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Topographic controls on divide migration, stream capture, and diversification in riverine life

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Abstract. Drainages reorganise in landscapes under diverse conditions and process dynamics. We investigated the relative

10   control that Earth surface process parameters have on divide migration and stream capture in scenarios of base level fall and heterogeneous uplift. A model built with the Landlab toolkit was run 51,200 times in a sensitivity analysis that used globally observed values. Large-scale drainage reorganisation occurred only in the model runs within a limited combination of parameters and conditions. Uplift rate, rock erodibility, and the magnitude of perturbation (base level fall or fault displacement) had the greatest influence on drainage reorganisation. The relative magnitudes of perturbation and topographic relief limited

15   landscape susceptibility to reorganisation. Stream captures occurred more often when the channel head distance to divide was low. Stream topology set by initial conditions strongly affected capture occurrence when the imposed uplift was spatially heterogeneous.

We also modelled riverine species lineages as they developed in response to the single topographic perturbation. We used a

20   new Landlab component called SpeciesEvolver that models species lineages at landscape scale. Simulated species populated to the modelled landscape were tracked and evolved using macroevolutionary process rules. More frequent stream capture and less frequent stream network disappearance due to divide migration increased speciation and decreased extinction, respectively, in the heterogeneous uplift scenario where final species diversity was often greater than the base level fall scenario. Under both scenarios, the landscape conditions that led to drainage reorganisation following a single perturbation

25   also controlled diversification, especially for the species that evolved more rapidly in some model trials. These results illustrate the utility of SpeciesEvolver to explore how life evolves alongside landscapes. Future research applications of SpeciesEvolver can incorporate more complex climatic and tectonic forcings as they relate to macroevolution and surface processes, as well as region- and taxon-specific organisms based in rivers as well as those on continents at large.

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1 Introduction

The evolution of continental drainage networks integrates multiple landscape evolution processes over time, including hydrological, lithological and biological components. Climate, tectonics and rock erodibility set the longitudinal and planimetric form of drainage networks, which in turn sets the landscape relief structure (Whipple, 2004; Anders et al., 2008;

5   Han et al., 2015; Forte et al., 2016; Perron, 2017). Changes of climate and tectonic boundary conditions are progressively transmitted across landscapes by local erosion rate adjustments that can alter drainage patterns (Giachetta et al., 2014; Whipple et al., 2017). Divides migrate and drainages reorganise where erosion rates contrast among adjacent catchments (Gilbert, 1877). Drainage reorganisation is broadly the changes in drainage divide planimetric location and stream topology. We distinguish between two types of drainage reorganisation: divide migration is the progressive movement of a drainage divide, and stream

10   capture occurs when a portion of a stream network loses connectivity to its former network as it joins an adjacent network (Fig. 1). Drainage reorganisation is difficult to document and few direct observations exist (e.g. Stokes et al., 2018), in part because drainages continuously adjust to boundary conditions and evidence of reorganisation is minimally preserved. Drainage reorganisation in turn alters the geographic distribution and evolutionary diversification of species restricted to riverine and riparian habitats (Waters and Wallis, 2000; Albert and Crampton, 2010; Craw et al., 2016). However, how the fundamental

15   processes interact to increase landscape susceptibility to drainage reorganisation and changes in regional biotas remain to be resolved.

Recent research implicates drainage reorganisation in the evolutionary origin and ecological maintenance of high riverine biological diversity in many regions (e.g., Bossu et al., 2013; Roxo et al., 2014; Albert et al., 2018). From a macroevolutionary

20   perspective, regional diversity is characterised by species richness (the number of species) in a clade (a group of organisms, e.g. a species, descending from a common ancestor) arises from the processes of speciation (species lineage splitting forming new species) and extinction (species lineage termination) (Stanley, 1999). From a biogeographic perspective, species richness in a geographically circumscribed region (e.g., island, drainage basin) is a function of speciation, extinction and dispersal (species geographic range expansion) (Hubbell, 2001), and evolutionary time (Rabosky, 2009). In the context of drainage

25   reorganisation, the organisms of a species can disperse across a greater area when a stream network expands by divide migration (Fig. 1). Divide migration also causes networks to shrink, which increases the likelihood of species extinction (Grant et al., 2007). Stream capture increases the probability of speciation in riverine taxa following basin fragmentation (Burridge et al., 2006; Tagliacollo et al., 2015; Waters et al., 2015), and lowers extinction risk following basin integration by allowing the geographic range of species to expand (Grant et al., 2007; 2010). Kozak et al. (2006) and Craw et al. (2016) described regions

30   where lineage diversity was sensitive to drainage reorganisation in part due to stream capture-driven allopatric speciation, which can occur when populations of a species become geographically isolated. Landform preservation, disparate timescales of the aforementioned landscape evolution process components, and the formation of species-dense assemblages of riverine organisms are but a few of the challenges to relate the evolution of a landscape with its lineages.

In this paper we first investigate the conditions and parameter space in which drainages reorganise in response to a single perturbation in a modelled landscape. We address the following questions: 'Are landscapes with low or high topographic relief more susceptible to drainage reorganisation?' and 'What process parameters influence this susceptibility for a landscape with

5   a certain relief?' These questions are explored with simulations of the Earth surface processes most often used in a landscape evolution model (LEM), namely stream incision and hillslope diffusion. Some processes potentially important to stream capture (e.g., inter-basin groundwater flow, mass wasting) are not included in this study. We also investigate the conditions and parameter space in which the lineages of species diversify in response to topographic changes. The lineages represent the species that live in or are closely associated with drainage networks; e.g. the organisms that are adapted to the channels,

10   floodplains or riparian forests of streams. We integrate three macroevolutionary processes (dispersal, speciation, and extinction) into a LEM to ask: 'Do the same parameters that lead to drainage reorganisation also control riverine species diversity within a landscape?' Investigating these three questions together allows us to associate patterns of topographic change with diversification, and apply the new modelling tool, SpeciesEvolver.

2 Description of modelling tools

15   We built a LEM using the Landlab modelling toolkit (Hobley et al., 2017). This scientific computing software provides tools to build 2-dimensional numerical models of Earth surface processes. A landscape is represented by a model grid that Landlab users can easily create with built-in routines. Processes are implemented as model components that control the values of fields, which are data associated with spatial elements of the grid, including a topographic elevation field associated with grid nodes. Multiple components can be coupled to act on the same grid and rely on the same fields. Landlab is open source, written in the

20   Python programming language, and available for download at http://landlab.github.io.

We developed a new Landlab component called 'SpeciesEvolver' that constructs lineages of continentally distributed species at geologic, macroevolutionary, and landscape scales. This component is adapted from the SEAMLESS (Spatially Explicit Area Model of Landscape Evolution by SimulationS) model of organismal diversification (Albert et al., 2016), which

25   iteratively adds and removes barriers within and around the geographic range of species in a 1-dimensional space. SpeciesEvolver works in 2-dimensions to track the geographic range of species, evaluate macroevolutionary rules, and construct lineages all of which can be influenced by landscape properties and processes. For example, surface processes drive topographic change, which may alter habitat connectivity that in turn influences the macroevolutionary processes of lineages composed of simulated species.

30

Species are implemented as classes in the computer code of SpeciesEvolver. The base class provides behaviour and properties that can be expanded or overridden. Users can create classes of alternative and more complex species that inherit from the base

class, which saves users from recoding behaviour already implemented. Users may make essentially limitless modifications— some more readily implemented than others—including requiring a timeframe for an isolation period for a fragmented species to spawn new species, and probabilistic-based rule adaptions for macroevolution processes. In this study, we use the only species class currently distributed with SpeciesEvolver called 'ZoneSpecies'. Instances of this class are associated with zone

5   objects that manage the location of the species in the grid. The location of zones can be set using elevation ranges, landforms, or other attributes defined by the user.

3 Experiment design

We investigated the questions posed in Sect. 1 using a model-based experiment. Drainage reorganisation was triggered by perturbing the simulated topography in two model scenarios: a base level fall scenario with an instantaneous drop of elevation

10   along one model grid boundary, and a fault throw scenario with an instantaneous block uplift of half of the model grid. We predict that major perturbation-driven topographic changes will lead to drainage reorganisation, which in turn will affect species diversification. We conducted sensitivity analyses to identify the model input variables that contributed most strongly to the variation of drainage reorganisation and species diversification as the inputs changed. Henceforth we use the term, 'factor' to refer to a model input parameter that was varied in the sensitivity analyses, and the term 'response' to refer to a

15   model output variable investigated in the analyses. Each scenario was composed of 25,600 trials, which was the number of trials necessary for the total order Sobol index (described in Sect. 3.1) to decrease below 1 % as more trials were run. The scenarios only differed by the perturbation mechanism. Each trial of a given scenario differed only by the values of the seven factors described below.

3.1 Sensitivity analyses

20   We conducted a sensitivity analysis of each model response for both scenarios. A model response, Y can be represented with the function, f as

$$Y = f(X_1, \dots, X_c) \tag{1}$$

where $\{X_1, \dots, X_c\}$ is the factor set, and c is the count of factors in this set. The factor sets for the experiment trials were generated using a quasi-random Sobol sequence (Sobol, 1967). This sequence distributes factor values throughout the

25   parameter space more uniformly than a purely random sequence. The sensitivity analysis benefits from a uniformly distributed parameter space because the response is better characterised when the model is parameterised throughout the interval of all factors.

We used the variance-based Sobol (2001) sensitivity analysis method implemented in the sensitivity analysis library, SALib

30   (Herman and Usher, 2017). Variance-based methods (1) analyse sensitivity globally throughout the parameter space rather than local methods that analyse sensitivity around a point in the parameter space, and (2) aim to decompose the variance of a

response due to variation in the model factors. In the Sobol method, the contributions of factors to responses are expressed as Sobol indices. The relative contribution of X_i to the response variance is the Sobol first-order sensitivity index,

$$S_i = \frac{Var(E[Y|X_i])}{Var(Y)} \qquad (2)$$

where $E[Y|X_i]$ is the expected value of Y given X_i. The first-order index does not include interaction among factors to

5   influence the response. The second-order sensitivity index includes the interaction of X_i and X_j as

$$S_{ij} = \frac{Var(E[Y|X_{\setminus i}, X_{\setminus J}])}{Var(Y)} \qquad (3)$$

where $X_{\setminus i}$ and $X_{\setminus j}$ are all factors excluding X_i and X_j, respectively. The total effect of X_i including interactions is the total order sensitivity index as

$$S_{Ti} = 1 - \frac{Var(E[Y|X_{\setminus i}])}{Var(Y)} \qquad (4)$$

10   The total, first and second order Sobol indices were calculated for each model response analysed in both scenarios. The total order index encapsulates the total variance of the model response including first and higher order interactions. A factor with a large total order index and small first order index indicates a response is influenced through the interaction of multiple factors. A simple way to explain these indices is that they act as the percent contribution of model factors to output variance. Consider a model with three factors. Factor one, two, and three contributes 50, 30, and 20 %, respectively to the model output variance.

15   Further, the sum of the contributions of the total order indices can be greater than 100 % because interactions among factors are essentially counted more than once in the summation.

3.2 Model trial progression

The base level fall and fault throw scenarios proceeded in the same way. Only the mechanisms that perturbed the topography differed between the two scenarios. A model grid with steady state elevation and streams seeded with species was established

20   during the initial conditions phase. The first action in the perturb phase was either dropping the base level, or faulting the topography, depending on the scenario. The simulated landscape and lineages evolved together in this second phase until elevation returned to steady state, at which point the trial ended. In both phases of both scenarios, the time step duration was 1000 years and steady state was defined the same. Steady state was reached when changes in the mean and standard deviation of elevation over the prior 1000 time steps (or 1 million model years) was less than 1%. A generalised trial is illustrated in Fig.

25   2, with trial parameters summarised in Table 1, and these are described in more detail below. The factor values for each trial are available in Lyons et al. (2019).

3.2.1 Initial conditions phase

A Landlab raster model grid was initialised with dimensions of 10 by 20 km and a node spacing of 100 m. The left and right boundaries of the grid were closed to mass export, and the top and bottom boundaries were set to open. These boundary

30   conditions were selected to represent a generic landscape drained by streams that dominantly flow to the north and south

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separated by a main divide that spanned the grid width. The initial elevations of grid nodes were set to values between 0 and 1 m using a pseudorandom number generator. At each grid node the generator selected a number randomly by performing operations on a previously generated value. The first number generated was computed using a seed value that acted as the initial internal state of the random number generator. The value of the seed for each trial was set by the sensitivity analysis factor, 'initial elevation seed' that varied between the arbitrary values of 1 and 20,000 among the trials.

5

The topography of the model grid evolved from the initial generated noise to steady state during the initial conditions phase. The grid elevation field was updated in each 1000-year time step. The land surface elevation, z (m) at each node was modelled following detachment-limited fluvial incision using the stream power model (Howard et al., 1994) and linear hillslope diffusion (Culling, 1963). The downslope transport of hillslope material is proportional to the gradient of the local land surface multiplied by transport coefficient, k_d (m^2 yr^{-1}). The change in elevation over time, t (yr) at each node was modelled as

$$\frac{\delta z}{\delta t} = U - KA^m S^n + k_d \nabla^2 z \tag{5}$$

where U (m yr^{-1}) is rock uplift rate relative to base level, A (m^2) is contributing drainage area, S (m m^{-1}) is local channel slope, and m and n were constants in this experiment. Base level in this study was the top and bottom boundaries of the model grid. The erosion coefficient, K (m^{1-2m} yr^{-1}) encapsulates surface erodibility, and in real landscapes it is commonly assumed to be influenced by rock strength, channel width and bed material, and runoff among other variables (Whipple and Tucker, 1999).

Empirically observed parameter values for uplift, stream incision, and diffusion guided the selection of factor intervals that were explored in experiment trials (Table 1). Regional rock uplift was simulated at each time step by uniformly increasing the elevation of all grid nodes except the nodes along the grid boundary, which were not changed. The magnitude of uplift rate in each trial was set by the 'uplift rate' sensitivity analysis factor. The maximum value of this factor was 1×10^{-3} m yr^{-1}, which is slightly lower than the exceptionally rapid 5×10^{-3} m yr^{-1} uplift rate reported by Burbank et al. (1996) for the northwestern Himalayas. The minimum modelled uplift rate of 1×10^{-5} m yr^{-1} was selected because even lower rates led to an impractical computation time required to reach steady state in preliminary model runs.

25

Following uplift in each time step, surface water flow at each node was routed in the single direction of the steepest descent among the eight adjacent nodes. Stream incision and linear diffusion modified elevation further by the Landlab FastscapeEroder and LinearDiffuser components, respectively. The factor values for the stream power model coefficient, K ranged from 1.0×10^{-6} to 1.0×10^{-4} yr^{-1}. This interval is within values reported by Stock and Montgomery (1999) of about 2.5 $\times 10^{-8}$ yr^{-1} to 2.5×10^{-3} yr^{-1}. Stream power model exponents, m and n were held constant at 0.5 and 1.0, respectively. The factor values for the hillslope diffusion coefficient, k_d ranged from 0.9×10^{-4} to 1.0×10^{-1} m^2 yr^{-1} in a review by Martin (2000). We used a smaller range: 1.0×10^{-3} to 1.0×10^{-1} m^2 yr^{-1}.

Streams were seeded with species immediately after the initial steady state was reached. Grid nodes were designated as streams if the node contributing drainage area was greater than the trial value of the sensitivity analysis factor, 'critical drainage area' (A_c) that varied between 0.5 km^2 and 5 km^2. One species was seeded to each discrete stream network, which was defined as the streams that shared an outlet. The zone of a given species was set to the nodes of the stream network where this species

5 was seeded. All species were instantiated using the ZoneSpecies class of SpeciesEvolver, meaning species had no behaviour designed specifically for this study (see Sect. 2), with the exception that species were instantiated with a non-default value of the parameter, 'allopatric_wait_time'. This parameter allows users to set a delay from the time step when the zone of a species fragmented to the time step when speciation occurs. Speciation, when it is triggered, occurs more rapidly as wait time decreases. In this implementation of SpeciesEvolver, all species of a trial were functionally the same, meaning they behaved

10 similarly when presented with the same landscape conditions. Such functional equivalence (neutrality *sensu* Hubbell 2001) can be relaxed in future implementations. Across the trials during this phase, factor values produced different initial stream networks and species locations. These initial conditions set up the experiment for the next phase.

3.2.2 Perturb phase

The steady state topography was perturbed following the final time step in the initial conditions phase and before the first time

15 step in the perturb phase. The perturbation in a base level fall trial was executed along the bottom boundary of the grid where elevation was decreased by the value of the perturbation magnitude factor, P_m. The perturbation in a fault throw trial was executed by a single vertical fault that instantaneously uplifted the right half of the model grid with a throw equal to the value of P_m. The intent of this scenario is to demonstrate drainage reorganisation initiated from a different pattern than base level decline, rather than creating a realistic fault growth model (e.g. Cowie, 1998). P_m spanned values from 0.1 to 100 m. At each

20 time step in the perturb phase, the surface processes were carried out in the same way as in the initial condition phase, using the same factor values. The signal of the perturbation propagated through the landscape as

$$\frac{\delta x}{\delta t} = KA^m \tag{6}$$

where $\frac{\delta x}{\delta t}$ is the upstream knickpoint migration rate (Berlin and Anderson, 2007).

25 The macroevolutionary processes (i.e. dispersal, speciation, and extinction) in this implementation of SpeciesEvolver ran subsequent to the surface processes in each time step. We primarily used the default setting in SpeciesEvolver, therefore species lineages did not change when the streams did not reorganise. A schematised version of Fig. 1 is provided in Fig. 3 that demonstrates how SpeciesEvolver in this study handled species when drainages did reorganise. In Fig. 3, drainage reorganisation occur between an earlier (T_0) and later (T_1) time step. In T_1, the zones of all species are updated and species

30 disperse to T_1 stream segments from T_0 segments, if any segments do overlap between the two time steps. If a zone of a species was fragmented (due to stream capture, for example), that species divided into one or more child species (clades B and H in Fig. 3), following a delay set by the 'allopatric_wait_time' parameter of SpeciesEvolver (described in Sect. 3.2.1). In this

study, the allopatric wait time varied from 1 to 100 kyr among the trials, consistent with empirical studies on freshwater fishes (Albert and Carvalho, 2011; Tedesco et al., 2012; Albert et al., 2018), and a theoretical model arising from analyses of molecular phylogenies linking speciation to rare stochastic events that cause reproductive isolation (Venditti et al., 2010; Beaulieu and O'Meara, 2015). For example, if the zone of a species became fragmented and the trial value of this factor was

5 1 kyr, speciation occurred in the time step following fragmentation because the time step duration of the model is 1 kyr. Lastly, a species becomes extinct when it is no longer associated with any zones. This occurs when streams in the prior time step do not overlap any streams in the current time step as exemplified by clade D in Fig. 3.

The model iterated through time until the time step when topography returned to steady state at which point the trial ended.
10 This final steady state was defined following the same conditions as the initial steady state described in the introduction of Sect. 3.2. The model responses were determined from the state of the model at this final time step.

3.3 Model response variables

The model response variables were collected from each trial for the sensitivity analyses. Topographic relief was the only response collected during the initial conditions phase. It was calculated as the maximum minus the minimum elevation of the
15 grid, excluding the boundary nodes, at the end of the time step when steady state was reached. Four responses that represent drainage reorganisation and diversification were collected at the end of the perturb phase. The 'divide percent change response' was calculated by dividing the total cell area of nodes that were drainage divides in either the first *or* the final time step by the total cell area of nodes that were divides in the first *and* final time steps. Divides were identified where there were no upstream nodes (i.e. node drainage area equalled the cell area). The calculation for 'stream percent change response' was similar to
20 divide percent change response. Streams were identified as the nodes with drainage areas greater than the trial factor value of A_c. Divide and stream change response values were used to characterise the percent of grid nodes that changed landform category, and these responses are henceforth collectively referred to as 'landform change'. The 'stream capture count response' is the number of stream captures that occurred during the perturb phase. A stream capture occurred when stream nodes at a time step, t overlapped the stream nodes of another network at $t - 1$. The 'species richness percent change response' was
25 calculated as the percent change of species richness between the first and final time step of the perturb phase. It was calculated as the final minus initial species count divided by the initial species count.

4 Results

Animations of selected trials exemplify the topographic response to a perturbation in the two scenarios (V1–V3 in video supplement). Steepened hillslopes and stream knickpoints formed adjacent to the area where topography was perturbed at the
30 onset of the perturb phase. Overtime, the steepened landscape portion moved away from the perturbation and acted as an erosional wave that locally steepened topography at the wave front and lowered it in its wake. The wave separated the upslope

landscape portion yet to adjust to the perturbation from the downslope portion that has adjusted to the perturbation. Model responses of all trials are available in Lyons et al. (2019).

In the base level fall scenario, streams minimally shifted while the wave was in the southern half of the grid. The main divide
5 also was minimally affected in trials with a small P_m where the wave grew and then decayed, all in the southern half of the grid before it reached the main divide. For example, a 2 m base level fall in trial 5043 led to the main divide moving northward by only a few nodes (V1). The main divide was driven almost to the northern boundary following the 72 m base level fall in trial 12613 (V2). The wave propagated at the velocity predicted by Eq. (6) (V1–V2). The analytically predicted knickpoint locations correspond to the location of knickpoints in the modelled landscapes at a given time.
10

Erosional waves initiated along the north, west, and south edges of the right block that uplifted instantaneously at the onset of fault throw scenario trials with sufficiently high P_m, including trial 12613 (V3 in video supplement). The waves propagated up the watersheds of the right upthrown block until the waves reached the main divide at about the same time. The main divide—including the main divide on the upthrown block—did not migrate. The base level was the same for the networks that
15 drained to the north and south boundaries in the fault throw scenario, so the main divide was not driven to migrate systematically towards the upper boundary as it did in the base level fall scenario where only the elevation of the lower boundary dropped. Drainage reorganisation was concentrated near the horizontal centre of the grid in the fault throw scenario contrasting with the base level fall scenario where reorganisation was concentrated in the upper 50 % of the grid. The steeper slope across the fault scarp redirected the flow of some streams on the upthrown block to the west that led to capture by stream
20 networks on the downthrown block. In some trials, stream segments adjacent to the fault became internally drained before they connected to a network that drained to a grid boundary. Watersheds that did not overlap the fault, or were not immediately adjacent to watersheds that overlapped the fault, did not contain networks that reorganised.

4.1 Topographic relief and landform change

Topographic relief of a trial was calculated at the final time step of the initial conditions phase when elevation was at steady
25 state. Relief at this time step reached over 11,000 m among the trials (Table 2). The greater total order Sobol indices of U and K among the factors indicate that U and K most influenced relief (Fig. 4a). Approximately half of the total order index of U is attributed to the first order effect. The difference of the total and first order indices is attributed to second and higher order effects, indicating that relief was also sensitive to factors in addition to U. The only factor pair with a large second order index was U and K (Fig. 4b), meaning the other half of the relief variance is attributed to K. Relief increased with U, and for a given
30 value of U, relief decreased with an increase in K (Fig. 4c).

U, K and P_m were the factors that most influenced landform change during the perturb phase (Fig. 5a–d). We compare the landform change responses to initial steady state relief, rather than U and K individually, because U and K predict relief, and

the relationship between relief, P_m and the landform change responses differed between relatively low and high relief. Relief, P_m and landform change increased together when relief was less than 100 m (Fig. 6a–b). Divides and streams minimally shifted when relief and P_m were low relative to the experiment interval of these variables (e.g. trial 5043; Fig. 7a–d). Stream tips contracted or expanded without capturing segments from adjacent networks. Divides and streams were more mobile as P_m

5   increased (e.g. trial 12613; Fig. 7e–h).

Landform change in the base level fall scenario was concentrated near the main divide in trials that divides and streams were mobile. High P_m relative to relief led to extensive landform change in the northern half of the grid as the main divide drove further northward (e.g. trial 12613; Fig. 7e–f; V2 in video supplement). South-flowing streams extended almost to the northern

10   boundary and tended to reoccupy channels initially incised by north flowing streams. Up to about 80 % stream nodes were changed when relief was less than 100 m in this scenario (Fig. 6e)

Landform change in the fault throw scenario was concentrated near the fault trace. Divide change reached only about 30 % when relief was low (Fig. 6b). Maximum landform change was lower in this scenario where topography was primarily

15   perturbed in catchments near the fault compared to the base level fall scenario where a greater proportion of landforms changed because the perturbation spanned the width of the grid. For this reason, the P_m total order Sobol index of divide change was relatively lower in the fault throw scenario (Fig. 5a–b). A sufficiently high P_m produced a steeper fault scarp that shifted more divides and streams, especially where the direction of steepest descent changed across the fault (e.g. trial 12613; Fig. 7g–h). In both scenarios, a greater P_m produced a steeper erosion front that propagated further and disrupted drainages in its wake.

20   The relatively higher second order Sobol index of factor pair, K and P_m in most of the landform change responses (Fig. 8a,c,d) indicates the relative importance of the interactions among these factors.

Divide change increased with k_d when relief was greater than 100 m in both scenarios (Fig. 6c–d). The increase of k_d with divide change at greater relief, combined with the low range of divide change at low relief in the fault throw scenario, elevated

25   the importance of k_d to this response in this scenario (Fig. 5a–b). In both trials, divide change reached about 40 % in trials where relief was near 100 m and k_d was near the experiment maximum of 10^{-1} m^2 yr^{-1} (Fig. 6c–d). In these trials, the stream networks and area of catchments tended to not change substantially, although many divides shifted a few nodes (e.g. trial 21395; Fig. 7i,k). Trial 21395 is within the area in Fig. 6c–d where k_d increased with divide change. This area corresponds to the trials where K is less than 2×10^{-6} yr^{-1}, the values nearest to the experiment minimum of this factor.

30

The relative influence of the factors on stream change was similar to divide change with a few exceptions (Fig. 5a–d). The total effect of the initial elevation seed was relatively greater for stream change in the fault throw scenario. The total order effect of K was lower for stream change than divide change in the fault throw scenario. Although streams changed in response

to the combined values of multiple factors (Fig. 8d), mostly along with K. The total effect of k_d for stream change was also lower in both scenarios. Stream change was minimally affected by k_d because diffusion minimally affected channels (Fig. 7j,l).

4.2 Stream capture occurrence

5   The frequency and grid location of stream captures differed between the two scenarios. Captures occurred in 3 % and 56 % of the trials in the base level fall and fault throw scenarios, respectively (Table 2). Captures in the trials of the base level fall scenario tended to be located in one of two grid areas. Near the main divide once the erosional wave reached this divide, a stream of a southern network captured a segment of a northern network as the erosional wave drove northward expansion of the southern networks (V2 in video supplement). Captures in this scenario also tended to be located near the lower boundary
10   when nearby streams were diverted to different outlets following base level fall (e.g. trial 12126; V4).

Streams were captured across the fault in the fault throw scenario. In many trials, closed basins (i.e. endorheic) were formed along the fault and were involved in stream capture. First, stream segments detached from the initial networks where the instantaneous fault slip formed a scarp that blocked streamflow and formed closed basins (V3). Over time these basins and the
15   stream segments within them continued to uplift and erode as the local relief declined. The detached segment within the closed basin was captured by a stream that breached the closed basin and hillslopes within the basin were soon dissected again. In few trials, captures also occurred where the upper stream reaches of networks on the upthrown block were captured by a network on the downthrown block.

20   Initial elevation seed had the greatest total order effect and interacted with many factors to influence capture occurrence in the fault throw scenario (Fig. 5f, Fig. 8f). Stream networks emerged during the initial conditions phase from the randomly generated elevation noise at the onset of a model trial. The noise was set by the value of the seed that led to the initial stream networks. The initial location of stream networks was important only in the fault throw scenario because only the networks near the fault were perturbed.

25

Multiple other factors contributed to the number of captures in the trials of both scenarios (Fig. 5e–f). Factors U, K, P_m and A_c were similarly important within a given scenario. Confidence intervals of factors were large in the base level fall scenario where captures occurred in relatively few trials. Nevertheless, the interaction of P_m and K was elevated above other interactions in this scenario (Fig. 8e). We examined capture count versus the ratio of P_m and relief, as largely the result of U
30   and K, given the control that these factors acted together to influence landform change. Streams more readily changed and the number of captures increased rapidly in the trials where P_m:relief was above 1 (Fig. 9a–b). In trials well below this value, captures were fewer and stream change was limited to minor expansion and contraction of stream tips. Numerous fault throw scenario captures did occur when P_m:relief was slightly less than 1. Many of these trials have moderately high relief where

streams fragmented, minimally changed location over one or only a few time steps, and then the segments reconnected. Fragmented streams become distinct networks therefore a capture occurred when the fragments reintegrated.

A_c contributed to the variation in capture count among the trials (Fig. 5e–f). Capture count increased with decreasing A_c (Fig.
5   9c–d). This relationship is most apparent where P_m:relief is near 1 because this ratio value was also required for capture count to increase. Few captures occurred even when A_c was near the experiment minimum of this factor in trials that P_m:relief was well below 1.

4.3 Species richness

The relative influence of factors on species richness change differed between the scenarios more than any other response
10   differed between scenarios (Fig. 5). U, K, and P_m were the factors with the greatest total order indices of species richness percent change in the base level fall scenario. Additionally, the relative magnitudes of the species richness change Sobol indices were more similar to the landform change responses than capture count in this scenario (Fig. 5g; Fig. 8g). The relative importance of P_m to species richness change was comparably lower in the fault throw scenario where the initial elevation seed and k_d total effect indices were comparably greater. The relative magnitudes of species richness change Sobol indices were
15   more similar to capture count than landform change responses in the fault throw scenario (Fig. 5h, 8h).

Species richness did not change or decreased in the majority of the base level fall trials (Table 2; Fig. 10a). A decrease in richness occurs when the final species count is less than the initial count, meaning extinction is more common than speciation. Extinction in this simple implementation of SpeciesEvolver only occurred when the stream network of a species disappeared.
20   Species richness decreased up to 78 % when relief was less than 100 m and a relatively high P_m was required to increase or decrease species richness. In the fault throw scenario, a greater increase in species richness occurred in trials with low relief and even moderate P_m.

Capture count and species richness change increased together with wide variability (Fig. 10c–d). The relationship of allopatric
25   wait time with capture count and species richness change in the base level fall scenario is unclear given the relatively few trials with captures in this scenario. Although, the trials with low wait time increase with capture count and species richness change. In the fault throw scenario, species richness increased as allopatric wait time decreased for a given capture count.

The duration of lineage response to the perturbation differed among the trials. This is exemplified in the trials animated in the
30   video supplement and the phylogeny of their simulated species (Fig. 11). Lineage response ceased soon after the perturbation in exemplary trial 12126 of both scenarios as well as trial 12613 of the fault throw scenario. Lineage response continued to near the end of trial 12613 in the base level fall scenario where captures did not occur until the erosional wave reached the main divide (V5 in video supplement). The lineage of clade F in trial 12613 of the fault throw scenario became most diverse

with 4 species where two stream networks were captured by a third network soon after the perturbation (V6). Clade D in both scenarios of trial 12613 went extinct in the time step following the perturbation.

5 Discussion

5.1 Are landscapes with low or high topographic relief more susceptible to drainage reorganisation?

5 The ratio of the relative value of trial P_m to initial relief was a primary control on the degree of drainage reorganisation. Drainage reorganisation was less extensive in trials with a perturbation magnitude lower than the initial relief. In model trials, an erosional wave was initiated by a vertical magnitude equal to the trial value of P_m, and the magnitude of the wave tended to decay as it approached divides. Cross-divide difference, an indicator of divide instability (Whipple et al., 2017), at the main divide seemingly remained near 0 when P_m was small relative to initial relief thus divides did not migrate. Cross-divide relief
10 difference increased if the wave did not fully decay before reaching the divide. Divides migrated and stream shifted more often as the trial ratio of P_m and initial relief approached and exceeded unity. The divide continued to migrate until the erosional wave decayed or the main divide reached a grid boundary. The magnitude of past perturbations and the spatiotemporal decay of their waves are difficult to determine in real landscapes. Although, topographic relief is easily measured. Model results imply that real world regions or landscape portions with low relief are especially susceptible to extensive divide migration and
15 stream capture compared to areas with greater relief, when all else is relatively less effective at stabilising the organisation of drainages.

5.2 What process parameters influence drainage reorganisation susceptibility for a landscape with a certain relief?

The factors, P_m, K, and U exerted a heightened influence on drainage reorganisation. A greater trial P_m increased reorganisation in the base level fall scenario because it led to greater migration of the main divide, also increasing the
20 opportunity of cross-divide stream tips to capture. In the fault throw scenario, reorganisation was increased when trial P_m was greater because greater slope changes across the fault more likely led to redirected flow. In both scenarios, U and K strongly influenced landform change and capture count, but that is because these factors set relief. K had a greater influence than U on most landform responses because K also set erosional wave celerity. Erosional waves can propagate further when rock erodibility is greater, leading to greater change in the location of divides and streams as well as more stream captures. High
25 erodibility also corresponds with low relief landscapes, increasing the susceptibility of drainage reorganisation following perturbations. Few real-world landscapes have homogenous erodibility in relatively large scale and few modelling efforts have investigated the dynamics of heterogeneous erodibility (e.g. Forte et al., 2016), which likely affects drainage reorganisation as well as macroevolutionary processes. Overall, drainage reorganisation in the model shared similarities with real world examples, e.g. Seagren and Schoenbohm (2019) who concluded that uplift history, erodibility, and local base level controlled
30 the pattern of drainage reorganisation in their study landscape, Sierra de las Planchadas of northwest Argentina.

The relationships between factors and landform change responses transitioned where trial initial relief is about equal to the maximum value of P_m (Fig. 6). A greater proportion of divides migrated in the trials where initial relief exceeded P_m and k_d was relatively high. Greater diffusion produces lower local relief on either side of a divide, although divides moved minimally under this combination of factors (e.g. trial 21395; Fig. 7i,k). Conversely, elongated divide migration, as well as extensive stream change and high capture count occurred when initial relief was relatively low (e.g. trial 12613; Fig. 7e–h). Stream movement and capture are more extensive when relief is low because the perturbation is more effective in changing flow direction.

Other factors modulate drainage reorganisation under certain combinations of factor values and conditions set by the scenarios. The initial elevation seed, which influenced the locations of the initial streams, was indicated by a sensitivity analysis that this factor was the most important of all factors to stream change and capture occurrence in the fault throw scenario. The importance of stream locations would decrease in a landscape following multiple faults where more streams would more likely be near a fault. A_c was more important to stream capture occurrence in the base level fall scenario. This factor effectively set the distance between streams of adjacent networks. Smaller trial A_c would more likely result in more captures because divides would need to migrate less to result in a capture. Although, captures of stream tips across divides in our model might not be captures if the time step was shorter and would instead be instances of migrating divides.

5.3 Do the same parameters that lead to drainage reorganisation also control riverine species diversity within a landscape?

Base level fall and fault throw altered species richness differently. Species richness increased due to the conditions that led to more captures and richness decreased due to the conditions that led to stream network disappearance. In the base level fall scenario, species richness most often decreased during trials because extinctions were numerous and captures occurred in few trials. Network disappearance and extinctions most often occurred in this scenario as the main divide reached near the upper boundary that decreased the drainage area of the catchments to the north of the divide. The factors that drove the main divide, as well as control the celerity and magnitude of the erosional wave, were P_m and K, which were dominant factors in controlling species richness in the base level fall scenario. The number of species typically decreased between the start and end of a base level scenario trial. Species richness decreased in 99.8 % of the trials in this scenario (Table 2). This explains why the combination of factors with high Sobol indices were more similar between species richness and landform change rather than stream capture count. Few captures and associated speciation events occurred in this scenario. Extinction related to divide migration was more common.

In the fault throw scenario, the combination of factors with high Sobol indices were most similar between species richness and stream capture count. Following a capture, the inhabitant species are located in multiple zones and this triggers a speciation

event carried out following the allopatric wait time, meaning that a species was gained in each additional zone where the parent species dispersed (V6 in video supplement). Therefore, species richness and capture count should increase together, which was demonstrated especially in the fault throw scenario. Species richness increased in the majority of trials of this scenario especially those with sufficiently large P_m and low relief (Table 2; Fig. 10b). Fault slip detached stream segments from the

5   initial networks, which triggered speciation because the zone of species became fragmented (V6). In the following time steps these segments were captured by a stream network and the new species dispersed across a greater area. As species richness increased in a network the number of new species associated with a capture increased.

Other factors were important to species richness beyond the factors important to stream capture discussed in Sect. 5.2. The

10   influence of allopatric wait time was evident only in the fault throw scenario (Fig. 5h), because this factor was relevant only to speciation that was common in this scenario. Species richness increased the most when allopatric wait time was relatively short (Fig. 10d). Fewer species were spawned when wait time was long because stream segments would reconnect in the trials where captures were limited to temporary fragmentations of stream networks that did not move. Allopatric wait time represents the speed at which species evolve. Rapidly occurring stream captures led to greater species richness if species evolve faster.

15   Slowly evolving species will not speciate for the captures that temporarily disconnect a stream segment from its original network.

Speciation events were more frequent when A_c was relatively small because streams extended nearer to divides, effectively reducing the perturbation magnitude required for a stream capture. Extinctions in the experiment model will be more frequent

20   when A_c is relatively large because smaller drainages along boundaries are more susceptible to shrinking below A_c, which then causes the network to disappear and its species to become extinct. Additionally, fewer of the closed basins that form in some trials immediately after fault slip will contain networks when A_c is relatively large because the closed basins smaller than A_c do not contain drainage area great enough to contain streams.

25   This application of SpeciesEvolver begun with one species per stream network to investigate lineage development following a single perturbation. We hypothesise that multiple perturbations will tend the number of species and the areal extent that the species inhabit towards the widely reported power-law relationship between these factors (He and Hubbell, 2011). As we brought the modelled landscape to steady state, the initial conditions in future applications of SpeciesEvolver can begin by populating the landscape with a power-law relationship of species set by range area, depending upon the intent of the model.

30   We strictly used a modelling approach in this study to demonstrate a framework in which landscape and life evolution can be investigated together. SpeciesEvolver is capable of site- and taxon-specific studies, including running with a digital elevation models of a real landscape. Linking models, real landscapes and life can be aided by geomorphic abiotic parameters, such as elevational landscape connectivity (*sensu* Salles et al., 2019).

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6 Conclusions

We investigated the conditions in which the drainage networks of a landscape evolution model reorganise. Sensitivity analyses indicate multiple factors influence the occurrence and expansiveness of drainage reorganisation. Reorganisation was extensive when the magnitude of the topographic perturbation exceeded that of the initial relief. The erodibility coefficient of the stream
5   power model was exceptionally important to drainage reorganisation because it controlled both topographic relief and the celerity of the erosional wave that propagated through the landscape following the perturbation. Secondarily, the number of stream captures in a trial was influenced by the critical drainage area of stream initiation and by the initial stream topology when the perturbation was carried out by the throw of a fault. The complexity of these results yielded by a simple model with few parameters helps to demonstrate why the real-world behaviour of stream captures is elusive.

10

We also investigated the dynamics of diversification or riverine species in response to drainage reorganisation. To accomplish this, we built a model component that simulates macroevolutionary processes coupled with surface processes. This component was used in the same model trials of the drainage reorganisation sensitivity analyses. Trial species richness increased by up to 469 % even though each trial was subjected to only one topographic perturbation. Our model illustrates how a landscape with
15   few species can evolve into a biodiversity hotspot following drainage reorganisation, at least for some period following a perturbation. Future applications of the SpeciesEvolver modelling tool can further explore the mechanisms by which organismal lineages respond to landscape changes, and to pursue taxon-specific and region-specific questions regarding the interactions between aquatic biotas and their environments. The SpeciesEvolver component in Landlab is a contribution to the arsenal needed to untangle the topographic controls on biodiversity, and this insight may lead to our ability to learn about
20   landscapes from the species that inhabit them.

Data Availability

Sensitivity analysis trial factor values, model responses, and Sobol indices are available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3482931 (Lyons et al., 2019).

Video Supplement

25   Videos are animations of model output of selected trials that exemplify aspects of drainage reorganization and lineage diversification. All videos animate topographic slope of the model grid on the left. The following videos animate a selected longitudinal channel profile to the right of the grid: V1 (https://doi.org/10.5446/43655), V2 (https://doi.org/10.5446/43656), and V3 (https://doi.org/10.5446/43657). The following videos animate a plot of capture count and species richness to the right of the grid: V4 (https://doi.org/10.5446/43658), V5 (https://doi.org/10.5446/43659), and V6 (https://doi.org/10.5446/43660).
30   Animations begin at the final time step of the initial conditions phase immediately prior to perturbation ('elapsed time' is 0 yrs

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in the animations) and continue until the end of the perturbation phase. Meaning, the first animation frame depicts topography at the initial steady state and the final frame is the second and final steady state.

Author Contribution

N. J. Lyons designed and developed SpeciesEvolver, conducted the experiments, and wrote the manuscript. N. J. Lyons and
5   P. Val devised the model scenarios. P. Val, J. S. Albert, J. K. Willenbring, and N. M. Gasparini reviewed the manuscript.

Competing Interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

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Table 1. Parameters of model trials.

Constant	
time step	1000 yr
drainage area exponent, m	0.5
channel slope exponent, n	1.0
Sensitivity analysis factor	
initial topography seed	$1 - 20,000$
uplift rate, U	$10^{-5} - 10^{-3}$ m yr^{-1}
erodibility coefficient, K	$10^{-6} - 10^{-4}$ yr^{-1}
diffusion coefficient, k_d	$10^{-3} - 10^{-1}$ m^2 yr^{-1}
critical drainage area, A_c	$5 \times 10^5 - 5 \times 10^6$ m^2
perturbation magnitude, P_m	$10^{-1} - 10^2$ m
allopatric wait time, AWT	$10^3 - 10^5$ yr

Table 2. Response summary statistics. The perturb phase statistics are calculated separately for the trials when a given response, R was less than, equal to, or greater than 0. Mean values of R were calculated for the trials where R was not equal to 0.

| Response, R	Statistic	Initial conditions phase	
Topographic relief at steady state	minimum		0.9 m
	mean		447 m
	maximum		11,055 m
	Perturb phase:	Base level fall	Fault throw
Ridge percent change	trial count: $R = 0$	265 (1 %)	173 (1 %)
	trial count: $R > 0$	25,335 (99 %)	25,427 (99 %)
	mean R: $R > 0$ % change	14.85 ± 13.88 %	11.66 ± 10.12 %
Stream percent change	trial count: $R = 0$	1405 (5 %)	1214 (5 %)
	trial count: $R > 0$	24,195 (95 %)	24,386 (95 %)
	mean R: $R > 0$ % change	17.99 ± 23.51 %	8.55 ± 7.94 %
Capture count	trial count: $R = 0$	24,919 (97 %)	11,272 (44 %)
	trial count: $R > 0$	681 (3 %)	14,328 (56 %)
	mean R: $R > 0$ captures	2.35 ± 2.11	2.44 ± 2.14
Species richness percent change	trial count: $R < 0$	10,135 (39.6 %)	5550 (21.7 %)
	trial count: $R = 0$	15,412 (60.2 %)	10,376 (40.5 %)
	trial count: $R > 0$	53 (0.2 %)	9674 (37.8 %)
	R mean: $R < 0$ % change	-25.10 ± 19.68 %	-12.23 ± 5.59 %
	R mean: $R > 0$ % change	10.80 ± 4.56 %	19.92 ± 16.62 %
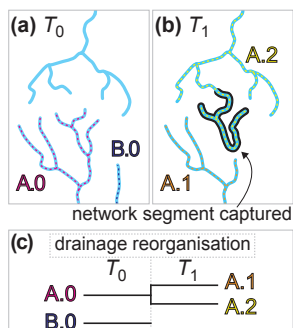
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Figure 1. Conceptual model of drainage reorganisation and riverine species macroevolution. Three stream networks exist in a hypothetical landscape at the time, T_0 (a). Riverine species, A.0 inhabits the lower-left stream network and B.0 inhabits the lower-right network. Drainages reorganised between T_0 and a later time, T_1. Reorganisation was in part carried out by a stream capture where a network

5   segment broke off the lower-left network and joined the upper network (b). Members of species A.0 that existed in the captured segment dispersed throughout the upper network creating two populations of this species in distinct stream networks that speciated child species, A.1 and A.2. Drainage reorganisation also led to the stream network of B.0 to disappear, driving the extinction of this species. The lineage history of the species before and after drainage reorganisation is presented in a phylogenetic tree (c). After Albert et al. (2011).
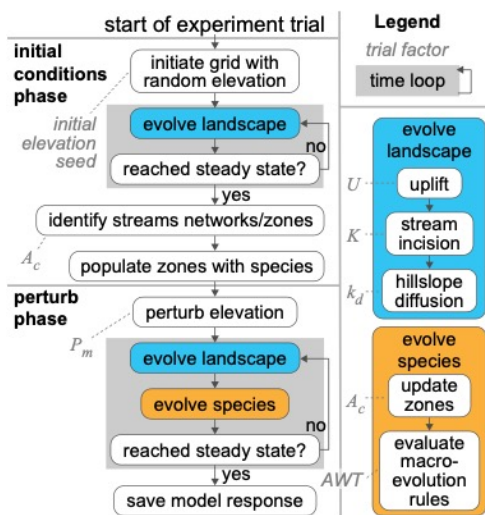
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Figure 2. Progression of an experiment trial. The base level fall and fault throw scenario trials progressed as outlined in this flow chart. The two phases of the model both included a time loop. The steps in the time loop were repeated until topography reached steady state. The evolution processes in the time loops are detailed on the right. Dashed lines connect trial factors to the steps that the factors parameterise.
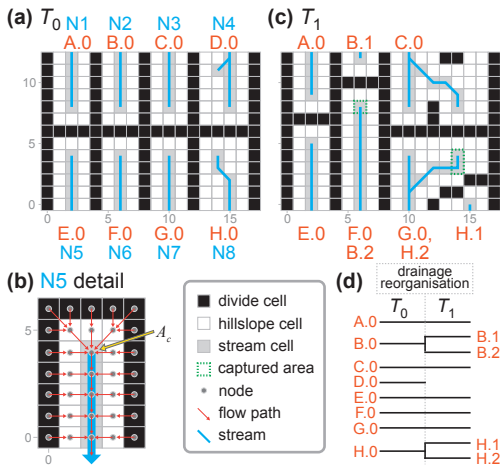
Figure 3. Downscaled schematic of modelling approach. (a) A schematised steady-state landscape where the main divide separates 8 stream networks (N1…N8) that each flow to either the north or south boundary. (b) The species and zones of SpeciesEvolver are defined at the nodes of a Landlab grid. In this study, nodes with a drainage area greater than A_c define the zone of a species. (c) The landscape following reorganisation. N6 and N7 captured areas from adjacent networks. While N3 did extend into the watershed of N4, it did not overlap the stream nodes of the prior time step, therefore N3 did not capture N4 following the strict definition of capture in this study. N4 disappeared because all nodes in the northeast watershed have a drainage area below the critical drainage area. (d) The phylogenetic tree of the species in (a) and (c).
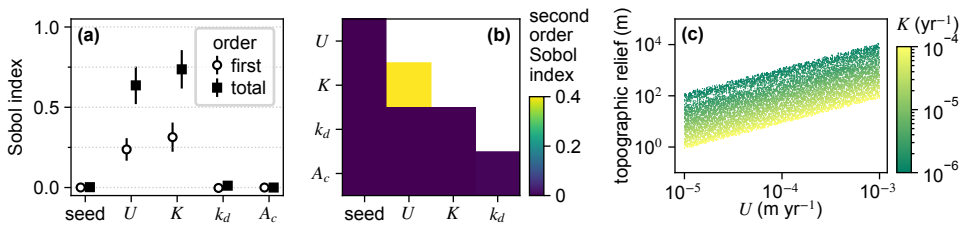
Figure 4. Sobol indices of topographic relief. (a) The first and total order Sobol indices of relief at the initial steady state. Model input factors are on the x-axis where seed is the initial elevation seed. (b) Second order Sobol indices of relief. Factors are on the x- and y-axes. (c) Relief versus U and K. Each point represents one of the unique steady state landscapes created in the initial conditions phase.
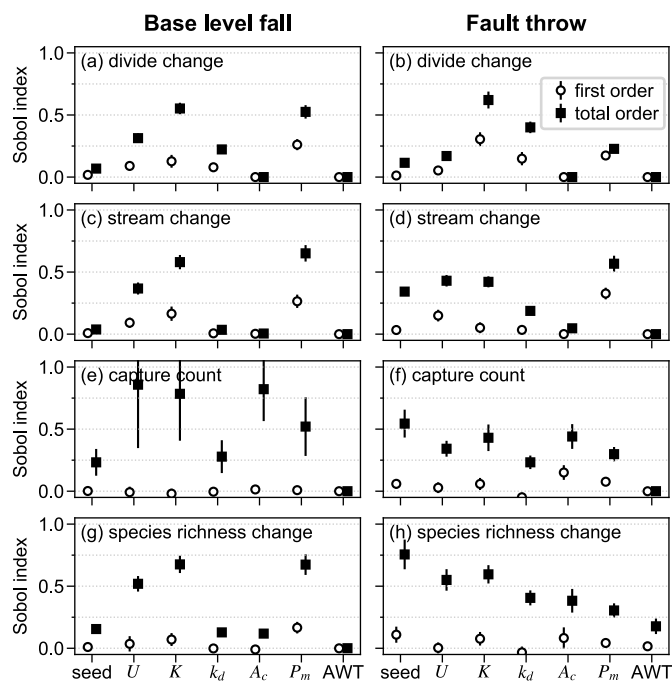
Figure 5. First and total order Sobol indices of drainage reorganisation responses. The factors are along the x-axis for each of the responses (a–h) where seed refers to the initial elevation seed.
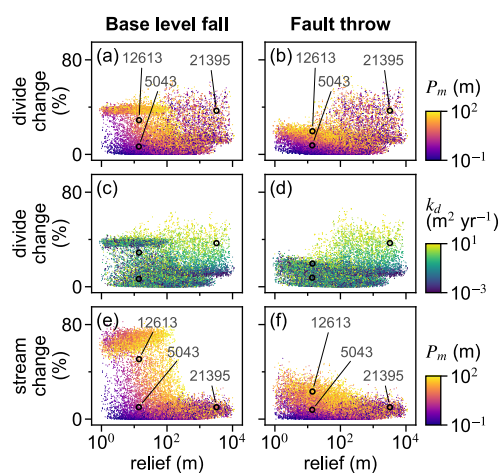

Figure 6. Landform change responses versus initial relief. Responses of all trials for divide percent change (a–d) and stream percent change (e–f). The labelled points are the IDs of trials depicted in Fig. 7 and described in the text.
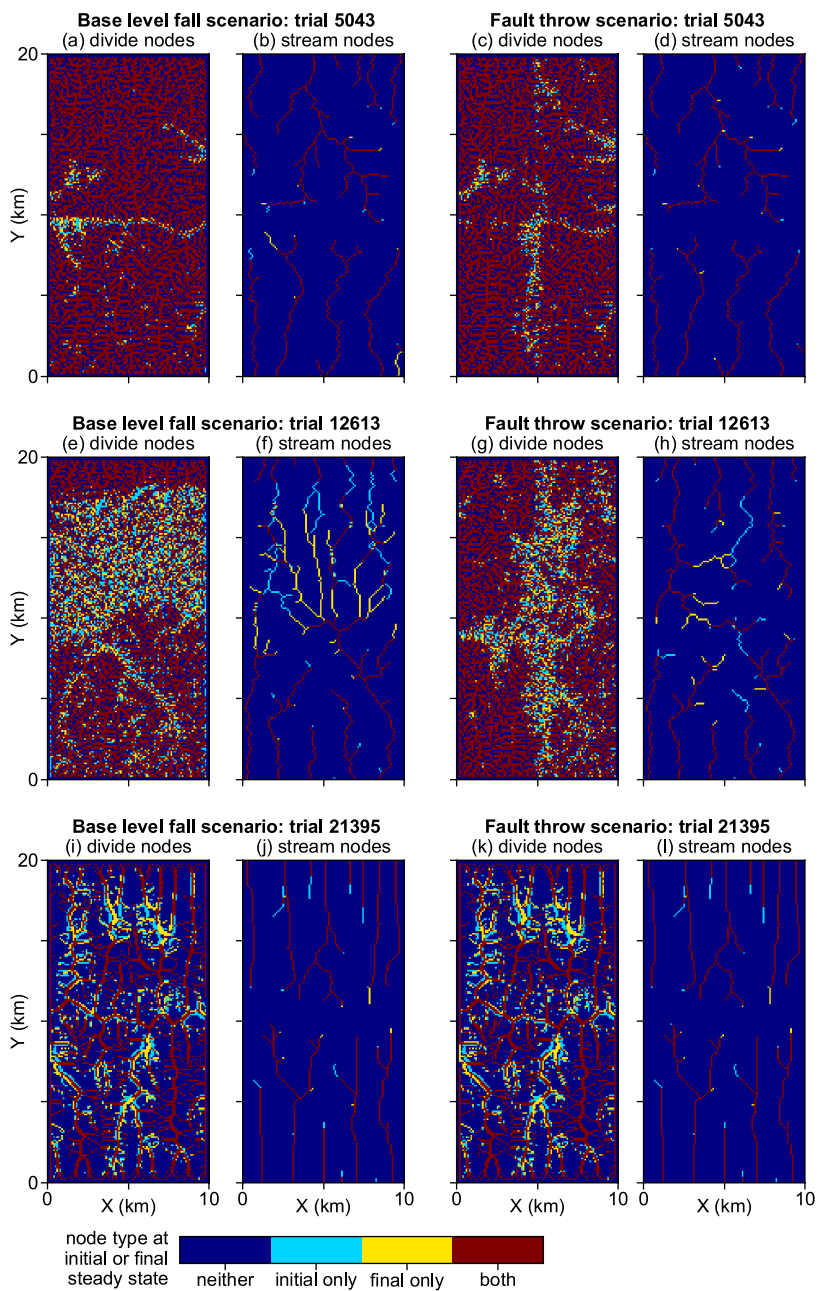
Figure 7. Landform change of exemplary trials. The colour of grid cells symbolises landform type at the initial and final steady state in the model. Blue areas were not the landform type (divide or stream) in a given subplot at the times of either steady state. Red areas were the subplot landform type in both steady state times. Cyan and yellow areas were the subplot landform type in the initial and final steady state, respectively.
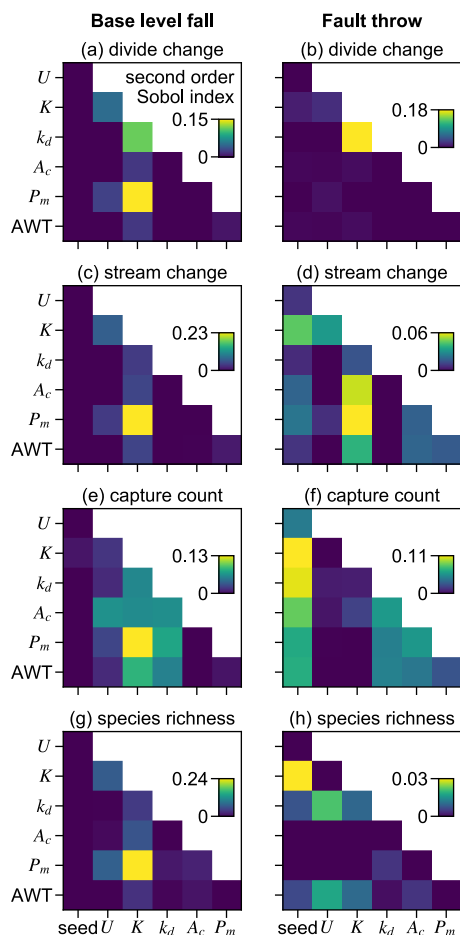
Figure 8. Second order Sobol indices. Second order indices of paired model factors for the perturb phase responses. A relatively large value in a subplot indicates that the interaction of the factor pair affects the response more than other factor pairs with lower index values.
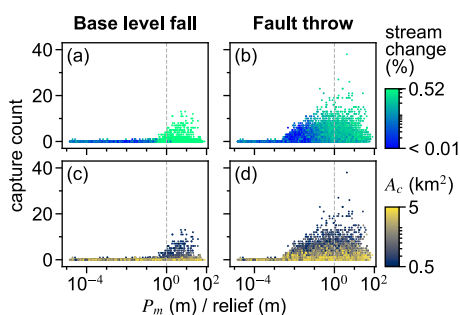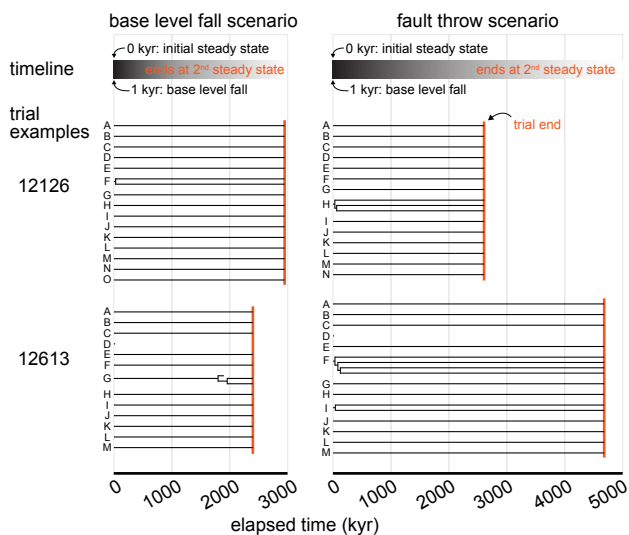

Figure 9. Capture count versus the ratio of P_m and relief. P_m and relief are equal at the dashed line.
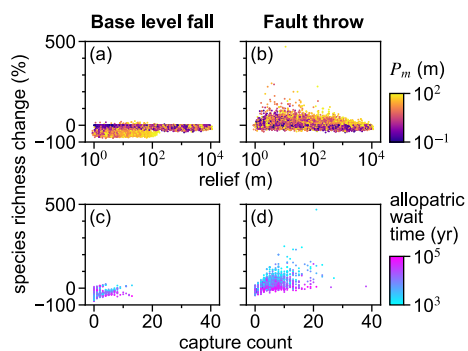
Figure 10. Species richness percent change. Species richness change versus relief (a–b) and capture count (c–d).

5   **Figure 11. Phylogeny of exemplary trials.** Topography was perturbed by base level fall of fault throw at 1 kyr elapsed since the first steady state was reached. Most of the trials animated in the video supplement are shown. Trial 5043 is not included. Species did not change in this trial because no stream networks disappeared or were captured. The lineages of clades in a trial are labelled alphabetically. Speciation events occurred where lineages split and extinctions occurred where lineages terminated before the end of the trial.