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# Biodiversity maintenance may be lower under partial niche differentiation than under neutrality

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Running head: Niche differentiation and persistence

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### Abstract

Niche differentiation is normally regarded as a promoter of species coexistence in competitive 2 systems, as it stabilizes species abundances. One might therefore expect lower extinction rates 3 and higher species richness and local persistence times in niche-differentiated communities than 4 in neutral assemblages. Here we compare stochastic niche and neutral dynamics in simulated 5 assemblages, and find that when local dynamics combine with immigration from a regional pool, the effect of niches can be more complex. Trait variation that lessens competition between 7 species will not necessarily give all immigrating species their own niche to occupy. Such partial 8 niche differentiation protects certain species from local extinction, but expedites exclusion of 9 others. Differences in regional abundances and intrinsic growth rates have similar impacts on 10 the distribution of persistence times as niche differentiation and blur the distinction between 11 niche and neutral dynamical patterns, though niche dynamics will influence which species persist 12 longer. Ultimately, unless the number of niches available to species is sufficiently high, niches 13 may actually heighten extinction rates and lower species richness and local persistence times. 14 Our results help make sense of recent observations of community dynamics, and point to the 15 dynamical observations needed to discern the influence of niche differentiation. 16

Key words: Partial niche differentiation, stochastic niche dynamics, local persistence time,
 community dynamics, neutral dynamics, competitive coexistence, community assembly, immigration.

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### <sup>19</sup> Introduction

Niche differentiation is widely considered a prime force behind species coexistence, and thus instrumental in maintaining biodiversity. Niche differentiation stabilizes communities by guaranteeing positive growth rates of rare species (Chesson, 1991, 2000). Without such stabilization, coexistence is only temporary, and biodiversity can only be maintained if gains from immigration or speciation compensate losses to competitive exclusion or drift as posited in neutral theory (Hubbell, 2001).

Views on the implications of niche differentiation for biodiversity maintenance mostly come from 25 deterministic community models with no immigration. However, stochastic formulations, which 26 model the influence of variability in finite populations whose deterministic details are unknown or 27 unrelated to species differences, are more relevant for natural systems. In such settings, coexistence 28 is defined in a probabilistic sense (Schreiber, 2015). Furthermore, many if not most communities in 29 nature are subject to propagule pressure from regional pools. In such open-community scenarios, 30 species may persist for a substantial period of time due to mass effects, and extinction is not an 31 absorbing state since later re-colonization is always possible. One measure of diversity maintenance 32 in this context is species mean persistence time – the average time between introduction through 33 immigration and extirpation through drift or competitive exclusion. 34

Persistence times have been studied as indicators of ecological processes (Leigh et al., 1993; 35 Magurran and Henderson, 2003), and have been explored theoretically in the context of neutral 36 dynamics (Leigh et al., 1993; McGill et al., 2005; Pigolotti et al., 2005; Nee, 2005; Condit et al., 2012; 37 Bertuzzo et al., 2011; Segura et al., 2017). Recent studies found that stabilizing niche differentiation 38 considerably prolongs persistence times (Pigolotti and Cencini, 2013; Carroll and Nisbet, 2015). 39 However, the niche scenarios proposed in these studies tend to be extreme. For example, Pigolotti 40 and Cencini (2013) used a stochastic version of a simplified Lotka-Volterra model where all species 41 interactions are identical except that competition is stronger within than across species (Haegeman 42 and Loreau, 2011). This corresponds to a biological scenario where all species stably coexist and 43 in this sense occupy their own niche. The authors found that niche stabilization increased species 44 persistence times compared with neutral assemblages. Given this extreme degree of stabilization, 45 the higher persistence is not surprising. 46

A niche for every species is unlikely in highly diverse systems such as tropical forests, where it 47 has been argued that the niches-to-species ratio can be low (Hunter and Foster, 1986; Holt, 2006). 48 Even in lower diversity systems, there is no clear evidence that all species can mutually invade 49 from low abundance. Empirical demonstration of frequency dependence is rare (Siepielski and 50 McPeek 2010, but see Adler et al. 2010; Chu and Adler 2015). On the other hand, there is evidence 51 suggesting competition increases with higher phenotypic similarity (Johansson and Keddy, 1991; 52 Jiang et al., 2010; Burns and Strauss, 2011). Models with this type of competitive structure predict 53 limits to similarity between species that can coexist in stable equilibrium; those outside these limits 54 are eventually excluded by stronger competitors (MacArthur and Levins, 1967). However, some 55 species are excluded faster than others, resulting in the spontaneous formation of transient clusters 56 of similar species (Scheffer and van Nes, 2006; Fort et al., 2009). In particular, those with the most 57 unfavorable traits might be excluded faster than under pure drift. Given a continuous supply of 58 immigrants, a neutral scenario may even sustain more species. 59

In addition to niche relations, other types of species differences also affect local dynamics. 60 Environmental filtering may cause non-stabilizing fixed differences in species growth and death rates, 61 which can dramatically change richness, persistence times, and abundance distributions relative 62 to neutrality (Zhou and Zhang, 2008; He et al., 2012). Furthermore, immigration will promote 63 local persistence of regionally common species over regionally rare ones. Although immigration can 64 stabilize communities as it pushes local relative abundances towards regional relative abundances, it 65 is conceptually different from stabilization caused by ecological advantages to rare species, i.e. niches. 66 One wonders whether the effects of niche differences on persistence are similar or fundamentally 67 different from those of species differences unrelated to niches. 68

Here we hypothesize that a local species assemblage where the number of niches available is less 69 than the number of species in the regional pool may have lower diversity and shorter persistence 70 times on average than a completely neutral community of the same size and subject to the same 71 propagule pressure. To test that hypothesis, we perform a simulation-based study of an open local 72 community under stochastic niche dynamics with a adjustable number of niches. We compare 73 species richness, persistence times, and extinction rates against a fully neutral assemblage. We then 74 see how results change when we add differences in regional abundances, immigration, and intrinsic 75 growth rates. Finally, we test how the number of niches affects comparison with neutrality. 76

### $_{77}$ Methods

### 78 Simulated dynamics

We use a lottery model to implement stochastic dynamics in a local community subject to immigration 79 from a regional pool. The local community has a fixed number of individuals, and in each time step 80 a single individual dies and is replaced by a new individual. When a death occurs, the probability 81 that it befalls species i is  $\sum_{j} A_{ij} N_i N_j / \sum_{kl} A_{kl} N_k N_l$ , where  $N_i$  is species i's abundance and the 82 coefficient  $A_{ij} > 0$  reflects the degree of competition between species i and j. The new recruit can 83 be either a local offspring with probability 1 - m or an immigrant from the regional pool with 84 probability m. If it is a local offspring, the probability that species i is chosen at this stage is 85  $r_i N_i / \sum_j r_j N_j$ , where  $r_i$  is the intrinsic growth rate of species *i*. If the recruit is an immigrant, 86 species i is chosen with probability given by its relative abundance in the regional pool  $p_i$ , where 87  $\sum_i p_i = 1.$ 88

If we set all  $r_i$  = constant and  $A_{ij}$  = 1, then per capita birth and death probabilities are 89 the same across species and this model becomes identical to Stephen Hubbell's (2001) neutral 90 community model. Our model is an extension of Hubbell's model where we allow for species 91 differences, which appear as differences in the  $r_i$  and  $A_{ij}$ . The niche mechanism consists of the 92 map between species traits and the competition coefficients  $A_{ij}$ . We note that we are placing 93 density-dependent competitive effects on deaths, but preliminary tests revealed that none of our 94 results change qualitatively by placing them on births instead. We also note that our model is 95 similar to classical Lotka-Volterra dynamics, though in stochastic form. In fact, we numerically 96 verified that it yields the same qualitative behavior as a Gillespie implementation of stochastic 97 Lotka-Volterra dynamics (see Appendix S1). 98

<sup>99</sup> By fixing community size, we can focus on the impact of competition; otherwise, fluctuations in <sup>100</sup> community size would also affect dynamics regardless of the competitive structure. To facilitate <sup>101</sup> comparison we use the same community size in all our scenarios. We set the local community size <sup>102</sup> at 21,000 individuals, which mirrors a typical real-world scenario of trees exceeding 10 cm diameter <sup>103</sup> at breast height in a 50-hectare plot of tropical forest (e.g., Barro Colorado Island, Pasoh Forest <sup>104</sup> Dynamics Plot). We also verified that using a different community size had no qualitative impact <sup>105</sup> on our results. Abundances in the regional pool, which contains 150,000 individuals and 400 species,

are either identical or follow a neutral logarithmic (log-series) distribution (Volkov et al., 2003).
Additional simulations verified that a larger regional pool had no impact on quantitative results.

We start the local community with a random draw of offspring from the regional pool, and then 108 simulate dynamics for 50 million death and replacement events, at which point species abundance 109 distributions appear stationary. We then run for another 50 million death and replacement events 110 while keeping track of all introduction and extirpation events, for a total of 100 million steps, 111 corresponding to roughly 5,000 community turnovers. At the end of a run, we measure species 112 richness, mean extinction rate, and species persistence times. The latter we calculate as the average 113 number of steps that each species remained in the local community between being introduced 114 through immigration and being extirpated due to competitive exclusion or drift. Given the low 115 variation in these indices across replicates of the same scenario (see Results), we decided that 10 116 replicates of each is sufficient. 117

Note that although we are measuring time in terms of events (death immediately followed by replacement), we are not necessarily assuming constant intervals. If time is measured in terms of days or years etc, there will be an exponential distribution of intervals between consecutive events (assuming deaths follow a Poisson process). Approximating the rate of deaths per unit time as fixed, the expected value of the relative persistence times measured in physical time units will be very close to the relative persistence times measured in events.

All simulations were coded in the R computer language (version 3.4.1, R Core Team 2017). The code is available at https://github.com/rafaeldandrea/Persistence-Times-Code/blob/ master/PersistenceTimesCode.r.

### 127 Scenarios

We pin competition to phenotypic (trait) similarity by setting  $A_{ij} = \exp\left[-\left(\frac{x_i-x_j}{w}\right)^4\right]$ , where  $x_i = (i-1)/400$  is the trait value of species *i* (traits range between 0 and 1). This is a commonly used decreasing function of trait difference (Hernández-García et al., 2009; Pigolotti et al., 2010). Another common choice is Gaussian competition, where the power 4 in the exponential function is replaced with 2, but that has been shown to be mathematically idiosyncratic (Hernández-García et al., 2009), and leads to very slow competitive sorting. The scale constant *w* determines how quickly competition decreases with trait difference. When  $w \approx 0$ , each species competes only with

itself, corresponding to a case where each species has its own niche (complete niche differentiation). In the opposite extreme  $w \to \infty$ , all species compete equally in the same single niche (neutral competition). In between is partial niche differentiation, where there are fewer niches than species: competition is stronger between more similar species, and only those sufficiently niche-differentiated would be able to coexist in the absence of immigration.

By analogy with common statistical terminology for null and alternative hypotheses, we will refer to communities lacking niche stabilization as  $H_0$  assemblages, and those with niche stabilization as  $H_1$  assemblages. In terms of our parameters,  $H_0$  assemblages have  $w \to \infty$  and hence  $A_{ij} = 1$ between all species pairs (neutral competition), whereas in our  $H_1$  assemblages w is finite and  $A_{ij}$ vary based on trait differences.

Table 1 describes all our scenarios and our corresponding hypotheses as to the impact caused 145 by the factor being varied. Our first scenario, termed the Baseline, isolates the impact of partial 146 niche differentiation by considering  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  assemblages where all species have identical regional 147 abundances and intrinsic growth rates, so that the only differences between species are niche 148 differences. Next we check how niche differences affect persistence when acting in concert with other 149 species differences that do not contribute to stable coexistence. In Variants 1 and 2, some species 150 immigrate more frequently than others because of differences in regional abundances. In Variants 3 151 and 4, some species have higher intrinsic growth rates than others because of physiological constraints 152 or environmental filtering. In Variant 2, we additionally test for the impact of immigration by giving 153 all species ten times the dispersal ability used in the rest of the study (m = 0.1 versus m = 0.01. As 154 a reference point, immigration rates at Barro Colorado Island are estimated at m = 0.08, Chisholm 155 and Lichstein 2009). 156

Finally, we look at the impact of varying the number of niches available to our 400 species. We 157 define the number of niches as the number of species that can coexist without immigration in the 158 deterministic formulation of our model. In all scenarios shown in Figs. 1 and 2 we set w = 0.063, 159 which leads to 12 niches and thus about 33 species per niche. By lowering parameter w we raise the 160 number of niches from 12 to 400 (1 species per niche, i.e. full niche differentiation). For this part, 161 we use Variants 1 and 2, where regional abundances are logarithmically distributed as in a neutral 162 metacommunity (Volkov et al., 2003). Results for Variant 1 (where m = 0.01) are shown in Fig. 3, 163 and results for Variant 2 (where m = 0.1) are shown in the supporting information. 164

### 165 **Results**

When regional abundances and intrinsic growth are identical across all species (Baseline scenario), the assemblage with partial niche differentiation  $(H_1)$  stands in high contrast with the neutral assemblage  $(H_0)$ , as shown in Fig. 1. In  $H_0$ , persistence times show no relation to species trait values (Fig. 1A) and do not correlate with species abundances observed at the end of the simulation (correlation index  $\rho_{\log(N),\log(T)} = 0.008$ ). By contrast, in  $H_1$  persistence times and species abundances are highly non-random (Fig. 1B), and correlate strongly with each other ( $\rho_{\log(N),\log(T)} = 0.86$ , see also Appendix S2: Fig. S1).

A distinctive pattern is seen along the trait axis: species lump together, and the lumps or 173 clusters are separated by gaps of low abundance (and corresponding low persistence times). This 174 clustered pattern occurs in all our simulations (see Appendix S2: Fig. S4-S6, S8), and indeed has 175 received attention in the recent literature on niche dynamics (Scheffer and van Nes, 2006; Holt, 2006; 176 Fort et al., 2009, 2010; Pigolotti and Cencini, 2013; D'Andrea and Ostling, 2016). We verified in 177 our simulations that if immigration is turned off, the clusters eventually disappear, and one species 178 remains per each cluster. Each cluster therefore represents a niche, and under immigration each 179 niche is occupied by more than one species. The residents are the species best adapted to their 180 niche, and are the ones that remain in the absence of immigration. 181

There is much higher variation in mean persistence time across species in the partially stabilized 182 assemblage than the neutral counterpart (Fig. 1C; also compare red curves in Figs. 1A and 1B). 183 The histogram of persistence times (Fig. 1C) reveals that (i) a few species in  $H_1$  but none in  $H_0$  are 184 residents, i.e. were present throughout the tracking period of the simulation, never going extinct; 185 (ii) the vast majority of species in  $H_1$  not only are transient but in fact have lower persistence 186 times than in  $H_0$ . Residents benefit from stabilization and can in principle remain indefinitely 187 (barred stochastic fluctuations), thus heavily driving mean persistence times in  $H_1$ . Indeed if 188 residents are discounted, the average persistence time in  $H_1$  drops from higher to lower than the 189 neutral assemblage (Fig. 1D). Importantly, the outsize influence of residents on community-averaged 190 persistence times does not translate to higher diversity or lower extinction. In fact, both species 191 richness and community-averaged extinction rates are lower in the partially stabilized assemblage 192 than under neutrality, whether or not residents are accounted for (Fig. 1D). 193

When some species are more abundant than others in the regional pool causing differences in 194 immigration rates (Variant 1), the persistence time distribution shifts towards the extremes (Fig. 195 2A and 2E): on one hand, transients have shorter persistence times compared to when the pool 196 is homogeneous; on the other hand, the neutral community now also has residents, and in  $H_1$  the 197 number of residents is higher than before. These new residents arise not from stabilization but 198 because of their comparatively high regional pool abundance (Appendix S2: Fig. S2). As a result, 199  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  now have more similar distribution of persistence times than in the Baseline scenario 200 (compare Fig. 2A, 2E). 201

Keeping the differences in regional abundances and increasing immigration tenfold (Variant 202 2), we see most persistence times increase and many species become residents in both  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ 203 assemblages (Figs. 2B, 2F, compare with Figs. 2A, 2E). A few species now have actually lower 204 persistence times due to regional rarity. Overall, regional abundances become stronger determinants 205 of persistence times compared with the lower immigration scenario. Again,  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  communities 206 are more similar to each other than in the Baseline scenario (compare Figs. 2B and 2E). It should 207 be noted that although high immigration may make the persistence time distributions essentially 208 indistinguishable, niche differentiation still influences which species are residents (Appendix S2: 209 Fig. S3). We also note that a comparable increase in immigration when the pool is homogeneous 210 trivially makes all species residents in both the  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  assemblages (results not shown). 211

The introduction of intrinsic growth advantages to species with intermediate trait values (Variant 212 3) dramatically lowers persistence times for most species in  $H_0$  compared to the Baseline, while 213 promoting those few species with the highest intrinsic growth to resident status (compare pale- and 214 dark-colored bars in Fig. 2C). The effects on the  $H_1$  assemblage are more subtle, with persistence 215 times actually increasing for several species (Fig. 2G), and correlating negatively with intrinsic 216 growth ( $\rho_{r,\log T} = -0.2$ , see also Appendix S2: Fig. S4). However, the qualitative shape of the  $H_1$ 217 persistence time distribution is unchanged, indicating that intrinsic growth rates have a small effect 218 on  $H_1$  exclusion dynamics relative to frequency-dependent competition. Again, the  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ 219 persistence time distributions become less distinguishable compared with the baseline where all 220 intrinsic growth rates are identical (compare Figs. 2C and 2G). 221

Differences in intrinsic growth rates that are unconnected to the niche-related trait (Variant 4) shorten the persistence times of almost all species in both the  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  assemblages, but once

again the effect is much stronger on the assemblage lacking stabilization (Fig. 2D, 2H). As with
previous variants, niche and neutral communities are more similar than in the Baseline.

In summary, differences in regional abundances and intrinsic growth have a qualitatively similar effect on persistence times as niche differentiation: persistence times of most species is very short, while those of a few species is indefinitely long. As a result, the persistence time distribution is qualitatively similar whether or not niche differentiation is present. On the other hand, relative to the Baseline scenario where all regional abundances and intrinsic growth rates are identical, the effect is much stronger on  $H_0$  communities than  $H_1$  communities (compare the dark- and light-shaded bars in the top and bottom rows of Fig. 2).

As we increase the number of niches while keeping regional diversity fixed, all our biodiversity metrics improve from worse to better than in the neutral community (Fig. 3). In particular, as fewer species compete for the same niche tending towards full niche differentiation (one species to one niche, on the left end of the graph), extinction tends to zero and richness escalates. Persistence times increase dramatically. Most of the improvement stems from the larger number of residents; persistence across transients also improves, but more slowly (compare blue and black curves in Fig. 3, see also Appendix S2: Fig. S5).

We note that the specific degree of stabilization required for higher persistence in the  $H_1$ assemblage depends on the particulars of the community, such as immigration rates and niche axis geometry (Appendix S2: Fig. S6, S7), but the qualitative results are the same: biodiversity maintenance can be actually lower in a community with niches compared with a neutral community, unless the number of niches is sufficiently high.

### 245 Discussion

By building on the framework of neutral models (Alonso et al., 2006), our study sheds light on biodiversity maintenance in an open community where species similarity bears competition and the number of species exceeds the number of niches. Partial niche differentiation stabilizes species abundances and may indefinitely prolong local persistence times of certain species, but at the community level it does not guarantee higher richness, longer persistence times, or lower extinction rates. Differences in regional abundances and intrinsic growth rates also affect dynamics, having

a bigger impact on the assemblages lacking stabilization entirely. This showcases the robustness 252 of stabilized assemblages against other dynamical forces, in contrast with the susceptibility of 253 neutral dynamics. On the other hand, those species differences have a qualitatively similar impact 254 on persistence times as niche differences: most species go out fast while a few last indefinitely. 255 Moreover, high immigration blurs the dynamical differences between stabilized and non-stabilized 256 communities. We conclude that niche differentiation can raise or lower richness, persistence, and 257 extinction, depending on a series of factors examined in this study, and the effect is qualitatively 258 similar to other types of species differences. It follows that these indices alone cannot distinguish 259 between neutral and partially stabilized dynamics, unless one knows sufficient details about the 260 community of interest to parametrize the niche model. 261

We note that the niche axis in our model is finite, and hence has edge effects. Although some 262 modelers use circular axes to avoid this, we reckoned a finite linear axis is more realistic. In a 263 highly symmetric case like our Baseline scenario where the only differences between species are niche 264 differences, circularity drastically dampens the influence of niches on persistence times (Appendix 265 S2: Fig. S6). This is because the positions of the niches on a finite axis are set, whereas on a circular 266 axis they constantly shift through time, thus mitigating the effects of stabilization. However if other 267 asymmetries occur, such as differences in regional abundances, the effect of circularity disappears 268 (Appendix S2: Fig. S7), making the choice of a finite or circular axis inconsequential. Also, for the 269 reader interested in the common choice of exponent 2 as opposed to 4 in the competition coefficients 270  $A_{ii}$ , we show in the supporting information (Appendix S2: Fig. S8) that the persistence time 271 distribution in that model is much closer to neutrality (even on a finite axis). This is not surprising 272 given the slower and weaker exclusion dynamics. 273

Our niche model shows a distinctive pattern of abundances by traits, mirrored by a similar 274 pattern of persistence times: species are organized in clusters and separated by gaps; those at the 275 center of the clusters are the residents and those at the gaps are the shortest-living transients. Each 276 cluster is a group of species competing for the same niche, and in the absence of immigration only 277 one species remains in each niche. Clusters are a recent extension of classical ideas of limiting 278 similarity (MacArthur and Levins, 1967; Scheffer and van Nes, 2006; Holt, 2006; Pigolotti and 279 Cencini, 2013). Fort et al. (2009) showed mathematically that they arise as a transient state on any 280 deterministic niche model with a circular axis and competition tied to species similarity. Our model 281

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is similar but adds demographic stochasticity, immigration, and a finite axis. Clusters have been
seen under these circumstances before (Barabás et al., 2013), and we recently proposed that they
are a general outcome of niche-axis models (D'Andrea and Ostling, 2016).

Note that while not all species have enhanced persistence under partial stabilization, the number of species that do is higher than the number of niches. In other words, it is not the case that only those species with a niche have enhanced persistence relative to neutrality. As we emphasized, the particular number will depend on immigration, regional abundances, environmental filtering, and the map between species traits and degree of competition.

In our study we did not account for temporal changes in environmental conditions which may affect competitive interactions and intrinsic growth rates. Environmental stochasticity in neutral models has been recently shown to be an important driver of species abundances (Kalyuzhny et al., 2015; Chisholm et al., 2014), and therefore presumably also of persistence times. It would be an interesting next step to test its effects on stabilized assemblages.

Our results are compatible with real-life observations of "core" species that persist for long 295 times and "occasional" populations that regularly undergo local extinction and recolonization events 296 (Magurran and Henderson, 2003). Magurran and Henderson found that occasional species in their 297 study typically had different habitat requirements than core species, which suggest their differences 298 in persistence arise from filtering effects analogous to Variants 3 and 4 in our model (Fig. 2C). 299 However, the division between core and occasional species they find does not line up exactly with 300 habitat requirements. This could occur under either neutral or niche dynamics. Core species may 301 last longer simply on account of their higher regional and local abundance, but our results show 302 how they could also be the beneficiaries of niche stabilization. 303

<sup>304</sup> Upon finding that the estimated levels of immigration on Barro Colorado Island are compatible <sup>305</sup> with neutrality given its observed richness, Condit et al. (2012) wrote that "species interactions, <sup>306</sup> niche partitioning, or density-dependence, while they may be present, do not appear to enhance tree <sup>307</sup> species richness at Barro Colorado." Our findings confirm that the connection between immigration <sup>308</sup> and resulting richness is not unique to process, implying that Condit et al.'s observations are <sup>309</sup> potentially also compatible with niche differentiation, and indeed that it is possible for niche <sup>310</sup> partitioning to be present while not enhancing richness.

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In general, insight into whether persistence dynamics are shaped by niches in nature will require more extensive data than collected by Magurran (2003) or Condit et al. (2012). The effect of trait differences on species persistence must be teased apart from the effect of regional and local abundances to achieve such inference.

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## 411 Tables and Figures

**Table 1:** Variants 1 through 4 are identical to the baseline scenario except where indicated in the Description and Parameters columns. Settings are applied to both the neutral  $(H_0)$  and niche  $(H_1)$  simulations where applicable.

Scenario	Description	Parameters	Hypothesis
Baseline	Isolate differences between neutral competition $(H_0)$ and partial niche differentiation $(H_1)$ .	$p_i = const.$ $r_i = const.$ $m = 0.01$ $w = 0.063$	Some species in $H_1$ will have enhanced persistence and others lessened persis- tence relative to $H_0$ .
Variant 1	Some species are more abundant than others in regional pool $\rightarrow$ Inhomogeneous immigration.	$p_i \sim \text{log-series}$	Even in $H_0$ , some species will be more prone to extinction than others due to lower rescue effect. Outcomes of $H_0$ and $H_1$ will be more similar than in Baseline.
Variant 2	Same as Variant 1 but species have higher dispersal ability $\rightarrow$ Higher immigration.	$p_i \sim \text{log-series}$ m = 0.1	Higher immigration increases persistence times and magnifies the effects of regional abundances relative to internal dynamics. Outcomes of $H_0$ and $H_1$ even more similar than in Variant 1.
Variant 3	Metabolic costs or other physi- ological limitations cause lower intrinsic growth of species with extreme trait values.	$r_i = x_i(1 - x_i)$	Species with higher intrinsic growth will have higher persistence and lower extinc- tion rates. Effect is stronger on $H_0$ as- semblage, bringing $H_0$ outcomes closer to $H_1$ than in Baseline.
Variant 4	Intrinsic growth rates are de- termined by factors unrelated to the niche trait, such as en- vironmental filtering for unre- lated traits.	$r_i \sim U(0,1)$	Qualitatively similar impact as Variant 3.

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Figure 1. A, B: Species abundances and persistence times plotted against relative trait values 412 in an example  $H_0$  assemblage (A) and  $H_1$  assemblage (B). Stems show  $\log N / \log N_{max}$ , where N 413 are species abundances and  $N_{max}$  is the highest abundance observed. Red lines show  $\log T / \log T_{max}$ , 414 where T are species mean persistence times and  $T_{max} \simeq 24,000$  community turnovers is the maximum 415 possible persistence time, corresponding to our entire tracking period (1 community turnover =416 21,000 simulation steps). C: Number of species by mean persistence time,  $\log T / \log T_{max}$ , in 417 the baseline assemblages with no stabilization  $(H_0, blue bars)$  and partial stabilization  $(H_1, red$ 418 bars). Shown are averages across ten replicates. Error bars show standard error of the mean. D: 419 Comparison of species richness, community-averaged persistence time, and community-averaged 420 extinction rates between baseline  $H_1$  and  $H_0$  assemblages. Bars show average ratio  $H_1/H_0$  across 421 ten replicates, error bars show standard error of the mean. 422

**Figure 2.** Comparison of persistence time distribution,  $\log T / \log T_{max}$ , between baseline (pale 423 colors) and variant scenarios (dark colors) as described in Table 1. Top row shows  $H_0$  assemblages, 424 bottom row shows  $H_1$  assemblages. Results shown are averaged across ten replicates of each scenario, 425 with error bars showing the standard error of the mean. A, E: species have random, logarithmically 426 distributed regional abundances, independent of trait values; **B**, **F**: logarithmically distributed 427 regional abundances and higher immigration rate (m = 0.1); C, G: intrinsic growth rates  $r_i$  peak 428 at the center of the axis and drop to zero at the edges; **D**, **H**: species have random, uniformly 429 distributed  $r_i$  values, independent of trait values. 430

Figure 3. Comparison of richness, community-averaged persistence times, and community-431 averaged extinction rates between neutral assemblages  $(H_0)$  and partially differentiated assemblages 432  $(H_1)$  with increasing number of niches and fixed regional diversity. Data points show the ratio 433 between the  $H_1$  and  $H_0$  assemblages, error bars show one standard error of the mean, calculated 434 across 10 replicates. Persistence times are shown averaged across all species in the community 435 (black) and across transients (blue). As the number of niches increases from 12 to 400, the number 436 of species per niche decreases from 33 to 1 species per niche. All measured quantities cross the 437 neutral value (dashed gray line) at different points. In the limit of full niche differentiation (one 438 species per niche), extinction is zero and local persistence and richness are maximal. Regional 439 abundances are logarithmically distributed, while all other parameters are set as in the Baseline 440 scenario (Variant 1, see Table 1. Compare similar plot for Variant 2 in Appendix S2: Fig. S7). 441

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