

1 Hutchinson's ecological niche for individuals

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23 **Abstract**

24 We here develop a concept of an individualized niche in analogy to Hutchison's population-level concept of the
25 ecological niche. We consider the individualized (ecological) niche as the range of environmental conditions
26 under which a particular individual has expected lifetime reproductive success of ≥ 1 . Our concept is essentially
27 ecological primarily in the sense of fit of individual phenotypes to the contemporary environment and we do
28 include evolutionary fitness here as an evaluative parameter of niche fit. We address four specific challenges
29 that occur when scaling the niche down from populations to individuals. In particular, we discuss (1) the
30 consequences of uniqueness of individuals in a population and the corresponding lack of statistical replication,
31 (2) the dynamic nature of individualized niches and how they can be studied either as time-slice niches, as
32 prospective niches or as trajectory-based niches, (3) the dimensionality of the individualized niche, that is
33 greater than the population niche due to the additional dimensions of intra-specific niche space, (4) how the
34 boundaries of individualized niche space can be defined by expected lifetime reproductive success and how
35 expected reproductive success can be inferred by marginalizing fitness functions across phenotypes or
36 environments. We frame our discussion in the context of recent interest in the causes and consequences of
37 individual differences in animal behavior.

38 Keywords: ecological niche theory, individual differences, individualized niche, intraspecific variation,
39 phenotype-environment interactions, developmental plasticity

40

41 Introduction

42 Individuals differ consistently in their behavior and their relations to the environment. We here aim to explore
43 how individual differences can be integrated into the ecological niche concept to yield a utile concept of an
44 individualized niche. Many of the individualized niche aspects that we discuss have metaphorical value that may
45 help in structuring research (or in modelling studies), but some aspects can also be quantified empirically in
46 natural systems. We first discuss recent progress in the study of consistent individual differences in animal
47 behavior. We next briefly review ecological niche concepts and their different definitions. We then discuss the
48 application of the Hutchinsonian ecological niche concept at the level of individuals. Our arguments are based
49 on the idea that since individuals differ phenotypically, they often also differentiate their positions in the
50 environment, eventually generating individualized niches. We structure our discussion of the individualized
51 niche along four key questions: How can we deal with the fact that individuals are not statistically replicated?
52 How can we incorporate time in the study of individualized niches? Which dimensions constitute individualized
53 niches? Where are the boundaries of individualized niches? These four questions, we think, reflect important
54 considerations, when implementing the concept of the niche at the level of individuals.

55 We write this essay from the perspective of empirically working behavioral ecologists. We therefore envision
56 populations of individually distinct animals such as vertebrates or arthropods. While we are interested in the
57 causes and consequences of individual differences (including, but not limited to, animal behavior), we do not
58 see a particular individual as the object of study. Instead, we strive to understand how individual differences
59 contribute to population-level processes. It is therefore the state and dynamic of population composition that
60 interests us. We, like many other researchers in the field, use statistical summaries at the level of populations
61 to study individual differences. This perspective relies on the law of large numbers and aims to understand
62 general patterns and processes rather than individual life histories.

63 Being interested in the consequences of individual niche specialization does not mean that we include long-term
64 or evolutionary consequences in the individualized niche definition that we develop here. Whether a particular
65 phenotype will spread in a population depends on how phenotypic variation is inherited and how particular
66 phenotypes perform in comparison to other phenotypes in the population. We see both aspects, inheritance
67 and relative performance, as very important topics, but not immediately relevant to the definition of the

68 individualized niche as such. We think of the individualized niches as current performance of a particular
69 phenotype in the momentary environment. The concept is thus foremost an ecological and functional concept.

70 Consistent individual differences

71 Consistent individual differences have been in the spotlight of behavioral ecology for the last two decades (Sih
72 et al. 2004; Réale et al. 2007). There are now hundreds of studies that report on individual differences in behavior
73 across a large array of species, including vertebrates and invertebrates (Bell et al. 2009). A particular interest has
74 been on behavioral traits that represent general reactions towards the environment, especially when these traits
75 are temporally consistent and correlated across contexts (Kaiser and Müller 2021; Dochtermann and
76 Dingemanse 2013). Individually consistent, context-general traits are often called animal personality traits,
77 temperament traits, coping styles or behavioral syndromes (Kaiser and Müller 2021; Réale et al. 2007). A
78 common research framework, relating to consistent individual differences, is the pace-of-life syndrome, which
79 encompasses behavioral, physiological and life-history components. The pace-of-life syndrome has been linked
80 to personality and survival (Ricklefs and Wikelski 2002; Réale et al. 2010), while it has laid the foundations for
81 the study of implications of behavioral variation (Wolf and Weissing 2012).

82 From an evolutionary perspective, all individual differences that are heritable can evolve by natural selection.
83 Indeed, individual differences in behavior often have a significant heritable basis (Stirling et al. 2002). It has been
84 shown that animal personality differences can be systematically selected for, thus maintaining inter-individual
85 variation in behavior (Dochtermann et al. 2015; Wolf et al. 2007). Furthermore, intraspecific variation affects
86 interspecific interactions and ultimately species' coevolution (Moran et al. 2021). Consequently, the position of
87 individuals in the environment can both be the cause and the consequence of behavioral differences, owing to
88 the individual x environment interaction being bidirectional (Dingemanse and Wolf 2013).

89 Individual differences in behavior have ecological consequences, because they have an impact on the way in
90 which individuals interact with their environment. For example, phenotypic variation can affect population
91 dynamics through polymorphism in resource use (Dall et al. 2012). Indeed, intraspecific competition might as
92 well be a fundamental cause of individual differences in behavior (Bergmüller and Taborsky 2010). Reduced
93 competition over resources – as a result of specialization at the level of individuals – can increase the carrying
94 capacity of a habitat and promote resilience of populations (Wolf and Weissing 2012). Thus, in analogy to

95 community dynamics, resource partitioning among phenotypes can reduce intraspecific competition and
96 facilitate population growth and persistence (Araújo et al. 2011; Layman et al. 2015). Indeed, an extensive review
97 of empirical evidence on consequences of intraspecific variation showed that inter-individual diversity increases
98 establishment success, range size, population stability and resilience, while it decreases extinction risk and
99 vulnerability to climate change (Bolnick et al. 2011; Forsman and Wennersten 2016). Intraspecific variation in
100 population-related traits can thus alter population and community dynamics (Bolnick et al. 2011; Araújo et al.
101 2011). We think that an individualized ecological niche concept can provide a fruitful perspective on individual
102 differences.

103 The ecological niche

104 The concept of the ecological niche is fundamental in Ecology. The term was initially vaguely defined and used
105 to describe the ecological position, habitat and requirements of species (Packard 1894; Grinnell 1917; Allen
106 1882, see Gibson-Reinemer 2015). First composed definitions of the ecological niche were presented by Elton
107 (1927) and Grinnell (1928). Elton (1927) defined the ecological niche in terms of the species' function within a
108 community and its relations to other species. This view is focused on the functional role of species and is mostly
109 used in community and functional ecology. Grinnell (1928) proposed the ecological niche as the physical place
110 that species are adapted to. According to this definition, niche is a synonym of habitat or position of species in
111 the environment.

112 The first reviews on the ecological niche emerged quite early (Hutchinson 1978). Since the introduction of the
113 term, the definition of the ecological niche was a topic for debate. Hurlbert (1981) published a collection of more
114 than 20 quotes defining the ecological niche. We expanded this collection of definition quotes to present,
115 resulting in 36 definitions (Table S1). Some of these definitions are only subtly different. However, ecological
116 niche concepts can be broadly categorized into environment-based concepts and function-based concepts.
117 Environment-based concepts include the ecological niche as the habitat/environment (Grinnell 1917; Grinnell
118 1928; Gause 1934; Dice 1952; Odum 1959) or as abstract environmental space (Hutchinson 1957; Root 1967;
119 Macfadyen 1957). Function-based concepts include the functional role of a species (Elton 1927; Clarke 1954) or
120 its trophic position (Elton 1950; Weatherley 1963). Some definitions also include a combination of
121 environmental requirements and effects on resource availability (Chase and Leibold 2003).

122 The most popular and widely cited definition of ecological niche was proposed by Hutchinson (1957, 1978).
123 Hutchinson defined the ecological niche as a hypervolume in an n -dimensional (abstract) environmental space
124 that allows a population to persist indefinitely. Hutchinson distinguished between fundamental and realized
125 niches, which correspond to an ecological niche before and after accounting for interspecific competition,
126 respectively. While the Hutchinsonian niche concept is primarily defined in terms of place in the environment,
127 it does include some functional aspects, in particular owing to the distinction between the fundamental and the
128 realized niche. Rosado et al. (2016) claim that Hutchinson built on Grinnell's idea, while others (Colwell and
129 Rangel 2009; Swanson et al. 2015) argued that the concept of the hypervolume was introduced by Gause (1934).
130 Independently of Hutchinson's source of inspiration, the n -dimensional hyperspace is until today a fundamental
131 concept in ecology and evolution. We therefore explore how this concept can be usefully applied at the level of
132 individuals.

133 The ecological niche for individuals

134 The recent interest in the study of individual differences highlights current focus on ecological differences
135 between individuals within populations. Here we address the applicability of the Hutchinsonian niche concept
136 at the level of individuals. Some early work on ecological niches already included discussions on the importance
137 of individual differences within a population. vanValen (1965), for example, pointed out that individuals differ
138 on how they use available resources and that population niche width is driven by the variation between
139 individuals (Niche Variation Hypothesis). Roughgarden (1972) pioneered the idea to use individual differences
140 in trait expression as proxies for resource use. Traits of individuals are here used as substitutes for the
141 environmental dimensions, which are more difficult to measure. Roughgarden's ideas gave rise to a vibrant field
142 of functional trait analyses (Violle et al. 2007). In the meantime, large databases of functional traits have been
143 compiled, in particular for plants (Fraser 2020; Kattge et al. 2020), albeit only part of these data focus on
144 individual differences.

145 Although the study of intraspecific variation has been neglected for some decades, it revived around the turn of
146 the last century (Bolnick et al. 2003). Individual niche specialization has been studied empirically mostly with a
147 focus on diet, while studies focusing on habitat selection, behavior, or labor division are less numerous (Ingram
148 et al. 2018; Dall et al. 2012; Bolnick et al. 2003). Notably, individualized niches have been even more vaguely

149 defined than concepts of the ecological niche as such (Bergmüller and Taborsky 2010; Müller et al. 2020; but see
150 Trappes et al. 2021). This is partly because the concept is broad and encompasses aspects that can better be
151 kept apart. The aim of our essay is to bring structure into the individualized niche concept and provide definitions
152 of the individualized niches in the broad sense, but also facets that are best treated under different (sub-) labels.
153 In our view, there are four main challenges when applying the concept of the ecological niche to individuals: 1)
154 the question of uniqueness, 2) the questions of time, 3) the question of dimensions and 4) the question of
155 boundaries. We first start with working definitions of the ecological niche of individuals before addressing the
156 specific challenges.

157 Working definition of the individualized niche

158 Hutchinson (1957) defined the (fundamental) ecological niche of a population as the range of environmental
159 conditions in which a population can persist indefinitely. Infinite persistence implies non-negative population
160 growth rates in the long term. Scaling down to individuals, we propose a working definition of the individualized
161 (ecological) niche as the range of environmental conditions that provide an expected lifetime reproductive
162 success of ≥ 1 to particular individuals.

163 Before going into more detailed aspects of our individualized niche concept, we want to highlight two important
164 aspects: First, lifetime reproductive success (commonly used as a measure of absolute fitness) serves as the
165 currency of the phenotype-environment match in our concept and not as the determinant of contemporary
166 selection. This aligns with the Hutchinsonian niche being an ecological, rather than evolutionary, concept.
167 Research on how the individualized niches evolves might have to consider the comparative performance
168 (relative fitness) of alternative phenotypes, including an adjustment of the mode of reproduction. Second, we
169 highlight that the individualized niche as used in this manuscript is defined by the environment that an individual
170 lives in, not by its phenotype. The phenotype can act as a mediator that affects fit to the environment (Trappes
171 et al. 2021), but does not represent a part of the niche itself.

172 The questions of individual uniqueness

173 One issue when defining niches at the level of individuals is that individuals are (by definition) not identical,
174 impeding statistical replication. The ecological (Hutchinsonian) niche of a population can be estimated by
175 quantification of where different members of the population can be found in environmental space. Here,
176 individuals serve as replicates at the level of the population and can thus occupy the same niche. However,
177 individuals themselves can only be found at a particular point of environmental space. (We leave the discussion
178 of integration over time for the following section.) Hypervolumes at the level of populations become points in
179 environmental space at the level of individuals. In loose analogy to Hutchinson's realized niche, we call each of
180 these points the *realized individualized niche*. However, the point where an individual happens to live almost
181 certainly does not cover the range of environmental conditions under which it could have occurred. The
182 *potential individualized niche* thus includes all environments where a particular individual would (or could) have
183 had an expected lifetime reproductive success of ≥ 1 (Fig. 1). This means the potential individualized niche is
184 defined by a space of unobservable outcomes. How can we deal with the problem that realized individualized
185 niches are incidental instantiations of points in environmental space and that potential individualized niches are
186 unobservable outcomes?

187 There are at least partial solutions to both issues. A common approach in the study of realized individualized
188 niches is to address the question on the level of populations and to integrate over time. If we collect replicate
189 observations per individual over short but meaningful time intervals, we can use variance decomposition
190 approaches to quantify population-level variability in realized niches. One approach is the estimation of
191 individual-level repeatabilities that quantify the proportion of variation that is explained by individual
192 differences (Nakagawa and Schielzeth 2010; Bell et al. 2009). The idea here is to treat individuals as ephemeral
193 instantiations, but to view the population-level individual variation as a stable population-level feature of the
194 magnitude of individual differences in realized individualized niches.

195 Even with replicates over short meaningful time intervals, it is *de facto* impossible to cover the full potential
196 niche of an individual. At least in observational studies under natural conditions, environmental covariation in
197 space and time will prevent individuals to be observed across the full range of potential environments in which
198 it could have expected lifetime reproductive success of ≥ 1 . Experimental approaches offer a partial solution if
199 individuals can be translocated to a range of different environments (Wilson et al. 2019). Some measure of
200 current performance can then be used as a proxy of reproductive success across a range of environments

201 (sacrificing the value of a fixed boundary for defining the niches, see discussion below). However, experimental
202 approaches are necessarily limited to few dimensions of environmental space. An ultimate limit to experimental
203 exploration of the potential individualized niche is also set by the lifespan of an individual, since potential
204 individualized niches are almost certainly substantially larger than realized niches.

205 An alternative approach is to marginalize across phenotypes (or genotypes) when mapping individualized niches
206 (Fig. 2). This is rooted in Roughgarden's (1972) idea to use traits of individuals as proxies for resource use.
207 Individuals are here used as replicates to establish a distribution of phenotype-specific environments. In
208 principle, this can be done across many different traits. While individuals are used as tokens of types in particular
209 phenotypic dimensions, individuals are typically unique in their trait combinations. In principle, it will be possible
210 to predict an individual's niche from its unique combination of traits. Such predictions are also possible for non-
211 linear relationships, provided that the form of the mapping function is none. A limit is set only if interactions
212 between traits are strong and poorly replicated in a population. In such cases, trait combinations in some
213 individuals might be so unique that prediction becomes impossible, a limit that is shared with phenotypic
214 novelties.

215 Both realized and potential niches might be of interest to ecologists. In some cases, the environmental space
216 that is occupied by an individual might be incidental. In other cases, however, features of an organism might
217 influence the realized niche space that can be occupied. Many insect species, for example, show
218 developmentally plastic wing length polymorphisms (Harrison 1980; Zera and Denno 1997). Wing length affects
219 dispersal abilities and thus the range of environments an individual can reach. Short-winged individuals might,
220 in principle, be able to survive and reproduce in very diverse environments (thus they might have a wide
221 potential niche), but in reality, they are limited to the realized niche at their local patch. The developmental
222 pathway to develop long-winged, dispersive phenotypes might not affect the potential niche as defined above,
223 but might result in a much wider array of realized individual niches. Sampling of environments is only possible
224 for an individual with sufficient mobility.

225 We may distinguish a third form of the individualized niche, the *fundamental individualized niche*. The difference
226 to the potential individualized niche is very subtle and probably not too relevant in practical applications, so the
227 two might often be used interchangeably (see Trappes et al. 2021). Hutchinson's fundamental ecological niche
228 is the environmental space that is occupied by a population in the absence of specific environmental factors

229 (competitors, predictors, dispersal barriers). This is appropriate for populations, because if a species is absent
230 from a potentially suitable habitat, it is so for a reason. Individuals, however, exist only as a single copy and can
231 be absent from many suitable environments, not for specific, but for arbitrary or random reasons (e.g. being
232 born in a specific place). The term fundamental individualized niche might thus be used for the individualized
233 niche in the absence of particular external (usually intraspecific or interspecific) factors, while the term potential
234 niche does imply coincidental absence from some environments – simply because individuals cannot be at
235 multiple places at a time. The reference space of the potential individualized niche is usually the realized niche
236 of the population, while the reference space for the fundamental environmental niche are all possible
237 environments. The distinction is specific to the individualized niche, since replication is less of an issue for the
238 niche of the population.

239 Definition A: The *realized individualized niche* is the place in environmental space in which a particular individual
240 is found and has an expected lifetime reproductive success of ≥ 1 . The realized individualized niche can be
241 quantified empirically.

242 Definition B: The *potential individualized niche* is the volume in environmental space in which a particular
243 individual could be found with an expected lifetime reproductive success of ≥ 1 . The potential individualized
244 niche cannot directly be quantified, but significant parts of the niche space can usually be statistically inferred.

245 The question of time

246 We have alluded to the integration across intervals of time above. This raises the more general questions about
247 whether the individualized niche refers to slices of time or to entire lifespans. The ecological niche of a
248 population is focused on entire lifespans. The ecological niche of a forest-dwelling frog, for example, includes a
249 network of forests and ponds, since adults require shelter in woodlands while in its juvenile stage, as a tadpole,
250 the frog requires ponds for survival and growth. Population persistence can only be achieved if both habitats
251 are available. One might argue that the equivalent is also true for individuals: that the individualized niche is a
252 lifetime niche. However, there are arguments why this simple application of lifetime niches loses important
253 intricacies of the individualized niche.

254 Throughout an individual's life, developmental decisions impact niche space later in life (West-Eberhard 2003).
255 The development of long wings in grasshoppers, for example, is triggered by increased population density
256 (Poniatowski and Fartmann 2009). All (or at least most) individuals seem to have the potential to develop the
257 long-wing phenotype under high population density, but remain short-winged under low population density.
258 Potential niches of long- and short-winged individuals are therefore no different at birth, since all (or at least
259 most) individuals have the potential to develop into either phenotype. It is a specific time during development
260 when niches of short- and long-winged phenotypes split. Another example is given by match-based phenotypic
261 adjustments. Some species of grasshoppers, for example, are able to change their body coloration during
262 development (Rowell 1972; Dearn 1990). Since body color affects background-dependent crypsis, individuals of
263 different color morphs have different individualized niches in the sense of environmental conditions under which
264 they can survive and reproduce. At birth, individuals have the same potential for alternative body colors,
265 therefore they have the same potential individualized niches. However, after phenotypic adjustment, their
266 niches become different. A focus on lifetime niches misses the importance of such critical developmental
267 decisions.

268 We therefore think that the individualized niche (whether realized or potential) is most fruitfully viewed from
269 two perspectives. A time-slice perspective looks for individual niches within certain life stages or other relevant
270 periods of time (such as different seasons). The study of such *time-slice individualized niches* (Fig. 3) allows
271 insights into individual differences in niche use and short-term phenotypic adjustments. A now-and-in-the-
272 future perspective looks at individual niches with a focus on sensitive phases or developmental switch-points
273 and their lifelong consequences (Sachser et al. 2020). We call this now-and-in-the-future perspective, the
274 *prospective individualized niche* (Fig. 4), as the space of environments in which an individual can survive and
275 reproduce given its current phenotype and its developmental opportunities. The prospective individualized
276 niche is the time-structured space of potential niches.

277 The prospective individualized niche does not give a lifetime perspective except for the special case of a zygote.
278 Potential individualized niches are affected by previous development (and by accidents). Certain areas of
279 environmental space might not be available if irreversible developmental plasticity in early life-stages prevents
280 an individual from developing a matching phenotype (Nyman et al. 2018). Development has manifest
281 consequences for the individualized niche. The potential niche from a prospective perspective therefore changes

282 as individuals age. In fact, with the possible exception of accidents, it always shrinks, as potentials must be
283 available at early stages and can only be reduced by individual decisions during development. The potential
284 time-slice individualized niche, in contrast, might vary across lifetime and might shrink or expand as an individual
285 keeps adjusting its phenotype.

286 Accidents and 'bad luck' represent a special case to be considered. Purely coincidental events that might affect
287 any individual with equal probability should not be considered in affecting expectations of lifetime reproductive
288 success. However, not all risks are equally distributed across environments. If individualized niches are unequally
289 risking, then (some) accidents are in fact non-random and genuinely affect fitness expectations. Some individuals
290 may select risky environments with high variance in reproductive success while others select safer environments
291 (Moran et al. 2021) . For example, all individuals may have the same probability of being killed by a storm, while
292 choosing to nest in areas with high predator density (or not) affects the reproductive success non-randomly.

293 However, there is room for a lifelong perspective. We think it is usually meaningless to reconstruct realized
294 individual niches post-mortem for its own sake, since in biology we are rarely interested in unique individuals
295 that represent an ephemeral phenomenon. Rather we aim to understand general patterns and mechanisms. A
296 compilation of individual lifetime niche trajectories (with dynamic changes throughout life) can expose
297 alternative developmental trajectories as bundles of alternative realized niches that change across age (Fig. 5).
298 Such a trajectory-based lifetime perspective helps to answer the question how individualized niches arise during
299 development. We therefore call specific life-history trajectories in environmental space the *trajectory-based*
300 *individualized niche*.

301 Definition C: The *time-slice individualized niche* is the environmental space in which a particular individual occurs
302 during a particular part of its development and has an expected lifetime reproductive success of ≥ 1 . Aspects of
303 the time-slice individualized niche can be quantified empirically by taking repeated measurements.

304 Definition D: The *prospective individualized niche* is a volume in environmental space in which a particular
305 individual has an expected lifetime reproductive success of ≥ 1 that includes the current and future potential
306 niches. The prospective individualized niche provides a focus on particular developmental decisions, which affect
307 future niche space and can be quantified empirically.

308 Definition E: The *trajectory-based individualized niche* is a time-structured volume in environmental space that
309 allows for expected lifetime reproductive success of ≥ 1 and that is different from alternative developmental
310 trajectories. The trajectory-based individualized niche provides a focus on alternative developmental
311 trajectories that affect potential niche space and can be quantified empirically.

312 The question of dimensions

313 Hutchinson (1957) defined the ecological niche as an n -dimensional space of environmental dimensions: abiotic
314 (scenopoetic) and biotic (bionomic) factors. Attributes of the focal species, such as specific phenotypes, are not
315 dimensions of the environmental niche. Instead, traits are features that allow a species to occupy a specific
316 environment, for example by providing the ability to exploit particular resource (and traits can be used as proxies
317 for resource use, Roughgarden 1972). Hutchinson distinguished the fundamental niche, the space that can be
318 occupied by a particular species in principle, from the realized niche, the space occupied by a particular
319 population in face of competition. Since the presence of the other species is just a particular dimension of
320 environmental space, the main function of the realized vs. fundamental niche distinction is highlighting how a
321 particular inter-species interaction can affect niche use (a clearly functional perspective). The realized niche is
322 thus the niche of a species in $n - 1$ environmental dimensions.

323 In analogy to Hutchinson's ecological niche of the population, we define the individualized niche in terms of
324 environmental dimensions, explicitly including all biotic and abiotic factors that are external to an individual.
325 There is no need to restrict the factors to those that are causally relevant to an individual's reproductive success.
326 Some environmental dimensions might have little influences on reproductive success, however this is an
327 empirical finding and should not condition the use of particular environmental dimensions. It is sometimes
328 argued that niche dimensions should be independent, i.e. orthogonal (Blonder et al. 2018). Often they will not
329 be orthogonal and some subspaces will not be realized in any real physical location. It is thus impossible to infer
330 whether some environmental combinations represent part of the niche of an individual (or population).
331 However, it is most useful to define niche space by evidence for presence of an individual rather than lack of
332 evidence for an absence. Combinations of environmental dimensions that are not realized in the real world
333 should thus not be regarded as part of the ecological niche of individuals (or populations). While niche

334 dimensions might not be orthogonal in the real world, it is fair to treat them as orthogonal in hypothetical
335 environmental space.

336 When scaling down from populations to individuals, the intraspecific context becomes external to the individual.
337 The presence or absence of conspecifics (including potential mates) or conspecifics with particular trait values
338 become an explicit part of the individualized niche. The social context, for example, is part of the individualized
339 niche, like the interspecific community context in the ecological niche of populations. The social conditions that
340 allow an individual to realize a non-zero inclusive fitness are also known as the social niche (Blonder et al. 2018;
341 Saltz et al. 2016, see below for a discussion of setting the boundaries). The fact that the intraspecific (including
342 social) context is part of individualized niche dimensions represents one of the most important differences to
343 the population niche. The individualized niche, thus, consists of $n + s$ dimensions, where n represents non-
344 intraspecific dimensions, while s represents the dimensionality of the intra-specific niche space (Fig. 6).

345 The intraspecific context is broader than the social settings. Population density and the frequency of other
346 phenotypes of the same species may impact the individualized niche even without social interactions (van
347 Benthem and Wittmann 2020). Some prey species such as grasshoppers are color polymorphic (Rowell 1972)
348 and some of their predators develop search images to specialize on the most frequent morph in a population
349 (Bond 2007). The expected lifetime reproductive success of an individual with a particular body color may thus
350 depend on the frequency of that color morph in a population – even if all other environmental dimensions are
351 identical. Rareness of a particular phenotype can be an advantage even when the phenotype in itself conveys no
352 general benefit (Violle et al. 2017). Such processes give rise to frequency-dependent selection, affecting the
353 niche space of individuals, since some phenotypes might be advantageous under some states of the population
354 but not under others.

355 We suggest that the difference between the presence and absence of intraspecific niche dimensions represents
356 a particularly interesting aspect of the individualized niche, especially since the social environment can have
357 profound influences on later individual phenotypes (Jäger et al. 2019): How does the niche of an individual
358 change depending on the state of the population as a whole (including density and frequency of other
359 phenotypes)? This offers an interesting perspective on the concept of soft vs. hard selection in evolutionary
360 biology (Wallace 1975; Bell et al. 2021). Hard selection refers to selection that is determined by the phenotype
361 of the focal individual and its environment, while soft selection occurs when selection is density- and frequency-

362 dependent. Population density, phenotype frequencies and social interactions are thus important components
363 of the individualized niche.

364 The question of boundaries

365 Hutchinson (1957) defined the boundaries of a population's niche by indefinite population persistence and thus
366 non-negative average growth rates in the long term. Population growth rates are determined by the ratio of
367 births to deaths in a population. The equivalent quantities at the level of individuals are survival and
368 reproduction and those can be used for determining the boundaries of individualized niches. However, there
369 are three important considerations, a rather easy and two harder ones, when translating this to the level of
370 individuals.

371 The easy complication is the question of whether niche boundaries are sharp borders or gradual zones of niche
372 fit. In fact, this consideration applies to both individualized and population niches and can be solved by working
373 with continuous values of population growth rates (in the case of populations) or lifetime reproductive success
374 (in the case of individuals). This results in a nuanced view of core and marginal niches space. A minor
375 complication is that population growth rates and individual lifetime reproductive success are often low under
376 most suitable environmental conditions if population growth rate (and individual lifetime reproductive success)
377 are density-dependent and a population is near its local carrying capacity (Engen and Sæther 2017). This is less
378 of a problem for the individualized niche if population density is considered as one of the niche dimensions.
379 Nevertheless, even in case of the ecological niche of a population, population size (or population density) can
380 be used to estimate the soft borders of niche boundaries.

381 The harder problem is which concept of individual lifetime reproductive success should be considered. It might
382 be tempting to use realized lifetime reproductive success, quantified in terms of number of offspring produced.
383 However, realized lifetime reproductive success has a large stochastic component and is often a poor indicator
384 of a particular individual's niche fit. If we use realized lifetime reproductive success (as e.g. Saltz et al. 2016 seem
385 to do), then we do have a problem with individuals that have thrived throughout live, but have bad luck and do
386 not reproduce by some coincidence (see above for a discussion of risk factors). They would be said to be out of
387 their niche, because their realized lifetime reproductive success (even inclusive realized fitness) is zero. We

388 therefore define the boundaries of individual niche space in terms of expected lifetime reproductive success,
389 which are functions of the phenotype-environment combination (Fig. 7). Expectations of reproductive success
390 do not necessarily invoke propensities in the sense of stochastic dispositions, but are rather build on statistical
391 summaries that follow the law of large numbers (Drouet and Merlin 2015). Individualized niches are thus
392 identified by mapping lifetime reproductive success on phenotype-environment combinations in the form of
393 multidimensional fitness functions. Since there are no replicates of an individual, there is no empirical solution,
394 neither to decompose individual lifetime reproductive success into a stochastic and a deterministic component,
395 nor to quantify individual lifetime reproductive success across different environments. Resorting on fitness
396 components or fitness proxies might be a viable solution (Patrick and Weimerskirch 2014). However, with fitness
397 components we have to abandon (or at least adjust) the absolute threshold of expected lifetime reproductive
398 success of ≥ 1 . Work with fitness components will thus discover mostly gradual (soft) rather than sharp
399 boundaries and this could be done even with relative fitness. Alternatively, we can marginalize across
400 phenotypes (or genotypes) and environments to estimate expected lifetime reproductive success in the form of
401 fitness functions using different individuals as replicates (Figure 2).

402 One might wonder whether the boundaries of the individualized niche are defined by zero lifetime reproductive
403 success or lifetime reproductive success of one (Figure 7). One problem with reproductive success expectations
404 is that they might get infinitely small and it might be difficult to tell where they become zero. The condition of
405 (simply) positive reproductive success expectations thus forms a theoretical boundary that is difficult to
406 determine empirically. We argue that while individuals cannot persist indefinitely, they need to leave at least
407 one offspring to perpetuate into future generations. A useful threshold for the boundary of the individualized
408 niches is thus the (long-run) expectation to produce one descendant. We think that this makes a useful
409 benchmark in a gradual view of the individualized niche.

410 A further consideration is whether the benchmark value of lifetime reproductive success should better be set to
411 two offspring in outcrossing sexually reproducing organisms. As stated above, evolutionary applications need
412 consider the mode of reproduction of the focal organism and aspects of relative performance. In outcrossing
413 organisms each offspring has two parents and the average contribution to future generations thus needs to be
414 2 (among all parental) in stable populations. However, the situation is already more complicated for facultatively
415 outcrossing individuals. While we do see value in applying a threshold of expected lifetime reproductive success

416 of at least two in some cases, we believe that a threshold of one offspring can served as a universal benchmark
417 in ecological applications: It allows one individual to be replaced by one offspring. Species-specific peculiarities
418 about inheritance (including common aspects such as outcrossing) need to be included when studying the long-
419 term fate and evolution.

420 Conclusions

421 We have started with a discussion of individual differences in behavior. We now want to come back to this and
422 ask whether individualized niches are a mere rebranding of the study of individual differences. In brief, we think
423 there are important differences. First, in our concept it is not the phenotype itself that represents the
424 individualized niche, but the environment that an individual lives in. Not all individual differences in phenotype
425 and behavior are thus relevant to the individualized niche (Trappes et al. 2021). It is the subset of individual
426 differences which mediate phenotype-environment matches (Edelaar and Bolnick 2019) are relevant to the
427 individualized niche. While the literature on individual differences focuses mainly on survival and fitness
428 consequences of individuals, the individualized niche focuses on the environment and, in particular, relate the
429 phenotype-environment match to individual differences (in line with Roughgarden 1972). Furthermore, in order
430 to estimate individualized niches, the full range of an individuals' ecology and life history needs to be studied.
431 This highlights the urge for studies, which incorporate lifetime-long observations of individuals.

432 We have introduced the fields of animal personality studies and the ecological niche concept and have discussed
433 how they blend in the concept of an individualized niche. We provide a working definition of individualized
434 niches that builds on Hutchinson's population-level ecological niche. However, there are important intricacies
435 when developing an individualized niche concept. Particularly important are (i) the differentiation between
436 realized and potential niches where the latter is defined by unobservable outcomes, (ii) the dynamic nature of
437 individualized niches with a time-slice, a prospective and a trajectory-based perspective, (iii) the inclusion of
438 intra-specific dimensions in the dimensionality of individualized niches and (iv) the need to define the
439 boundaries of individualized niche space by expected lifetime reproductive success (not realized lifetime
440 reproductive success). We hope that these considerations will help other scientists to further develop the
441 concept of the individualized niche into a practicable tool for empirical studies and conceptual progress.

442 There are important challenges in applications of the individualized niche concept. One of them is the efficient
443 identification of relevant niche axis. While the niche in itself is highly multidimensional, there are likely a few
444 important niche dimensions that matter the most, in order to explain individual differences within populations.
445 Therefore, the challenge for practitioners will be to find ways to reduce the dimensions of individualized niches
446 to those variables, which are important for individuals. The second is the efficient use of statistical models to
447 predict fitness expectations. Nonlinearities and interactions complicate the prediction of fitness expectation
448 (and any marginalization across individuals), so that the functional relationships need to be sufficiently well
449 known. Linear prediction and simple (additive or multiplicative) interactions might be the first approximations
450 in practice, but are likely overly simplified. The third challenge is the efficient use of good proxies of lifetime
451 reproductive success in all case where it cannot be determined directly.

452 While we see our concept mostly of metaphorical value, we also think it has practical implications. As a
453 metaphorical concept, it can provide thinking aids for new scientific avenues. Importantly, we provide
454 subcategories of the concept that, we think, may help to distinguish unequal aspects that are sometimes treated
455 under the term 'individualized niche'. We thus bring structure to the concept. We also provide practical advice
456 on empirical quantification of the individualized niche. The realized and the trajectory-based individualized
457 niches can be quantified quite directly, via repeated observations of the same individuals. The time-slice niche
458 is already often quantified, in many animal personality studies, though a stronger focus on individualized
459 phenotype-environment matches is desirable. The prospective niche can be quantified empirically by focusing
460 on the consequences of developmental switch-points and might even provide fresh views on animal behavior.
461 The potential individualized niche is the most complicated to be measured empirically and requires some
462 grouping of individuals with similar phenotypes, but still provides more detailed perspective of the ecological
463 niches than Hutchinson's population niche. We hope that the individualized niche, in its different flavors, allows
464 a more informative view of what is often treated as the niches of the population. Individuals differ and this often
465 has ecological and evolutionary consequences. The main challenge will be the identification (and quantification)
466 of relevant niche dimensions within the full niche space, which is characterized by high dimensionality.

467

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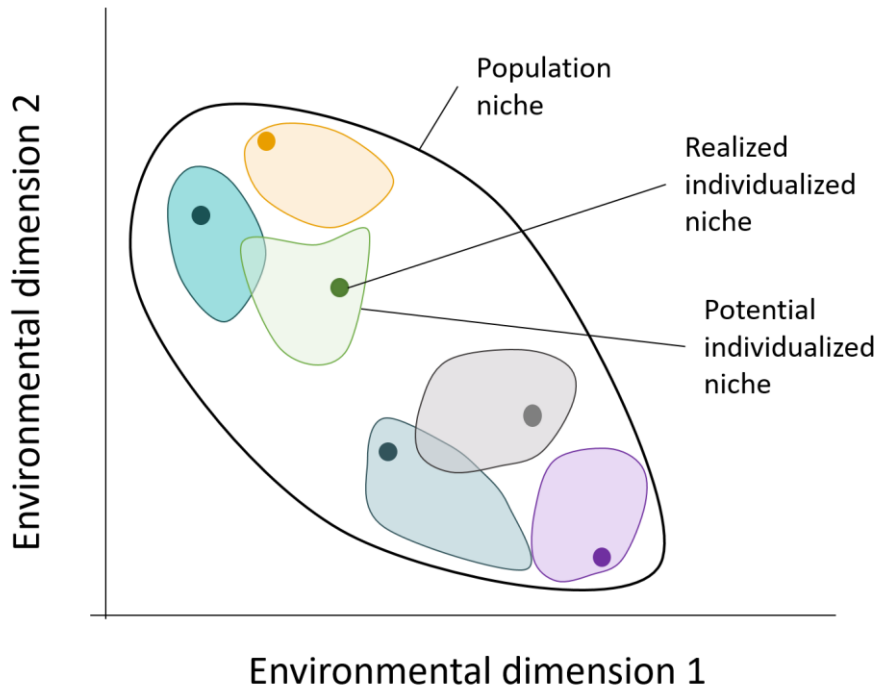
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629 **Figures**

630 Figure 1: Schematic view of realized and potential individual niches occupy subspaces of the population niche.

631 Realized niches are points (or small volumes) in environmental space that occupy only part of the volume that

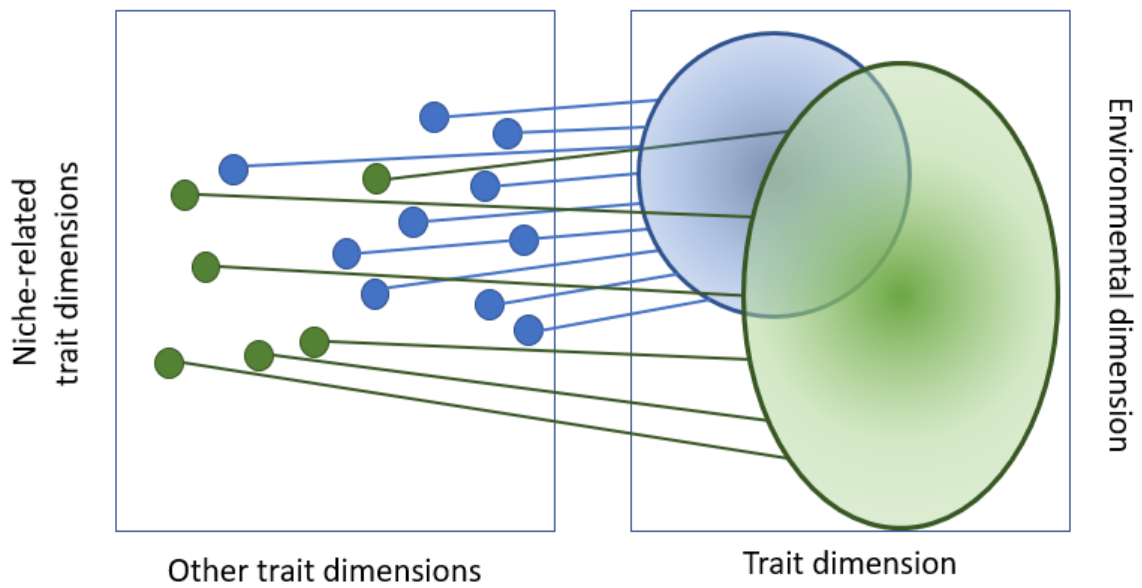
632 could potentially be occupied by an individual.



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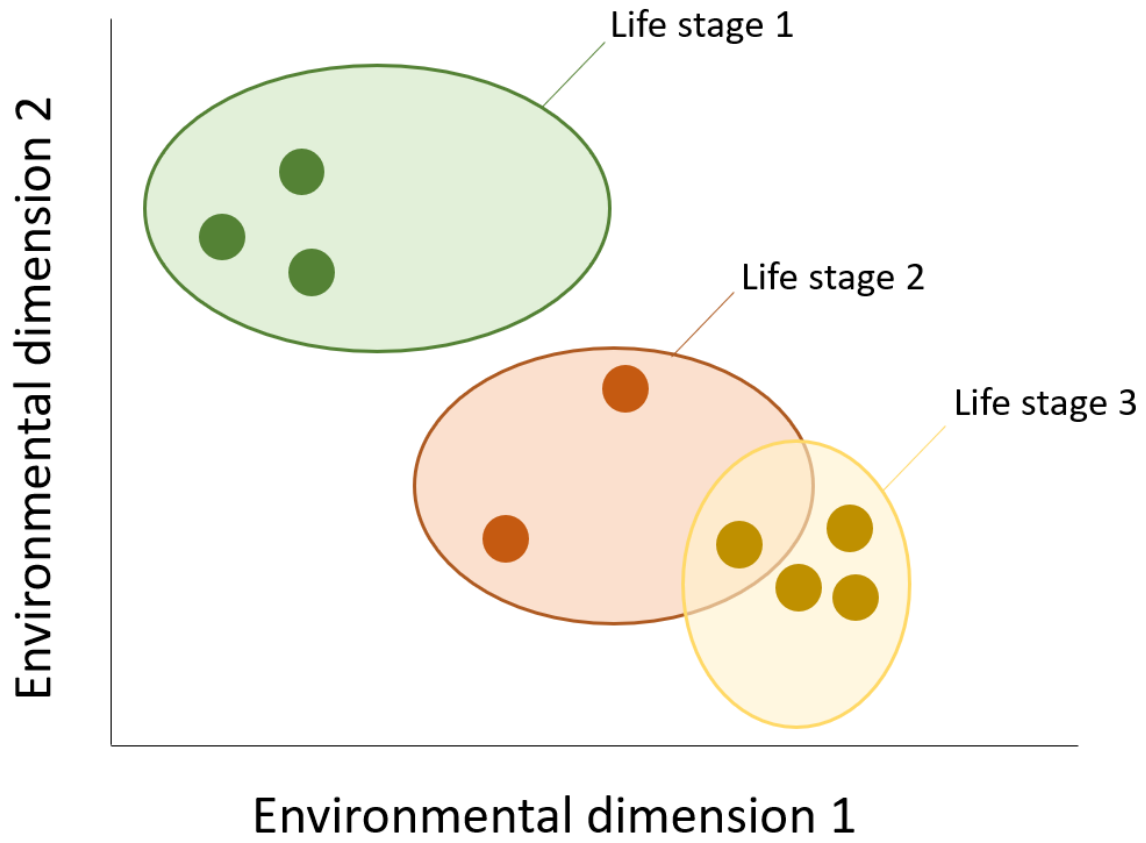
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635 Figure 2: Schematic view of the idea of using population-level patterns to predict individualized niches and
636 fitness consequences. Colors show different types of individuals (e.g. females and males). The left plot shows
637 two trait dimensions of which one is informative for occupancy of specific environments. The right plot shows a
638 multivariate fitness distribution that depends on phenotype (here shown by different colors and on the abscissa)
639 and environments. Fitness arises from the combination of phenotypes and environments. Darker colors show
640 higher fitness expectations.



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642 Figure 3: Schematic view of time-slice niches of an individual. Different colors refer to different meaningful life
643 stages of on individuals. Filled dots show realized individual niches, while shaded areas show the potential
644 individualized niches.

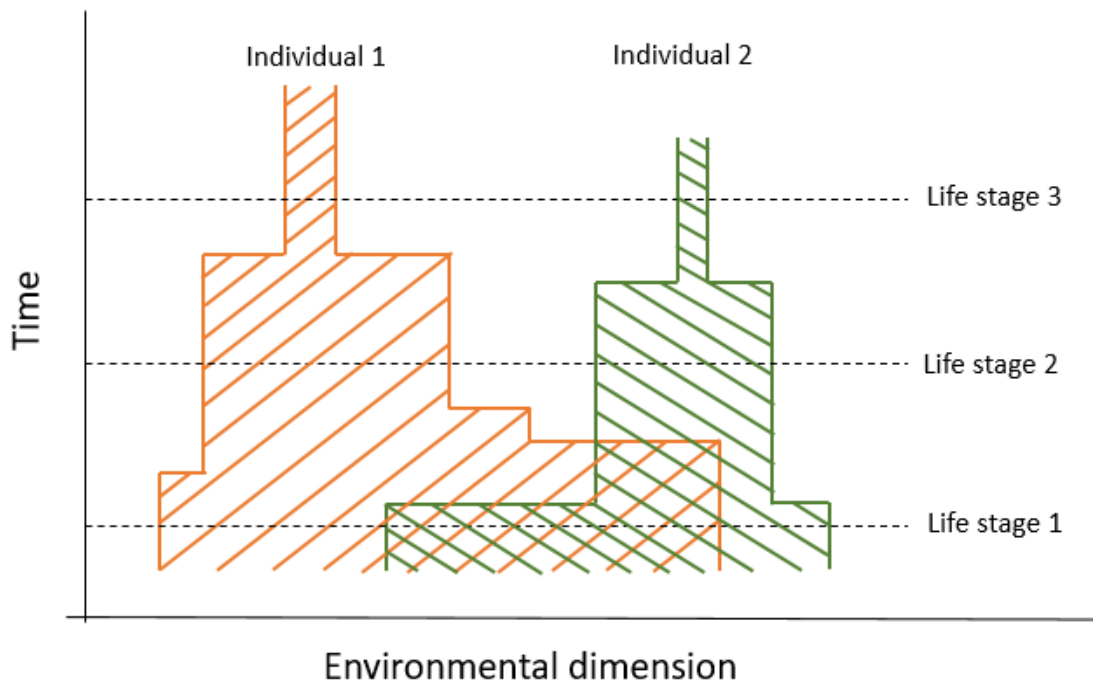


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647 Figure 4: Schematic view of prospective individualized niches of two individuals. Shaded areas show the potential
648 niche, dashed horizontal lines mark snapshots at three life stages. Steps in individual potential niches mark
649 developmental decisions of (or accidental external influences on) an individual. The horizontal axis compresses
650 lifetime niche dimensions onto a single axis. Potential niches can only shrink as an individual commits
651 developmental decision. The width of the prospective niche at any time point illustrate the potential range of
652 environments (now and in the future) in which an individual has an expected lifetime reproductive success of
653 ≥ 1 .

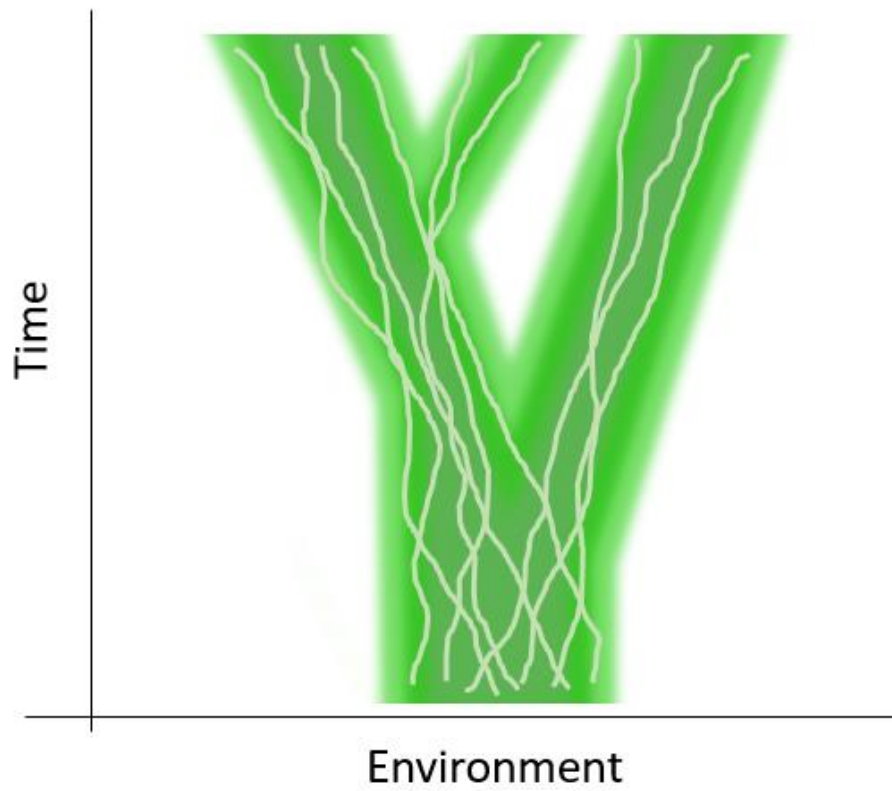
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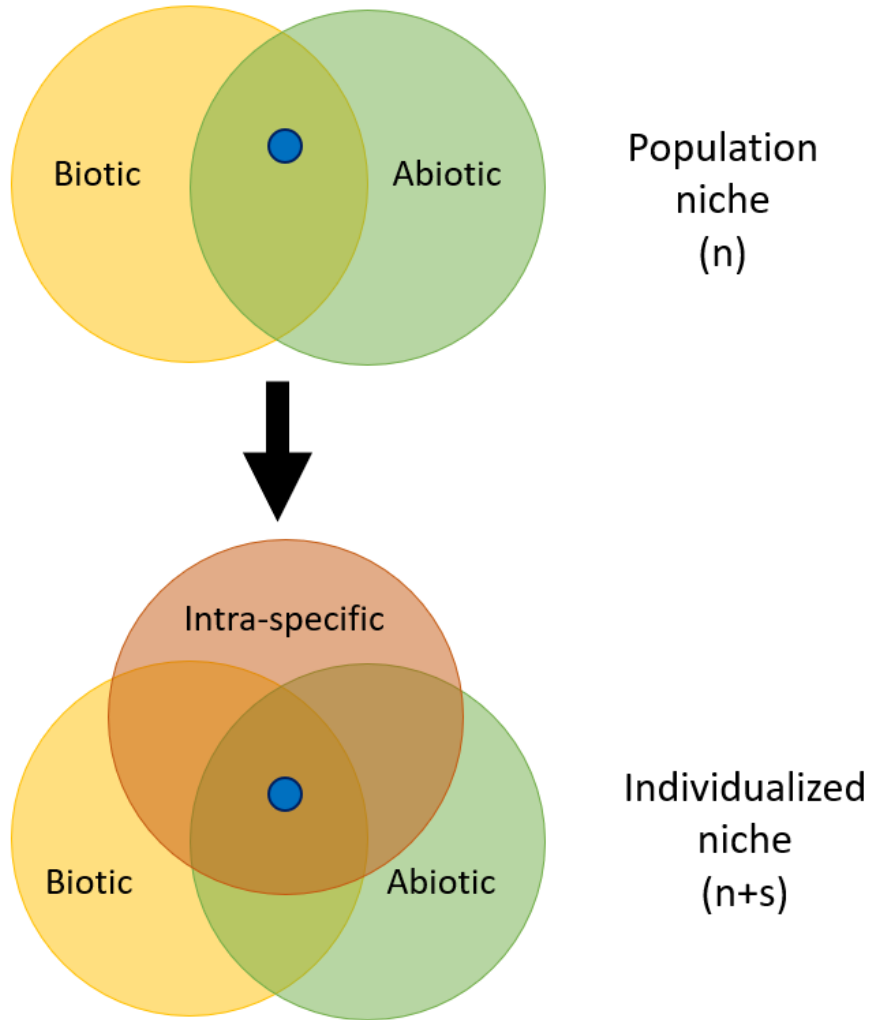
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657 Figure 5: Schematic view of lifetime trajectory-based niches that emphasize alternative developmental
658 pathways. Black lines show individual developmental trajectories in niches space. The green background
659 schematically highlights alternative trajectories and switch points that can be identified from bundles of
660 individual developmental trajectories.



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663 Figure 6: Dimensionality of the individualized niches. The population niche consists of n dimensions that
664 encompass all environmental conditions under which a population persists. The individualized niche explicitly
665 includes all intra-specific dimensions (such as population density and the frequency of alternative phenotypes).

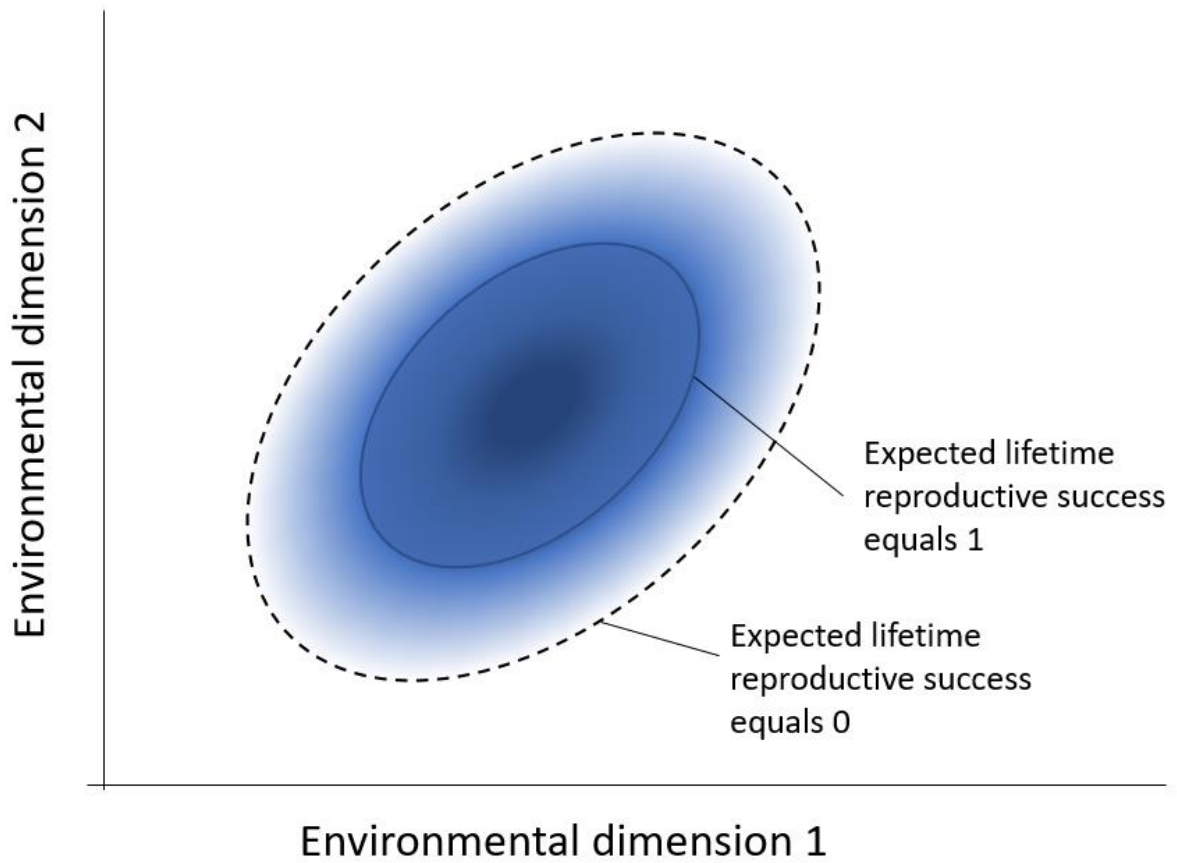


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668 Figure 7: Multidimensional fitness function and boundaries for the individualized niche. The graded blue area
669 shows the expected (absolute) lifetime reproductive success kernel. The solid blue line marks what we consider
670 the boundary of the individualized niche at an expected isocline of 1. The dashed blue line marks the absolute
671 boundary of where expected fitness drops to zero.

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Table S1. List of definitions of the ecological niche (in chronological order) and their thematic category.

Reference	Definition(quote)	Category
Grinnell (1917)	Variables associated with the presence of a species (e.g. <i>Toxostoma redivivum</i>). (not quote)	Habitat
Elton (1927)	The status of an animal in its community, its place in the biotic environment, its relations to food and enemies.	Role
Grinnell (1928)	The ultimate distributional unit within which each species is held by its structural and instinctive limitations.	Habitat
Gause (1934)	Place a given species occupies in a community.	Environment
Elton (1950)	The mode of life and especially the mode of feeding of an animal.	Trophic
Dice (1952)	The ecologic position that a species occupies in a particular ecosystem, a consideration of the habitat that the species concerned occupied for shelter, for breeding sites and for other activities, the food that it eats and all the other features of the ecosystem that it utilizes. The term does not include, except indirectly, any consideration of the functions that the species serves in the community.	Environment
Clarke (1954)	The function of the species in the community, rather than its physical place in the habitat.	Habitat
Macfadyen (1957)	Niche as a multidimensional entity.[not well developed]	n-dimensional
Hutchinson (1957)	An n-dimensional hypervolume defined on axes representing all of the ecological factors relative to the species and every point in which corresponds to a state of the environment which permits the species to exist indefinitely.	n-dimensional
Odum (1959)	The position or status of an organism within its community and ecosystem resulting from the organism's structural adaptations, physiological responses, and specific behavior (inherited and/or learned).	Role
Weatherley (1963)	The nutritional role of the animal in its ecosystem, that is, its relations to all the foods available to it.	Trophic
Root (1967)	The niche is composed of several dimensions, each corresponding to some requisite for a species.	n-dimensional
MacArthur (1968)	Niche breadth is the "distance through" a niche along some particular line in niche space. (not quote)	n-dimensional
Odum and Barrett (1971)	The physical space and the functional role of a species in the community and its position in environmental gradients of temperature, moisture, pH, soil and other conditions of existence.	Habitat & Role
Van Valen (1971)	An adaptive zone in the niche of any taxon, especially a supra-specific one, and has two more or less independent components. One involves use of resources and the other involves resistance to predation and parasitism.	Resources

Vandermeer (1972)	A set of habitats.	Habitat
Clapham Jr (1973)	All the bonds between the population and the community and ecosystem in which it is found.	Habitat & Role
Maguire Jr (1973)	The genetically (evolutionarily) determined capacity (range of tolerance) and pattern of biological response of an individual, a species population or the whole species to environmental conditions.	Environment
Whittaker, Levin, and Root (1973)	Intracommunity role of the species.	Role
Wuenschel (1974)	The set of all environmental variables (habitat) and all organism responses and both the habitat and total response are subsets of the niche.	Habitat
Lack (1974)	The places where a species feeds within its habitat.	Trophic
Pianka (1974)	The sum total of the adaptations of an organismic unit. All the various ways in which a given organismic unit conforms to its environment. [periodic table of niches]	n-dimensional
Pielou (1975)	The set of conditions that a particular species experiences.	Environment
Colwell and Fuentes (1975)	A hypervolume in a space defined by axes representing the biotic and abiotic factors to which populations in the community respond differentially. The response of organisms to different environments is an essential component of the niche.	n-dimensional
Whittaker and Levin (1975)	The complete functional role a species within a given community.	Role
Pianka (1976)	Resource utilization spectra through both theoretical and empirical work of a growing school of population biologists.	Resources
Diamond (1978)	Resources a species uses, where it finds them and the strategy by which it harvests them.	Resources
Hurlbert (1981)	The realized niche should be defined as the set of resources used and it can apply to individual, population, species etc.	Resources
Pulliam (1988)	The set of environments where population growth rate is positive, in the absence of migration.	Environment
Leibold (1995)	I suggest the term requirement niche be used to describe requirements (Hutchinsonian) and impact niche for the per capita effects of species on their environments (Eltonian). Total niche is the combination of two.	Requirements
Jackson and Overpeck (2000)	Potential niche is the portion of environmental space that is capable of supporting populations of a species at time t, defined as the intersection of the fundamental niche for the species with the realized environmental space for time t. The potential niche will change shape, size and position within the environmental space as the realized environmental spaces changes through time and as the fundamental niche changes through evolution.	Environment

Pulliam (2000)	The landscape in the NICHE model (that we suggest) consists of a two-dimensional array of grid cells. The landscape represents the environmental conditions in 'ordinary physical space' and corresponds to what Hutchinson called 'biotope'.	Environment
Chase and Leibold (2003)	A joint specification of environmental conditions or variables that allow a species to have positive intrinsic growth rate along with the effects of that species on those environmental variables.	Environment
Kearney (2006)	A subset of those environmental conditions which affect a particular organism, where the average absolute fitness of individuals in a population is greater than or equal to one.	Environment
Cain, Bowman, and Hacker (2008)	The physical and biological conditions that the species needs to grow, survive and reproduce.	Environment
McInerney and Etienne (2012)	A term to describe abstractions of an organism's relationship to an 'ecosystem' as described by both effect and response interactions the organism has, both directly and indirectly, with and on other biotic/abiotic objects that are part of that ecosystem.	Environment

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