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 *ex*

situ conservation 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 1) find 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 3) suitable habitat for *S. purpurea* var.

montana will remain comparatively stable and may expand 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 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).

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).

Despite being congeners, these taxa are distantly related, sharing a common ancestor roughly 4

Mya (Ellison et al. 2012). Both taxa are endemic to mountain bogs in southern Appalachia and

the adjacent Piedmont, with each known from approximately 30 extant sites around the Georgia,

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

SE Flora Team 2025). These remaining sites are threatened by changes in hydrology, fire

suppression, poaching, trampling, wild hogs (*Sus scrofa* L.), and, potentially, hybridization

between the two taxa (Moffett and Radcliffe 2016, U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service 2021, Graf et al.

2022).

Despite their largely overlapping ranges (Figure 1) and shared reliance on mountain bog

habitats (Weakley and SE Flora Team 2025), the two taxa only occur in the same bogs (i.e., in

syntopy) at six known sites, suggesting that some unknown biological or environmental 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. These plants have

long been the subject of popular interest due to their charisma as carnivorous plants, which

makes them both horticulturally interesting and flagship species for mountain bog restoration

efforts (Moffett and Radcliffe 2016, Clarke et al. 2018). This attention has resulted in

translocation, reintroduction, and population augmentation efforts across several mountain bogs

by both private individuals and conservation practitioners (U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service 2021).

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). As a result, understanding whether current instances of co-occurrence are natural or the

result of translocation activities is key to guiding management actions in syntopic sites.

Ecological niche modeling provides a unique framework that allows scientists to inform

applied conservation by inferring the climatic variables underpinning both historical and future

species distributions. By analyzing the current niches of SRJ and SPM, we can ask whether the

two taxa inhabit equivalent or divergent climates. Evidence for niche equivalency between the

two taxa might suggest that syntopy was once common, but has declined in recent centuries due

to local extirpations and habitat loss. In contrast, evidence for divergence may indicate that these

taxa evolved to exploit differing climatic niches, and that current patterns of syntopy are the

result of human movement of plant material. 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, by using the insights inferred from the present distributions of these plants,

we can look to the future and ask how climate change may impact their distributions. 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; other

narrow endemic flora from this region are projected to lose much of their ranges in the future

(Schultheis et al. 2010, Erlandson et al. 2021, Hay et al. 2023). Modeling the range dynamics of

these taxa under future climates is necessary 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 taxon localities and available climatic raster datasets to evaluate climatic

suitability for SPM and SRJ under present and future conditions, with the goal of understanding

their present and future range dynamics and informing 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, should these taxa inhabit

differing elevational ranges, the higher elevation taxon will undergo a more dramatic range

decline under future climate regimes.

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

(https://www.natureserve.org/). For the purpose of this study, EOs represent all known current

and extirpated 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. To ensure that our presence dataset included the greatest

possible number of localities, we supplemented our EO data by requesting redacted coordinate

data for *Sarracenia* herbarium specimens from Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina

(SERNEC Portal Data Portal, 2024). We mapped records of SRJ and SPM onto the same 30 arc-

second grid as our EO dataset, and identified two specimens of SPM from North Carolina and

one specimen of SRJ from South Carolina with coordinate uncertainties < 1000 meters which did

not fall in the same grid cell as an existing EO. We incorporated these herbarium specimens (C.

Ritchie Bell 574: NCU Accession #247574; William S. Justice 65: NCU Accession #287806;

Robert L. Wilbur #1102: DUKE Accession #126092) into our dataset. 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-present 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 averaged across this set

of GCMs to obtain a single raster for the mean of each bioclimatic variable at each SSP and time

horizon.

Niche differentiation in environmental space

For analyses in environmental space, we filtered our EOs to remove sites where we had *a*

priori evidence for translocation history, and created one subset of EOs that included syntopic

sites (SRJ = 29 sites, SPM = 26 sites) and one subset of EOs that excluded these sites (SRJ = 23,

SPM = 20). We performed statistical tests on both subsets of data to investigate whether the

plants exhibited distinct niches under the assumption that syntopy is a recent phenomenon, and

to examine whether our results were robust to the inclusion of syntopic sites. Our first analysis

sought to evaluate whether the taxa occur in differing elevational ranges. We extracted

elevational data for both sets of EOs, then used a Breusch-Pagan Test to evaluate

homoscedasticity and an ANOVA to test for differences in elevation between the two taxa.

187     Multivariate niche modeling approaches, particularly those trained using sparse

occurrence data, are prone to overfitting, prompting us to carefully select a small subset of

variables to use in our analyses (Brun et al. 2020). We started with 19 bioclimatic variables

(Appendix S1), but excluded elevation, as we sought to identify climatic predictors that have

direct physiological implications for these plants, and which may shift along elevational

gradients under historical and future climate change scenarios. We extracted values for the 19

bioclimatic variables from all thinned known localities of our focal taxa. This dataset included

sites where both co-occur. We then calculated pairwise Spearman's correlation values for each

variable, obtained the absolute value of these correlation values, and used the "hclust" function

in the R package *cluster* to perform hierarchical clustering on these variables. In addition, we

performed a MULTISPATI, a spatially-explicit ordination method, as implemented in the *R*

package *adespatial* version 0.3-28 (Dray et al. 2008, 2025)*,* and inspected the loadings of each of

these variables. Using both methods, we selected three bioclimatic variables which were

uncorrelated, did not share directions in the ordination, and were biologically interpretable in the

context of our study system: annual mean temperature, 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. We also

performed a second MULTISPATI analysis using just the environmental variables retained in the

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

regressed the first two axes on elevation to investigate whether observed differences in

elevations utilized by these taxa may be driven by climatic differences along mountain slopes.

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

package *humboldt* version 1.0.0.0420121 (Brown and Carnaval 2019), where we similarly

performed parallel analyses including and excluding syntopic sites. We performed a Niche

Overlap Test, which tests for evidence that species occur in different environments across both

of their respective ranges. We complemented this analysis with a Niche Divergence Test, which

accounts for apparent differences in species niches driven by differing access to analogous

habitats (Brown and Carnaval 2019). 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.

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). 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 = 33 sites, SPM = 33 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

project 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 S2).

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

$\geq$ 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*

version 1.7.39 (Hijmans et al. 2023).

RESULTS

Niche differentiation in environmental space

SPM inhabits significantly higher elevations than SRJ (Figure 2; excluding syntopic sites:

$F_{1, 38} = 32.09$, $P = 1.64 \times 10^{-6}$; including syntopic sites: $F_{1, 53} = 19.94$, $P = 4.22 \times 10^{-5}$). Our

elevation data were homoscedastic between both groups (excluding syntopic sites: $X^2 = 1.324$, *df*

$= 1$, $P = 0.252$; including syntopic sites: $X^2 = 2.673$, *df* $= 1$, $P = .102$). Excluding syntopic and

known artificial sites, the elevational range of SRJ spans approximately 310–900 m a.s.l. (mean

$\pm$ SD $= 586 \pm 157.07$), while the elevational range of SPM spans approximately 540–1100 m

a.s.l. (mean $\pm$ SD $= 842.3 \pm 122.63$). Using a PERMANOVA and test for homogeneity of

multivariate dispersion, we determined that the two taxa occupy distinctive bioclimatic niches

(excluding syntopic sites: *pseudo-F* $= 37.193$, $P = 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.4757$; including syntopic sites:

pseudo-F $= 21.083$, $P = 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.285$) but found no difference in niche breadth between the

two taxa (excluding syntopic sites: $F = 0.0716$, $P = 0.7904$; including syntopic sites: $F = 0.3421$,

$P = 0.5611$). We similarly found that the two taxa exhibit divergent niches using *humboldt* with

the Niche Overlap Test (excluding syntopic sites: *Schoener's D* = 0.16; *P* = 0.004; including

syntopic sites: *Schoener's D* = 0.371, *P* = 0.0319), and this finding held true when the analysis

was restricted to analogous accessible environments with the Niche Divergence Test (excluding

syntopic sites: *Schoener's D* = 0.162; *P* = 0.004; including syntopic sites: *Schoener's D* = 0.366,

P = 0.02). Background Statistics were non-significant for 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 mean temperature (Figure 3). The

first axis explained 61.03% of the variation, while the second axis explained 30.74% of the

variation, and both MULTISPATI axes were strongly correlated with elevation (Axis 1: $\beta \pm$ SD

= -0.0059 $\pm$ 0.00057, *Adjusted R^2* = 0.694, $F_{1,47}$ = 109.9, *P* = 6.82x10^{-14}; Axis 2: $\beta \pm$ SD = 0.003

$\pm$ 0.00035, *Adjusted R^2* = 0.619, $F_{1,47}$ = 79.02, *P* = 1.24x10^{-11}). Three 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 $\geq$ 0.366, AUC $\geq$ 0.955,

and CBI $\geq$ 0.827; Table 3). Across the region, suitable habitat for SRJ was concentrated in its

current range, as well as small outlying areas in the Allegheny Mountains and in south-central

Virginia far from its known distribution. In contrast, suitable habitat for SPM was located

exclusively within its current range (Figure 4; Appendix S3). 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 S4).

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 SRJ will decline by 95% by 2080 (Figure 5). Of 16 presumed

natural, extant sites with near-present 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 near-present 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 13% by 2080 under SSP 370 (Figure 5). Of 22 presumed natural, extant

sites that have near-present suitability scores > 0.6, all 22 sites retained scores > 0.6 by 2080

(Figure 6). Under present and future conditions, we predict that only very minimal areas outside

of its immediate geographic range match its present climatic niche, and do not predict a

pronounced latitudinal shift in habitat matching the niche of this taxon.

DISCUSSION

Contemporary niche differentiation

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

pitcher plants inhabit largely distinct, elevation-correlated climatic niches, indicating that range-

wide syntopy is uncommon. Specifically, only three of sixty total sites (5%) occupied by either

species fall within climatic space predicted to support both taxa. This interpretation is supported

by the low frequency of co-occurrence across all known sites, 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 known syntopic sites, three occur within climatic space independently

predicted to support both taxa, consistent with limited natural overlap at ecotonal or elevational

boundaries. The remaining three sites cluster with one of the two species in our ordination.

Persistence of both taxa at these locations suggest that local microclimate, non-climatic factors,

or model uncertainty due to sparse occurrences may allow coexistence beyond modeled climatic

envelopes. Thus, while modeled niche overlap is minimal, these results highlight both the rarity

of syntopy at broad scales and the limitations of coarse-resolution climate models for interpreting

coexistence at individual sites.

Even if co-occurrence occurs naturally, they likely represent rare, peripheral events in

each taxon's evolutionary trajectory that should not necessarily be promoted in conservation

practice due to the lack of reproductive barriers in this system and the still-unknown implications

of hybridization for the conservation of these two taxa. While hybridization can be an important

adaptive pathway that can confer climate-adaptive alleles to imperiled taxa (Brauer et al. 2023),

unchecked hybridization between taxa without reproductive barriers can result in extinction by

genetic swamping (Todesco et al. 2016). Genetic analyses are needed to determine whether

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

timing, and origin of hybridization in this system.

As conservation practitioners recognize that the climatic suitability of recipient

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

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

environmentally heterogeneous montane landscapes, to appropriately inform outplanting

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

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

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

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

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

appropriately designing management and reintroduction strategies.

Climate change vulnerability

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

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

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

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

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. *Sarracenia* seeds are water-dispersed, and poleward migration

under this mechanism would require SRJ's seeds to travel hundreds of kilometers downstream

through the Tennessee River and then upstream into the Ohio River, which is highly improbable

(Ellison and Parker 2002, Zellmer et al. 2012). Some natural mechanisms of rare, long-distance

dispersal, such as by migratory animals, likely exist, though the exact mechanisms and frequency

of such events are still unknown (Ellison and Parker 2002). However, the Allegheny Mountains

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

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

some southern Appalachian plant species such as *Shortia galacifolia* Torr. & A. Gray

(Diapensiaceae)*, Phacelia fimbriata* Michx. (Hydrophyllaceae)*,* and *Gymnocarpium*

appalachianum Pryer & Haufler (Cystopteridaceae; 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). These predictions held true among three of the four SSPs

388 forecasted for each taxon. Counter to our expectations, our models did not predict that the

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

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

391 taxon may lose all suitable habitat under SSP 245 (a lower emission climate scenario), while the

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

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

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

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

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

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

398 predicted future range sizes across each GCM.

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

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

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

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

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

404 drivers of climate vulnerability. Controlled experiments manipulating water availability and

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

406 stress tolerance, dispersal ability, and soil seed bank longevity, may be needed to clarify species'

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

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

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

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

intervention from the South Carolina Department of Natural Resources 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 present 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. Beyond *Sarracenia,* our findings provide a troubling preliminary

indication for further range declines in certain Appalachian bog flora. Future research, using

geospatial, observational, and experimental approaches, is urgently needed to understand how

mountain bog species and assemblages will respond to the anticipated and already-realized

effects of climate change. Such work will be key to assisting conservation practitioners and

policymakers in charting a new path forward towards conserving and restoring these unique,

fragile habitats.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank the editors and reviewers for their insightful comments that greatly improved

the quality of this work. 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.

467   **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

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

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

499   threatens the future viability of translocated populations. Diversity and Distributions

500   30:e13795.

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

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

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

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

505   description, control climate and evaluation. Australian Meteorological and

506   Oceanographic Journal 63:41–64.

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

508   selection functions. Ecological Modelling 157:281–300.

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

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

511   Nature Climate Change.

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

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

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

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

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

517   Frontiers of Biogeography 11.

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

519   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.

Brun, P., W. Thuiller, Y. Chauvier, L. Pellissier, R. O. Wüest, Z. Wang, and N. E. Zimmermann.

2020. Model complexity affects species distribution projections under climate change.

Journal of Biogeography 47:130–142.

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.

Ellison, A. M., and J. N. Parker. 2002. Seed dispersal and seedling establishment of *Sarracenia*

purpurea (Sarraceniaceae). American Journal of Botany 89:1024–1026.

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.

Graf, U. H., A. Bergamini, A. Bedolla, S. Boch, H. Küchler, M. Küchler, and K. Ecker. 2022.

Regeneration potential of a degraded alpine mountain bog: complex regeneration patterns

after grazing cessation and partial rewetting. Mires and Peat 28:01.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

430.

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

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

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

Reviews of Geophysics 60:e2020RG000730.

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

geographic distributions. Ecological Modelling 190:231–259.

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

Risk for Central and Southern Appalachian Forest Tree Species.

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

Foundation for Statistical Computing.

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

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.

SERNEC Portal Data Portal. 2024. http//:sernecportal.org/index.php. Accessed on December 5.

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.

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.

Zellmer, A. J., M. M. Hanes, S. M. Hird, and B. C. Carstens. 2012. Deep Phylogeographic

Structure and Environmental Differentiation in the Carnivorous Plant *Sarracenia alata*.

Systematic Biology 61:763–777.

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			

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

683 *humboldt*. *humboldt* incorporates Background Tests that involve shifting the distribution of sites

684 for Taxon 1 and comparing the resulting environmental niche to Taxon 2, and vice versa (Brown

685 and Carnaval 2019). Taxon 1: *Sarracenia rubra* ssp. *jonesii*; Taxon 2: *Sarracenia purpurea* var.

686 *montana*.

	Equivalency Test		Background Test	
	Schoener's D	*P*-value	2 → 1	1 → 2
Niche Overlap Test (excluding syntopic sites)	0.16	0.004	0.331	0.155
Niche Overlap Test (including syntopic sites)	0.371	0.0319	0.068	0.076
Niche Divergence Test (excluding syntopic sites)	0.162	0.004	0.402	0.195
Niche Divergence Test (including syntopic sites)	0.366	0.02	0.059	0.084

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

691 3 k-folds, ± standard deviation.

	S. rubra ssp. *jonesii*	*S. purpurea* var. *montana*
sensitivity	0.630 ± 0.085	0.3664 ± 0.073
AUC	0.956 ± 0.095	0.976 ± 0.004
CBI	0.917 ± 0.096	0.827 ± 0.098

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*).

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

710   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 near-present 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. Full-extent maps,
including spatially disjunct areas of projected future suitability north of the current range, are
provided in Appendix S3; these broader-scale projections follow the same pattern of declining
suitability within the core range shown here.

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).

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

732   and *Sarracenia purpurea* var. *montana* under near-present and projected future climates under

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