

1 Herodotools: An R package to integrate macroevolution, community ecology, and biogeography

2

3 Gabriel Nakamura^{1*}; Arthur V Rodrigues²; André Luís Luza^{2,3}; Renan Maestri²; Vanderlei

4 Debastiani² and Leandro da Silva Duarte²

5 1- Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi, Department of Life Sciences, 6300 Ocean Dr. 78412

6 2 – Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Departamento de Ecologia

7 3 – Departamento de Ecologia e Evolução. Universidade Federal de Santa Maria, Santa Maria -

8 RS

9 *corresponding author: gabriel.nakamura.souza@gmail.com

10

11 **Running title:** Integrating macroevolution and ecology

12

13 **Acknowledgments**

14 G.N. was supported by Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi. LD research was supported by a

15 CNPq Productivity Fellowship (grant 307527/2018-2). R.M. was supported by CNPq

16 (150391/2017-0) and UFRGS. G.N. and L.D. are members of the National Institute for Science

17 and Technology (INCT) in Ecology, Evolution, and Biodiversity Conservation, supported by

18 Ministério da Ciência, Tecnologia, Inovações e Comunicações/ CNPq (proc. 465610/2014-5)

19 and FAPEG (proc. 201810267000023). AVR was supported by CNPq graduate fellowship, and

20 ALL was supported by CNPq (#164240/2021-7, #151228/2021-3, #152410/2020-1).

21

22 **Abstract**

23 Historical processes like speciation, extinction and historical dispersal are the ultimate factors
24 generating and maintaining biodiversity. Therefore, understanding how these factors affect the
25 distribution of biodiversity is of great importance. To do so, it is necessary to integrate
26 information from ancestral state reconstructions and current species distribution data and traits.
27 Studies that integrated both information proved effective in unveiling questions in the
28 intersection of macroecology, macroevolution, and community ecology. However, up to now,
29 numerical methods that perform this integration are scattered, making integration difficult and
30 hampering advances in these research fields. Here we developed Herodotools, an R package that
31 integrates the macroevolutionary models with the distribution of species occurrence in
32 assemblages to provide metrics that represent historical information, such as in-situ
33 diversification, historical dispersal, and age of assemblages. We described the main functions
34 and illustrated the use of our new package by analyzing the historical biogeography of the genus
35 *Akodon*, a South American small rodent. Our package provides the first platform to investigate
36 questions that require the integration of macroevolutionary information with ecological data (as
37 species occurrence) and streamline analysis of historical biogeography, leveraging the
38 investigation of the effects of historical processes in different levels of organization, from local
39 assemblages to bioregions.

40 **Keywords:** Historical biogeography; macroevolutionary dynamics; ancestral state reconstruction

41

42

43 **Introduction**

44 Evolutionary processes such as speciation, extinction, and historical dispersal are the ultimate
45 factors promoting the distribution of biological diversity across space and time (Ricklefs, 1987;
46 Ricklefs & Jenkins, 2011; Wiens & Donoghue, 2004a). Despite the importance of those
47 processes, they are usually acknowledged to be predominant on the spatial macro scale or affect
48 macroevolutionary dynamics of lineages through time, but at the regional and local scales, they
49 are less often properly assessed (Mouquet et al., 2012) or, when investigated, patterns are only
50 interpretable by adopting simplified premises as, for example, that phylogenetically clustered
51 communities (i.e., communities predominantly composed by close relatives) are the result of
52 local diversification (Crouch et al., 2019). Even in cases in which historical variables are
53 explicitly modeled (e.g., by analyzing mean values of tip-based metrics of diversification in
54 assemblages across space, Jetz et al. 2012), the temporal dynamics in ancestral states during
55 evolutionary time, which is the basis of phylogenetically clustered or overdispersed
56 communities, is not considered or quantified. Consequently, we have only a limited
57 understanding of deep past processes in generating and maintaining biodiversity patterns at
58 assemblage scales (Maestri et al., 2019; Mouquet et al., 2012; Ricklefs & Jenkins, 2011).

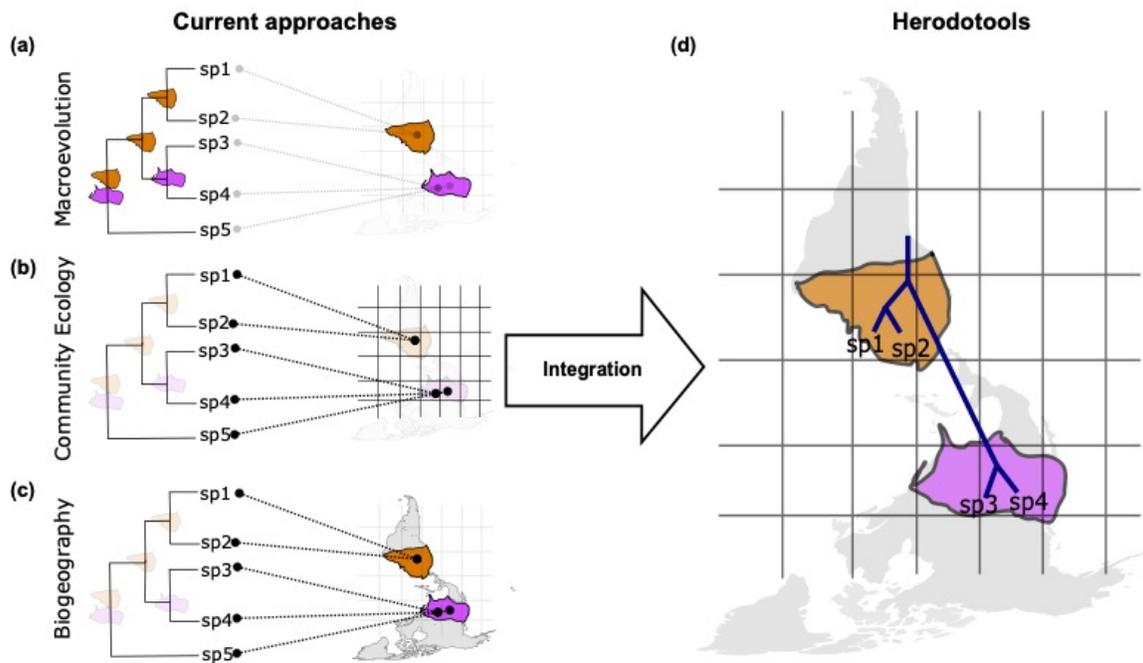
59 When macroevolution and ecological variation (represented mainly by variation in
60 current species occurrence) are approached separately, three general problems emerge. First,
61 when macroevolutionary dynamics are ignored at a local scale, we assume that only
62 contemporary factors are important, ending up with a limited picture regarding the role of
63 evolution in shaping local communities (Cavender-Bares et al., 2009). Second, by assuming
64 unreliable premises regarding macroevolutionary dynamics and by adopting a pattern-to-process

65 approach of trait evolution to interpret community phylogenetic patterns (e.g., static occurrence
66 area was static during lineage evolution or phylogenetic clustering as a proxy of in-situ
67 diversification), we may reach wrong conclusions about the imprints of diversification, and
68 historical dispersal as neither occurrence area is likely to be static nor phylogenetic clustering be
69 produced by diversification_(Van Dijk et al., 2021). Finally, we can reach wrong estimates of
70 assemblage characteristics such as the age of assemblages or the role of in situ diversification
71 and historical dispersal (e.g., as shown by Van Dijk et al., 2021). These three general problems
72 limit our ability to reach reliable results and conclusions regarding the importance of
73 macroevolutionary events shaping the distribution of biodiversity at multiple spatial scales.

74 A way to circumvent these three problems would be using methods that integrate/reunite
75 macroevolutionary models with different spatial scales of organization (Mouquet et al., 2012).
76 For example, Van Dijk et al. (2021) coupled a macroevolutionary model of ancestral area
77 reconstruction with species occurrence information to estimate assemblage age and test two
78 concurrent macroecological mechanisms of biodiversity assembly (Out of the tropics and Niche
79 conservatism). Another example is the study by Luza et al. (2021) that coupled a
80 macroevolutionary model of trait evolution to estimates of tip-based metrics to understand how
81 the macroevolutionary dynamics of diet evolution are affected by different environmental
82 contexts in rodent assemblages. Despite only a few, those methods proved to bring reliable
83 information to test hypotheses that no longer can be tested using macroevolutionary models
84 separated from current species occurrence data. However, those methods are scattered in
85 different studies, with no single platform that allows us to perform analysis that integrates the
86 macroevolutionary dynamics with ecological scale, which limit their usage and, consequently,

87 our ability to move forward towards the understanding of deep past on ecological communities
88 (Gerhold et al., 2015).

89 In this work, we present Herodotools, an R package that wraps up functions designed to
90 integrate models of macroevolution in analysis of biogeography and community phylogenetics to
91 detect imprints of historical processes and the effects of macroevolutionary dynamics of traits
92 and ancestral occurrence areas into different spatial scales (from communities to bioregions).
93 Herodotools overcomes the three general problems abovementioned by integrating the current
94 approaches used in macroevolution, community ecology, and biogeography in a single
95 framework that allows projecting the effects of macroevolutionary dynamics in different spatial
96 scales (Figure 1). Herodotools go beyond the visual interpretation of
97 macroevolutionary/ecological dynamics by presenting metrics that explicitly quantify historical
98 components (e.g., age, in-situ diversification, dispersal) and can be used to test concurrent
99 hypotheses producing patterns of biological diversity.



100

101 Figure 1: Conceptual representation of the integration implemented in Herodotools package.

102 Macroevolutionary dynamics (a) usually focus on trait evolution and diversification considered

103 at biogeographical scales (orange and purple polygons reconstructed across phylogeny nodes),

104 ignoring the variation in local assemblages (grids). Current ecological methods at assemblage (b)

105 and regional scale (c) usually ignore the macroevolutionary dynamics in space and/or time or

106 approach it using biodiversity proxies. More specifically, macroevolution often ignores spatial

107 processes. Community ecology ignores that assemblages result from dynamics in ancestral

108 occurrence areas and historical processes that build the regional pool of species, and

109 biogeography ignores dynamics in ancestral occurrence area. Herodotools (d) present functions

110 that fill these gaps by integrating the macroevolutionary models in different spatial scales, from

111 assemblage to bioregions.

112

113 Here we demonstrate the basic functionalities of Herodotools by analyzing a dataset of
114 genus *Akodon*, a species-rich south american genus of sigmodontine rodents. We aim to show the
115 analytical details behind core functions in the package and exemplify a general pipeline of
116 analysis to investigate the following questions: What is the importance of in situ diversification
117 and historical dispersal to determine the structure of assemblages? How to estimate the age of
118 assemblages? How to quantify trait evolutionary dynamics at assemblage scale (this last using
119 species from the Sigmodontinae family)? These questions represent just a few that can be
120 answered by integrating macroevolution with ecology (McGill et al., 2019) by using Herodotools
121 R package.

122

123 **Methods**

124 *General description of Herodotools package*

125 Herodotools rely on the integration of two different types of data: one that comes from
126 macroevolutionary analysis (*e.g.*, ancestral area and trait reconstruction/mapping), and other
127 from occurrence records of species in spatial units such as assemblages or regions (*e.g.*, biomes,
128 ecoregions, evoregions). Specifically, functions implemented in Herodotools allows for
129 manipulation of data from common macroevolutionary analyses (*e.g.*, ancestral area
130 reconstruction models in BioGeoBears (Matzke, 2013), and ancestral traits reconstruction
131 (Bollback 2006)), converting the output of these analyses to matrices and data frames, which
132 allows calculating macroevolutionary metrics at assemblage level (Table 1). These metrics can
133 be used to map the effects of historical factors at different scales or as variables in common
134 modeling frameworks allowing to test hypotheses in ecology, macroevolution, biogeography,

135 and community ecology (e.g., Luza et al., 2021; Van Dijk et al., 2021). Additionally,
 136 Herodotools perform phylogenetic regionalization methods, map transition zones (Maestri &
 137 Duarte, 2020), and detect source and sink regions (functions *evoregions*, *affiliation*, and
 138 *dispersal_from*, respectively).

139

140 Table 1: Description of the main functions present in Herodotools package

Fields	Function	Description
Data preparation	<code>get_node_range_BioGeoBEARS()</code>	Take BioGeoBears results to obtain a matrix of ancestral occurrence (assemblages x nodes)
	<code>spp_nodes()</code>	Computes a matrix of species (rows) and their respective nodes (columns)
Macroevolution + Biogeography	<code>dispersal_from()</code>	Compute the amount of contribution of each ancestral range to the species composition in other regions
Biogeography	<code>evoregions()</code>	Computes phylogenetic regionalization based on

		phylogenetic fuzzy weighted method
	affiliation_evoreg()	Computes the degree of affiliation of a cell within the region
	spp_association_evoreg()	Classify species in evoregions
	find_max_n_cluster()	Computes the maximum number of clusters to be used on evoregions() function
Macroevolution + Community Ecology	db_diversification()	Computes diversification- based ecophylogenetic metrics (PD and PE)
	age_assemblage()	Compute the age of assemblages
Macroevolution + phenotypic evolution + Community Ecology	tip_based_trait_evo()	Computes tip-based metrics that express trait macroevolutionary dynamics

141

142 The integration of macroevolutionary dynamics into community, biogeographic, and trait

143 analysis comprises two steps, first is the use of an ancestral reconstruction model to decompose

144 the evolutionary history dynamics on the phylogenetic tree in two components, namely ‘in-situ

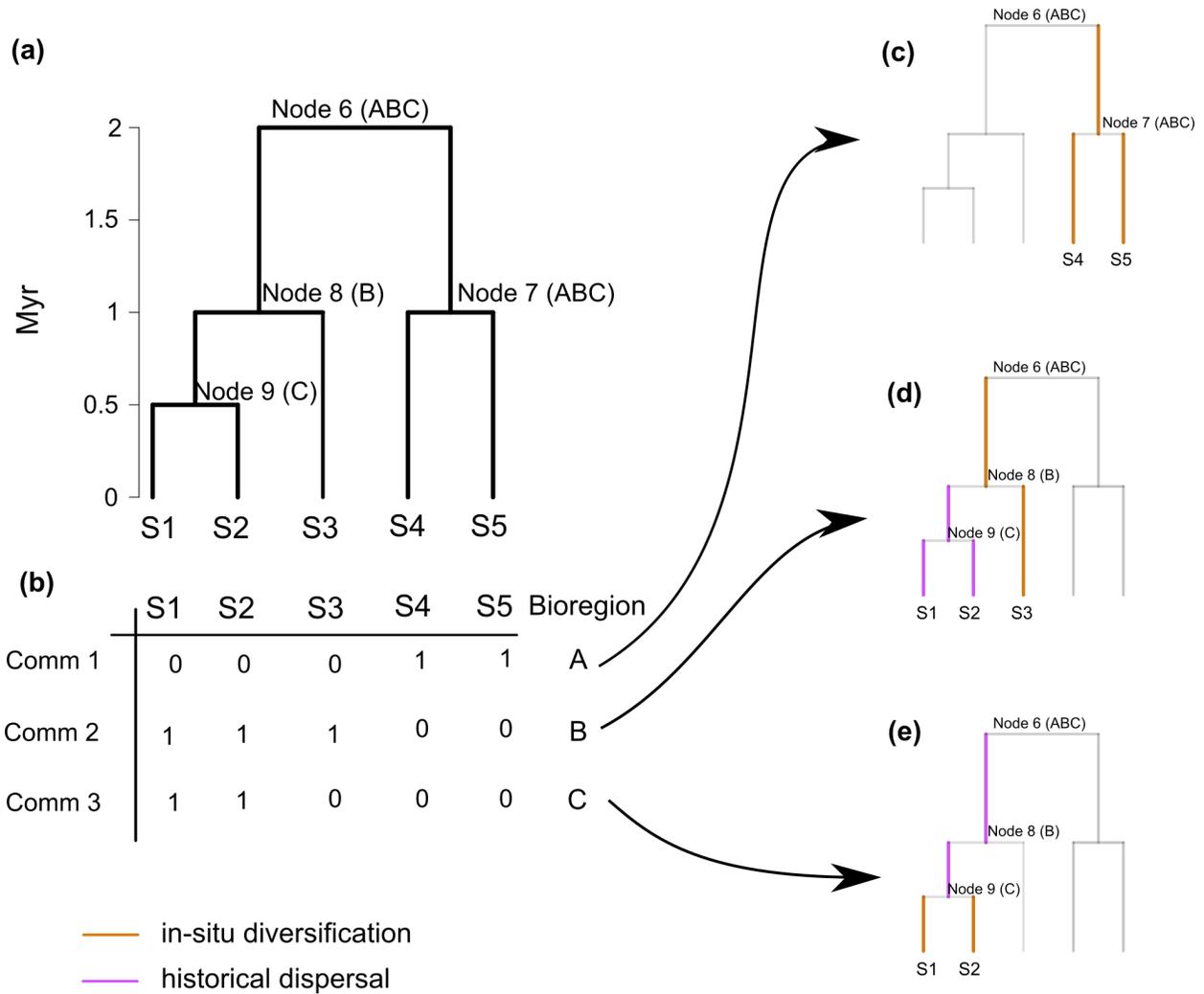
145 diversification' and 'historical dispersal', and second, use this information to calculate tip-based
146 metrics for each lineage in the phylogenetic tree.

147 The in-situ diversification component comprises the evolutionary history that emerged
148 due to in-situ speciation, i.e., all the events that occurred since each lineage's arrival and
149 establishment time in the region where an assemblage is situated. In other words, it represents
150 the path from tip to root between the species current occurrence in an assemblage to the oldest
151 ancestor in which the range was estimated to occur in the same region as the assemblage,
152 estimated through ancestral area reconstruction (Van Dijk et al., 2021). This tree component is
153 used to calculate assemblage level metrics, for example, age of assemblages, in-situ
154 diversification, the amount of phylogenetic diversity, and endemism that emerged as a process of
155 in-situ diversification in a region. The historical dispersal component corresponds to the
156 evolutionary history that arose due to events of ex-situ diversification and historical dispersal,
157 i.e., events that occurred before the arrival and establishment of a lineage in the assemblage in
158 which the present-day species are occurring.

159 In situ diversification and historical dispersal components are illustrated in Figure 2. In
160 this hypothetical example, Fig. 2a represents a result from an ancestral area reconstruction
161 model, with ancestral regions of occurrence represented by letters A, B, and C. These areas can
162 be interpreted, for example, as biomes (e.g., Maestri et al., 2019; Van Dijk et al., 2021a; Wiens
163 & Graham, 2005). The matrix in Fig. 2b represents the current area of occurrence for each
164 species in three assemblages (comm 1, comm 2, and comm 3). By reuniting in-situ
165 diversification and historical dispersal, we can decompose the amount of macroevolutionary
166 history that emerged inside a region due to in-situ diversification and the component of
167 phylogenetic history that came from another region. Following this rationale, we can notice that

168 community 1 is assembled only by in-situ diversification (Fig. 2c), community 2 by in-situ
 169 diversification and historical dispersal from region B (Fig. 2d), and community 3 is mainly
 170 assembled by a historical dispersal event from region B (Fig. 2e).

171



172

173 Figure 2: Schematic Figure illustrating the decomposition of macroevolutionary history
 174 dynamics performed by Herodotools. Purple branches in the tree correspond to the evolutionary
 175 history that emerged from historical dispersal events, and orange branches emerged from in-situ
 176 diversification. (a) represents a phylogenetic hypothesis with an ancestral area reconstruction
 177 (letters in each node); (b) illustrates the occurrence of species in each assemblage and the biome

178 of the assemblage; (c), (d), and (e) represents three different hypothetical scenarios of
179 macroevolutionary history for each assemblage.

180 In the next section we explain in more detail the main functions present in Herodotools
181 package and some specific functions that are only possible due to the integration between
182 macroevolutionary information with assemblage data.

183

184 *Phylogenetic regionalization and shifts in phylogenetic turnover across bioregions*

185 Methods aiming to define biogeographic regions based on either taxonomic (Edler et al., 2016;
186 Holt et al., 2013; Kreft & Jetz, 2010; Olivero et al., 2013; Vilhena & Antonelli, 2015) or
187 phylogenetic relationships among species of a given biological group (Daru et al., 2020; Holt et
188 al., 2013; Maestri & Duarte, 2020) has been intensively developed over the last decade, using
189 different site resemblance and clustering methods. While all methods are valuable as
190 classification tools for historical biogeography and evolutionary macroecology, bioregions
191 defined from either species composition or the Simpson index of phylogenetic beta diversity
192 (Holt, et al. 2013; Daru et al., 2020) might lead to the detection of evolutionarily unreal
193 biogeographic regions, as regions arising from classifications might lack a coherent, shared
194 history of diversification. It occurs because site resemblance and clustering methods neglect the
195 detection of /can not identify transition zones, i.e., regions where sites show low phylogenetic
196 affinity to their respective biogeographic regions (Maestri & Duarte 2020). On the other hand,
197 classifying biogeographic regions based on ecoregions (Maestri & Duarte 2020) enables
198 mapping biogeographic transition zones in addition to core biogeographic regions, better
199 showing intricate species distributions and facilitating the interpretation of biogeographic
200 regions.

201 As an interesting development, evoregions also allow interpreting the historical
202 development of each biogeographic region directly along with the diversification history of a
203 lineage represented as a phylogenetic tree (e.g., Fig 2 in Duarte and Maestri, 2018). Thus,
204 evoregions is a useful methodological approach for historical biogeography and evolutionary
205 macroecology whenever unveiling the geographical history of diversification is a primary goal.
206 Phylogenetic classification with evoregions can be performed using the function *evoregions()*,
207 and detecting phylogenetic turnover zones can be done by using the function *affiliation_evoreg()*
208 in Herodotools package.

209

210 *Metrics for inference of historical processes at assemblage level*

211 One of the main drawbacks in ecology and evolution is the integration of historical processes
212 into the assemblage level (Mouquet et al., 2012). Herodotools fill this gap by implementing a set
213 of metrics that can be calculated at the assemblage level, thereby showing historical processes at
214 assemblage level. The first metric is the age of assemblage, explained in the previous section and
215 calculated with the function *age_arrival()*. We also implemented tip-based metrics of
216 diversification that account for macroevolutionary history. For example, the function
217 *db_diversification()* modified the commonly used Diversification Rate metric (DR; Jetz et al.,
218 2012) calculated as the inverse of the mean equal-splits measure (Redding & Mooers, 2006) as
219 follows:

$$220 \quad DR_i = \left(\sum_{j=1}^{N_i} l_j \frac{1}{2^{j-1}} \right) \text{Equation 1}$$

221 In our modification, instead of using all the paths from species i to the root, being l_j the length of
222 the edge j , we used for calculation only the edges j that emerged after the arrival of species

223 lineage in the regions where the assemblage is placed. With this modification, we obtained a DR
224 metric that accounts only for in-situ diversification.

225 We also implemented popular ecophylogenetic metrics, such as Phylogenetic Diversity
226 (PD Faith, 1992) and Phylogenetic Endemism (Rosauer et al., 2009), that account for in-situ
227 diversification by applying the same rationale. For PD and PE, we modified the original metrics
228 by using only the branch lengths that emerged after the arrival and establishment of the species
229 lineages in an assemblage's region. We then obtained what we called a 'diversification-based
230 PD' and 'PE'.

231

232 *Mapping trait evolution dynamics over space*

233 To be possible to scale up macroevolution to a macroecological assemblage-based level of
234 analysis, methods should provide species-specific data. A few existent metrics are designed to
235 gather species-specific evolutionary data directly from phylogenies, including estimates of tip-
236 based diversification (Jetz et al., 2012; Redding & Mooers, 2006; Title & Rabosky, 2019), and
237 tip-based trait evolutionary rates (Castiglione et al., 2018). However, these metrics cannot handle
238 temporal variation in trait states and age/time of trait appearance in the history of a
239 clade/phylogeny. To tackle this issue, Luza et al., (2021) formulated an analytical framework
240 that allows analyzing species-specific rates and tempo of (discrete) trait evolution by proposing
241 three new tip-based metrics: i) transition rates, ii) stasis time, and the iii) last transition time.
242 Briefly, these metrics capture the evolutionary history of trait changes from the root to each
243 current species and summarize it in species-specific number of trait state changes (transition
244 rates), the total evolutionary time without change (stasis time), and time since the last change
245 (last transition time). Those metrics can be projected at the assemblage level, for example, by

246 simply averaging species “traits” within assemblages, whereby it is possible inferring ecological
247 and historical processes shaping the rates and tempo of trait evolution in local assemblages.
248 These three tip-based metrics can be calculated with the function *tip_based_trait_evo*.

249

250 *Historical biogeography of Akodon genus*

251 To demonstrate the functionalities of Herodotools, we analyzed a data set of 732 assemblages of
252 the genus *Akodon*. *Akodon* is one of the most species-rich and widely distributed genera of
253 mammals in the Neotropics (Patton et al., 2007, Mammal Diversity Database 2022).

254 Geographically, its 41 described species form two hotspots of richness, one in the Atlantic Forest
255 and the other in Central Andes, dominating the more inclusive richness pattern of its tribe, the
256 Akodontini (Maestri & Patterson 2016), and overall forming a “dumbbell” richness pattern
257 (Pardiñas et al. 2015) also due to its absence in Amazonia. Such bimodal richness peaks and the
258 phylogenetic distribution of its species cast doubt on the geographic origins of the genus, with
259 hypotheses along the years lending support for either an Andean or an Atlantic center of
260 origination and main diversification of the inclusive tribe (Reig, 1987; D’Elía & Pardiñas 2015;
261 Maestri et al. 2019).

262 To calculate the importance of in-situ diversification, historical dispersal events and
263 estimate the age of assemblages, we first applied a phylogenetic regionalization method based on
264 evolutionary turnover (Maestri & Duarte, 2020) implemented in the function *evoregion()* of
265 Herodotools package. Based on the groups generated by the phylogenetic regionalization, we
266 estimated species' ancestral range using BioGeoBEARS (Matzke, 2013). We built six different
267 models implemented in BioGeoBears: DIVA, DEC, and BayArea; each with and without a jump
268 parameter. Details of model construction and the code used can be found in the online resource

269 (https://gabrielnakamura.github.io/Herodotools/articles/Intro_Herodotools_vignette.html). We
270 allowed species to belong to up to three biomes. We performed a model selection using Akaike
271 Information Criterion (AIC) to select the best model for ancestral range estimates. Three models
272 (DEC, DEC+J, and BayArea) presented $\Delta AIC < 2$ and were considered equivalent. We chose the
273 DEC model for further analysis because it has the lowest AIC value and has fewer model
274 parameters. The selected model was then used in Herodotools to calculate metrics that represent
275 historical processes at assemblage level. Specifically, we calculated: 1) the age of each
276 assemblage as the mean age in which the ancestors of each present-day species arrived and
277 established in the region of a given cell (function *age_arrival*); 2) In-situ diversification rates,
278 obtained by calculating the tip-based rate of diversification for each species as being the inverse
279 of equal splits metric (Jetz et al., 2012; Redding & Mooers, 2006), but now considering only the
280 branches of the lineage that emerged from an in-situ diversification process (function
281 *db_diversification*); 3) The contribution of historical dispersal events for each assemblage,
282 represented as the percentage of species that dispersed from a focal ancestral range for all other
283 regions. The assemblages comprised 1x1 grids (110 x 110 km around the Equator).

284 Finally, we analyzed the macroevolutionary dynamics of traits by calculating transition
285 rates, as the number of times a character change over the evolution of a lineage. Stasis time
286 represents the maximum time span in which the current character state of lineage was maintained
287 in the evolutionary history, and the last transition time as being the sum of branch lengths from
288 the tip to the prior/previous node with a reconstructed character equal to the current tip-character
289 (Luza et al., 2021). The results of trait macroevolutionary dynamics are shown only in the online
290 supplement

291 (https://gabrielnakamura.github.io/Herodotools/articles/Intro_Herodotools_vignette.html), as

292 well as other examples illustrating the use of additional functions implemented in Herodotools
293 package.

294

295 **Results**

296 *Regionalization with evoregion and assemblage ages*

297 In our empirical example using the genus *Akodon*, Evoregion D captures a mix of species from
298 the four species complexes within *Akodon*: *boliviensis*, *cursor*, *aerosus*, and *dolores*. We found
299 components of all these complexes within Evoregion D, culminating in its central position where
300 the richness peak is located, plus idiosyncrasies such as the occurrence of *A. lindberghi*, a species
301 whose species group is not easily defined (Gonçalves et al. 2007; Jayat et al. 2010; Coyner et al.
302 2013). Members of the *cursor* group clearly define Evoregion A; evoregion C is mainly related to
303 the group *boliviensis* plus *A. azarae*; evoregion E is primarily determined by members of the
304 *aerosus* group; and evoregion B by members of the *dolores* group. Furthermore, regarding the
305 affiliation of assemblages to each evoregion, we can observe that the lowest values of affiliation
306 are found close to the boundaries of evoregions. Furthermore, evoregion D and the south portion
307 of evoregion A presented the lowest affiliation values (i.e., when a cell has a low chance of
308 belonging to the region in which it was classified), indicating zones of high phylogenetic
309 turnover and multiple colonization events (Supplementary online material).

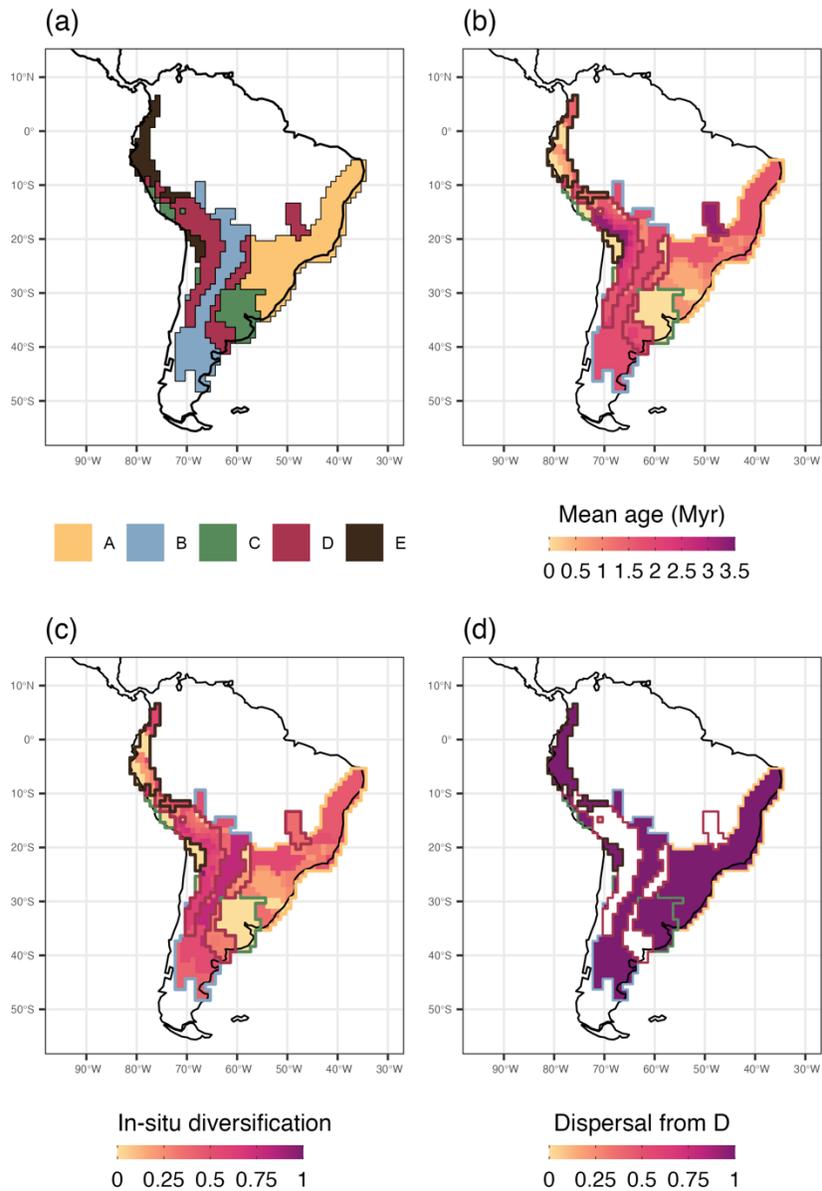
310

311 *Assemblage level metrics – Age, diversification, and model-based diversification*

312 Our estimates of assemblage age indicates that assemblages did not present high variation in the
313 age in which ancestors arrived and colonized the assemblages, except for evoregions C and E

314 that presented the most recent assemblages. On the other hand, ancient assemblages are within
315 regions B and D (Fig. 3b).

316 The diversification and the model-based diversification metrics showed similar spatial
317 patterns, with higher values of in situ diversification in the evoregion B, with some assemblages
318 presenting almost all the diversification occurring inside this region (Fig. 3c). On the other hand,
319 evoregion C was the one that presented assemblages with lowest values of in-situ diversification.
320 Together, age of assemblages and in-situ diversification patterns reflected the explosive
321 diversification in a few million years of *Akodon* assemblages.



322

323 Figure 3: Spatial representation of evoregions (a), and historical variables (b-d). (b) represents
 324 the age of assemblages, (c) the in-situ diversification as a proportion of the total diversification
 325 (calculated as the DR metric) and (d) represents the proportion of contribution of region D with
 326 lineages for all other evoregions.

327

328 *Historical dispersal patterns*

329 Our analysis of historical dispersal showed that evoregion D was the region that most contributed
330 with lineages dispersal for other evoregions. Assemblages in evoregions A, B, C and E were
331 almost entirely constituted of lineages from evoregion D (Fig. 3d). On the other hand, evoregions
332 A and B presented only a little contribution regarding lineage dispersal. The contribution of other
333 regions for lineage dispersal events are shown in the online Supplementary material
334 (https://gabrielnakamura.github.io/Herodotools/articles/Intro_Herodotools_vignette.html).

335

336 **Discussion**

337 Herodotools fills the gap between macroevolution and ecology by providing a computational
338 infrastructure of analysis that allows scaling historical variables at community and assemblage
339 levels (Mouquet et al., 2012). Our package allows investigating the importance of historical
340 processes acting on ecological communities at finer spatial grains than the usual approaches
341 focusing on entire bioregions or single lineages. Our package provides a direct quantification of
342 the effects of in-situ diversification and historical dispersal through the integration of
343 macroevolutionary models of ancestral state reconstruction (area and traits) in ecophylogenetics
344 (PD, PE) and other assemblage/community metrics like age, and trait dynamics metrics, what
345 allows moving ecophylogenetics from the pattern-to-process inference to a more mechanistic
346 approach.

347 Other approaches, like DAMOCLES (Pigot & Etienne, 2009), also allows to investigate
348 the macroevolutionary dynamics at community level, however it relies on a null model that
349 incorporate historical processes for testing whether there is non-randomness in community
350 phylogenetic structure. The methods presented in Herodotools differ from DAMOCLES since

351 the former aims to decompose the phylogenetic metrics in components that indicates two
352 opposite processes, in situ diversification and historical dispersal. In addition, it is worth to
353 mention the behavior of our metric of assemblage age compared to other existing approaches.
354 Estimates of age for bioregions are of great value to test historical competing hypotheses in
355 macroecology, like out of the tropics (OTT) and tropical niche conservatism (Wiens &
356 Donoghue, 2004b). Consequently, it is important to derive metrics that reliably reflect these
357 characteristics of assemblages. Our proposition of age differs from previous studies (Wiens et al.,
358 2011, 2011; Wiens & Donoghue, 2004b) by allowing the calculation of age for each lineage (tip-
359 based) from an assemblage-based perspective. This means that a species can have different times
360 of colonization depending on the assemblage and region where it occurs. This characteristic also
361 applies for other metrics of Herodotools such as DR, PD and PE. Furthermore, instead of
362 providing a single age for an entire region, in our proposition the age is variable within a region,
363 since each assemblage might present different species composition. One possible topic of
364 investigation for future studies is the implications of different age estimates to explain
365 macroecological patterns (Wiens et al., 2011; Wiens & Graham, 2005).

366 The metrics implemented in Herodotools can also be used in common hypothesis testing
367 frameworks as, for example, linear models relating age and diversity, or diversification and
368 biodiversity at assemblage level. Regarding our empirical example, ecoregions for the genus
369 *Akodon* depict the differential geographic distribution of its internal monophyletic groups (or
370 subclades) according to the phylogeny used here (Maestri et al., 2017; Upham et al., 2019),
371 which also closely match other phylogenetic propositions, such as the distribution of the four
372 monophyletic species groups / complexes proposed for the genus, the *aerosus*, *boliviensis*,
373 *cursor* and *dolores* species groups (Coyner et al. 2013). These species groups are not undisputed

374 (see Jayat et al. 2010, Pardiñas et al. 2015) but the overall pattern for the genus' bioregions is
375 likely to be similar under different species groups and phylogenetic propositions if the backbone
376 phylogeny is proven to be similar. Unsurprisingly, dispersal from evoregion D to others was
377 found to be the most prominent compared to dispersal deriving from other evoregions, given the
378 very nature of evoregion D as a high-richness region whose members are found phylogenetically
379 widespread. Generally, the empirical analysis illustrates how Herodotools can be used to
380 investigate questions that are in the intersection of macroevolution and macroecology (McGill et
381 al., 2019), since our package allows to obtain variables that represent historical components of
382 macroevolutionary dynamics (in-situ diversification, historical dispersal, age) at the assemblage
383 scales.

384 Future improvements consist in implementation of functions that allows to handle with
385 and integrate macroevolutionary models from other popular programs like RevBayes (Landis et
386 al., 2013). We envision constantly improvements in package to make the integration among
387 macroevolutionary models and assemblage data easier and straightforward, in a way that
388 Herodotools can work as the main toolkit for researchers in macroevolution and macroecology to
389 be integrated in the same endeavor: to disentangle the ecological and evolutionary processes
390 creating and maintaining biodiversity.

391

392 **Data availability statement**

393 All data used in this work is publicly available at

394 <https://github.com/GabrielNakamura/Herodotools/tree/main/inst/extdata>.

395

396 **References**

- 397 Bollback, J.P. SIMMAP: Stochastic character mapping of discrete traits on phylogenies. *BMC*
398 *Bioinformatics* **7**, 88 (2006). <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2105-7-88>
- 399 Castiglione, S., Tesone, G., Piccolo, M., Melchionna, M., Mondanaro, A., Serio, C., Di Febbraro,
400 M., & Raia, P. (2018). A new method for testing evolutionary rate variation and shifts in
401 phenotypic evolution. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, *9*(4), 974–983.
402 <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12954>
- 403 Cavender-Bares, J., Kozak, K. H., Fine, P. V. a., & Kembel, S. W. (2009). The merging of
404 community ecology and phylogenetic biology. *Ecology Letters*, *12*, 693–715.
405 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2009.01314.x>
- 406 Crouch, N. M. A., Capurcho, J. M. G., Hackett, S. J., & Bates, J. M. (2019). Evaluating the
407 contribution of dispersal to community structure in Neotropical passerine birds.
408 *Ecography*, *42*(2), 390–399. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ecog.03927>
- 409 Daru, B. H., Karunarathne, P., & Schliep, K. (2020). phyloregion: R package for biogeographical
410 regionalization and macroecology. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, *11*(11), 1483–
411 1491. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13478>
- 412 Edler, D., Guedes, T., Zizka, A., Rosvall, M., & Antonelli, A. (2016). Infomap Bioregions:
413 Interactive Mapping of Biogeographical Regions from Species Distributions. *Systematic*
414 *Biology*, syw087. <https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syw087>
- 415 Faith, D. P. (1992). Conservation evaluation and phylogenetic diversity. *Biological*
416 *Conservation*, *61*, 1–10. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-3207\(92\)91201-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-3207(92)91201-3)

417 Gerhold, P., Cahill, J. F., Winter, M., Bartish, I. V., & Prinzing, A. (2015). Phylogenetic patterns
418 are not proxies of community assembly mechanisms (they are far better). *Functional*
419 *Ecology*, 29(5), 600–614. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.12425>

420 Holt, B. G., Lessard, J.-P., Borregaard, M. K., Fritz, S. A., Araújo, M. B., Dimitrov, D., Fabre,
421 P.-H., Graham, C. H., Graves, G. R., Jønsson, K. A., Nogués-Bravo, D., Wang, Z.,
422 Whittaker, R. J., Fjeldså, J., & Rahbek, C. (2013). An Update of Wallace’s
423 Zoogeographic Regions of the World. *Science*, 339(6115), 74–78.
424 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1228282>

425 Jetz, W., Thomas, G. H., Joy, J. B., Hartmann, K., & Mooers, A. O. (2012). The global diversity
426 of birds in space and time. *Nature*, 491(7424), 444–448.
427 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature11631>

428 Kreft, H., & Jetz, W. (2010). A framework for delineating biogeographical regions based on
429 species distributions: Global quantitative biogeographical regionalizations. *Journal of*
430 *Biogeography*, 37(11), 2029–2053. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2010.02375.x>

431 Landis, M. J., Matzke, N. J., Moore, B. R., & Huelsenbeck, J. P. (2013). Bayesian analysis of
432 biogeography when the number of areas is large. *Systematic Biology*, 62(6), 789–804.
433 <https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syt040>

434 Luza, A. L., Maestri, R., Debastiani, V. J., Patterson, B. D., Maria, S., & Leandro, H. (2021). Is
435 evolution faster at ecotones? A test using rates and tempo of diet transitions in
436 Neotropical Sigmodontinae (Rodentia , Cricetidae). *Ecology and Evolution*, December,
437 18676–18690. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ece3.8476>

438 Maestri, R., & Duarte, L. D. S. (2020). Evoregions: Mapping shifts in phylogenetic turnover
439 across biogeographic regions Renan Maestri. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*,
440 2020(August), 1652–1662. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13492>

441 Maestri, R., Monteiro, L. R., Fornel, R., Upham, N. S., Patterson, B. D., & de Freitas, T. R. O.
442 (2017). The ecology of a continental evolutionary radiation: Is the radiation of
443 sigmodontine rodents adaptive? *Evolution*, 71(3), 610–632.
444 <https://doi.org/10.1111/evo.13155>

445 Maestri, R., Upham, N. S., & Patterson, B. D. (2019a). Tracing the diversification history of a
446 Neogene rodent invasion into South America. *Ecography*, 42(4), 683–695.
447 <https://doi.org/10.1111/ecog.04102>

448 Maestri, R., Upham, N. S., & Patterson, B. D. (2019b). Tracing the diversification history of a
449 Neogene rodent invasion into South America. *Ecography*, 42(4), 683–695.
450 <https://doi.org/10.1111/ecog.04102>

451 Matzke, N. J. (2013). Probabilistic historical biogeography: New models for founder-event
452 speciation, imperfect detection, and fossils allow improved accuracy and model-testing.
453 *Frontiers of Biogeography*, 5(4). <https://doi.org/10.21425/f5fbg19694>

454 McGill, B. J., Chase, J. M., Hortal, J., Overcast, I., Rominger, A. J., Rosindell, J., Borges, P. A.
455 V., Emerson, B. C., Etienne, R. S., Hickerson, M. J., Mahler, D. L., Massol, F.,
456 McGaughan, A., Neves, P., Parent, C., Patiño, J., Ruffley, M., Wagner, C. E., &
457 Gillespie, R. (2019). Unifying macroecology and macroevolution to answer fundamental
458 questions about biodiversity. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, 28(12), 1925–1936.
459 <https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.13020>

460 Mouquet, N., Devictor, V., Meynard, C. N., Munoz, F., Couteron, P., Dalecky, A., Gravel, D.,
461 Hardy, O. J., Jabot, F., Prinzing, A., Rodrigues, A. S. L., Rohr, R. P., & Thuiller, E. (2012).
462 Ecophylogenetics: Advances and perspectives. *Biological Reviews*, *87*, 769–785.
463 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-185X.2012.00224.x>

464 Münkemüller, T., Gallien, L., Pollock, L. J., Barros, C., Carboni, M., Chalmandrier, L., Mazel,
465 F., Mokany, K., Roquet, C., Smyčka, J., Talluto, M. V., & Thuiller, W. (2020). Dos and
466 don'ts when inferring assembly rules from diversity patterns. *Global Ecology and*
467 *Biogeography*, *July 2019*, 1212–1229. <https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.13098>

468 Olivero, J., Márquez, A. L., & Real, R. (2013). Integrating Fuzzy Logic and Statistics to Improve
469 the Reliable Delimitation of Biogeographic Regions and Transition Zones. *Systematic*
470 *Biology*, *62*(1), 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/sys061>

471 Patton, J. L., Pardiñas, U. F. J., & D'Elia, G. (2007). *Mammals of South America*. University of
472 Chicago press.

473 Redding, D. W., & Mooers, A. O. (2006). Incorporating evolutionary measures into conservation
474 prioritization. *Conservation Biology*, *20*(6), 1670–1678. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2006.00555.x)
475 [1739.2006.00555.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-1739.2006.00555.x)

476 Ricklefs, R. E. (1987). Community Diversity: Relative Roles of Local and Regional Processes.
477 *Science*, *235*(4785), 167–171. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.235.4785.167>

478 Ricklefs, R. E., & Jenkins, D. G. (2011). Biogeography and ecology: Towards the integration of
479 two disciplines. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*,
480 *366*(1576), 2438–2448. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2011.0066>

481 Rosauer, D., Laffan, S. W., Crisp, M. D., Donnellan, S. C., & Cook, L. G. (2009). Phylogenetic
482 endemism: A new approach for identifying geographical concentrations of evolutionary

483 history. *Molecular Ecology*, 18(19), 4061–4072. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365->
484 294X.2009.04311.x

485 Title, P. O., & Rabosky, D. L. (2019). Tip rates, phylogenies and diversification: What are we
486 estimating, and how good are the estimates? *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 10(6),
487 821–834. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13153>

488 Upham, N. S., Esselstyn, J. A., & Jetz, W. (2019). Inferring the mammal tree: Species-level sets
489 of phylogenies for questions in ecology, evolution, and conservation. *PLOS Biology*,
490 17(12), e3000494. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.3000494>

491 Van Dijk, A., Nakamura, G., Rodrigues, A. V., Maestri, R., & Duarte, L. (2021). Imprints of
492 tropical niche conservatism and historical dispersal in the radiation of Tyrannidae (Aves:
493 Passeriformes). *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society*, 134(1), 57–67.
494 <https://doi.org/10.1093/biolinnean/blab079>

495 Vilhena, D. A., & Antonelli, A. (2015). A network approach for identifying and delimiting
496 biogeographical regions. *Nature Communications*, 6.
497 <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms7848>

498 Wiens, J. J., & Donoghue, M. J. (2004a). Historical biogeography, ecology and species richness.
499 *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, 19(12), 639–644.
500 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2004.09.011>

501 Wiens, J. J., & Donoghue, M. J. (2004b). Historical biogeography, ecology and species richness.
502 *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, 19(12), 639–644.
503 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2004.09.011>

504 Wiens, J. J., & Graham, C. H. (2005). Niche Conservatism: Integrating Evolution, Ecology, and
505 Conservation Biology. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics*, 36(36),
506 519–539. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.36.102803.095431>

507 Wiens, J. J., Pyron, R. A., & Moen, D. S. (2011). Phylogenetic origins of local-scale diversity
508 patterns and the causes of Amazonian megadiversity: Phylogeny and local richness.
509 *Ecology Letters*, 14(7), 643–652. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2011.01625.x>

510

