- Stabilizing niche differences are still required to maintain
- species-rich communities in temporally variable

environments

Coralie Picoche ¹, Alix Sauve¹, Frédéric Barraquand ^{1,2}

May 12, 2018

- ⁶ Integrative and Theoretical Ecology Chair, Labex COTE, University of Bordeaux, ²Institute of
- 7 Mathematics of Bordeaux, CNRS

8 Abstract

Explaining coexistence in species-rich communities of primary producers (e.g., tropical trees, phytoplankton) remains a challenge for ecologists because of the likely competition for shared basal resources. Following Hutchinson's seminal suggestion, many theoreticians have tried to create diversity through a fluctuating environment, which impairs or slows down competitive exclusion. There are now several fluctuating-environments models that allow coexistence, but they often produce only a dozen of coexisting species at best. Here, we investigate what it would take to create even richer communities in fluctuating environments using an empirically parameterized model. Building on the forced multi-species Lotka-Volterra model of Scranton and Vasseur (2016), we have investigated the effect of two coexistence mechanisms, namely the storage effect and stabilizing niche differences (SNDs). SNDs occur when intraspecific competition is stronger than interspecific (as opposed to neutral models where competition is symmetric), and we tuned the competition ratio based on empirical phytoplankton data. Although SNDs maintained more species than the storage effect (50 % w.r.t 25%), we show that none of the two coexistence mechanisms considered could, by itself, ensure the

coexistence of all species present at the beginning of our simulations. Realistic seasonal environments only aggravated that picture, as they decreased persistence relative to white noise. Our results suggest that combining different mechanisms for biodiversity maintenance into community models might be more fruitful than trying to find which explains best the observed diversity levels. Our results on community composition (formation of clumps, biomass distribution) in the different scenarios give further hints on how to empirically weight the influence of coexistence mechanisms.

28 1 Introduction

22

23

24

25

26

27

There has been a rich debate in theoretical ecology on how to reconcile niche and neutral perspectives on species coexistence (Scheffer and van Nes, 2006; Barabás et al, 2013; Vergnon et al, 2013) [we can add or replace this by refs Dom Gravel and Mutshinda+O'Hara here]. Under the neutral perspective, all species have equal birth and death rates and compete equally (for space) whilst under the niche perspective, birth and death rates can vary between species and various mechanisms contribute to increasing intraspecific over interspecific competition. But as it has been pointed out repeatedly (REFs Gravel and co.), niche and neutral processes are not mutually exclusive.

For instance, Scheffer and van Nes (2006) put forward the concept of 'clumpy coexistence', whereby 36 nicheand neutral community assembly may be simultaneously at work, creating several clumps of similar 37 species along a single trait axis. Classical stabilizing niche differences promote coexistence of multiple clumps through stronger net intraspecific competition (Chesson 2000), while within-clump coexistence occurs through neutral processes (Hubbell 2000, a new ref), as species that differ too little in their fitnesses cannot exclude themselves out on reasonable timeframes. Indeed clumps on the trait axis eventually thin out in absence of immigration, but transient coexistence can last for extended periods of time. However, 42 the findings of Scheffer and van Nes (2006) have been disputed due to hidden niches in the original model (Barabás et al, 2013). Hidden niches emerge through stronger intraspecific competition mediated by a an additional intraspecifc predation-like term (Barabás et al, 2013). This makes coexistence in the Scheffer 45 and van Nes model more similar to that of the classical Lotka-Volterra model (Barabás et al, 2016), so that coexistence within clumps is not exactly neutral. But the idea that niche and neutral assembly can mould communities stays potent, and since then, several studies have searched for this 'clumpy coexistence' in theoretical models,, most notably incorporating temporal variation (Scranton and Vasseur, 2016; Sakavara et al, 2018). In these temporal-variation models, equal competitive strengths are combined with other mechanisms like the storage effect that increase the possibility of coexistence (see also Barabás et al, 2012).

Here, we build on the work of Scranton and Vasseur (2016) to investigate the possibility of coexistence through fluctuating environments (the so-called storage effect or temporal niche partitioning, that are equivalent concepts for forced Lotka-Volterra models Barabás et al, 2012; Scranton and Vasseur, 2016). Our enthusiasm for the Scranton and Vasseur (2016) model stems from our interest in phytoplankton communities, that were the key inspiration for the thermal preferences curves in Scranton and Vasseur (2016). Despite some interesting results, one key limitation of Scranton and Vasseur (2016)'s model from the perspective of plankton ecology seemed to be the assumption of a randomly fluctuating thermal environment. Temperature usually fluctuates seasonally, and random temporal variation only add noise to a largely deterministic trend. Our present work can therefore be seen as an attempt to blend Scranton and Vasseur (2016) with the periodic environments of Barabás et al (2012) into a mixture of stochastic and deterministic environmental forces affecting Lotka-Volterra community dynamics.

Because many phytoplankton species or genera respond in similar ways to temperature despite having
different optimas [Insert REF here], we hypothetized that a large seasonal variation might not necessarily
foster species coexistence. In fact, an increased synchrony of species abundances should theoretically decrease their temporal partitioning. How seasonality affects coexistence (as opposed to a purely randomly
fluctuating environment) is therefore a key feature of this paper. In particular, we contrast cases where
the storage effect is present vs. absent, which elegantly maps to two different versions of the forced
Lotka-Volterra model (see Methods).

Moreover, we realized while running Scranton and Vasseur (2016)'s model that the overall diversity obtained after 5000 years was relatively low compared to what we usually observe in phytoplankton communities. In an empirical study combining phytoplankton community-level time series and multivariate autoregressive models (REF), we found that despite a large influence of the environment (including temperature, irradiance, and other factors), intraspecific (or intragenus) competition was rather large and most likely the key driver of species coexistence. In other words, stabilizing niche differences had a large

role to play in maintaining species diversity in coastal phytoplankton (REF). Here, we therefore try to 77 establish what are the relative contributions of the storage effect vs intraspecific density-dependence to 78 coexistence in a phytoplankton-like theoretical community model. 79

This multifaceted objectives led us to cross different combinations of seasonality in the forcing signal, 80 presence of the storage effect or not, and intra- vs interspecific competition, in order to disentangle the 81 contributions of all these factors to biodiversity maintenance. 82

Methods

Models description

The model described in Scranton and Vasseur (2016) is based on a variant of the Lotka-Volterra com-85 petition model. Fluctuations in the environment are introduced in the model by temperature-dependent 86 growth rates (see eq. 1-2, all coefficients are defined in Tab. 1) so that species growth rates write:

$$\frac{dN_i}{dt} = r_i(\tau)N_i\left(1 - \sum_{j=1}^{S} \alpha_{ij}N_j\right) - mN_i \tag{1}$$

$$r_i(\tau)$$
 = $a_r(\tau_0)e^{E_r\frac{(\tau-\tau_0)}{k\tau\tau_0}}f_i(\tau)$ (2)

$$r_{i}(\tau) = a_{r}(\tau_{0})e^{E_{r}\frac{(\tau-\tau_{0})}{k\tau\tau_{0}}}f_{i}(\tau)$$

$$\begin{cases} e^{-|\tau-\tau_{i}^{opt}|^{3}/b_{i}}, & \tau \leq \tau_{i}^{opt} \\ e^{-5|\tau-\tau_{i}^{opt}|^{3}/b_{i}}, & \tau > \tau_{i}^{opt} \end{cases}$$

$$(3)$$

and
$$b_i$$
 defined by numerically solving $\int r_i(\tau)d\tau = A$ (4)

Model parameters are detailed in Table 1, and we set their values to match the features of phytoplank-88 ton communities. The niche of each species is defined by its thermal optimum τ_i^{opt} . Thermal performance 89 curves defined in eq. 3 are parameterized so that all species share the same niche area (eq. 4), which sets 90 a trade-off between maximum growth rates and niche width. 91

Table 1: Parameter definition and values of the model described in eq. 1-4

Name	Definition	Value (unit)
S	Number of species	60
N_i	Biomass density of the <i>i</i> th species	(kg/area)
au	Temperature	K
$r_i(au)$	Growth rate of species i as a function of temperature	kg kg*year
$lpha_{ij}$	Strength of competition of species j on species i	0.001 area/kg
b_i	Normalization of the thermal decay rate	
m	Mortality rate	$15\frac{\mathrm{kg}}{\mathrm{kg*year}}$
$ au_0$	Reference temperature	293 K
$a_r(\tau_0)$	Growth rate at reference temperature	$386 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{kg*year}}$
E_r	Activation energy	0.467 eV
k	Boltzmann's constant	$8.6173324.10^{-5} \text{eV.K}^{-1}$
$f_i(au)$	Fraction of the maximum rate achieved for the <i>i</i> th species	
$\mu_{ au}$	Mean temperature	293 K
$\sigma_{ au}$	Standard deviation for temperature	5 K
$ au_{ m min}$	Minimum thermal optimum	288K
$ au_{ m max}$	Maximum thermal optimum	298 K
A	Niche breadth	$10^{3.1} \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{kg*year}}$
$ au_i^{ ext{opt}}$	Thermal optimum for growth of the ith species	K
$\boldsymbol{ heta}$	Scaling between white noise to seasonal signal	$[0,\sqrt(2)]$
ρ	Ratio of intra-to-intergroup competition strengths	(1;10)

Scranton and Vasseur (2016) described temperature as a white noise, i.e. independent and identically distributed Gaussian random variates (eq. 5).

$$\tau_t \sim N(\mu_\tau, \sigma_\tau)$$
 (5)

Under most latitudes, however, temperature is a seasonal signal, which can affect the dynamics of the community considered (Vesipa and Ridolfi, 2017). We kept the mean and standard deviation of the signal but included a lower-frequency component (eq.6). The ratio of low-to-high frequency depends on the variable θ , enabling us to keep the same energy content in the forcing signal.

$$\tau(t) = \mu_{\tau} + \theta \,\sigma_{\tau} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi t}{365}\right) + \varepsilon_{t}, \text{ where } \varepsilon_{t} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\tau} \sqrt{1 - \frac{\theta^{2}}{2}})$$
 (6)

The upper limit for θ , $\sqrt{2}$, corresponds to a completely determinist model. We chose to keep the stochasticity in the signal and to model a plausible temperature signal with $\theta = 1.3$ (see Fig. 1b).

The formulation of the forced Lotka-Volterra model of Scranton and Vasseur (2016) implies a storage effect, as the competition strengths covary positively with the growth rate value $r_i(\tau)$ (Ellner et al, 2016). To test for the effect of an explicit storage effect in the model, we removed this assumption by using the mean value of a species' growth rate (\bar{r}_i) to weight the interaction coefficients.

$$\frac{dN_i}{dt} = N_i \left(r_i(\tau) - \sum_{j=1}^{S} \bar{r}_i \alpha_{ij} N_j \right) - mN_i \tag{7}$$

In eq. 7, competition strengths remain unaffected by the environmental conditions, in contrast to growth rates.

Stabilizing niche differences are ensured by the addition of the coefficient ρ , which is the ratio of intra-to-intergroup competition strength. We can therefore re-write the interaction coefficients α_{ij} in eq. 8

$$\alpha_{ij} = \alpha \left(1 + (\rho - 1)\delta_{ij} \right) \tag{8}$$

where δ_{ij} is the Kronecker symbol, equal to 1 if i=j and to 0 otherwise. The value of the parameter $\rho=10$ was chosen from analyses of phytoplanktonic data (Barraquand et al, 2017).

In addition to two types of environmental forcings (white noise, $\theta=0$, and seasonal, $\theta=1.3$), we therefore compare the results for four formulations of the model: with and without an explicit storage effect (eq. 1 and eq. 7, respectively); with and without stabilizing niche differences ($\rho=10$ or $\rho=1$,

115 Set-up

114

respectively).

We repeat the 'Species sorting' experiment of Scranton and Vasseur (2016) so as to investigate on how synthetic phytoplankton communities structure under the various scenarios we described above. We focused on the dynamics of a community initialized with 60 species with thermal optima uniformly spaced along the interval [15°C, 25°C]. All species started with the same initial density $(\frac{1}{\alpha S})$. Each simulation was run for 5000 years in 1-day intervals. When the density of a species dropped below 10^{-6} , it was considered extinct. For each combination of the parameters of the model (type of environmental

signal, storage effect and stabilizing niche differences), we ran 100 simulations.

All simulations were ran with Matlab's ode45 algorithm, an explicit Runge-Kutta (4,5) algorithm with an absolute error tolerance of 10^{-8} .

25 3 Results

Typical dynamics of the community following Eq. 1 (the model of Scranton and Vasseur, 2016), with both 126 the environmental signals described in Eq. 5 (original choice of Scranton and Vasseur, 2016) and 6 (our 127 variant), are shown in Fig. 1. Forcing by a sinusoidal signal produces the strongly seasonally structured 128 dynamics that are typical of phytoplankton. Even though only 5 species can be seen in Fig. 1c), there 129 were 14 species still present at the end of the simulation forced by a white noise, with large disparities 130 in the range of variation of their biomasses. A third of the species kept a biomass above 10 kg/area 131 while 6 out of the 14 remained below the unit. All species in the white noise simulations were clustered 132 along a 3.2°C-range of thermal optima. No obvious temporal patterns (e.g., cycles) could be seen in the 133 communities forced by white noise. On the other hand, seasonal cycles were clear in the seasonally-134 forced case of Fig. 1 d). Only 4 species coexisted at the end of the simulation with seasonal forcing, 135 gathered in two groups with large thermal optimum differences (5.7°C between the maximum thermal 136 optimum of the first group and the minimum thermal optimum of the second group). When temperatures 137 are high, the group with a higher thermal optima reach maximum biomass, then as temperature decreases 138 through the season, they leave room for the growth of the low-temperature group. 139

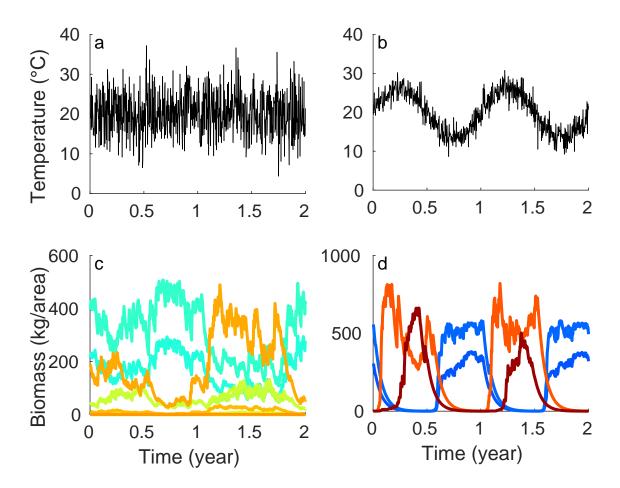


Figure 1: Times series of temperature (top) and extant species (bottom) for the 2 last years of a 5000 year simulation, with storage effect and no stabilizing niche differences. The forcing temperature is either a white noise (left) or a noisy seasonal signal (right). Line colors of species biomasses correspond to their thermal optima (from blue, corresponding to low thermal optima, to red, corresponding to high thermal optima. The whole range of the biomass distribution is shown on Fig. 3).

The decrease in persistence due to seasonality observed in Fig. 1 was confirmed in all our simulations (Fig. 2). In cases where final species richness varied from one simulation to another (namely, the two middle cases in Fig. 2): with storage effect but without stabilizing niche differences, or without storage effect but with stabilizing niche differences), seasonality reduced the number of extant species to, on average, 27% and 48% of its original value, respectively (Fig. 2). A seasonal signal therefore led to a much smaller average persistence. There was also less variance in persistence between seasonally forced simulations when compared to white noise simulations.

Both the stabilizing niche differences and the storage effect have a marked effect on increasing persistence. Without any of these coexistence mechanisms, only one species persisted at the end of the

simulation. When only the storage effect was present, the number of extant species varied between 8 and 20 with a white noise, or 2 and 6 with a seasonal signal. On the other hand, when only stabilizing niche differences were present, the number of extant species nearly doubled, varying between 20 and 32, or 12 and 15, with a white noise or a seasonal signal respectively. Remarkably, when the storage effect and stabilizing niche differences (SNDs) both affected the community dynamics, all species persisted in the community, while neither the storage nor SNDs were able in isolation to produce that result, for both white noise and seasonal forcing.

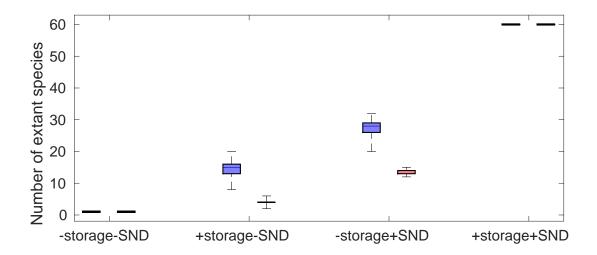


Figure 2: Number of species still present at the end of 5000-year simulations, initialized with 60 species, with a white noise forcing signal (blue) or a noisy seasonal signal (red). For each model type (with and without storage effect, + / - storage, respectively; with and without Stabilizing Niche Differences, + / - SND, respectively), 100 simulations were launched. Community compositions are stable in the cases -storage-SND and +storage+SND (1 or 60 species are still present at the end of all simulations, respectively).

When the richness of the community was stable (either 1 or 60 species at the end of the simulation, 156 Fig. 3), there were still large differences in the structure of the community due to both stochasticity and 157 the type of forcing (Fig. 3). Without storage effect and SNDs, a white noise forcing favoured species 158 with intermediate thermal optima, with 66% of the simulations ending with a species with a thermal 159 optima between 19.1°C and 21.1°C and reaching a maximum average biomass in this range (Fig. 3 160 a). This distribution can be related to a selection for the highest long-term growth rates, averaged over 161 time (see normalized growth rates in Fig. 4). On the contrary, seasonality tended to favour species with 162 larger maximum growth rates, with thermal optima above 22°C, their frequency of persistence and mean 163

biomass increasing with the thermal optimum (Fig. 3). 46% of the simulations therefore ended with the species having the highest temperature optimum, 25°C.

When both coexistence mechanisms were present, the 60 initial species coexisted with small variations in biomasses over the 50 simulations (mean CV=0.01 across simulations with either a white noise or a seasonal forcing signal, Fig. 3b and d). The forcing signal modified only the distribution of biomasses. With a white noise, the distribution was unimodal with a maximum biomass reached for the best long-term average growth rate (corresponding to a thermal optimum of 22.4°C). On the contrary, a seasonal signal led to a bi-modal distribution (centered on 17.4°C and 24.4°C) with higher biomasses for higher thermal optima Fig. 3 d. The minimum biomass was reached for a thermal optimum of 22.4°C, corresponding to the maximum biomass in the white noise case, thus there are quite broad changes in community composition even though the richness is equal for the two forcing signals. The two modes in the seasonal biomass distribution correspond to the two modes in the seasonal signal (winter and summer).

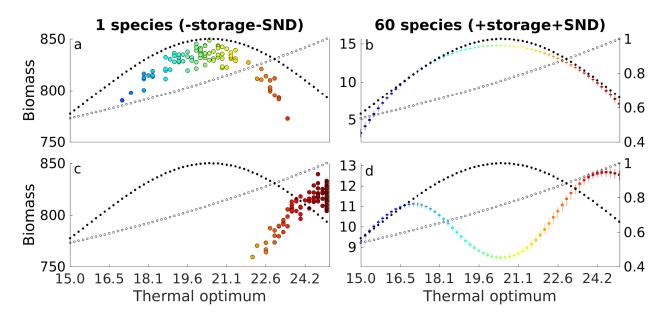


Figure 3: Mean biomass distribution over the last 200 years of 100 simulations, as a function of thermal optima, for the two stable-composition cases: without storage effect nor stabilizing niche differences (left, only one species is extant at the end of simulation, its mean value is represented by a dot for one simulation. There can be several dots for the same species, corresponding to multiple simulations ending with this species alone) and with storage effect and stabilizing niche differences (right, all species are present at the end of the simulation, their mean biomass is represented by boxplots of the mean value for 50 simulations). The forcing signal is either a white noise (top) or a seasonal signal (bottom). Each species is identified by its thermal optimum and its color code. Mean (filled circles) and maximum (open circles) growth rates for each species are index on the right axis [CP: Not sure about showing GR on this figure, though].

In cases where the richness of the community varied, the overall shape (multimodal vs. unimodal)
of the marginal distribution of extant species with respect to the trait axis were similar for both types
of environmental forcings (Fig. 4). By contrast, the type of coexistence mechanism generated different
shapes.

The storage effect led to a multi-modal biomass distribution with respect to thermal optima. We 180 always observed 3 modes with a white noise and 3 modes in 94% of the seasonal simulations, Fig. 181 4a. With a white noise, extant species are grouped in rather similar clumps regarding species thermal 182 optimum (between 18.8°C and 22.2°C whereas clumps tended to be further apart in the seasonal case, 183 covering a total range of 8°C, with species grouping in the higher part of the thermal range, above 22°C. 184 On the other hand, stabilizing niche differences led to a quasi-uniform biomass distribution (Fig. 4 185 b). Species characterising communities forced by a white noise stayed in the lower range of temperatures (96% of the simulations, the highest thermal optimum was 22.8°C) while they were filtered out in com-187 munities subjected to a seasonal fluctuations of their environment, for which species with thermal optima 188 above 20.5°C persisted.

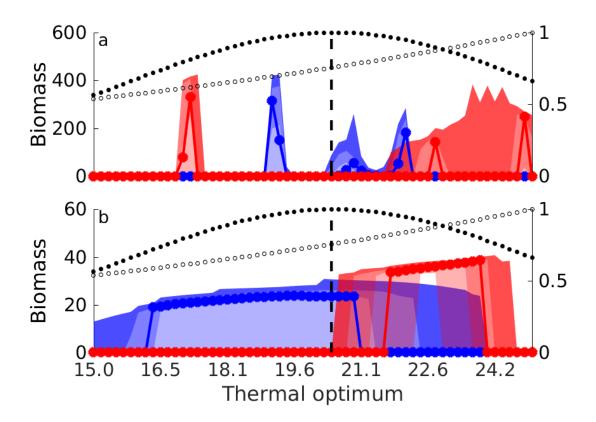


Figure 4: Mean biomass distribution over the last 200 years of 100 simulations, as a function of thermal optima, with storage effect and no stabilizing niche differences (top) and without storage effect, with stabilizing niche differences (bottom). The forcing signal is either a white noise (blue) or a seasonal signal (red). Shades of the same colour corresponds to the 50th, 90th and 100th percentiles of the distributions while coloured lines correspond to one representative simulation. Scaled average (whose optimum is indicated by the dashed line) and maximum growth rates are shown as filled and open and circles, respectively, and indexed on the left y-axis.

4 Discussion

193

194

195

196

197

[F: I left Coralie's remarks that I hadn't tackled below, so we don't loose them, but I tried to quickstart the discussion!]

We have simulated competitive Lotka-Volterra dynamics forced by an a fluctuating environment (e.g., temperature fluctuations) under a range of scenarios allowing more or less coexistence. Two coexistence mechanisms, the storage effect and stabilizing niches differences, could be either present or absent, which led to four scenarios. These four scenarios were crossed with two possibilities for the forcing signal, a white noise and a stochastic yet seasonal signal, both with equal temporal variance. Our investigation

therefore built on the model of Scranton and Vasseur (2016), which included white noise forcing and a storage effect, but considered seven additional combinations of mechanisms. This was motivated by our wish to include two observed features of phytoplankton dynamics: seasonal cycles (Winder and Cloern, 2010) and stabilizing niche differences (Barraquand et al, 2017).

We have found that first, forced Lotka-Volterra dynamics cannot sustain any diversity unless the struc-203 ture is geared to include a storage effect or SNDs. Although this has already been stated by other authors 204 (Barabás et al, 2012; Fox, 2013; Scranton and Vasseur, 2016), this is not always intuitive (Fox, 2013), so 205 we feel compelled to stress it once more: temporal variation in growth rate alone cannot help coexistence 206 within competitive communities. A nice point made by Scranton and Vasseur (2016) was that a built-in 207 storage effect in the forced Lotka-Volterra dynamics could lead to some degree of coexistence. Our in-208 vestigation reproduced these results, using the white noise forcing considered by Scranton and Vasseur 209 (2016), but an arguably more realistic seasonal forcing by temperature (thinking of phytoplankton) will 210 considerably lessen the number of species coexisting after 5000 timesteps, decreasing from 15 on average 211 to 4 on average. Even imagining that groups represented here are genera or classes rather than species, this is a fairly low diversity for a phytoplankton-like community (REF Reynolds?).

We have therefore sought out whether stabilizing niche differences (SNDs) could produce a higher diversity maintenance, using field-based intra- vs inter-group (species or genera) competition coefficients (Barraquand et al, 2017), where the intra-group density-dependence is approximately 10 times stronger. On their own, SNDs produced a higher level of diversity than the storage effect (almost double for white noise).

214

215

216

217

218

However, the seasonal forcing still considerably reduced diversity when SNDs were considered, es-219 pecially the "neutral" kind, diversity within clumps of similar traits. This occurs because within a season, 220 the signal autocorrelation gives contiguous chunks of time to the best competitor to exclude its less 221 adapted heterospecifics, while white noise contains very low forcing signal frequencies that forbid such 222 competitive exclusion. In a seasonal settin, even though a species has the best long-term averaged growth 223 rate, it can disappear as a result of a strong competition from both low- and high-temperature tolerant 224 species, with and without storage effect. Our results are therefore at odds with recent proposals that sea-225 sonal forcing would help maintain diversity (Sakavara et al, 2018), at least not when seasonal forcing is 226

compared to other forcing signals of equal variance.

In our previous empirical study of coastal phytoplankton dynamics (Barraquand et al, 2017), we have not found any storage effect (which certainly does not mean that it could not be observed in other systems). Given the results on species richness and composition presented here, we are skeptical that the storage effect alone could help explaining phytoplankton diversity, especially given that SNDs seem fairly strong when estimated from phytoplankton time series. However, our results suggest that in phytoplankton-like seasonal environments, even though empirically-based SNDs produce more diversity than the storage effect when considered in isolation, the storage effect can help diversity maintenance when combined to other mechanisms. Indeed, the combination storage effect + SNDs is non-additive: the cases were both SNDs and the storage effect were present showed more diversity than generated by any mechanism on its own.

This suggests the very exciting idea that multiple coexistence mechanisms might combine superadditively, thus helping us to better understand the astounding diversity of primary producers. This logic
could, in principle, be extended to mechanisms that we have not considered here (e.g., spatial structure,
specialized natural enemies, that could be as important here for plankton as they are for tropical trees
[a few refs on Janzen Connell effects in trees]]. Better explaining plant or microbial diversity would
then not be about selecting the best unique mechanism susceptible to explain the observed diversity, but
rather better combining those mechanisms together. This may obviously be an annoyance for those who
like to sharpen Occam's razor, but it clearly holds opportunities for theoreticians wishing to investigate
synergies between coexistence mechanisms in highly diverse communities.

[Other points not tackled so far]:

- Storage effect without stabilizing niche differences leads to a stable multimodal abundance distribution. It is unclear whether this regularity is a by-product of limiting similarities for our parameter values. Conversely, no storage effect with stabilizing niche differences leasd to an even distribution (in line with previous point and may be discussed with the help of Barabás et al (2013)).
- Seasonality decreases the total number of extant species when compared to white noise. The au-

tocorrelation in the seasonal signal drives species to extinction as similar species compete for a longer time: temporal niche partitioning leads to larger differences in clumps. In this situation, even though a species has the best long-term averaged growth rates, it can disappear as a result of a strong competition from both low- and high-temperature tolerant species, with and without storage effect.

- In the absence of storage effect, seasonality tends to favor maximum growth rates even though
 it also leads to higher competition whereas white noise tends to favor balanced growth rates and
 competition.
- [Would it be correct to say that one of the model limitation is that all species are equally affected by the forcing? We could hypothetize (or couldn't we) that some of the rare species might be less affected by the seasonal cycles and more by white noise or is this completely off? Cf. my comment in the email. That said I think I've seen some papers saying that rare species were *more* strongly self-regulated not less...]

References

260

261

262

- Barabás G, Meszéna G, Ostling A (2012) Community robustness and limiting similarity in periodic environments. Theoretical Ecology 5(2):265–282, doi:10.1007/s12080-011-0127-z
- Barabás G, D'Andrea R, Rael R, Meszéna G, Ostling A (2013) Emergent neutrality or hidden niches?
 Oikos 122(11):1565–1572, doi:10.1111/j.1600-0706.2013.00298.x
- Barabás G, Michalska-Smith MJ, Allesina S (2016) The Effect of Intra- and Interspecific Competition on
 Coexistence in Multispecies Communities. The American Naturalist pp 000–000, doi:10.1086/686901
- Barraquand F, Picoche C, Maurer D, Carassou L, Auby I (2017) Weak interactions between groups and physical drivers of community dynamics in coastal phytoplankton. bioRxiv doi:10.1101/171264
- Ellner SP, Snyder RE, Adler PB (2016) How to quantify the temporal storage effect using simulations instead of math. Ecology Letters doi:10.1111/ele.12672

- Fox JW (2013) The intermediate disturbance hypothesis should be abandoned. Trends in Ecology & Evolution 28(2):86–92, doi:10.1016/j.tree.2012.08.014
- Sakavara A, Tsirtsis G, Roelke DL, Mancy R, Spatharis S (2018) Lumpy species coexistence arises robustly in fluctuating resource environments. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences
- 283 115(4):738–743, doi:10.1073/pnas.1705944115
- Scheffer M, van Nes EH (2006) Self-organized similarity, the evolutionary emergence of groups of similar species. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 103(16):6230–6235
- Scranton K, Vasseur DA (2016) Coexistence and emergent neutrality generate synchrony among competitors in fluctuating environments. Theoretical Ecology doi:10.1007/s12080-016-0294-z
- Vergnon R, van Nes EH, Scheffer M (2013) Interpretation and predictions of the Emergent neutrality model: a reply to Barabás et al. Oikos 122(11):1573–1575, doi:10.1111/j.1600-0706.2013.00790.x
- Vesipa R, Ridolfi L (2017) Impact of seasonal forcing on reactive ecological systems. Journal of Theoretical Biology 419:23–35, doi:10.1016/j.jtbi.2017.01.036
- Winder M, Cloern JE (2010) The annual cycles of phytoplankton biomass. Philosophical Transactions of
 the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 365(1555):3215–3226, doi:10.1098/rstb.2010.0125

A Supplementary Material

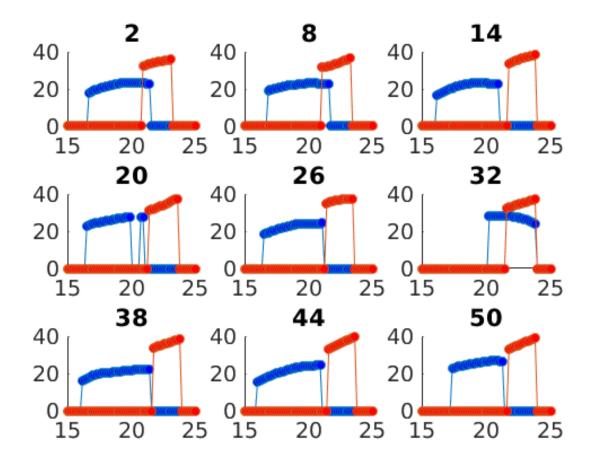


Figure 5: Mean biomass distribution over the last 200 years of 9 representative simulations, as a function of thermal optima, without storage effect with stabilizing niche differences, in which temperature is either a seasonal signal (red) or a white noise (blue). The distribution induced by a white noise overlaps the one obtained with a seasonal signal in only 2 simulations out of 50.

White noise	Storage effect	No storage effect	Season+White noise	Storage ef
Stabilizing niche differences	60	28 [20-32]	Stabilizing niche differences	60
No stabilizing niche differences	15 [8-20]	1	No stabilizing niche differences	4 [2-6]

Table 2: Table corresponding to Fig. 2. Which one to choose?