

# Non-equilibrium evolution of volatility in origination and extinction explains fat-tailed fluctuations in Phanerozoic biodiversity

*One sentence summary:* Phanerozoic marine invertebrate richness fluctuates in a non-equilibrium process due to pulsed adaptive evolution.

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1     Fluctuations in biodiversity, both large and small, are pervasive through  
2 the fossil record, yet we do not understand the processes generating them.  
3 Here we **extend** theory from non-equilibrium statistical physics to **describe**  
4 the previously unaccounted for fat-tailed form of fluctuations in **marine inver-**  
5 **tebrate richness** through the Phanerozoic. Using this theory, known as super-  
6 statistics, we **show that the simple fact of heterogeneous rates of origination**  
7 **and extinction between clades and conserved rates within clades is sufficient**  
8 **to account for this fat-tailed form.** We identify orders and the families they  
9 subsume as the taxonomic level at which clades experience inter-clade hetero-  
10 geneity and within clade homogeneity of rates. Following superstatistics we  
11 would thus posit that orders and families are subsystems in local statistical  
12 equilibrium while the entire system is not in equilibrium. The separation of  
13 timescales between background origination and extinction **within clades** com-  
14 pared to the origin of major ecological and evolutionary innovations **leading**  
15 **to new orders and families allows within-clade** dynamics to reach equilibrium,  
16 while **between-clade** diversification is non-equilibrial. **This between clade non-**  
17 **equilibrium accounts for the fat-tailed nature of the system as a whole.** The  
18 **distribution of shifts in diversification dynamics across orders and families is**  
19 **consistent with niche conservatism and pulsed exploration of adaptive land-**  
20 **scapes by higher taxa.** Compared to other approaches that have used simple  
21 birth-death processes, **simple** equilibrial dynamics, or non-linear theories from  
22 complexity science, **superstatistics** is superior in its ability to account for both  
23 small and extreme fluctuations in **the richness of fossil taxa.** Its success opens  
24 up new research directions to better understand the evolutionary processes  
25 leading to the stasis of **order- and family-level** occupancy in an adaptive land-  
26 scape **interrupted by innovations that lead to novel forms.**

# 1 Introduction

Biodiversity has not remained constant nor followed a simple trajectory through geologic time (1–5). Instead, it has been marked by fluctuations in the richness of taxa, both positive in the case of net origination, or negative in the case of net extinction. Major events, such as adaptive radiations and mass extinctions have received special attention (6, 7), but fluctuations of all sizes are ubiquitous (2, 5) and follow a fat-tailed distribution where large events are more probable compared to, e.g. a Gaussian distribution. Understanding the fat-tailed nature of these fluctuations continues to elude paleobiologists and biodiversity theoreticians.

The fat-tailed distribution of fluctuations in taxon richness inspired earlier researchers to invoke ideas from complex systems with similar distributions. Such ideas include the hypotheses that biological systems self-organize to the brink of critical phase-transitions (8, 9) and that environmental perturbations are highly non-linear (10). New data and analyses have not, however, supported these hypotheses at the scale of the entire Phanerozoic marine invertebrate fauna (5, 11). Other studies have modeled the mean trend in taxon richness as tracking a potentially evolving equilibrium (2, 12, 13) and yet ignore the role of stochasticity and non-equilibrium dynamics in producing observed patterns (4, 14, 15). Individual, population, and local ecosystem scale processes that could produce complex dynamics, such as escalatory co-evolutionary interactions (16), have not been documented to scale up to global patterns (17) and indeed should not be expected to do so (18). Thus, we still lack a theory to describe the striking fat-tailed nature of fluctuations throughout the Phanerozoic.

Despite the heterogeneity of explanations of Phanerozoic biodiversity, consensus has emerged on one property of macroevolution: clades experience different rates of morpho-

logical evolution, origination and extinction (2, 3, 19, 20). Here we show that the simple fact of conserved rates within clades and variable rates across clades is sufficient to describe pervasive, fat-tailed fluctuations in taxonomic richness throughout the marine Phanerozoic. This biological mechanism has a precise correspondence to the non-equilibrium theory from statistical physics known as “superstatistics” (21) which has been applied across the physical and social sciences (22, 23). We leverage this correspondence to explain the distribution of fluctuations in the standing richness of marine invertebrates preserved in the Phanerozoic fossil record. We further show that the specific mathematical form of this superstatistical distribution is consistent with niche conservatism (24, 25) and pulsed exploration on an adaptive landscape by higher taxa (19, 25–27). We operationally define “adaptive landscape” to mean a clade’s set characteristics that influences its macroevolution. Those characteristics could be ecological (e.g. substrate preference (25, 28, 29)), morphological (e.g. body plan (14)), or macroecological (e.g. range size (30, 31)).

## 1.1 Superstatistics of fossil biodiversity

Superstatistics (21) proposes that non-equilibrium systems can be decomposed into many local sub-systems, each of which attains a unique dynamic equilibrium. The evolution of these dynamic equilibria across sub-systems occurs more slowly. This separation in time scales allows local systems to reach equilibrium while the system as a whole is not (21). In the context of macroevolution we propose that a clade with conserved macroevolutionary rates corresponds to a sub-system in dynamic equilibrium.

In statistical mechanics, local sub-systems can be defined by a simple statistical parameter  $\beta$  often corresponding to inverse temperature. In macroevolutionary “mechanics” we define the  $\beta_k$  of clade  $k$  as the inverse variance of fluctuations  $x_k$  in the number of genera within that clade, i.e. fluctuations in the genus richness. The  $\beta_k$  thus represent the in-

verse variances, what we term volatilities, of the stationary distribution of a homogeneous origination-extinction processes of genera. Fluctuations from this stationary process will be approximately Gaussian if the clades' diversification dynamics are independent and in local equilibrium (see Supplemental Section S1; (32)).

We make the hypothesis of dynamic equilibrium within a clade following MacArthur and Wilson (33) in recognition that while the identity and exact number of taxa will fluctuate stochastically from random origination and extinction (taking the place of local immigration and extinction in island biogeography), the overall process determining the number of taxa, and by extension, fluctuations in that number, is in equilibrium. Indeed, the different regions of adaptive space occupied by different clades can be conceptualized as islands with unique dynamic equilibria, albeit with macroevolutionary processes determining the "colonization" of adaptive peaks, as opposed to short timescale biogeographic processes.

The volatility of richness fluctuations will vary across these islands in adaptive space as an emergent trait of a clade. Ultimately, volatility emerges from the life histories, ecologies, and evolutionary histories that characterize each clade's occupancy in different regions of an adaptive landscape. We do not attempt to diagnose which characteristics of different regions account for volatility differences, but others have found rates of origination and extinction to depend on larval type (34), body plan (14), body size (30), range size (30, 31), and substrate preference (25). Not all of these traits would be considered dimensions of an ecological niche or characteristics of a guild (28, 29, 35), but they all point to different strategies that influence a clade's macroevolutionary success. These characteristics result from interactions between heritable traits and environments, which themselves may be semi-heritable (36). Thus different regions of adaptive space, and the clades occupying them, will experience different magnitudes of stochastic fluctuations in

taxonomic richness. As clades occasionally split to fill new regions of adaptive space their pulsed diversification determines the non-equilibrium nature of the entire biota.

## 1.2 Real paleontological data to test superstatistics

To uncover the superstatistical nature of the marine invertebrate Phanerozoic fauna we analyzed the distribution of fluctuations in genus richness (the lowest reliably recorded taxonomic resolution) using the Paleobiology Database (PBDB; [paleobiodb.org](http://paleobiodb.org)). We corrected these raw data for incomplete sampling and bias using a new approach described in the methods section. Occurrences from the PBDB were matched to 49 standard time bins all of approximately 11MY duration following previous publications (5, 12). Fluctuations in genus richness were calculated as the simple difference between bias-corrected richnesses in adjacent time bins.

To focus attention on the variance of fluctuations we zero-centered each clade’s fluctuation distribution. In this way we focus on fluctuations about any possible trend toward net diversification or extinction. Because “equilibrium” in the statistical mechanical sense means a system undergoes coherent, concerted responses to perturbation, the mean trend line (positive or negative) is of less interest than deviations from it. We also note that the distributions of fluctuations for most clades are already very close to a mean of 0 (mean at the family level:  $0.038 \pm 0.176$  SD), and so centering has little influence on clade-specific fluctuation distributions, consistent with the observation that origination is often roughly equal to extinction (37).

We define potentially equilibril sub-systems based on taxonomic hierarchies as a full phylogenetic hypothesis for all marine invertebrates is lacking. Taxa ideally represent groups of organisms that descend from a common ancestor and share similar ecologically and evolutionary relevant traits (38, 39). Thus our model assumes that at a given higher

taxonomic level, within-taxon fluctuations in richness are driven by equilibrial processes characterized by Gaussian distributions. We further assume that new higher taxa arise due to the emergence of sufficiently novel traits (be they ecological, morphological, life history, or macroecological) so that those new taxa occupy a new region of an adaptive landscape. We lastly assume that different regions of adaptive space are characterized by different volatilities in origination and extinction.

To evaluate the optimal taxonomic level for sub-system designation, we test our superstatistical theory using taxonomic levels from family to phylum. Additionally, we compare our results to randomized taxonomies and confirm that the observed fit of superstatistics is not an artifact of arbitrary classification but instead represents real, biologically relevant diversification processes within and between clades. We find that families and orders conform to the assumptions of our superstatistical model while classes and phyla do not.

## 2 Results

We first evaluate the local equilibria of clades from family level to phylum. We find that family level fluctuation distributions are well approximated by Gaussians (Figs. 1 and S3). Three exemplar family-level dynamics are highlighted in Figure 1 to illustrate how different volatility equilibria express themselves as actual richness timeseries. This Gaussian approximation also largely holds for orders, but classes and phyla increasingly show deviations from Gaussian with greater kurtosis corresponding to more frequent outliers at these taxonomic levels (Fig. S3).

To predict the superstatistical behavior of the entire marine invertebrate Phanerozoic fauna we must integrate over all possible local equilibria that each clade could experience. The stationary distribution of  $\beta_k$  values describes these possible equilibria, specifying the probability that a given clade, chosen at random, will occupy a region of adaptive space

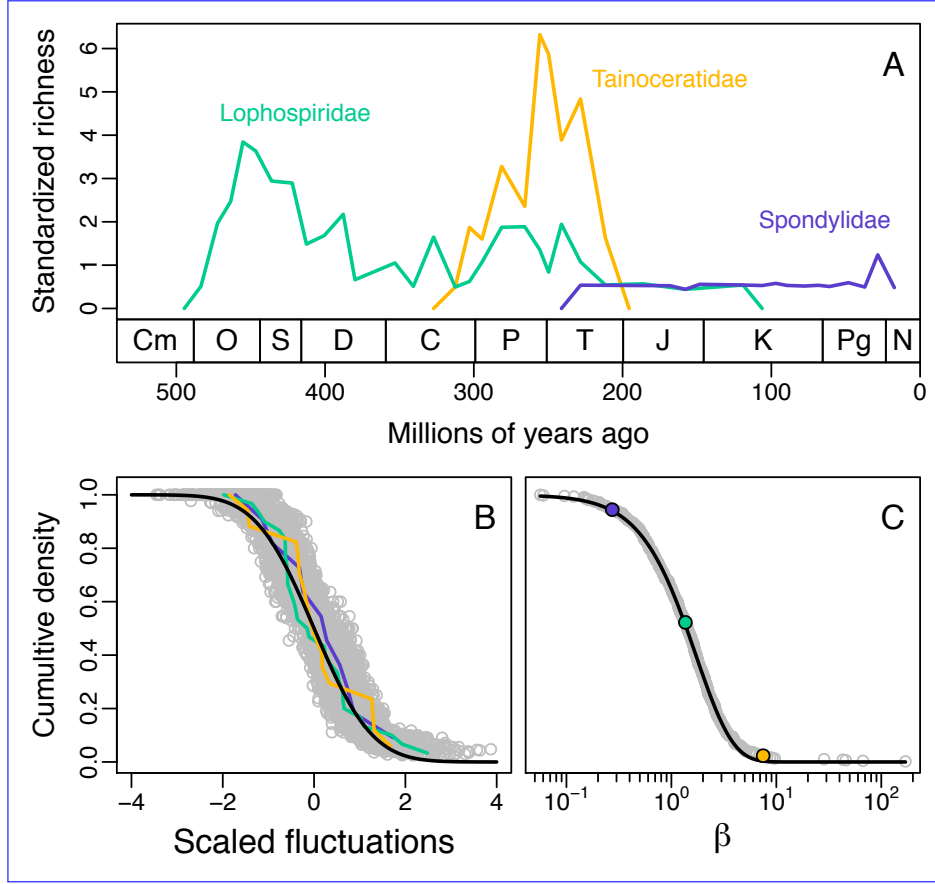


Figure 1: The distributions of [within-family](#) fluctuations in genus [richness](#) shown for the trajectories of three exemplar [families](#) (A) and shown as an empirical cumulative density [functions](#) aggregated across all [families](#) (B). To display all [families](#) simultaneously we simply collapse their fluctuation distributions by dividing by their standard deviations. If [families](#) conform to the Gaussian hypothesis their scaled fluctuations should fall along the cumulative density line of a normal  $N(0, 1)$  distribution, as shown in (B). [We further confirm this normal distribution in the supplement \(Fig. S3\).](#) In (C) the distribution of inverse variances  $\beta_k$  across all [families](#) matches very closely to a Gamma distribution (black line); exemplar [families](#) are again highlighted.

[characterized by  \$\beta\_k\$ .](#)

We estimate the distribution of  $\beta_k$ 's simply as the maximum likelihood distribution describing the set of [volatilities](#) for all families, orders, classes, or phyla. Phanerozoic marine invertebrate families clearly follow a Gamma distribution in their  $\beta_k$  values (Fig. 1). The Gamma distribution also holds for orders but shows increasing deviations again



for classes and especially phyla (Fig. S4).

Using the observation of within family statistical equilibrium and Gamma-distributed  $\beta_k$  parameters we can calculate, without further adjusting free parameters, the distributions of family-level fluctuations for the entire marine Phanerozoic,  $P(x)$ , as

$$P(x) = \int_0^\infty p_k(x | \beta) f(\beta) d\beta \quad (1)$$

where  $p_k(x | \beta) = \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{\beta x^2}{2}}$  is the distribution of fluctuations within a family and  $f(\beta) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(b_1/2)} \left(\frac{b_1}{2b_0}\right)^{b_1/2} \beta^{(b_1/2)-1} \exp\left(-\frac{b_1\beta}{2b_0}\right)$  is the stationary distribution of volatilities in richness fluctuations. The integral in (1) leads to

$$P(x) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{b_1+1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{b_1}{2}\right)} \sqrt{\frac{b_0}{\pi b_1}} \left(1 + \frac{b_0 x^2}{b_1}\right)^{-\frac{b_1+1}{2}} \quad (2)$$

This corresponds to a non-Gaussian, fat-tailed prediction for  $P(x)$  which closely matches aggregated family level fluctuations in the bias-corrected PBDB (Fig. 2).

To quantitatively evaluate how well the superstatistical prediction matches the family-level data we constructed a 95% confidence envelope from bootstrapped maximum likelihood estimates of  $P(x)$ . Observed fluctuations fall within this 95% confidence envelope (Fig. 2), indicating that the data do not reject the superstatistical prediction. For further comparison, we fit a Gaussian distribution to the observed fluctuations, which corresponds to the equilibrium hypothesis that all families conform to the same dynamic. Using Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) we find that observed fluctuations are considerably better explained by the superstatistical prediction than by the Gaussian hypothesis ( $\Delta\text{AIC} = 1895.622$ ). Thus, as expected under the superstatistical hypothesis, the fat-tailed distribution of fluctuations arise from the superposition of independent Gaussian statistics of fluctuations within families. Computing the distribution of aggregated fluctuations using orders also closely matches the observed data (Fig. 2) but as we further coarsen the

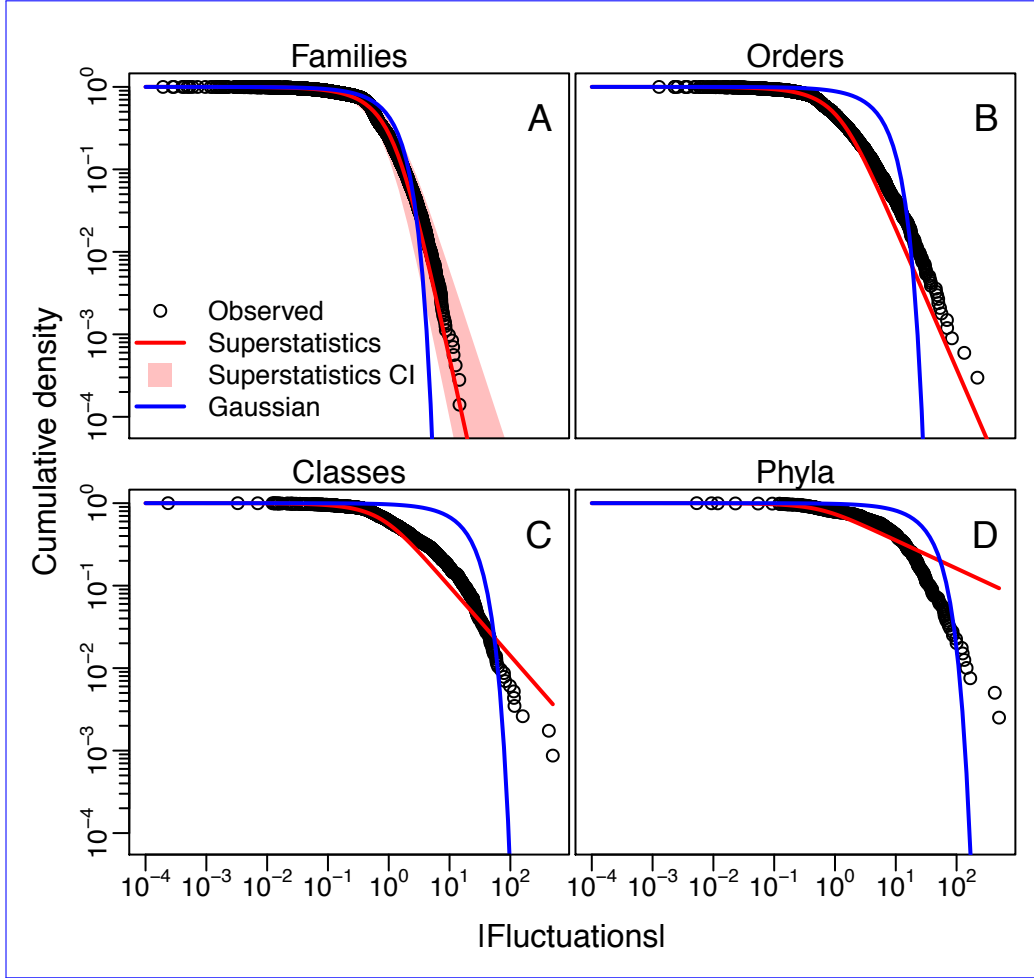


Figure 2: Distribution of fluctuations in genus richness within different taxonomic groupings of marine invertebrates in the Paleobiology Database (5) after sampling correction. The distribution is fat-tailed as compared to the maximum likelihood estimate of the normal distribution (blue line). At the family and order level the empirical distribution of fluctuations are well described by our superstatistical approach, both when computed from integrating over the distribution of observed variances (red line) and when fit via maximum likelihood (95% confidence interval; red shading in (A)).

taxonomy to classes and phyla we see increasingly poorer correspondence between data and theory (Fig. 2).

We quantify this change in the goodness of fit with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic (Fig. 3). We can see that both families and orders have low Kolmogorov-Smirnov

statistics, and in fact order level designation of equilibril subsystems performs slightly better than the family level. Classes are substantially worse and phyla worse yet with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic of phyla being no different than the null randomized taxonomies described below.

However, if superstatistical theory explains the data, this worsening fit with increasing taxonomic scale is expected as the different classes and phyla should not represent dynamically equilibril sub-systems in their fluctuation dynamics. Instead, classes and phyla aggregate increasingly disparate groups of organisms, and thus effectively mix their associated Gaussian fluctuations, meaning that one statistic should no longer be sufficient to describe class- and phylum-level dynamics. We see this confirmed by the increasing frequency of outlier fluctuations in within class and phylum level fluctuation distributions (Fig. S3). We can also see that families and orders represent, on average, 1 to 2 ecospace hypercubes (defined by taxon environment, motility, life habit, vision, diet, reproduction, and ontogeny (28, 29, 35)), respectively. In contrast, classes and phyla represent, on average, 8 to 30 hypercubes, respectively (Fig. S5).

Our analysis indicates that orders and families are evolutionarily coherent units with all subsumed taxa sharing key ecological and evolutionary attributes allowing them to reach steady state diversification independently from other clades at global scale. The fact that both orders and families conform to theoretical predictions is consistent with superstatistics. If superstatistics operates at the order level, then the families subsumed by these orders should represent random realizations of their order's stationary  $\beta_k^{(order)}$  volatility. The sum of Gamma random variables is still Gamma, but with new parameters, thus the family level distribution of  $\beta_k^{(family)}$  is still Gamma.

To further test the evolutionary coherence of families we conducted a permutation experiment in which genera were randomly reassigned to families while maintaining the

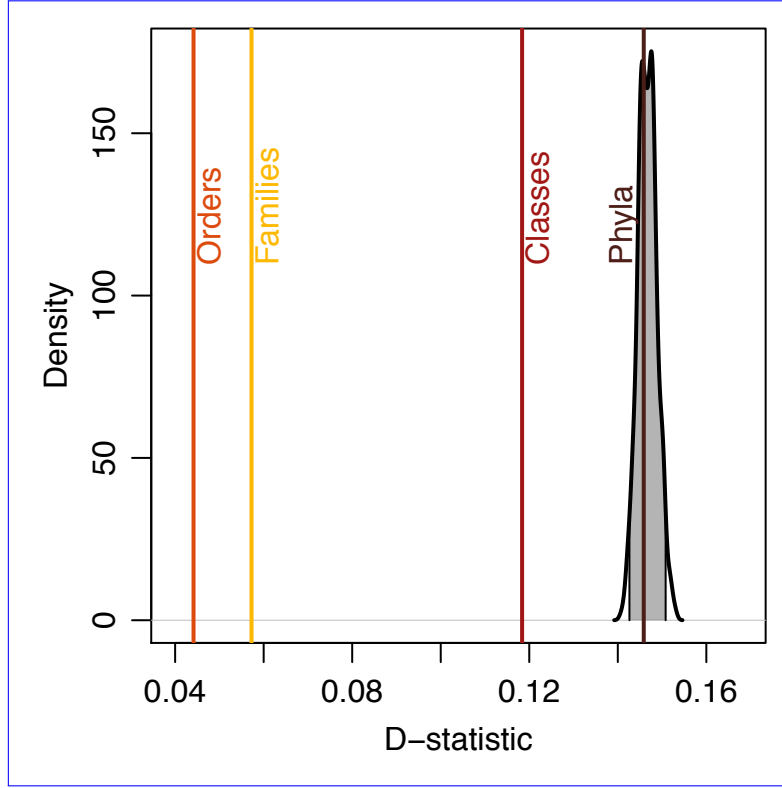


Figure 3: Distribution of Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) statistics from randomly permuting genera within **families** (gray shading represents 95% confidence interval). Solid **colored lines** are observed KS statistics at **different taxonomic levels** as indicated.

number of genera in each **family**. For each permutation, we calculated the **superstatistical prediction and its** Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic. The permutation simulates a null model in which common evolutionary history is stripped away (genera are placed in random **families**) but the total number of observed genera per **family** is held constant. **Controlling for the total number of genera per family is key** because this could be purely an artifact of an arbitrary taxonomic process (40, 41) and genus richness alone could be solely responsible for differences in the  $\beta_k$  across clades. Indeed, the number of genera in a family and that family's  $\beta_k$  value are correlated (Fig. S6). Thus we want to know if this correlation alone accounts for all downstream superstatistical results.

Repeating the null permutation of genera in families 500 times yields a null distribution

of Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics that is far separated from the observed values at the family and order levels (Fig. 3) suggesting that the good fit at these levels is not merely a statistical artifact of classification or the richness of clades, but carries important biological information. Classes approach the null and phyla are no different. It should also be noted that the width of 95% confidence interval of this null distribution is not far from the distance between the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics of orders versus families, suggesting that differences of fit between these taxonomic levels is at least partially accounted for by the randomness of the sampling distribution of Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics.

### 3 Discussion

Our analysis makes no assumption that orders and families should correspond to superstatistical subsystems, but identifies them as the appropriate level for marine invertebrates. Our study is the first to demonstrate that complex patterns in the fluctuation of taxon richness in the fossil record are the result of a simple underlying process analogous to the statistical mechanisms by which complexity emerges in large, non-equilibrium physical (22) and social systems (23). We do so by identifying the biological scale at which clades conform to locally independent dynamic equilibria in fluctuations. Equilibrium could result from many processes, including neutrality (33, 42), diversity-dependence (43, 44) and processes that dampen—rather than exacerbate—fluctuations in complex ecological networks (45). These candidate processes are directly opposed to the presumption of instability underlying the self-organized criticality hypothesis for paleo biodiversity (8, 9).

We show that the distribution describing the evolution to different equilibria between orders and families is Gamma (Fig. 1). A Gamma distribution, while consistent with multiple processes, could result from evolution of diversification rates across an adaptive

landscape that promotes niche conservatism and pulsed exploration of niche space (46). Specifically, if  $\beta_k$  values are associated with a clade's macroevolutionarily-relevant traits, and those traits evolve via Ornstein-Uhlenbeck-like exploration of an adaptive landscape, the resulting stationary distribution of  $\beta_k$  will be Gamma (46). For macroevolutionary rates to vary across an adaptive landscape, this landscape cannot be flat, and thus niche conservatism around local optima in adaptive space interrupted by adaptive exploration is likely (27, 47). The specifics of how this adaptive landscape is shaped and is traversed by evolving clades determine the exact form of the distribution of  $\beta_k$  volatilities, in the case of the marine Phanerozoic resulting in a Gamma distribution. Our work thus motivates further study of the trait spaces and evolutionary shifts consistent with Gamma-distributed equilibria in richness fluctuation volatilities.

We show that the pulsed shift to different equilibria between orders and the families they subsume is sufficient to explain the characteristically fat-tailed distribution of richness fluctuations when the marine Phanerozoic invertebrate fauna is viewed as a whole macrosystem. Armed with an understanding of the statistical origin of this diversification pattern we can explore which models of niche conservatism and pulsed adaptive radiation are consistent with the statistical behavior of the Phanerozoic. Our statistical theory provides new motivation for identifying the eco-evolutionary causes of innovations between lineages and how those innovations are eventually conserved within lineages. Using the superstatistical prediction as a theoretical baseline, we can also go on to identify and robustly examine the mechanisms underlying deviations from statistical theory. For example, some clades wax and wane systematically, and possibly non-symmetrically, through time (4, 13, 31), a pattern that we cannot explain with superstatistics alone.

Superstatistics could also be applied to other areas of evolution and macroecology. For example new phylogenetic models already consider heterogeneous rates of diversifica-

tion (e.g., (20)) as expected between different subsystems. The superstatistics of clades in adaptive landscapes could motivate models that jointly predict changes in traits and diversification, a research area currently struggling with model inadequacy (48). This framework could also provide a new paradigm in modeling the distributions of richness, abundance, and resource use in non-neutral communities which can be viewed as emerging from the combination of locally equilibrium subsystems. Non-neutral models in ecology are criticized for their over-parameterization (49), yet a persistent counter argument to neutral theory (42) is the unrealistic assumption of ecological equivalency and poor prediction of real dynamics (49). If ecosystems are viewed as the superposition of many individualistically evolving clades, each exploiting the environment differently and thus obeying a different set of statistics, then diversity dynamics could be parsimoniously predicted with superstatistics while incorporating real biological information on ecological differences between taxa.

Superstatistics is a powerful tool to derive macro-scale predictions from locally fluctuating sub-systems whose evolution is driven by interesting, but complex and difficult to model, biological mechanisms. As such, applications of superstatistics to a wide variety of patterns in ecological and evolutionary systems are ripe for exploration.

## 4 Methods and Materials

All data processing and analyses were preformed in R (50) and all code needed to reproduce our study are provided, with added explanation, in supplemental Appendix A.

### 4.1 Paleobiology Database data download and filtering

Data on individual fossil occurrences and the ecospace characteristics of Phanerozoic marine invertebrates were downloaded from the Paleobiology Database (PBDB;

<https://paleobiodb.org>) on 16 November 2018 via the database’s API (data retrieval and processing script available in the supplement). Collections were filtered using the same approach as Alroy (5) to insure that only well preserved marine invertebrate occurrences were used in subsequent analyses. This filtering resulted in 815,222 unique genus-level occurrences. These were further filtered to exclude those occurrences without family-level taxonomy and those collections with age estimate resolutions outside the 11MY time bins proposed by Alroy (5) resulting in 454,033 occurrences. Time bins were compiled from <http://fossilworks.org> with a custom script reproduced in the supplement. The first and last of these time bins, corresponding to the earliest Cambrian and the latest Cenozoic, were excluded from analysis because their sampling completeness (see below) could not be assessed.

## 4.2 Correcting for imperfect and potentially biased sampling

We use a new and flexible method to correct for known sampling incompleteness and biases in publication-based specimen databases (5, 12). Incompleteness is inherent in all biodiversity samples, the fossil record being no exception (51–54). In addition to incompleteness, bias may result from preferential publication of novel taxa (12) which exacerbates the difference between poorly-sampled and well-sampled time periods. We therefore develop a simple two-step method: we first correct genus richness for incomplete sampling using the “three-timer” correction (5) and then further correct this three-timer richness estimate by accounting for any correlation between the number of genera and the number of publications in a time period.

The three-timer correction estimates the probability of failure to observe a genus in a given time period  $p_t$  as the number of times any genus is recorded before and after that period but not during, divided by the number of genera whose occurrence histories span



the period  $t$ . To calculate the sampling-corrected richness  $\hat{D}_{kt}$  of a clade  $k$  in the time period in question, the observed genera within that clade and time period are divided by  $1 - p_t$  and their occurrences summed:

$$\hat{D}_{kt} = \sum_{j \in k} \frac{I_{jt}}{1 - p_t} \quad (3)$$

where  $j \in k$  designates genera in clade  $k$  and  $I_{jt}$  is an indicator equal to 1 if genus  $j$  occurs in time period  $t$ .

$\hat{D}_{kt}$  is the maximum likelihood estimator of richness in a simple occupancy through time type model assuming binomial sampling (55), and in that way mimics other proposed methods for the fossil record (52, 53). We avoid parametrically modeling the sampling process through time by instead taking a sliding window of time bins from the Cambrian to the Cenozoic. It should be noted that the three-timer correction compares favorably to other similar methods to account for imperfect detection (56)

To eliminate further bias due to preferential publication of novel taxa (12) we divide the three-timer-corrected number of genera per family per time period by the expected number of genera given publications in that time period. The expected number is calculated by regressing the log-transformed three-timer-corrected number of genera on log-transformed number of publications. There is only a weak trend toward higher richness with more publications (Fig. S1) meaning that the most important correction comes from the three timer correction.

Our new method re-scales each genus occurrence from 0 or 1 (absent or present) to a weighted number continuously ranging between 0 and 1. Because these weighted numbers represent sampling and bias-corrected occurrences we can add them arbitrarily, corresponding to the membership of any given genus in any given higher taxonomic group. We must, however, choose a taxonomic level at which to evaluate the relationship between

richness and publications; we choose the level of family because this is the most finely resolved option.

We opt not to use subsampling methods (12, 51, 57) because these approaches would not be advisable for clades with few genera. However, our new method achieves similar results to subsampling procedures at the global scale across all clades. We directly compare our predicted time series of global fluctuations in genus richness with results derived from rarefaction and shareholder quorum subsampling (SQS) in Figure S2. Our method shows very minor differences with these subsampling-based predictions and any discrepancies do not impact the statistical distribution of fluctuations (Fig. S2).

### 4.3 Superstatistical methods

We first derive the superstatistical distribution  $P(x)$  by fitting Gaussian distributions to clade-level distributions of fluctuations  $p_k(x)$ , extracting the inverse variances  $\beta_k$  of those  $p_k(x)$ , testing the best function to describe the distribution of  $\beta_k$ , and then integrating  $P(x) = \int_{\beta} p_k(x|\beta) f(\beta)$ . This process allows no free parameters to hone the fit of  $P(x)$  to the data. However, each inverse variance must of course be estimated for each clade, making its good fit to data all the more surprising. To do so we use least squares instead of maximum likelihood because the asymmetric fluctuation distributions of small clades were more reliably fit with curve fitting than with maximum likelihood.

We also estimated  $P(x)$  directly from the family-level data using maximum likelihood to compare the fit of our superstatistical prediction and that of a simple Gaussian distribution using AIC. To calculate a likelihood-based confidence interval on our prediction we bootstrapped the data, subsampling fluctuations with replacement from all families and fit superstatistics using maximum likelihood to the aggregated fluctuation distribution of each bootstrap replicate.

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**Data and materials availability:** Data are available through the Paleobiology Database ([paleobiodb.org](http://paleobiodb.org)) and all code needed to interface with the [paleobiodb.org](http://paleobiodb.org) API, process, clean, and ultimately analyze the data are available online at

442 [github.com/ajrominger/paleo\\_supStat](https://github.com/ajrominger/paleo_supStat). This github repository also hosts the ex-  
443 act download from [paleobiodb.org](https://paleobiodb.org) used in this analysis. All required scripts are  
444 also available and explained in supplemental Appendix A.