Two-sex demography, sexual niche differentiation, and range limits

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Abstract

¹ Keywords

₂ Introduction

- 3 P1: importance of understanding range limits in basic and applied ecology, theory
- 4 for proximate causes of range limits, demographic failure at range edges and the
- 5 idea that range limits are niche limits
- 6 P2: The idea that range limits are niche limits intersects awkwardly with
- 7 another prevalent concept in ecology: intraspecific niche heterogeneity. If a species'
- 8 range limits reflect its niche limits, and a single species contains many niches, then
- whose niche is it that determines the geographic distribution.
- P3: Sexual niche differentiation in dioecious species is a widespread form of intra-specific niche heterogeneity. Sex-specific responses to environmental drivers can generate geographic clines in operational sex ratio and strongly biased sex ratios especially at range limits. While this pattern is well documented in a variety of taxa, the role of sex ratio bias in limiting species' ranges is poorly understood.
- P4: Most ecological theory assumes female dominance. In this case, there is a straightforward answer to the question above the female niche is the relevant set of constraints for understanding range limits. However, while female dominance is often a reasonable and useful assumption, it may break down under extreme sex ratio bias, where mates may be limiting. If so, this creates an additional, two-sex pathway by which males could limit the position of species ranges.
- P5: In this study we used a dioecious grass species as a focal species to quantify the relative importance of female-dominant and two-sex mechanisms of range limitation.

24 Materials and methods

25 Study system and natural population surveys

Poa arachnifera is a perennial, cool-season grass native to the southern Great Plains (Fig). Like all grasses, P. arachnifera is wind-pollinated. Individuals can be sexed only when flowering, in early spring, based on the presence of stigmas (females) or anthers (males) in the inflorescence. Following inflorescence and seed 29 production, plants go dormant for the hot summer months and vegetative growth 30 resumes in fall. Individuals grow via rhizomes to form patches that may be as large as $50m^2$ in area. Sex in *P. arachnifera* is genetically based (Renganayaki *et al.*, 32 2001, 2005) and the primary sex ratio is 1:1 (J. Goldman, USDA-ARS, personal 33 communication). The rhizomatous growth habit allowed us to clonally propagate large numbers of known-sex individuals for experiments, as we describe below. 35 We surveyed P. arachnifera across its range to establish whether natural pop-36 ulations exhibited geographic clines in sex ratio corresponding to the longitudinal 37 aridity gradient. We visited 14 populations in spring 2012 and 8 in spring 2013. 38 Survey locations are shown in **map** and coordinates are provided in Table A1. At 39 each location, we searched for P. arachnifera along roads, trails, or creek drainages and recorded the number of female and male inflorescences that we encountered.

42 0.0.1 Statistical analysis of natural population surveys

We fit a binomial generalized linear model (glm), where females were "successes" and total inflorescences was the number of "trials", to test whether the operational sex ratio (OSR) varied systematically with respect to longitude. Here and in the experiment that follows we use longitude as a proxy variable that captures all east-

west environmental variation, notably precipitation (map figure) but also factors
that co-vary with precipitation, such as productivity. This statistical model and all
those that follow were fit in a Bayesian statistical framework using Stan (Carpenter
et al., 2017) and rstan (Team et al., 2018) with vague priors on all parameters.
In all cases, model fit was assessed with posterior predictive checks (Conn et al.,
2018).

53 Common garden experiment

54 Source material and experimental design

We established a common garden experiment at 14 sites throughout and beyond the geographic distribution of P. arachnifera (MAP). Experimental sites spanned latitudinal and longitudinal variation, though we focus here on longitude. During the three years of this experiment, total precipitation at each site closely tracked 58 longitude (Fig. A1), as expected based on longer-term climate trends (map). 59 Source material for this experiment came from 8 sites, which were of subset of the 60 sites that were visited for the natural population survey (Table). At each of these 61 site visits in 2013 and 2014, we collected tillers from flowering individuals of each sex (mean: 11.6 individuals per site, range: 2-18). These were brought back to 63 the Rice University greenhouse, where they were clonally propagated in ProMix potting soil and supplemental Osmocote fertilizer at 78–80°F under natural light. 65 Common gardens were set up in Fall (October-December) 2014. At each site, 66 we established 14 experimental blocks, which typically corresponded to a tree or 67 woodland edge, providing partial shade that mimics this species' natural microenvironment. We planted 3 females and 3 males in each block, for a total of 42

individuals per sex per site and 1176 total plants across sites, with all source collections represented at all sites. Individuals were spaced within blocks to allow space for rhizomatous growth that could be clearly attributed to individual transplants. To promote establishment, we cleared vegetation immediately surrounding transplants and provided ca. 1 L of water at the time of transplanting but provided no subsequent watering, fertilization, or competitor removal.

We visited each site during May of 2015, 2016, and 2017. For each individual in each year, we recorded data for four demographic vital rates: survival status (alive or dead), size (number of tillers), flowering status (reproductive or vegetative), the number of panicles produced by flowering plants.

80 Statistical analysis of common garden experiment

We analyzed the demographic vital rates with generalized linear mixed models in a hierarchical Bayesian framework. All the vital rates shared a common linear predictor for the expected value that included fixed effects of size, sex, linear and quadratic terms for longitude, and all 2- and 3-way interactions. We included quadratic effects of longitude to account for the possibility of non-monotonic responses, following the hypothesis that fitness may peak in the center of the range. The linear predictor also included random effects of site, block, and source population of the transplant; the corresponding variance terms were used in the demographic model (below) to capture process error in demography. We pooled all three years of observations for analysis so we do not explicitly model temporal variation but our results are implicitly averaged over years.

The survival and flowering data were Bernoulli distributed, and these models applied the logit link function. We modeled tiller and panicle counts as zero-

truncated negative binomial using the log link. For flowering and panicle production in year t, the size covariate was the natural logarithm of tiller number in year t. For survival and size in year t, the size covariate was the natural logarithm of tiller number in year t-1 (for 2015 data, size in year t-1 was transplant size at the time of planting). Code for these analyses is available at https://github.com/texmiller/POAR-range-limits.

.∞ Sex ratio experiment

At one site near the center of the range (Lake Lewisville Environmental Learning 101 Area: star in MAP), we established a separate experiment to quantify how sex ra-102 tio variation affects female reproductive success. Details of this experiment, which 103 was conducted in 2014–2015, are described in Compagnoni et al. 2017. Briefly, we 104 established 124 experimental populations in $0.4m \times 0.4m$ plots that varied in popu-105 lation density (1–48 plants/plot) and sex ratio (0–100% female), with 2–4 replicates 106 each of 34 density-sex ratio combinations. The experiment was established ca. 1 107 km from a natural population at this site and plots were situated with a minimum 108 of 15 m spacing, a buffer that was intended to limit pollen movement between 109 plots (pilot data indicated that $\geq 90\%$ of wind pollination occurred within 13m). 110 We measured female reproductive success in different density and sex ratio envi-111 ronments by collecting panicles from a subset of females in each plot at the end of 112 the reproductive season. In the lab, we counted the total number of seeds on each 113 panicle and assessed seed viability with tetrazolium assays of 25 seeds per panicle. 114 We also conducted germination trials in the greenhouse (17-57 seeds per panicle, 115 mode: 30). 116

Statistical analysis of sex ratio experiment

Our previous study examined how interactions between density and frequency (sex ratio) dependence contributed to female reproductive success (Compagnoni *et al.*, 2017). Here we focus solely on sex ratio variation, averaging over variation in density. Our goal was to estimate a 'mating function' that defines how availability of male panicles affects the viability of seeds on female panicles. We modeled the seed viability data with a binomial distribution where the probability of viability (p_v) was given by:

$$v = v_0 * (1 - OSR^{\alpha}) \tag{1}$$

where OSR is the operational sex ratio (fraction of panicles that were female) in our experimental populations. This function has the properties, supported by our previous work, that seed viability is maximized at v_0 as OSR approaches zero and goes to zero as OSR approaches 1. Parameter α controls how viability declines with increasing female bias.

We modeled germination data from greenhouse trials similarly, where counts of germinants were modeled as binomial successes. Since germination was conditional on seed viability, the probability of success was given by the product v * g, where v is a function of OSR (Eq. 1) and g is assumed to be constant. The germination trials alone do not provide enough information to independently estimate v and g but the combination of viability and germination data allowed us to do so.

Demographic model of range limits

The statistical models for the common garden and sex ratio experiments provided 137 the backbone of the full demographic model, a matrix projection model (MPM) 138 structured by size (tiller number) and sex. Following the statistical modeling, the 139 MPM accommodates longitude as a predictor variable, allowing us to identify the 140 longitudinal limits of population viability $(\lambda \geq 1)$ and investigate the underlying 141 drivers of population decline at range limits. For a given longitude, let $F_{x,t}$ and $M_{x,t}$ 142 be the number of female and male plants of size x in year t, where $x \in \{1, 2, ..., U\}$ 143 and U is the maximum number of tillers a plant can attain (assumed to be the 144 same for females and males). For a pre-breeding census, the coupled dynamics of both sexes are are given by: 146

$$F_{y,t+1} = \sum_{x=1}^{U} \left[s^F(x) \cdot g^F(y,x) + r^F(x, \mathbf{F_t}, \mathbf{M_t}) \cdot \rho \cdot e(y) \right] F_{x,t} \qquad (2)$$

$$M_{y,t+1} = \sum_{x=1}^{U} [s^{M}(x) \cdot g^{M}(y,x)] M_{x,t} + [r^{F}(x, \mathbf{F_t}, \mathbf{M_t}) \cdot (1-\rho) \cdot e(y)] F_{x,t}$$
 (3)

s and g give the probabilities of surviving at size x and growing from sizes x to y, respectively, and superscripts indicate that these functions may be unique to females (F) and males (M). r^F gives fertility of size-x females (number of new recruits per female per year) and is dependent on population structure (the $U \times 1$ vectors $\mathbf{F_t}$ and $\mathbf{M_t}$). Parameter ρ is the primary sex ratio (proportion of recruits that are female) and e(y) is the probability distribution of recruit size. We assume that all recruits first appear in the population at 1 tiller in size regardless of sex, so e(y=1)=1 and e(y>1)=0. The female fertility function is further defined

155 as:

$$r^{F}(x, \mathbf{F_t}, \mathbf{M_t}) = p^{F}(x) \cdot c^{F}(x) \cdot d \cdot v(\mathbf{F_t}, \mathbf{M_t}) \cdot g \tag{4}$$

where p and c are flowering probability and panicle production for females of size x, d is the number of seeds (fertilized or unfertilized) per female panicle, v is the probability that a seed a fertilized, and g is the probability that a fertilized seed germinates. Lastly, and following Eq. 1, seed fertilization depends on the OSR according to:

$$v(\mathbf{F_t}, \mathbf{M_t}) = v_0 * \left[1 - \left(\frac{\sum_{x=1}^{U} p^F(x) c^F(x) F_{x,t}}{\sum_{x=1}^{U} p^F(x) c^F(x) F_{x,t} + p^M(x) c^M(x) M_{x,t}} \right)^{\alpha} \right]$$
(5)

Results

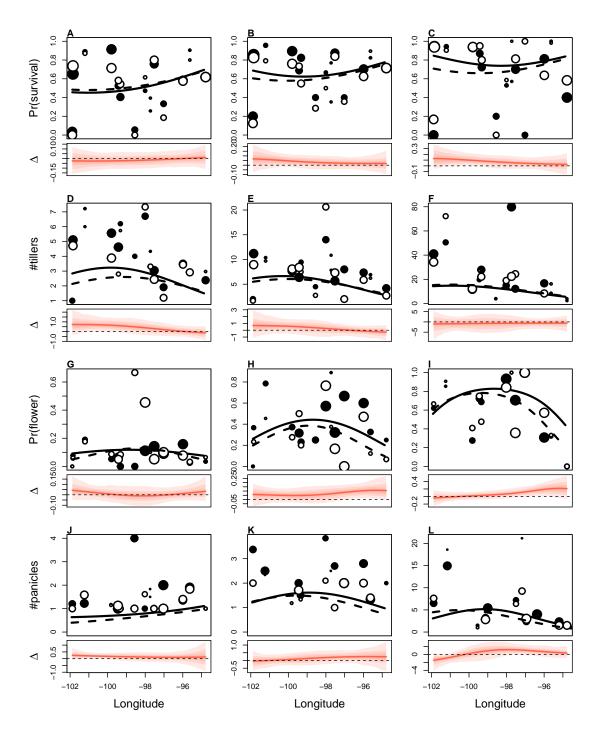


Figure 1: Caption.

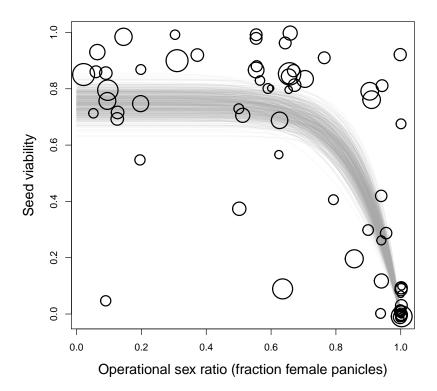


Figure 2: Caption.

Discussion

163 Acknowledgements

164 Author contributions

165 Data accessibility

166 References

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¹⁸¹ Appendix A: Site locations and climate

-	Population	Latitude	Longitude
1	Canyon_of_Eagles	30.88	-98.43
2	ClearBay-Thunderbird	35.23	-97.24
3	CooperWMA	36.60	-99.51
4	Copper Breaks	34.10	-99.75
5	Dinosaur_Valley	32.25	-97.82
6	Fort_Worth_Nature_Center	32.83	-97.46
7	Ft Cobb	35.18	-98.45
8	Ft Richardson	33.20	-98.16
9	Great Plains	34.74	-98.97
10	$\operatorname{Great}_{-}\operatorname{Salt}_{-}\operatorname{Plains}$	36.79	-98.18
11	Horn_Hill_Cemetery	31.56	-96.64
12	Kingman_Fishing_Lake	37.65	-98.28
13	Lake Arrowhead	33.75	-98.39
14	$Mineral_Wells$	32.89	-98.01
15	Pedernales_Falls	30.33	-98.25
16	Possum Kingdom	32.87	-98.57
17	$\operatorname{Quartz}_{-}\operatorname{Mountain}$	34.89	-99.30
18	Red Rock Canyon	35.44	-98.35
19	Red_River	34.13	-98.10
20	South_Llano	30.45	-99.80
21	Sulfur_Springs	31.08	-98.46
_22	Wichita_Mountains	34.70	-98.67

Table A1: Sites of natural population surveys corresponding to Figure

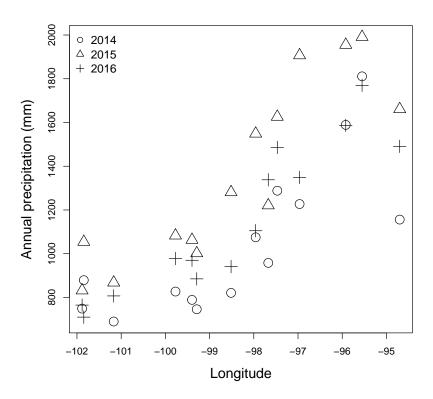


Figure A1: Caption.