

1 **The evolutionary assembly of forest communities along environmental gradients: recent**
2 **diversification or sorting of pre-adapted clades?**

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32 Total word count: 5763

33 Introduction: 1331

34 Methods: 1920

35 Results: 516

36 Discussion: 1996

37 Figures: 6 (5 figures [all colored] and 1 glossary box [not colored])

38 Tables: 1

39 **Summary**

- 40 • Biogeographic events occurring in the deep past can contribute to the structure of modern
41 ecological communities. However, little is known about how the emergence of environ-
42 mental gradients shape the evolution of species that underlie community assembly. In this
43 study, we address how the creation of novel environments lead to community assembly
44 via two non-mutually exclusive processes: 1) the immigration and ecological sorting of
45 pre-adapted clades (ISPC), and 2) recent adaptive diversification (RAD). We study these
46 processes in the context of the elevational gradient created by the uplift of the Central
47 Andes.
- 48 • We develop a novel approach and method based on the decomposition of species turno-
49 ver into within- and among-clade components, where clades correspond to lineages that
50 originated before mountain uplift. Effects of ISPC and RAD can be inferred from how
51 components of turnover change with elevation. We test our approach using data from
52 over 500 Andean forest plots.
- 53 • We found that species turnover between communities at different elevations is dominated
54 by the replacement of clades that originated before the uplift of the Central Andes.
- 55 • Our results suggest that immigration and sorting of clades pre-adapted to montane habi-
56 tats is the primary mechanism shaping communities across elevations.

57

58 **Keywords:** Andes; community assembly; phylogenetics; turnover; neotropics; elevational
59 gradient; adaptive diversification; dispersal

60

61

62 Introduction

63 Large-scale biogeographic events—such as the emergence of novel environmental
64 conditions, biotic interchanges, or the evolution of key innovations—can have lasting
65 consequences for biodiversity, community assembly, and species distributions (Ricklefs, 2006;
66 Fussmann *et al.*, 2007; Pelletier *et al.*, 2009; Uribe-Convers & Tank, 2015; Claramunt &
67 Cracraft, 2015). Although theory and empirical evidence suggest that processes occurring in the
68 deep past can contribute to the modern structure of local ecological communities, most research
69 in community ecology during the last few decades has been dominated by a focus on
70 mechanisms at small spatial and temporal scales (Ricklefs, 1987). Studies largely overlook the
71 broader biogeographic context in which communities of co-occurring species are embedded
72 (Chesson, 2000; Adler *et al.*, 2007). Only recently have ecologists begun bridging this gap by
73 developing ecological theory and empirical tests that truly integrate community assembly across
74 eco-evolutionary scales (Emerson & Gillespie, 2008; McGill *et al.*, 2019; Bañares-de-Dios *et al.*,
75 2020; Segovia *et al.*, 2020). The extent to which community assembly is contingent upon
76 regional context and biogeographic history has broad implications for ecological and
77 evolutionary theory and for understanding how and why communities respond to environmental
78 change (Chase, 2003; Fukami, 2015; Vellend, 2016; McPeck, 2017).

79 Recent studies provide important insights into how ongoing ecological processes change
80 along environmental gradients (Bricca *et al.*, 2019; Bañares-de-Dios *et al.*, 2020; Neves *et al.*,
81 2020). However, much less is known about how the emergence of the gradients themselves shape
82 the evolution of species and phenotypes that underlie community assembly. Two non-mutually
83 exclusive processes may explain how communities assemble along gradients following the
84 emergence of novel environmental conditions (Fig. 1). First, the emergence of new
85 environments—e.g., due to climate change, island formation, or mountain orogeny— may create
86 opportunities for immigration and ecological sorting of pre-adapted clades (ISPC hypothesis;
87 Box 1; Fig. 1a; Donoghue 2008).

BOX 1 - Glossary

Pre-Andean clade: A clade that diverged from others before the uplift of the Central Andes. Fig. 1 shows predicted elevational distributions of three pre-Andean clades (colors) based on our hypotheses.

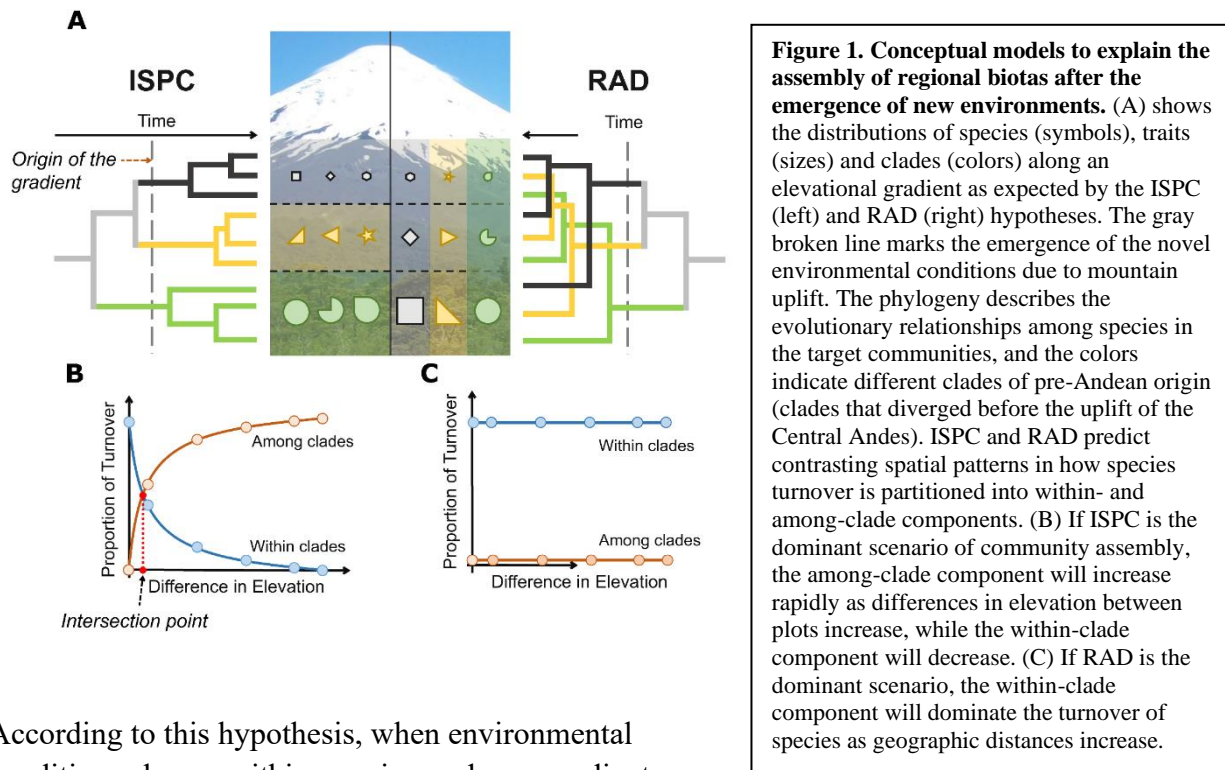
Pre-adapted clade: A pre-Andean clade that had, before its immigration to the Central Andes, already evolved adaptations to the novel environmental conditions created by mountain uplift.

Turnover: Observed variation in species or functional-trait composition among forest plots or biogeographic regions. For example, in two species assemblages [A, B] & [A, C], turnover is generated by the replacement of species B in the first assemblage with species C in the second.

Within-clade turnover: Proportion of total turnover that corresponds to shifts in species composition within a pre-Andean clade. For example, in two assemblages [A, B] & [A, C], within-clade turnover would be high if species B and C belong to the same pre-Andean clade.

Among-clade turnover: Proportion of total turnover that corresponds to shifts in species composition among multiple pre-Andean clades. For example, in two assemblages [A, B] & [A, C], among-clade turnover would be high if species B and C belong to different pre-Andean clades.

88



89 According to this hypothesis, when environmental
90 conditions change within a region and new gradients are
91 created, community assembly across these new habitats is dominated by the immigration of
92 species that are pre-adapted because they occupy similar habitats in a different region. This
93 means that the combination of traits needed to colonize new habitats evolved before the origin of
94 the environmental gradient. Diversification following colonization would not involve adaptation to
95 novel environments (i.e. niche conservatism) owing, for example, to competition with species
96 pre-adapted to other environments (Tanentzap *et al.*, 2015; Fukami, 2015). Thus, even though
97 diversification might occur after the origin of the gradient, new species would be restricted
98 mainly to environments to which their ancestors were already pre-adapted. In this way,
99 community assembly across environmental gradients would result in the ecological sorting of
100 species within clades that predate the new environments in the region. This scenario of
101 community assembly is consistent with the idea that “it is easier to move than to evolve”
102 (Donoghue, 2008).

103 Second, the emergence of new environments may create opportunities for recent adaptive
104 diversification across environments (the RAD hypothesis; Box 1; Fig. 1a). According to this
105 hypothesis, when new environmental gradients are created, community assembly across habitats
106 is dominated by adaptation in response to the emerging environmental conditions, resulting in
107 the diversification of clades across the environmental gradient (Stroud & Losos, 2016). Thus, the
108 traits needed to colonize new habitats evolve after the origin of the environmental gradient. In

109 this scenario, niche conservatism is minimal or non-existent, and community assembly results
110 from the diversification of one or more clades that were originally adapted to a subset of
111 environmental conditions, but that diversify to occupy emerging novel environmental space. This
112 scenario for community assembly following the emergence of environmental gradients is
113 consistent with the classic ideas of biome shifts and adaptive radiation driven by ecological
114 opportunity (Schluter, 2000; Losos, 2010; Donoghue & Edwards, 2014).

115 Here we present and test a novel community-phylogenetic framework and method to
116 disentangle the relative importance of ISPC and RAD in determining the assembly of
117 communities along large-scale environmental gradients. These effects on community assembly
118 can be inferred from unique patterns in the phylogenetic structure of compositional turnover. In
119 particular, signatures of these two processes can be traced when species turnover is decomposed
120 into components that correspond to *within-* and *among-clade turnover*, where clades correspond
121 to independent lineages that originated before the emergence of the gradient. These within- and
122 among-clade turnover components, in turn, reflect the effects of diversification after and before
123 the emergence of the gradient on community composition across environments. Here, we
124 illustrate these patterns using a hypothetical elevational gradient of a mountain depicted in Fig.
125 1A. The ISPC hypothesis predicts that for communities *at the same elevation*, variation in
126 community composition should be dominated by *within-clade turnover*, reflecting strong niche
127 conservatism of a few clades that are pre-adapted to the environments at that specific elevation
128 (Fig. 1b). As communities are *farther apart along the elevational (i.e. environmental) gradient*,
129 variation in community composition should become increasingly dominated by *among-clade*
130 *turnover*, reflecting the shift in dominance from species in one pre-adapted clade to another.
131 Alternatively, the RAD hypothesis predicts that for communities at *similar or contrasting*
132 *elevations*, variation in community composition should be dominated by turnover *within clades*,
133 reflecting how multiple clades evolved niche differences in response to new environmental
134 conditions that allow them to have broad elevational (i.e., environmental) distributions (Fig. 1c).
135 Although we developed and tested this conceptual framework in the context of mountain uplift,
136 our approach is applicable to study community assembly after the emergence of any type of
137 environmental gradient at any spatial or temporal scale.

138 In the Neotropics, the geologically recent uplift of the Andean mountains created a striking
139 elevational and environmental gradient that had profound consequences for global climate and
140 biodiversity (Rahbek & Graves, 2001; Antonelli *et al.*, 2009; Ehlers & Poulsen, 2009; Jiménez *et*
141 *al.*, 2009; Graham, 2009; Hoorn *et al.*, 2010). Indeed, the tropical Andes are considered the most
142 species-rich biodiversity hotspot, containing 15% of all plant species (>45,000 species) in only
143 1% of the world's land area (Myers *et al.*, 2000; Rahbek & Graves, 2001; Jiménez *et al.*, 2009).
144 However, our current understanding of the eco-evolutionary forces that shape community
145 assembly across elevations in the hyper-diverse Andean biotas is limited. First, many studies

146 focus on the evolution and distribution of relatively small clades compared to entire
147 communities; these studies have provided evidence for an important role of adaptive
148 diversification (Antonelli *et al.*, 2009; Pérez-Escobar *et al.*, 2017) in some cases and immigration
149 and colonization of pre-adapted clades in others (Hughes & Eastwood, 2006; Jin *et al.*, 2015;
150 Lagomarsino *et al.*, 2016). Such studies demonstrate that both processes have occurred, but
151 provide limited insights into how evolutionary history of individual clades contribute to the
152 assembly of entire ecological communities and regional biotas. Second, studies that focus on the
153 phylogenetic structure of Andean communities are relatively few and often fail to differentiate
154 the effects of diversification before and after the emergence of the gradient (Graham *et al.*, 2009;
155 Parra *et al.*, 2011; Bacon *et al.*, 2018; Montaña-Centellas *et al.*, 2019; Ramírez *et al.*, 2019). To
156 date, no study has sought to disentangle the relative importance of immigration and sorting of
157 pre-adapted clades versus post-Andean uplift adaptive radiation in shaping the enormous
158 variation in plant community composition across elevational gradients.

159 In this study, we combined tree-species distribution data and phylogenetic information from
160 two large networks of Andean-forest plots to test how RAD and ISPC contribute to the assembly
161 of Andean tree communities. We test these hypotheses in the context of the uplift of the Central
162 Andes, which is associated with the formation of the Altiplano plateau during the last 30 my.
163 (Fig. 1). Moreover, we developed a novel method to decompose measures of species turnover
164 among plots distributed across the elevational gradient into among- and within- pre-Andean
165 clade components (Fig. 1 and Box 1; Legendre & Cáceres 2013). These components measure the
166 relative contributions of ISPC and RAD, respectively. This work provides both a novel
167 framework for examining phylogenetic community turnover and expands our current
168 understanding of how historical processes contribute to community assembly.

169

170 **Materials and Methods**

171 *Community composition data across elevations*

172 We utilized data from two large-scale forest plot networks in the Central Andes of Bolivia
173 (the Madidi Project; 30,165 km²) and Peru (the Andes Biodiversity and Ecosystem Research
174 Group [ABERG]; 1,765 km²). Both datasets contain information on tree community composition
175 spanning the entire elevational range of forests in this region of the Andes from lowland
176 Amazonia to the tree line. Our datasets include information on species composition across 73 1-
177 ha plots (large plots hereafter; 50 in Bolivia and 23 in Peru), as well as 494 0.1-ha plots (small

178 plots hereafter; 458 in Bolivia and 36 in Peru; Fig. 2).

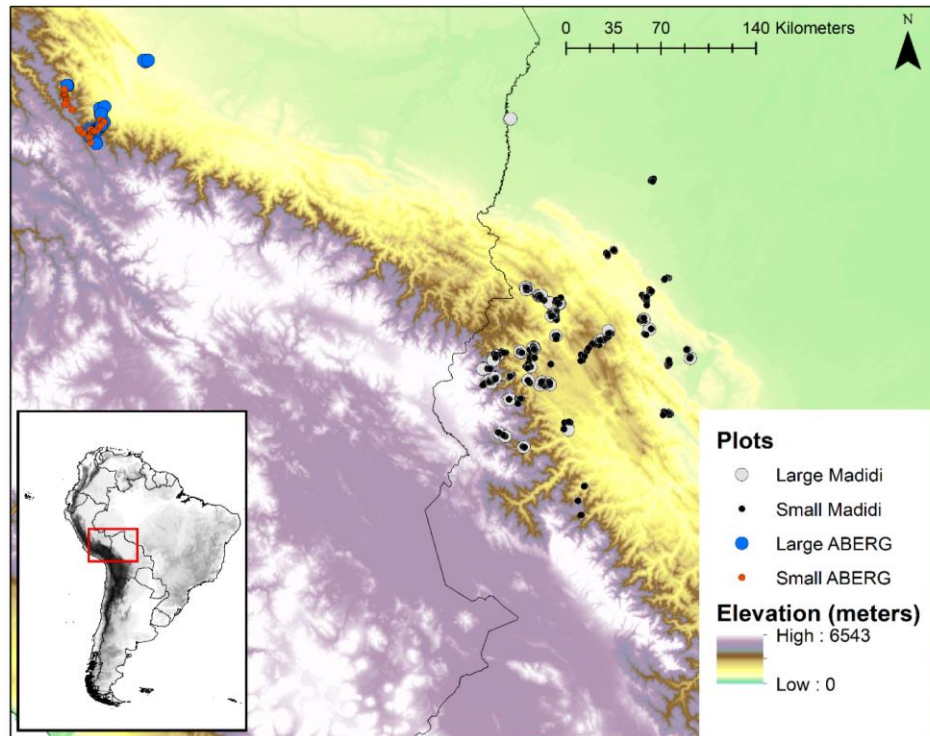


Figure 2. Regional network of forest plots used in this study.

Within these plots, all woody plants with a diameter at breast height (DBH) ≥ 10 cm in large plots and DBH ≥ 2.5 cm in small plots were tagged, measured and identified to species or morpho-species. Large and small plots characterize different plant communities; while large plots consider only adults of large tree species, small plots include younger individuals and also species that

198 do not reach 10 cm

199 DBH, including many shrubs. Thus, we separated out data by plot size and conducted analyses
200 independently. Additionally, we excluded high elevation plots ($> 3,800$ m) and plots with ≤ 3
201 species. Most of these plots represent *Polylepis*-dominated forests fragments within a matrix of
202 Paramo grasslands/shrublands. The ecology and composition of these Paramo forests is clearly
203 distinct from the continuous forest cover along the elevational gradient.

204 Within the Bolivian and Peruvian datasets, we conducted extensive taxonomic work to
205 standardize species and morpho-species names across plots. Morpho-species, however, could not
206 be standardized between the Bolivian and Peruvian data. To test the effect of morphospecies on
207 results, analyses were repeated with and without morphospecies. Both analyses produced nearly
208 identical results (Fig. S1); for simplicity, we present only analyses including morphospecies.
209 Representative specimens at each site were collected and deposited in herbaria, mainly at the
210 Herbario Nacional de La Paz (LPB), the Missouri Botanical Garden (MO) and Universidad
211 Nacional de San Antonio Abad del Cusco (CUZ) in Peru. The final dataset contains 494 small
212 plots and 73 large plots, distributed from 175 m to 4,365 m in elevation. The small plots
213 contained 2,731 species, whereas the large plots contained 1,904 species (Table 1).

214 **Table 1.** Summary of datasets used for analyses and p-values assessing significance of empirical
 215 gradients in among-clade and within-clade turnover across elevational (elev) and geographic
 216 (geo) distances.

Morpho-species status	No. species	Clade age	No. clades	No. clades with one sp.	Mean species per clade	P (among-clade vs. elev)	P (within-clade vs. elev)	P (among-clade vs. geo)	P (within-clade vs. geo)
Large plots (73)									
Included	1889	30	352	202	5.37	0.001	0.001	0.553	0.553
Included	1889	60	142	34	13.30	0.001	0.001	0.424	0.424
Excluded	1349	30	309	168	4.37	0.001	0.001	0.223	0.223
Excluded	1349	60	139	34	9.71	0.001	0.001	0.87	0.87
Small plots (404)									
Included	2326	30	425	239	5.47	0.001	0.001	0.025	0.025
Included	2326	60	159	34	14.63	0.001	0.001	0.005	0.005
Excluded	1741	30	386	213	4.51	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.002
Excluded	1741	60	154	36	11.31	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001

217

218 ***Phylogenetic reconstruction and defining clades of pre-Andean origin***

219 To test our hypotheses, we needed a phylogenetic framework that grouped species into clades
 220 that diverged from one-another before the origin of the elevational gradient (i.e. clades that pre-
 221 date the uplift of the Central Andes). To do this, we based our analyses on Smith and Brown’s (
 222 2018) global mega-phylogeny of seed plants, which combined NCBI sequence data, results from
 223 the Open Tree of Life project (Hinchliff *et al.*, 2015), and advances in bioinformatic methods
 224 (PyPHLAWD; Smith & Walker 2019) to produce the most comprehensive time-calibrated
 225 species-level phylogeny to date. To include species and morphospecies in our dataset that were
 226 not in the original phylogeny, we used the R package V.PhyloMaker (Jin & Qian, 2019). Using
 227 genus and family level taxonomic information, missing taxa not included in the mega-phylogeny
 228 were joined to the halfway point of the family/genus branch (V.PhyloMaker scenario= “S3”).
 229 For genera not represented in the mega-phylogeny, we joined species to sister genera in the
 230 phylogeny based on support in the literature (when possible) using the ‘bind.relative’ option of
 231 V.PhyloMaker. Finally, we pruned from the phylogeny, all species that were absent in our forest
 232 plots. The resulting phylogeny included 3,143 species.

233 The formation of the Andean cordillera has been a complex and heterogeneous process. In
 234 the Central Andes, the history of mountain formation is closely tied to the development of the
 235 Altiplano plateau, currently located at nearly 3,800 m in elevation. While the traditional view of
 236 mountain uplift invokes a slow and gradual process, recent evidence suggests that the uplift of
 237 the Altiplano was dominated by spurs of rapid rise with intervening periods of stasis (Garzzone *et al.*,
 238 2008, 2017). Although the northern Andes is considered much younger, the best available

239 evidence suggests that most of the uplift in the Central Andes occurred within the last 30 million
240 years. Thus, our analyses used this age as a main reference for the origin of the elevational
241 gradient and to delimit pre-Andean clades.

242 Pre-Andean clades in the time-calibrated regional phylogeny were defined as those whose
243 stems intersect the 30 my reference. In this way, each pre-Andean clade in our study diverged
244 from others before the uplift of the central Andes, whereas all species within pre-Andean clades
245 resulted from diversification that occurred after mountain uplift had started. We used the
246 function `treeSlice` in the R package “Phytools” (Revell, 2012) to fragment the regional
247 phylogeny into these clades. Species present in small plots formed 473 pre-Andean clades with
248 an average of 5.77 species per clade, whereas species in the large plots formed 355 clades,
249 averaging 5.36 species per clade (Table 1 and Fig. S2). Finally, we sought see understand how
250 our results varied by defining different ages for pre-Andean clades. Thus, in addition to creating
251 a dataset with pre-Andean clades defined as 30 million years old, we made a second dataset
252 which defined clades as 60 million years old. This represents a much more conservative estimate
253 of the timing of Andean uplift (Hoorn *et al.*, 2010). The results from these alternative analyses
254 were nearly identical, and thus are presented only in the Supplementary Material (Fig. S3).

255

256 *Decomposing total turnover into among- and within-clade turnover*

257 To test hypotheses about the relative importance of ISPC and RAD, we developed a method
258 to decompose variation in species turnover between two communities into additive components
259 representing the contribution of turnover among-groups and within-groups (Legendre & Cáceres,
260 2013). For our analyses, groups are defined by clades of pre-Andean origin, but this
261 decomposition method is broadly applicable to species groupings based on any criteria. Analyses
262 were based on the Sørensen pair-wise dissimilarity index (S ; Sørensen 1948), which uses
263 presence/absence data:

$$264 \quad S = \frac{b+c}{2a+b+c}$$

265 Here, a represents the number of shared species between two communities, b is the number
266 of species present only in the first community, and c is the number of species present only in the
267 second community. Since species are aggregated into clades, species in b can be further divided
268 into two components: b_{WG} is the fraction of b that correspond to species in groups present in both
269 communities, while b_{AG} is the fraction of b corresponding to species in groups present only in the
270 first community. The same process can be done for c , producing the corresponding components
271 c_{WG} and c_{AG} . In this way, the additive within-group (S_{WG}) and among-groups (S_{AG}) components
272 of Sørensen dissimilarity are defined as:

$$273 \quad S_{WG} = \frac{b_{WG} + c_{WG}}{2 \times a + b + c}$$

274

$$S_{AG} = \frac{b_{AG} + c_{AG}}{2 \times a + b + c}$$

275 Further details of the decomposition method can be found in the Supplementary Material,
276 where we also show that this approach could be applied to other turnover metrics, such as Bray-
277 Curtis distances. The R code that performs this decomposition is available at
278 <https://github.com/Linan552/Madidi-project>. When within- and among-clade dissimilarities are
279 transformed into components of total turnover (S_{WG}/S and S_{AG}/S , respectively), these values
280 correspond to the contribution of diversification after (S_{WG}/S) and before (S_{AG}/S) the uplift of the
281 central Andes to community species turnover (Fig. 1, S4). Thus, a high among-clade component
282 indicates that turnover is mainly dominated by species that diverged from one another before the
283 uplift of the Central Andes (Fig. 1a, left). In contrast, high within-clade component indicates that
284 turnover is dominated by species that diverged from one another after the uplift of the Central
285 Andes (Fig. 1a, right).

286 As described in the introduction, the immigration and sorting of pre-adapted clades
287 (ISPC) and the recent adaptive diversification (RAD) hypotheses make predictions about how
288 these components of turnover will be related to environmental (i.e. elevational) distances. Thus,
289 we plotted the components of turnover for each pair of plots against their elevational distance.
290 The ISPC hypothesis predicts that as communities are farther apart along the elevational
291 gradient, variation in community composition should become increasingly dominated by among-
292 clade turnover (Fig. 1b). Alternatively, the RAD hypothesis predicts that variation in community
293 composition should be dominated by turnover within clades regardless of elevational distance
294 (Fig. 1c).

295

296 *Assessing significance of empirical data using null models and ruling out effects of* 297 *geographic distance*

298 To test whether observed patterns are different from those expected by chance, we compared
299 the components of turnover in the empirical data with components produced by a null model that
300 eliminated any phylogenetic structure in the distribution of species, but retained other important
301 elements of the data that might shape turnover patterns. We ran a “tip-randomization null model”
302 in which species were randomly re-assigned to tips in the phylogeny, such that species were
303 randomly reshuffled among pre-Andean clades. This randomization algorithm maintained the
304 number of species per clade, the diversity gradient across elevations, the average range size in
305 each community, and importantly, the empirical turnover observed between pairs of plots. The
306 only aspect of the data that was randomized was the empirical membership of species in clades
307 of pre-Andean origin. We randomized the data and re-calculated components of turnover for
308 each pair of plots 999 times. From these null expectations, we calculated standardized effect
309 sizes as the empirical value minus the mean of null distribution divided by the standard deviation

310 of the null distribution. These values represent the magnitude of the difference between the
311 empirical components of turnover and the null expectation, where there is no phylogenetic
312 structure in species distributions. As was done for the empirical components of turnover, we
313 related these standardized effect values against the difference in elevation for each pair of plots.

314 Additionally, we compared the rate of change in turnover components with difference in
315 elevation between the empirical data and null model expectations. To do this, we used slopes
316 from a linear regression between components of turnover and elevational distance. Because these
317 relationships are non-linear, we used a logit transformation on species turnover prior to
318 regression analyses (Cleveland, 1981). These transformations produced a reasonable
319 linearization of the relationships in large and small plot datasets, allowing us to capture the rate
320 of change in a single parameter (see Fig. S5). The empirical slopes were then compared with the
321 distribution of 999 slopes generated by the null model. If empirical slopes were significantly
322 greater or smaller ($p < 0.05$) than null slopes, we concluded that phylogenetic structure exists in
323 the community composition changes along the elevational gradient.

324 Finally, to control for the effects of geographic distance on the analysis of turnover across
325 elevations, only a subset of pair-wise plot comparisons for each dataset were used. This subset of
326 plot pairs minimized variation in geographic distances, but maximized the elevational range
327 represented in the data (Fig. S6). For the large-plot dataset, we selected plot pairs only between
328 50 and 90 km apart (8% of the total range in geographic distances), and for the small-plot
329 dataset, we selected plot pairs between 110 and 160 km apart (10% of geographic range). In both
330 datasets, the elevational distances between plots ranged from 175 to 3765 m.

331 Additionally, we analyzed how the within- and among-clade components of turnover changes
332 as a function of geographic distance. For these analyses, we used pairs of plots spanning the
333 entire geographic range of the study (max distance between plots; 495 km), but were at similar
334 elevations (0 to 200 m of elevational distance, Fig. S6). Like our analyses along elevational
335 distances, we compared patterns of variation in the within- and among-clade turnover against
336 null model expectations. These analyses show how turnover and its components change across
337 space but within the same environmental conditions (results presented in the Supplementary
338 Material).

339

340 **Results**

341 Species composition changed dramatically across elevations. Species turnover (Sørensen
342 dissimilarity) among forest plots showed a saturating relationship with elevational distance,
343 increasing rapidly as elevational distance increases and then reaching an asymptote at complete
344 turnover (Fig. 3).

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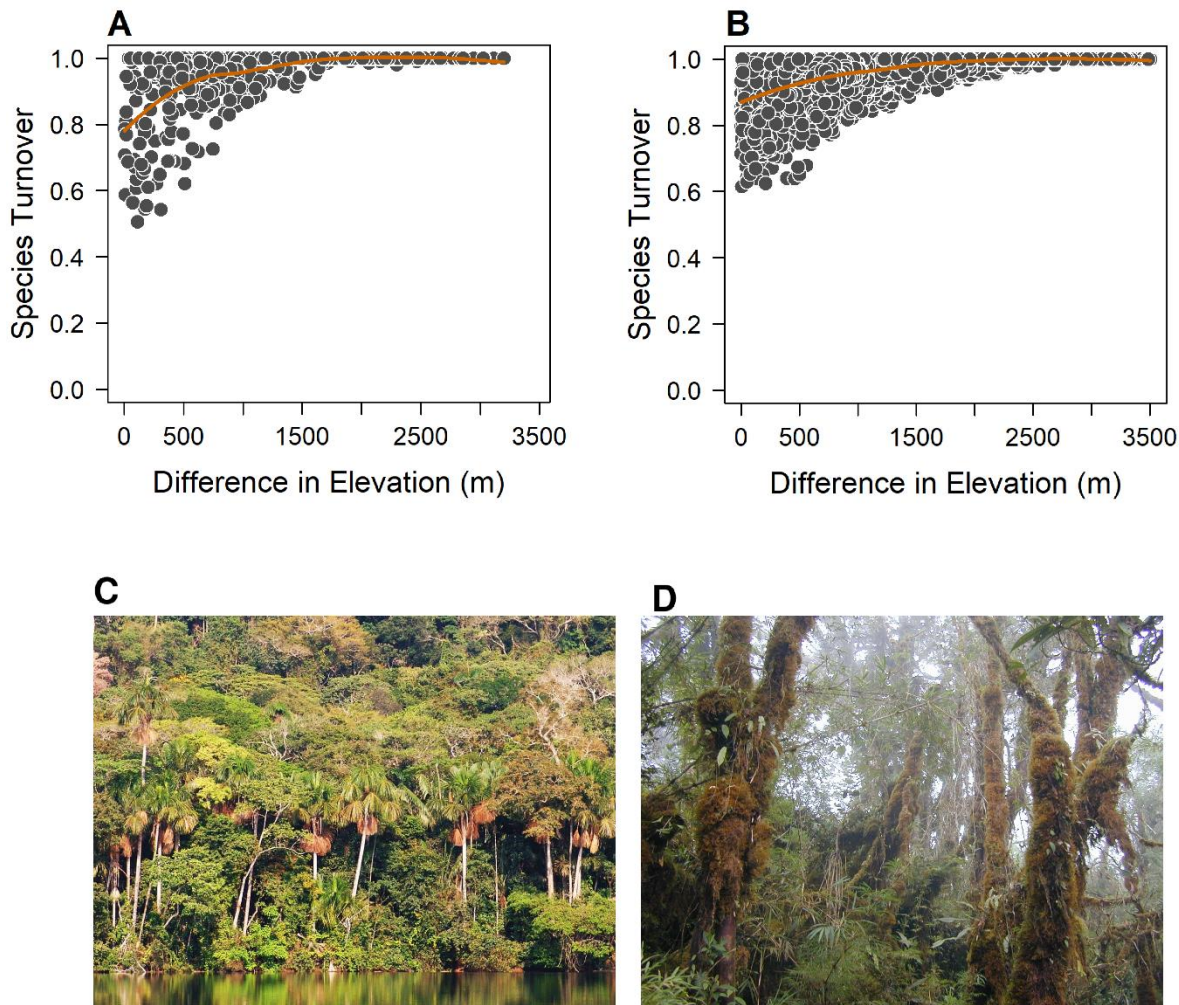


Figure 3. Species turnover across elevations. Sørensen dissimilarity plotted against difference in elevation for each pair of plots in our two datasets. These patterns are presented separately for (A) large 1-ha plots and (B) small 0.1-ha plots. (C; Laguna Chalalan in Bolivia at 400 m elevation) and upper montane cloud forests (D; Trocha Union in Peru at 3,260 m). Pictures by Christopher Davidson, Sharon Christoph and William Farfan-Rios.

351 Indeed, plots separated by more than 2,000 to 2,500 m of elevation never shared species. We
352 found a similar relationship between species composition and geographic distance (Fig. S7).
353 However, Sørensen dissimilarity did not increase as dramatically with increasing geographic
354 distance and it never reached complete turnover; for example, we found that plots can still share
355 species when they are in similar environments even if plots are 400 km away from one another
356 (one in Peru the other in Bolivia; Fig. S7).

357 We also found strong elevational gradients in the within- and among-clade components of
358 species turnover (Fig. 4a,d). For forest plots occurring at the same elevation (zero meters in
359 elevational difference), among- and within-clade components were equal in magnitude (Fig.
360 4a,d). This result indicates that communities in the same environment shared species in the same
361 pre-Andean clades, but also that multiple different clades contributed to community composition
362 among these plots. As elevational difference increased, among-clade turnover rose rapidly, while
363 within-clade turnover decreased (Fig. 4a,d). Although the increase in the among-clade
364 component was monotonic in the small-plots dataset, it saturated at around 2,000 m of
365 elevational difference for the large-plots dataset. In both datasets, however, when plots were
366 separated by more than 1,000 to 1,500 m in elevation, pairs of communities were found where
367 100% of the turnover corresponded to the among-clade component. This result means that some
368 pairs of plots at opposite ends of the elevational gradient shared neither species nor clades 30 my
369 old, which originated before the uplift of the Central Andes. These results support the idea that
370 the immigration and ecological sorting of pre-Andean clades had a major effect in shaping
371 community composition across elevations - the ISPC hypothesis.

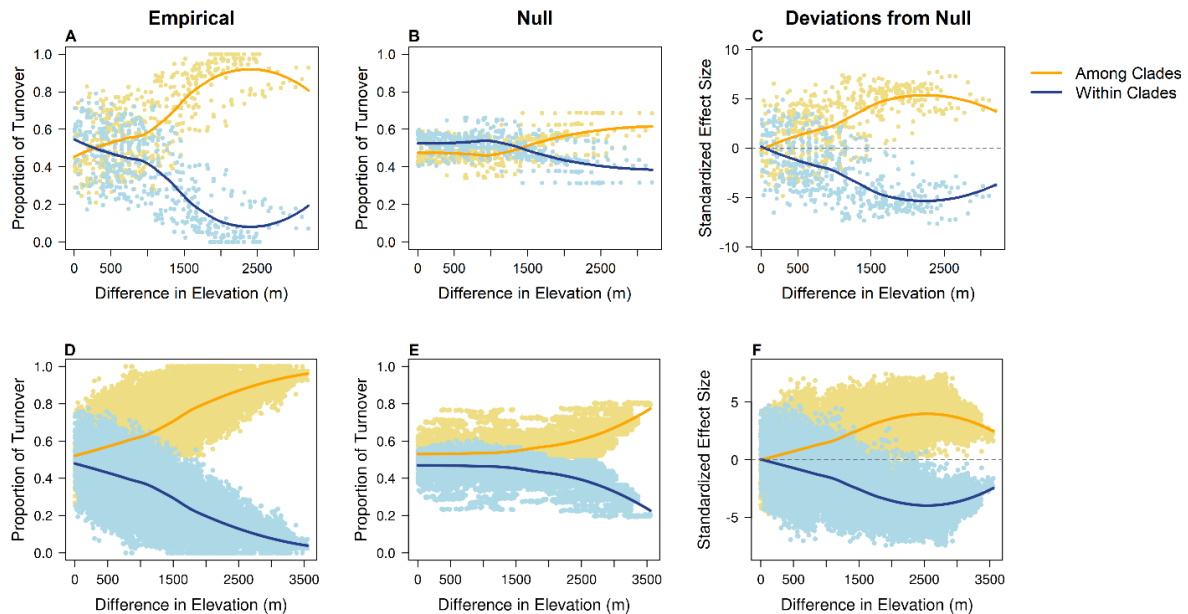
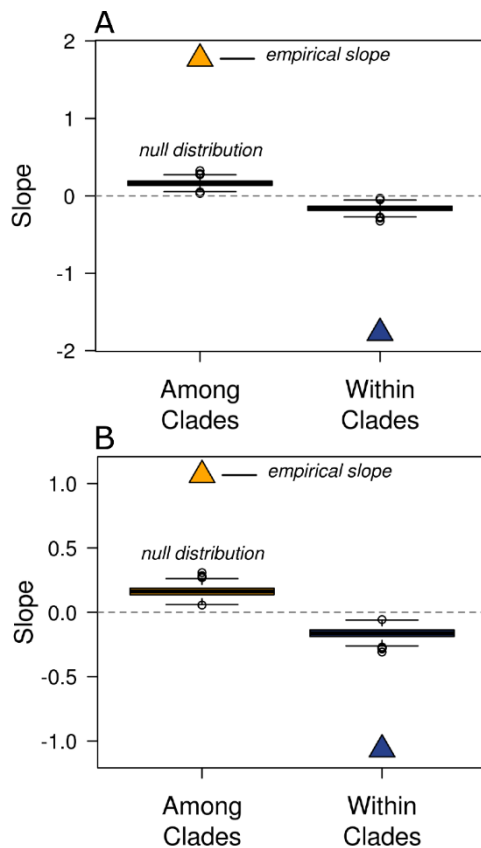


Figure 4. Decomposition of species turnover across elevational gradients into among-clade and within-clade components – 30 MY clades from small and large plots. Sorensen dissimilarities between each pair of plots were decomposed into within-clades (blue lines) and among-clades (yellow lines) components. We then plotted these components of turnover against difference in elevation in large plots (first row) and small plots (second row). Finally, we compared spatial patterns in variation of these components with a tip-randomization null model that removes any phylogenetic structure in the distribution of species across elevation. (A. & D.) empirical patterns; (B. & E.) patterns for the mean of the expectations in the null model; (C & F) patterns for standardized effect sizes showing the deviation of the empirical values from null expectations.

373 The predictions of the ISPC hypotheses were also supported using standardized effect sizes –
374 as measured using our null model (Fig. 4 c,f). Indeed, standardized effect sizes for within- and
375 among-clade components were both close to zero for plots at the same elevation. As elevational
376 differences increased, standardized effect sizes increased for among-clade turnover and
377 decreased for within-clade turnover (Fig. 4 c,f). Moreover, when plots were separated by >1,500
378 m in elevation, the empirical values differed by more than two standard deviations from null
379 expectations (i.e. standardized effect sizes greater than 2; Fig. c,d). The comparison of the
380 empirical and null regression slopes also showed that the change in the empirical components
381 was much more pronounced than the change expected by the null model (Fig. 5).



382
Figure 5. Comparison of linear slopes. Empirical slopes of logit transformed proportional turnover across elevational distance (triangles) compared to the distribution of 999 slopes produced by the null model (boxplots) in (A) large plots and (B) small plots.

Finally, we found that geographic distance did not have the same effect on components of turnover as elevational difference. Among large plots, among- and within-clade turnover remained constant and of similar magnitude with increasing geographic distance (Fig. 4 vs. S8). For small plots, on the other hand, the magnitude of the within-clade turnover component increases with geographic distance. This pattern remained when using standardized effect sizes (Fig. 4 vs. S8).

396 Discussion

397 *Community assembly across contrasting elevations is dominated by the immigration and* 398 *ecological sorting of clades that pre-date mountain uplift*

399 Our results showed clearly that changes in species composition across elevations were driven
400 primarily by a replacement of clades of pre-Andean origin. These results were robust to analyses
401 using different age estimates of pre-Andean clades (30 vs. 60 mya), inclusion or exclusion of
402 morpho-species, or delimitations of forest communities (trees ≥ 10 cm DBH in large plots vs.
403 trees ≥ 2.5 cm DBH in small plots). While adaptive diversification is likely to have occurred in

404 our study system, our results suggest that this process has had a reduced influence on patterns of
405 community assembly. In contrast, we found strong evidence for a high relative importance of the
406 ISPC hypothesis. The new environments created by the uplift of the Central Andes during the
407 last 30 my were colonized primarily by clades of species that were pre-adapted to the emerging
408 environmental conditions. Diversification within these clades resulted in new tree species that
409 had elevational distributions similar to those occupied by the immigrating species. In this way,
410 the ecological sorting of pre-Adapted clades according to their pre-adaptations is the eco-
411 evolutionary process that dominates the regional assembly of tree communities across the
412 elevational gradient.

413 Our study focuses on the structure of species assemblages, and how biogeographic processes
414 shape patterns of diversity. The assembly of communities, however, integrates the evolutionary
415 history of multiple independent clades of species. Several previous studies that have taken this
416 approach, focusing on the evolution of clades after the Andean uplift. This research shows that
417 groups of animals and plants across the Andes have diversified in ways that are consistent with
418 our results (Bell & Donoghue, 2005; Hughes & Eastwood, 2006; Chaves *et al.*, 2011; Nürk *et al.*,
419 2013). One of the best studied biogeographic histories in the Andes is that of the plants in the
420 genus *Lupinus*, which colonized the Andes from temperate North America (Hughes & Eastwood,
421 2006), and were likely pre-adapted to the cold conditions of alpine environments (Nevado *et al.*,
422 2016). This clade experienced an explosive diversification in the Andes, but most of the resulting
423 species occupy only high-elevation habitats. Their diversification was likely fueled by the
424 interaction between insularity of high-mountain habitats and climatic fluctuations during
425 Quaternary (Nevado *et al.*, 2018). Adaptive diversification also played an important role in the
426 radiation of the Andean lupins (Nevado *et al.*, 2016). Indeed, species in the clade show a huge
427 diversity of phenotypes, life forms and micro-habitat use (Hughes & Eastwood, 2006). Their
428 adaptive diversification, however, did not involve large numbers of species colonizing the new
429 environments at different elevations created by mountain uplift. Several clades of plants
430 distributed at the highest elevations in the Andes seem to show similar patterns of diversification
431 (Madrinán *et al.*, 2013). A general pattern of conservatism in elevational distribution was also
432 documented for several clades of trees by Griffiths *et al.* (2020). Clades with a biogeographic
433 history similar those of the Andean lupins would contribute little to changes in species
434 composition along the elevational gradient. Instead, this pattern of diversification, when
435 experienced by numerous clades pre-adapted to different elevations can lead to the observed
436 patterns of clade turnover found in our study. Indeed, turnover among communities across the
437 elevational gradient have an evolutionary origin that is rooted deep in the past, and that mostly
438 pre-dates the emergence of the environmental gradient.

439 Studies of particular clades, like those highlighted above, are insightful and have helped us
440 advance our understanding of the patterns and mechanisms of diversification. However, this
441 approach does not address directly the eco-evolutionary forces behind the assembly of diverse

442 communities, which is the focus of our analyses. To the best of our knowledge, our study is the
443 first effort to explicitly test the role that diversification before and after the origin of the
444 environmental gradient (i.e., the uplift of the Central Andes) had on community structure across
445 elevations. While previous studies have not tested the role of mountain uplift directly, our results
446 are supported by previous research of Andean communities, which have suggested an important
447 role for niche conservatism in community assembly across elevations (Graham *et al.*, 2009;
448 Hardy *et al.*, 2012; Jin *et al.*, 2015; Ramírez *et al.*, 2019; Worthy *et al.*, 2019; Bañares-de-Dios *et al.*
449 *et al.*, 2020). A recent important study in this respect is that by Segovia *et al.* (2020), who
450 demonstrated a clear link in the phylogenetic composition of Andean tree communities to
451 temperate regions of North and South America. In particular, they highlight the role that freezing
452 conditions at high elevations play in creating environments that are invaded by temperate clades.
453 Similarly, niche conservatism has been implied in the eco-evolutionary assembly of seasonally
454 dry forest communities, which occur in rain-shadowed valleys along the Andes. Our study,
455 however, goes further than simply demonstrating niche conservatism or phylogenetic clustering
456 of communities. Instead, we provide evidence that the assembly of communities across
457 elevations is primarily driven by the immigration and sorting of clades that evolved appropriate
458 adaptations even before the emergence of the environmental gradient (Hardy *et al.*, 2012; Chi *et al.*
459 *et al.*, 2014; Kubota *et al.*, 2018).

460 ***Mountain uplift might create opportunities for adaptive radiation, but this process has a***
461 ***limited effect on community assembly along elevational gradients***

462 Adaptive radiations have played a critical role in the formation of biodiversity, giving rise to
463 an often-stunning array of morphological and species diversity (Gillespie *et al.*, 2020). Previous
464 studies have suggested that ecological opportunity is an important determinant, maybe a
465 prerequisite, of adaptive radiations (Stroud & Losos, 2016; Gillespie *et al.*, 2020), allowing
466 species to diversify rapidly to fill available niche space. The uplift of the Central Andes created
467 environments that were previously unavailable in the region, likely opening up new unoccupied
468 niche space for species. Moreover, as we discussed earlier, numerous rapid radiations have been
469 documented in the Andes (Madriñán *et al.*, 2013); some of them, like that of *Lupinus* or
470 *Espeletia* (Hughes & Eastwood, 2006; Pouchon *et al.*, 2018) are as dramatic as those in clades
471 that epitomize adaptive radiation (e.g. stickleback fish or African Great Lake cichlids; Gillespie
472 *et al.* 2020). If ecological opportunity existed and rapid diversification in the mountains is well
473 documented, then why did we not find a strong signal for recent adaptive radiation in the
474 assembly of communities across elevations?

475 There are several reasons that could explain our lack of evidence for recent adaptive
476 radiations across the elevational gradient. First, recent and rapid radiations in the Andes may not
477 involve adaptive diversification. Instead, high rates of species accumulation could be fueled
478 solely by allopatric speciation resulting from repeated cycles of habitat isolation and re-
479 connection driven by climatic oscillations (Nevado *et al.*, 2018; Flantua *et al.*, 2019). This

480 process would produce a large number of species that replace one another across geography but
481 within the same environment (Hughes & Eastwood, 2006; Chaves *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore,
482 nearly all cases of recent montane radiations occur in clades occupying the highest elevations
483 (Bell & Donoghue, 2005; Hughes & Eastwood, 2006; Nürk *et al.*, 2013; Hughes & Atchison,
484 2015), and more studies are needed to know if these patterns of diversification also occur at mid
485 or low elevations (but see Lagomarsino *et al.* 2016). Second, adaptive radiations may have
486 occurred along environmental dimensions other than those of the elevational gradient. Indeed,
487 some of the classic examples of Andean diversification involve fast evolution of phenotypes,
488 even if the elevational distribution of the clade is highly conserved (Hughes & Eastwood, 2006;
489 Nürk *et al.*, 2018; Pouchon *et al.*, 2018). Finally, some clades may have adaptively radiated
490 across the elevational gradient, but these clades are rare and contribute little to overall assembly
491 patterns. Indeed, biogeographic studies have documented significant shifts in elevational
492 distribution during the evolutionary history of several groups of plants and animals (Elias *et al.*,
493 2009; Bacon *et al.*, 2018). Some of these shift in elevational distribution might be accompanied
494 by shifts in life form (as exemplified by *Espeletia*; Pouchon *et al.* 2018; but see Zanne *et al.*
495 2013) which do not contribute to the assembly of tree communities that are the focus of our
496 study. The relative frequency of adaptive diversification across elevations versus niche
497 conservatism has not been evaluated; however, Griffith *et al.* (2020) found that in Peru, most
498 clades of trees have narrow elevational distributions, and only a few show wider elevational
499 distributions than expected by chance. The overall lack of clades that appear to have adaptively
500 radiated across elevations could be due to evolutionary priority effect, whereby different
501 elevational niches may have been preempted by immigrating pre-adapted clades (Fukami, 2015).
502 While the role of adaptive radiation in community assembly deserves further study, our results
503 suggest that Andean community assembly is mainly the result of different pre-adapted clades
504 that originated before Andean uplift, which colonized available niches before other clades could
505 adaptively radiate to occupy a broad elevational gradient (Tanentzap *et al.*, 2015).

506

507 ***Conclusions: future directions and implications for conservation***

508 In this study, we developed a novel conceptual framework (Fig. 1), as well as new methods
509 of decomposing species turnover (Fig. 1, S4), to investigate the biogeographic origins of
510 community assembly along environmental gradients. We use this approach to study how the
511 uplift of the Central Andes led to the variation in community composition along iconic
512 elevational gradients. Our approach, however, can be applied to any system in which the timing
513 of the emergence of an environmental gradient is known and time-calibrated phylogenies can be
514 generated. We envision future studies using this method to understand the eco-evolutionary
515 assembly in systems beyond Andean forests such as along precipitation gradients (Parolari *et al.*,
516 2020), across contrasting soil conditions (Capurucho *et al.*, 2020), or even under different
517 disturbance regimes (Cavender-Bares & Reich, 2012). Methods such as these can be used to test

518 hypotheses about specific process of community assembly, going beyond documenting niche
519 conservatism or phylogenetic aggregation. Our approach will facilitate deeper insights into how
520 the emergence of environmental gradients shape modern natural ecosystems.

521 Our analyses demonstrate that species turnover across elevations in the Central Andes is
522 driven primarily by the turnover of clades that are at least 30 my old. These results suggest a
523 strong role for immigration and ecological sorting of pre-adapted clades to the novel
524 environments across elevations created by the uplift of the Central Andes. Adaptive
525 diversification following the emergence of the elevational gradient is likely restricted to a few
526 clades or to narrow elevational bands, having little impact on the assembly of communities along
527 such a large environmental gradient. Our results add to a growing body of evidence suggesting
528 that present day communities are strongly influenced by the ability of lineages to track
529 environmental conditions through space and geological time (Emerson & Gillespie, 2008;
530 Donoghue, 2008; Carvajal-Endara *et al.*, 2017; Griffiths *et al.*, 2020; Segovia *et al.*, 2020).

531 This finding has important implications for the long-term persistence of communities facing
532 the effects of human-mediated global change. Increases in atmospheric temperatures are
533 predicted to cause elevational shifts in environmental conditions, such that climates that
534 currently occur at specific elevations will occur at higher elevations in the future (Harsch *et al.*,
535 2009; Ruiz-Labourdette *et al.*, 2012; Freeman *et al.*, 2018; O’Sullivan *et al.*, 2020). Our work on
536 historical patterns of community assembly suggests that ecosystems are more likely to track
537 shifting habitats rather than adapt to novel conditions (Sheldon *et al.*, 2011; Ruiz-Labourdette *et al.*,
538 2012; Freeman *et al.*, 2018; Feeley *et al.*, 2020). Communities and species at the highest
539 elevations might be specially threatened by climate change since their environments will
540 disappear at the top of mountains and new pre-adapted competitors will move in from lower
541 elevations (Colwell *et al.*, 2008). Thus, communities occupying the highest-elevation sites in the
542 Andes should be prioritized for monitoring and conservation efforts. Because their habitat may
543 not persist over the long term, *ex situ* conservation (either through conservation seed banking or
544 living collections) of the species endemic to the highest elevations should be a specific priority.

545

546 **Acknowledgements**

547 We thank the Dirección General de Biodiversidad, the Bolivian Park Service (SERNAP),
548 the Madidi National Park and local communities for permits, access, and collaboration in
549 Bolivia, where fieldwork was supported by the National Science Foundation (DEB 0101775,
550 DEB 0743457, DEB 1836353). Additional financial support to The Madidi Project has been
551 provided by the Missouri Botanical Garden, the National Geographic Society (NGS 7754-04 and
552 NGS 8047-06), the Comunidad de Madrid (Spain), Consejo Superior de Investigaciones
553 Científicas (Spain), Centro de Estudios de América Latina (Banco Santander and Universidad
554 Autónoma de Madrid, Spain), and the Taylor and Davidson families. Fieldwork in the ABERG

555 transect was supported by NSF, the Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation and the UK Natural
556 Environment Research Council. We thank all the researchers, students and local guides that were
557 involved in the collection of the data, particularly Carla Maldonado, Maritza Cornejo, Alejandro
558 Araujo, Javier Quisbert, Narel Paniagua and Peter Jørgenson. Finally, we thank Iván Jiménez for
559 helpful discussions, ideas and comments.

560 **Author contribution:** JST, JAM, AEZ and CEE developed and designed the study. JST, CL,
561 AFF, MIL, GA and MJM collected the Madidi Project dataset; MS, WFR, KGC, NSR, and YM
562 collected the ABERG dataset. SAS produced the phylogenetic data. AGL and JST performed
563 data analyses. AGL and JST wrote the manuscript, and all authors contributed significantly to
564 revisions.

565 **Data availability:** The Madidi Project's dataset used in our analyses correspond to version 4.1,
566 which is deposited in Zenodo (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4276558>). Additionally, raw data
567 of the Madidi Project are stored and managed in Tropicos (<https://tropicos.org/home>), the
568 botanical database of the Missouri Botanical Garden. These data can be viewed and accessed via
569 the Madidi Project's module at <http://legacy.tropicos.org/Project/MDI>. The Andes Biodiversity
570 and Ecosystem Research Group (ABERG) is a team of 38 researchers from 12 universities
571 dedicated to understanding biodiversity distribution and ecosystem function in the Peruvian
572 Andes. ABERG is committed to data exchange within the scientific community and promoting
573 collaboration among other tropical ecosystem scientists. For more information and to request
574 data contact Miles Silman or Yadvinder Malhi (<http://www.andesconservation.org/>). The R code
575 created for analyses is available at <https://github.com/Linan552/Madidi-project>.

576

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775 **Supporting Information legends**

Supplementary methods: Additive decomposition of species turnover metrics.

Figures S1: decomposed turnover across elevation excluding morphospecies.

Figures S2: number of species per clade across datasets.

Figure S3: decomposition of species turnover across elevational distance for 60my clades.

Figures S4: decomposed turnover across elevation excluding morphospecies.

Figure S5: logit transformed decomposition of turnover.

**Figure S6: relationship between difference in elevation and geographic distance in our
datasets.**

Figure S7: Species turnover across geographic distance.

**Figure S8: Decomposition of species turnover across geographic distance for 30my
clades.**

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