# Linking evolutionary and ecological theory illuminates non-stationary biodiversity

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### <sup>1</sup> Abstract

Whether or not biodiversity dynamics tend toward stable equilibria remains an unsolved question in ecology and evolution with important implications for our understanding of diversity and its conservation. Phylo/population genetic models and macroecological theory represent two primary lenses through which we view biodiversity. While phylo/population genetics provide an averaged view of changes in demography and diversity over timescales of generations to geological epochs, macroecology provides an ahistorical description of commonness and rarity across contemporary co-occurring species. Our goal is to combine these two approaches to gain novel insights into the non-equilibrium nature of biodiversity. We help guide near future research with a call for bioinformatic advances and an outline of quantitative predictions made possible by our approach.

# Non-equilibrium, inference, and theory in ecology and evolution

The idea of an ecological and evolutionary equilibrium has pervaded studies of biodiversity from geological to ecological, and from global to local [1–6]. The consequences of non-equilibrium dynamics for biodiversity are not well understood and the need to understand them is critical with when anthropogenic pressures forcing biodiversity into states of rapid transition [7]. Non-equilibrial processes could profoundly inform conservation in ways only just beginning to be explored [8].

Biodiversity theories based on assumptions of equilibrium, both mechanistic [3, 5, 6] and statistical [see the Glossary; 4, 9] have found success in predicting ahistorical patterns of diversity such as the species abundance distribution [3, 4, 10] and the species area relationship [3, 4]. These theories assume a macroscopic equilibrium in terms of these coarse-grained metrics, as opposed to focusing on details of species identity [such as in 7], although macroscopic and microscopic approaches are not mutually exclusive. Nonetheless, the equilibrium assumed by these theories is not realistic [11], and many processes, equilibrial or otherwise, can generate the same macroscopic, ahistorical predictions [12].

Tests of equilibrial ecological theory alone will not allow us to identify systems out of
equilibrium, nor permit us to pinpoint the mechanistic causes of any non-equilibrial processes.

The dynamic natures of evolutionary innovation and landscape change suggest that ecological
theory could be greatly enriched by synthesizing its insights with inference from population
genetic theory that explicitly accounts for history. This would remedy two shortfalls of
equilibrial theory: 1) if theory fits observed ahistorical patterns but the implicit dynamical
assumptions were wrong, we would make the wrong conclusion about the equilibrium of the
system; 2) if theories do not fit the data we cannot know why unless we have a perspective
on the temporal dynamics underlying those data.

No efforts to date have tackled these challenges. We propose that combining insights 37 from ecological theory and inference of evolutionary and demographic change from genetic 38 data will allow us to understand and predict the consequences of non-equilibrial processes in governing the current and future states of ecological assemblages. The advent of next generation sequencing (NGS) approaches to biodiversity, from microbes to arthropods [13– 41 23 have made unprecedented data available for synthesizing insights form ecological theory and genetics/genomics. However, we need a tool set of bioinformatic methods (Box 2) and 43 meaningful predictions (section 6) grounded in theory to make use of those data. We present the foundation of this tool set here.

### Ecological theories and non-equilibrium

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- Neutral and statistical theories in ecology focus on macroscopic patterns, and equilibrium is presumed to be relevant to those patterns, but not the finer-grained properties of ecosystems. 48 Our goal throughout is not to validate neutral or statistical theories—quite the opposite, we
- 49 propose new data dimensions, namely genetics, to help better test alternative hypotheses against these null theories, thereby gaining insight into what non-neutral and non-statistical 51 mechanisms are at play in systems of interest.
- Non-neutral and non-statistical models [e.g., 5, 6] also invoke ideas of equilibrium in their 53 derivation. However, these equilibria focus on the micro-scale details of species interactions 54 and therefore do not fall within our primary focus, and could in fact be drivers of nonequilibrium and thus interesting alternative hypotheses to test. We focus explicitly on simple yet predictive theories for their utility as null models, not because of a presumption of their 57 realism.
- To use these theories as null models, we need a robust measure of goodness of fit. The 59 emerging consensus is that likelihood-based test statistics should be preferred [24]. The "exact test" of Etienne [25] has been extended by Rominger and Merow [26] into a simple

- <sub>62</sub> z-score which can parsimoniously describe the goodness of fit between theory and pattern.
- We advocate its use in our proposed framework.
- The neutral theory of biodiversity [NTB; 3] is a useful null because it assumes that one mechanism—demographic drift—drives community assembly. Equilibrium occurs when homogeneous stochastic processes of birth, death, speciation and immigration have reached stationarity. Thus neutrality in ecology is analogous to neutral drift in population genetics [3].
- Rather than assuming any one mechanism dominates the assembly of populations into a community, statistical theories assume all mechanisms could be valid, but their unique influence has been lost to the enormity of the system and thus the outcome of assembly is a community in statistical equilibrium [4, 9]. The mechanistic agnosticism is what makes statistical theories useful nulls. These statistical theories are also consistent with niche-based equilibria [9, 27] if complicated, individual or population level models with many mechanistic drivers were to be upscaled to entire communities.
- The maximum entropy theory of ecology [METE; 4] derives its predictions by condensing
  the many bits of mechanistic information down into ecological state variables and then
  mathematically maximizing information entropy conditional on those state variables. METE
  can predict multiple ahistorical patterns, including distributions of species abundance, body
  size, spatial aggregation, and trophic links [4, 28], making for a stronger null theory [29].
  However, multiple dynamics can still map to this handful of metrics [12] and while extensive
  testing often supports METE's predictions [4, 10, 30] at single snapshots in time, METE
  fails to match observed patterns in disturbed and rapidly evolving communities [4, 28]. We
  cannot know the cause of these failures within the current framework of equilibrium theory
  testing without adding metrics that capture temporal dynamics.

### 86 3 Inferring non-equilibrium dynamics

Unlocking insight into the dynamics underlying community assembly is key to overcoming
the limitations of analyzing ahistorical patterns with equilibrial theory. While the fossil
record could be used for this task, it has limited temporal, spatial, and taxonomic resolution. Here we instead focus on population/phylogenetic insights into rates of change of
populations and species because of the detailed characterization of demographic fluctuations,
immigration, selection, and speciation they provide. Bridging ecological theory with models
from population/phylogenetics has great potential [31–36] that has yet to be fully realized.
How we can best link the inferences of change through time from population/phylogenetics
with inferences from macroecology is governed by what insights we can gain from genetic
perspectives on demography and diversification.

Coalescent theory [37, 38] is one of the fundamental population genetics tools allowing model-based estimation of complex historical processes. These include population size fluctuations [39], divergence and/or colonization times [40, 41], migration rates [42], selection [43], and complex patterns of historical population structure [44] and gene flow [45, 46]. This approach can also be put in a multi-species, community context via hierarchical demographic models [47–50], even when only small numbers of genetic loci are sampled from populations [51].

These modeled demographic deviations from neutral demographic equilibrium can also be condensed into multi-species summary statistics. For example, Tajima's D, which measures the strength of non-equilibrium demography in a single population [see Glossary for more details; 52–55], could be averaged over all populations in a sample.

# Current efforts to integrate evolution into ecological theory

While quantitatively integrating theory from ecology, population genetics, and phylogenetics has not yet been achieved, existing efforts to synthesize perspectives from evolution and ecology point toward promising directions despite being hindered by one or more general issues: 1) lack of a solid theoretical foundation, 2) inability to distinguish multiple competing alternative hypotheses, 3) lack of comprehensive genetic/genomic data, and 4) lack of bioinformatic approaches to resolve species and their abundances.

Phylogenetic information has been incorporated into studies of the NTB to better under-116 stand its ultimate equilibrium [56, 57]. However, phylogenetic reasoning also points out the 117 flaws in the NTB's presumed equilibrium [11]. Attempts to correct the assumed dynamics 118 of NTB through "protracted speciation" [58] are promising, and while their implications for 119 diversification have been considered [59], these predictions have not been integrated with 120 demographic and phylogeographic approaches [e.g., 40, 41, 44] that have the potential to 121 validate or falsify presumed mechanisms of lineage divergence. Such demographic studies, 122 particularly phylogeographic investigations of past climate change [60, 61], have highlighted 123 the non-equilibrium responses of specific groups to perturbations that must be confronted 124 by ecological theory, but no attempt has been made to scale up these observations to im-125 plications at the level of entire communities. The recent growth in joint studies of genetic 126 and species diversity [35, 62] have been useful in linking population genetics with ecologi-127 cal and biogeographic concepts. These correlative studies could be bolstered by developing 128 full joint models that link community assembly, historical demography and coalescent-based 129 population genetics combined with NGS.

Studies have also used chronosequences or the fossil record in combination with neutral and/or statistical theory to investigate changes over geologic time in community assembly

mechanisms [28, 63]. While these studies have documented interesting shifts in assembly mechanisms, including departures from equilibrium likely resulting from evolutionary innovations, understanding exactly how the evolution of innovation is responsible for these departures cannot be achieved without more concerted integration with genetic data.

### 5 What is needed now

A key limitation to using ahistorical theory to infer dynamic mechanisms is that multiple mechanisms, from simple and equilibrial to complex, can map onto the same ahistorical pattern [29, 64]. This means that even when a theory describes the data well, we do not really know the dynamics that led to that good fit [11].

Quantitatively integrating the dynamics inferred from population and phylogenetic approaches with ahistorical, equilibrial ecological theory can break this many-to-one mapping of mechanism onto prediction and contextualize whether a match between ahistorical pattern and theory truly results form equilibrial dynamics or only falsely appears to. There are two complementary approaches to achieve this integration (both discussed further in Box 2):

• Option 1: using dynamics from genetic inference to predict and understand deviations from ahistorical theories. This amounts to separately fitting ahistorical theory to typical macroecological data, while also fitting population genetic and/or phylogenetic models to genetic data captured for the entire community. Doing so requires substantial bioinformatic advances that would allow the joint capture of genetic or genomic data from entire community samples using NGS, while also estimating accurate abundances from NSG output. Separating model fitting avoids assumptions about how macroecological quantities like abundance scale to evolutionary metrics like effective population size; however, this approach does not facilitate the elegance of model comparison as does joint modeling.

• Option 2: building off existing theories, develop new joint models that simultaneously predict macroecological and population genetic patterns. This amounts to building hierarchical models that take genetic data as input and integrate over all possible community states that could lead to these genetic data given a model of community assembly and a model of population coalescence. This approach requires making assumptions about how abundances scale to effective population sizes, but is better suited for comparing competing joint models of evolutionary history and assembly.

### 164 5.1 What we gain from this framework

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Using our proposed framework, we can finally understand why ahistorical theories fail when 165 they do—is it because of rapid population change, or evolution/long-distance dispersal of 166 novel ecological strategies? We could predict whether a system that obeys the ahistorical 167 predictions of equilibrial ecological theory is in fact undergoing major non-equilibrial evolu-168 tion. We could better understand and forecast how/if systems out of equilibrium are likely 169 to relax back to equilibrial patterns. With such a framework we could even flip the direction 170 of causal inference and understand ecological drivers of diversification dynamics. This last 171 point bears directly on long-standing debates about the importance of competitive limits 172 on diversification [2, 65]. Conclusions about phylogenetic patterns (e.g. diversification slowdowns) would be more believable and robust if combined with population genetic inference 174 (e.g. declining populations) and community patterns (e.g. deviation from equilibrium).

# Fig. 6 Evo-ecological predictions for systems out of equilib-

need to talk about fig 1 and fig 2, where they come from in relation to option 1 and 2, and also talk about using model selection

- Figure 1 derives from comparing summaries of deviation from neutral/statistical equilibrium on the y-axis and deviations from equilibrial demography/diversification on the x-axis. Systems will cycle through this space in
- Figure 1 describes a space containing all hypothetical communities, either deviating or conforming to equilibrial predictions from macroecology and evolutionary demography. Trajectories of biodiversity assemblages through this space show how communities can transition between different phases of equilibrium and non-equilibrium.
- We bring to bear other predictions from joint eco-evolutionary inference including the relationship between lineage age (colonization or divergence time inferred from molecular data) and lineage abundance (Fig. 2), and model selection of joint population genetic-community assembly models (see Box 2).

WHEN/WHY TO USE PATTERNS (FIG 1 and 2) VERSUS MODELING

### 192 6.1 Cycles of non-equilibrium

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Ecosystems experience regular disturbances which can occur on ecological time-scales, such as primary succession, or evolutionary time scales, such as evolution of novel innovations that lead to new ecosystem processes [66]. We hypothesize that these regular disturbances can lead to cycles of non-equilibrium in observed biodiversity patterns.

A clockwise cycle through the space depicted in Figure 1 would indicate:

- Panel I → II: following rapid ecological disturbance, ecological metrics diverge from
  equilibrium. The system could potentially relax back to equilibrium (Panel II →
  Panel I), indicating a stationary disturbance process that has no net evolutionary
  consequences. Conversely,
  - Panel II → III: ecological non-equilibrium spurs evolutionary non-equilibrium leading to both ecological and evolutionary metrics diverging from equilibrium values

- Panel III  $\rightarrow$  IV: evolutionary innovations provide the means for ecological processes to re-equilibrate to their environments
- Panel IV  $\rightarrow$  I: finally a potential return to equilibrium on both ecological and evolutionary time scales once evolutionary processes have also relaxed.

Cycles through this space could also occur in a counterclockwise direction, being initiated by an evolutionary innovation. Under such a scenario we hypothesize the cycle to proceed:

- Panel I  $\rightarrow$  IV: non-equilibrium evolution (including sweepstakes dispersal) leading to departure from evolutionary equilibrium before departure from ecological equilibrium
- Panel IV  $\rightarrow$  III: non-equilibrial ecological response to non-equilibrium evolutionary innovation
- Panel III  $\rightarrow$  I: ecological and evolutionary relaxation

We hypothesize that the final transition will be directly to a joint equilibrium in ecological and evolutionary metrics (Panel I) because a transition from panel III to panel II is unlikely, given that ecological rate are faster than evolutionary rates. In general these cycles can be combined arbitrarily depending on the forces and dynamics present in the system. However, transitions where evolutionary rates must opperate faster than ecological rates (i.e. Panel III  $\rightarrow$  II and Panel IV  $\rightarrow$  Panel II) are less likely.

A complete cycle cannot be observed without a time machine, but by combining ahistorical ecological theory and population/phylogenetic inference methods using community-level
genetic data we can identify where in this space our focal systems are located. To determine
the trajectory of our focal systems through this space we must more deeply explore the joint
inference of community assembly and evolutionary processes. In the following sections we
do that for each transition shown in Figure 1. We bring to bear other predictions from joint
eco-evolutionary inference including the relationship between lineage age (colonization or

divergence time inferred from molecular data) and lineage abundance (Fig. 2), and model selection of joint population genetic-community assembly models (see Box 2).

### 230 6.2 Systems undergoing rapid ecological change

For systems whose metrics conform to demographic equilibrium, but deviate from equilibrial ecological theory (Panel I  $\rightarrow$  II), a lack of correlation between lineage age and lineage abundance would indicate that rapid ecological change underlies their dynamics. If slow, equilibrial evolutionary drift is punctuated by regular ecological perturbations, population size would be independent of age (Fig. 2). Actual abundance should similarly be uncorrelated with effective population size in joint genetic-assembly models.

### 237 6.3 Ecological relaxation

Ecological relaxation occurs when populations return to steady state. Both ecological (Panel III  $\rightarrow$  I) and evolutionary (Panel III  $\rightarrow$  IV) mechanisms can facilitate this process (e.g. changes in local population sizes following environmental change [7], or evolution of new species interactions such as host switching [28]). If ecological mechanisms are responsible, age and abundance should again be uncorrelated; if evolutionary mechanics are responsible, age and abundance should be negatively correlated (Fig. 2).

## 244 6.4 Non-equilibrium ecological communities fostering non-245 equilibrium evolution

A lack of equilibrium in an ecological assemblage means that the system will likely experience change in order to re-equilibrate. If ecological relaxation does not occur—by chance, or because no population present is equipped with the adaptations to accommodate the new environment—then the system is open to evolutionary innovation (Panel II  $\rightarrow$  III). Such innovation could take the form of elevated speciation or long-distance immigration.

Speciation and sweepstakes immigration/invasion will yield very different phylogenetic signals, however, their population genetic signals in a non-equilibrium community may be very similar (e.g. rapid population expansion). Thus, where non-equilibrium communities foster non-equilibrium diversification (either through speciation or invasion) we expect to see a negative relationship between lineage age and abundance (Fig. 2). Similarly, in a joint genetic-assembly modeling framework, population expansion models should be favored over demographically stationary models.

## Non-equilibrium evolution fostering non-equilibrium ecological dynamics

If evolutionary processes, or their counterpart in the form of sweepstakes immigration/invasion, generate new ecological strategies in a community, this itself constitutes a 261 form of disturbance pushing the system to reorganize (Panel IV  $\rightarrow$  III). Evolutionary change 262 would have to be extremely rapid to force ecological metrics out of equilibrium, thus in this 263 scenario we would expect a negative correlation between age and abundance (Fig. 2) and 264 model selection favoring joint genetic-assembly models with highly structured populations 265 and rapid divergence rates. If data become available for large regions of genomes for 266 entire communities, signals of strong selection could also validate non-equilibrium evolution 267 fostering non-equilibrium ecological dynamics (see Outstanding Questions). 268

### 269 6.6 Evolutionary relaxation

Evolutionary demographic models average over timescales determined by generation time, population size and mutation/selection balance [37, 38]. Evolutionary relaxation (Panel III  $\rightarrow$  I or IV  $\rightarrow$  I) means this time-averaged history returns to stationarity, which can occur if perturbations are absent, or occur on rapid enough time scales (i.e. Panel II  $\rightarrow$  I) to be averaged over. By definition, if a system is found in evolutionary demographic equilibrium it
has forgotten any non-equilibrium phases in its history. Thus to detect this kind of long-term
relaxation we need data from the fossil record (see **Outstanding Questions**).

# Tharnessing evo-ecological measures of non-equilibrium for a changing world

Inference of community dynamics needs to expand the dimensions of data it uses to draw conclusions about assembly of biodiversity and whether/when this is an equilibrial or non-equilibrial process. The need for more data dimensions is supported by others [12]; however, accounting for the complexities of history by explicitly linking theories of community assembly with theories of evolutionary genetics is novel, and made possible by advances in:

- 1. high throughput sequencing (Box 1) that allow genetic samples to be economically and time-effectively produced on unprecedented scales
- 28. bioinformatic methods (Box 2) that allow us to make sense of these massive communityvide genetic/genomic datasets
- 3. theory development (section 6) that provides meaningful predictions to test with our new bioinformatic approaches

This framework is a fertile cross pollination of two fields that, while successful in their own right, are enhanced by their integration. While comparative historical demographic models are advancing [47–50], testing community-scale hypotheses with multi-taxa data would be profoundly improved and enriched if population genetic model were grounded in macroecological theory. What is more, models of community assembly have been overly reliant on ahistorical patterns and assumptions of equilibrium, which are by themselves often insufficient for distinguishing competing models of assembly [12]. The field is ready to fully

merge these two approaches using the wet lab, bioinformatic, and theoretical approaches we advocate here. The time to do so is now, as society faces an increasingly non-equilibrium world, challenging our fundamental understanding of what forces govern the diversity of life and how we can best harmonize human activities with it.

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#### $_{471}$ Boxes

### Box 1: Wetlab techniques

Next generation sequencing (NGS) technology has ushered in a revolution in evolutionary biology and ecology. The large scale recovery from bulk samples (e.g. passive arthropod traps) of species richness, food web structure, and cryptic species promise unprecedented new insights into ecosystem function and assembly [13–15, 67]. Two approaches, differing in cost and effectiveness, have emerged.

Metabarcoding describes the targeted PCR amplification and next generation sequencing
of short DNA barcode markers (typically 300-500 bp) from community samples [16]. The
resulting amplicon sequences can be clustered into OTUs or grafted onto more well supported
phylogenies. Even minute traces of taxa in environmental samples can be detected using
metabarcoding [18]. Amplicon sequencing is cheap, requires a small workload, and thus
allows rapid inventories of species composition and species interactions in whole ecosystems
[14, 20]. However, the preferential amplification of some taxa during PCR leads to highly
skewed abundance estimates [68] from metabarcoding libraries.

Metagenomic approaches , in contrast, avoid marker specific amplification bias by se-486 quencing libraries constructed either from untreated genomic DNA [19, 21], or after targeted 487 enrichment of genomic regions [22]. While being more laborious, expensive and computation-488 ally demanding than metabarcoding, metagenomics thus offers improved accuracy in detect-489 ing species composition [17]. Moreover, the assembly of high coverage metagenomic datasets 490 recovers large contiguous sequence stretches, even from rare members in a community, offer-491 ing high phylogenetic resolution at the whole community level [69]. Due to large genome sizes 492 and high genomic complexity, metazoan metagenomics is currently limited to the assembly 493 of short high copy regions. Particularly mitochondrial and chloroplast genomes as well as 494

nuclear ribosomal clusters are popular targets [21, 69]. In contrast, microbial metagenomic studies routinely assemble complete genomes and characterize gene content and metabolic 496 pathways even from complex communities [70]. This allows unprecedented insights into 497 functional genetic process underlying community assembly and evolutionary change of com-498 munities to environmental stress. Such whole genome based community analysis is not yet 499 feasible for macroorganisms. However, considering the ever increasing throughput and read 500 length of NGS technology, as well as growing number of whole genomes, it might well be-501 come a possibility in the near future, opening up unprecedented new research avenues for 502 community ecology and evolution. 503

#### Box 2: Bioinformatic advances

While species richness can be routinely identified by sequencing bulk samples using high throughput methods, estimating species abundance remains challenging [68] and severely limits the application of high throughput sequencing methods to many community-level studies. We propose two complementary approaches to estimate species abundance from high throughput data. The first approach estimates abundance free from any models of community assembly, the second jointly estimates the parameters of a specific assembly model of interest along with the parameters of a coalescent-based population genetic model.

Model-free abundance estimation. We propose a pipeline (Fig. I) where raw reads are generated and assembled into a phylogeny using standard approaches, and potentially aided by additionally available sequence data in a super tree or super matrix approach. The numbers of sequences assigned to each terminal tip are then used in a Bayesian hierarchical model which seeks to estimate the true number of organisms representing each terminal tip, accounting for sequencing biases originating from, e.g. primer affinity and copy number differences between taxa. Information on phylogenetic relatedness can inform modeled correlations in biases between taxa [71, e.g. copy number is known to be phylogenetically

conserved at least in microbes]. This approach is particularly tailored to metabarcoding data.

In a potentially powerful extension, and thanks to the proposed Bayesian framework, information from sequencing experiments that seek to calibrate metabarcoding studies [e.g., 67]

can be used to build meaningfully informative priors and improve model accuracy. Through

a simulation study (described in the supplement) we show that true underlying abundances

can be accurately estimated (Fig. II).

Joint inference of community assembly and population genetic models. individual-based, forward-time models of community assembly with backwards-time hierarchical multi-taxa coalescent models permits inference about the values of the parameters in both models. This framework is flexible enough to incorporate multiple refugia, coloniza-529 tion routes, ongoing migration and both neutral and deterministic processes of assembly 530 on time scales of hundreds of thousands of years (Fig. III). A forthcoming implementa-531 tion [gimmeSAD $\pi$ ; 72] jointly models a forward-time individual-based neutral community 532 assembly process [73] and corresponding expectations of community level genetic diversity 533 and divergence using the msPrime coalescent simulator [74]. This has been accomplished 534 by rescaling the time dependent local abundance distributions into time dependent effective 535 population size distributions while allowing for heterogeneity in migration and colonization 536 rates. This simulation model can be combined with random forest classifiers and hierarchi-537 cal ABC to enable testing alternative assembly models, including models that have not yet 538 reached their theoretical equilibria. 539

### 540 Glossary

ahistorical Patterns or theories which do not contain information about the historical processes that gave rise to them

Approximate Bayesian computation (ABC) . A method of calculating an approximate posterior sample of parameters in a complex model whose likelihood function cannot be analytically solved by simulating realizations of the model, computing summary statistics from those realizations, and probabilistically accepting or rejecting the parameter values leading to those summary statistics based on their agreement with the observed statistics computed from the real data.

coalescent A stochastic, backwards in time population genetic model in which alleles in the sample are traced to their ancestors under demographic models of interest.

equilibrium Equilibrium is often reserved for systems in thermodynamic equilibrium—
which all life violates. By "biodiversity equilibrium" we make an analogy to thermodynamics
and say that biodiversity is in equilibrium if its marcrosopic state (e.g. richness of species
abundance distribution, but not necessarily specific species compositions) is steady, and
across arbitrary subsystems, the same steady state applies.

hierarchical model A modeling approach that facilitates complex hypotheses and causal relationships by allowing model parameters at one level to be dependent on parameters at another level.

statistical equilibrium In the context of biodiversity, a description of a steady state arrived at not by the force of one or a few deterministic mechanisms but by the stationary, statistical behavior of very large collections of mechanistic drivers acting on large assemblages of organisms.

Tajima's D A metric of non-stationary evolution computed as the difference between two distinct derivations of theoretical genetic diversity. If neutral molecular evolution in a constant population holds, both derivations should be equal, and otherwise if assumptions of constant demography and neutral selection are violated, will be unequal.

### 567 Outstanding Questions

- 1. Can we learn by synthesizing macroecological and population genetic theory whether observed non-equilibrium states are driven by natural disturbance regimes or by anthropogenic forces?
- 2. Can we learn the relative roles of evolutionary processes (speciation, extinction) vs. successional processes (driven by, e.g., competition, mutualism, dispersal) as drivers of non-equilibrium macroecology?
  - 3. How can functional genomics be used to better distinguish between purely demographic and niche-based drivers of non-equilibrium? Can understanding the gene content of genomes, gene expression patterns, and occurrence of mutations across taxa in a community help predict potential for non-equilibrium responses to future perturbations?
    - 4. How can relative abundance data derived from ancient DNA and fossil data be leveraged within a joint model that generates predictions of spatiotemporal distributions of genetic polymorphism and species abundances? One such opportunity is the availability of highly resolved estimates of relative abundance distributions of forest tree assemblages that are derived from paleo-pollen data [75] which could allow for joint inference in conjunction with assemblage-level genomic sampling. Likewise, obtaining community-level DNA preserved in lake sediments sampled at different late Pleistocene and Holocene could provide for a whole new lense for testing models that account for historical dynamics at both evolutionary and ecological time scales [76].

### 587 Figures

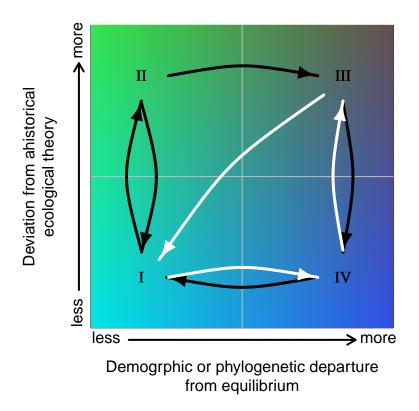


Figure 1: Hypothesized cycles between different states of equilibrium and non-equilibrium in ecological theory (y-axis) and evolutionary demography/diversification (x-axis). Deviations from ecological theory can be quantified by the previously discussed exact tests [25] and z-scores [26], while many statistics are available to quantify departure from demographic/diversification steady state including the previously discussed Tajima's D. Panels I–IV are discussed in the text. Colors correspond to deviation from ahistorical ecological theory and evolutionary equilibrium. Black cycle corresponds to non-equilibrium initiated by ecological disturbance (with potential to continue to evolutionary non-equilibrium or relaxation to equilibrium). White cycle is initiated by evolutionary innovation.

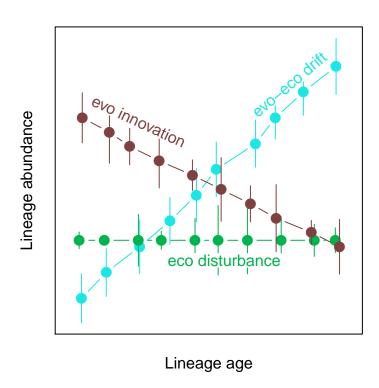


Figure 2: Hypothesized relationships between lineage age and abundance under different evo-ecological scenarios. Colors correspond to panels in Figure 1: teal is evo-ecological equilibrium; green is rapid transition to ecological non-equilibrium following short timescale disturbance; dark brown is non-equilibrium in both ecological and evolutionary metrics.

## Box 2 figures

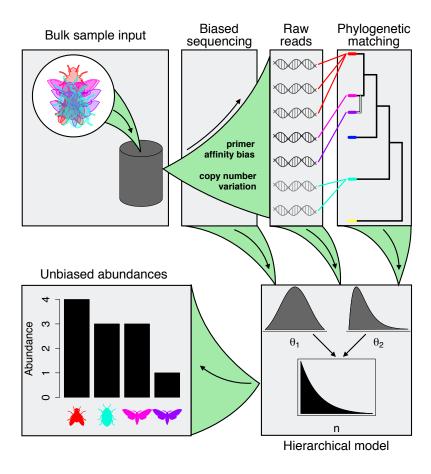


Figure I: Pipeline to estimate true abundances from metabarcoding data. The pipeline follows sequence generation, matching sequences to a phylogeny (generated from the sequences themselves, or better yet from higher coverage data) and finally Bayesian hierarchical modeling leading to abundance estimates.

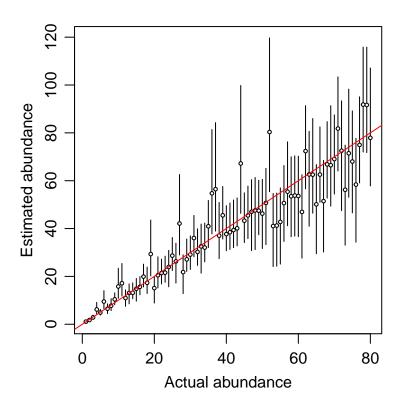


Figure II: Demonstration of agreement between actual and estimated abundances. Actual (simulated) abundances are on the x-axis, which the y-axis shows estimated abundances (error bars are 95% maximum credible intervals). The simulation study is described in the supplement.

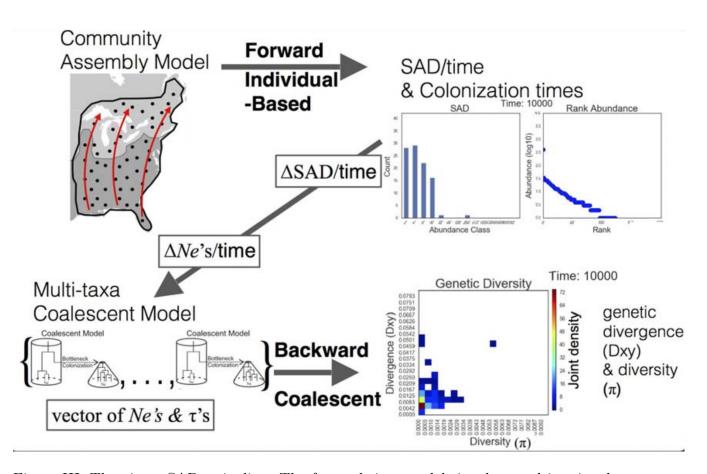


Figure III: The gimmeSAD $\pi$  pipeline. The forward time models involves multi-regional expansion generating local abundance distributions over time with heterogeneity in colonization times. These temporally dynamic local abundances are re-scaled into local  $n_e$  distributions over time to generate multi-species genetic data the coalescent, which is summarized here with a time-dependent joint spectrum of genetic diversity statistics.