Ecological niche modeling reveals habitat differentiation and climatic vulnerability in two

imperiled, sympatric southern Appalachian carnivorous plants

AUTHORS

Nicholas J. Chang[1,2,4], chan2624@umn.edu, ORCiD: 0009-0002-0705-037X

Lauren Eserman[1], leserman@atlantabg.org, ORCiD: 0000-0002-0208-6632

Amanda Carmichael[1], acarmichael682@gmail.com, ORCiD: 0009-0000-8231-3286

Adam B. Smith[3], adam.smith@mobot.org, ORCiD: 0000-0002-6420-1659

Xingwen Loy[1], lxingwen@atlantabg.org, ORCiD: 0000-0003-4626-6747

Emily E. D. Coffey[1], ecoffey@atlantabg.org, ORCiD: 0000-0002-9199-2943

James Ojascastro[1], jlucas@atlantabg.org, ORCiD: 0009-0003-2738-1632

[1]Southeastern Center for Conservation, Atlanta Botanical Garden, 1345 Piedmont Ave. NE,

Atlanta, GA, USA 30309

[2]Department of Ecology, Evolution, and Behavior, University of Minnesota - Twin Cities, 1479

Gortner Ave, St. Paul, MN, USA 55108

[3]Center for Conservation and Sustainable Development, Missouri Botanical Garden, 4344 Shaw

Blvd., St. Louis, MO 63110

[4]Corresponding author, e-mail: chan2624@umn.edu

RUNNING HEAD: Niche divergence and climate vulnerability of montane pitcher plants

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

ABSTRACT

PREMISE: Understanding the habitat requirements of imperiled flora is critical for informing conservation horticulture practices, designing effective reintroduction strategies, and understanding how climate change will impact such species, especially in montane regions with high levels of environmental heterogeneity. In southern Appalachia, USA, the Mountain Sweet Pitcher Plant (*Sarracenia rubra* ssp. *jonesii*) and Mountain Purple Pitcher Plant (*Sarracenia purpurea* var. *montana*) inhabit overlapping ranges. These taxa rarely co-occur in the same mountain bogs, but frequently hybridize at sites where they do co-occur.

METHODS: We assessed patterns of climatic niche differentiation in these imperiled taxa to explore whether they naturally co-occur or may have been brought into secondary contact through human translocations. In addition, we constructed ecological niche models to evaluate the comparative availability of suitable habitat for each taxon under present and future climates.

RESULTS: We find 1) evidence that the two taxa inhabit distinct niches, and 2) predict that current populations of *Sarracenia rubra* ssp. *jonesii* will experience climates markedly different from those it currently inhabits in the future, while suitable habitat for *S. purpurea* var. *montana* will remain comparatively stable in its current range.

CONCLUSIONS: Despite high spatial overlap, these two related taxa exhibit divergent climatic niches, resulting in highly different management needs and conservation approaches. We raise concerns about the future of mountain bog plant assemblages, and the rare species they include, under climate change.

KEYWORDS: rare plants; montane wetlands; species distribution modeling; niche overlap; carnivorous plants; Sarraceniaceae

INTRODUCTION

The complex topography of montane regions yields diverse environments that drive evolutionary divergence as organisms adapt to novel environments or become isolated from ancestral populations (Rahbek et al. 2019). In turn, divergence can generate high levels of endemism and rarity (Noroozi et al. 2018, Enquist et al. 2019). Unfortunately, these environments and their unique biodiversity face a variety of threats, including mining (Wickham et al. 2013), urbanization (Terando et al. 2014), and climate change (Potter et al. 2010, Robbins et al. 2024). In particular, elevation-dependent warming may accelerate climate change at higher elevations (Pepin et al. 2015, 2022). Understanding the climatic niche breadth of montane species is key to assessing their vulnerability to climate change and developing effective *in situ* and *ex situ* conservation strategies.

The southern Appalachian Mountains of eastern North America support high biodiversity (Hairston 1949, Estill and Cruzan 2001) and are threatened by climate change (Delcourt and Delcourt 1998, Potter et al. 2010, Milanovich et al. 2010, Ulrey et al. 2016). Among southern Appalachia's notable habitats are the so-called "mountain bogs," isolated, high-elevation wetlands ranging from 0.5–2.0 ha in area and occurring 365–1500 m above sea level (a.s.l.; Richardson and Gibbons 1993). These systems vary widely in their community composition, but tend to have high plant diversity, including many rare species (Weakley and Schafale 1994, Edwards et al. 2013), making them priority habitats for conservation (Moffett and Radcliffe 2016, U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service 2021).

Among the notable inhabitants of southern Appalachia's mountain bogs are two highly imperiled carnivorous plants: the Mountain Sweet Pitcher Plant [*Sarracenia rubra* ssp. *jonesii* (Wherry) Wherry, hereafter, SRJ] and the Mountain Purple Pitcher Plant (*Sarracenia purpurea*

var. *montana* D.E.Schnell & Determann, hereafter, SPM). These species are distantly related

within the genus, sharing a common ancestor roughly 4 mya with the diversification of the genus

(Ellison et al. 2012). SRJ is currently listed as Endangered under the U.S. Endangered Species

Act (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service 2025), while SPM is currently under review for federal

listing status (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service 2011) and is ranked as Critically Endangered by

NatureServe (2025). Both taxa are endemic to mountain bogs in southern Appalachia and the

adjacent Piedmont, with each known from little over 30 remaining sites around the Georgia,

North Carolina, and South Carolina tripoint (U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service 2021, Weakley and

SE Flora Team 2025). These sites are threatened by hydrological changes, shifts in fire regime,

poaching, and wild hogs (*Sus scrofa*; Moffett and Radcliffe 2016, U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service

2021).

Despite their largely overlapping ranges (Figure 1) and generally similar hydrologic and

edaphic habitats, the two taxa only occur in the same bogs (i.e., in syntopy) at six known sites,

suggesting that other factors may play a role in preventing co-occurrence. Furthermore, in sites

where both taxa co-occur, they hybridize to generate the named nothospecies *Sarracenia* ×

charlesmoorei (Mellichamp 2008). Introgression has been detected in both parent taxa (Stephens

et al. 2015, Baldwin et al. 2023), suggesting a lack of natural reproductive barriers to support

long-term coexistence (Christie et al. 2022). These studies do not address whether samples with

evidence for introgression occur at sites where the plants co-occur and do not interpret the time

scales across which introgression occurred, which could provide evidence for whether

hybridization is natural or the result of human activities. While hybridization can be a natural

evolutionary pathway, there are questions about whether some instances of syntopy are the result

of historical translocations. While herbarium specimens of hybrids date back to at least 1966

(William S. Justice 61: NCU Accession #287803, Catalog # NCU0009244; W.S. Justice 67:

NCU Accession #55339, Catalog #NCU00009243), resource managers are concerned that rates

of hybridization may be increasing, threatening parental species through genetic swamping

and/or a diversion of reproductive investment towards producing hybrid offspring (U.S. Fish &

Wildlife Service 2021). Because these plants are charismatic, they have been translocated,

reintroduced, or undergone population augmentation in numerous mountain bogs (U.S. Fish &

Wildlife Service 2021). Thus, questions remain about whether current instances of co-occurrence

are the result of translocation activities or natural syntopy.

Broad-scale analyses of climatic niches may provide a first step toward assessing whether

syntopy in SRJ and SPM is natural or the result of artificial introductions. Climatic niche

divergence may indicate that the two taxa do not naturally co-occur, at least under modern and

near-historical climatic conditions. In contrast, should the two taxa exhibit highly overlapping

niches, syntopy may have been historically more widespread but declined in recent centuries due

local extirpations or habitat loss. This has implications for the management of parent taxa and

hybrids in syntopic sites, as well as the planning of future population augmentation efforts. In

addition, the mountain bogs these plants inhabit are small, patchy, and highly dependent on

precipitation and temperature regimes, potentially making them extremely vulnerable to climate

change (Schultheis et al. 2010). Taxon-specific assessments of climate vulnerability are needed

to select reintroduction sites that will remain suitable habitat in the face of global change (Bellis

et al. 2024, 2025).

In this study, we assessed niche divergence and constructed climatic niche models using a

dataset of known taxa localities and available climatic raster datasets, to evaluate climatic

suitability for SPM and SRJ under present and future conditions, to understand their historical

and future range dynamics and inform conservation planning. If both taxa naturally co-occur, we

expect no significant difference in their climatic niches and that all six syntopic sites fall within

the climatic niche of both taxa. Under a translocation scenario, we would expect divergent

climatic niches between taxa, with co-occurrence sites poorly suited to at least one. Intermediate

results are plausible, with their interpretation contingent on the nature of interspecific similarities

and differences. Finally, we expect that SPM will undergo a more dramatic decline in range

under future climate regimes than SRJ due to its association with higher-elevation habitats.

METHODOLOGY

Data cleaning and processing

We performed all analyses in R version 4.3.1 (R Core Team 2023). We compiled range-

wide element occurrence (EO) data for SRJ and SPM from the NatureServe Network. For the

purpose of this study, EOs represent all known current and historical localities for each taxon

that are tracked by state natural heritage programs (NatureServe 2002). We annotated EOs for

both taxa based on whether there was prior knowledge that plants had been transplanted. We

then overlaid a 30 arc-second resolution raster over these points and manually thinned these

occurrences: when multiple occurrences of the same species occurred in the same raster cell, we

randomly selected one of the observations to retain and discarded all others; however, when

occurrences of both species occurred in the same raster cell, we annotated one observation as

"shared" to indicate that both species occurred, and then discarded all other observations from

that cell. Given that mountain bogs are small, isolated, and well-documented (Richardson and

Gibbons 1993), we assumed that thinning the observations at 30 arc-seconds would result in

spatially independent observations without need for further spatial bias correction. We withhold

exact locality information to protect these extremely sensitive habitats from trampling (Arnesen

1999) and poaching (Lavorgna and Sajeva 2021); interested parties may request EO data through

NatureServe.

We obtained raster datasets of the 19 bioclimatic variables under near-historical

conditions (1970-2000) at 30 arc-seconds from WorldClim version 2.1 (Fick and Hijmans 2017),

and elevation data at ⅓ arc-seconds from the U.S. 3D Elevation Program (U.S. Geological

Survey 2024). For projections of future climates, we selected three Coupled Model

Intercomparison Project 6 (CMIP6) general circulation models (GCMs) with skillful predictions

of eastern North American climates (Almazroui et al. 2021): ACCESS-CM2 (Bi et al. 2013),

MPI-ESM1.2 (Gutjahr et al. 2019), and UKESM1-0-LL (Sellar et al. 2019). We note that while

UKESM1-0-LL generated skillful predictions of conditions in our study area, globally it has an

effective climate sensitivity > 5, suggesting that it may represent higher, "worst-case" future

temperature scenarios (Meehl et al. 2020, Hausfather et al. 2022). We obtained downscaled

estimates of the 19 bioclimatic variables derived from these GCMs under four Shared

Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) representing constrained (SSP126 and SSP245), most likely

(SSP370), and unabated (SSP585) emissions scenarios at three twenty-year time horizons (2021-

2040, 2041-2060, and 2061-2080) and 30 arc-seconds from WorldClim (WorldClim 2022). We

ensembled GCMs to obtain a single raster for each bioclimatic variable at each SSP and time

horizon.

Niche differentiation in environmental space

First, we sought to evaluate whether the taxa occur in differing elevational ranges. To

capture differences in natural historical distribution, we filtered our EOs to exclude sites where

the two taxa co-occur and where there is no *a priori* evidence that a taxon has been translocated

to a site (SRJ = 22, SPM = 18 sites). We extracted elevational data for these filtered EOs, then

used a Breusch-Pagan Test to evaluate homoscedasticity and an ANOVA to test for differences

in elevation between the two taxa.

To perform multivariate tests of niche differentiation, we extracted all 19 bioclimatic

variables from all thinned known localities of our focal taxa and performed a MULTISPATI, a

spatially-explicit ordination method, as implemented in the *R* package *adespatial* version 0.3-28

(Dray et al. 2008, 2025), to visualize the importance of different variables. We retained four

uncorrelated and biologically interpretable predictors: annual mean temperature, annual

temperature range, annual precipitation, and precipitation seasonality (Table 1). Using this set of

predictors, we used betadisper() from the *R* package *vegan* version 2.7-2 (Dixon 2003) to test for

differences in niche breadth, and performed a PERMANOVA with the *vegan* function adonis(),

parameterized using 999 permutations and Euclidean distances, to test for differences in niche

occupancy between the focal taxa. As with the ANOVA, we excluded shared and known

translocation sites.

Subsequently, we implemented multivariate tests of niche differentiation in the R

package *Humboldt* version 1 (Brown and Carnaval 2019), where we similarly excluded shared

and known translocation sites. We performed a Niche Overlap Test, which tests for evidence that

species occur in different environments across both of their respective ranges, and a Niche

Divergence Test, which examines whether species inhabit differing environments when

restricted to habitats that are analogous and accessible to each other (Brown and Carnaval 2019).

These tests subsequently rarefied our occurrence data at 30 arc-seconds to further reduce nearby

points. While we had already thinned our occurrence points manually, rarefaction removed one

occurrence point for SRJ (SRJ = 21 sites, SPM = 18 sites). We performed this analysis with a

study area encompassing the Appalachian and Piedmont physiographic provinces within North

Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, and Alabama to sufficiently describe the

physiological limits of these species in our analyses by including environmental data from far

outside their geographic ranges. We defined background environments for each species as a 100-

km buffer around each species' occurrences, following Simpson and Spalink (2025), and ran

each test for 250 iterations.

We visualized the position of occurrence points in environmental space by performing a

second MULTISPATI analysis on the environmental variables retained in the niche

differentiation analyses using the R package *adespatial* 0.3-28 (Dray et al. 2025). This

visualization includes sites where the taxa co-occurred, as well as translocated sites.

Niche modeling in geographic space

For each species, we developed ecological niche models in MaxEnt version 3.4.3

(Phillips et al. 2006) as implemented in the R package *enmSdmX* version 1.2.12 (Smith 2023).

We constructed both models using the same set of predictors as were used for PERMANOVA

and *Humboldt* (Table 1). In contrast with our niche differentiation analyses, we trained these

models using all known sites of each taxon, thinned to one occurrence per raster cell, including

sites where we have *a priori* knowledge of translocation history and where the two taxa co-occur

(SRJ = 32 sites, SPM = 30 sites). We trained our models using 10,000 background points

randomly sampled from the same study area used in our analyses in *Humboldt*. We allowed the

algorithm to select an optimal feature class combination, and manually set the regularization

multiplier to 10 due to overfitting at lower values.

We evaluated model performance by randomly assigning occurrences to 3 equal-sized

groups (k-folds) and testing how well occurrences in two k-folds (the "training" set; 67% of

occurrences) predict occurrences in the third k-fold (the "test" set; 33% of occurrences). We

repeated this cross-validation procedure twice more to assess mean model performance across all

three k-folds.

We used three metrics to quantify model performance in our cross-validation: sensitivity,

area under the receiver-operating curve (AUC), and Continuous Boyce Index (CBI). Sensitivity

is the proportion of predicted presences that were correct (Fielding and Bell 1997). AUC can be

interpreted as the probability that a randomly-drawn presence has a prediction greater than any

randomly drawn site within the study region (Mason and Graham 2002). CBI is a score from -1

to 1 that evaluates a model's ability to predict probability of presence, with a model scoring > 0

performing better than random (Boyce et al. 2002, Hirzel et al. 2006). Since occurrences are

assigned to k-folds at random, we bootstrapped the k-fold assignments 100 times and report their

averages (Table 3).

To visualize predictions of the distribution of suitable habitat, we projected our model

onto rasterized climatic datasets at both present and ensemble future climate datasets. For these

predictions, we visualized our rasters onto a study area encompassing the states of Alabama,

Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Virginia, and West Virginia to

projected the availability of suitable habitat outside of our model training area. We extracted

suitability values from current known locations and plotted these locations to identify

distribution of suitability scores across extant, presumed natural EOs of both taxa (Appendix S1).

Based on the distribution of these scores, we demarcated raster cells as suitable (suitability score

≥ 0.6, which encompasses all but one of the extant, presumed natural EOs), marginally suitable

$(0.6 >$ suitability score $\geq 0.4)$, and unsuitable (suitability score < 0.4). For subsequent

approximations of Area of Habitat (AOH; Brooks et al. 2019), we extracted the spatial extent of

all raster cells with a suitability score > 0.6 using the function "expanse()" in the R package *terra*

(Hijmans et al. 2023).

RESULTS

Niche differentiation in environmental space

SPM inhabits significantly higher elevations than SRJ (Figure 2; $F_{1, 38} = 32.09$, $P =$

1.64×10^{-6}). Our elevation data were homoscedastic between both groups ($X^2 = 1.324$, $df = 1$, $P =$

0.252). Excluding syntopic and known artificial sites, the elevational range of SRJ spans

approximately 310–900 m a.s.l. (mean $\pm$ SD = 597 $\pm$ 151.85), while the elevational range of

SPM spans approximately 540–1100 m a.s.l. (mean $\pm$ SD = 844.1 $\pm$ 116.4). Using a

PERMANOVA and test for homogeneity of multivariate dispersion, we determined that the two

taxa occupy distinctive bioclimatic niches (*pseudo-F* = 51.221, $P = 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.574$), but found

no difference in niche breadth between the two taxa ($F = 1.521$, $P = 0.225$), respectively. We

similarly found that the two taxa exhibit divergent niches using *Humboldt* (Niche Overlap Test:

Schoener's D = 0.247; $P = 0.0159$), and this finding held true when the analysis was restricted to

analogous accessible environments (Niche Divergence Test: *Schoener's D* = 0.349; $P = 0.0359$).

Background Statistics were non-significant for both of these tests (Table 2), indicating that we

were able to detect niche differences between the two taxa despite both occurring in

indistinguishable background environments.

MULTISPATI analysis suggests that differences in climatic niche between the two taxa

are driven by differences in annual precipitation and annual temperature range (Figure 3). The

first axis explained 68% of the variation, while the second axis explained 24.5% of the variation.

Two sites containing both taxa are positioned in a cluster of points containing both SRJ and

SPM. An additional two sites cluster with SRJ sites, and a final site is closest in environmental

space to SPM sites, but is placed outside of the visualized point cloud for all other sites. This

final, most divergent site has the highest elevation of any known locality for these taxa (elevation

> 1200 m a.s.l.).

Niche modeling in geographic space

The MaxEnt models performed well for both species (sensitivity > 0.393, AUC > 0.964,

and CBI > 0.767; Table 3). Across the region, current suitable habitat for SRJ was focused on its

current range, plus a small outlying area in the Allegheny Mountains of south-central Virginia

far from its known distribution, while suitable habitat for SPM was located exclusively within its

current range (Figure 4).

Models predicted a drastic decline in habitat area within the area occupied by the current

climatic niche of SRJ across all SSPs and future time horizons. Under SSP 370, our models

estimate that Area of Habitat for SPM will decline by 95% by 2080 (Figure 5). Of 16 presumed

natural, extant sites with historical suitability scores > 0.6, none will have scores > 0.6 and only 3

of these sites will have scores > 0.4 by 2080 (Figure 6). Under future climates, our models

predict limited habitat for SRJ remaining in its current range under the 2021-2040 and 2041-

2060 time horizons, but such habitat will vanish by 2080. By 2080, the outlying area in the

Allegheny Mountains identified above is the only region in our study area predicted to contain

habitat matching the historical climatic niche of this taxon.

In contrast, models predict that suitable habitat for SPM will remain relatively stable, and

may even marginally increase under certain scenarios. We estimate that the Area of Habitat for

SPM will increase by 2.6% by 2080 under SSP 370 (Figure 5). Of 22 presumed natural, extant

sites that have historical suitability scores > 0.6, 17 sites retained scores > 0.6 and 21 retained

scores > 0.4 by 2080 (Figure 6). Under historical and future conditions, we predict that only very

minimal areas outside of its immediate geographic range match its historical climatic niche, and

do not predict a pronounced latitudinal shift in habitat matching the niche of this taxon.

Under most scenarios, both taxa appear to exhibit declines in areas modeled as suitable

under the 2021-2040 time horizon, followed by moderate gains during the 2041-2060 time

horizon, and then losses again at the 2061-2080 time horizon. Both focal taxa experienced

qualitatively similar changes in the proportion of suitable habitat when using a relaxed suitability

threshold (Appendix S2).

DISCUSSION

Contemporary and near-historical niche differentiation

We found that despite having overlapping geographic ranges, two narrowly-endemic

pitcher plants inhabit distinct climatic niches, supporting the hypothesis that natural syntopy is

uncommon. This aligns with the low frequency of co-occurrence, as well as reports from

conservation horticulture staff at the Atlanta Botanical Garden, where SRJ thrives in warm

greenhouse conditions alongside Coastal Plain *Sarracenia,* while SPM performs better in cooler,

climate-controlled conditions (John Evans, pers. comm.). Of the six syntopic sites, three occur

within climates predicted to support both taxa independently and may reflect natural ecotonal

overlap, whereas the remaining three fall outside mutual climatic suitability and are more

plausibly attributable to non-climatic factors (e.g., translocation) or data uncertainty. Although

evidence for translocation inferred from climate matching is equivocal, only two of the 60 sites

collectively occupied by both taxa are climatically suitable for both, representing a mere 3%

overlap.

299   Even if co-occurrence and hybridization occur naturally, they likely represent rare,

300 peripheral events in each taxon's evolutionary trajectory that should not necessarily be promoted

301 in conservation practice. While hybridization can be an important adaptive pathway that can

302 confer climate-adaptive alleles to imperiled taxa (Brauer et al. 2023), more research is needed to

303 understand its implications in this system. Genetic analyses are needed to determine whether

304 human-mediated translocations underlie current patterns of syntopy and to assess the extent,

305 timing, and origin of hybridization in this system.

306   As conservation practitioners recognize that the climatic suitability of recipient

307 outplanting sites is an important predictor of translocation success (Bellis et al. 2020, 2025), our

308 findings emphasize the need to understand a species' niche on a fine spatial scale, particularly in

309 environmentally heterogeneous montane landscapes, to appropriately inform outplanting

310 strategies. The niche of one taxon may not necessarily be useful as a proxy for the niche of

311 another related taxon. Elevational ranges may be helpful for guiding outplanting locations (SRJ:

312 310–900 m; SPM: 540–1090 m), though for SRJ in particular, habitat suitability under future

313 climate regimes should be considered. As finer-resolution geospatial datasets become available,

314 niche modeling tools will become increasingly useful in assisting conservation practitioners in

315 appropriately designing management and reintroduction strategies.

316   **Climate change vulnerability**

317   We predicted a major decline in habitat matching the current climatic niche of SRJ under

318 all future climate scenarios, including in the very near term during the 2021-2040 time horizon.

319 In contrast, we predicted that SPM may experience some decline in habitat, but will maintain a

320 relatively stable range compared to SRJ. This finding contrasted with our expectations, given

321 that SPM is associated with higher-elevation habitats than SRJ.

While we predict that suitable habitat for SRJ may occur in more northern areas of

Appalachia (i.e. the Allegheny Mountains) under future climates, this region is approximately

450 km north of its current range. Natural poleward migration would require SRJ's water-

dispersed seeds to travel hundreds of kilometers downstream through the Tennessee River and

then upstream into the Ohio River, which is highly improbable. The Allegheny Mountains also

support existing populations of *Sarracenia purpurea* ssp. *purpurea,* with which SRJ can

hybridize. While assisted migration may warrant serious consideration to avoid the extinction of

some southern Appalachian plant species (e.g., *Shortia galacifolia, Phacelia fimbriata,*

Gymnocarpium appalachianum; Erlandson et al. 2021, Hay et al. 2023), practitioners must

carefully weigh the ecological risks and benefits of such long-distance translocations, while

prioritizing *ex situ* germplasm conservation as a proactive measure against future habitat loss

(Browne et al. 2024), following *ex situ* conservation best practices (Guerrant et al. 2010).

In contrast, our models predict relatively stable suitable habitat for SPM centered around

the Georgia-North Carolina-South Carolina tripoint under all future scenarios. This narrow range

suggests adaptation to specific and regionally-unique climatic regimes that may be resilient to

past and projected climate shifts. Conservation should prioritize increasing the resiliency and

redundancy of populations within its current range extent and adjacent suitable areas.

Similar to other research on the climate futures of southern Appalachian flora, we

predicted declines in suitable habitat area in the immediate near term (2021-2040) and towards

the end of the century (2061-2080), but moderate gains in suitable habitat in the middle of the

century (2041-2060; Potter et al. 2010), with these predictions holding true among three of the

four SSPs forecasted for each taxon. Counter to our expectations, our models did not predict that

the severity of a given SSP corresponds with the severity of changes in habitat suitability for a

given taxon under that SSP. For example, in SRJ, we predicted that by the middle of the century,

the taxon may lose all suitable habitat under SSP 126 (a "best case" climate scenario), while the

more moderate scenario, SSP 370, predicted the greatest amount of suitable habitat for that taxon

at that time horizon. This mismatch may be driven by regional heterogeneity in climate impacts,

and the global severity of an emissions reduction pathway may not correspond to its realized

impacts on specific, narrow-ranged taxa. Future assessments of climate futures for rare species

may consider increasing the number of GCMs examined and projecting trained niche models

onto each GCM individually, rather than ensembling GCMs beforehand, to assess variability in

predicted future range sizes across each GCM.

While this study provides valuable insights on potential historic and future range

dynamics of SRJ and SPM, it has some limitations. Our models use current distributions of both

taxa, which have been altered by recent centuries of land-use change that curtailed the potential

full extent of inhabited climates. Additionally, correlative models do not necessarily capture all

of the biological realities of climate change, and there is a need for studies examining specific

drivers of climate vulnerability. Controlled experiments manipulating water availability and

temperature, alongside detailed niche studies that quantify factors such as pollinator interactions,

stress tolerance, dispersal ability, and seed longevity, may be needed to clarify species' responses

to changing conditions and their potential for long-term coexistence in syntopic sites.

Furthermore, our analyses do not account for the acute impacts of climate-driven extreme

weather events (Bateman et al. 2012). During Hurricane Helene in 2024, at least one population

of SRJ was physically dislodged from a cataract bog, and would have been lost without

intervention from the SC DNR and Bartlett Tree Laboratories and Arboretum (Adam Black,

pers. comm.). The narrow ranges and specific habitats of these taxa may render them more

vulnerable to extreme weather events and may therefore be more threatened by climate change

than our models indicate.

Future research is needed to determine the extent to which SRJ faces an imminent range

contraction and to ensure that such information informs upcoming conservation assessments and

recovery planning. In contrast, conservation efforts for SPM should focus on maintaining and

restoring existing habitat within its current range until more detailed recovery plans can be

developed. Both taxa would benefit from ex situ collections based on maternal line best practices

for promoting genetic representation (Guerrant et al. 2010).

This study also highlights the need for improved, region-wide monitoring and

management of southern Appalachian bogs. Though scarce, records of bog community

composition show considerable turnover over the past five decades, including species

extirpations and immigrations (J. Ojascastro, unpubl. data). Comprehensive, geo-referenced

records of local floristics, management actions, and species translocations are essential for

anticipating future crises, evaluating the impacts of interventions, and enabling the efficient and

effective conservation of Appalachian biodiversity.

Conclusion

Under historical conditions, SRJ and SPM inhabit distinct climatic niches, potentially

driven by differences in elevation. Until genomic evidence identifies whether hybridization and

syntopy are natural in this system, we recommend that resource managers avoid reintroducing

one taxon into a site already occupied by another. Additionally, our models suggest SRJ may

experience a drastic loss of suitable habitat under future climate regimes, while SPM is expected

to remain comparatively secure. *Ex situ* collections development is needed to secure range-wide

germplasm from both taxa. Our findings provide a troubling preliminary indication for further

range declines in certain Appalachian bog flora. Ecological niche modeling offers a powerful

framework for understanding how these and other inhabitants of enigmatic mountain bogs will

respond to climate change, and how changes in temperature and precipitation regimes may alter

the fundamental hydrology necessary to maintain these unique, fragile systems. Niche models,

coupled with experimental and field-based studies, will be essential to refine these predictions

and inform effective conservation strategies.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was funded by the National Science Foundation (Award #2216650), the Atlanta Botanical Garden, and the University of Minnesota. The authors thank the South Carolina and Georgia Departments of Natural Resources and the North Carolina Plant Conservation Program for sharing the element occurrence data analyzed in this work. The authors thank Carrie Radcliffe and Quix Malpass for sharing helpful, site-specific insights, and Milo Vasquez for his administrative support. The authors humbly acknowledge the Cherokee people, who have stewarded and produced knowledge on the lands inhabited by *Sarracenia rubra* ssp. *jonesii* and *S. purpurea* var. *montana* since time immemorial. Data analysis and the writing of this manuscript took place in Atlanta, GA, USA on the traditional homelands of the Mvskoke (Creek) people and in Saint Paul, MN, USA on the traditional homelands of the Dakota people.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Nicholas Chang: conceptualization, methodology, formal analysis, data curation, writing – original draft, writing – review & editing. **Lauren Eserman:** funding acquisition, conceptualization, project administration, resources, writing – review & editing. **Amanda Carmichael:** conceptualization, project administration, resources, writing – review & editing. **Adam Smith:** methodology, software, writing – review & editing. **Xingwen Loy:** writing – review & editing. **Emily Coffey:** funding acquisition, data curation, resources, writing – review & editing. **James Ojascastro:** project administration, conceptualization, resources, methodology, software, formal analysis, writing – review & editing.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

These plants are highly vulnerable to poaching for the horticultural trade, and their habitats are

highly sensitive to trampling. As a result, we decline to share the coordinates used to extract

bioclimatic data, as well as the extracted bioclimatic data, which could be used to reverse-

engineer species locations. Interested parties are encouraged to contact NatureServe for data

access. Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information

section at the end of the article.

REFERENCES

Almazroui, M., M. N. Islam, F. Saeed, S. Saeed, M. Ismail, M. A. Ehsan, I. Diallo, E. O'Brien,

M. Ashfaq, D. Martínez-Castro, T. Cavazos, R. Cerezo-Mota, M. K. Tippett, W. J.

Gutowski, E. J. Alfaro, H. G. Hidalgo, A. Vichot-Llano, J. D. Campbell, S. Kamil, I. U.

Rashid, M. B. Sylla, T. Stephenson, M. Taylor, and M. Barlow. 2021. Projected Changes

in Temperature and Precipitation Over the United States, Central America, and the

Caribbean in CMIP6 GCMs. Earth Systems and Environment 5:1–24.

Arnesen, T. 1999. Vegetation dynamics following trampling in rich fen at Sølendet, Central

Norway; a 15 year study of recovery. Nordic Journal of Botany 19:313–327.

Baldwin, E., M. McNair, and J. Leebens-Mack. 2023. Rampant chloroplast capture in Sarracenia

revealed by plastome phylogeny. Frontiers in Plant Science 14:1237749.

Bateman, B. L., J. VanDerWal, and C. N. Johnson. 2012. Nice weather for bettongs: using

weather events, not climate means, in species distribution models. Ecography 35:306–

314.

Bellis, J., M. A. Albrecht, J. Maschinski, S. E. Dalrymple, M. J. Keir, T. Chambers, J. Possley,

E. D. Adkins, E. W. Parsons, M. Kunz, C. Radcliffe, E. Coffey, T. N. Kaye, C. L.

Peterson, A. S. David, S. A. Herron, E. S. Menges, T. Bell, M. Coppoletta, C. Elam, K.

McEachern, P. S. Williamson, D. Boensch, M. Bontrager, C. Breeden, N. Frade, D. R.

Gordon, S. O. Link, T. Littlefield, S. Murray, R. O'Dell, N. B. Pavlovic, C. M. Reemts,

D. D. Taylor, J. H. Titus, P. J. Titus, T. A. Stanley, and K. D. Heineman. 2025. The

relative influence of geographic and environmental factors on rare plant translocation

outcomes. Journal of Applied Ecology 62:638–650.

Bellis, J., D. Bourke, J. Maschinski, K. Heineman, and S. Dalrymple. 2020. Climate suitability as

a predictor of conservation translocation failure. Conservation Biology 34:1473–1481.

Bellis, J. M., J. Maschinski, N. Bonnin, J. Bielby, and S. E. Dalrymple. 2024. Climate change

threatens the future viability of translocated populations. Diversity and Distributions

30:e13795.

Bi, D., M. Dix, S. Marsland, S. O'Farrell, H. Rashid, P. Uotila, A. Hirst, E. Kowalczyk, M.

Golebiewski, A. Sullivan, H. Yan, N. Hannah, C. Franklin, Z. Sun, P. Vohralik, I.

Watterson, X. Zhou, R. Fiedler, M. Collier, Y. Ma, J. Noonan, L. Stevens, P. Uhe, H.

Zhu, S. Griffies, R. Hill, C. Harris, and K. Puri. 2013. The ACCESS coupled model:

description, control climate and evaluation. Australian Meteorological and

Oceanographic Journal 63:41–64.

Boyce, M. S., P. R. Vernier, S. E. Nielsen, and F. K. A. Schmiegelow. 2002. Evaluating resource

selection functions. Ecological Modelling 157:281–300.

Brauer, C. J., J. Sandoval-Castillo, K. Gates, M. P. Hammer, P. J. Unmack, L. Bernatchez, and

L. B. Beheregaray. 2023. Natural hybridization reduces vulnerability to climate change.

Nature Climate Change.

Brooks, T. M., S. L. Pimm, H. R. Akçakaya, G. M. Buchanan, S. H. M. Butchart, W. Foden, C.

Hilton-Taylor, M. Hoffmann, C. N. Jenkins, L. Joppa, B. V. Li, V. Menon, N. Ocampo-

Peñuela, and C. Rondinini. 2019. Measuring Terrestrial Area of Habitat (AOH) and Its

Utility for the IUCN Red List. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 34:977–986.

Brown, J. L., and A. C. Carnaval. 2019. A tale of two niches: methods, concepts, and evolution.

Frontiers of Biogeography 11.

Browne, R. D., S. Hines, A. Belliveau, S. J. Adams, J. C. López-Gutiérrez, K. King, R. S.

Dodge, and A. K. Walker. 2024. Ex Situ Conservation of the Globally Imperiled Eastern

Mountain Avens (Geum Peckii) in Nova Scotia, Canada. Pages 301–325 *in* N. M. Hill, S.

Hines, and N. J. O'Driscoll, editors. Wetland Restoration for Endangered Species

Recovery. Springer Nature Switzerland, Cham.

Christie, K., L. S. Fraser, and D. B. Lowry. 2022. The strength of reproductive isolating barriers

in seed plants: Insights from studies quantifying premating and postmating reproductive

barriers over the past 15 years. Evolution 76:2228–2243.

Delcourt, P. A., and H. R. Delcourt. 1998. Paleoecological Insights on Conservation of

Biodiversity:a Focus on Species, Ecosystems, and Landscapes. Ecological Applications

8:921–934.

Dray, S., D. Bauman, G. Blanchet, D. Borcard, S. Clappe, G. Guenard, T. Jombart, G. Larocque,

P. Legendre, N. Madi, H. Wagner, A. Siberchicot, and J. Chambers. 2025. adespatial. R.

Dray, S., S. Saïd, and F. Débias. 2008. Spatial ordination of vegetation data using a

generalization of Wartenberg's multivariate spatial correlation. Journal of Vegetation

Science 19:45–56.

Edwards, L., J. Ambrose, and L. K. Kirkman. 2013. Mountain Bogs. Pages 129–134 The Natural

Communities of Georgia. University of Georgia Press, Athens, GA.

Ellison, A. M., E. D. Butler, E. J. Hicks, R. F. C. Naczi, P. J. Calie, C. D. Bell, and C. C. Davis.

2012. Phylogeny and Biogeography of the Carnivorous Plant Family Sarraceniaceae.

PLoS ONE 7:e39291.

Enquist, B. J., X. Feng, B. Boyle, B. Maitner, E. A. Newman, P. M. Jørgensen, P. R. Roehrdanz,

B. M. Thiers, J. R. Burger, R. T. Corlett, T. L. P. Couvreur, G. Dauby, J. C. Donoghue,

W. Foden, J. C. Lovett, P. A. Marquet, C. Merow, G. Midgley, N. Morueta-Holme, D. M.

Neves, A. T. Oliveira-Filho, N. J. B. Kraft, D. S. Park, R. K. Peet, M. Pillet, J. M. Serra-

Diaz, B. Sandel, M. Schildhauer, I. Šímová, C. Violle, J. J. Wieringa, S. K. Wiser, L.

Hannah, J.-C. Svenning, and B. J. McGill. 2019. The commonness of rarity: Global and

future distribution of rarity across land plants. Science Advances 5:eaaz0414.

Erlandson, S. K., J. Bellemare, and D. A. Moeller. 2021. Limited Range-Filling Among Endemic

Forest Herbs of Eastern North America and Its Implications for Conservation With

Climate Change. Frontiers in Ecology and Evolution 9.

Estill, J. C., and M. B. Cruzan. 2001. Phytogeography of Rare Plant Species Endemic to the

Southeastern United States. Castanea 66:3–23.

Fick, S. E., and R. J. Hijmans. 2017. WorldClim 2: new 1 km spatial resolution climate surfaces

for global land areas. International Journal of Climatology 37:4302–4315.

Fielding, A. H., and J. F. Bell. 1997. A review of methods for the assessment of prediction errors

in conservation presence/absence models. Environmental Conservation 24:38–49.

Guerrant, E. O., K. Havens, and M. Maunder, editors. 2010. Ex situ plant conservation:

supporting species survival in the wild. Island Press, Washington, DC.

Gutjahr, O., D. Putrasahan, K. Lohmann, J. H. Jungclaus, J.-S. Von Storch, N. Brüggemann, H.

Haak, and A. Stössel. 2019. Max Planck Institute Earth System Model (MPI-ESM1.2) for

the High-Resolution Model Intercomparison Project (HighResMIP). Geoscientific Model

Development 12:3241–3281.

Hairston, N. G. 1949. The Local Distribution and Ecology of the Plethodontid Salamanders of

the Southern Appalachians. Ecological Monographs 19:47–73.

Hausfather, Z., K. Marvel, G. A. Schmidt, J. W. Nielsen-Gammon, and M. Zelinka. 2022.

Climate simulations: recognize the 'hot model' problem. Nature 605:26–29.

Hay, N. M., J. V. Akinwuntan, V. Cai, M. D. Windham, and K. M. Pryer. 2023. Exploring Past

and Future Distributions of the Rare Appalachian Oak Fern Using MaxEnt Modeling.

Hijmans, R. J., R. Bivand, E. Pebesma, and M. D. Sumner. 2023, December 14. terra: Spatial

Data Analysis. R.

Hirzel, A. H., G. Le Lay, V. Helfer, C. Randin, and A. Guisan. 2006. Evaluating the ability of

habitat suitability models to predict species presences. Ecological Modelling 199:142–

152.

Lavorgna, A., and M. Sajeva. 2021. Studying Illegal Online Trades in Plants: Market

Characteristics, Organisational and Behavioural Aspects, and Policing Challenges.

European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research 27:451–470.

Mason, S. J., and N. E. Graham. 2002. Areas beneath the relative operating characteristics

(ROC) and relative operating levels (ROL) curves: Statistical significance and

interpretation. Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society 128:2145–2166.

Meehl, G. A., C. A. Senior, V. Eyring, G. Flato, J.-F. Lamarque, R. J. Stouffer, K. E. Taylor, and

M. Schlund. 2020. Context for interpreting equilibrium climate sensitivity and transient

climate response from the CMIP6 Earth system models. Science Advances 6:eaba1981.

Mellichamp, L. 2008. New names for natural hybrids in Sarracenia. Carnivorous Plant

Newsletter 37:112–117.

Milanovich, J. R., W. E. Peterman, N. P. Nibbelink, and J. C. Maerz. 2010. Projected Loss of a

Salamander Diversity Hotspot as a Consequence of Projected Global Climate Change.

PLoS ONE 5:e12189.

Moffett, J. M., and C. Radcliffe. 2016. Georgia's mountain bogs: rare gems of the southern Blue

Ridge. Tipularia:27–40.

NatureServe. 2002. Element Occurrence Data Standard. Page 201. NatureServe.

NatureServe. 2025. NatureServe Network Biodiversity Location Data accessed through

541   Natureserve Explorer [web application. NatureServe, Arlington, VA.

542   Noroozi, J., A. Talebi, M. Doostmohammadi, S. B. Rumpf, H. P. Linder, and G. M.

543   Schneeweiss. 2018. Hotspots within a global biodiversity hotspot - areas of endemism are

544   associated with high mountain ranges. Scientific Reports 8:10345.

545   Pepin, N., R. S. Bradley, H. F. Diaz, M. Baraer, E. B. Caceres, N. Forsythe, H. Fowler, G.

546   Greenwood, M. Z. Hashmi, X. D. Liu, J. R. Miller, L. Ning, A. Ohmura, E. Palazzi, I.

547   Rangwala, W. Schöner, I. Severskiy, M. Shahgedanova, M. B. Wang, S. N. Williamson,

548   D. Q. Yang, and Mountain Research Initiative EDW Working Group. 2015. Elevation-

549   dependent warming in mountain regions of the world. Nature Climate Change 5:424–

550   430.

551   Pepin, N. C., E. Arnone, A. Gobiet, K. Haslinger, S. Kotlarski, C. Notarnicola, E. Palazzi, P.

552   Seibert, S. Serafin, W. Schöner, S. Terzago, J. M. Thornton, M. Vuille, and C. Adler.

553   2022. Climate Changes and Their Elevational Patterns in the Mountains of the World.

554   Reviews of Geophysics 60:e2020RG000730.

555   Phillips, S. J., R. P. Anderson, and R. E. Schapire. 2006. Maximum entropy modeling of species

556   geographic distributions. Ecological Modelling 190:231–259.

557   Potter, K. M., W. W. Hargrove, and F. H. Koch. 2010. Predicting Climate Change Extirpation

558   Risk for Central and Southern Appalachian Forest Tree Species.

559   R Core Team. 2023, June 16. R: A Language and Environment For Statistical Computing. R

560   Foundation for Statistical Computing.

561   Rahbek, C., M. K. Borregaard, A. Antonelli, R. K. Colwell, B. G. Holt, D. Nogues-Bravo, C. M.

562   Ø. Rasmussen, K. Richardson, M. T. Rosing, R. J. Whittaker, and J. Fjeldså. 2019.

Building mountain biodiversity: Geological and evolutionary processes. Science

365:1114–1119.

Richardson, C. J., and J. W. Gibbons. 1993. Pocosins, Carolina Bays, and Mountain Bogs. Page

in W. H. Martin, editor. Biodiversity of the southeastern United States. lowl: Lowland

terrestrial communities. Wiley, New York.

Robbins, Z. J., E. L. Loudermilk, T. G. Mozelewski, K. Jones, and R. M. Scheller. 2024. Fire

regimes of the Southern Appalachians may radically shift under climate change. Fire

Ecology 20:2.

Schultheis, E. H., K. N. Hopfensperger, and J. C. Brenner. 2010. Potential Impacts of Climate

Change on *Sphagnum* Bogs of the Southern Appalachian Mountains. Natural Areas

Journal 30:417–424.

Sellar, A. A., C. G. Jones, J. P. Mulcahy, Y. Tang, A. Yool, A. Wiltshire, F. M. O'Connor, M.

Stringer, R. Hill, J. Palmieri, S. Woodward, L. De Mora, T. Kuhlbrodt, S. T. Rumbold, D.

I. Kelley, R. Ellis, C. E. Johnson, J. Walton, N. L. Abraham, M. B. Andrews, T.

Andrews, A. T. Archibald, S. Berthou, E. Burke, E. Blockley, K. Carslaw, M. Dalvi, J.

Edwards, G. A. Folberth, N. Gedney, P. T. Griffiths, A. B. Harper, M. A. Hendry, A. J.

Hewitt, B. Johnson, A. Jones, C. D. Jones, J. Keeble, S. Liddicoat, O. Morgenstern, R. J.

Parker, V. Predoi, E. Robertson, A. Siahaan, R. S. Smith, R. Swaminathan, M. T.

Woodhouse, G. Zeng, and M. Zerroukat. 2019. UKESM1: Description and Evaluation of

the U.K. Earth System Model. Journal of Advances in Modeling Earth Systems 11:4513–

4558.

Simpson, K. M., and D. Spalink. 2025. Niche comparisons reveal significant divergence despite

narrow endemism in Leavenworthia, a genus of rare plants. Annals of Botany:mcae226.

Smith, A. B. 2023. enmSdmX: Species distribution and ecological niche modeling. https://cran.r-
project.org/package=enmSdmX

Stephens, J. D., W. L. Rogers, K. Heyduk, J. M. Cruse-Sanders, R. O. Determann, T. C. Glenn,
and R. L. Malmberg. 2015. Resolving phylogenetic relationships of the recently radiated
carnivorous plant genus *Sarracenia* using target enrichment. Molecular Phylogenetics
and Evolution 85:76–87.

Terando, A. J., J. Costanza, C. Belyea, R. R. Dunn, A. McKerrow, and J. A. Collazo. 2014. The
Southern Megalopolis: Using the Past to Predict the Future of Urban Sprawl in the
Southeast U.S. PLOS ONE 9:e102261.

Ulrey, C., P. F. Quintana-Ascencio, G. Kauffman, A. B. Smith, and E. S. Menges. 2016. Life at
the top: Long-term demography, microclimatic refugia, and responses to climate change
for a high-elevation southern Appalachian endemic plant. Biological Conservation
200:80–92.

U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service. 2021. Mountain sweet pitcher plant (Sarracenia rubra ssp. jonesii)
5-year review: summary and evaluation. U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Atlanta, GA.

U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. 2011. Endangered and Threatened Wildlife and Plants; Partial
90-Day Finding on a Petition To List 404 Species in the Southeastern United States as
Endangered or Threatened With Critical Habitat; Proposed Rule. Pages 59836–59862
Fed. Reg. Vol. 76 No. 187.

U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. 2025. Endangered and threatened plants. Page Code of Federal
Regulations.

U.S. Geological Survey. 2024. 3D Elevation Program 1/3 Arc Second Resolution Digital
Elevation Model. US National Map.

Weakley, A. S., and M. P. Schafale. 1994. Non-alluvial wetlands of the Southern Blue Ridge -

Diversity in a threatened ecosystem. Water, Air, & Soil Pollution 77:359–383.

Weakley, A., and SE Flora Team. 2025. Flora of the Southeastern United States. North Carolina

Botanical Garden, Chapel Hill, NC.

Wickham, J., P. B. Wood, M. C. Nicholson, W. Jenkins, D. Druckenbrod, G. W. Suter, M. P.

Strager, C. Mazzarella, W. Galloway, and J. Amos. 2013. The Overlooked Terrestrial

Impacts of Mountaintop Mining. BioScience 63:335–348.

WorldClim. 2022. WorldClim: Global climate and weather data.

https://www.worldclim.org/data/index.html.

TABLES

Table 1. Variables retained for use in niche analyses.

Variable	ANOVA	PERMANOVA	Humboldt	MaxEnt
BIO1 - Annual mean temperature		X	X	X
BIO7 - Annual temperature range		X	X	X
BIO12 - Annual precipitation		X	X	X
BIO15 - Precipitation seasonality		X	X	X
Elevation	X			

622   Table 2. Outputs of Niche Overlap and Niche Divergence Tests implemented in the R package

623   Humboldt. Humboldt incorporates Background Tests that involve shifting the distribution of

624   sites for Taxon 1 and comparing the resulting environmental niche to Taxon 2, and vice versa

625   (Brown and Carnaval 2019). Taxon 1: *Sarracenia rubra* ssp. *jonesii*; Taxon 2: *Sarracenia*

626   *purpurea* var. *montana*.

	Equivalency Test		Background Test	
	Schoener's D	*P*-value	2 → 1	1 → 2
Niche Overlap Test	0.247	0.0159	0.243	0.1713
Niche Divergence Test	0.349	0.0359	0.084	0.0996

630   Table 3. Mean performance of 100 bootstrapped MaxEnt models generated for each taxon using

631   3 k-folds, ± standard deviation.

	S. rubra ssp. *jonesii*	*S. purpurea* var. *montana*
sensitivity	0.632 ± 0.077	0.393 ± 0.052
AUC	0.964 ± 0.001	0.980 ± 0.004
CBI	0.929 ± 0.45	0.767 ± 0.126

FIGURES

Figure 1. Obscured range extents for *Sarracenia purpurea* var. *montana* (SPM; purple)
and *Sarracenia rubra* ssp. *jonesii* (SRJ; red), with overlapping extents shown with teal hatch
marks. Known syntopic sites are shown with teal points. Inset map shows the location of the
species ranges in the context of the model training area (green) and the area that niche models
were projected to (dark gray). Photos courtesy of Nicholas Chang (SPM) and Sathid Pankaew
(SRJ and *Sarracenia × charlesmoorei*).

649   Figure 2. Boxplot showing the elevational distributions of *Sarracenia purpurea* var. *montana*

650   and *Sarracenia rubra* ssp. *jonesii*.

Figure 3. Multivariate spatial analysis based on Moran's I (MULTISPATI) of bioclimatic

environments inhabited by *Sarracenia rubra* ssp. *jonesii* (red), *Sarracenia purpurea* var.

montana (purple), or both taxa (blue, numbered).

Figure 4. Suitability maps for *Sarracenia rubra* ssp. *jonesii* (SRJ) and *Sarracenia purpurea* var.

montana (SPM) at historical and three future time horizons (2021-2040, 2041-2060, 2061-2080)

under the most likely emissions reduction scenario (SSP 370). Darker colors indicate areas with

suitability scores > 0.6, while lighter shaded areas indicate areas with suitability scores < 0.6 and

> 0.4. Black outlines show the actual range extents of each taxon.

Figure 5. Line graph showing the projected Area of Habitat (AOH; area of raster cells with

suitability scores > 0.6) for both taxa at all time horizons and SSPs. Points are mapped to the

midpoint of the time horizon modeled (i.e., the point for 2021-2040 is placed at 2030).

Figure 6. Suitability scores generated by MaxEnt for each site for *Sarracenia rubra* ssp. *jonesii*

and *Sarracenia purpurea* var. *montana* under historical and projected future climates under SSP

370. Dashed lines indicate suitability thresholds at 0.6 and 0.4.