

24 Abstract

25 Geographic range has long been acknowledged as an important determinant of extinction
26 risk. The trajectory of geographic range through time, however, has not received as much
27 scientific attention. Here, we test the role of change in geographic range – assessed by a measure
28 of proportional occupancy of grid cells – in determining the extinction risk in four major
29 microplankton groups over the last 66 million years: foraminifera, calcareous nannofossils,
30 radiolarians, and diatoms. Logistic regression was used to assess the importance of standing
31 occupancy ~~and~~ occupancy change ~~, and sampling probability~~ in the extinction risk of species.
32 We find that while standing occupancy is a major determinant of extinction risk in all
33 microplankton groups, the change in occupancy accounts for an average of ~~52%~~41% ~~of of~~ the
34 explanatory power ~~of shared by the three-two~~ analyzed variables, with a maximum value of 77%
35 ~~92%. Sampling probability was also found to be consistently informative, with an average of 6%~~
36 ~~and a maximum value of 22%. We also find that as temporal resolution decreases, the predictive~~
37 ability of these variables increases. Our results highlight the importance of incorporating both
38 geographic range and its change through time, ~~as well as sampling probability~~, into extinction
39 models. The ability of occupancy trajectory to help predict extinction risk underlines the
40 necessity of paleontological data in modern conservation efforts.

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42 1. Introduction

43 There is a rich literature documenting the effect of smaller geographic range sizes
44 increasing risk in contemporary and ancient extinctions (e.g. Foote et al., 2016; Foote et al.,
45 2007; McKinney, 1997; Payne and Finnegan, 2007; Purvis et al., 2000; Staude et al., 2020). The
46 International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) uses geographic range size as one of
47 the five key criteria by which the risk status of a species is assessed in the “Red List of

48 Threatened Species” ~~risk status of a species is assessed~~ (Mace et al., 2008). The temporal
49 trajectory of geographic range as a predictor of global extinction has been previously sparingly
50 explored in the paleontological literature (Liow et al., 2010; Foote et al., 2007, Tietje and
51 Kiessling, 2013; Kiessling and Kocsis, 2016; Saulsbury et al., 2023). ~~Here, -we further build~~
52 ~~upon this topic and explore how it applies to marine microplankton. but many studies looking at~~
53 ~~historic extinctions exclude this factor altogether. Increasing anthropogenic impact on biotic~~
54 ~~systems has been suggested as a contributing factor to species’ extinction risks (Ceballos et al.,~~
55 ~~2015; De Vos et al., 2015; Payne et al., 2016; Wagler, 2011). Understanding factors that increase~~
56 ~~a species’ risk of disappearance, and how they can be mitigated, is thus more important now than~~
57 ~~ever before.~~

58 Based on a data set of Cenozoic marine invertebrates from the Paleobiology Database
59 (<https://paleobiodb.org/>), Kiessling and Kocsis (2016), suggested that the trajectory of
60 geographic range has the potential to inform extinction risk. However, the coarse stratigraphic
61 resolution of the macroinvertebrate record (geological stages, about 5 million years in duration)
62 puts constraints on the fidelity of any approach that depends on the spatiotemporal distribution of
63 species. Due to their sheer abundance, unicellular groups are less affected by such issues and can
64 be used for finely resolved studies of assemblage changes (e.g., Strack et al. 2024) and
65 biogeography (e.g., Swain et al., 2024). ~~Variations in the material that make up their tests~~
66 ~~(calcareous or siliceous) are expected to manifest as either differential fossil sampling or as~~
67 ~~evolutionary patterns, which presents an opportunity to explore the sensitivity of extinction~~
68 ~~models under a wider range of scenarios. While accounting for sampling, We assess here the~~
69 importance of geographic range (expressed as proportional grid occupancy) and its temporal
70 trajectory on extinction risk of marine planktonic organisms. By using a temporally finely-
71 resolved dataset of fossil plankton, ~~as well as with the explicit incorporation of fossil sampling~~

72 ~~into our models,~~ we can better assess ~~whether~~ the degree to which the trajectory of geographic
73 occupancy ~~actually~~ influences extinction risk in marine life.

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77 2. Data and Methods

78 2.1 Sourcing and cleaning of raw data

79 We downloaded occurrence records from the Neptune Sandbox Berlin ("NSB"; Lazarus,
80 1994; Renaudie et al., 2020; data downloaded 30 August 2023) using the R package
81 "NSBcompanion" (Renaudie, 2019; version 2.2) as well as the Triton database (Fenton et al.
82 2021, version 2). Four taxonomic groups were downloaded: planktonic foraminifera, calcareous
83 nannofossils, radiolarians, and diatoms. ~~We downloaded occurrence records of four major~~
84 ~~marine microplankton groups from the Neptune Sandbox Berlin ("NSB"; Lazarus, 1994;~~
85 ~~Renaudie et al., 2020; data downloaded 30 August 2023) using the R package "NSBcompanion"~~
86 ~~(Renaudie 2019). These groups were planktonic foraminifera, calcareous nannofossils,~~
87 ~~radiolarians, and diatoms.~~ Each of t ~~t~~ The four data sets were downloaded with the taxonomy
88 resolved using the IODP Taxonomic Name List Project (Renaudie et al., 2020), a built-in option
89 that we specified prior to downloading. Additionally, questionably-identified taxa were excluded
90 from the download. Open-nomenclature taxa and possibly problematic or reworked occurrences
91 were also excluded using the built-in NSB download options. The NSB holds taxon occurrences
92 stretching back to the late Jurassic, but we limit our analysis to the Cenozoic record (i.e. the last
93 66 million years) to ensure a consistent age range for all for taxonomic groups, since both the
94 diatom and the radiolarian NSB records only exist for the Cenozoic.

95 The NSB database includes the estimated age as well as the modern and estimated paleo-
 96 coordinates (longitude and latitude) of each fossil occurrence calculated internally based on the
 97 plate tectonic reconstruction by Boyden et al. (2011, Fig. S1). Each dataset (foraminifera,
 98 calcareous nannofossils, radiolarians, diatoms) was cleaned to remove any occurrences that were
 99 missing age, paleo-coordinate, and/or relevant taxonomic information. The counts of unique
 100 species and the number of occurrence records in each data set (post-cleaning) are provided in
 101 Table 1. All cleaning and subsequent analyses were carried out in R 4.~~42.32~~ (R Core Team,
 102 2022).

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Data Set Summaries				
	Foraminifera	Calcareous Nannofossils	Radiolarians	Diatoms
Number of unique species	552	737	840	966
Number of occurrences	96 410	154 052 <u>150346</u>	91 240	91 092

	<u>96426</u>		<u>90201</u>	<u>91194</u>
Proportion-Percent of species that are extant and species with usable records have records in more than (>1 time bin)	0.051 <u>6.1</u>	0.015 <u>1.5</u>	0.093 <u>11.3</u>	0.119 <u>14.6</u>
Number of unique species-bin pairings with “gap-omission” approach, excluding first occurrences (occupancy change = NA) NA occurrences for occupancy and occupancy change . Bin size = 1 million years.	3471 <u>2951</u>	4814 <u>3817</u>	5626 <u>4512</u>	4938 <u>4225</u>

115 **Table 1.** The number of unique species, the number of total occurrence records, the proportion of
116 species that are both extant and occur in more than one bin, and the number of species-bin
117 pairings (post-cleaning).
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119 We assigned occurrences from each data set to time bins of either 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, or 1.0
120 million years, noting that 0.1 million years is currently the lower limit for global correlation. For
121 each time bin size, the first bin stretched from the present (0 Ma) to either 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, or 1.0
122 million years into the past. Each subsequent bin encompassed the following increment stretching
123 progressively further into the past. ~~Ages are reported in millions of years before present (Ma).~~

124 We assessed stratigraphic ranges as defined by the oldest and youngest fossil
125 occurrences. Due to reworking and other processes, the documented raw ranges may not reflect
126 the true durations of species. Therefore, we also applied the recommended “Pacman profiling”
127 (Lazarus et al., 2012), a stratigraphic outlier correction, to reduce the impact of outliers and
128 reworking on the data. The degree of Pacman trimming on the NSB data was determined via a
129 calibration process that used speciation and extinction ages of a given subset of each taxonomic
130 group. Based on this subset, the degree of trimming necessary to restore the “true” temporal

131 ranges of species could be estimated. Calibration ages were sourced from the Triton database
132 (Fenton et al. 2021) for foraminifera, Nigrini et al. (2006, obtained from Lazarus et al., 2012) for
133 radiolarians, the “Barron Diatom Catalog” (Lazarus et al., 2014) for diatoms, and a custom
134 species list constructed from Mikrotax (www.mikrotax.org; Huber et al., 2017) for calcareous
135 nannofossils. Potential trim values ranging from 0% to 16% of the raw ranges, at 1% intervals,
136 were analyzed. Pacman calibration was carried out on datasets after they had been trimmed to the
137 last 66 million years. Trim values were selected such that they minimized the average absolute
138 difference between the actual and the represented speciation or extinction ages of the species
139 present in the calibration set. The best-performing trim values were implemented in this study,
140 although the key results presented here do not change in the absence of Pacman profiling. ~~Those~~
141 ~~trim values were as follows: foraminifera (top: 15%, bottom 3%), calcareous nannofossils (top:~~
142 ~~14%, bottom: 4%), diatoms (top: 11%, bottom: 4%), radiolarians (top: 10%, bottom: 6%). Per~~
143 ~~capita extinction rates were calculated using the formula from Foote (1999). Those trim values~~
144 ~~were as follows: foraminifera (top: 15%, bottom 3%), calcareous nannofossils (top: 15%,~~
145 ~~bottom: 5%), diatoms (top: 11%, bottom: 4%), radiolarians (top: 10%, bottom: 7%). Per capita~~
146 ~~extinction rates were calculated using the formula from Foote (1999), without normalizing for~~
147 ~~interval length.~~

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150 2.2 Analysis of completeness

151 In order to quantify the degree to which sampling completeness affected downstream
152 analyses, we employed two separate completeness metrics: the three-timer completeness metric
153 (Alroy, 2008) and the simple completeness metric (“SCM”; Benton, 1985). The three-timer
154 completeness metric is the ratio of “three-timer” taxa (those which occur in bin $i-1$, bin i , and bin

155 *i*+1) to all taxa which occur in both bin *i*-1 and bin *i*+1 (irrespective of their presence in bin *i*,
156 “part-timer” taxa). The three-timer metric : the simple completeness metric (“SCM”; Benton,
157 1985) and the three-timer completeness metric (Alroy, 2008). The three-timer completeness
158 metric was calculated from the three-timer and part-timer counts returned by the “divDyn” R
159 extension package (Kocsis et al., 2019; version 0.8.3). The simple completeness metric is the
160 ratio of time bins with confirmed taxon occurrences to the inferred (by recorded observations
161 before and after a focal time interval) number of time bins occupied by that taxon.

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165 **2.3 Calculating occupancy**

166 For each data set, paleo-coordinates of samples were assigned to equal-area geographic
167 cells using the R package “*icosa*” (Kocsis, 2020; version 0.11.1) for the calculation of
168 proportional grid occupancy. Proportional grid occupancy is a recognized metric for assessing
169 geographic range in the fossil record, where contemporaneous sampling is impossible and
170 incomplete preservation is common (Foote et al., 2007; Darroch et al., 2022). Several cell-sizes
171 were analyzed ranging in edge length between 3.33° to 2°. There was little variation in results
172 within this range, so the highest resolution (4002 cells with 2° edge length, mean area of 1.3 x
173 10⁵ km²) was selected for this study. The present-day distribution of samples can be seen in
174 supplementary Fig. S1.

175 As counts of occupied cells tend to be biased by sampling (Kiessling, 2005), we
176 calculated proportional occupancy of each species in every time bin. Proportional occupancy is
177 ~~simply~~ the number of geographic cells occupied by the species divided by the total number of
178 sampled cells in a given time bin. For ~~clarity~~ simplicity, we refer to what is actually proportional

179 occupancy as ~~simply~~-*occupancy* from here forward. Furthermore, the number of unique
180 Longhurst (2007) biogeographic planktonic provinces that were occupied by each species in each
181 time bin was calculated, and the Pearson correlation of this value with the raw number of
182 occupied geographic cells was calculated. Autocorrelation was accounted for by differencing
183 temporally consecutive values prior to calculating correlation values.

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185 **2.4 Change in occupancy**

186 In addition to standing *occupancy*, the change in *occupancy* between consecutive time
187 bins was calculated by taking the natural log of the ratio of *occupancy* in time bin *i* to *occupancy*
188 in time bin *i-1*. The log transformation serves to standardize the magnitude of change and
189 produces positive values for increases in *occupancy* (range expansions) and negative values for
190 decreases in *occupancy* (range contractions). The correlation of the first differences between
191 occupancy and occupancy change was computed to determine if the data was affected by
192 multicollinearity.

193 Initially, instances where *occupancy* values in bin *i* or *i-1* were 0 (no occurrences) were
194 coded as missing data for *occupancy change* and removed from the final data set. While
195 removing these records prevents the inclusion of undefined *occupancy change* values in the final
196 data set, it greatly reduces the number of occurrences for a given taxon, especially for species
197 whose sampling is fragmentary. This effect is magnified by the fact that for each time bin with
198 zero occurrences of a given taxon (a “gap” in that taxon’s fossil record), two data points are
199 removed from the final data set for that taxon. This overall loss of data becomes more
200 pronounced with smaller bin sizes.

201 To combat this effect, we employed a “gap-omission” approach, whereby the change in
202 *occupancy* was calculated based on the previous occurrence of the taxon (regardless of when that

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203 was) rather than the previous time bin, *per se*. Thus, *i* and *i-1* do not necessarily correspond to
204 sequential time bins in this approach, but rather consecutive positive sampling intervals for each
205 given taxon. With this approach, consecutive taxon occurrences are included even when
206 separated by “gaps”, thus retaining more data to the final data set. Although both approaches
207 yield the same basic results (see Tables S1 and S2), we used the “gap-omission” approach for the
208 sake of retaining a larger data set.

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210 **2.5 Binomial logistic modeling**

211 For every species, a record of each time bin in which that species occurred was included
212 in the final ~~table-dataset~~ as a single row. Each unique species-bin pairing (row) is characterized
213 with the *occupancy* and a binary extinction indicator in the focal time bin as well as the change
214 in *occupancy* from the previous time bin. An extinction indicator value of 1 was assigned if an
215 occurrence was the last time bin in which a species occurred for the entire data set (the species
216 went extinct or permanently disappeared from the fossil record during this interval). An
217 extinction value of 0 was assigned for all other occurrence records (the species did not go extinct
218 during this interval). Species that are still extant, or those which only went extinct during the
219 most recent time bin (which spans up to the present), would by default be assigned an extinction
220 value of 1 in the most recent time bin. To avoid this edge effect, all occurrences from the most
221 recent time bin were removed prior to model fitting.

222 ~~Species that are still extant, or those which only went extinct during the most recent time~~
223 ~~bin (which spans up to the present), would by default be assigned an extinction value of 1 in the~~
224 ~~most recent time bin (because the most recent bin is the last occurrence of those species in the~~
225 ~~data set). To avoid this edge effect, all occurrences from the most recent time bin were removed~~
226 ~~prior to model fitting.~~

227 Binomial logistic models were constructed to examine the dependency of extinction on
228 *occupancy* and *occupancy change*. Both ~~the additive and multiplicative effects of~~
229 ~~*occupancy*, *variables occupancy change*, and *sampling* (represented by the three timer value~~
230 ~~calculated for each bin), as well as the impact of each variable independently,~~ were examined
231 with respect to the per-interval probability of extinction. The ~~multiplicative-saturated~~ generalized
232 linear model structure of “`glm(extinction ~ occupancy * occupancy_change * sampling`, family
233 = binomial(link = ‘logit’)),” was used. The stepAIC() function in the R package “MASS”
234 (Ripley et al., 2013; version 7.3) was used to select t~~The best-fitting model containing some~~
235 ~~combination of these variables and their interaction term was selected based on its AIC value.~~

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238 **2.6 Model performance and predictor importance**

239 We calculated the adjusted amount of deviance (D^2 of Guisan and Zimmermann, 2000)
240 accounted for by each computed logistic model. Deviance in a generalized linear model is
241 analogous to variance of ordinary linear regression. In each of the 16 data sets (four groups with
242 four time resolutions each), the Lindeman, Merenda, and Gold (1980, “LMG”) indices of
243 correlated input relative importance (henceforth referred to ~~simply~~ as “relative importance”)
244 were calculated for the *occupancy* ~~and~~; *occupancy change* ~~,~~ ~~and~~ *sampling* terms with respect to
245 predicting the *extinction* term. ~~The relative importance of the *occupancy change* term was~~
246 ~~standardized as a proportion of “total importance”.~~ This statistical approach was used to
247 represent the explanatory power of each model term with respect to one another, an insight that
248 is not directly apparent with simple model coefficients. ~~Additionally, for each of the additive~~
249 ~~model outputs, the ratio of the standardized *occupancy change* coefficient to the standardized~~

250 ~~occupancy coefficient was calculated to estimate the relative explanatory power of the~~
251 ~~occupancy change term between data sets.~~

252 ~~For each of these metrics, the standard error was estimated by bootstrapping the species~~
253 ~~that make up each set of occurrence records. For each of the 1000 bootstrapping iterations, the~~
254 ~~set of species whose occurrence records were retained in the data set was determined by~~
255 ~~resampling with replacement. After each resampled set of species and their occurrence records~~
256 ~~was determined, every model was re-fit and every metric was recalculated. The standard~~
257 ~~deviation of all bootstrapped values for a single metric approximates the standard error.~~

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259 **2.7 Extinction probabilities of extant species**

260 The World Register of Marine Species (<https://www.marinespecies.org/>), with the
261 assistance of the R package “taxize” (Chamberlain and Szoeck, 2013; [version 0.9.100](#)), was used
262 to identify extant species. These data on extant taxa were downloaded on 25 September 2023.

263 In order to predict the extinction probabilities of extant species, the data sets were
264 reanalyzed and re-fit to models using only the extinct species. Although this technique reduced
265 the overall amount of data used to fit the model, it allowed for the prediction of extinction
266 probabilities of extant species without circularity. Other than removing extant species, all other
267 processes were carried out in the same way as described above.

268 After selecting the best model for each plankton group, that model was used to predict the
269 extinction probability of extant species. Using the fitted models along with the *occupancy* and
270 *occupancy change* values for each extant species in the present bin (that which ends at the
271 present, 0 Ma), a probability of the binary response variable occurring as a 1 (extinction) can be
272 calculated. This represents the probability that the species will *not* appear again during the next
273 time bin of the same length (that which begins at the present, 0 Ma) or in other future time bins.

274 ~~Because three timer sampling calculations require bins both before and after the target bin, the~~
275 ~~present bin lacked a three timer sampling value. Models were thus fitted without the sampling~~
276 ~~term for future extinction probability predictions.~~ Extinction predictions were made on extant
277 species subsets without upper Pacman trimming, and the average probability of extinction for all
278 extant species ~~were~~ was calculated in each data set.

279

280 **2.8 Robustness testing**

281 Further analyses tested the robustness of our results, specifically for the proportional
282 occupancy's utility as a metric of geographic range ~~and for different datasets~~. The same analyses
283 at a bin size of 1 million years were carried out using latitudinal range and change of latitudinal
284 range instead of proportional occupancy and its change. Additionally, the same analyses were
285 carried out using proportional occupancy of Longhurst (2007) provinces and the change in
286 proportional occupancy of Longhurst provinces for data sorted into 1 million-year bins. Mixed-
287 effect models, in which each taxon was considered as a random-effect, were also constructed to
288 check if species identity substantially impacted the basic model results.

289 Although containing only records of planktonic foraminifers (many of which were
290 sourced from the NSB), the Triton database includes information on the original purpose of each
291 study from which records were sourced, as well as the age of speciation and extinction for each
292 species. With this additional information, the Triton dataset can be used to confirm the suitability
293 of methods used with the Neptune dataset with a different collection of fossil occurrences. Given
294 that some studies may not record every present taxon if it is not a zonal marker or thought to be
295 particularly informative, the Triton dataset was subset to include only studies whose purpose was
296 noted as "community analysis" (Fenton et al. 2021). Because studies whose purpose was to
297 analyze community structure would likely document all present species, by using this subset,

298 studies that potentially excluded some species were removed from the final data set.
299 Additionally, each included species history was subset to exclude any occurrences that occurred
300 before or after the speciation and extinction ages noted in the Triton dataset (Fenton et al. 2021),
301 respectively, reducing the potential impact of reworked fossils in the analysis. Because each
302 species in Triton was trimmed in this manner, these data did not undergo Pacman profiling as the
303 NSB data did. After these additional data-cleaning actions were taken, the Triton dataset had
304 197,832~~74~~ usable occurrence records and was analyzed in the same way as the NSB data.

305

306 3. Results

307 The utilized datasets show all four groups with elevated extinction rates coming out of
308 the end-Cretaceous mass extinction K-Pg and returning to relative stasis approximately 5-15 Ma
309 after the K-Pg boundary event (Fig. 1). ~~Shortly thereafter, all groups, but especially the~~
310 ~~siliceous groups, underwent~~ decreases in diversity, corresponding with the Paleocene-Eocene
311 Thermal Maximum (PETM, Fig. S24). ~~Both foraminifera and calcareous nannofossils retain~~
312 ~~relatively low and stable extinction rates (<0.2) for the rest of the Cenozoic (Fig. 1). Radiolarians~~
313 ~~and diatoms show spikes in extinction (>0.4) during the Eocene, including at the Eocene-~~
314 Oligocene transition as well as at approximately 44 and 41 Ma. The extinction rates (Fig. 1) and
315 diversity patterns (Fig. S2) of each plankton group match those of previous analyses of Neptune
316 data (Jamson et al., 2022), and various biotic events in the Cenozoic, including the Eocene-
317 Oligocene and the Oligocene-Miocene transitions, can be detected.

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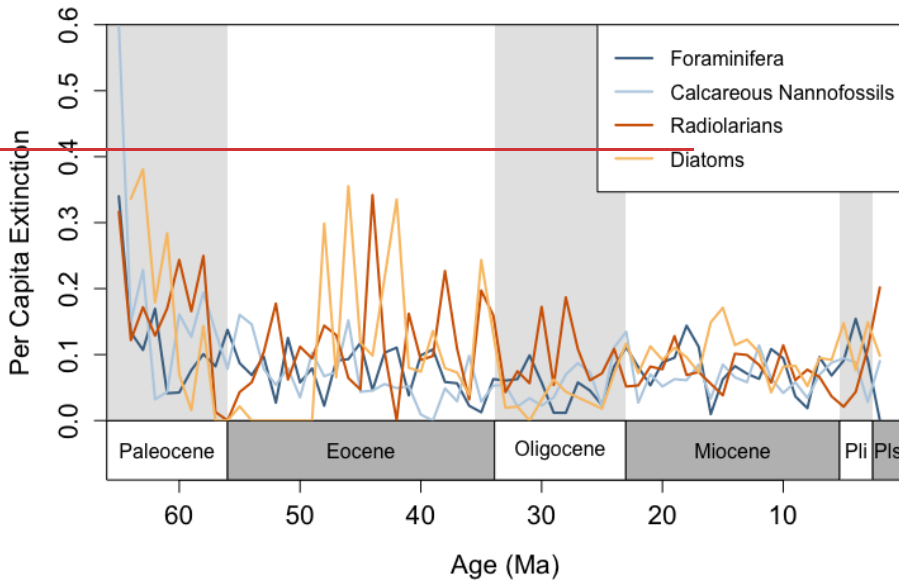
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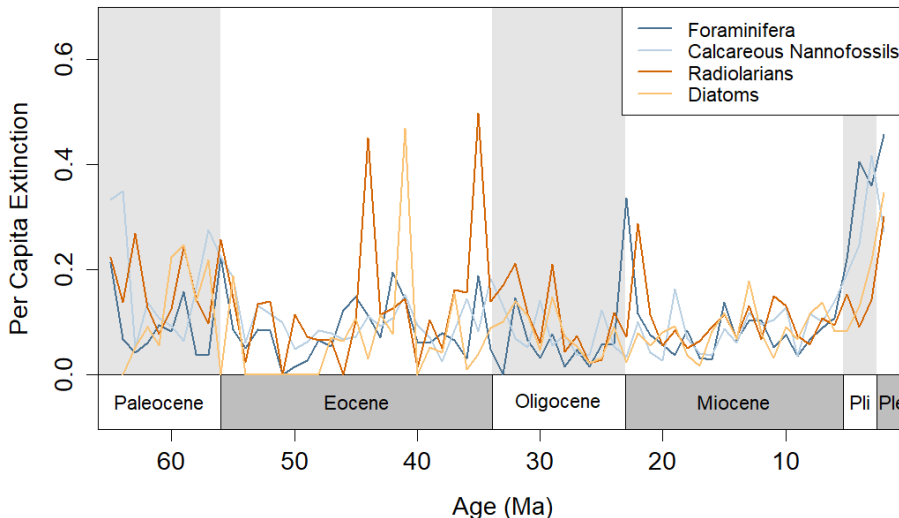
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322 **Figure 1.** Per capita extinction rates calculated using the formula in Foote (1999) for each
 323 of the four taxonomic groups during the Cenozoic, calculated ~~for~~with 1-million-year bins.
 324 The timescale of Gradstein et al. (2012) was used here to match age assignments in the
 325 NSB.

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327 ~~The extinction rates (Fig. 1) and diversity patterns (Fig. S4) of each plankton group~~
 328 ~~match those of previous analyses of Neptune data (Jamson et al., 2022), and various biotic events~~
 329 ~~in the Cenozoic can be detected. Occupancy is statistically significant (i.e., statistically non-zero,~~
 330 ~~$p = 0.05$) in all of the analyzed combinations of taxonomic group and bin size. Occupancy~~
 331 ~~change is significant in all models except for calcareous nannofossils with a bin size of 0.2 Ma;~~
 332 ~~standing occupancy, occupancy change, and sampling were all retained in the AIC-selected~~
 333 ~~models as informative (Table 2-2). When considering strictly the simpler additive models, both~~
 334 ~~occupancy and occupancy change were determined significant in all models ($p = 0.05$).~~
 335 ~~Sampling was deemed significant across all bin sizes for calcareous nannofossils, at 0.2 and 1.0~~
 336 ~~Ma for foraminifera, at 0.2 and 0.5 Ma for diatoms, and never for radiolarians. The term for the~~
 337 ~~interaction between occupancy and occupancy change is significant in all but three models:~~
 338 ~~foraminifera with bin size of 0.2 Ma, foraminifera with a bin size of 0.5 Ma, and diatoms with a~~
 339 ~~bin size of 1.0 Ma (Table 2).~~

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Bin size (Ma):	0.1	0.2	0.5	1.0
Foraminifera	<i>multiplicative</i>	<i>additive</i>	<i>multiplicative</i>	<i>multiplicative</i>
Calcareous Nannofossils	<i>multiplicative</i>	<i>multiplicative</i>	<i>multiplicative</i>	<i>-multiplicative</i>
Radiolarians	<i>multiplicative</i>	<i>multiplicative</i>	<i>multiplicative</i>	<i>multiplicative</i>
Diatoms	<i>multiplicative</i>	<i>multiplicative</i>	<i>multiplicative</i>	<i>multiplicative</i>

341 **Table 2.** The AIC-selected model formula for each group and bin size combination, on data that
 342 was processed with the “gap omission” approach. “multiplicative” refers to the model with the
 343 formula: $ex - oc * ch * p$, and “additive” refers to the model with the formula: $ex - oc + ch + p$.
 344 “ex” represents the binary response variable *extinction*, “oc” represents the *occupancy* term, “ch”
 345 represents the *occupancy change* term, and “p” represents three-timer sampling probability.

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<u>Occupancy Importance</u>	<u>Occupancy Change Importance</u>	<u>Interaction Importance</u>	<u>D²</u>	<u>Bin Size (Ma)</u>	<u>Group</u>
0.062 ± 0.010	0.052 ± 0.008	0.040 ± 0.007	0.155	1	F
0.050 ± 0.008	0.028 ± 0.006	--	0.093	0.5	F
0.049 ± 0.007	0.014 ± 0.004	--	0.062	0.2	F
0.036 ± 0.006	0.003 ± 0.001	0.002 ± 0.001	0.041	0.1	F
0.037 ± 0.006	0.040 ± 0.006	0.049 ± 0.007	0.126	1	N
0.045 ± 0.006	0.029 ± 0.005	0.029 ± 0.004	0.103	0.5	N
0.052 ± 0.005	--	0.009 ± 0.002	0.072	0.2	N
0.050 ± 0.004	0.006 ± 0.002	0.002 ± 0.001	0.058	0.1	N
0.015 ± 0.003	0.032 ± 0.005	0.026 ± 0.004	0.073	1	R
0.019 ± 0.003	0.018 ± 0.003	0.013 ± 0.003	0.050	0.5	R
0.016 ± 0.003	0.014 ± 0.003	0.003 ± 0.001	0.033	0.2	R
0.013 ± 0.003	0.004 ± 0.002	0.001 ± 0.0004	0.019	0.1	R
0.017 ± 0.004	0.020 ± 0.005	--	0.037	1	D
0.012 ± 0.003	0.011 ± 0.003	0.002 ± 0.001	0.025	0.5	D
0.007 ± 0.002	0.010 ± 0.003	0.003 ± 0.001	0.020	0.2	D
0.002 ± 0.001	0.007 ± 0.002	0.004 ± 0.001	0.014	0.1	D

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349 **Table 2.** Relative importance values shown with standard error for the *occupancy*,
 350 *occupancy change*, and interaction term for each group at each bin size. The D² values for
 351 each model are also reported. Darker blue corresponds to higher values. F = foraminifera,
 352 N = calcareous nannofossils, R = radiolarians, D = diatoms.

354 The signs of the *occupancy* and the *occupancy change* coefficients ~~were~~ are always
 355 negative ~~in single term models (Table 3)~~, meaning that smaller instantaneous geographic range
 356 sizes and more-negative changes in geographic range size both correspond to larger extinction

357 probabilities (Fig. 2). The D^2 values and AIC values of each analyzed model combination for
 358 each 1 million year binned data set are depicted shown in Table 2 Fig. 3. The maximum D^2 for
 359 any model was is 0.15529, occurring for the multiplicative saturated foraminifera model at a bin
 360 size of 1.0 Ma (Table 3). The relative importance of the occupancy change term averages
 361 52.0% 0.019, or about 41% of the total explanatory power shared by occupancy and occupancy
 362 change, with higher values being achieved with larger bin sizes.

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Occupancy	Occupancy Change	Interaction	Bin Size (Ma)	Group
-4.975	-0.624	-7.860	1	F
-4.419	-0.700	--	0.5	F
-4.863	-0.463	--	0.2	F
-4.406	-0.389	2.299	0.1	F
-3.275	-0.393	-11.363	1	N
-4.080	-0.343	-9.593	0.5	N
-4.576	--	-4.313	0.2	N
-4.516	-0.522	1.970	0.1	N
-2.063	-0.711	-4.907	1	R
-2.484	-0.598	-2.858	0.5	R
-2.138	-0.922	2.021	0.2	R
-1.902	-0.513	1.443	0.1	R
-2.095	-0.627	--	1	D
-2.028	-0.734	2.096	0.5	D
-1.494	-0.830	2.139	0.2	D
-0.918	-0.799	2.036	0.1	D

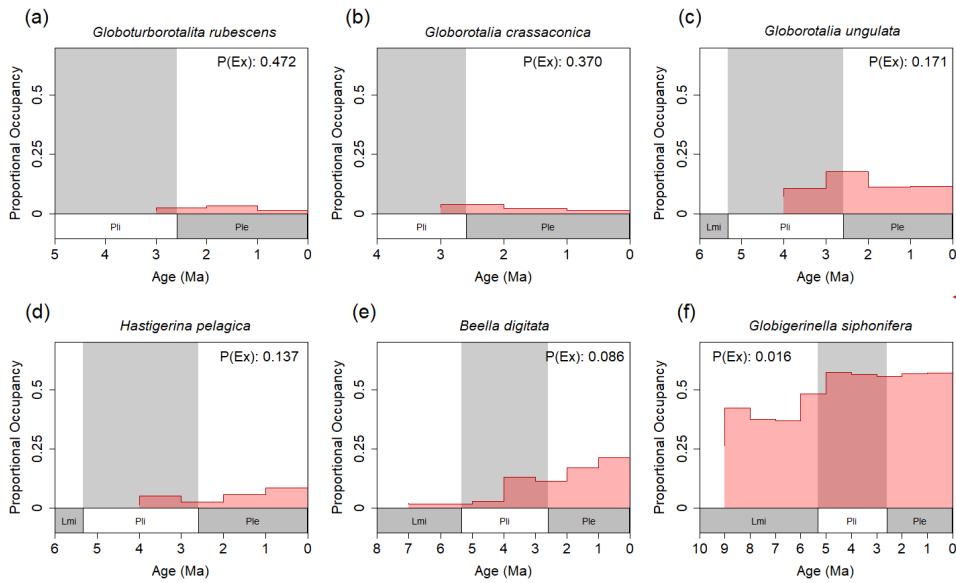
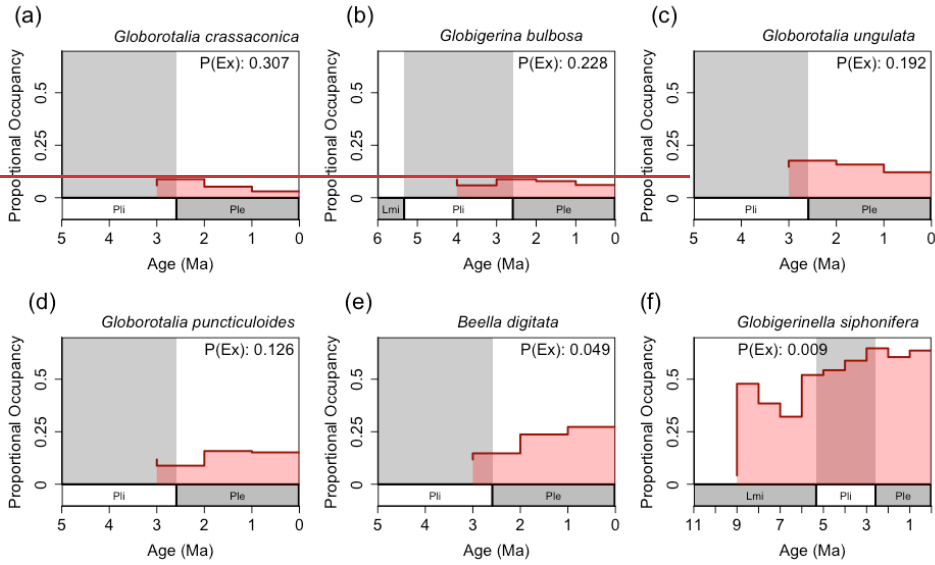
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365 **Table 3.** Model coefficients for the occupancy, occupancy change, and
 366 interaction term for each group and bin size. Darker blue corresponds to more
 367 positive values, and darker red corresponds to more negative values. F =
 368 foraminifera, N = calcareous nannofossils, R = radiolarians, D = diatoms.

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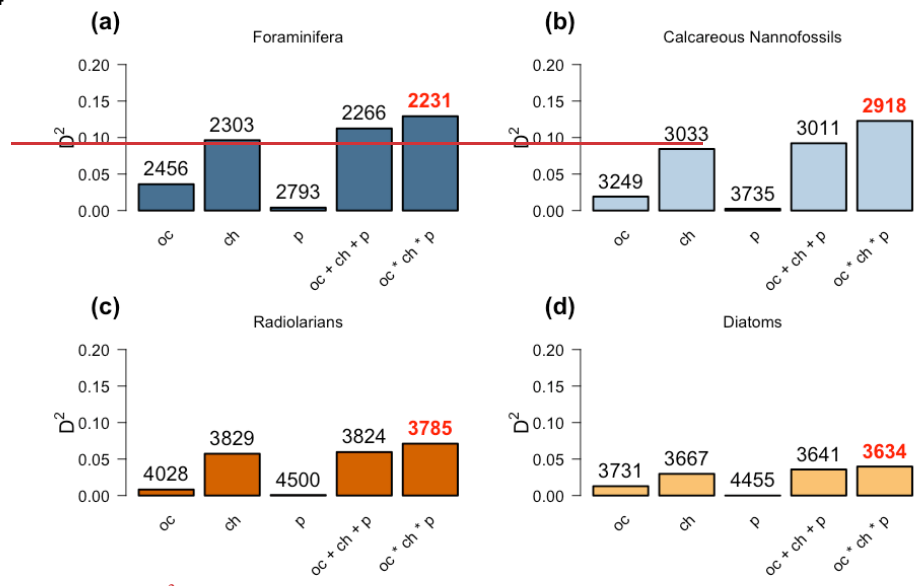
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Figure 2. A selection of proportional occupancy through time plots for 6 species of foraminifers sourced from the NSB with one-million-year bin size. In each panel, the current extinction probability of that species—predicted for the next 1 million years using that

378 species' historical geospatial records ~~with the model that was fit using extinct species of the~~
 379 ~~same taxonomic grouping~~ is shown. Panels A through F are ordered according to
 380 decreasing current extinction probability. Notice the association of relatively small standing
 381 occupancy values and relatively large occupancy decreases with increased probability of
 382 extinction. "Lmi" = Late Miocene, "Pli" = Pliocene, "Ple" = Pleistocene.
 383
 384



385 **Figure 3.** D^2 values (bars) and AIC values (numbers displayed above each bar) for each
 386 examined model formula. Shown for each of the NSB data sets with bin size = 1 million
 387 years. The lowest AIC value for each data set is shown in red.

Bin-size (Ma):	0.1	0.2	0.5	1.0
Foraminifera	0.042	0.053	0.079	0.129
Calcareous Nannofossils	0.053	0.053	-0.090	-0.123
Radiolarians	0.015	0.025	0.060	0.071
Diatoms	0.021	0.030	0.027	0.040

388 **Table 3.** The D^2 of each best fit model (see Table 2) for each data set at each bin size.
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390 D^2 values and relative importance values of the occupancy change term increase
 391 systematically with bin size, and calcareous organisms tend to have higher higher D^2 -values than
 392 values than siliceous organisms for both metrics for their best fit model (Table 23), indicating
 393 better overall explanatory power in calcareous organisms. TheA maximum relative importance
 394 value of occupancy is 0.062, and the maximum relative importance value of occupancy change is
 395 0.052, both of which were reported for the foraminifera data set with time bins of 1.0 Ma 91.9%
 396 was achieved for radiolarians binned to 1.0 million years (the D^2 of this particular multiplicative
 397 saturated model was is 0.155-0.071). In all but the smallest bin size, radiolarians consistently have
 398 the highest standardized coefficient ratios and relative importance values of the occupancy
 399 change term. Not surprisingly, sampling completeness increases with larger temporal grain.
 400 Foraminifera and calcareous nannofossils had have consistently higher three-timer sampling
 401 completeness than the siliceous groups across all bin sizes (Table 4, see Table S3 for SCM
 402 completeness).

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Three-Timer Completeness				
Bin-Size (million years)	0.1	0.2	0.5	1.0
Foraminifera	0.821 ± 0.006	0.899 ± 0.006	0.928 ± 0.007	0.933 ± 0.009
Calcareous Nannofossils	0.874 ± 0.004	0.899 ± 0.005	0.925 ± 0.006	0.936 ± 0.008
Radiolarians	0.792 ± 0.005	0.825 ± 0.006	0.886 ± 0.007	0.926 ± 0.008
Diatoms	0.729 ± 0.006	0.781 ± 0.007	0.838 ± 0.008	0.861 ± 0.010

405 **Table 4.** Three-timer completeness scores (Alroy 2008) calculated for each full data set at each
 406 of the four examined bin sizes. Shown with 95% confidence intervals.
 407

<u>Three-Timer Completeness</u>				
<u>Bin Size</u> <u>(million years)</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>0.2</u>	<u>0.5</u>	<u>1.0</u>
<u>Foraminifera</u>	<u>0.869 ± 0.005</u>	<u>0.921 ± 0.005</u>	<u>0.957 ± 0.006</u>	<u>0.949 ± 0.009</u>
<u>Calcareous Nannofossils</u>	<u>0.891 ± 0.004</u>	<u>0.918 ± 0.005</u>	<u>0.942 ± 0.006</u>	<u>0.950 ± 0.008</u>
<u>Radiolarians</u>	<u>0.857 ± 0.005</u>	<u>0.879 ± 0.006</u>	<u>0.922 ± 0.007</u>	<u>0.947 ± 0.008</u>
<u>Diatoms</u>	<u>0.830 ± 0.006</u>	<u>0.867 ± 0.007</u>	<u>0.898 ± 0.008</u>	<u>0.909 ± 0.010</u>

408 **Table 4.** Three-timer completeness scores (Alroy 2008) calculated for each full data set at each
 409 of the four examined bin sizes. Shown with 95% confidence intervals.
 410
 411

412 When fit to extinct-only data subsets, AIC-selected models ~~were still either the additive~~
 413 ~~or multiplicative three term models~~ retain both the *occupancy* and the *occupancy change* term for
 414 all groups at all bin sizes (~~Table S4~~). Extant diatoms showed a significantly higher probability of
 415 extinction than ~~all other groups, followed by extant radiolarians, and then by~~ the two calcareous
 416 groups, ~~and e-~~ Extinct radiolarians ~~had have~~ a significantly lower ~~extinction~~ probability of
 417 ~~extinction~~ than calcareous nannofossils and diatoms (Table 5). ~~Extinction values through time~~
 418 ~~for each group are visualized in Fig. 1.~~

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425 Species

	<u>Extant</u>	<u>Extinct</u>
<u>Foraminifera</u>	<u>0.130 ± 0.049</u>	<u>0.235 ± 0.033</u>
<u>Calcareous Nannofossils</u>	<u>0.070 ± 0.044</u>	<u>0.262 ± 0.016</u>
<u>Radiolarians</u>	<u>0.177 ± 0.014</u>	<u>0.208 ± 0.012</u>
<u>Diatoms</u>	<u>0.191 ± 0.010</u>	<u>0.269 ± 0.020</u>

Table 5-5. Mean of all extant-organism extinction probabilities (left) and extinct-organism extinction probabilities (right) produced for each data set. Means are shown with 95% confidence interval.

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430 The raw number of cells occupied by each species during each time bin ~~showed~~ shows a
431 strong positive correlation with the number of occupied Longhurst provinces for each taxonomic
432 group at each bin size, even when autocorrelation ~~was~~ is removed (Table S45). The same
433 analyses conducted on proportional occupancy of Longhurst provinces and the change in
434 proportional occupancy of Longhurst provinces, as well as on the latitudinal range of species and
435 the change in latitudinal range of species, yielded best-fit models that ~~related~~ retain all three
436 ~~model terms multiplicatively both variables and their interaction term~~ (Figs. S2 and S3 Tables S5
437 and S6). When the logistic modeling ~~was~~ is applied to the Triton data, ~~the three-term~~
438 ~~multiplicative or additive models always performed the best~~ both the occupancy and the
439 occupancy change terms are retained across the three largest bin sizes (Fig Table: S96). The
440 maximum D² value of 0.072 is achieved with a bin size of 1.0 Ma, and the LMG values of
441 occupancy and occupancy change are 0.050 and 0.016, respectively. Tests for multicollinearity
442 show only minor correlation (mean = 0.23, maximum = 0.32) between the examined variables
443 (Table S7). Although several datasets failed to reach convergence, the mixed-effect models show
444 similar results to those reported as part of the main analysis (Table S8).

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448 4. Discussion

449 4.1 Geographic range as a driver of microplankton diversity

450 ~~Our observations agree with the findings of Jamson et al. (2022), which observed~~
451 ~~increased extinction rates for siliceous organisms during the PETM. Additionally, the authors~~
452 ~~found a net diversification rate of around 0, as well as a stable extinction rate, for calcareous~~
453 ~~groups between the PETM and the modern. Our results show diatoms and radiolarians having~~
454 ~~several spikes in extinction between 40–50 Ma, which may indicate the termination of the Early~~
455 ~~Eocene Climatic Optimum. Jamson et al. (2022) observed a brief increase in diatom extinction~~
456 ~~rate during this event.~~

457 ~~There is another localized spike in extinction for the siliceous groups around 35 Ma,~~
458 ~~perhaps corresponding with the end of the Middle Eocene Climatic Optimum. ~~Jamson et al.~~~~
459 ~~(2022) observed a brief increase in diatom extinction rate during this event.~~

460 While absolute geographic range size is an informative predictor of extinction risk,
461 various other factors relating to geographic range also play an important role in global
462 biodiversity patterns. Powell and Glazier (2017) found that in the same four groups of
463 microplankton analyzed in this study, latitudinal diversity gradients are produced by asymmetric
464 shifts in geographic range, rather than variations in diversification rate with respect to latitude.
465 On the contrary, Raja and Kiessling (2021) found that the extratropics had higher average
466 origination rates than the tropics. Supporting Powell and Glazier's (2017) finding that
467 asymmetric shifts in geographic range are key drivers of latitudinal diversity gradients, Raja and
468 Kiessling (2021) showed that dispersal was more likely to occur from the extratropics towards
469 the tropics. Both studies suggest that latitudinal diversity gradients, and thus the geographic

470 distribution of a species, are closely linked to paleoclimate regimes. Indeed, changes in global
471 circulation patterns, ~~as well as~~ water column stratification, and temperature are all among the
472 ~~major key~~ influences on global plankton diversity (Lowery et al., 2020)

473 ~~Although the ranges of marine microplankton have been known to shift in response to~~
474 ~~climate (Ying et al., 2024, Chaabane et al., 2024), this is not always the case, as species ranges~~
475 ~~sometimes fail to keep up with shifting temperature zones. As paleoclimate regimes shift over~~
476 ~~geologic time, marine microplankton ranges often do not shift to follow changes in temperature;~~
477 ~~instead, populations may simply go extinct as local temperatures become inhospitable without a~~
478 ~~comparable range expansion into more hospitable zones~~ (Trubovitz et al., 2020). Trubovitz et al.
479 (2023) found that radiolarian abundance is not a significant predictor of extinction risk and that
480 external drivers (such as climate) are more likely to predict extinctions. Thus, while some species
481 do migrate in response to climate change, larger geographic ranges may provide a geographic
482 cushion to species ~~that don't with a geographic cushion~~: as local temperatures change, more
483 widespread species undergo a more drawn-out series of local extirpations before global
484 extinction occurs. This agrees with the well-established phenomenon, and that which we also
485 report here, that larger instantaneous geographic occupancy reduces a species' risk of extinction
486 (Foote et al., 2016; Foote et al., 2007; McKinney, 1997; Payne and Finnegan, 2007; Purvis et al.,
487 2000; Staude et al., 2020).;

488 Additionally, the trajectory of a species' geographic range through time might indirectly
489 reflect shifts in regional or global climate. As paleoclimate zones shift, geographic cells may
490 become inhospitable to a species, and the species may undergo extirpation in that geographic
491 cell. A more rapid change in a species' occupancy through time may reflect a more rapid change
492 in paleoclimate and hospitable regions of Earth. Continued reduction in occupancy over time can

493 thus provide insight into the effects of long-term climatic, geographic, or biological trends on the
494 extinction probability of marine microplankton.

495

496 **4.2 History of occupancy / legacy effects**

497 The trajectory of various ecological variables through time has been shown to impact the
498 current and future direction of species diversity trends. These legacies may include past climatic
499 events or geographic range shifts influencing modern distributions or extinctions of species
500 (Svenning et al., 2015). The interaction of historic information with current information can
501 provide insight about ecological processes that neither historic nor current information could
502 provide on its own.

503 The historic trajectory of climate change impacts the probability of extinction occurring
504 with a short-term change in climate. A warming event occurring after a long-term warming trend
505 leads to greater extinction rates (Mathes et al., 2021a) ~~and lower origination rates (Mathes et al.,~~
506 ~~2021b)~~ than a warming event occurring after a long-term cooling trend. Understanding the
507 historical conditions leading up to a study period of interest ~~thus may~~ thus be essential to
508 understanding the key drivers as to what goes extinct versus what survives.

509 Although the effect of climate and geographic range legacies on instantaneous
510 geographic range ~~itself~~ is well-studied (Svenning et al., 2015), the effect of geographic range
511 legacies on instantaneous extinction probability has not received as much attention. Of course,
512 populations of species cannot “look” backwards, but are instead influenced by the current
513 conditions present in an environment. The predictive capability of the *occupancy change* term
514 may thus be an indicator of continued unfavorable conditions (perhaps spanning millions of
515 years) acting on a population at a given time. Kiessling and Kocsis (2016) found that the legacy
516 of geographic range (represented as its change to the present from the previous bin) is an

517 informative predictor for extinction risk in marine macroinvertebrates. Our results build upon
518 those of Kiessling and Kocsis (2016), demonstrating both that these findings hold true for marine
519 microplankton, as well as that temporal scale (bin size) is a key variable in detecting the
520 importance of geographic legacy effects.

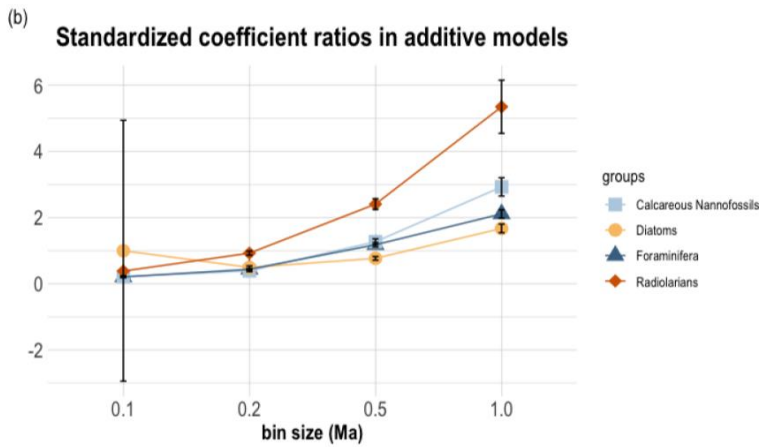
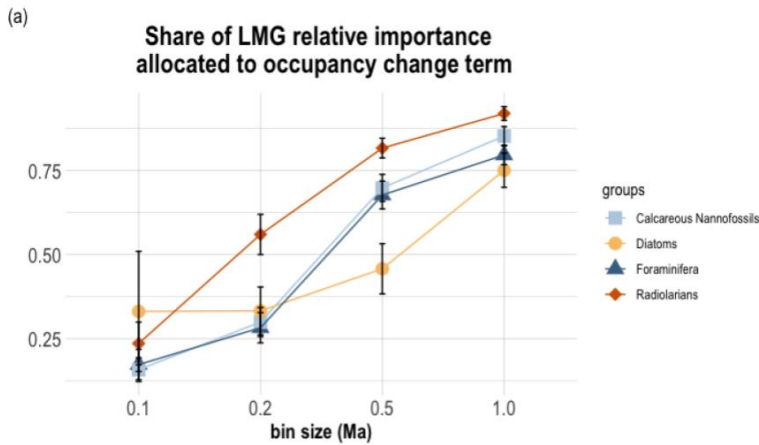
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522 4.3 Scale dependency of extinction drivers:

523 Although previous studies have analyzed various drivers of extinction through geologic
524 time, relatively little research has gone into understanding the scale-dependency of these
525 extinction drivers. Scale-dependency in extinction studies manifests in various variables, such as
526 area (Fagan et al., 2005; Guardiola ~~and Redáct~~ al., 2013) or taxon age (Henao Diaz et al., 2019).
527 Analyzing data at different temporal scales is also imperative to detect true ecological signals
528 (Hewitt et al., 2010). We find ~~here~~ that as temporal resolution decreases (bin size increases), the
529 relative ~~explanatory power~~*importance* of both the *occupancy* and *occupancy change* variables
530 increases ~~while the relative explanatory power of the other two variables decreases (Fig Table:~~
531 24).

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Figure 4. Share of the Lindeman's relative importance

552 (1980) allocated to the occupancy change term, taken as a proportion of “total importance”.
 553 Shown for each data set at each bin size. **B.)** Standardized coefficient ratios in AIC-selected
 554 models for each bin size. Error bars represent the bootstrap-estimated standard error. Note that as
 555 bin size increases (temporal resolution decreases), the relative importance of the occupancy

556 ~~change term as well as the standardized coefficient ratio (occupancy change : standing~~
557 ~~occupancy) both increase.~~

558 This could result from there being more records in a single temporal bin as bin size
559 increases, thus ~~creating a more complete set of data in any given time bin~~ increasing statistical
560 power. ~~This may be especially true when working with fragmentary fossil data, such as that~~
561 ~~which we analyze here.~~ With larger bin sizes, it is easier to detect biological signals that may
562 otherwise be lost in the noise of fragmentary data. ~~The temporal scale by which we analyze these~~
563 ~~data can influence our understanding of extinction risk in marine microplankton.~~ We show here
564 that the seemingly-arbitrary selection of temporal bin size can have major impacts on
565 conclusions drawn about microplankton diversification, and that coarser resolutions may more
566 reliably indicate actual macroevolutionary trends.

567

568 **4.4 Calcareous vs siliceous microfossils**

569 In general, the explanatory power of each of the model terms is smaller in the siliceous
570 groups than in the calcareous groups. Although *occupancy* and *occupancy change* were found to
571 be informative across all groups, the signals are weaker in diatoms and radiolarians (Table ~~23,~~
572 Table 3). ~~As both siliceous and calcareous organisms are sensitive to nutrient limitation~~
573 ~~(Kamikuri et al., 2005; Lazarus et al., 2009; Bristow et al., 2017),~~ this discrepancy likely results
574 from minor variations in sampling, as evidenced by lower 3-timer completeness values for the
575 two siliceous groups. Furthermore, the *sampling* term was found to be significant in the three-
576 term additive model across all bin sizes for calcareous nannofossils, in two bin sizes for both
577 foraminifera and diatoms, and never for radiolarians. The greater importance of the *sampling*
578 term in the calcareous groups suggests that fossil preservation and sampling rate has a greater
579 influence on when a species disappears from the fossil record, a piece of information that is

580 ~~crucial to distinguishing “true” from “apparent” extinction. This~~ The discrepancy difference may
581 also be a result of variable taphonomic pathways between the calcareous and siliceous organisms
582 (Boltovskoy 1994). Nonetheless, both *occupancy* and *occupancy change* are important predictors
583 of extinction regardless of the group, and these findings further underscore the importance of
584 accounting for sampling when analyzing paleontological data.

585

586 **4.5 Robustness testing**

587 There is a strong correlation between the number of occupied Longhurst provinces and
588 the number of individual occupied geographic cells for each species-bin pairing. This
589 demonstrates that, although the locations of the various drilling expeditions that sourced much of
590 the data in the Neptune database are not entirely random, when taken together they still account
591 for a diverse spread of planktonic biogeographic regions around the globe. This supports the idea
592 that the collection of data contained in the Neptune database, ~~while only a snapshot of the global~~
593 ~~microplankton fossil record,~~ is comprehensive enough to study large-scale biogeographic trends.
594 Additionally, AIC-selected models contained both the *occupancy* and *occupancy change* terms
595 even when geographic range was measured as latitudinal expanse or as a proportion of occupied
596 Longhurst provinces (Tables S5 and S6). This suggests that the significance of proportional
597 occupancy change in predicting extinction is not merely an artifact of data processing.

598 The AIC-selected model for each bin size in the Triton data set ~~was either the three-term~~
599 ~~additive or multiplicative model~~ always retains both *occupancy* and *occupancy change* as
600 significant except with a bin size of 0.1 Ma (Table S9). Although the Triton dataset has
601 substantially more occurrence records after preprocessing, it has consistently lower diversity
602 compared to the other taxonomic groups from the NSB (Fig. S24). This could indicate a greater
603 propensity for “lumping” in the Triton dataset than in the NSB, which in turn could change how

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604 spatio-temporal signals manifest. The similar results obtained from the Triton dataset further
605 confirms the suitability of these methods with an alternative data set and reaffirms the
606 importance of *occupancy* and *occupancy change* when modeling extinction.

607 Taken together, our findings suggest that the change in geographic occupancy is an
608 important metric for predicting extinction across ~~the tree of~~marine life. Kiessling and Kocsis
609 (2016) looked exclusively at skeletal macroinvertebrates, whereas we here ~~we analyzed~~ several
610 protist lineages of marine plankton. The broad taxonomic scope of these findings emphasizes the
611 fundamental importance of the trajectory in geographic range as a biological metric, which can
612 be a key aspect of taxon dynamics through time. Although the explanatory power of the model
613 may seem low (up to 15.5+2.9%), it is an important factor given the many other variables that
614 influence extinction risk (McKinney 1997)

615

616 **4.6 Future Perspectives**

617 Although modern studies can track geographic occupancy change over the course of
618 decades (if there is a history of consistent data collection), estimates of marine species durations
619 average between 5-10 million years (Foote and Raup, 1996; Raup, 1991), much longer than
620 human-collected records can encompass. To fully understand the change of occupancy through a
621 species' duration, records extending beyond those which could have been manually recorded by
622 conservation biologists are needed. Although some modern conservation practitioners have been
623 hesitant to fully embrace long-term paleontological data, this study provides yet another
624 argument for the incorporation of historical perspectives and fossil evidence in conservation
625 efforts (Dietl et al., 2019; Kiessling et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2018).

626 While for simplicity's sake, this study only looked at the interaction of *occupancy* and the
627 first degree of *occupancy change* (bin number *i* to *i-1*), future iterations could incorporate entire

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628 occupancy histories into model fitting using even more advanced techniques. This may help the
629 model overcome variations in sampling intensity or localized paleoenvironmental events, and let
630 the models provide information not only on decline, but information on *continued* decline —
631 another hallmark of increased extinction risk.

632

633 5. Conclusion

634 In providing evidence that the geological history of species distributions plays a
635 significant role in species extinction risk, our study demonstrates the importance of
636 paleontological data for assessing modern species extinction risk. ~~Incorporating paleontological~~
637 ~~range data may allow for more informed decisions about how to spend limited conservation~~
638 ~~funding in the future. These findings provide empirical support for the connection between~~
639 ~~continued range reduction and ultimate global extinction in marine microplankton.~~ -We also
640 demonstrate here the importance of temporal grain in detecting biological signal in fragmentary
641 fossil data.

642

643 Data availability statement

644 All data and code is currently accessible at the reserved stable repository DOI:
645 ~~[10.5281/zenodo.15174296](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15174296)~~ ~~[10.5281/zenodo.7745607](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7745607)~~ (Smith, 20254),
646

647 Author contributions

648 WK and AK developed the conceptual framework. IS constructed the analytical pipeline and
649 carried out analyses and drafted manuscript. All authors contributed to the development of the
650 manuscript.

651

652

653 Competing interests

654 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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661 insightful comments and suggestions.
662

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