tests (Figure 4),
202 boxplot representation of data (Figure 2, Figure 5), and to graphically display percent changes in SD ,
203 D_v , and g_{\max} (Figure 3). RStudio (version 0.99.489) was used for Standardised Major Axis (SMA)
204 regression analysis and for scatterplot representation of data (Figure 4).

205

206

207 **Results**

208 Species show a varied and species-specific response in SD, D_v , and g_{\max} to the palaeo-treatment
 209 (Figure 2, Table 1). A significant decrease in SD is seen in two species (*Chimonanthus praecox*
 210 shows a 24% and *Zantedeschia aethiopica* a 34% decrease), *Magnolia delavayi* and *Cyathea*
 211 *australis* show a non-significant yet noticeable decrease (8% and 15% respectively), and another
 212 angiosperm (*Cornus capitata*) shows a small (9%), but non-significant increase (Figure 2A, Figure
 213 3). D_v shows a similar mix of responses, three of the species show a significant decrease
 214 (*Chimonanthus praecox*, *Zantedeschia aethiopica*, and *Cyathea australis* decrease by 15%, 12%, and
 215 17% respectively), *Magnolia delavayi* shows a very slight (2%) yet non-significant increase, and
 216 *Cornus capitata* shows a significant (14%) increase (Figure 2B, Figure 3). Two of the angiosperm
 217 species (*Chimonanthus praecox* and *Zantedeschia aethiopica*) show a significant decrease in g_{\max}
 218 (16% and 32% respectively) in response to the palaeo-treatment, with *Magnolia delavayi* showing a
 219 non-significant decrease (11%), *Cornus capitata* a non-significant increase (15%), and *Cyathea*
 220 *australis* a non-significant decrease (2%) (Figure 2C, Figure 3). See Table S2 for results of
 221 generalised linear models (F and associated p-values).

222 Three out of four angiosperm species (*Chimonanthus praecox*, *Cornus capitata*, and *Zantedeschia*
 223 *aethiopica*) and the fern species *Cyathea australis* demonstrate intra-specific co-ordination of D_v ,
 224 SD, and g_{\max} in response to the palaeo-treatment (Figure 3). This co-ordination is evident even
 225 though one angiosperm species (*Cornus capitata*) shows an increase in all three parameters while the
 226 remaining species show a decrease. *Magnolia delavayi* shows co-ordination in two plant traits in
 227 response to the palaeo-treatment (SD and g_{\max}), however co-ordination is lacking between both of
 228 these parameters and D_v .

229 The positive relationship between D_v and SD (Figure 4A) is strong under ambient conditions
 230 (Pearson's correlation coefficient: $r = 0.91$, SMA regression: $r^2 = 0.82$) and it persists in the palaeo-
 231 treatment ($r = 0.86$, $r^2 = 0.73$). Similarly, D_v and g_{\max} (Figure 4B) show a strong relationship under
 232 both the ambient ($r = 0.87$, $r^2 = 0.76$) and palaeo-treatment ($r = 0.73$, $r^2 = 0.53$). The slopes of the
 233 regression lines between D_v and SD and D_v and g_{\max} are not significantly different in the ambient and
 234 palaeo-treatments ($D_v = 0.01SD + 2.53$ for ambient and $D_v = 0.01SD + 2.39$ for palaeo-treatment; D_v
 235 $= 0.003g_{\max} + 2.85$ for ambient and $D_v = 0.003g_{\max} + 2.66$ for palaeo-treatment).

236 **Discussion**

237 SD, D_v , and g_{\max} responses to low O₂/high CO₂

238 Results of the current study reflect variability in SD responses to atmospheric change. The inverse
 239 relationship between SD and CO₂ has been well documented in the literature using both fossil,
 240 herbarium, and living plant material (Woodward and Kelly 1995; McElwain and Chaloner 1995;
 241 Beerling and Woodward 1996; Royer 2001; Konrad et al., 2008; Franks and Beerling 2009a, 2009b).
 242 However, this inverse relationship is not universal across all species (Beerling and Kelly 1997;
 243 Haworth et al., 2013). Stomatal responses to O₂ are not well documented in the literature to date. The
 244 few existing studies however show an increase in stomatal index (ratio of stomata to epidermal cells
 245 or SI) in response to growth in 35% O₂ (Beerling et al., 1998), and a range of SD and SI responses to
 246 growth in a combined low O₂/high CO₂ treatment, as well as to separate low O₂ and high CO₂
 247 treatments (Haworth et al., 2013).

248 The observed decrease in D_v in the majority of species exposed to the palaeo-treatment is likely a
 249 consequence of an overall lower water demand due to stomatal optimisation in a high CO₂

250 atmosphere. Reduced g_s in response to high CO_2 has been shown in previous studies (Haworth et al.,
 251 2013). This overall reduction in SD and D_v reflects a balance between water supply and demand in
 252 the palaeo-treatment, and the overall result would likely be a reduction in allocation of resources to
 253 non-essential veins and stomata, and a maximisation of resource use. It is important to acknowledge
 254 that the SD and D_v responses observed in the current study cannot be attributed to either low O_2 or
 255 high CO_2 alone without undertaking additional and separate sub-ambient O_2 and elevated CO_2
 256 growth experiments using the same species. For the purposes of this analysis, suffice it to say that
 257 any SD and D_v responses are the result of the specific $\text{O}_2:\text{CO}_2$ ratio in the palaeo-treatment growth
 258 chambers.

259 It is noteworthy that only two of the studied species (*Chimonanthus praecox* and *Magnolia delavayi*)
 260 have vein densities higher than 6mm mm^{-2} (Figure 2B), the 'critical vein density' (Feild et al., 2011b;
 261 de Boer et al., 2012) that angiosperms are thought to have surpassed as they rose to dominance in the
 262 Cretaceous. This emphasises the similarity between our chosen study species and those very early
 263 evolving angiosperms that had vein densities as low as non-angiosperms (Brodribb and Feild 2010;
 264 Boyce and Zwieniecki 2012). The significant D_v decrease seen in the fern species (*Cyathea australis*)
 265 is interesting (Figure 2B), as it is thought that non-angiosperm species are incapable of altering their
 266 vein architecture in the same way that angiosperm species can (de Boer et al., 2012; Boyce et al.,
 267 2009). Non-angiosperms seem to exhibit limited plasticity in D_v when exposed to a long-term palaeo-
 268 atmospheric treatment (Figure 5). Examination of archived leaf material of three gymnosperms and
 269 one fern species from a 2009 palaeo-experiment (Haworth et al., 2013) shows that growth in a low
 270 O_2 /high CO_2 atmosphere results in a change in D_v in one gymnosperm species (*Agathis australis*), but
 271 has no effect on D_v in the remaining species (two gymnosperms and one fern). These non-
 272 angiosperms have vein densities below 2mm mm^{-2} and all have either parallel or dichotomously
 273 branching major vein networks, implying that this vein configuration may lack developmental
 274 plasticity. The major veins of non-angiosperms are generally thicker in diameter and their xylem
 275 anatomy is distinct from that of the angiosperms, lacking an important feature that is believed to be
 276 paramount in the proliferation of minor veins, vessels with simple perforation plates. Only
 277 angiosperms evolved these less resistive perforation plates, and this in conjunction with the
 278 development of thinner minor veins may have allowed this plant group to outperform non-
 279 angiosperms (Feild and Brodribb 2013). Angiosperms also possess vein endings that are diffuse or
 280 dispersed throughout the leaf allowing them to develop more reticulate venation patterns, whereas
 281 gymnosperms with their marginal vein endings lack this ability (Boyce 2005). An important
 282 implication of the current findings is that some angiosperm species are able to alter their vein density
 283 on a developmental time-scale in response to a change in atmospheric composition; studies to date
 284 have only discussed CO_2 -driven D_v changes across evolutionary time-scales (Brodribb and Feild
 285 2010; Boyce and Zwieniecki 2012; McElwain et al., 2016a). Results of the current study indicate that
 286 at least in some early diverging species, D_v is a plant functional trait that can respond dynamically to
 287 atmospheric change.

288 Relationship between D_v , SD, and g_{max}

289 The strong relationship observed in both the ambient and palaeo-treatment between D_v and SD
 290 (Figure 4A) demonstrates inter-specific co-ordination in two morphological plant traits that
 291 determine hydraulic supply and demand across different plant lineages and under a changing
 292 atmosphere. Furthermore, the robust relationship observed between D_v and g_{max} (Figure 4B)
 293 demonstrates that morphology has the potential to influence the physiological behaviour of these
 294 species, via the strong relationship already found between g_{max} and g_{op} (Franks et al., 2009; Dow et
 295 al., 2014; McElwain et al., 2016a). Examining the direction of change in the morphological traits for

296 each species it is clear that a high degree of intra-specific co-ordination is also occurring (Figure 3).
 297 Three out of four angiosperm species and the fern species show intra-specific co-ordination in D_v ,
 298 SD, and g_{\max} in response to the palaeo-treatment. Co-ordination between traits that determine the
 299 water relations (supply and demand) of a plant is critical for its survival. For example, an increase in
 300 SD and/or g_{\max} would increase the evaporative demands of the plant and without a corresponding
 301 increase in D_v (to match the increase in water demand with an increase in hydraulic supply) the plant
 302 would be mal-adapted to its environment and would most likely not survive. The opposite scenario
 303 would not be as detrimental to plant survival, however a decrease in SD and/or g_{\max} without a
 304 corresponding decrease in D_v would result in a waste of resources, the construction of veins being
 305 costly to the plant (Sack and Scoffoni 2013). This ability to co-ordinate morphological traits under a
 306 changing atmosphere likely occurred throughout plant evolutionary history as the composition of
 307 atmospheric O_2 and CO_2 fluctuated, allowing certain plant species to adapt and survive. During the
 308 Cretaceous decline in atmospheric CO_2 for example, it is thought that angiosperms were able to
 309 increase their gas exchange capacity (thereby increasing photosynthetic rates) by evolving smaller
 310 stomata (Franks and Beerling 2009a), and by increasing both the density of stomata on the leaf
 311 surface and the density of veins (Boyce et al., 2009; Brodribb and Feild 2010; de Boer et al., 2012;
 312 McElwain et al., 2016a). Furthermore, angiosperms that surpassed the ‘critical vein density’ of 6mm
 313 mm^{-2} were able to out-compete the gymnosperms and ferns in niches with high evapotranspirational
 314 demand where an increase in water supply to the leaf would have been necessary for survival (de
 315 Boer et al., 2012). Higher vein densities have been suggested to confer a higher capacity for CO_2
 316 uptake and an increased range of g_{op} ; this would explain the ability of angiosperms to expand to such
 317 diverse habitats and to outcompete species that are more constrained in their venation and hence gas
 318 exchange capacity (McElwain et al., 2016a). A recent study suggests that angiosperms are indeed
 319 hydraulically optimised for a diverse range of environments, achieving this by maintaining an equal
 320 vein to vein and vein to evaporative surface distance in the leaf (Zwieniecki and Boyce 2014). Ferns
 321 are under-invested hydraulically due to their thin leaves and large vein to vein distances, and while
 322 some gymnosperms do approach optimal investment by producing thicker leaves in more water-
 323 demanding environments, they are as a group sub-optimal in terms of vein placement (Zwieniecki
 324 and Boyce 2014).

325 The current study supports these theories by demonstrating a higher degree of plasticity in D_v in
 326 some early diverging angiosperms in response to a changing $O_2:CO_2$ ratio, compared to the studied
 327 gymnosperms and ferns (Figure 5). It is interesting however, that examined non-angiosperm species
 328 from the 2009 palaeo-experiment show limited plasticity in D_v as well as in SD (see SD results for
 329 these non-angiosperm species reported in Haworth et al., 2013). This demonstrates that while these
 330 species do not show a high degree of morphological plasticity in response to a changing atmosphere
 331 on experimental time-scales comparable to the studied angiosperms, they do demonstrate similar co-
 332 ordination in leaf morphological traits.

333 Furthermore, these results suggest that angiosperms are not only capable of showing morphological
 334 plasticity in response to rising O_2 and declining CO_2 (Boyce et al., 2009; Feild et al., 2011b; de Boer
 335 et al., 2012), but also to declining O_2 and high CO_2 conditions. The robust positive relationship
 336 observed here between the density of veins and stomata strongly supports the theory suggested by
 337 Brodribb et al., (2007), whereby multi-veined leaves optimise the placement of veins in relation to
 338 stomata so that the distance water needs to travel through the resistive mesophyll (D_m) is minimised.
 339 Although D_m was not directly measured in this study, the morphological co-ordination observed
 340 suggests that any change in D_v will elicit a corresponding change in SD or vice versa, allowing the
 341 leaf to minimise the distance between veins and stomata, and to maximise photosynthetic
 342 performance and operational efficiency of the leaf.

343 Implications for past plant-atmosphere interactions

344 The experimental species examined show a species-specific and varied response to growth in the
345 palaeo-treatment, yet the strong positive relationship between D_v and SD persists (Figure 4A).
346 Furthermore, the positive relationship observed between D_v and g_{\max} (Figure 4B) demonstrates the
347 link between hydraulic and gas exchange/diffusional processes in these species, as shown in previous
348 studies (Sack et al., 2003; Boyce et al., 2009; Brodribb and Field 2010; Feild et al., 2011a; McElwain
349 et al., 2016a). The finding that D_m is most likely maintained under changing atmospheric conditions
350 (due to the intra-specific co-ordination between D_v and SD) has important implications when
351 attempting to understand plant-atmosphere interactions throughout the last 400 million years of plant
352 evolution. A lack of co-ordination in D_v and SD on developmental time-scales would result in a plant
353 that is morphologically and physiologically out of sync, negatively impacting operational efficiency
354 and overall fitness under changing atmospheric conditions. Furthermore, plant species that exhibited
355 plasticity in these morphological traits under a changing atmosphere would likely have had an
356 ecological advantage over plant species that were morphologically inflexible, being able to maximise
357 their photosynthetic capacity as the surrounding environment changed (McElwain et al., 2016a). The
358 finding that a proxy for photosynthetic capacity (D_m) (Brodribb et al., 2007) remains stable under
359 changing atmospheric conditions is important for accurate initial parameterisation of mechanistically
360 based models used to predict palaeo-CO₂ (Franks et al., 2014) since these require robust estimates of
361 palaeo-assimilation (Franks et al., 2014; McElwain et al., 2016b). The current study focuses on plant
362 responses to an experimentally imposed low O₂/high CO₂ atmosphere. This O₂:CO₂ ratio occurred
363 multiple times throughout plant evolutionary history based on model and proxy estimates (Royer
364 2001; Bergman et al., 2004; Royer et al., 2004; McElwain et al., 2005; Berner 2006, 2009;
365 Steinthorsdottir et al., 2016) however, it would be beneficial to investigate the effect of other
366 atmospheric O₂:CO₂ ratios on these plant trait relationships in order to test their linearity. Further
367 experiments examining plant responses to a range of palaeo-atmospheric conditions will build on
368 these results, providing a better picture of plant-atmosphere interactions over the past 400 million
369 years and allowing predictions of future plant responses to global climate change.

370 **Conclusions**

371 Species show a varied response in SD, D_v , and g_{\max} to growth in an experimental low O₂/high CO₂
372 palaeo-atmosphere. Regardless of this variation in responses, a strong relationship is observed
373 between D_v and SD and D_v and g_{\max} under both the ambient and palaeo-atmosphere. Gymnosperms
374 studied here appear to lack the same degree of developmental plasticity in D_v compared to the
375 angiosperms, at least on short experimental time-scales. The ability to increase their range of D_v
376 values may have contributed to the success of angiosperms during the Cretaceous decline in CO₂; a
377 high degree of plasticity in this trait possibly provided early diverging angiosperms with a
378 competitive advantage over other seed plant groups in more changeable environments. The tight
379 relationship observed between D_v and SD in the palaeo-treatment suggests that D_m is likely
380 maintained under environmental change and lends confidence to existing palaeo-CO₂ proxies that use
381 this parameter in their models. Further studies examining the robustness of these plant trait
382 relationships under a range of O₂:CO₂ ratios are needed in order to elucidate the full spectrum of
383 plant-atmosphere interactions throughout the last 400 million years.

384

385

386 **Table 1.** Measured parameters (\pm standard deviation) for experimental species. SD = stomatal
 387 density, D_v = Vein density, g_{\max} = maximum theoretical stomatal conductance. n = 12 for all species
 388 except *Zantedeschia aethiopica* where n = 9.

	SD mm ²		D_v mm mm ⁻²		Pore length μ m		Pore depth μ m		g_{\max} mmol m ⁻² s ⁻¹	
	Ambient	Palaeo	Ambient	Palaeo	Ambient	Palaeo	Ambient	Palaeo	Ambient	Palaeo
	(n = 12)	(n = 12)	(n = 12)	(n = 12)	(n = 12)	(n = 12)	(n = 12)	(n = 12)	(n = 12)	(n = 12)
<i>Chimonanthus praecox</i>	513 \pm 103.2	390 \pm 102.2	8.3 \pm 0.8	7.0 \pm 1.0	10.4 \pm 1.0	10.9 \pm 1.0	3.8 \pm 0.3	3.4 \pm 0.3	2300 \pm 279.0	1923 \pm 298.9
<i>Magnolia delavayi</i>	343 \pm 48.2	316 \pm 72.7	6.6 \pm 0.5	6.7 \pm 1.1	8.9 \pm 0.9	8.7 \pm 0.8	5.8 \pm 0.9	5.6 \pm 0.9	1018 \pm 210.8	908 \pm 201.3
<i>Cornus capitata</i>	193 \pm 21.8	210 \pm 34.6	4.4 \pm 0.3	5.1 \pm 0.5	10.3 \pm 0.5	10.3 \pm 0.5	6.5 \pm 0.6	5.9 \pm 0.6	671 \pm 74.3	774 \pm 156.5
<i>Zantedeschia aethiopica</i>	104 \pm 20.4	68 \pm 14.7	4.3 \pm 0.5	3.8 \pm 0.2	15.9 \pm 1.7	16.0 \pm 0.9	8.6 \pm 0.5	8.3 \pm 0.8	599 \pm 108.6	406 \pm 75.0
<i>Cyathea australis</i>	171 \pm 50.3	153 \pm 33.2	3.3 \pm 0.2	2.7 \pm 0.2	12.4 \pm 1.4	13.6 \pm 1.7	9.4 \pm 0.8	9.8 \pm 0.5	649 \pm 213.4	676 \pm 230.8

389

390 Figure 1. Diagram illustrating the phylogenetic placement of selected experimental plant species.

391 Figure 2. Changes in (A) SD, (B) D_v and (C) g_{\max} of experimental species in response to the palaeo-
 392 treatment. Different letters signify a significant difference between treatments. A = ambient
 393 treatment, P = palaeo-treatment.

394 Figure 3. Percent change in SD, D_v , and g_{\max} of experimental species.

395 Figure 4. SMA regression showing the relationship between (A) D_v and SD, $D_v = 0.01SD + 2.53$ for
 396 ambient and $D_v = 0.01SD + 2.39$ for palaeo-treatment, and (B) D_v and theoretical maximum stomatal
 397 conductance (g_{\max}), $D_v = 0.003g_{\max} + 2.85$ for ambient and $D_v = 0.003g_{\max} + 2.66$ for palaeo-
 398 treatment. Each data point represents a single leaf.

399 Figure 5. Comparison of the D_v responses of gymnosperms, ferns, and angiosperms to growth in low
 400 O₂/high CO₂ conditions. Different letters signify a significant difference between treatments. A =
 401 ambient treatment, P = palaeo-treatment.

402 **Conflict of Interest**

403 *The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial*
 404 *relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.*

405 **Author Contributions**

406 CEF carried out vein density and stomatal density analysis, anatomical stomatal measurements for
 407 g_{\max} calculation, statistical analysis, and drafted the manuscript. ASP contributed stomatal density
 408 data. CEK was involved in the 2009 palaeo-experiment and therefore provided dried leaf material for

409 vein density analysis. JCM is the principal investigator. All authors read, revised, and approved the
410 final manuscript.

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