1	Unveiling the temporal signatures of demographic stochasticity from populations to
2	metacommunities
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10	Abstract: The temporal stability of ecological properties tends to increase with spatial scale and
11	levels of biological organization, which is mostly associated with deterministic processes.
12	However, random fluctuations caused by demographic stochasticity in small populations might
13	extend to communities and metacommunities, potentially affecting stability propagation across
14	biological levels and spatial scales. Here, we tested this hypothesis by combining process-based
15	simulations and statistical modeling of 468 sites distributed across 39 regions, sampled from
16	1981 to 2019, to investigate how fish communities and metacommunities changed over time at
17	local and regional scales. We found that species-rich communities in highly seasonal
18	environments were more variable. However, the major driver of compositional temporal
19	variability was community size. Communities comprising smaller populations were more
20	temporally variable than those comprising larger populations. This relationship was weaker at
21	the regional scale, suggesting a dampening effect at the metacommunity level. Our results
22	suggest that the potential effects of demographic stochasticity, which are undoubtedly stronger in
23	small populations, might extend beyond populations, leaving different signals in the temporal
24	variability of ecological properties. These effects appear to be stronger and consistent within

- small communities and weaker in metacommunities. Our study advances the knowledge of how
- 26 populational-demographic stochasticity might affect biodiversity temporal dynamics across
- 27 scales.
- 28 **KEYWORDS**: random demography; community size; compositional variability; environmental
- 29 variability; spatial scale; temporal variability

#### 30 Introduction

Theoretical and observational research posit that the temporal variability of ecological 31 properties (e.g., coefficient of variation of biomass) decreases with the increase of spatial scale, 32 levels of biological organization, and trophic levels (Kéfi et al. 2019; Wang et al. 2019; 33 Hammond et al. 2020; Sigueira et al. 2024). The explanations for these relationships are mainly 34 35 based on deterministic processes, such as compensatory dynamics (Gonzalez and Loreau 2009, Brown et al. 2016), the role of mobile predators (McCann et al. 2005), and the Moran effect 36 (Steiner et al. 2013). Small populations experience high temporal variability due to random 37 demographic events (Reed and Hobbs 2004; Melbourne and Hastings 2008). Thus, as a process 38 that unfolds over time, could demographic stochasticity increase the temporal variability of 39 communities and metacommunities? Or do its effects also weaken from populations to 40 metacommunities? Understanding how random demographic events may affect biodiversity 41 temporal variability at larger scales is important to better forecast how ecosystems will respond 42 43 to global changes.

Demographic stochastic events such as birth, death, and emigration are inherent elements 44 of population dynamics (Lande 1988; 1993; Otto and Whitlock 1997; Whitlock 2004; Willi, van 45 46 Buskirk, and Hoffmann 2006; Melbourne and Hastings 2008). While various forces influence population demography, their impacts are consolidated into population size. Small populations 47 are more susceptible to the effects of random events, making them more temporally variable than 48 larger populations (Otto and Whitlock 1997; Reed and Hobbs 2004; Whitlock 2004). Expanding 49 on this understanding, recent research suggests that the effects of local demographic stochastic 50 events might extend to larger spatial scales and levels of biological organization. For example, 51 there is mounting evidence indicating that demographic stochasticity increases spatial beta 52

diversity among local communities comprised of small populations (small communities; (Orrock
and Watling 2010; Gilbert and Levine 2017; Siqueira et al. 2020) and weakens communityenvironment relationships (Jacobi and Siqueira 2023).

Although there is limited research about the effects of demographic stochasticity on the 56 temporal variability of multispecies communities, most studies suggest that small communities 57 58 tend to exhibit greater temporal variability (temporal beta diversity) compared to larger ones because small populations have few individuals to buffer against random fluctuations in their 59 demography (Orrock and Fletcher 2005; Pedruski, Fussmann, and Gonzalez 2015; Gilbert and 60 61 Levine 2017; Legault, Fox, and Melbourne 2019). One possible explanation for such relationship is that when demographic stochasticity plays a strong role in community assembly, niche 62 differences become less important, as the likelihood of any demographic event happening is 63 similar for all individuals, regardless of their fitness differences (Orrock and Watling 2010, 64 Legault et al. 2019). For this reason, it is reasonable to expect that small local communities 65 66 should have higher temporal variability in their species composition (i.e. high temporal beta diversity) than large communities. However, stochastic variability in species composition might 67 be also caused by an interaction between trait-diversity, dispersal and population size (Arim et al. 68 69 2023). Thus, further empirical research still needed to understand the effects of demographic stochasticity in the temporal assembly of ecological communities. 70

Considering that small communities may experience high temporal variability in species composition, it is possible that metacommunities formed by small communities may also be highly variable in time. Simulations and experiments analyzing biodiversity variability have found that metacommunity size is a key factor shaping species composition temporal variability (LeCraw, Srivastava, and Romero 2014; Suzuki and Economo 2024). Thus, large temporal

fluctuations in species composition within the metacommunity should happen if random
extinctions (or abundance changes) of species occur independently across different sites within
the metacommunity. Alternatively, if demographic stochasticity is not widespread within the
metacommunity, its effects might be negligible compared to the influence of deterministic
processes like compensatory dynamics (Andrew Gonzalez and Loreau 2009; Loreau 2010;
Brown, Downing, and Leibold 2016).

In light of the ongoing declines in population sizes and the elevated rates of species 82 extinction (McCallum 2015; He et al. 2019; Almond, Grooten, and Petersen 2020), we ask 83 84 whether the effects of population-level demographic stochasticity propagate to higher levels of biological organization and influence biodiversity temporal dynamics at larger spatial scales. To 85 do so, we analyzed how temporal variability in species composition was related to the size of 86 communities at local and regional scales. If small communities are more variable than large ones 87 simply due to their size, this would indicate a stronger influence of demographic stochasticity on 88 89 these communities. However, analyzing this relationship is challenging as, aside from the need for a significant amount of independent temporally and spatially replicated data across a gradient 90 of community size, it is crucial that the metrics used to quantify temporal variation in species 91 92 composition are not inherently affected by differences in community size. Thus, we first used a process-based simulation model to test if metrics commonly used to quantify variation in species 93 94 composition could indicate the effects of demographic stochasticity via their relationship with 95 community size. We then applied these metrics to time-series observational data and statistical 96 models to understand the relationships of temporal variability in species composition at both the 97 community and metacommunity levels with community size and other potential predictors,

98 including temporal variation in environmental conditions, time series length, the number of99 samples in the time series, and species richness.

We expected to find a negative relationship between temporal variability in species 100 composition within local communities and community size, suggesting that local species 101 composition vary more over time within small communities. At the metacommunity level, we 102 103 had two competitive expectations: (1) either a negative relationship between temporal variability in spatial beta-diversity and regional community size (2) or no relationship between temporal 104 105 variability in spatial beta-diversity and regional community size. Evidence supporting the latter 106 would indicate that the effects of local demographic stochasticity are weakened over time at the regional scale. 107

108

#### 109 Material and methods

110 **Data** 

111 We ran our empirical analyses using data from two large databases. From RivFishTIME (Comte et al. 2021), we obtained time series count data of riverine fish. TerraClimate 112 (Abatzoglou et al. 2018) provided high-resolution monthly data for environmental variables, 113 114 from which we calculated annual averages for precipitation, maximum air temperature, and minimum air temperature (a good proxy for water temperature; Stefan and Preud'homme 1993). 115 We defined a metacommunity as the set of sites within basin delineations (HydroBASINS 116 117 level 7 – Lehner and Grill 2013) and assigned a Strahler stream order for each sampled site using information from the HydroRIVERS network (Lehner and Grill 2013). After that, we selected 118 119 metacommunities that met the following criteria: (1) were composed of at least five communities 120 in first to third-order streams, (2) were sampled at least four times in different years, and (3) had

121	at least five species. When dealing with metacommunity data comprising multiple sampling
122	events per year, we selected the sampling date with the highest number of sampled sites. These
123	steps resulted in 468 communities distributed within 39 metacommunities, sampled from 1981 to
124	2019, located in the Australasia (12), Nearctic (12), and Palearctic (15) biogeographical realms
125	(Figure S1). These metacommunities are composed on average of 12 communities (standard
126	deviation = 9) sampled, on average, 11 times in the time-series (standard deviation = 5) with an
127	average temporal extent of 14 years (standard deviation = 5). All data selection and manipulation
128	were made in R v. 4.2.1 (www.r-project.org) using the packages ncdf4 (Pierce 2023), mapview
129	(Appelhans et al. 2022) raster (Hijmans 2023), sf (Pebesma 2018; Pebesma and Bivand 2023), sp
130	(Pebesma and Bivand 2005, Bivand et al. 2013), tidyverse (Wickham et al. 2019).
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# 143 Metrics of temporal variability

A major challenge involved in the use of community size as a proxy for the signature of demographic stochasticity is that many community metrics can be mathematically related to sample size regardless of the underlying assembly process (Beck, Holloway, and Schwanghart 2013; Chase and Knight 2013; Barwell, Isaac, and Kunin 2015; Cao et al. 2021). Thus, to select appropriate metrics of temporal variability that could be modelled against community size, we first developed a process-based simulation model according to the following steps.

We first simulated a purely neutral dynamics in 39 metacommunities of varying sizes 150 over 1000-time steps with the mcbrnet package (Terui and Pomeranz 2023). These simulations 151 152 were performed using different levels of dispersal within the metacommunities, which mirrored the empirical dataset in terms of community and species numbers. Given that the assembly of the 153 simulated metacommunities was entirely neutral, there should be no relationship between 154 temporal variability in species composition and community size. If any metric of temporal 155 variability was related with size, we understood it as unsuitable for our objective. Secondly, we 156 157 selected 10 time steps and measured temporal variability at both local (within each community) and regional (among communities) scales using different metrics: (i) temporal variability in 158 species abundance measuring the coefficient of variation of abundance at each organizational 159 160 level based on the partitioning framework developed by Wang et al. (2019); (ii) temporal variability in species composition at the local and regional scales employing the metric proposed 161 162 by Lamy et al. (2021) and implemented with the ltmc package (Sokol & Lamy 2022); (iii) 163 temporal beta diversity as the median of species rank changes (Avolio et al. 2019) within each community over time, using the RAC change function from the codyn package (Hallett et al. 164 165 2020). Additionally, we used codyn to assess spatial beta diversity at the metacommunity level 166 via the RAC difference function. The median difference in species rank among communities

was calculated at each time step. Finally, we regressed all these metrics of temporal variability described above against the median community size over time and compared the outcomes. The performance of each metric is informed in the Results section. Further details on the processbased simulation are available in the supplementary information.

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### 172 Predictors of temporal variability in species composition

We measured several metrics that are expected to play a role in explaining temporal 173 variability in species composition. This included assessing the number of samples collected over 174 175 time (number of samples) and the temporal extent of each sampling (time series length) for each community and metacommunity. We also measured the coefficient of variation (CV) of 176 maximum (CV tmax) and minimum (CV tmin) temperature and of precipitation (CV ppt) as 177 potential predictors of community variability over time. These metrics were measured by 178 dividing the standard deviation of temperature and precipitation values at each site over time by 179 the mean of these values. We also estimated the median asymptotic richness of each community 180 over time to be included as a predictor of community variability. Asymptotic richness was 181 estimated with the iNEXT package (Hsieh et al. 2022), which combines extrapolation and 182 183 interpolation techniques. At the metacommunity level, we also measured environmental synchrony as a proxy for the Moran effect (Siqueira et al. 2024). We measured environmental 184 185 synchrony within metacommunities by calculating the correlation of each environmental variable 186 (syn tmax, syn tmin, syn ppt) between communities over time. A high correlation or environmental synchrony would indicate that the environmental conditions being analyzed 187 188 changed similarly across sites, while a low synchrony indicates that environmental conditions 189 vary more independently across sites. Finally, we measured the spatial connectivity within each

metacommunity by calculating the mean Euclidean distance, in meters, between the central point of each metacommunity and its respective communities. The smaller the mean distance between communities, the greater the proximity centrality between them (Erős et al. 2012). We used the geosphere package to perform this calculation (Hijmans 2022).

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#### **195** Statistical analysis

To investigate how temporal variability in the species composition of local communities 196 was related to community size, we fitted a Generalized Linear Mixed Model (GLMM) with 197 198 metacommunity identity as a random effect. We modeled temporal variability in the species composition as the response variable and included as fixed-effects the median of local 199 community size over time, estimated species richness (median of estimated species richness over 200 201 time), the coefficients of variation of local environmental variables over time (CV tmax, CV tmin, CV ppt), the number of samples and the time series length of each community. All 202 variables were log transformed and we assumed a Gaussian distribution. We used the lme4 203 package (Bates et al. 2015) to fit this GLMM model and estimated the marginal (due to fixed 204 effects) and the conditional (due to fixed and random effects)  $R^2$  values with the MuMIn package 205 206 (Bartoń 2023). We also estimated p-values associated with the fixed effects using Wald chisquare tests with the Anova function in the car package (Fox and Weisberg 2019). 207 208 To investigate whether temporal variability in species composition within 209 metacommunities was related to regional community size, we used a Generalized Linear Model (GLM). We included regional community size (median community size within each 210 211 metacommunity over time), spatial connectivity, environmental synchrony (syn tmax, syn tmin, 212 syn ppt), number of metacommunity samples over time, and the time series length of each

213	metacommunity as predictors. This model was also described by a Gaussian distribution and the
214	variables were not log transformed. Model assumptions were examined via a visual assessment,
215	utilizing the check_model function from the performance package (Lüdecke et al. 2021), and the
216	simulateResiduals function from the DHARMa package (Hartig 2022). All analyses were
217	performed in R version 4.2.1 (www.r-project.org). Data and codes used in this research are
218	available at Zenodo (Jacobi 2024).
219	
220	Results
221	Metrics of temporal variability in simulated metacommunities
222	Our process-based simulation models indicated that while the temporal variability (CV)
223	in abundance had a consistent negative relationship with community size both at the local and
224	regional scales, the LTMC metric exhibited a negative relationship with community size at the
225	local scale (Table S1). Thus, these metrics of temporal variability were not adequate to be used
226	in our study. The species rank change metric was the only metric that was not related to
227	community size at the local scale (Table S1). The species rank difference was positively related
228	to community size in most simulations at the regional scale; however, the explanatory power of
229	the models ( $R^2$ ) was consistently low across all simulation scenarios (mean $R^2 = 0.03$ ; Table S1).
230	Conversely, the LTMC metric had a negative relationship with regional community size in some

simulations, while in others, no such relationship was observed (Table S1). However, when a

relationship was present, it exhibited a higher explanatory power compared to the metric based in

233 species rank differences.

Thus, considering that the metrics based on change in species rank yielded the mostrobust results regarding community size variations in a neutral scenario, we used them to analyze

the empirical data. More specifically, to represent temporal variability in species composition for
each community, we used the species rank change metric. To represent temporal variability in
species composition in metacommunities we used the coefficient of variation (CV) of the rank
difference of each year over time.

#### 240 Relationships in the empirical dataset

241 Despite a small violation of model assumptions (residuals slightly deviated from the model predicted values; Figure S2; S3), the model describing temporal variability in species 242 composition at the local scale explained 34% of the variation in community turnover (fixed 243 effects = 29%, random effects = 5%). Temporal variability in community composition was 244 negatively related to local community size (Wald  $X^{2}_{[1, 458]} = 112.4725$ , p-value = 2.2e-16, Figure 245 1a), indicating that species change more in rank position over time in smaller communities. Such 246 result was not observed in the null model, which reinforces the significance of observing this 247 relationship in the real dataset. Compositional variability also increased with the increase of 248 species richness (Wald  $X^{2}_{[1, 458]} = 93.2697$ , p-value = 2.2e-16, Figure 1b), CV of the minimum 249 temperature (Wald  $X^{2}_{[1, 458]} = 9.3190$ , p-value = 0.002, Figure 1c), and of the CV of precipitation 250 (Wald  $X^{2}_{[1, 458]} = 7.8240$ , p-value = 0.005, Figure 1d). These relationships indicate that more 251 252 diverse communities in more variable environments were also more temporally variable in their species composition. 253



Figure 1. Relationship between temporal variability in species composition of local communities
(rank change) and (a) local community size, (b) species richness, (c) coefficient of variation of
minimum temperature (CV tmin), and (d) coefficient of variation of precipitation (CV ppt).
Points represent local communities; colors represent the metacommunity to which the local
communities belong to. All variables are in log scale. Grey bands represent the 95% confidence
interval.

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261 The model describing temporal variability in species composition at the regional scale262 exhibited high collinearity among the predictors of environmental synchrony. To address this

263 issue, we refitted the model by including only one environmental synchrony variable at a time and then selected the model with the lowest Akaike information criterion value corrected for 264 small sample size (AIC<sub>c</sub>). The selected model was the one that included synchrony of 265 precipitation as a predictor of environmental synchrony (Table S2). Following this adjustment, 266 the model showed no issues with assumptions (Figure S4) and explained 16% of temporal 267 268 variability in species composition. The only predictor variable associated with p-value < 0.05 in the model was syn ppt ( $\beta = 0.0820$ ; std. error = 0.0367; t-value<sub>[38, 33]</sub> = -2.232; p = 0.0324; Figure 269 2a; Table S3), indicating that greater synchronicity in precipitation across communities reduces 270 271 the temporal variability in regional species composition. While no relationship was found between temporal variability and regional community size, the data exhibited a slight negative 272 trend (Figure 2b; Table S3), which may suggest that a negative relationship could emerge with a 273 274 larger sample. In summary, our results indicate that the relationship between temporal variability in species composition and size was statistically strong only for the local scale. 275



Figure 2. Relationship between temporal variability in species composition in metacommunities
(CV of rank difference) and (a) synchrony in precipitation among localities, and (b) regional
community size. Grey bands represent the 95% confidence interval.

280

## 281 Discussion

282 Our research investigated the potential for random fluctuations driven by demographic stochasticity to extend beyond the population level and influence the dynamics of higher 283 organizational levels of biological organization, such as communities and metacommunities. 284 285 Agreeing with our predictions, we found a consistent negative relationship between temporal variability in species composition and community size, but mainly at the local scale. Although 286 statistically weak, there was also a negative trend between temporal variability in species 287 composition and community size at the regional scale. Together, our results suggest that the 288 potential effects of demographic stochasticity, which are undoubtedly stronger in small 289 290 populations, might leave different signals in the temporal variability of ecological properties, being stronger and consistent within small communities and weaker in metacommunities. 291

Populations comprising few individuals tend to fluctuate more over time because 292 293 independent random demographic events can cause substantial changes in both their mean size and variance compared to populations with many individuals (Lande 1993; Legendre et al. 1999; 294 295 Melbourne and Hastings 2008; Fauvergue et al. 2012). In line with this knowledge, our finding 296 of a negative relationship between temporal variability in species composition and community size suggests that communities comprised of small populations are also more likely to vary in 297 298 time. This means that species abundances within these communities change more over time than 299 within larger communities, relatively to their size and number of species. This result provides

empirical support to previous theoretical and experimental findings that indicated how random 300 demographic events in small populations can lead to temporal changes in the compositional 301 turnover of individual communities (Gilbert and Levine 2017; Legault, Fox, and Melbourne 302 2019). These studies suggest that communities comprising small populations undergo more 303 pronounced demographic fluctuations, preventing any species from maintaining a constant 304 305 competitive advantage over others (Orrock and Fletcher 2005). Consequently, the smaller the community, the more the effects of demographic stochasticity increase community variability 306 over time. 307

Our results also indicated that the influence of demographic stochasticity on community 308 composition weakens or even disappears over time as we move from the local to the regional 309 scale. While at the local scale stochastic events are likely to cause major shifts in the species 310 composition of small communities, at the regional scale they are likely to be counterbalanced by 311 other factors such as the dispersal of individuals among patches and population spatial 312 313 asynchrony (Wang and Loreau 2016; Thompson et al. 2020). To influence regional species composition, random demographic events that influence the species composition of local 314 communities would need to occur concurrently and similarly in different communities, resulting 315 316 in the loss (or change in the abundance) of the same species across the entire metacommunity. However, due to the inherently random nature of demographic stochasticity (Hubbell 2001; 317 318 Lande, Engen, and Sæther 2003), its impact is unlikely to be uniform across communities. Even 319 if demographic stochasticity were widespread within the metacommunities we studied, its effects on local communities would have been asynchronous, meaning that the species affected by its 320 321 effects would vary from one community to another, thus keeping regional species composition 322 relatively stable.

Although our analyses did not indicate a statistical relationship between temporal 323 variability in species composition at the regional scale with metacommunity size, a visual 324 inspection of the scatter plot suggested a negative trend between these variables. As the first 325 study of its kind, we caution that our analyses, derived from a limited sample size (39 326 metacommunities), should be approached with care before dismissing the potential propagation 327 328 of the effects of random demography to the metacommunity level. Further studies comprising more metacommunities, longer time-series, and different response and predictor variables might 329 clarify this potential relationship. For example, Suzuki and Economo (2024) found that 330 331 increasing the number of patches in simulated metacommunities led to less temporal variability, implying that larger metacommunities could be more temporally stable. 332

Beyond community size, multiple abiotic and biotic factors can influence the temporal 333 variability of multispecies communities (Dunson and Travis 1991; Araújo and Luoto 2007; 334 Valencia et al. 2020). After adjusting for the effect of community size, we found that 335 336 communities with more species were also the ones with more compositional variability over time. Although this finding contrasts with the exiting research on the temporal stability of 337 ecological properties, it can be explained by the type of variability being used here. The temporal 338 339 variability of aggregate ecological properties, such as total biomass or abundance, is expected to decrease with the increase in the number of species due to the statistical averaging of fluctuations 340 341 in species abundances (Doak et al. 1998; Xu et al. 2021). But our analyses were based on the 342 temporal variability of species composition (rank of species abundances). As found recently by Arim et al. (2023), high functional and taxonomic diversity allows for a wider array of responses 343 344 to environmental fluctuations, potentially resulting in varying levels of success for different 345 species over time or under different conditions. Differential responses of species to stochastic

fluctuations in the environment can lead to changes in species dominance over time and increase the variability in species rank abundance (A. Gonzalez and Descamps-Julien 2004). This is likely the reason why we found that the coefficient of variation (CV) of both minimum temperature and precipitation were positively related to the temporal variability in species composition of local communities.

351 Demographic stochastic events are a natural component of population dynamics (Otto and Whitlock 1997, Whitlock 2004, Willi et al. 2006). Our research indicates that such 352 population-level events can have consequences for the temporal dynamics of local communities 353 354 and potentially to metacommunities. So far, most previous research on this topic highlighted the effects of demographic stochasticity on either population temporal dynamics or community 355 spatial dynamics (Lande 1993; Legendre et al. 1999; Vindenes and Engen 2017; Siqueira et al. 356 357 2020; Feng et al. 2022; Jacobi and Siqueira 2023). We extend previous findings here by showing with empirical data that demographic stochasticity can also generate greater temporal variability 358 359 in species composition, but mainly at the local scale. We thus suggest that the effects of demographic stochasticity are scale-dependent, being strongest at the local scale and decreasing 360 in intensity with the increase of spatial scale or level of biological organization. 361

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#### 590 Supplementary Information

#### 591 **Process-based simulation model**

To select temporal variability metrics that could be used to investigate the role of demographic stochasticity, we simulated neutral temporal dynamics in metacommunities of varying sizes and examined the relationship between temporal variability metrics and community size. By simulating neutral metacommunities, we eliminated niche selection effects on species composition. As communities were assembled under neutral dynamics, any relationship between temporal variability and community size would suggest that a given variability metric was not appropriate.

599 Initially, we simulated random branching networks using the function brnet from the 600 mcbrnet package (Terui & Pomeranz, 2023). The branching networks were then employed in the mcsim function of the mcbrnet package to simulate our metacommunities. We generated 39 601 metacommunities comprising the same range of community (5-30) and species (5-48) numbers 602 as observed in the datasets used for statistical modeling. Given that we were interested in 603 simulating a neutral dynamic, we excluded environmental variation and niche differences from 604 605 the simulation. We randomly varied the number of species among the metacommunities to generate a gradient of metacommunity sizes. We also incorporated a species carrying capacity 606 value within communities to restrict growth and prevent excessive size increase over time. The 607 608 carrying capacity of each population was consistent within communities of a given metacommunity but varied randomly among metacommunities (ranging from 50 to 150 609 610 individuals). We also introduced variability in species abundance within communities by simulating a disturbance. To achieve this, we set the disturbance probability to 1 and the intensity 611 to 0.43 for all metacommunities. We arrived at this disturbance value by adjusting it to match 612

metacommunity sizes similar to those in real datasets. Additionally, we conducted simulations considering different dispersal values within metacommunities (0.1, 0.5, and 1) to observe if this could impact the relationships with size. Then, we ran each simulation for a total of 1000 time steps. We selected the time-steps 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, and 1000 as our temporal samples to calculate metrics related to the temporal variability in species composition.

618 We started measuring the temporal variability in species abundance at both the community and metacommunity levels to subsequently relate them to the median community 619 620 size. We assessed temporal variability in species abundance by measuring the temporal 621 variability of aggregate abundance at each biological level based on the framework proposed by Wang et al. (2019). However, we excluded this metric from our future analyses as it 622 demonstrated a negative relationship with community size, both at the local and regional scales 623 (Table. S1). Then, we decided to test some metrics for temporal variability in species 624 composition. We measured both community and metacommunity variability using the approach 625 626 proposed by Lamy et al. (2021) with the ltmc package. We also assessed temporal variability in the rank of species (Avolio et al. 2019), measuring the rank change within each community over 627 time and the rank difference between communities at each time point. This was done using the 628 629 codyn package (Hallett et al.) Considering multiple simulations conducted with various dispersal rates and different seeds, we observed that both at the local and regional scales, the metrics of 630 631 species rank variability were less influenced by community size compared to the ltmc metrics (Table S1). When the metrics of species rank variability showed an association with size, the 632 relationship exhibited low explanatory power. In contrast, the local ltmc metric consistently 633 showed a negative relationship with community size, while the regional ltmc demonstrated 634 higher explanatory power when related to community size. 635

637	Table S1. Statistics obtained in the process-based simulation model by relating the metrics of
638	temporal variability in species composition with the median community size. Simulations were
639	conducted using different seeds and dispersal rates. The p-value represents the significance of
640	each relationship, and the explanatory power was measured by R <sup>2</sup> .

Temporal variability metric	set.seed	Dispersal	Slope	p-value	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>
Local abundance (CV)	1234	0.1	-1.7E-04	2.5E-14	0.7958	0.7903
Regional abundance (CV)	1234	0.1	-4.1E-05	0.0002	0.3084	0.2897
LTMC local	1234	0.1	-1.2E-04	0.0055	0.1901	0.1683
LTMC regional	1234	0.1	-6.4E-06	0.0985	0.0721	0.0470
Rank change	1234	0.1	1.0E-06	0.8411	6.3E-05	-0.0015
Rank difference	1234	0.1	1.1E-05	0.0017	0.0252	0.0227
Local abundance (CV)	1234	0.5	-1.3E-04	5.2E-15	0.8123	0.8072
Regional abundance (CV)	1234	0.5	-4.4E-05	0.0006	0.2777	0.2581
LTMC local	1234	0.5	-3.8E-05	0.0132	0.1549	0.1321
LTMC regional	1234	0.5	-1.2E-06	0.6211	0.0067	-0.0202
Rank change	1234	0.5	8.6E-06	0.0364	0.0069	0.0053
Rank difference	1234	0.5	4.2E-06	0.301	0.0028	0.0002
Local abundance (CV)	1234	1	1.1E-01	2.7E-13	0.7682	0.7619
Regional abundance (CV)	1234	1	-5.1E-02	7.7E-05	0.3482	0.3306
LTMC local	1234	1	-3.7E-05	0.0108	0.1632	0.1406
LTMC regional	1234	1	-2.3E-06	0.405	0.0188	-0.0077
Rank change	1234	1	5.0E-07	0.9071	2.2E-05	-0.0016
Rank difference	1234	1	1.2E-05	0.0091	0.0174	0.0149
Local abundance (CV)	111	0.1	-1.9E-04	4.0E-11	0.6967	0.6885
Regional abundance (CV)	111	0.1	-6.0E-05	3.6E-05	0.3736	0.3567
LTMC local	111	0.1	-1.3E-04	0.0001	0.328	0.3098
LTMC regional	111	0.1	-9.0E-06	0.0021	0.2274	0.2065
Rank change	111	0.1	-2.3E-07	0.9565	4.8E-06	-0.0016
Rank difference	111	0.1	1.4E-05	1.5E-06	0.0580	0.0556
Local abundance (CV)	111	0.5	-1.4E-04	9.5E-12	0.7192	0.7116
Regional abundance (CV)	111	0.5	-4.8E-05	6.8E-06	0.4258	0.4103
LTMC local	111	0.5	-4.6E-05	0.0003	0.3016	0.2827
LTMC regional	111	0.5	-6.7E-06	0.0060	0.1868	0.1648
Rank change	111	0.5	6.3E-06	0.1187	0.0039	0.0023
Rank difference	111	0.5	2.1E-05	2.1E-08	0.0778	0.0754

Temporal variability metric	set.seed	Dispersal	Slope	p-value	$\mathbb{R}^2$	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>
Local abundance (CV)	111	1	-1.4E-04	2.7E-11	0.7028	0.6948
Regional abundance (CV)	111	1	-4.7E-05	1.3E-07	0.5329	0.5203
LTMC local	111	1	-4.3E-05	0.0003	0.3063	0.2875
LTMC regional	111	1	-5.5E-06	0.0255	0.1278	0.1042
Rank change	111	1	-4.8E-07	0.9029	2.4E-05	-0.0016
Rank difference	111	1	1.7E-05	1.4E-05	0.0476	0.0451



644

Figure S1. Geographic distribution of the 39 metacommunities selected in our study, located in

646 Australasia (12), Nearctic (12), and Palearctic (15) biogeographical realms.





Figure S2 – Visual check of various assumptions of the model explaining temporal variability in
species composition in local communities.



(KS test), dispersion, and outliers. Additionally, it produces the plotResiduals (Fig. S3 - right panel), which generates a plot of residuals against predicted values, aiding in visualizing deviations from uniformity. We observed that the residuals deviated slightly from the model's predictions (Fig. S3; the closer the solid line to the dashed line, the better the fit). However, a residual pattern does not suggest the model is unsuitable (Hartig, 2022). With a considerable number of data points, residual diagnostics are likely to show significance, as achieving a perfectly fitting model is improbable (Hartig, 2022).



662

Figure S3 – Output from the simulateResiduals function of the DHARMa package, providing a
visual aid in detecting deviations from uniformity for the model that explains the temporal
variability in species composition in local communities (model one). Red stars represent
simulation outliers.



668 Figure S4 – Visual check of various assumptions from the model that explains the temporal

669 variability in species composition in metacommunities.

## 671 Supplementary Tables

Table S2. Model selection for generalized linear model of temporal variability in species

673 composition at the regional scale (CV of rank difference) as a function of regional community

674 size (Reg. size), spatial connectivity (Connectivity), number of metacommunity samples over

time (Number of samples), time series length of each metacommunity (Time series length),

- 676 synchrony in precipitation (Syn ppt), synchrony in maximum temperature (Syn tmax) and
- 677 synchrony in minimum temperature (Syn tmin). AICs is Akaike's Information Criterion
- 678 corrected for small sample sizes,  $\Delta AIC$  indicates the difference between a model's AIC<sub>c</sub> value
- and the  $AIC_c$  value for the best-fitting model.

Model	Reg.	Connectivity	Number of	Time series	Syn ppt	Syn tmax	Syn tmin	AIC	
Widdei	size	Connectivity	samples	length	Syn ppt			AlCc	LAICe
M1	Х	Х	Х	Х	Х			-128.6	0
1/2								100.00	0.22
M2	Х	X	Х	Х			Х	-128.28	0.32
M3	Х	х	Х	Х		Х		-128.02	0.58

Table S3. Model statistics summary for the metacommunity GLM. Here, the response variable
was the temporal variability in species composition at the regional scale (CV of rank difference).
Model coefficients (and their standard errors), t-values, and p-values are reported for each

	Estimate	Std. Error	t-value	p-value
Intercept	1.769e-01	4.538e-02	3.899	0.000447
Regional size	-4.074e-05	5.001e-05	-0.815	0.421058
Connectivity	-1.387e-09	1.438e-07	-0.010	0.992362
Syn ppt	-8.202e-02	3.674e-02	-2.232	0.032488
Number of samples	3.278e-04	1.521e-03	0.216	0.830645
Time series length	-1.865e-03	1.720e-03	-1.085	0.285962

684 predictor variable and the intercept.

685

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