

Biogeographically distinct controls on C₃ and C₄ grass distributions: merging community and physiological ecology

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Citation	Griffith, D. M., Anderson, T. M., Osborne, C. P., Strömberg, C. A. E., Forrestel, E. J., & Still, C. J. (2015). Biogeographically distinct controls on C ₃ and C ₄ grass distributions: merging community and physiological ecology. <i>Global Ecology and Biogeography</i> , 24(3), 304–313. doi:10.1111/geb.12265
DOI	10.1111/geb.12265
Publisher	John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
Version	Accepted Manuscript
Terms of Use	http://cdss.library.oregonstate.edu/sa-termsfuse

1 Article Title: Biogeographically distinct controls on C₃ and C₄ grass distributions: merging
2 community and physiological ecology

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16 Short running title (45): **Climate disequilibrium in C₄ grass distributions**

17 Keywords: **Biogeography, C₃, C₄, crossover temperature, tree cover, invasive, fire**

18 Type: **Research Paper**

19 Number of words in the abstract including key words (10): **300** of 300

20 Main text, including Biosketch (32): **5632** of 5000

21 Number of references: **50** of 50

22 Number of figures: **4** of 6

23 Tables: **1**

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30

31

32

33 **ABSTRACT**

34 **Aim** C₄ photosynthesis is an adaptation that maintains efficient carbon assimilation in warm and
35 low-CO₂ conditions. Due to the importance of C₄ grasses for carbon and surface energy fluxes
36 numerous models have been proposed to describe their spatial distribution and forecast responses
37 to climate change. These models often rely on broad climate predictors (e.g., temperature and
38 precipitation) but fail to integrate other ecologically relevant factors, such as disturbance and
39 competition, which may modify realized C₃/C₄ grass distributions. We evaluate the contribution
40 of ecological factors, in addition to climate predictors, to C₃/C₄ grass distributions across
41 multiple biogeographic regions of North America in a multi-source database of >40,000
42 vegetation plots.

43 **Location** Conterminous United States of America (USA).

44 **Methods** We identified a comprehensive pool of physiological-climatic models in the literature
45 and used information theoretic criteria to select a primary physiological predictor of C₃ and C₄
46 grasses. Subsequently, the climate model was combined with ecological predictors using a
47 multiple regression framework and tested within eight regions within the USA.

48 **Results** Surprisingly, grass-dominated communities across the USA exist largely in a C₃ or C₄
49 dominated state. Transitions between C₃/C₄ dominance were best explained by models that
50 integrated temperature and precipitation with ecological factors that varied according to region.
51 For some regions, such as Eastern Temperate Forests, local, ecological factors were comparable
52 in strength to broad climate predictors of C₃/C₄ abundance.

53 **Main conclusion** Local, ecological factors modify C₃/C₄ grass responses to broad-scale climatic
54 drivers in ways that manifest at regional scales. In Eastern Temperate Forests, for example, C₄
55 grass abundances are maintained below climatic expectations where tree cover creates light

56 limitation, but above expectations where frequent fires reduce tree cover. Thus, local ecological
57 factors contribute to major among-region differences in the climate responses of C₃/C₄ grasses.

58

59

60 **Main Text:**

61 **INTRODUCTION**

62 As humans continue to modify ecosystems and alter the Earth's climate, predicting future
63 species' distributions and shifting range limits has become a paramount goal in ecology. Many
64 contemporary methods for modeling species distributions (e.g., climate envelope, process-based)
65 are largely based on the assumption that species' physiological tolerances to environmental
66 variation (e.g. temperature, precipitation, etc.) determine species occupancy across the landscape
67 (Merow *et al.*, 2013). However, an alternative perspective argues that local ecological processes
68 (e.g. disturbance, predation, facilitation, storage effects) interact with species' ecophysiological
69 and life history traits to determine species distributions (e.g., Callaway, 1995; Weiher & Keddy,
70 1995; Araújo & Pearson, 2005; Maestre *et al.*, 2009). Approaches that merge species distribution
71 modeling based on physiological tolerances to variation in climate with community ecological
72 theory (e.g., Guisan & Rahbek, 2011; Scheiter *et al.*, 2013) show tremendous promise in
73 predicting species distributions, as well as assessing the contributions of relevant abiotic and
74 biotic drivers (Araújo *et al.*, 2013). However, integrative methods are not commonly applied in
75 contemporary modeling approaches, especially at large scales (Araújo & Rozenfeld, 2014).

76

77 The Poaceae (grasses) are a cosmopolitan family of flowering plants that dominate the
78 herbaceous layer of several major biomes which together cover as much as half the Earth's land
79 surface (grasslands, savannas and managed rangelands - Asner *et al.*, 2004). A central factor
80 determining the primary production of grass-dominated ecosystems is the proportion of species
81 that fix carbon using the C₄ photosynthetic pathway. This is because C₄ species have evolved an
82 efficient mechanism for reducing the negative effects of photorespiration in warm climates

83 compared to C₃ species (Ehleringer *et al.*, 1997), creating differences in carbon capture, water
84 use, phenology, and quantum yield (Still *et al.*, 2003a,b; Randerson *et al.*, 2005; Taylor *et al.*,
85 2010, 2014). In contrast, C₃ grasses have a competitive advantage in cool environments where
86 photorespiration is reduced (Sage, 2004). As such, C₃ and C₄ grasses are often observed to
87 segregate along temperature gradients; historically, broad-scale climate predictors such as
88 temperature and precipitation have been seen as the predominant determinants of C₃/C₄ grass
89 distribution. While, local, and often stochastic, factors like fire, herbivory, and competition (in
90 addition to temperature) are known to modify the C₃:C₄ grass ratio (e.g., Heckathorn *et al.*,
91 1999), these various drivers have not been incorporated into a single framework for predicting
92 C₃/C₄ grass distributions. Thus, the history of climate-based research combined with community
93 ecological research on C₃ and C₄ grasses provides an ideal system for testing models that merge
94 physiological and ecological processes in order to predict the abundance and distribution of these
95 functional types.

96

97 Several studies have investigated the distribution of C₃ and C₄ grasses along temperature
98 gradients across a range of spatial scales. Teeri & Stowe (1976) first showed that the percentage
99 of C₄ grass species in regional floras was closely tied to the minimum July temperature and the
100 length of the frost-free period, suggesting that cold growing season temperatures limit C₄ grasses
101 (while warm temperatures favor them). Numerous other studies have confirmed a role for
102 temperature in C₄ grass distributions (reviewed in Ehleringer *et al.*, 1997; Sage *et al.*, 1999).
103 However, additional factors such as soil texture (Epstein *et al.*, 1997) and growing season
104 precipitation (Paruelo & Lauenroth, 1996; Winslow *et al.*, 2003; Murphy & Bowman, 2007; von

105 Fischer *et al.*, 2008) often add considerably to explained variance and to predicting the spatial
106 distribution of C₃ or C₄ grasses.

107
108 The prevailing physiological hypothesis for explaining temperature-driven patterns of grass
109 functional-type distributions is that C₃ and C₄ species differ in the temperature sensitivity of their
110 quantum yield (the amount of carbon fixed per unit of light absorbed; Ehleringer *et al.*, 1997). At
111 higher temperatures C₃ quantum yield is reduced by photorespiration while at lower temperatures
112 the additional energetic requirements of the C₄ carbon concentrating mechanism generally result
113 in lower quantum yield for C₄ grasses (Ehleringer, 1978). This model implies the existence of a
114 ‘crossover temperature’ at which the photosynthetic gains of C₃ and C₄ grasses are equal; above
115 this temperature, C₄ grasses have higher photosynthetic and growth rates, whereas the opposite
116 holds below this crossover temperature. For global-scale distribution and carbon models,
117 crossover temperatures have been combined with assumptions about the minimum quantity of
118 precipitation necessary for grass growth to predict the climates in which C₄ or C₃ grasses should
119 dominate. The resulting prediction is that in months with mean air temperature ≥ 22 °C and
120 rainfall >25 mm C₄ should out-compete C₃ grasses (Collatz *et al.*, 1998; Still *et al.*, 2003a).
121 However, studies which take a phylogenetic approach have found that air temperature does not
122 always explain the distributions of closely related C₄ and C₃ species, implying that thermal
123 adaptations in grasses may be indirectly associated with photosynthetic functional type (Edwards
124 & Still, 2008; Pau *et al.*, 2013; Still *et al.*, 2013).

125
126 Where C₄ and C₃ grasses coexist, C₃ grasses may gain a competitive advantage if they can
127 acquire resources (e.g. space, nutrients) early in the growing season before C₄ plants become

128 most active (Ode *et al.*, 1980; Barnes *et al.*, 1983; Tieszen *et al.*, 1997). Conversely, locations
129 with cool spring/fall seasons that should favor C₃ grasses may be completely dominated by C₄
130 grasses which preempted resources during the warm summer season (Tieszen *et al.*, 1997). These
131 seasonal competitive effects have the potential to promote dominance of grasses that are not
132 climatically favored at a given location and time. Similarly, in forested areas, shading from trees
133 also has potential to favor C₃ grasses over C₄ because they generally have a carbon gain
134 advantage under low light conditions (Sage *et al.*, 1999; Peterson *et al.*, 2007).

135
136 Several other traits related to photosynthetic pathway alter the competitive interactions between
137 C₃ and C₄ grasses, such as how species respond to disturbances such as herbivory and fire
138 (Monson *et al.*, 1983; Heckathorn *et al.*, 1999). Compared to C₃ grasses, C₄ species are often
139 better equipped for rapid regrowth in the high-light conditions following defoliation (Heckathorn
140 *et al.*, 1999). Furthermore, C₄ grasses in savannas are believed to express traits that promote
141 understory fires, such as leaf flammability, which then maintain high light environments by
142 reducing tree cover in savannas (Ratnam *et al.*, 2011; Veldman *et al.*, 2013). From the
143 perspective of community ecologists, the mechanisms promoting coexistence or dominance of C₃
144 and C₄ species at individual sites are best explained by temporal or spatial resource partitioning
145 by species with different resource requirements (Monson *et al.*, 1983; Tilman & Pacala, 1993;
146 Fargione & Tilman, 2005). Finally, species and lineages are likely to have distinct and
147 independent responses to temperature, precipitation, and other environmental factors (regardless
148 of functional type) that we expect to contribute to the variation in grass distributions (Edwards &
149 Still, 2008).

150

151 While the broad-scale distribution of C₃ and C₄ grasses has been studied extensively in North
152 America, previous studies have been limited because they (i) relied upon indirect proxies of
153 relative abundance (e.g., floral survey lists, soil organic carbon stable isotopes and land cover
154 classifications), (ii) have been limited in spatial extent, and (iii) focused largely on climatic and
155 physiological explanations (Teeri & Stowe, 1976; Paruelo & Lauenroth, 1996; Epstein *et al.*,
156 1997; Tieszen *et al.*, 1997; Sage *et al.*, 1999). Using plot level abundance data, we set out to
157 explore the degree to which direct measurements of vegetation abundance support hypothesized
158 models of C₃/C₄ distributions, including those used to estimate global carbon budgets.
159 Specifically, we intend to identify if ecological mechanisms not directly related to the efficiency
160 of photosynthesis produce disequilibrium with climate that is discernible in species distribution
161 models at broad scales. Finally, we ask whether integrating a selection of ecological predictors
162 can increase the explanatory power of the climate model and provide support for specific local
163 mechanisms.

164 **METHODS**

165 **Vegetation plot data**

166 Vegetation plots with cover abundance measurements were sourced from databases, literature
167 sources, and unpublished sources (Appendix S1 in Supporting Information). Plot data met the
168 following criteria: (1) sample areas were between 100 and 1000 m², (2) accurate spatial data
169 were provided, (3) plant abundance in the herbaceous layer was collected by species, and (4)
170 plots contained species from the Poaceae (mean grass abundance was 65 %). Criterion (4) was
171 included because our primary goal was to understand the controls over the ratio of C₃:C₄ grasses,
172 not those factors that determine the abundance of grass relative to other plant taxa (herbaceous
173 forbs, shrubs, etc.). Consequently, our response variable, proportion of C₄ grass, was calculated

174 for each plot as the sum of C₄ grass abundance divided by the total grass abundance. Abundance
175 was measured as aerial estimates of percent cover, but where cover classification systems (e.g.
176 Carolina Vegetation Survey cover classes) were used, we converted cover ranges to the midpoint
177 percent cover. Photosynthetic functional types were assigned to species using (Osborne *et al.*,
178 2014).

179

180 **Explanatory variables**

181 We reconstructed several previously published statistical models of C₃/C₄ grass distributions
182 using climate 30 year (1971-2000) climate normals for the USA, sourced from the PRISM
183 Climate Group (<http://www.prism.oregonstate.edu/>; details in Appendix S1). These are: (1) Teeri
184 & Stowe's (1976) July minimum temperature and consecutive frost-free months predictors, (2)
185 Paruelo & Lauenroth's (1996) growing season precipitation model, the (3) Epstein *et al.* (1997)
186 soil texture and climate model, the (4) July temperature and rainfall model of von Fischer *et al.*
187 (2008), and (5) the Collatz *et al.* (1998) crossover temperature model. The construction of the
188 crossover model is describe below as it is the predominant model in the literature and requires
189 some additional explanation.

190

191 The model representing the C₃/C₄ crossover temperature was created by applying a set of
192 climatic criteria (temperature and rainfall thresholds) to all grid cells in the monthly climate
193 dataset, following the work of Collatz *et al.* (1998) and Still *et al.* (2003a). Because multiple
194 crossover temperature values have been reported in the literature, we created separate models
195 spanning the entire range of empirical temperature thresholds (5-31 °C) separately for minimum,
196 mean, and maximum monthly temperatures (Ehleringer *et al.*, 1997). Within each grid cell, each

197 month with sufficient simultaneous rainfall (≥ 25 mm) and temperatures above the crossover
198 threshold were classified as favoring the growth of C₄ grasses over C₃ grasses (Still *et al.*, 2003a;
199 Pau *et al.*, 2013; summarized in Fig. S2). We then summed the number of months in each grid
200 cell that favored C₄ growth to produce a metric, hereafter referred to as the number of “months
201 favoring C₄ grasses” or the “crossover temperature model”, to be used as a predictor of the
202 expected C₄ grass proportion. This model, often called the Collatz model in the literature, always
203 refers to both the temperature and rainfall criteria together. The best minimum, mean, and
204 maximum monthly temperatures for use in the crossover temperature model was selected by
205 comparing their variance explanations when each was regressed against the proportion C₄ grasses
206 in the plot as a response variable.

207
208 In addition to minimum and maximum temperatures, mean annual temperature (MAT), mean
209 annual precipitation (MAP), the crossover temperature model, frost-free months, and seasonal
210 rainfall, we also extracted non-climatic predictors such as tree cover, soils (cation exchange
211 capacity, organic carbon, pH, and texture), fire frequency, and proportion invasive grasses
212 (Appendix S1). We included invasive grasses as a predictor because of the observation that
213 exotic species may possess different relationships with disturbance regimes or otherwise interact
214 with native species in a way that increases their representation in the community (D’Antonio &
215 Vitousek, 1992; Smith & Knapp, 1999).

216

217 **Data analysis**

218 Data analyses were aimed at (1) determining the best possible model that predicts C₃/C₄ grass
219 abundance based of physiological limits to temperate and precipitation (i.e. climate variables)

220 and (2) to what extent the predictions of the climate model were modified by local ecological
221 factors (e.g., fire, competition, see introduction) at regional scales. In the first step, an
222 appropriate analytical model of grass physiology was chosen using formal model selection
223 procedures based on the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; Appendix S1) to compare the
224 support among previously published C₃/C₄ distribution models (e.g., Teeri & Stowe, 1976;
225 Paruelo & Lauenroth, 1996; Epstein *et al.*, 1997; Still *et al.*, 2003a; von Fischer *et al.*, 2008)
226 across the entire dataset. Then, we inspected the fit of the physiological-climatic C₃/C₄
227 distribution model to the observed vegetation data from across the USA. To control for
228 phylogenetic, biogeographic, and historical differences (e.g., history of competition, disturbance)
229 between regions of North America, we partitioned our data into geographical subsets based on
230 the regions described by Omernik (see Appendix S2).

231
232 In the second step, we developed a series of “verbal” models to represent various potential
233 interactions between climate and ecological drivers (Fig. 1) as a framework for exploring the
234 ways that local ecological factors might cause C₃/C₄ grass distributions to be in disequilibrium
235 with climate. Our intention is not to provide an exhaustive set of models or directly infer specific
236 ecological processes from these patterns; rather the goal of this exploratory analysis is to provide
237 a rationale for statistically testing for the effects of various ecological predictors in the next step of
238 analysis. Fig. 1A shows our expectation if C₃/C₄ grasses are in climate equilibrium—C₄ species
239 exist when and where they are favored and are absent when conditions are never physiologically
240 suitable (Araújo & Pearson, 2005). The remaining “verbal” models (Fig. 1B-F) illustrate patterns
241 that can be expected when other mechanisms (interspecific competition, disturbance feedbacks,
242 and species interactions) play important roles in addition to the purely physiological model. For

243 example, if C₃ grasses are able to persist in a grassland, perhaps because they can capture and
244 store resources during the cool season, then C₄ species may never attain the level of dominance
245 predicted by the local climate until C₃ grasses are incapable of growing (Fig. 1B). On the other
246 hand, disturbance favoring C₄ grass species (e.g., fire) might maintain dominance of C₄ grasses at
247 sites where the climate favors C₃ grasses (Fig. 1C). Competition and disturbance are just two
248 straight-forward examples that would produce disequilibrium with climate. Furthermore,
249 multiple factors might operate in conjunction—for instance, cool season competition from C₃
250 grasses could prevent establishment of C₄ species in low temperatures environments, but in
251 warmer conditions C₄ grasses might be promoted by fire (Fig. 1D). Another possibility is that C₄
252 species do not grow in areas where temperatures favor them for only short periods (e.g., one
253 month) because there is not sufficient time to establish a population (Fig 1E). Finally, in warm
254 environments where C₄ grasses are expected to dominate exclusively, C₃ species may continue to
255 persist if they store resources gained during temporarily beneficial environmental conditions,
256 such as following a frost event that kills competing C₄ grasses (Fig. 1F; "storage effect";
257 Chesson, 2000).

258
259 Treating each ecoregion separately, we compared the physiological model expectations (e.g.,
260 Fig. 1A) to the observed plot-based C₄ grass proportions with the goal of identifying patterns of
261 deviation indicative disequilibrium processes (e.g., Fig 1B-F, described above). For each
262 ecoregion containing vegetation data, we statistically tested whether the observed versus
263 expected relationship reflected climatic equilibrium (i.e., a linear fit) or disequilibrium (i.e.,
264 nonlinear, requiring a second or third degree polynomial term in a regression model). Linearity is
265 a good representation of climate equilibrium because it indicates that as climate changes there

266 are corresponding changes in C₄ grass abundances. In addition to assessing linearity, we tested
267 the hypothesis that plots existed largely in either low or high C₄ states by applying Hartigan's dip
268 test to test for and quantify the degree of multimodality in each ecoregion (Maechler 2013).

269
270 Finally, in ecoregions in which grass distributions were likely to be in disequilibrium with
271 climate, we assessed the degree of statistical support for a selection of other potential
272 mechanisms that could produce the observed patterns. We did this by fitting models which test
273 for partial effects of additional predictors on the proportion of C₄ grasses after the climate-related
274 predictor variable was accounted for. These additional predictors were: (1) fire, (2) tree cover,
275 (3) proportion of grasses that are invasive, and (4) soil characteristics (Appendix S1). While
276 temperature and rainfall are already included in the Collatz crossover model, min and max
277 temperature and rainfall were included in our regressions because we considered that additional
278 temperature thresholds (tolerance to extremes) and interactions with rainfall might operate in
279 addition to the crossover model and be important in particular regions (Still *et al.*, 2013). Due to
280 the spatial autocorrelation and bounded nature of our proportional plot data we fit models using
281 boosted beta regression (Appendix S1). This approach is appropriate for modeling spatial data
282 with beta distributed responses (i.e. bounded zero to one) when accounting for partial effects and
283 modeling how variance responds to predictors. For example, our regressions modeled variance
284 through phi (ϕ), which is a parameter of beta distributions that describes the degree to which a
285 variable (in this case, proportion of C₄ grass) is either hump-shaped (large ϕ) or U-shaped (small
286 ϕ)—this shape can change in response to predictor variables. In this case a positive effect of a
287 predictor on ϕ would indicate that variance decreases around the mean response; conversely,
288 variance increases as ϕ decreases.

289
290 There are several aspects of our analytical approach that deserve a caveat. First, the sampling
291 dates for our plot data were skewed towards summer months and to reduce bias we restricted our
292 analysis to summer month to represent the height of the growing season; this means we may
293 have missed patterns that might only be evident when all seasons are fully sampled. Second, in
294 this study we have lumped species into functional type even though these species will have
295 individualistic responses to the environment that could explain additional variation or be
296 confounded with our other predictors. Lastly, our modeling approach mostly considers main
297 effects of temperature and ecological predictors even though temperature likely interacts with
298 biotic factors to produce ecological outcomes (Dillon *et al.*, 2009).

299

300 **RESULTS**

301 The number of months that favor C₄ grasses (i.e. the Collatz crossover model) based on a
302 monthly maximum of 27 °C and a minimum 25 mm rainfall emerged as the best physiological
303 predictor of the observed C₄ grass proportion ($R^2 = 0.40$; Fig. 2); the max 27 °C Collatz model
304 had the lowest AIC (and highest R^2) of all single predictor models from the literature (Table S3)
305 and had a strong positive effect in all ecoregions (Tables 1 and S3). The quality and spatial
306 coverage of the plot data allowed us, for the first time, to empirically derive the best crossover
307 temperature for the Collatz model (Fig. 2) and to compare it to other models with a modern
308 statistical approach. The next best models were 9 °C and 18 °C for the minimum and mean
309 temperature Collatz crossover models, respectively. Consequently, in downstream analyses the
310 crossover temperature model was used to represent the best physiological-climate predictor of
311 the proportion of C₄ grasses.

312

313 When the proportion of C₄ grasses in a plot was regressed upon the number of months favoring
314 C₄ growth, all of the ecoregions, with the exception of the Mediterranean, showed a non-linear
315 relationship best fit by either a second or third degree polynomial (Table S3). To better visualize
316 the middle range and upper boundary of these responses we used quantile regression to model
317 the median and upper 95th quantile of C₄ proportion; because the relationships were non-linear
318 we fit these models with additive components (Fig 3). The modeled upper limit of C₄ grasses was
319 consistently above 50% C₄ in all regions except for the Mediterranean regions. In the Great
320 Plains, Temperate Sierras, and Southern Semiarid Highlands, the median C₄ response is higher
321 than expected when just one month favors C₄ grasses. The Eastern Temperate Forests and North
322 American Deserts have sigmoidal relationships between predicted and actual C₄ proportion, and
323 their median curves (and the Northern Forest and Northwestern Forested Mountain curves)
324 remain below the physiology-climate predictions even when several months favor C₄ (Fig. 3).
325 One particularly compelling results was that the distribution of C₄ grass proportions in all regions
326 (except Mediterranean) could not be explained by a unimodal distribution (for all regions:
327 $D=0.01-0.13$ and $p < 0.001$ from Hartigan's dip test) —i.e., they were at least bimodal with
328 peaks near 0 and 1 (Fig. 3). The Mediterranean showed a linear pattern and was unimodal which
329 might reflect C₃ competitive dominance or simply that C₄ is only favored for up to two months.
330

331 These results establish that seven of eight ecoregions showed nonlinear relationships between
332 observed and expected C₄ proportion. Because we found significant deviations from our
333 predictions, we used boosted beta regression in order to determine if fire, tree cover,
334 invasiveness, soils, min and max temperature, or rainfall could explain additional variation in C₄

335 grass proportion after accounting for physiological-climate effects based on the crossover
336 temperature model (with 27 °C temperature and 25 mm rainfall criteria). The explanatory power
337 of all models was increased by the addition of these variables (Table 1; Appendix S1), compared
338 to models with only the number of months favoring C₄ grasses as the predictor. R² values
339 increased from 0.18 to 0.30 in Eastern Temperate Forests, 0.19 to 0.41 in Great Plains, 0.33 to
340 0.51 in North American Deserts, 0.23 to 0.42 in Temperate Sierras, and from 0.49 to 0.53 in
341 Southern Semiarid Highlands.

342
343 In Eastern Temperate Forests, there was a strong negative effect of tree cover on C₄ grass
344 proportions, whereas invasive grass proportion, soil organic carbon, and minimum temperature
345 each had positive effects (Table 1). Fire did not have a main effect but decreased the variance
346 associated with C₄ (ϕ coefficient = 0.06; see Methods) meaning that where fire is common it is
347 rare to find C₃ grass species. In the Great Plains, the crossover temperature model was the only
348 significant predictor of the mean response, but, tree cover (ϕ coefficient = -0.009) and increasing
349 minimum temperatures (ϕ coefficient = -0.005) tended to increase variance there. In contrast,
350 increasing maximum temperatures were positively associated with C₄ grasses in the Deserts, and
351 both minimum and maximum temperatures were important in the Temperate Sierras. MAP was
352 associated with decreasing C₄ grass presence in both Temperate Sierras and the Semiarid
353 Highlands. Unexplained spatial patterns were present in the Great Plains, Temperate Sierras, and
354 North American Deserts datasets as demonstrated by the significant fit of geographic coordinates
355 to the data in our boosted beta regressions (Table 1; Appendix S1). Finally, in three regions
356 where invasiveness was important, an associated decreased in variance of proportion of C₄ grass
357 was observed.

358

359 **DISCUSSION**

360

361 To our knowledge this is the first time that the C₄ grass fraction from plot abundance
362 measurements of specific taxa (rather than floral lists, aggregated presence/absence, or
363 herbarium collections data) has been compared quantitatively at a broad scale to the state-of-the-
364 art models of C₄ distribution (Teeri & Stowe, 1976; Sage *et al.*, 1999; Murphy & Bowman, 2007;
365 Still *et al.*, 2013). In doing so, we revealed that there are major, biogeographically distinct
366 deviations from climate equilibrium that exist in the broad scale spatial distributions of two
367 highly studied grass functional types.

368

369 Based on previous work (Still *et al.*, 2003a), we expected to find that the physiological model
370 using a mean 22 °C crossover temperature criteria (and 25 mm rainfall screen) for counting the
371 number of months favoring C₄ grasses would best account for the variation in the data. Instead,
372 we found that a maximum temperature of 27 °C was a better predictor of C₄ grass abundance
373 than all other models (Fig. 1 and Table S3). One possible explanation for this result is that mean
374 temperatures integrate daytime and nighttime temperatures, while maximum temperature better
375 represents the daytime growing conditions (especially mid-morning when stomata are most
376 open) of grasses and should reflect the C₄ advantage in reducing photorespiratory costs relative
377 to C₃ grasses. Our result is consistent with empirical data suggesting that, when temperature is
378 represented by daytime measurements, it results in high crossover temperatures (Ehleringer *et*
379 *al.*, 1997; Sage *et al.*, 1999). Although it is not surprising that temperature was a good predictor
380 of C₄ grass distribution, the more significant and novel finding is that the temperature model is

381 not adequate to explain these distributions on its own. Whereas the number of months favoring
382 C₄ grasses explained the highest percentage of the variance in C₄ grass abundance across the
383 entire dataset (40 %), the residual variation not explained by temperature is considerable and the
384 region-specific analyses show that ecological variables, such as fire and tree cover, play an
385 important role in determining C₃/C₄ grass distributions.

386
387 Seven of our eight regions were characterized by non-linear relationships between the observed
388 and predicted results from the temperature/precipitation model, indicating that there are factors
389 other than climate that are determining grass functional type distributions at large scales (Fig. 3).
390 Moreover, deviations from climate equilibrium were unique to different regions which suggests
391 the presence of region-specific processes or mechanisms that modify grass climate responses in
392 areas with different biogeographic histories. These non-linear patterns suggest different types of
393 factors that might modify climate-determined grass distributions (introduced in Fig. 1), such as
394 seasonal competition favoring either C₃ or C₄, disturbance factors like fire or herbivory favoring
395 either C₃ or C₄, minimum growing season thresholds, or coexistence mechanisms such as storage
396 effects (Brown & Maurer, 1989; Chesson, 2000; Araújo & Pearson, 2005; Araújo *et al.*, 2013).
397 In two regions, Eastern Temperate Forests and North American Deserts, the median quantile
398 regression results exhibit a sigmoidal-shaped curve implying processes that suppress C₄ grasses
399 in shorter warm growth seasons but promote C₄ above expected beyond a five month warm
400 growing season. Two generally forest-dominated ecoregions, Northern Forests and Northwestern
401 Forested Mountains, have a restricted number of months favoring C₄ grasses because they
402 occupy limited climatic space. Interestingly, these regions have their median responses
403 suppressed below expectations, whereas regions with more open canopy or generally non-forest

404 habitat tend to approach maximum C₄ proportions rapidly (Southern Semiarid Highlands,
405 Temperate Sierras, and Great Plains but not North American Deserts). Altogether, these patterns
406 point to the existence of biogeographically and ecologically distinct factors and processes
407 influencing the observed distributions of C₄ and C₃ grasses.

408
409 In the boosted beta regressions, where we modeled the C₄ proportion of grasses as a function of
410 several covariates, the strength of the relationship and the degree to which other predictors were
411 needed to explain variance in C₄ grass proportion varied among regions. These results support
412 the assertion that North America ecoregions differ in the degree to which temperature and
413 physiology control C₄ distributions. It is also consistent with the hypothesis that the global rise to
414 dominance of C₄ grasses cannot be explained solely by photosynthetic pathway; instead, other
415 adaptations may be equally important to explaining dominance (Edwards *et al.*, 2010). For
416 example, one proposition is that fire-adapted C₄ grasses facilitated the expansion of the grass-
417 dominated savanna systems in the late Miocene (Scheiter *et al.*, 2012). For example, in our
418 dataset the two most dominant species in the southeast were the fire-adapted C₄ species *Aristida*
419 *stricta* and *A. beyrichiana*, whereas across the rest of the temperate eastern US the dominant
420 grasses were C₃, and likely less fire-prone species *Brachyelytrum erectum* and *Danthonia*
421 *spicata*. However, the dominant C₄ species still include fire-adapted species like *Andropogon*
422 *gerardii* and *Schizachyrium scoparium* in addition to the invasive *Microstegium vimineum*.

423
424 The only effect of fire regime found in this study was a negative correlation between fire
425 frequency and the variance associated with C₄ proportion in Eastern Temperate Forests. This
426 supports the frequently reported association of C₄ with fire, including in North America, because

427 at the scale of our analysis fire maintains a high proportion of C₄ grass (D'Antonio & Vitousek,
428 1992; Scheiter *et al.*, 2012; Veldman *et al.*, 2013). This result introduces the possibility that in
429 the warmer areas of Eastern Temperate Forests (e.g., Florida) high relative abundances of C₄ are
430 already explained by the physiological model, and the influence of fire is mediated through a
431 negative impact on tree cover. A known indirect effect of fire that promotes C₄ grasses is the
432 reduction of forest trees (as opposed to savanna trees) that would otherwise negatively influence
433 the C₄ understory (Veldman *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, fire effects on C₄ might be masked by the
434 negative impact of tree cover, found in three ecoregions. To explore the potential for indirect
435 effects and the influence of scale on our results, we conducted a heuristic analysis comparing the
436 effects of fire on C₄ grass proportion within and outside of the natural range of Longleaf pine
437 (*Pinus palustris*), a species characteristic of the pyrogenic grasslands of the Southeastern United
438 States (see Appendix S3). This analysis showed that C₄ proportion was still bimodal, whether
439 within or out of the range of Longleaf pine. However, C₄ grasses were more common within this
440 range, whereas C₃ grasses were more common in the rest of the Eastern Temperate Forests (Fig.
441 4; $D = 0.06-0.11$, $p < 0.001$). Furthermore, a simple path analysis revealed direct (fire increasing
442 C₄ abundance) and indirect (mediated through reduced tree cover) effects of fire on C₄ grasses
443 inside of the Longleaf pine range but not outside the range (Fig. 4; Appendix S3). This pattern is
444 likely the indirect consequence of shading and the creation of a cool microclimate, relating to the
445 fact C₄ grass species are thought to be at a competitive disadvantage in shade and less able to
446 utilize sunflecks than C₃ grasses (Horton & Neufeld, 1998; Sage *et al.*, 1999). This effect seems
447 to be modified by the presence of the invasive, apparently shade tolerant C₄ grass *M. vimineum*
448 (Horton & Neufeld, 1998). Accordingly, invasive grass (*M. vimineum*) abundance had a positive
449 influence on the proportion of C₄ grass in the Eastern Temperate Forests.

450
451 In contrast, grass invasiveness had negative effects on the abundance of C₄ grasses in both North
452 American Deserts and Temperate Sierras, where the C₃ invasive *Bromus tectorum* is responsible
453 for reducing the C₄ proportion to below expected values. The numerous other invasive grasses in
454 the dataset (e.g., *Eragrostis curvula*—C₄ and *Dactylis glomerata*—C₃) are all in low abundance
455 and appear to have less of an influence on C₄ cover. Invasives may shift the proportion of C₄
456 grasses through diversity reduction and competitively exclusion or through interaction with
457 disturbance (D'Antonio & Vitousek, 1992; Smith & Knapp, 1999). In general, all mean effects
458 of invasive grasses on C₄ proportion (positive and negative) in our analysis were accompanied by
459 decreased variance around the mean, indicating that sites tend to be dominated by the functional
460 type of the invading species.

461
462 Another surprising result was the prevalence of bimodal C₄ abundance distributions across the
463 entire dataset indicating that, at the plot scale, plant communities tend to be dominated largely by
464 one functional type with few mixed C₃/C₄ intermediates. In fact, C₃- and C₄-dominated sites are
465 largely separated in climate space, with overlap existing primarily where coexistence of
466 functional types exists (Fig. S7). Whether or not these observations provide direct evidence for
467 the existence of alternative stable states for different photosynthetic pathways is not known;
468 however, the strongly suggestive nature of our data warrants future investigation of these
469 patterns. For example, temporal demographic data from grasslands would be valuable for testing
470 for alternative attractors. If grassland vegetation plots do exist in largely monocultures of either
471 C₃ or C₄, one likely explanation is that ecological conditions create feedbacks favoring a
472 particular photosynthetic pathway creating non-linearity in species distributions. For example,

473 the direct and indirect promotion of C₄ grass by fire leads to nonlinearity in the climate responses
474 the Eastern Temperate Forests and the highly bimodal abundance distribution observed (Fig. 4).

475
476 Soil type was a notably poor predictor of C₄ proportion, despite the frequent dominance of C₄
477 grasses on highly disturbed and low nutrient sites (Wilson & Tilman, 1993; Smith & Knapp,
478 1999); although, soil organic carbon was positively correlated with C₄ grasses in Eastern
479 Temperate Forests. Climatic factors such as min/max temperature and precipitation, on the other
480 hand, had stronger influence on grass distributions. In both Temperate Sierras and Southern
481 Semiarid Highlands, higher MAP was associated with decreased C₄ proportions, in agreement
482 with work on the Hawaiian Islands (Pau et al. 2013, Still et al. 2013), and potentially indicating
483 that either increased rain favored C₃ grasses or that low rainfall favored C₄ (Paruelo & Lauenroth,
484 1996). Maximum temperatures positively affected C₄ grasses in Temperate Sierras and North
485 American Deserts, which suggests that high temperatures have a particular negative effect on C₃
486 grasses in these areas (e.g., von Fischer *et al.* 2008). Similarly, higher minimum temperatures in
487 Eastern Temperate Forests and Temperate Sierras were accompanied by higher C₄ proportions,
488 indicating that cold may indeed limit C₄ production (Long, 1999).

489

490 **Conclusion**

491 We used vegetation abundance data to determine that counting the number of months favoring
492 C₄ grasses, based on a max crossover temperature of 27 °C, was the best predictor of C₄
493 abundance. Furthermore, seven of eight biogeographical regions of North America examined had
494 distinct and non-linear relationships with proportion of C₄ grasses predicted from the number of
495 months favoring C₄ indicating that separate ecological processes might contribute differently to

496 distributional patterns among regions. In particular, invasive species, tree cover, and fire had
497 important and regionally distinct modifying effects on C₄ grass abundance. In our study of C₃ and
498 C₄ grass distributions in North America we found that climate disequilibrium was commonplace
499 and biogeographically distinct at large scales.

500

501 **Acknowledgements** The authors would like to thank Matthias Schmid, Florian Wickler, Simone
502 Wahl for providing both R code and detailed discussion regarding the application of Boosted
503 Beta Regression. Susan Carr kindly provided data for the southeastern United States. Additional
504 thanks to Tom Morrison, Frances Morris, and Kathleen Quigley for discussions. DG was
505 supported by National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship under Grant No.
506 0907738 and National Evolutionary Synthesis Center (NESCent), NSF #EF-0905606.

507

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BIOSKETCH

639 Daniel M. Griffith's conducts plant ecological research in savanna and grassland ecosystems
640 with specific focus on the interactions of abiotic and biotic factors. His fieldwork is concentrated
641 on African grazing ecosystems.

642 **Tables:**

643 Table 1. Results from boosted beta regression analyses. Effect sized for variables are only
 644 presented if they were selected in the final model. A significant influence of space, which
 645 doesn't have a single effect size, is indicated as an asterisk. The symbols ($+\sigma^2$) and ($-\sigma^2$)
 646 indicates a positive and negative influences on the variance of C_4 proportion, indicated by the
 647 model as the inverse of beta distribution precision parameter (see methods). Only regions with
 648 models with significant mean effects are reported; these are Eastern Temperate Forest (ETF),
 649 Great Plains (GP), North American Deserts (NAD), Temperate Sierras (TS), and Southern
 650 Semiarid Highlands (SSH).

	ETF	GP	NAD	TS	SSH
Crossover model with max 27 °C	0.16	0.13	0.29	0.18	0.31
MAP				-0.4	-0.18
TREE COVER	-0.22	($+\sigma^2$)		-0.07	-0.005
Invasive grass (%)	0.1 ($-\sigma^2$)		-0.12 ($-\sigma^2$)	-0.09	($-\sigma^2$)
Soil CEC					
Soil OC	0.06				
Soil pH	($+\sigma^2$)				
Soil Clay (%)					
Fire frequency	($-\sigma^2$)				
Minimum temperature	0.17	($+\sigma^2$)		0.06 ($+\sigma^2$)	
Maximum temperature			0.03	0.02	
Space		*	*	*	

651 **Figure legends:**

652 Figure 1. Predicted patterns for the relationship between modeled and actual C₄ grass
653 proportions. The gray line is the one-to-one “pure-physiology” prediction and the dotted black
654 lines are alternative patterns. Capital letters identify the panel and lowercase letters identify the
655 processes expected to produce the patterns observed. (A) A one-to-one relationship between
656 expected and observed C₄ grasses would suggest that (a) physiology drives their distribution. (B)
657 C₄ grasses might be represented below expected values in nature suggesting (b) C₃ competitive
658 priority effects or disturbance favoring C₃. (C) C₄ grasses may be over represented and might
659 imply (c) C₄ priority effects or disturbance favoring C₄. Further alternatives include (D) a
660 sigmoidal relationship (d) where there are alternative states, thresholds, or opposing processes.
661 (E) A lagged pattern where (e) the minimum threshold conditions for C₄ are not met. (F) An
662 asymptotic curve that could suggest (f) storage effects buffering populations of C₃ species.

663
664 Figure 2. The R² values from separate linear models for minimum, mean, and maximum
665 temperature based crossover models across a range of potential values. The vertical line indicates
666 the crossover temperature that maximizes the explanatory power of the model given the entire
667 plot dataset.

668
669 Figure 3. Map of the study extent, the conterminous USA, showing the biogeographic (Omernik)
670 ecoregions analyzed (Datum: WGS84). Each region is associated with a plot using quantile
671 regression to visualize the non-linear relationships (Appendix S2) between predicted and
672 observed C₄ grasses. These graphs follow the framework developed in Fig 1, but use the
673 crossover temperature model as the x-axis. The gray line is the one-to-one, “climate equilibrium”

674 prediction. The data are represented with density curves within each bin on the x-axis (C4-
675 favored months). To visualize the median and upper limit of C₄ distributions, median and 95th
676 quantile regressions were fit in the R package ‘quantreg’ (Koenker 2013).

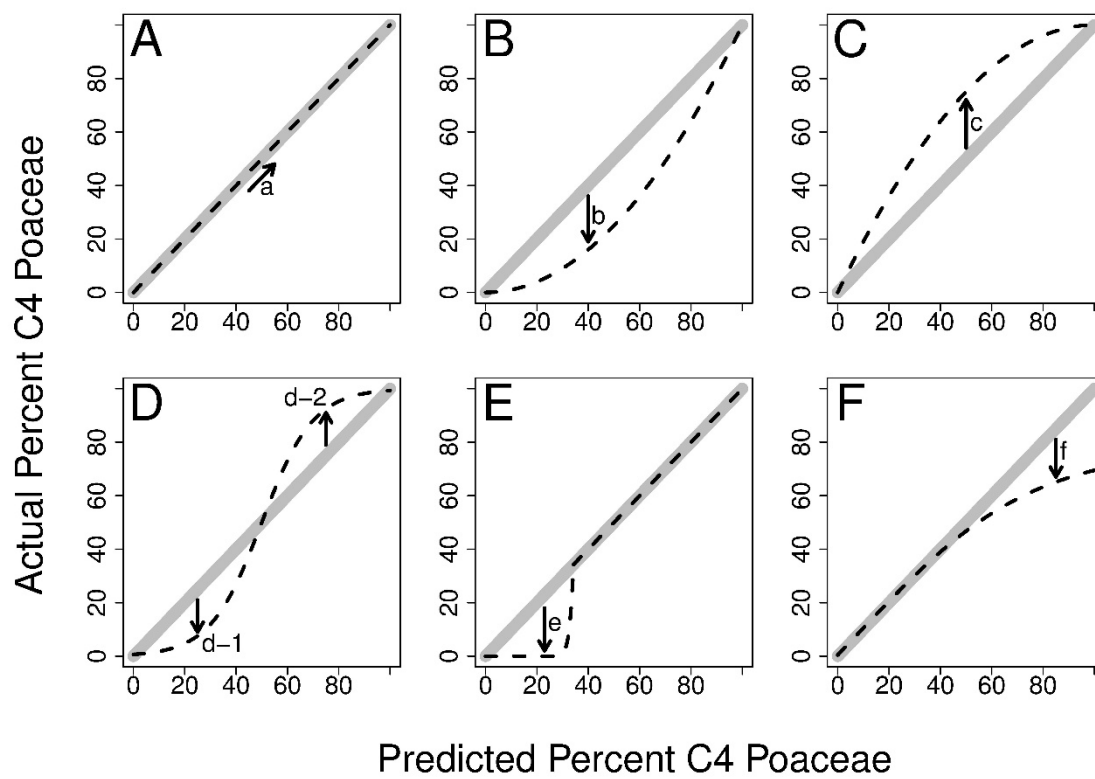
677

678 Figure 4. The Eastern Temperate Forest ecoregion was divided according to the historical range
679 of Longleaf pine. The figure shows the frequency distribution of C₄ grass proportion of the
680 Northeastern Temperate Forests (outside of the Longleaf pine range) as compared to the range of
681 Longleaf pine in the Southeastern USA. Each histogram has an inset depicting the results of a
682 path analysis testing the direct and indirect (mediated by tree cover) effects of fire on proportion
683 of C₄ grass. Significant regressions are labeled with standardized effect sizes.

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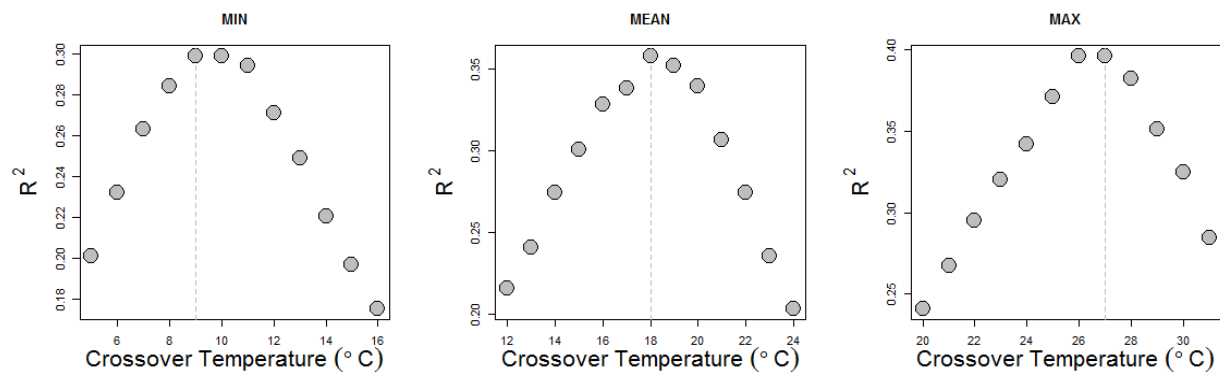
686 **Figures:**
687 Figure 1.



688

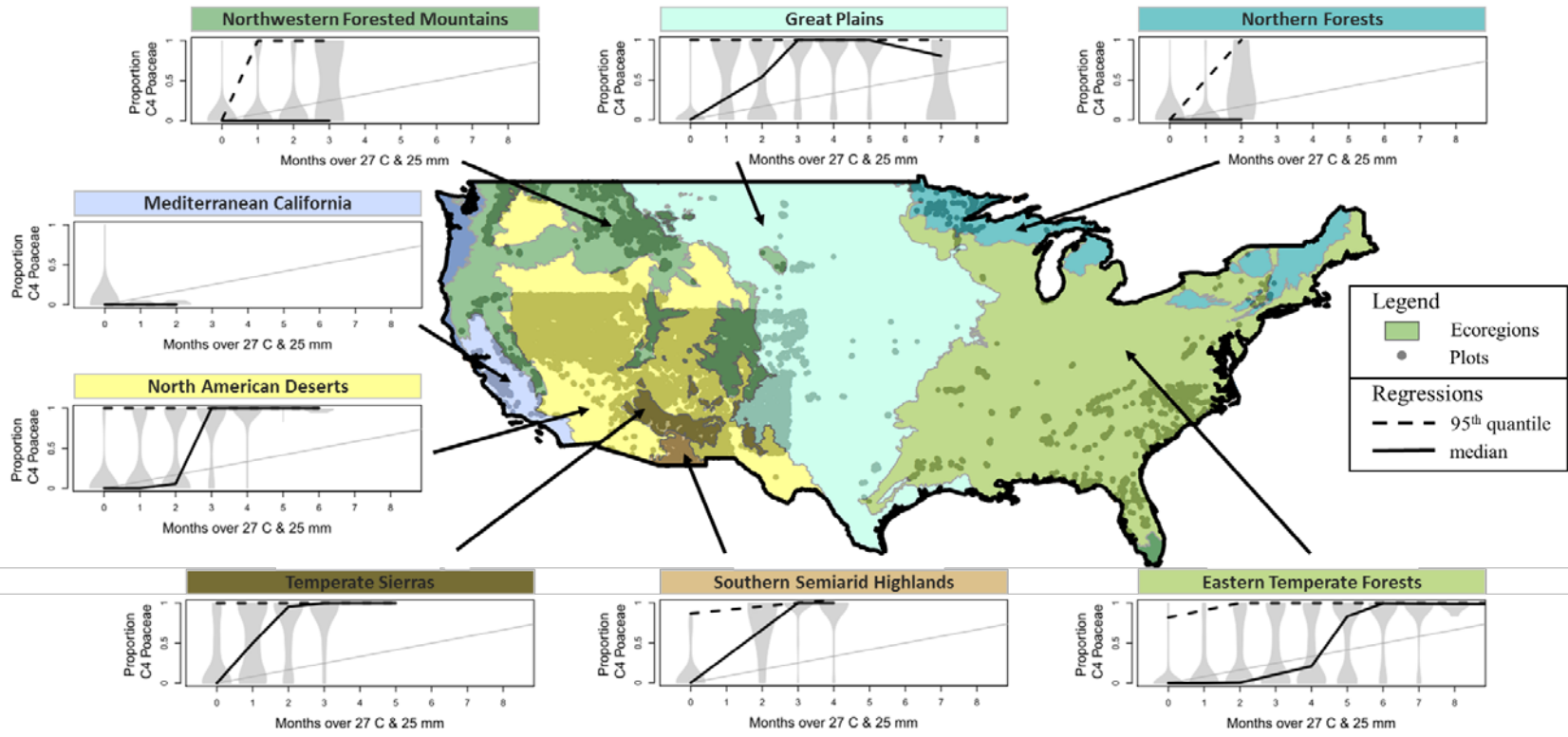
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690 Figure 2.



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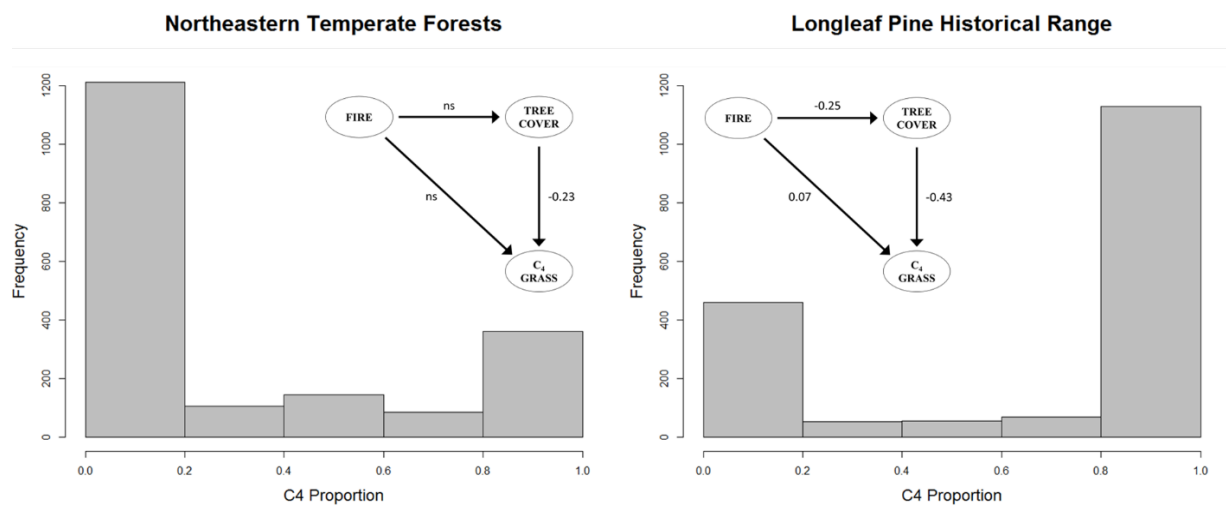
692 Figure 3.



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695 Figure 4.

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699	SUPPORTING INFORMATION
700	
701	Appendix S1 Additional methods
702	Appendix S2 Additional results
703	Appendix S3 Details for path modeling
704	