

1       **Thermophilization and reshuffling of montane leaf beetle**  
2                               **communities over a two decade period**

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18       **Running title:** Thermophilization and reshuffling of communities

19

20

21 **Abstract**

22 Given the sensitivity of mountain biodiversity to human pressure, it is essential to quantify  
23 changes in montane biological communities and contrast them with expectations based on  
24 potential drivers of change. This need is particularly pressing for biological groups representing  
25 important but little-studied fractions of biodiversity, such as insects. We analyze the temporal  
26 changes (between 1998 and 2015) of leaf beetle communities in an altitudinal gradient in the  
27 Sierra de Ancares (NW Spain). Our results show temporal changes in the composition of local  
28 communities, with a tendency to assemblage thermophilization, as well as a homogenization  
29 of the spatial turnover pattern, mostly driven by an increased similarity between communities  
30 at the lower and intermediate altitudes. These temporal changes in community composition  
31 and in the spatial structure of biodiversity were associated with upward shifts of the upper  
32 altitudinal limit of warm-adapted species, and with downward shifts of the lower altitudinal  
33 limit of cold-adapted species. While this upward shift is consistent with expectations of climate  
34 change effects, the observed downward shift suggests a land use change effect. Our results  
35 point to the joint effect of multiple factors (climate and land-use change) behind temporal  
36 changes of these leaf beetle communities, which result in compositional reorganization and  
37 biotic homogenization, rather than a mere coherent displacement towards higher altitudes.  
38 More generally, we show that understanding temporal change of biodiversity requires  
39 assessing multiple community-level metrics (e.g., variation in assemblage composition and/or  
40 changes in spatial turnover) for the detection of tendencies among the species-specific signals  
41 (e.g., altitudinal range shifts).

42

43 **Keywords:** Coleoptera, community homogenization, community reshuffling, elevational shift,  
44 insects, temporal beta diversity, temporal turnover, thermophilization, upward range shift

45

## 46 **1. Introduction**

47 Climate warming is a major driver of biodiversity change in montane ecosystems (Guisan et al.,  
48 2019). Tracking of their suitable climates along environmental gradients is causing species to  
49 shift their distribution ranges (Parmesan & Yohe, 2003; Parmesan, 2006; Chen et al., 2011;  
50 Lenoir & Svenning, 2015) and species range shifts, in turn, are causing the reconfiguration of  
51 communities and ecosystems (Sundqvist et al., 2013). Although climate warming is expected to  
52 cause upward range shifts, empirical assessments have proven this to be more a tendency  
53 than an ubiquitous response, showing complex and varied responses among species (Freeman  
54 et al., 2018; Rumpf et al., 2019). In fact, not all species are expected to shift their ranges  
55 (Parmesan, 2019), as some may alternatively cope with raising temperatures through  
56 physiological mechanisms, behavioral thermoregulation and/or phenological shifts (Bellard et  
57 al., 2012; Pinsky et al., 2022). Moreover, climate change interacts with other processes, such  
58 as land use change, which is also another major driver of biodiversity loss (Jaureguiberry et al.,  
59 2022). Therefore, a key question is how land use and climate-driven range shifts at the species  
60 level aggregate into changes of biological communities at the local and regional scale. Such  
61 local and regional changes, occurring at short time periods and scales, are of special relevance  
62 as they may reflect global biodiversity changes happening in the near future (Parmesan, 2019).

63 Biodiversity change has many dimensions (McGill et al., 2015) that provide different  
64 insights into how communities are being restructured (Dornelas et al., 2023). For instance,  
65 species richness may be insufficient to detect temporal changes in community composition  
66 (i.e., temporal turnover) that may affect the dynamics and functioning of communities and  
67 ecosystems (Dornelas et al., 2014; McGill et al., 2015; Magurran et al., 2019). Beyond temporal  
68 turnover, the assessment of other important dimensions of diversity, such as temporal  
69 variation in spatial turnover, should also be incorporated in studies of biodiversity change  
70 (McGill et al., 2015; Hillebrand et al., 2018). While highly interconnected, measures of  
71 temporal turnover do not quantify temporal changes in spatial turnover (Baselga et al., 2015a),

72 as either regional community homogenization (i.e., decrease in spatial turnover among  
73 localities) or differentiation could result from local processes of temporal turnover (Dornelas  
74 et al., 2023). Thus, a comprehensive understanding of changes in diversity patterns along  
75 altitudinal gradients should account for changes at the species level (i.e., range shifts), changes  
76 in local community composition (i.e., species richness and temporal turnover in species  
77 composition) and changes in the spatial structure of communities (i.e., temporal changes in  
78 spatial turnover).

79 Our knowledge of how biological diversity responds to climate change is biased towards  
80 some biological groups and regions (Pilotto et al., 2020). For instance, insects are expected to  
81 be highly affected by climate change (Harvey et al., 2023), but our empirical knowledge is  
82 limited and based on a few taxonomic groups (McCain & Garfinkel, 2021), such as  
83 lepidopterans and some particular pest species, for which long-term monitoring data are  
84 available (e.g., Cannon, 1998; Pöyry et al., 2009; Wilson & Maclean, 2011; De Grandpré et al.,  
85 2018; Halsch et al., 2021). However, heat tolerance largely varies among individuals,  
86 populations, and species (Colinet et al., 2015; González-Tokman et al., 2020) and hence,  
87 extrapolation from one taxonomic group to another is compromised. Moreover, in the case of  
88 highly specialized herbivore species, such as leaf beetles (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae), their  
89 response will be highly mediated by the response of their host plants, which will be affected by  
90 climate warming but also by the associated drought stress and, particularly, by land use  
91 change. While current efforts to compile temporal data on insect communities (van Klink et al.,  
92 2021) will likely ameliorate our knowledge gap, we still need to empirically document changes  
93 of the less studied groups. This is particularly important in the context of global insect declines  
94 (Sánchez-Bayo & Wyckhuys, 2019; Wagner, 2020), as Román-Palacios & Wiens (2020)  
95 suggested that more than half of insect species may not be able to adjust their distributions  
96 rapidly enough to avoid extinction. This may be exacerbated by the interaction with other

97 global change drivers, such as land-use changes, that are also affecting insect trends (Neff et  
98 al., 2022).

99 We here study (i) the temporal changes in the species' altitudinal upper and lower limits,  
100 (ii) the temporal changes in species richness and community composition (temporal turnover)  
101 and (iii) the temporal changes in spatial turnover, for a hyper-diverse family of beetles (leaf  
102 beetles, Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae) in a mountainous system at the interface of the  
103 Eurosiberian and Mediterranean regions over a ca. two decade period (from 1998 to 2010-  
104 2015). While empirical observations limit the attribution of biodiversity change (Gonzalez et  
105 al., 2023), it is still important to document patterns of change and contrast them with  
106 expectations based on main potential drivers. For instance, climate change is expected to  
107 cause an upward shift trend in species altitudinal ranges, while land use change could cause  
108 shifts in any direction of the altitudinal gradient, depending on how the mosaic of habitats has  
109 changed over time. Even in the case of upward altitudinal shifts, we need to focus separately  
110 on both the upper and lower range boundaries because there is an expectation that climate  
111 warming would produce upward shifts of either the upper limit (leading edge expansions) or  
112 the lower limit (rear edge contractions), depending on the thermal niche position and breadth  
113 of each species. An analogous expectation of asymmetrical patterns has been formulated for  
114 latitudinal gradients (Parmesan, 2019). In particular, we can predict that upward shifts in the  
115 upper limit should be more marked in warm adapted species, as higher sites become warmer  
116 and hence within their thermal niche. In contrast, upward shifts in the lower limit should be  
117 more marked in cold adapted species, as lower sites become too warm and hence out of their  
118 thermal niches.

119

## 120 **2. Material and Methods**

## 121 2.1. Community data

122 The Sierra de Ancares is a mountain range of the Galician Massif in the NW of the Iberian  
123 Peninsula. Altitude ranges from 400 to nearly 2000 meters and the natural vegetation is  
124 dominated by Pyrenean oaks (*Quercus pyrenaica* Willd.) at low to middle altitudes, and sessile  
125 oaks (*Q. petraea* (Matt.) Liebl) and Iberian white birch (*Betula celtiberica* Rothm. & Vasc.) at  
126 higher altitudes. These forests are interspaced by chestnuts (*Castanea sativa* Miller), human  
127 managed grasslands and meadows, shrubs dominated by *Cytisus multiflorus* (L'Hér.) Sweet and  
128 *Genista florida* L., and heathlands dominated by *Erica australis* L., which occupy large  
129 extensions at higher altitudes. Large areas have been planted with Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris*  
130 L.) but were not sampled in this study. The climate has suffered a warming tendency, as  
131 estimated from historical climatic data (1980-2020) from close meteorological stations  
132 (AEMET, Lugo and Ponferrada): mean annual temperature has increased at a rate between  
133 0.031°C (Lugo) and 0.037°C (Ponferrada) per year (Figs. S1-S2 in Supporting Information). In  
134 turn, precipitation has not shown any significant trend. In parallel, land use changes associated  
135 with the abandonment of traditional agriculture and extensive livestock systems have led the  
136 transformation of grasslands into heathlands and woodlands (Álvarez-Martínez et al., 2014).

137 Phytophagous beetle communities were intensively sampled at three different sites of the  
138 NW slope of the mountain range on two consecutive days in 2010 (20-21 of June) and three  
139 consecutive days in 2015 (28-30 of May): (i) low-altitude site: Liber (Navia River), 450 m; (ii)  
140 intermediate-altitude site: Os Cabaniños, 1000 m; and (iii) high-altitude site: Degrada, 1300 m  
141 (see Figure 1). At each site, beetle communities were sampled by one (2010) or two collectors  
142 (2015) with entomological sweeping nets in 30-minute periods (hereinafter, samples), with the  
143 number of samples ranging from 20 to 24 per day. A total of 88 samples (20 in 2010 and 68 in  
144 2015) were collected: 32 in the low-altitude site, 38 in the intermediate-altitude site, and 18 in  
145 the high-altitude site. All specimens were preserved in 96° ethanol and stored in a -20°C  
146 freezer until sample processing for species sorting and identification.

147 Community profiling was focused on leaf beetles (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae), which  
148 were separated from other families and identified to the species level using a stereo  
149 microscope (Nikon 212734). Specimens were identified using the keys provided in the  
150 taxonomic monographs for the European (Warchalowski, 2003) and the Iberian (Petitpierre,  
151 2000; Petitpierre, 2019) leaf beetle faunas. Taxonomic identification was confirmed with the  
152 sequencing of the *cox1-5'* for all specimens collected in 2010 as part of a community  
153 phylogeography study (Baselga et al., 2015b). Regarding specimens collected in 2015, DNA-  
154 based identification was only used for specimens belonging to the genera *Apthona*,  
155 *Psylliodes*, and *Longitarsus* (see Appendix S1 in Supporting Information). After identification,  
156 we built a presence/absence table of leaf beetle species in the three sample sites.

157 To assess temporal changes in diversity patterns, 2010-2015 leaf beetle communities  
158 were compared to those of 1998 (Baselga & Novoa, 2000). This dataset was built from an  
159 extensive, non-systematic survey in the Ancares mountain range from February to October  
160 1998 (Figure 1). Previous analyses have shown this inventory to be complete (Baselga &  
161 Novoa, 2006). The collecting method was identical (sweeping nets), but instead of the  
162 intensive, standardized sampling performed in 2010 and 2015, multiple sites were loosely  
163 visited multiple times over a longer time period. From this 1998 dataset we built two  
164 community tables. The first one consisted of the species presence/absence table for the 20  
165 sites below or at 1300 m in the NW slope of the mountain range. This dataset was used to  
166 compare elevational shifts within the same altitudinal range sampled in 2010-2015. The  
167 second one consisted of the aggregation of some of these localities (listed below) into low,  
168 intermediate and high-altitude sites in order to compare them with the communities sampled  
169 in 2010-2015. Because the sampling campaign in 1998 was extensive and non-systematic,  
170 presence data for the low and high-altitude sites were complemented with records from  
171 nearby localities at similar altitude. Thus, low-altitude data included Cancelada, Higón, Líber,  
172 Vilapún and Vilasante sampling sites (Baselga & Novoa, 2000; all between 500 and 550 m

173 a.s.l.), intermediate-altitude data included the same sampling site (Os Cabaniños), which was  
174 thoroughly sampled in 1998, and the high-altitude data included Cabana Vella, Campa de  
175 Brego and Degrada (all 1300 m a.s.l.). This presence/absence table was used to quantify the  
176 differences in species richness and composition (temporal turnover) between 1998 and 2010-  
177 2015, as well as to assess the changes in spatial turnover patterns between both time periods.

178

## 179 **2.2. Data analysis**

180 To assess how leaf beetle communities have changed over time (1998 *versus* 2010-2015) we  
181 measured, at the community level, (i) the temporal changes in species richness and community  
182 composition (temporal turnover), (ii) the temporal changes in spatial turnover and, at the  
183 species level, (iii) the temporal changes in the species' altitudinal upper and lower limits.  
184 Temporal and spatial differences in community composition were quantified with dissimilarity  
185 indices that independently account for species replacement between sites (i.e., species  
186 turnover) and nestedness (in which the species in the poorest sites are subsets of the ones in  
187 the richest sites). We have used presence/absence data and the Sorensen's family of indices to  
188 partition total beta diversity (Sorensen's index,  $\beta_{sor}$ ) into turnover (Simpson index,  $\beta_{sim}$ ) and  
189 nestedness-resultant ( $\beta_{sne}$ ) components following the framework introduced by Baselga (2010)  
190 and implemented in *betapart* (Baselga & Orme, 2012), with function `beta.pair()`.

191 To complement the temporal analysis at the community level, we measured changes in  
192 species altitudinal ranges between 1998 and 2010-2015. Altitudinal ranges are predicted to  
193 change differently in cold adapted species (upward shift of their lower latitudinal limit) than in  
194 warm adapted species (upward shift of their upper altitudinal limit). Because we lack  
195 physiological measurements of the climatic niches of leaf beetle species, we approximate them  
196 by characterizing their geographical distributions and assigning them to one of the following  
197 chorotypes: Iberian, Mediterranean (i.e., species distributed around the Mediterranean basin),  
198 Northern (i.e., species distributed in the Eurosiberian region) and Widely Distributed species

199 (i.e., species distributed both in the Mediterranean and Eurosiberian regions). Mediterranean  
200 and Northern species can be approximated to warm and cold adapted species, respectively,  
201 based on the climatic characteristics of the Mediterranean and Eurosiberian biogeographic  
202 regions. Iberian and Widely Distributed species cannot be clearly linked to any particular  
203 climatic requirements because Iberian endemic species are usually associated with mountains  
204 of warm and cold climates, and Widely Distributed species can live both in cold and warm  
205 climates too. However, these two chorotypes are still useful as a benchmark to which compare  
206 the altitudinal shifts of Mediterranean and Northern species. Chorotype categories are based  
207 on Baselga & Novoa (2000), who established these four main categories grouping the  
208 chorotypes introduced by Vigna Taglianti et al., (1992) for the West Palaearctic fauna.

209       Temporal shifts in altitudinal ranges were then measured for the species that were  
210 detected in both sampling periods, quantifying the difference in minimum and maximum  
211 altitude at which each species was found in each period (i.e.,  $\Delta\text{Alt}_{\text{min}}$  = minimum altitude in  
212 2010-2015 minus minimum altitude in 1998;  $\Delta\text{Alt}_{\text{max}}$  = maximum altitude in 2010-2015 minus  
213 maximum altitude in 1998). From this, we estimated the distribution of altitudinal differences  
214 ( $\Delta\text{Alt}_{\text{min}}$  and  $\Delta\text{Alt}_{\text{max}}$ ) across species within each chorotype. Negative values in  $\Delta\text{Alt}$  thus  
215 indicate that species had a tendency to shift towards lower elevations, while positive values in  
216  $\Delta\text{Alt}$  indicate a shift towards higher elevations. To assess whether altitudinal shifts in any  
217 particular chorotype (Iberian, Mediterranean, Northern, or Wide Distribution) were  
218 statistically significant, we built a null model in which the assignation of species to chorotypes  
219 was randomized, and the null altitudinal shifts for each randomized chorotype were estimated  
220 10000 times. The null model thus produces the expected null distribution of altitudinal shifts,  
221 against which we compared the observed distribution for each particular chorotype. We also  
222 quantified the proportion of each chorotype at each altitude in 1998 and in 2010-2015, which  
223 would allow observing at the community level the effects of any systematic shift in the  
224 altitudinal ranges of particular chorotypes. All analyses were performed in R (R Core Team,

225 2021). The R code, metadata (Appendix S2) and data tables (Tables S1-S5) are provided as  
226 Supporting Information.

227

### 228 **3. Results**

229 A total of 1302 leaf beetles, belonging to 88 species, were collected in the three sites sampled  
230 in the 2010-2015 intensive survey (see Table S2 in Supplementary Information), with an  
231 average richness per site of  $S = 47.3 \pm 22.9$  (S.D.). Local richness values were slightly lower than  
232 the ones observed in 1998 (total richness,  $S = 99$ , with an average richness per altitudinal site  
233 of  $S = 43.3 \pm 31.5$  [S.D.], see Figure 2a). A total of 67 species were detected in both surveys.

234 The richness pattern along the altitudinal gradient in 2010-2015 differed from the one  
235 observed in 1998. The number of species at the high-altitude site was the lowest in both  
236 sampling periods (Figure 2a). However, species richness declined constantly with altitude in  
237 1998, while it slightly increased from low to intermediate altitude in 2010-2015. The temporal  
238 beta diversity pattern evidenced that community composition at each site has changed over  
239 time (Figure 2b). The higher community turnover component ( $\beta_{sim} = 0.53$ ) was observed in the  
240 low-altitude site, compared to the intermediate and high-altitude sites ( $\beta_{sor} \sim 0.4$ , see Figure  
241 2b). In contrast, the nestedness-resultant dissimilarity was relatively high in the high-altitude  
242 site ( $\beta_{sne} = 0.22$ ), and lower in the low and intermediate sites ( $\beta_{sne} < 0.07$ , see Figure 2b). The  
243 spatial turnover pattern evidenced that a marked turnover in species composition between  
244 the high-altitude and the low altitude site in both 2010-2015 and 1998 ( $\beta_{sim} = 0.44$  [1998] and  
245  $\beta_{sim} = 0.43$  [2010-2015], Figure 3). The most remarkable difference over time was the decrease  
246 in species turnover between the low and intermediate sites ( $\beta_{sim} = 0.52$  [1998] and  $\beta_{sim} = 0.35$   
247 [2010-2015], Figure 3), and the decrease in nestedness-resultant dissimilarity between the  
248 low-altitude and the high-altitude site ( $\beta_{sne} = 0.43$  [1998] and  $\beta_{sne} = 0.27$  [2010-2015], Figure 3).

249 The distribution of the different chorotypes along the altitudinal range showed that, in  
250 both time periods, Widely Distributed species were relatively abundant in the three altitudes

251 (Figure 4). The proportion of Iberian species increased towards higher elevations in both time  
252 periods, but the patterns were different between 1998 and 2010-2015 for Mediterranean and  
253 Northern species, as the former had increased its proportion in the highest site, whereas the  
254 latter had increased its proportion in the lowest site (Figure 4). These changes, observed at the  
255 community level, can also be detected as shifts in altitudinal ranges at the species level. In  
256 most cases, range shifts (both  $\Delta\text{Alt}_{\text{min}}$  and  $\Delta\text{Alt}_{\text{max}}$ ) were not systematic and tended to be  
257 centered around zero (Figure 5). However, the exceptions were the lower limit of the Northern  
258 species, which showed a tendency to shift towards lower elevations ( $p = 0.069$ ), and  
259 particularly the upper altitudinal limit of the Mediterranean species, which showed a tendency  
260 to shift towards higher elevations ( $p = 0.039$ ).

261

#### 262 **4. Discussion**

263 This study shows species-specific altitudinal shifts over a relatively short study period (ca. 20  
264 years), resulting in community reshuffling (i.e., temporal turnover) at all elevation sites in a  
265 mountain range in the south of Europe. Such variation in species' range dynamics would be  
266 associated with differences in their physiological and behavioural responses to a complex suite  
267 of environmental factors, likely including heat responses to climate change (González-Tokman  
268 et al., 2020) and land use change (Neff et al., 2022). Remarkably, we have observed differences  
269 in the direction of change among chorotypes, with Mediterranean species tending to move  
270 upward while the proportion of Northern species increased at lower elevations. This points to  
271 a thermophilization of assemblages at high altitudes, a result in agreement with the prediction  
272 that, under climate change, species from lower latitudes and elevations will tend to increase in  
273 abundance (Parmesan, 2019). Similar tendencies to assemblage thermophilization as a  
274 consequence of climate warming have been reported by other authors (Lajeunesse &  
275 Fourcade, 2023). In Sierra de Ancares, the most striking examples of species moving upwards  
276 were *Smaragdina concolor* (Fabricius, 1792), *Cryptocephalus vittatus* Fabricius, 1775, and

277 *Altica ampelophaga* Guerin, 1858, whose upper limits went up 750, 550 and 450 m,  
278 respectively. In 1998, these Mediterranean species were found only in the valleys (at altitudes  
279 between 450 and 550 m) but in 2010-2015 they were detected at the intermediate altitude  
280 (1000) or even the high altitude site (*S. concolor*).

281         Nevertheless, our results also suggest that other drivers may be at play, as the downward  
282 shift of Northern species could have been favored by land use changes and the abandonment  
283 of traditional agriculture, which have profoundly reshaped montane biodiversity in Europe  
284 (MacDonald et al., 2000) as well as caused an altitudinal redistribution of species in interaction  
285 with climate change (Guo et al., 2018). Downward movements could also be driven exclusively  
286 by climate change, as some plants may have moved their optima to lower elevations in search  
287 for water (Crimmins et al., 2011) and highly specialized herbivorous insects are expected to  
288 track their host plants even more intensely than their climatic optimum. However, we think  
289 that the latter is unlikely given that there is not an analogous change at the upper limit of the  
290 elevational range. Moreover, the most marked downward change in the lower limit of their  
291 distributions were observed in three species that are not particularly host specific:

292 *Cryptocephalus aureolus* Suffrian, 1848, *Neocrepidodera ferruginea* (Scopoli, 1763) and  
293 *Phratora vitellinae* (Linné, 1758). The two former species are associated with meadows,  
294 feeding on several species of Asteraceae (flowers) and Poaceae, respectively. The latter  
295 species is associated with Salicaceae trees (willows and poplars). Therefore, our results seem  
296 to be more likely related to changes in land use and habitat availability, as suggested by Lenoir  
297 et al. (2010) and Bhatta et al. (2018). In particular, the abandonment of agricultural systems  
298 and the subsequent expansion of forested areas in Sierra de Ancares (Álvarez-Martínez et al.,  
299 2014) would have increased the available habitats for these cold adapted leaf beetle species.

300         The upward shift of altitudinal ranges that we detected for warm adapted species was  
301 asymmetrical, with significant changes in the upper limit but negligible in the lower limit. An  
302 analogous asymmetrical pattern is expected along latitudinal gradients, with faster range

303 expansion in the leading edge and slower contraction in the trailing edge (Parmesan, 2019),  
304 given that population extinction usually lags behind the deterioration of the environment (i.e.,  
305 extinction debt; Kuussaari et al., 2009). Similar increases of upper altitudinal limits have been  
306 reported for other biological groups (Freeman et al., 2018; Iseli et al., 2023), as taxa would be  
307 expanding their altitudinal ranges to recently suitable territories. At the lower elevation  
308 boundaries, lack of change could be attributed to temperature having positive effects in  
309 insects, i.e., growth stimulation and voltinism (González-Tokman et al., 2020), while still being  
310 within the thermal safety margins of most species (Deutsch et al., 2008) or compensated with  
311 behavioral thermoregulation (Sunday et al., 2014). Nevertheless, temperature-driven damage,  
312 mostly associated with heat wave exposure, may still be affecting fitness and accumulating  
313 over time (Kingsolver et al., 2013; Colinet et al., 2015) although not readily observable yet  
314 (Harvey et al., 2020). In fact, meta-analyses in other studies have shown that lower boundaries  
315 are moving upward in similar magnitude as upper boundaries over longer temporal periods  
316 (Freeman et al., 2018; Rumpf et al., 2019), thus suggesting that our time span may be too short  
317 to detect rear elevation edge shrinking. This contrasts with the few previous studies on  
318 Coleoptera, mostly on dung beetles, which suggest that this group may be tracking  
319 temperature change the most, with both upward expansions and contractions of their trailing  
320 edges (McCain & Garfinkel, 2021 and references therein). A plausible explanation would be  
321 that, given the strong trophic specialization of leaf beetles, their range dynamics may be more  
322 mediated by their host plants (Hamann et al., 2021). In fact, alteration of biotic interactions  
323 and, in particular, phenological asynchrony between host plants and insects, is one of the  
324 major climatic risks for highly specialized species (Parmesan, 2019).

325 Heterogeneity in range shifts among species has also driven changes in the spatial  
326 diversity pattern along the elevation gradient. The reduction in spatial turnover between the  
327 low and intermediate sites has caused biotic homogenization at the regional scale (sensu Rolls  
328 et al., 2023), as previously observed for other montane organisms (e.g., Ploquin et al., 2013;

329 Savage & Vellend, 2015). Similar patterns have emerged across studies of different global  
330 change effects on insect communities, thus pointing to a worrying loss of beta diversity in this  
331 taxonomic group (Gossner et al., 2023). The varying strength of homogenization along the  
332 altitudinal gradient could be driven by the tendency of low-altitude species to move upslope  
333 farther than high-altitude species (Mamantov et al., 2021) and the downward shift of cold-  
334 adapted species associated with forest expansion due to the abandonment of traditional  
335 agriculture and livestock practices (Álvarez-Martínez et al., 2014), which would also explain the  
336 higher temporal turnover observed at the low-altitude site. The replacement of distinct  
337 communities by more similar communities, as observed here, evidences the impact that  
338 climate and land use change may have on the spatial structure of biodiversity, thus  
339 compromising the integrity of biodiversity at regional and global scales (Hillebrand et al.,  
340 2018). However, this dimension of global change on biodiversity is less studied than other  
341 aspects, such as species richness or temporal beta diversity at local scale (McGill et al., 2015).  
342 While the need to account for species composition rather than aggregate metrics, like species  
343 richness, is widely accepted in studies of the effect of climate change on biological  
344 communities (Dornelas et al., 2014; Hillebrand et al., 2018), a similar argument could be made  
345 about the relevance of looking for analogous changes in the spatial structure of diversity  
346 (McGill et al., 2015; Hillebrand et al., 2018).

347       Altitudinal range shifts, community reshuffling or alteration of biodiversity patterns, like  
348 the ones observed here, are driven by environmental changes but mediated by a key intrinsic  
349 species attribute, dispersal ability. In other words, not all species are able to actively modify  
350 their altitudinal ranges in response to climate warming (Harvey et al., 2023). Although  
351 dispersal limitation in flying insects is negligible at the scale of this study, it may turn relevant  
352 at larger geographical scales and hence, extrapolations based on the latitude-elevation analogy  
353 (Jump et al., 2009; Sundqvist et al., 2013) should be made with caution. The steep  
354 environmental gradients in mountains make them natural laboratories to study how species

355 may track recent temperature change (McCain & Garfinkel, 2021) but cannot answer one of  
356 the most pressing questions: will migration rates be faster than the velocity of climate change?  
357 (Loarie et al., 2009). In fact, studies of biodiversity patterns at large spatio-temporal scales  
358 suggest that the ability to track climate change in the past varied broadly across beetle taxa  
359 (Gómez-Rodríguez & Baselga, 2018) and, hence, different species may also have very different  
360 abilities to track climate in the context of current global warming. Our lack of knowledge on  
361 how dispersal ability will mediate range shifts at larger geographical scales should be also  
362 considered as one of the main shortfalls besetting our understanding of biodiversity and how it  
363 will respond to global change (Hortal et al., 2015).

364         Assessing temporal biodiversity change requires historical datasets for resurveys, which  
365 are lacking for many insect groups and regions (McCain & Garfinkel, 2021). Even when  
366 available, differences in data type and sampling may still limit our ability to document changes  
367 (Magurran et al., 2019). Although this study is based on surveys of different nature, it allows  
368 the detection of coarse tendencies in species' elevation ranges and community  
369 rearrangements. We have opted for incidence-based metrics of diversity change, rather than  
370 abundance weighted metrics, as the latter are more prone to biases due to methodological  
371 differences (McCain & Garfinkel, 2021). Our measure of change is thus conservative, unable to  
372 detect more subtle abundance shifts that may be occurring within the species' ranges (e.g.,  
373 Antão et al., 2022). Likewise, the observed upward shift of warm adapted species cannot be  
374 mechanistically linked to the species' thermal tolerance (as in Birkett et al., 2018). While this  
375 precludes the unequivocal attribution of biotic responses to climate change effects (Parmesan,  
376 2019; Gonzalez et al., 2023), it constitutes relevant empirical data which is consistent with the  
377 assumed driver of change. Moreover, while range shifts at the species level may be noisy  
378 (Rumpf et al., 2019), complementing analyses at the species and community levels unveils  
379 relevant emergent patterns of climate responses (Pinsky et al., 2022). Detecting change is not  
380 as robust as detecting trend over temporal series but it may be the only documentation

381 possible given that long-term monitoring data is lacking for most biological groups and regions  
382 despite recent efforts to provide long-term datasets for insects (van Klink et al., 2021). While  
383 not ideal, we should not let data scarcity hamper our ability to report biodiversity changes that  
384 may be relevant in a context of global change.

385       While an upward shift of montane communities is the main expectation in a climate  
386 change context, species are showing idiosyncratic responses (Lenoir & Svenning, 2015;  
387 Freeman et al., 2018; Rumpf et al., 2019; McCain & Garfinkel, 2021), which may be explained  
388 by the existence of other factors driving species range shifts (Rumpf et al., 2019), such as land  
389 use change (Lenoir et al., 2010; Bhatta et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2018). In fact, while climate  
390 warming has been shown to strongly affect long-term distribution changes in insects, short-  
391 term changes have been associated with both climate changes and regional land-use changes  
392 (Neff et al., 2022). In any case, the existence of multiple factors or multiple responses points to  
393 the need of community-level assessments for the detection of tendencies among the mixed  
394 species-specific signals. Moreover, they evidence how species-specific responses result in  
395 compositional reorganization and biotic homogenization, rather than a mere displacement of  
396 assemblages towards higher altitude. The assessment of community rearrangements and  
397 compositional change has lagged behind the assessment of species loss, but it is critical to  
398 understand temporal changes in biodiversity (Magurran et al., 2019). In particular, species  
399 turnover driven by variable changes in species' range limits is rapidly creating novel  
400 assemblages (Gibson-Reinemer et al., 2015) and affecting ecosystem functioning (Pecl et al.,  
401 2017).

402

### 403 **Acknowledgements**

404 This work was supported by the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation through grant  
405 PID2020-116587GB-I00 and a FPI scholarship (Ref.: PRE2021-098920) to V.F.F. We thank Dr.

406 Andrea Freijeiro for assistance with field work and Iván Orois for the illustration used in Figure

407 3. Collecting permits were issued by the regional government (Xunta de Galicia).

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## 624 **Supporting Information**

625 **Figure S1.** Variation of Mean Annual Temperature between 1980 and 2020 in Ponferrada (NW  
626 Spain).

627 **Figure S2.** Variation of Mean Annual Temperature between 1985 and 2020 in Lugo (NW Spain).

628 **Appendix S1.** Supplementary methods for DNA based identification of specimens of *Psylliodes*,  
629 *Aphthona* and *Longitarsus* (samples collected in 2015).

630 **Appendix S2.** Metadata describing information provided as Tables S1-S5.

631 **R code.** R code used in this study.

632 **Table S1.** Leaf beetle presence data in 1998 from Baselga & Novoa (2000).

633 **Table S2.** Leaf beetle presence data for the period 2010-2015.

634 **Table S3.** Altitude data for localities sampled in 1998.

635 **Table S4.** Altitude data for localities sampled in the period 2010-2015.

636 **Table S5.** Chorotypes assigned to species observed in this study. Chorotypes are based on

637 Baselga & Novoa (2000), who established four main categories grouping the chorotypes

638 introduced by Vigna Taglianti et al., (1992) for the West Palaearctic fauna.

639 **Figure 1.** Map of the study area, including the sites intensively sampled in 2010-2015 (blue) and  
640 the sites extensively sampled in 1998 and previously reported in Baselga & Novoa (2000). Here,  
641 only sites in the NW slope of the range and up to 1300 m are shown. Symbols identify the 1998  
642 sites that were aggregated for the community-level analyses (low, intermediate and high  
643 altitude). The remaining sites (marked as “other”) were only used to estimate altitudinal ranges.  
644 The Iberian Peninsula map on the bottom-right corner shows the location of the study area as a  
645 red rectangle.

646  
647 **Figure 2.** Variation across altitudes in species richness in 1998 and 2010-2015 (a) and in temporal  
648 dissimilarity, partitioned between its turnover and nestedness-resultant components (b).

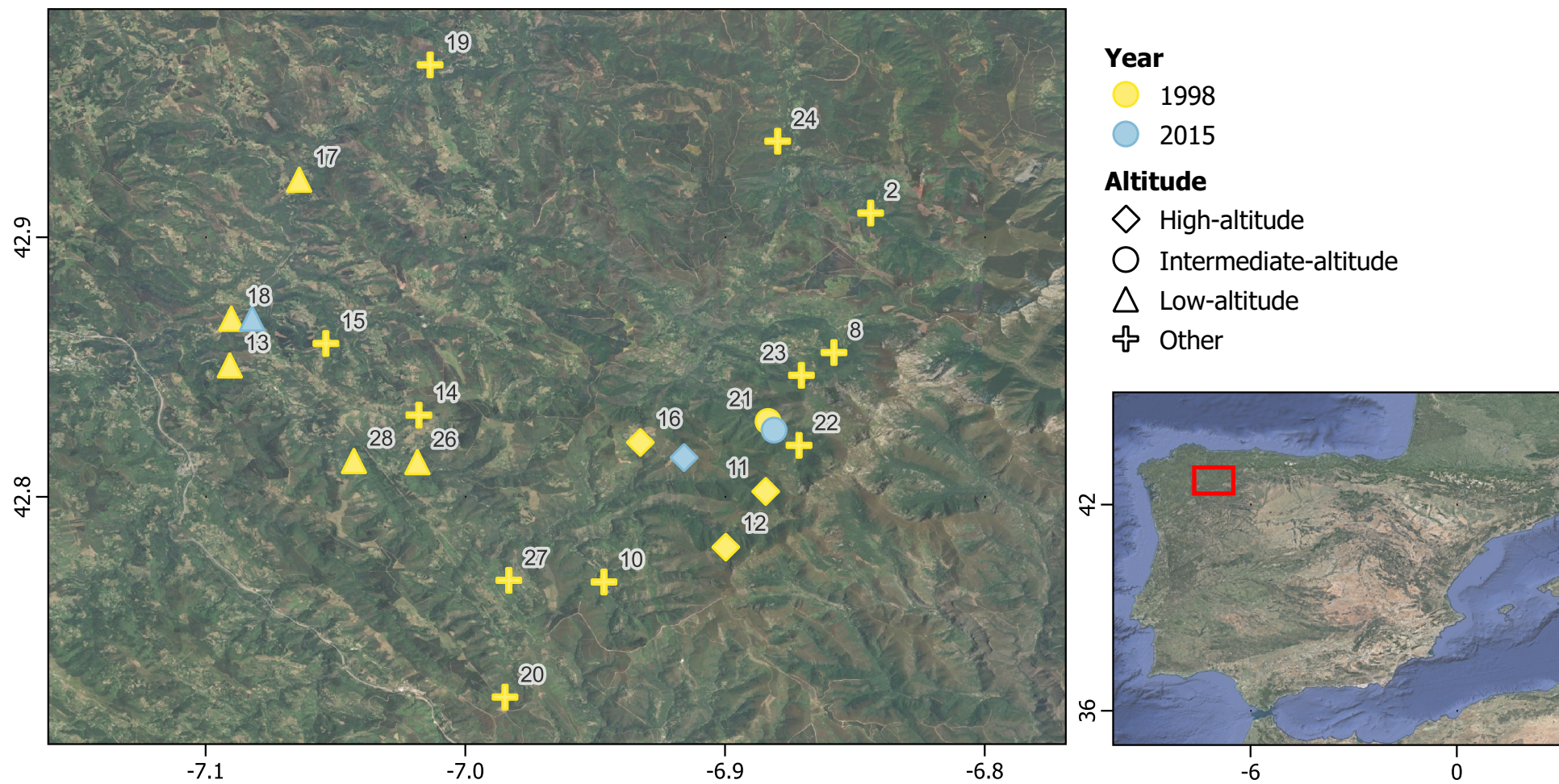
649  
650 **Figure 3.** Community dissimilarity between sites in the different study periods (1998: above the  
651 arrow, in black; 2010-2015: below the arrow, in blue). Community dissimilarity has been  
652 partitioned into the turnover (Simpson’s index) and nestedness-resultant components following  
653 Baselga (2010)’s framework.

654  
655 **Figure 4.** Variation in the proportion of chorotypes across altitudes in 1998 and in 2010-2015.  
656 Iber: Iberian; Med: Mediterranean (i.e., species distributed around the Mediterranean basin);  
657 North: Northern (i.e., species distributed in the Eurosiberian region); Wide: Widely Distributed  
658 (i.e., species distributed both in the Mediterranean and Eurosiberian regions).

659  
660 **Figure 5.** Density plot of the difference in species minimum (a) and maximum altitude (b)  
661 between 1998 and 2010/2015 for the different chorotypes. Mean values are represented as a  
662 vertical line.

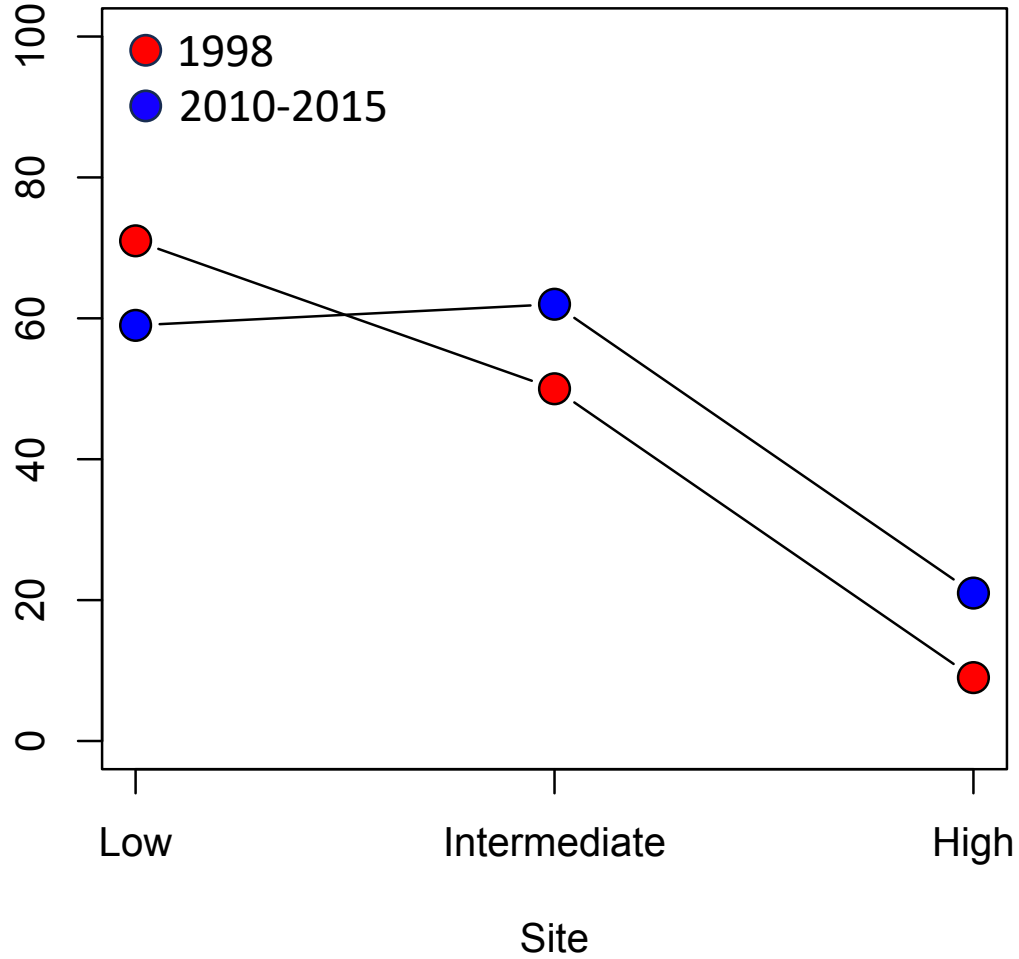
663 Iber: Iberian; Med: Mediterranean (i.e., species distributed around the Mediterranean basin);  
664 North: Northern (i.e., species distributed in the Eurosiberian region); Wide: Widely Distributed  
665 (i.e., species distributed both in the Mediterranean and Eurosiberian regions).

666



**a**

Species richness

**b**

Temporal dissimilarity

