Title: Community turnover by composition and climatic affinity across scales in an alpine system

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Short title: Alpine plant community-climate relationships with elevation

ABSTRACT

Premise of the study: Examining community turnover across climate gradients at multiple scales is vital

to understanding biogeographic response to climate change. This approach is especially important for

alpine plants in which the relative roles of topographic complexity and non-climatic or stochastic factors

vary across spatial scales.

Methods: We examined the structure of alpine plant communities across elevation gradients in the

White Mountains, California. Using community climatic niche means (CCNMs) and measures of

community dissimilarity, we explored the relationship between community composition and elevation

gradients at three scales: the mountain range, individual peaks, and within elevation contours.

Key Results: At the mountain range scale, community turnover and CCNMs showed strongly significant

relationships with elevation, with an increase in the abundance of cooler and wetter-adapted species at

higher elevations. At the scale of a single peaks, we found weak and inconsistent relationships between

CCNMs and elevation, but variation in community composition explained by elevation increased. Within

the elevation contours, the range of CCNMs was weakly positively correlated with turnover in species

identity, likely driven by microclimate and other site-specific factors.

Conclusions: Our results suggest that there is strong environmental sorting of alpine plant communities

at broad scales, but microclimatic and site-specific, non-climatic factors together shape community

turnover at finer scales. In the context of climate change, our results imply that community-climate

relationships are scale-dependent, and predictions of local alpine plant range shifts are limited by a lack

of topoclimatic and habitat information.

Key words: alpine ecology; climatic niche mean; elevation gradient; GLORIA; Great Basin; beta

diversity; species turnover; community assembly; White Mountains

INTRODUCTION

Mountain environments contain important ecosystems and are heralds of species distribution

shifts in response to climate change (Körner, 2003). Pronounced warming at higher elevations

exacerbates this potential for mountains to exhibit early signs of biotic responses to climate change

(Pepin et al., 2015). Species have responded by generally moving upslope in response to warming

(Parmesan and Yohe, 2003; Lenoir et al., 2008; Pauli et al., 2012; Millar et al., 2015; Smithers et al.,

2018; Malanson et al., 2019), with this upslope advance having accelerated in recent years (Steinbauer

et al., 2018). However, it is increasingly recognized that climate change expectations of wholesale

upward or poleward shifts of species distributions are overly simplistic (Lenoir and Svenning, 2015),

especially in topographically complex landscapes (Rapacciuolo et al., 2014). Further, alpine species,

often cool-adapted and long-lived, may be both directly sensitive to temperature change due to their

physiology and indirectly sensitive due to competitive exclusion by species recruiting from lower

elevations (Alexander et al., 2015; Rumpf et al., 2018). Predicting how these direct and indirect impacts

of climate change will together shape future communities requires a better understanding of how

complex mountain landscapes shape community assembly.

A long-standing debate in community ecology is whether community assembly is repeatable

and predictable. If environmental filtering shapes community assembly, then there should be repeated,

deterministic patterns of community composition across similar climatic and geologic conditions

(Clements, 1916, 1936). On the other hand, less predictable, or stochastic, processes in the form of

chance colonization, random extinction, ecological drift, and dispersal limitation could be more

important in explaining patterns of community assembly (Gleason, 1927; Slatkin, 1974). While this

debate has often been waged as either deterministic or stochastic forces being the driver of community

assembly, it is more likely that communities are structured by both processes (Chase and Myers, 2011).

In the context of climate change, this debate can be further distilled to a debate about whether climatic

or non-climatic factors structure community assembly. The relative importance of deterministic climatic

factors versus deterministic non-climatic or stochastic factors (hereafter referred to as non-climatic

factors) can change depending on the system or scale at which we examine it. In alpine systems, the

relative importance of these factors in shaping plant communities is particularly unclear, and this

knowledge gap limits our ability to predict the rate and magnitude of plant community change in alpine

systems in response to climate warming.

A first step to understanding the relative importance of these factors in shaping plant

communities is to examine how communities are currently distributed across multiple scales of climatic

complexity. In mountain systems, scales for describing plant community response to climate change can

range from a single elevation at one location to an entire mountain range. Elevation is a useful

geographic feature when studying deterministic and stochastic effects on community assembly because

at different scales of elevation range, the relative importance of each process may change. Across an

entire mountain range, the physical isolation of mountaintops may amplify the stochastic processes of

dispersal and colonization as low-lying areas between suitable high-elevation habitat can create

geographic barriers to species movement (Dirnböck et al., 2011). However at the scale of a single peak

where dispersal is likely not limiting, the deterministic process of environmental filtering may play a

larger role with high community turnover across steep climate gradients driven by elevation (Körner,

2003, 2007). Lastly, small-scale topographic complexity in the alpine zone can also drive variation in

community composition (Van de Ven et al., 2007; Scherrer and Körner, 2011; Lenoir et al., 2013; Winkler

et al., 2016). At this microclimatic scale, community variation within an elevation contour may be high

where topographic complexity is high; the variety of potential habitats may deterministically facilitate

close proximity of species and communities with a variety of climatic niches. However, within an

elevation contour, other factors such as the geology, habitat stability (e.g., scree moves more than

bedrock) or species interactions may also play a large role in community variation (Graae et al., 2018).

Comparing different types of community characteristics allows us to disentangle how climatic

and non-climatic processes are shaping the community across scales. Community climatic niche affinities

are metrics of the community (similar to any community-weighted mean traits) derived from climatic

conditions found across the component species' regional distributions (Landolt et al., 2010; Scherrer and

Körner, 2011; Lenoir et al., 2013). At broad scales, plant species ranges are largely determined by a suite

of environmental factors, with many of those factors climatically based. The suite of climatic factors that

a species can tolerate can be referred to as its climatic niche affinity, and climatic tolerances of the

community can be described using the combined climatic niche affinities of its component species.

When considering community climatic niche affinities, environmental filtering processes may drive

species turnover. Conversely, stochastic processes such as the timing of species arrival into the

community may drive community similarity metrics based on species composition alone (Fukami et al.,

2005). Similar patterns of climatic niche affinities and community composition across elevation for a

single scale would indicate that deterministic processes are driving much of the community turnover.

For a counter example, if the range of climatic niche affinities encompassed within elevation contours is

not correlated with turnover in the community composition (ie., where species turnover is high, the

range of climatic niche affinity values among species is low), this points to non-climatic factors shaping

the community variation at this scale. These types of comparisons could be scaled up to look at different

elevation bands on a single peak, among peaks in a mountain range, or even among mountain ranges.

Management of large areas of public lands for resilience with a changing climate challenges us

to understand how communities will shift both locally and regionally (Pecl et al., 2017). Examining

relationships between plant communities and climate gives key insights into the potential for species

and communities to respond to climate change by tracking their climatic niche across different scales

and may inform whether moving upslope in elevation is a predictable method for species to remain in

their climatic niche in response to climate change. Evaluating changes in biodiversity and species

distributional shifts requires long-term monitoring across multiple scales (Gottfried et al., 2012). The

Global Observation Research Initiative in Alpine Environments (GLORIA) is an international collaboration

assessing global distributional shifts of alpine plant species in response to changing climate

(http://www.gloria.ac.at/). This international program was founded to provide cost-effective, universal

monitoring protocols and a unifying network to investigate the rate and magnitude of the changes in

alpine communities through time and spatial patterning at local, regional, and global scales (Grabherr et

al., 2010). This network has led to key findings about the vulnerability of montane systems to changing

climate, including upward distributional shifts of many alpine species and loss of cool-adapted species in

mountains (Pauli et al., 2007, 2012; Gottfried et al., 2012; Lamprecht et al., 2018; Rumpf et al., 2018;

Steinbauer et al., 2018). The North American chapter was founded in 2004 (Millar and Fagre, 2007) with

installations in California and Montana, and now has installations in many mountain regions of North

America. As part of this effort, GLORIA Great Basin (www.gloriagreatbasin.org) established a series of

downslope transects on five peaks in the White Mountains, California (Fig. 1) extending from alpine

mountaintops into the subalpine zone to monitor community changes in the local species pool at the

individual mountain and at the mountain range scale.

In this study, we evaluate the role of climatic versus non-climatic processes in explaining plant

community turnover across elevation gradients at three scales in the White Mountains, California, USA:

across an entire mountain range, within each of five peaks spread across the mountain range, and

within elevation contours of each peak (Fig. 1). We use metrics of community climatic niche means and

community composition to examine relationships among species turnover, community niche affinities,

and elevation across scales. Consistent with environmental filtering, community climatic niche affinities

may be highly dependent on the elevation gradient, with the presence and abundance of cooler and

wetter-adapted species (dependent on their climatic niche) increasing with elevation, especially with

climate metrics that vary the most predictably across the elevation gradient, such as temperature and

precipitation. For this system specifically, previous work has found that community climate affinities are

representative of local climatic niche means derived from microclimate field data (Oldfather and Ackerly

2019). However, given that the relative importance of deterministic and stochastic processes may vary

with spatial scale and the level of community organization under consideration (Fukami et al., 2005), the

relationships between elevation and climatic niche affinities may be strongest at broader spatial scales,

while the relationship between elevation and community composition may be stronger at smaller scales

(i.e., within a single peak). Specifically, we propose the following hypotheses (see Fig. 2 for a conceptual

diagram).

1) At broad spatial scales (mountain range), non-climatic or stochastic processes will drive more

variation in species composition and turnover than climatic or deterministic processes. Based on this, we

predict that elevation as a proxy for deterministic changes explains more variation in species

composition and turnover within each peak than across the entire range.

2) At broad spatial scales, climatic filters will be more important in explaining plant community

variation in climatic niche space than non-climatic or stochastic differences. We predict that elevation

will be better at predicting community climatic niche affinities at large spatial scales (mountain range)

than at smaller scales (individual peak), where microclimate within an elevation may obscure this

relationship

3) At the smallest scales (within elevation contour on a single peak), microclimate, habitat

differences, and other unmeasured factors facilitate niche partitioning, thereby driving patterns of

community assembly. We predict a positive relationship between the range of community climatic niche

affinities and species turnover within elevation contours.

METHODS

Study Area—The White Mountains are a cold and dry mountain range along the California-

Nevada border at the western margin of the Great Basin in the eastern rain-shadow of the Sierra

Nevada (Powell and Klieforth, 1991). At the White Mountains Research Center's Barcroft Station (3800

m), mean annual precipitation is approximately 455 mm and mean annual temperature is -1.7 $^{\circ}$C

(Western Regional Climate Center). Most of the precipitation in the range comes as winter snow,

although monsoonal rain events also occur during the summer. The alpine zone ranges in elevation from

treeline at roughly 3500 m to the top of White Mountain Peak at 4300 m. The alpine flora in the White

Mountains is made up of obligate alpine species, lower montane species, and cold-desert species

associated with the Sierra Nevada, Great Basin, and Rocky Mountains (Rundel et al., 2008).

Field Surveys—We sampled alpine community composition along elevation gradients using 100-

meter belt transects on five peaks in the White Mountains: White Mountain Peak (WMT), Mount

Barcroft (BAR), Sheep Mountain East (SME), Patriarch Grove South (PGS), and Campito Mountain (CPT)

(Bishop, 2011). On each peak, the first transect was established on the southeast aspect (east aspect for

Campito Peak), 35 vertical meters below the summit. Two, 50m x 1m belt transects were extended from

this central point following the elevation contour to create a 100-meter x 1-meter belt transect at one

elevation. Additional 100m x 1m transects were established on each peak in intervals of 25 vertical

meters below the previous transect on the same aspect (Fig. 1). While transects were placed at this fixed

25 m interval, peaks had differing numbers of transects based on the total distance between upper

treeline and the top of the peak. Transects were established across 3 consecutive years from 2011-2013

(Table 1). Sampling was conducted in mid-July to best correspond with flowering timing of most alpine

plant species in the White Mountains. Each transect was divided into ten continuous, 10m x 1m

segments. In each segment, we recorded the presence of every species. In addition, we assessed cover

of plant species and substrate (rock, scree, litter, bare ground) along the entire transect using a point-

intercept method with 40 points per 10m x 1m segment. A pair of points was located at every half-

meter along the transect, with the points in each pair 0.5 m apart (0.25 m from the center of the belt

transect). The substrate or plant species was recorded as a "hit" if a point intersected with it.

Community Metrics—To investigate how communities varied across spatial gradients, we used

community-weighted climatic niche means (CCNM) and community composition. A CCNM is the

abundance-weighted mean of each component species' average species niche space across its range (De

Frenne et al., 2013). For community composition we used the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity metric of β

diversity, which incorporates both species presence and relative abundance (Anderson et al., 2011). Our

measure of abundance used for both metrics was the number of segments in which it was found for

each transect. We consider how these two community metrics change across three nested scales: the

elevation gradient of the entire mountain range, the elevation gradient of a single peak, and within a

single elevation contour of a peak.

A CCNM is a property of a single community, or in our specific case, a transect for mountain

range- and peak-scale analyses and a 10m segment within transects for the elevation contour-scale

analysis. We focused on the following climatic measurements as they are likely major structuring factors

for alpine plant communities: climatic water deficit, mean annual precipitation, July maximum

temperature, and January minimum temperature. Climatic water deficit is an integrative measure of

how much energy availability (temperature) exceeds water supply (precipitation), with higher values

indicating hotter, drier conditions, and lower values indicating cooler, wetter conditions. July maximum

and January minimum temperatures were calculated mean daily high and low temperatures of the

month, respectively. Using a recently compiled database of California herbarium specimens derived

from the Consortium of California Herbaria as well as additional natural history museums and herbaria

(Baldwin et al., 2017), we extracted locations from all vouchered specimens in the database for each

surveyed species. We used those database locations to extract 30-year (1961-1990) means for climatic

water deficit, mean annual precipitation, maximum July temperature, and minimum January

temperature from the TerraClimate gridded dataset (Abatzoglou et al., 2018), which is itself an

amalgamation of the WorldClim dataset (Fick and Hijmans, 2017) and other data. After culling the

herbaria records to one record per species per grid cell to reduce sampling bias, we extracted the four

mean climate values for each species, representing the mean climatic niche of the species for each

climate metric (Appendix S1; see Supplemental Data with this article). This 30-year period was chosen as

the temporal range of most likely establishment for the majority of the generally long-lived individual

plants sampled. For each transect on each of the five peaks, we calculated a weighted mean of the mean

climatic niche value of each species present in that transect. The mean was weighted by the abundance

of each species in that community, in our case the number of segments in which it was found when the

community was defined as the whole transect and the number of point-intercept hits when the

community was defined as the 10m x 1m segments within the transect. The abundance weighting allows

more dominant species to have a larger effect on the community's CCNM. This final calculation produces

one CCNM value for each climate metric in each community, allowing for examination of how the

overall climatic niche of the community changes across the elevation gradients or ranges within

elevation contours.

226   To examine community patterns within the elevation contours we used two metrics to

represent how species identity and climatic niches vary across the contour: β diversity and CCNM range.

We calculated per-transect β diversity as the total species richness in each transect divided by the mean

species richness across the 10 segments within each transect (Whittaker, 1960; Anderson et al., 2011).

Therefore, the minimum possible value is a β diversity of 1, which would indicate that every species in

the whole transect is represented within each segment of that transect. This metric gives a measure of

the amount of species variation that can be found within a single elevational band. The range of CCNM

within a single transect was determined by calculating the CCNM per segment, and then subtracting the

minimum from the maximum of each transect for each climate variable. The CCNM range gives a

measure of how variable the climatic niches of the communities are along the elevation contour; a low

range indicates that elevation is predominantly driving any variation in the climatic niche of the

communities, and a high range indicates that microclimate may be shaping the patterns of community

climatic niches across the landscape as well.

Statistical Analyses—In order to quantify the community turnover explained by the elevational

gradient at the scale of the mountain range and all peaks separately, we performed permutation-based

MANOVAs using the 'adonis' function (1000 permutations) in the vegan package (Oksanen et al., 2008).

We built separate MANOVAs for the entire mountain range and for each of the peaks. For each of these

models, the dependent variable is a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix (with the matrix rows representing

single transects) and the independent variable is elevation across either the entire mountain range or

across each peak, respectively. To visualize these relationships, we performed an ordination based on

non-metric dimensional scaling (NMDS) that included community data from each peak across the entire

White Mountain range.

To examine how CCNMs changed across the entire mountain range, we constructed linear

mixed effects models for each of the four CCNMs (climatic water deficit, mean annual precipitation,

maximum July temperature, and minimum January temperature) as the response variable, elevation as

the predictor variable, and with a random intercept effect of peak. We compared models with and

without a quadratic term for elevation and used Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) to choose the

model with the best fit. We used a Bonferroni-corrected significance threshold of $P=0.0125$ for each of

the four models representing the different CCNM responses across all the peaks to account for multiple

testing. For each of the four CCNMs, we also built linear models for each peak with CCNM as the

response variable and elevation as the predictor variable. We used a Bonferroni-corrected significance

threshold of $P=0.01$ for each of the five models representing, for each CCNM, the CCNM response for

the five different peaks.

To examine community composition and species turnover at the scale of each elevation

contour, we used linear models to determine whether the range in CCNM within an elevation contour

(transect) significantly explained variation in β diversity. All analyses were performed using R version

3.6.0 (R Core Team, 2018). Data manipulation and visualization were performed using the R packages

dplyr (Wickham et al., 2019), sf (Pebesma, 2018), and ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016).

RESULTS

Community Composition—We observed a total of 123 species in 70 genera and 25 families across the

entire mountain range, with individual peak species richness ranging from 50-69 (Table 1). Across the

mountain range, elevation explained 30% of the variation in community composition ($P < 0.001$, Fig. 3).

When looking at each peak independently, there was an approximate 10-20% increase in the community

variation explained by elevation (BAR 42% $P < 0.001$, CPT 37% $P = 0.012$, PGS 40% $P = 0.002$, SME 42% P

< 0.001, WMT 52% $P < 0.001$). The NMDS ordination visualizes these relationships by reducing the

community dimensionality into 2 dimensions. These ordinations show a clear range-wide relationship

between the first axis (NMDS1) and elevation (95%, $P < 0.001$), as indicated by the arrow. Therefore,

species such as *Erigeron vagus* are associated with higher elevation sites and *Erigeron tener* is associated

with lower elevation sites. Within the summits, the community composition had stronger, but unique

relationships with elevation; the ellipses that encompass the standard deviation of points associated

with each summit line up well with the first axis and vary across the second axis (NMDS2).

Community-weighted Climatic Niche Mean—All CCNM metrics (climatic water deficit, mean

annual precipitation, maximum July temperature, and minimum July temperature) showed highly

significant linear relationships with elevation at the mountain range scale ($P < 0.001$ for all metrics, Fig.

4, Appendix S2). For each CCNM at the mountain range scale, the non-quadratic model performed best.

Climatic water deficit, maximum July temperature, and minimum January temperature CCNMs showed a

negative relationship with elevation while mean annual precipitation showed a positive relationship

with elevation. Collectively, these results indicate that the presence and abundance of species with

cooler, wetter niches increased with elevation. At the individual mountain scale, the relationships

between the CCNM and elevation were weak, inconsistent, or absent (Fig. 4, Appendix S2).

Variation in community composition and CCNMs across elevation contours—The mean β

diversity per transect across the elevation contours was 2.1 [range, 1.3-3.2]. A β diversity of 2 indicates

that, on average across the segments of the transect, there are twice as many species represented in

the whole transect than in each segment. The mean of the ranges of CCNM per transect across the

elevation contours were climatic water deficit: 173 mm [0 - 465], mean annual precipitation: 15.3 mm [0

- 47.9], maximum July temperature: 1.61°C [0 - 3.88], and minimum January temperature: 2.01°C [0 -

5.75]. Interestingly, this range is slightly lower, but similar in magnitude as the range of CCNM values

observed across the entire mountain range (Fig. 5).

For CCNMs based on mean annual precipitation and maximum July temperature, the CCNM

range was significantly and positively correlated with the per-transect β diversity (mean annual

precipitation: adjusted R^2 = 0.138, P = 0.003; maximum July temperature: adjusted R^2 = 0.073, P = 0.027;

Fig. 5). For climatic water deficit and minimum January temperature, there was no significant

relationship between CCNM range and per-transect β diversity (climatic water deficit: adjusted R^2 = -

0.016, P = 0.683; minimum January temperature: adjusted R^2 = -0.014, P = 0.590).

DISCUSSION

Investigating the dynamics of community turnover across climate gradients is a fruitful avenue

for understanding where and how species distributions may shift with a changing climate (Scherrer and

Körner, 2011; Lenoir et al., 2013). Across the entire mountain range, both community metrics (climate-

derived CCNM and composition-derived Bray-Curtis dissimilarity) exhibited strong relationships with

elevation, but the relationships between CCNM and elevation at the individual peak scale was weak and

inconsistent (Figs. 3, 4). In contrast, there was a stronger relationship between elevation and community

composition at the scale of the individual peak relative to the entire mountain range (Fig. 3). Lastly, the

range of community climatic niche means was positively, but weakly correlated with the per-transect β

diversity (Fig. 5). Below, we discuss in more depth how the processes that shape alpine plant

distributions and community assembly vary across scales and explore potential impacts for using these

community metrics for predicting the effects of climate change on mountain communities.

Community Composition and Turnover Across Scales—Elevation was a strong predictor of

community dissimilarity and CCNM across the entire White Mountain range (Figs. 3, 4), suggesting that

elevation structures both community composition and niche affinities across broad spatial scales.

However, we found varying responses to elevation between the two community metrics at the scale of

individual peaks. Consistent with our first hypothesis, more variation in community composition was

explained by elevation at the individual peak scale relative to the entire range despite a lower elevation

range within each individual summit relative to the mountain range. At the mountain range scale, non-

climatic differences between peaks (e.g., biotic interactions or geology) or stochastic differences likely

reduce the community variation explainable by elevation. Community dissimilarity has a strong, but

unique relationship with elevation within each summit (Fig. 3), which muddles the broader-scale

relationship between elevation and dissimilarity across summits.

At the scale of individual peaks, the elevation gradient may encompass variation in additional factors

besides climate, such as available space, underlying changes in geology, biotic interactions, and

microtopography. These non-climatic factors may influence patterns of species dissimilarity across the

elevation gradients within each peak. Dispersal limitation may also weaken the relationship between

elevation and community composition at the scale of the entire mountain range (Dirnböck et al., 2011).

If stochastic processes such as dispersal shape community assembly, then community dissimilarity

should not vary predictably across environmental gradients. But if deterministic processes such as

environmental filtering shape community assembly, community dissimilarity will not vary predictably

across spatial gradients (Chase and Myers, 2011). In our study, elevation encompasses both spatial and

climatic gradients limiting our ability to assess the relative importance of stochastic vs. deterministic

processes in shaping species (Fig. 1; Appendix S3). Nonetheless, if dispersal limitation is reduced within

individual peaks relative to among peaks across the range, elevation may be more predictive of variation

in community composition within peaks as species are filtered with respect to the climatic conditions

across the gradient (Svenning and Sandel, 2013; Graae et al., 2018).

Climatic Niche Means Across Scales—If climatic filtering is primarily responsible for shaping

community assembly, then the presence and abundance of cooler, wetter-adapted species should

increase with elevation, particularly at the scale of the entire mountain range. Indeed, we found that

CCNMs based on all four climate metrics were significantly related to elevation at the mountain range

scale (Fig. 4). Encouragingly, these relationships at this scale all also matched the predicted patterns of

climatic niche means and elevation based on how the actual climate is predicted to vary across elevation

gradients (Appendix S4). Species associated with cooler and wetter conditions were found more often

and/or in higher abundance at higher elevations (Fig. 4). We also found support for our second

hypothesis that elevation should more strongly predict climatic niche affinities at large spatial scales

(mountain range) than at smaller scales (individual peak). Despite the strong, consistent relationship

between CCNMs and elevation across the entire mountain range, dependent on the peak and the

climate variable used to quantify CCNM, there were variable results for whether elevation was

predictive of community niche affinities for individual peaks. Therefore, at finer scales, elevation is less

consistently predictive of the climatic niche means of communities. This may be due to the reduced

range of elevation change, and therefore climatic variation, within each summit, allowing non-climatic

factors to play a larger role in community assembly. Within elevation contours, the range of community

climatic niche affinities influenced variation in species turnover with the CCNMs based on July maximum

temperatures and precipitation (Fig. 5), suggesting that for at least these climate metrics, microclimate

may facilitate niche partitioning and species coexistence at the within-contour scale. Future studies

should more formally examine the mechanisms of how microclimate drives patterns of community

assembly across these three spatial scales.

One caveat of our methodology is that the peaks were surveyed over the course of three years.

Interannual variation in weather could certainly have affected our ability to successfully identify all

species present in the transects. While we attempted to survey during peak flowering of the majority of

plant species in the White Mountains, it is also possible that different temperatures and precipitation

amounts in the three years could have changed the species abundances or even shifted that peak

phenological period outside of our sampling period. Since a given peak was surveyed in a single year,

this potential issue could only affect the mountain range-scale analyses.

An important caveat of our use of CCNMs is that due to data availability, we quantified CCNMs

with species' occurrences from California distributions, not the species' global distributions. For many

species, California encompasses the range of climatic conditions that the species experience across their

ranges. For other species, however, the occurrences in California are a subset of the species' larger

distribution, and hence their climatic niches. Niche estimates are likely particularly inaccurate for species

whose western range limits are found in eastern California. Further, all CCNM calculations assumed no

variation among populations across species ranges and thus do not account for the possibility that the

populations surveyed in the White Mountains may have different climatic niches relative to those found

in other parts of the species range. CCNMs also disregard influences of fine-scale climate on species'

distributions due to the coarse resolution of the climatic and herbarium specimen data (Bramer et al.,

2018), potentially helping to explain the weaker and less consistent relationships found between

elevation and CCNMs within each peak relative to across the entire mountain range.

Drivers of Community Variation Within Elevation Contours—The maximum range in CCNMs observed

within a single elevation contour was on par with the overall maximum range of CCNM values observed

across the entire mountain range. This points to at least some role of microclimate in shaping species

distributions and community assembly. Surprisingly, we found CCNM differences within elevation

contours that were equivalent to those found across 100 m in elevation. While in general, species are

expected to move upslope in response to warming, at the local scale there will likely be suitable

microclimate within the same elevation. Species movement may be lateral or even downslope in order

to track newly suitable microclimate. These findings are supported by research in alpine plant biology

which has found that microclimate has a large influence on species' distributions (Körner, 2003).

However, the range of community climatic niche means was positively, but weakly, correlated with the

β diversity within elevation contour (Fig. 5), indicating minor support for our third hypothesis.

Therefore, other non-climatic processes are also shaping the species turnover within the elevation

contour. As dispersal limitation at this scale is unlikely, two major potential factors that may be instead

be shaping community distributions are habitat type (e.g., presence of moveable scree) and species

interactions. In addition to microclimate, substrate type (rock, scree, organic soil) likely heavily influence

species distributions, as well as species' responses to climate change (Kulonen et al., 2018). Species

interactions directly, or in conjunction with habitat type and microclimate, can also influence species

distributions at fine spatial scales (Alexander et al., 2015; Blonder et al., 2018; Graae et al., 2018). For

example, lower elevation species may be more competitive on organic soils than on rock or scree

whereas higher elevation obligate alpine plants potentially have more adaptive traits (e.g., contractile

roots) for persisting on the dynamic scree habitat (Kulonen et al., 2018). As we build our temporal

dataset, future studies will examine whether interactions between habitat segregation and elevation

influence species and community responses to climate change over time.

Conclusions/Implication for Climate Change Research—Our findings suggest that the effects of

elevation on community niche affinities and community dissimilarity varies with spatial scale. At the

scale of the entire mountain range, there is climatic filtering across the elevation gradient, with an

increase in the presence and abundance of cool, wet-adapted species at higher elevations. Within

individual peaks and elevation contours, however, the signal of climatic filtering breaks down. This

points to differences in how climatic and non-climatic factors may shape species composition at

different scales. At broad spatial scales, deterministic climate appears to be a main driver of plant

community assembly since the large, consistent elevation gradient can mask stochastic factors such as

chance colonization and extinction and non-climatic factors like geology. At smaller scales where

dispersal is less limiting and microsite climatic variation is common even within the same elevation

contour, synoptic climatic factors appear less important than non-climatic factors in structuring

community. We did not directly measure those non-climatic factors, but they are likely to be related to

habitat and substrate type.

Since climatic niche metrics are often used for quantifying community responses to climate

change, it is important to understand their relative strengths in explaining community turnover across

scales. The breakdown of correlations between CCNM and elevation at finer-scales, even though species

turnover based on identity is still explained by elevation at this scale, suggests an important caveat for

using climate-based community measures at these scales. Perhaps we would not find this pattern if our

climate data used to calculate the species climatic niches were at finer resolutions, which is supported

by the positive correlation per-transect β diversity and range of CCNM within a transect. However, this

correlation is weak indicating that higher resolutions may not be sufficient to understand species

distributions at these micro-topographic scales. Within the context of climate change, predictions of

local alpine plant range shifts will be limited by availability of topoclimatic, as well as habitat,

information.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank the UC Natural Reserve System's White Mountain Research Center, USFS

Pacific Southwest Research Station, Consortium for Integrated Climate Research in Western Mountains

(CIRMOUNT), the Global Observation Research Initiative in Alpine Environments (GLORIA), and USFS

Inyo National Forest for their support and collaboration. Our data collection teams consisted of many

citizen scientists that include graduate, undergraduate, and high school students as well as members of

NGOs such as GLORIA Great Basin, the California Native Plant Society, the Nevada Native Plant Society,

and the Davis Botanical Society. We especially thank Connie Millar and Adelia Barber for their leadership

and support of the early stages of this research. We would also like to thank two anonymous reviewers

for their insightful comments. This work was supported by USDA National Institute of Food and

Agriculture Hatch project 1016272.

Author Contributions

Brian Smithers, Meagan Oldfather, and Michael Koontz participated in data collection, data processing,

analysis, and in the writing of the manuscript.

Jim Bishop and Catie Bishop created the downslope transect protocol, participated in data collection,

data processing, and in editing of the manuscript.

Jan Nachlinger participated in data collection, data processing, and in the editing of the manuscript.

Seema Sheth participated in data processing, analysis and in the writing of the manuscript.

Data Accessibility

Data and R code from the project are available on the GLORIA Great Basin website

(https://www.gloriagreatbasin.org/documents-archives) as well as in a permanent Figshare repository

(DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.8968793). Due to the long-term nature of plot monitoring, we have not

collected voucher specimens from within the plots however when voucher specimens from outside the

plot were collected, the specimens were housed at the White Mountain Research Center, Owens Valley

Station.

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592 Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the supporting information section at the end

of the article.

Appendix S1: Climatic Niche Means (CNMs) for each species observed among all peaks.

Appendix S2: Model results for each of the climate metrics on each of the peaks and for all peaks

combined.

Appendix S3: Average climate variables for each transect.

Peak	Sample Year	Elevation (m)	Soil Type	Aspect	# Transects	Richness
White Mountain Peak (WMT)	2012	3971-4296	Igneous	SE	14	50
Mount Barcroft (BAR)	2011	3625-3950	Igneous	SE	14	69
Sheep Mountain (SME)	2011	3475-3725	Dolomitic	SE	11	57
Campito Mountain (CPT)	2013	3325-3500	Quartzitic	E	8	51
Patriarch Grove South (PGS)	2012	3299-3478	Dolomitic	SE	8	51

Table 1: Sampled peaks and associated data in the White Mountains, CA. Total richness is the number of

unique species found on each peak.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Geographic extent and terrain of the study area in the White Mountains, east of the Sierra

Nevada mountain range in California (red diamond in inset). Points mark the centers for each transect,

with 50m long and 1m wide belt transects extending on either side of these center points following the

elevation contour. Terrain is rendered as a hillshade using the ⅓ arc second (~10m) digital elevation

model from the USGS National Elevation Dataset with a sun angle of 40 degrees and a sun direction of

270 degrees. WMT = White Mountain Peak, BAR = Mount Barcroft, SME = Sheep Mountain East, PGS =

Patriarch Grove South, and CPT = Campito Mountain. All transects are centered along the southeast

aspect of each peak, except Campito Mountain (CPT), which is centered on the east aspect.

Figure 2. Conceptual figure illustrating the three presented hypotheses and the three scales of analysis:

mountain range, summit, and within elevation contours. Species identity is represented by differing

plant morphology and climatic niche affinity is represented by color. The first and second hypotheses

(H1, H2) require comparisons of the general patterns of community turnover across the elevation

gradient (for species identity and climatic niche affinity) between the mountain range and summit

scales. Across the mountain range, we hypothesize predictive changes in the climatic niche affinity, but

less so in species identity, across the elevation gradient. Within an individual summit, we hypothesize

predictive changes in species identity, but less so in the climatic niche affinity of those species, across

the elevation gradient. The third hypothesis (H3) focuses on comparing communities within elevation

contours (single scale) and we show the hypothesized positive correlation between the turnover in

species identity and range of climatic niche affinity.

Figure 3. Non-metric dimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination of Bray-Curtis dissimilarity. The arrow

indicates the directional influence of elevation. In the event of species name overlap, only the more

common species is shown here, but all species were included in the analysis.

Figure 4: Community-weighted Climatic Niche Means for (A) Climatic Water Deficit (CWD), (B) Mean

Annual Precipitation (MAP), (C) Average July maximum temperature (July T_{max}), and (D) Average January

minimum temperature (Jan T_{min}) along the elevation gradient. The black solid lines represent the linear

model fit for the entire range, all of which showed highly significant trends ($P < 0.001$). Shaded areas

represent the standard error around the linear model. Each point is 1 transect and is color-coded by

peak. Peaks with a significant ($P < 0.05$) relationship between CCNM and elevation are shown with a

solid line, and those with a non-significant ($P > 0.05$) relationship are shown with a dashed line.

Figure 5. Relationship between community climatic niche mean (CCNM) range and per-transect β

diversity. Climate metrics with a significant ($P < 0.05$) relationship between CCNM range and β diversity

per transect are shown with a solid line, and those with a non-significant ($P > 0.05$) relationship are

shown with a dashed line.

Regional Species Pool:

H1: Elevation explains **less** species composition turnover across the mountain range

H2: Elevation explains **less** climate affinity turnover within an individual summit

H3: Within elevation contours, increasing climate affinity range leads to increasing compositional turnover