1 Species packing and the latitudinal gradient in beta-diversity

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63 Abstract

64 The decline in species richness at higher latitudes is among the most fundamental patterns in ecology. Whether changes in species composition across space (beta-diversity) contribute to 65 this gradient of overall species richness (gamma-diversity) remains hotly debated. Previous 66 studies that failed to resolve the issue suffered from a well-known tendency for small samples 67 in areas with high gamma-diversity to have inflated measures of beta-diversity. Here, we 68 69 provide here a novel analytical test, using beta-diversity metrics that correct the gammadiversity and sampling biases, to compare beta-diversity and species packing across a 70 latitudinal gradient in tree species richness of 21 large forest plots along a large environmental 71 72 gradient in East Asia. We demonstrate that after accounting for topography and correcting the gamma-diversity bias, tropical forests still have higher beta-diversity than temperate analogs. 73 74 This suggests that beta-diversity contributes to the latitudinal species richness gradient as a 75 component of gamma-diversity. Moreover, both niche specialization and niche marginality (a measure of niche spacing along an environmental gradient) also increase towards the equator, 76 after controlling for the effect of topographic heterogeneity. This supports the joint 77 importance of tighter species packing and larger niche space in tropical forests while also 78 demonstrating the importance of local processes in controlling beta-diversity. 79 80 Key words: Beta-diversity, gamma-diversity, sampling bias, latitude, species packing, niche specialization 81

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83 Introduction

84 Beta-diversity is the variation of species composition across space, and it is a key element of conservation planning because it indicates whether diversity is concentrated within a few sites 85 or spread across many sites (Koleff et al. 2003; Anderson et al. 2011; Socolar et al. 2016). 86 One factor enhancing beta-diversity should be large niche space, i.e., more species sharing 87 88 more available niches, perhaps associated with abiotic habitat heterogeneity (MacArthur 1972; Brown et al. 2013; Brown 2014; Alahuhta et al. 2017; Bracewell et al. 2018; Pontarp et 89 al. 2019; Storch and Okie 2019). Another feature elevating beta-diversity would be dense 90 species packing, i.e., many narrow niches result from stable climate and high productivity 91 92 (Janzen 1967; MacArthur 1972; Brown 2014; Bracewell et al. 2018; Pontarp et al. 2019; Storch and Okie 2019). Both stable climate and greater productivity would then lead to higher 93 beta-diversity at low latitudes (Gaston 2000; Willig et al. 2003; Hillebrand 2004; Pontarp et 94 95 al. 2019). On the other hand, if beta-diversity is driven mostly by abiotic heterogeneity, we would not expect a latitudinal gradient in beta-diversity, since the abiotic heterogeneity 96 97 should not vary with latitude. These alternatives remain unresolved and studies on the causes of the latitudinal gradient in beta-diversity appears to reach opposing conclusions (Lenoir et 98 al. 2010; Kraft et al. 2011; De Cáceres et al. 2012; Mori et al. 2013; Myers et al. 2013; Qian 99 100 et al. 2013; Sreekar et al. 2018). Underlying the debate has been controversy about statistical 101 biases in tools for measuring beta-diversity. The bias in beta-diversity metrics arises from a dependence on sample size that interacts with 102

gamma-diversity (Condit *et al.* 2005; Kraft *et al.* 2011; Tuomisto and Ruokolainen 2012;
Myers and LaManna 2016), a bias that is easy to illustrate using simple measures of species
overlap. Small samples rarely (if ever) capture all local species. Two small samples from two
sites that have exactly the same composition will appear to differ by randomly capturing
different subsets of the local communities. The fewer the species sampled, the greater this

108 artifactual beta-diversity will appear (Condit et al. 2005; Tuomisto and Ruokolainen 2012). A 109 crucial aspect of the sample size bias is the dependence on gamma-diversity it engenders, since small samples underestimate diversity more severely in species-rich sites than in 110 111 species-poor sites (Condit et al. 2005; Kraft et al. 2011; Tuomisto and Ruokolainen 2012; Chao et al. 2014; Sreekar et al. 2018). This bias has led authors to develop metrics that 112 113 correct beta-diversity for sample size (Condit et al. 2005; Chao et al. 2014; Cao et al. 2021) or tools based on comparisons with null models (Kraft et al. 2011; Myers and LaManna 114 2016). Crucial in the sample size bias is the dependence on gamma-diversity it engenders, 115 since larger samples are needed in species-rich sites (Condit et al. 2005; Tuomisto and 116 117 Ruokolainen 2012; Chao et al. 2014; Sreekar et al. 2018). Once correcting for sample size bias, gamma-diversity dependence should be removed, and it should be straightforward to 118 119 compare beta-diversity across a gradient of species diversity in order to evaluate the 120 importance of species packing and total niche space. We carry out this comparison using a steep latitudinal gradient in tree species richness, as 121 122 documented in our census of 3 million trees at 21 sites spanning 50° of latitude in East Asia (Anderson-Teixeira et al. 2015; Feng et al. 2016). We define beta-diversity within each plot, 123 so it is a measure of how tree species partition local niche space, then we compare the local 124 125 estimates of beta-diversity across the latitudinal gradient. In a previous simulation study, Cao et al. (Cao et al. 2021) identified that the corrected beta-Shannon diversity index is highly 126 effective at removing the bias arising from beta-diversity metrics in small samples of high 127 gamma-diversity communities (Cao et al. 2021). With this corrected index, we can answer 128 two fundamental questions about variation in beta-diversity and its impact on the overall 129 species richness: 1) Is there a latitudinal gradient in within-plot beta-diversity? 2) Do local 130 environmental heterogeneity, niche marginality (the distance between the species optima 131 relative to the overall mean habitat), and niche specialization contribute to the latitudinal 132

patterns of beta-diversity? By simultaneously testing the importance of local heterogeneity
and latitude, we can establish whether species packing and total niche space contributes to
higher richness in tropical relative to temperate forests.

136 Materials and Methods

137 **Forest dynamic plots** We used data from 21 forest dynamics plots (15-52 ha) that are part of

138 the ForestGEO and Chinese Forest Biodiversity Monitoring Networks (Anderson-Teixeira et

al. 2015; Feng *et al.* 2016) (figure 1a; electronic supplementary material, table S1). All stems

140 with diameter at breast height $(DBH) \ge 1$ cm were spatially mapped, tagged, measured and

identified to species (Condit 1998). The plots range from tropical rain forest at 2.98° N

142 latitude to boreal forest at 51.82° N latitude (electronic supplementary material, table S1),

143 from sea level to more than 1400 m elevation, and local topographic variation is as low as

144 17.7 m and as high as 298.6 m (figure 1b and electronic supplementary material, table S1).

145 We divided plots into non-overlapping quadrats of different scales (grain sizes) $(10 \text{ m} \times 10 \text{ m})$,

146 $20 \text{ m} \times 20 \text{ m}$, and $50 \text{ m} \times 50 \text{ m}$) in order to assess the effect of grain size on beta-diversity

147 (De Cáceres *et al.* 2012; Sreekar *et al.* 2018). We define alpha diversity as the quadrat level

148 diversity, and gamma diversity as plot level diversity. In the main results, we present only the

results at grain size of $20m \times 20m$, and details of results at grain size of $10m \times 10m$ and at

150 grain size of $50m \times 50$ m could be found in electronic supplementary materials (Table S2,

151 Figure S2).

Plot latitudes were adjusted for mean elevation: adding 100 km of latitude per 100-m increase in elevation. Local environmental heterogeneity was quantified in terms of topography, which was the only environmental factor consistently available across all plots. Specifically, we used the ratio of surface area to planimetric as a metric of topographic heterogeneity, calculating at grain sizes of 10 m \times 10 m, 20 m \times 20 m, and 50 m \times 50 m, which provided a useful measure of the range and roughness of the overall plot, based on digital elevation models (DEMs) 158 (Jenness 2004; Brown et al. 2013). Local habitat and species niches were defined using six

- 159 topographic factors as environmental variables: mean elevation, convexity, slope, aspect,
- 160 topographical wetness index (TWI) and altitude above channel (ACH) (Legendre *et al.* 2009;
- 161 Kanagaraj *et al.* 2011; Punchi-Manage *et al.* 2013).
- 162 Measurement of beta-diversity To remove gamma-diversity dependence caused by sample-
- size bias of beta-diversity metrics, we used the correction method designed for Shannon
- 164 diversity index based on the relationship between cumulative diversity and sample size (Chao
- 165 et al. 2013). The beta-Shannon diversity index measures the heterogeneity of pooled
- 166 communities, and is calculated as the effective number of compositionally distinct and
- 167 equally abundant communities (Jost 2007; Tuomisto 2010):

168
$${}^{1}D_{\alpha} = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{S}p_{i1}logp_{i1} - \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{S}p_{i2}logp_{i2} - \dots - \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{S}p_{iN}logp_{iN}\right)$$
 (1)

169
$${}^{1}D_{\gamma} = \exp\left[-\sum_{i=1}^{s} \frac{1}{N}(p_{i1} + p_{i2} + \dots + p_{iN})\log(p_{i1} + p_{i2} + \dots + p_{iN})\right]$$
 (2)

- $170 \qquad {}^{1}D_{\beta} = \frac{{}^{1}D_{\gamma}}{{}^{1}D_{\alpha}}$
- 171 (3)

where ${}^{1}D_{\alpha}$, ${}^{1}D_{\beta}$ and ${}^{1}D_{\gamma}$ are alpha-, beta-, and gamma-Shannon diversity, respectively; 172 p_i is the proportional abundance of species *i*; *S* and *N* are the total number of species and the 173 total number of local communities (or plots), respectively, in the pooled communities. Alpha-174 and gamma-Shannon diversity are mathematically independent (i.e., gamma-diversity does 175 not contain information of alpha-diversity) (Jost 2007). Beta-Shannon diversity weights all 176 species by their abundance. We then used a sample-size dependence correction method to 177 reduce the bias in beta-Shannon diversity for comparing beta-diversity among regions (Chao 178 et al. 2013; Chao et al. 2014). As in a species accumulation curve, the expected cumulative 179 alpha- or gamma-diversity was depicted as a function of sample size, while sample 180

completeness was estimated from community structures of samples (Chao et al. 2013; Chao et 181 182 al. 2014). Beta-diversity was then estimated from asymptotically approximated alpha- and gamma-diversity based on the diversity-sample size curve. Details of undersampling 183 184 correction method for the beta-Shannon diversity can be found in the electronic supplementary material S1. Simulation work conducted by Cao et al. (2021) confirmed that β-185 metrics that incorporate an undersampling correction method were more effective at removing 186 187 dependence on gamma-diversity and inferring casual mechanisms compared to other uncorrected beta-diversity metrics or null models (Cao et al. 2021). 188

189 **Community-level niche differentiation**

190 Niche differentiation was described using attributes of specialization and marginality. Niche specialization was defined as SD(available habitat)/SD(habitat used), in which SD(available 191 *habitat*) represented the standard deviation of environmental conditions for a community and 192 193 SD(habitat used) represented the standard deviation of environmental conditions occupied by a species (illustrated in figure 2). Niche marginality was defined as the distance between a 194 195 species' optimum and the mean environmental conditions within the plot (figure 2) (Hirzel et al. 2002; Devictor et al. 2010). Both specialization and marginality were calculated from 196 multivariate measures of habitat, known as ecological niche factor analysis (Hirzel et al. 197 2002). To better meet the assumption of normality of residual in regression model and 198 199 approximate the linear relationship between niche specialization and explanatory variables (Supplementary material, figure S1a, 1c, 1e), the log- and Box-Cox transformations (Box and 200 Cox 1964) were applied for niche specialization across grain sizes (Supplementary material, 201 202 figure S1b, 1d, 1f). Based on the precise mapping of all individuals in these plots, the community-level niche marginality and specialization were respectively quantified as species-203 204 level niche marginality and specialization weighted by relative species abundance. Higher community-level niche specialization indicates the fine partitioning of available niche space, 205

206 while higher community-level niche marginality indicates a larger deviation from mean 207 environmental conditions of a community, and thus suggesting a larger niche space. Topographic variables are typically strongly correlated with the variation in resources such as 208 209 water availability and soil conditions (Wright 2002; Fortunel et al. 2018), thus can capture potentially important axes of niche differentiation. Aspect was computed as sin(aspect) and 210 211 cos(aspect), and other topographic variables were Box-Cox transformed before being 212 included into analyses (Box and Cox 1964). Statistical analysis To examine the significance of latitudinal gradients in local beta-213 diversity, niche specialization and niche marginality, we first modeled beta-diversity, 214 215 community-level niche specialization and niche marginality against topographic heterogeneity and adjusted latitude separately using simple linear regression models. Subsequently, to 216 217 determine the relative effect sizes of adjusted latitude and topography, we performed multiple 218 linear regression models with beta-diversity, niche specialization, and niche marginality as response variables, respectively, and all variables were scaled using (x - mean(x))/SD(x)219 220 before being included. All statistical analyses were performed with R software, version 3.6.4 (R Core Team 2019). 221 The corrected beta-Shannon diversity was calculated using R package 'entropart' and 'vegan' 222 (Marcon and Hérault 2015; Oksanen et al. 2018). The topographic variables were computed 223 using the 'RSAGA' package (Brenning 2008) and the SAGA GIS software (Conrad et al. 2015). 224 Ecological niche factor analysis was implemented to calculate niche metrics using R package 225 'adehabitatHS' (Calenge 2006). 226

227

228 **Results**

Gamma-diversity declined by more than forty-fold from tropical to temperate latitudes, from
818 species at Pasoh to 18 at Daxinganling (electronic supplementary material, table S1).

Beta-diversity measured by the corrected beta-Shannon diversity also declined with latitude, 231 232 although this pattern was not significant (figure 3a). However, the corrected beta-Shannon diversity was significantly correlated with latitude (e.g., 20m × 20m, standardized effect size 233 = -0.39, p = 0.033) in multiple regression models, after controlling for the effect of local 234 topographic heterogeneity (electronic supplementary material, figure S2c). We also found that 235 beta-diversity was positively correlated with community-level niche specialization, niche 236 marginality and local topographic heterogeneity (figures 3b-3d, electronic supplementary 237 238 material, figure S3). We obtained similar results across three grain sizes although the effect size of topographic heterogeneity and latitude varied with grain sizes (electronic 239 240 supplementary material, Figs. S2, S3). Various predictors of beta-diversity were also associated with latitude. Both community-level 241 niche specialization and niche marginality significantly decreased from tropical to temperate 242 243 forests at some grain sizes (figures 4a, 4c, S6a, S6c). However, topographic heterogeneity did not have a significant relationship with latitude (electronic supplementary material, figure 244 245 S5). Both niche specialization and niche marginality were positively correlated with each other (electronic supplementary material, figures. S4g-4i), and both were also positively 246 associated with local topographic heterogeneity (figures 4b, 4d, electronic supplementary 247 material, figures. S4a-4f). Multiple linear regression models confirmed these results, showing 248 249 that specialization and marginality both significantly declined with latitude after controlling for topographic heterogeneity at most grain sizes. In the multiple regression models, the effect 250 sizes of topographic heterogeneity were larger than those of adjusted latitude in predicting 251 specialization and marginality (electronic supplementary material, Table S3, figures S6b and 252 6d). 253

254

255 **Discussion**

Whether beta-diversity contributes to the latitudinal diversity gradient has been intensely 256 257 debated in recent years, largely because of the bias in beta-diversity metrics in small samples of high gamma-diversity communities (Condit et al. 2005; Kraft et al. 2011; Tuomisto and 258 259 Ruokolainen 2012; Oian et al. 2013; Myers and LaManna 2016; Sreekar et al. 2018). To move this debate forward, we first examined the latitudinal gradient in beta-diversity by 260 261 removing the gamma-diversity and sample size bias with a correction for undersampling (Chao et al. 2013; Chao et al. 2014), while also accounting for the effect of topographic 262 heterogeneity statistically. Our results showed that beta-diversity increased from high to lower 263 latitudes, in lines with a number of previous studies also finding higher beta-diversity in the 264 265 tropics (Koleff et al. 2003; Willig et al. 2003; Vazquez and Stevens 2004; Myers et al. 2013). This supports the hypothesis that beta-diversity contributes to the latitudinal gradient in 266 species richness. Since topographic heterogeneity did not systematically vary with latitude, it 267 268 appears that local topographic heterogeneity does not contribute to the latitudinal gradient in beta-diversity, in line with previous findings (Alstad et al. 2016; Chu et al. 2019). 269 270 High beta diversity in the tropics reveals higher species turnover at lower latitudes, meaning tighter species packing and expanded niche space in tropical relative to temperate forests 271 (Ricklefs and Schluter 1993; Gaston 2000; Vazquez and Stevens 2004; Brown 2014; Pontarp 272 et al. 2019). These hypotheses have been investigated for decades, with dense species-273 packing in large niche space attributed to stable climate and higher productivity in the tropics 274 (MacArthur 1965; Ricklefs and Schluter 1993; Evans et al. 2005; Brown 2014; Pontarp et al. 275 2019). We found increasing niche marginality and specialization towards lower latitudes. 276 supporting this hypothesis. Perhaps larger niche space enables more species to utilize more 277 variable resources, while higher niche specialization allows species to specialize on narrower 278 subsets of the resources available (MacArthur 1965; Ricklefs and Schluter 1993; Evans et al. 279 2005; Brown 2014; Pontarp et al. 2019). These consequently reduce niche overlap and 280

281 competition between co-occurring species and facilitates species coexistence (Arellano et al. 282 2017). Tighter species packing and larger niche space in the tropics could be related to other mechanisms as well, such as higher diversification rate (Fine 2015) and stronger conspecific 283 negative density dependence (Fine et al. 2004; Umaña et al. 2017) at lower latitudes. 284 We also conclude that beta-diversity at extent of 15-52 ha is largely driven largely by local 285 processes—specifically, topographic heterogeneity and the niche differentiation it fosters. 286 287 However, topographic heterogeneity did not contribute to the latitudinal gradient in betadiversity (figures 3 and 4). This may seem an unsurprising result, but the roles of local 288 ecological processes have been questioned given the broad latitudinal gradient of gamma-289 290 diversity (Gaston 2000; Kraft et al. 2011). We suggest that the effect of local processes have been obscured by the biases in beta-diversity metrics of small samples from high gamma-291 diversity communities in previous studies (Myers and LaManna 2016). Moreover, our large 292 293 samples over 55 degrees of latitude provide comparable measures of niche differentiation, topographic heterogeneity, and beta-diversity, well beyond what was available in early studies 294 295 (Brown et al. 2013; Shen et al. 2013). Our results could be refined by considering the influence of additional factors that contribute to local environmental heterogeneity and niche 296 differentiation, such as soil types and soil nutrients (Baldeck et al. 2013), which could also 297 contribute to beta-diversity. The biases in beta-diversity metrics in small sample from high 298 299 gamma-diversity communities are also associated with other attributes of communities such as the species abundance distributions (Chao and Jost 2012), and tests of the alternative 300 301 techniques in other systems are warranted. 302 In conclusion, our results support that a latitudinal gradient in beta-diversity contributes to the

302 In conclusion, our results support that a fattudinal gradient in beta-diversity contributes to the 303 latitudinal gradient in tree species richness after separately controlling for local topographic 304 heterogeneity and the bias in beta-diversity metrics in small samples of high gamma-diversity 305 areas. Our results further suggest tighter species packing and larger niche space in tropical

forests (MacArthur 1965; Ricklefs and Schluter 1993; Gaston 2000), but also confirmed environmental heterogeneity as a determinant of beta-diversity. Our findings help resolve the ongoing debates on the contribution of local beta-diversity to latitudinal gradient of species richness.

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Data availability The data supporting Figure 1-4 and code for data analyses are available from 311 the Dryad Digital Repository: https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.tht76hdww. Full census data are 312 from ForestGEO 313 available upon reasonable request the data portal of (http://ctfs.si.edu/datarequest/) and CForBio (Chinese Forest Biodiversity Monitoring 314 315 Networks (http://www.cfbiodiv.org).

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519 Figure 1. The spatial distribution of forest dynamics plots (a), and their elevational

520 ranges (b). Panel (b) shows the latitudinal pattern of elevation range, which was transformed

- 521 by subtracting the minimum elevation of each plot. The width of each violin plot reflects
- 522 probability density distribution of mean elevation for $20 \text{ m} \times 20 \text{ m}$ subplots in each forest
- 523 dynamics plot. Full plot names are listed in electronic supplementary material, table S1.

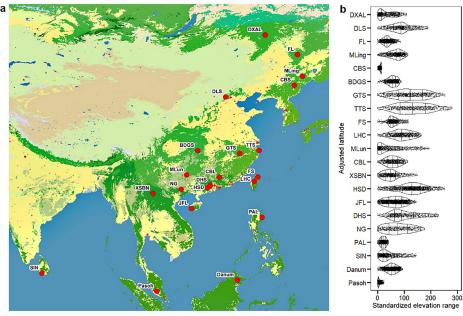
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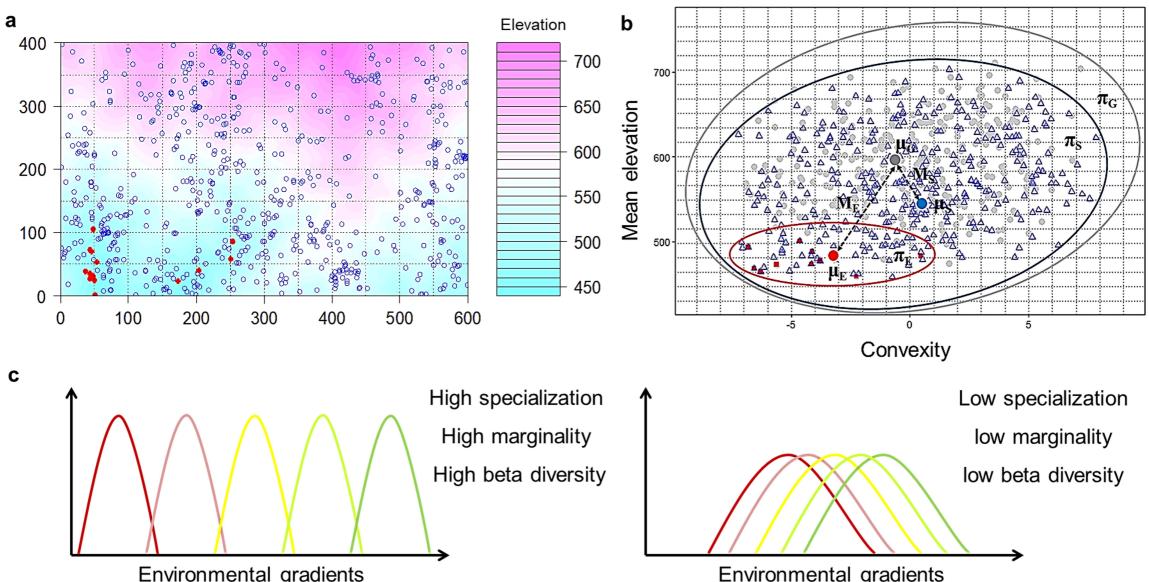
Figure 2. Illustration of niche specialization and marginality of Euonymus oblongifolius and 525 Symplocos stellaris in the Gutianshan forest dynamics plot (600 m × 400 m). a. Red solid points 526 represent the spatial distribution of E. oblongifolius, and blue circles represent the spatial 527 distribution of S. stellaris. b. Illustration of niche specialization and marginality of E. 528 oblongifolius and S. stellaris in two-dimensional niche space based on mean elevation and 529 convexity of distributed 20 m \times 20 m quadrats. Niche marginality is the distance from the mean 530 531 habitat of the focal species to the mean habitat of community habitats. μ_E , μ_S and μ_G represent 532 centroids of environmental conditions for E. oblongifolius, S. stellaris and the entire 533 community, and distances M_E and M_S are niche marginalities of two species. Likewise, niche specialization is ratio of the entire habitat range of a community to habitat range of the focal 534 species. π_E, π_S and π_G stand for the distributional range of for E. oblongifolius, S. stellaris and 535 the entire community in two-dimensional niche space respectively, the ratio of π_G/π_E and π_G/π_S 536 are niche specialization of two species. Grey points indicate the topographic variation of the 537 entire community, red squares show higher niche specialization and marginality of E. 538 oblongifolius, whereas blue triangles indicate lower specialization and marginality of S. 539 stellaris. c. Hypothetical relationships between beta-diversity and niche. Higher community-540 level niche specialization indicates the fine partitioning of available niche space, while higher 541 community-level niche marginality suggests a larger niche space. Therefore, higher 542

specialization and marginality lead to a higher beta-diversity (left), while lower specializationand marginality lead to a lower beta-diversity (right).

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Figure 3. Relationships of beta-diversity (measured corrected beta-Shannon diversity) 546 with adjusted latitude (a), and local topographic heterogeneity (b), community-level 547 niche specialization (c), and niche marginality (d) at grain size of 20 m × 20 m. In each 548 panel, different colours of points and lines represent grain sizes. In panels a and b, solid and 549 dashed lines indicate significant and insignificant linear correlations (significance level, $\alpha =$ 550 0.05), respectively, and the shaded areas represent the 95% confidence intervals of the 551 predictions (electronic supplementary material, table S2). Full plot names in (a) are listed in 552 electronic supplementary material, table S1. Community-level niche specialization was Box-553 Cox transformed in (c). 554 555 556 Figure 4. The relationships of community-level niche specialization (a and b) and marginality (c and d) with adjusted latitude and local topographic heterogeneity at grain 557 size of $20 \text{ m} \times 20 \text{ m}$. Community-level niche specialization was Box-Cox transformed. In 558 each panel, R^2 and *p*-value of the linear regression models was shown at each panel, and 559 shaded areas represent the 95% confidence intervals of the predictions (electronic 560 supplementary material, table S4). 561





Environmental gradients

Environmental gradients

