



The American Society of Naturalists

Food Web Complexity and Species Diversity

Author(s): Robert T. Paine

Source: *The American Naturalist*, Vol. 100, No. 910 (Jan. - Feb., 1966), pp. 65-75

Published by: The University of Chicago Press for The American Society of Naturalists

Stable URL: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2459379>

Accessed: 04/05/2009 08:29

Your use of the JSTOR archive indicates your acceptance of JSTOR's Terms and Conditions of Use, available at <http://www.jstor.org/page/info/about/policies/terms.jsp>. JSTOR's Terms and Conditions of Use provides, in part, that unless you have obtained prior permission, you may not download an entire issue of a journal or multiple copies of articles, and you may use content in the JSTOR archive only for your personal, non-commercial use.

Please contact the publisher regarding any further use of this work. Publisher contact information may be obtained at <http://www.jstor.org/action/showPublisher?publisherCode=ucpress>.

Each copy of any part of a JSTOR transmission must contain the same copyright notice that appears on the screen or printed page of such transmission.

JSTOR is a not-for-profit organization founded in 1995 to build trusted digital archives for scholarship. We work with the scholarly community to preserve their work and the materials they rely upon, and to build a common research platform that promotes the discovery and use of these resources. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.



The University of Chicago Press and The American Society of Naturalists are collaborating with JSTOR to digitize, preserve and extend access to *The American Naturalist*.

FOOD WEB COMPLEXITY AND SPECIES DIVERSITY

ROBERT T. PAINE

Department of Zoology, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington

Though longitudinal or latitudinal gradients in species diversity tend to be well described in a zoogeographic sense, they also are poorly understood phenomena of major ecological interest. Their importance lies in the derived implication that biological processes may be fundamentally different in the tropics, typically the pinnacle of most gradients, than in temperate or arctic regions. The various hypotheses attempting to explain gradients have recently been reviewed by Fischer (1960), Simpson (1964), and Connell and Orias (1964), the latter authors additionally proposing a model which can account for the production and regulation of diversity in ecological systems. Understanding of the phenomenon suffers from both a specific lack of synecological data applied to particular, local situations and from the difficulty of inferring the underlying mechanism(s) solely from descriptions and comparisons of faunas on a zoogeographic scale. The positions taken in this paper are that an ultimate understanding of the underlying causal processes can only be arrived at by study of local situations, for instance the promising approach of MacArthur and MacArthur (1961), and that biological interactions such as those suggested by Hutchinson (1959) appear to constitute the most logical possibilities.

The hypothesis offered herein applies to local diversity patterns of rocky intertidal marine organisms, though it conceivably has wider applications. It may be stated as: "Local species diversity is directly related to the efficiency with which predators prevent the monopolization of the major environmental requisites by one species." The potential impact of this process is firmly based in ecological theory and practice. Gause (1934), Lack (1949), and Slobodkin (1961) among others have postulated that predation (or parasitism) is capable of preventing extinctions in competitive situations, and Slobodkin (1964) has demonstrated this experimentally. In the field, predation is known to ameliorate the intensity of competition for space by barnacles (Connell, 1961b), and, in the present study, predator removal has led to local extinctions of certain benthic invertebrates and algae. In addition, as a predictable extension of the hypothesis, the proportion of predatory species is known to be relatively greater in certain diverse situations. This is true for tropical vs. temperate fish faunas (Hiatt and Strasburg, 1960; Bakus, 1964), and is seen especially clearly in the comparison of shelf water zooplankton populations (81 species, 16% of which are carnivores) with those of the presumably less productive though more stable Sargasso Sea (268 species, 39% carnivores) (Grice and Hart, 1962).

In the discussion that follows no quantitative measures of local diversity are given, though they may be approximated by the number of species represented in Figs. 1 to 3. No distinctions have been drawn between species within certain food categories. Thus I have assumed that the probability of, say, a bivalve being eaten is proportional to its abundance, and that predators exercise no preference in their choice of any "bivalve" prey. This procedure simplifies the data presentation though it dodges the problem of taxonomic complexity. Wherever possible the data are presented as both number observed being eaten and their caloric equivalent. The latter is based on prey size recorded in the field and was converted by determining the caloric content of Mukkaw Bay material of the same or equivalent species. These caloric data will be given in greater detail elsewhere. The numbers in the food webs, unfortunately, cannot be related to rates of energy flow, although when viewed as calories they undoubtedly accurately suggest which pathways are emphasized.

Dr. Rudolf Stohler kindly identified the gastropod species. A. J. Kohn, J. H. Connell, C. E. King, and E. R. Pianka have provided invaluable criticism. The University of Washington, through the offices of the Organization for Tropical Studies, financed the trip to Costa Rica. The field work in Baja California, Mexico, and at Mukkaw Bay was supported by the National Science Foundation (GB-341).

THE STRUCTURE OF SELECTED FOOD WEBS

I have claimed that one of the more recognizable and workable units within the community nexus are subwebs, groups of organisms capped by a terminal carnivore and trophically interrelated in such a way that at higher levels there is little transfer of energy to co-occurring subwebs (Paine, 1963). In the marine rocky intertidal zone both the subwebs and their top carnivores appear to be particularly distinct, at least where macroscopic species are involved; and observations in the natural setting can be made on the quantity and composition of the component species' diets. Furthermore, the rocky intertidal zone is perhaps unique in that the major limiting factor of the majority of its primary consumers is living space, which can be directly observed, as the elegant studies on interspecific competition of Connell (1961a,b) have shown. The data given below were obtained by examining individual carnivores exposed by low tide, and recording prey, predator, their respective lengths, and any other relevant properties of the interaction.

A north temperate subweb

On rocky shores of the Pacific Coast of North America the community is dominated by a remarkably constant association of mussels, barnacles, and one starfish. Fig. 1 indicates the trophic relationships of this portion of the community as observed at Mukkaw Bay, near Neah Bay, Washington (ca. 49° N latitude). The data, presented as both numbers and total calories consumed by the two carnivorous species in the subweb, *Pisaster ochraceus*,

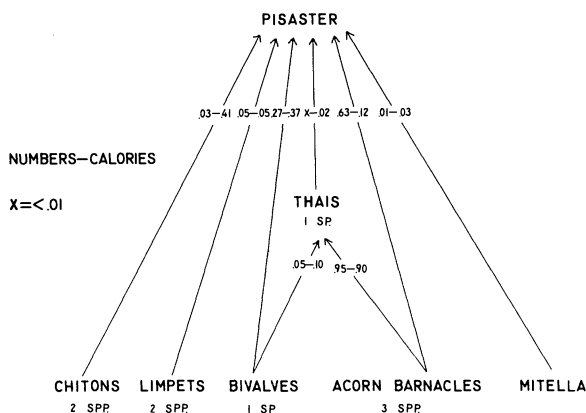


FIG. 1. The feeding relationships by numbers and calories of the *Pisaster* dominated subweb at Mukkaw Bay. *Pisaster*, N = 1049; *Thais*, N = 287. N is the number of food items observed eaten by the predators. The specific composition of each predator's diet is given as a pair of fractions; numbers on the left, calories on the right.

a starfish, and *Thais emarginata*, a small muricid gastropod, include the observational period November, 1963, to November, 1964. The composition of this subweb is limited to organisms which are normally intertidal in distribution and confined to a hard rock substrate. The diet of *Pisaster* is restricted in the sense that not all available local food types are eaten, although of six local starfish it is the most catholic in its tastes. Numerically its diet varies little from that reported by Feder (1959) for *Pisaster* observed along the central California coastline, especially since the gastropod *Tegula*, living on a softer bottom unsuitable to barnacles, has been omitted. *Thais* feeds primarily on the barnacle *Balanus glandula*, as also noted by Connell (1961b).

This food web (Fig. 1) appears to revolve on a barnacle economy with both major predators consuming them in quantity. However, note that on a nutritional (calorie) basis, barnacles are only about one-third as important to *Pisaster* as either *Mytilus californianus*, a bivalve, or the browsing chiton *Katherina tunicata*. Both these prey species dominate their respective food categories. The ratio of carnivore species to total species is 0.18. If *Tegula* and an additional bivalve are included on the basis that they are the most important sources of nourishment in adjacent areas, the ratio becomes 0.15. This number agrees closely with a ratio of 0.14 based on *Pisaster*, plus all prey species eaten more than once, in Feder's (1959) general compilation.

A subtropical subweb

In the Northern Gulf of California (ca. 31° N.) a subweb analogous to the one just described exists. Its top carnivore is a starfish (*Heliaster kubiniji*), the next two trophic levels are dominated by carnivorous gastropods, and the main prey are herbivorous gastropods, bivalves, and barnacles. I have

collected there only in March or April of 1962-1964, but on both sides of the Gulf at San Felipe, Puertecitos, and Puerta Penasco. The resultant trophic arrangements (Fig. 2), though representative of springtime conditions and indicative of a much more stratified and complex community, are basically similar to those at Mukkaw Bay. Numerically the major food item in the diets of *Heliaster* and *Muricanthus nigratus* (a muricid gastropod), the two top-ranking carnivores, is barnacles; the major portion of these predators' nutrition is derived from other members of the community, primarily herbivorous mollusks. The increased trophic complexity presents certain graphical problems. If increased trophic height is indicated by a decreasing percentage of primary consumers in a species diet, *Acanthina tuberculata* is the highest carnivore due to its specialization on *A. angelica*, although it in turn is consumed by two other species. Because of this, and ignoring the percentages, both *Heliaster* and *Muricanthus* have been placed above *A. tuberculata*. Two species, *Hexaplex* and *Muricanthus* eventually become too large to be eaten by *Heliaster*, and thus through growth join it as top predators in the system. The taxonomically-difficult gastropod family Columbelloidae, including both herbivorous and carnivorous species (Marcus and Marcus, 1962) have been placed in an intermediate position.

The Gulf of California situation is interesting on a number of counts. A new trophic level which has no counterpart at Mukkaw Bay is apparent, interposed between the top carnivore and the primary carnivore level. If higher level predation contributes materially to the maintenance of diversity, these species will have an effect on the community composition out of proportion to their abundance. In one of these species, *Muricanthus*,

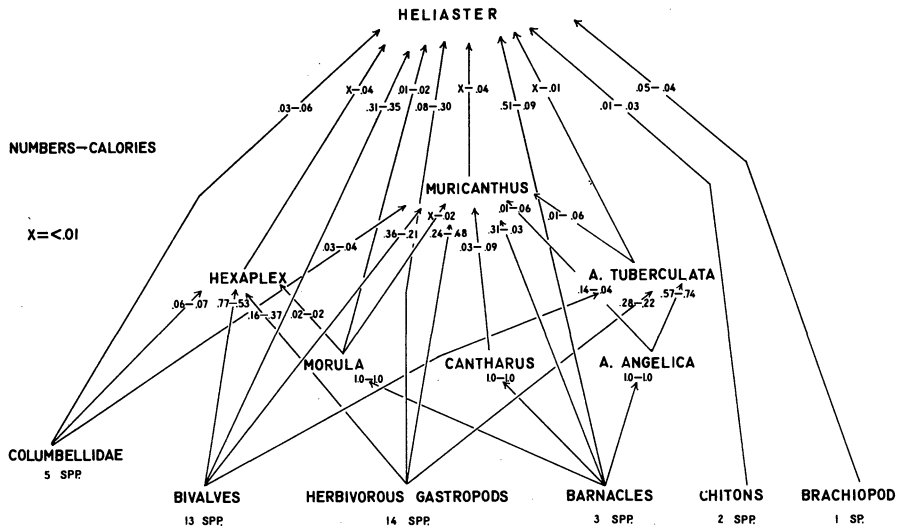


FIG. 2. The feeding relationships by numbers and calories of the *Heliaster* dominated subweb in the northern Gulf of California. *Heliaster*, N = 2245; *Muricanthus*, N = 113; *Hexaplex*, N = 62; *A. tuberculata*, N = 14; *A. angelica*, N = 432; *Morula*, N = 39; *Cantharus*, N = 8.

the larger members belong to a higher level than immature specimens (Paine, unpublished), a process tending to blur the food web but also potentially increasing diversity (Hutchinson, 1959). Finally, if predation operates to reduce competitive stresses, evidence for this reduction can be drawn by comparing the extent of niche diversification as a function of trophic level in a typical Eltonian pyramid. *Heliaster* consumes all other members of this subweb, and as such appears to have no major competitors of comparable status. The three large gastropods forming the subterminal level all may be distinguished by their major sources of nutrition: *Hexaplex*—bivalves (53%), *Muricanthus*—herbivorous gastropods (48%), and *A. tuberculata*—carnivorous gastropods (74%). No such obvious distinction characterizes the next level composed of three barnacle-feeding specialists which additionally share their resource with *Muricanthus* and *Heliaster*. Whether these species are more specialized (Klopfer and MacArthur, 1960) or whether they tolerate greater niche overlap (Klopfer and MacArthur, 1961) cannot be stated. The extent of niche diversification is subtle and trophic overlap is extensive.

The ratio of carnivore species to total species in Fig. 2 is 0.24 when the category Columbellidae is considered to be principally composed of one herbivorous (*Columbella*) and four carnivorous (*Pyrene*, *Anachis*, *Mitella*) species, based on the work of Marcus and Marcus (1962).

A tropical subweb

Results of five days of observation near Mate de Limon in the Golfo de Nocoia on the Pacific shore of Costa Rica (approx. 10° N.) are presented in Fig. 3. No secondary carnivore was present; rather the environmental resources were shared by two small muricid gastropods, *Acanthina brevidentata* and *Thais biserialis*. The fauna of this local area was relatively simple and completely dominated by a small mytilid and barnacles. The co-occupiers of the top level show relatively little trophic overlap despite the broad nutritional base of *Thais* which includes carrion and cannibalism. The relatively low number of feeding observations (187) precludes an accurate appraisal of the carnivore species to total web membership ratio.

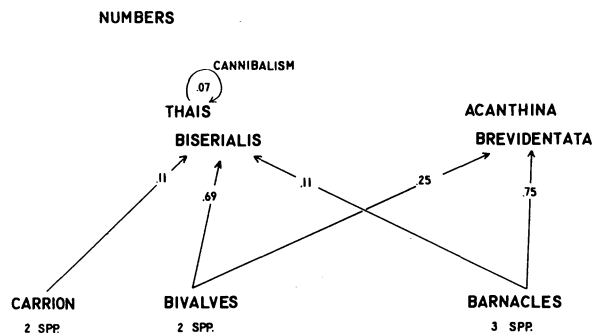


FIG. 3. The feeding relationship by numbers of a comparable food web in Costa Rica. *Thais*, $N = 99$; *Acanthina*, $N = 80$.

CHANGES RESULTING FROM THE REMOVAL OF THE TOP CARNIVORE

Since June, 1963, a "typical" piece of shoreline at Mukkaw Bay about eight meters long and two meters in vertical extent has been kept free of *Pisaster*. An adjacent control area has been allowed to pursue its natural course of events. Line transects across both areas have been taken irregularly and the number and density of resident macroinvertebrate and benthic algal species measured. The appearance of the control area has not altered. Adult *Mytilus californianus*, *Balanus cariosus*, and *Mitella polymerus* (a goose-necked barnacle) form a conspicuous band in the middle intertidal. The relatively stable position of the band is maintained by *Pisaster* predation (Paris, 1960; Paine, unpublished). At lower tidal levels the diversity increases abruptly and the macrofauna includes immature individuals of the above, *B. glandula* as scattered clumps, a few anemones of one species, two chiton species (browsers), two abundant limpets (browsers), four macroscopic benthic algae (*Porphyra*-an epiphyte, *Endocladia*, *Rhodomela*, and *Corallina*), and the sponge *Haliclona*, often browsed upon by *Anisodoris*, a nudibranch.

Following the removal of *Pisaster*, *B. glandula* set successfully throughout much of the area and by September had occupied from 60 to 80% of the available space. By the following June the *Balanus* themselves were being crowded out by small, rapidly growing *Mytilus* and *Mitella*. This process of successive replacement by more efficient occupiers of space is continuing, and eventually the experimental area will be dominated by *Mytilus*, its epifauna, and scattered clumps of adult *Mitella*. The benthic algae either have or are in the process of disappearing with the exception of the epiphyte, due to lack of appropriate space; the chitons and larger limpets have also emigrated, due to the absence of space and lack of appropriate food.

Despite the likelihood that many of these organisms are extremely long-lived and that these events have not reached an equilibrium, certain statements can be made. The removal of *Pisaster* has resulted in a pronounced decrease in diversity, as measured simply by counting species inhabiting this area, whether consumed by *Pisaster* or not, from a 15 to an eight-species system. The standing crop has been increased by this removal, and should continue to increase until the *Mytilus* achieve their maximum size. In general the area has become trophically simpler. With *Pisaster* artificially removed, the sponge-nudibranch food chain has been displaced, and the anemone population reduced in density. Neither of these carnivores nor the sponge is eaten by *Pisaster*, indicating that the number of food chains initiated on this limited space is strongly influenced by *Pisaster*, but by an indirect process. In contrast to Margalef's (1958) generalization about the tendency, with higher successional status towards "an ecosystem of more complex structure," these removal experiments demonstrate the opposite trend: in the absence of a complicating factor (predation), there is a "winner" in the competition for space, and the local system tends toward simplicity. Predation by this interpretation interrupts the successional process and, on a local basis, tends to increase local diversity.

No data are available on the microfaunal changes accompanying the gradual alteration of the substrate from a patchy algal mat to one comprised of the byssal threads of *Mytilus*.

INTERPRETATION

The differences in relative diversity of the subwebs diagrammed in Figs. 1-3 may be represented as Baja California (45 spp.) >> Mukkaw Bay (11 spp.) > Costa Rica (8 sp.), the number indicating the actual membership of the subwebs and not the number of local species. All three areas are characterized by systems in which one or two species are capable of monopolizing much of the space, a circumstance realized in nature only in Costa Rica. In the other two areas a top predator that derives its nourishment from other sources feeds in such a fashion that no space-consuming monopolies are formed. *Pisaster* and *Heliaster* eat masses of barnacles, and in so doing enhance the ability of other species to inhabit the area by keeping space open. When the top predator is artificially removed or naturally absent (i.e., predator removal area and Costa Rica, respectively), the systems converge toward simplicity. When space is available, other organisms settle or move in, and these, for instance chitons at Mukkaw Bay and herbivorous gastropods and pelecypods in Baja California, form the major portions of the predator's nutrition. Furthermore, *in situ* primary production is enhanced by the provision of space. This event makes the grazing moiety less dependent on the vagaries of phytoplankton production or distribution and lends stability to the association.

At the local level it appears that carnivorous gastropods which can penetrate only one barnacle at a time, although they might consume a few more per tidal interval, do not have the same effect as a starfish removing 20 to 60 barnacles simultaneously. Little compensation seems to be gained from snail density increases because snails do not clear large patches of space, and because the "husks" of barnacles remain after the animal portion has been consumed. In the predator removal area at Mukkaw Bay, the density of *Thais* increased 10- to 20-fold, with no apparent effect on diversity although the rate of *Mytilus* domination of the area was undoubtedly slowed. Clusters (density of 75-125/m²) of *Thais* and *Acanthina* characterize certain rocks in Costa Rica, and diversity is still low. And, as a generality, wherever acorn barnacles or other space-utilizing forms potentially dominate the shore, diversity is reduced unless some predator can prevent the space monopoly. This occurs in Washington State where the shoreline, in the absence of *Pisaster*, is dominated by barnacles, a few mussels, and often two species of *Thais*. The same monopolistic tendencies characterize Connell's (1961a,b) study area in Scotland, the rocky intertidal of northern Japan (Hoshiai, 1960, 1961), and shell bags suitable for sponge settlement in North Carolina (Wells, Wells, and Gray, 1964).

Local diversity on intertidal rocky bottoms, then, appears directly related to predation intensity, though other potential factors are mentioned below. If one accepts the generalizations of Hedgpeth (1957) and Hall

(1964) that ambient temperature is the single most important factor influencing distribution or reproduction of marine invertebrates, then the potential role of climatic stability as measured by seasonal variations in water temperature can be examined. At Neah Bay the maximum range of annual values are 5.9 to 13.3 C (Rigg and Miller, 1949); in the northern Gulf of California, Roden and Groves (1959) recorded an annual range of 14.9 to 31.2 C; and in Costa Rica the maximum annual range is 26.1 to 31.7 C (Anon., 1952). Clearly the greatest benthic diversity, and one claimed by Parker (1963) on a regional basis to be among the most diverse known, is associated with the most variable (least stable) temperature regimen. Another influence on diversity could be exercised by environmental heterogeneity (Hutchinson, 1959). Subjectively, it appeared that both the Mukkaw Bay and Costa Rica stations were topographically more distorted than the northern Gulf localities. In any event, no topographic features were evident that could correlate with the pronounced differences in faunal diversity. Finally, Connell and Orias (1964) have developed a model for the organic enrichment of regions that depends to a great extent on the absolute amount of primary production and/or nutrient import, and hence energy flowing through the community web. Unfortunately, no productivity data are available for the two southern communities, and comparisons cannot yet be made.

PREDATION AND DIVERSITY GRADIENTS

To examine predation as a diversity-causing mechanism correlated with latitude, we must know why one environment contains higher order carnivores and why these are absent from others. These negative situations can be laid to three possibilities: (1) that through historical accident no higher carnivores have evolved in the region; (2) that the sample area cannot be occupied due to a particular combination of *local* hostile physiological effects; (3) that the system cannot support carnivores because the rate of energy transfer to a higher level is insufficient to sustain that higher level. The first possibility is unapproachable, the second will not apply on a geographic scale, and thus only the last would seem to have reality. Connell and Orias (1964) have based their hypothesis of the establishment and maintenance of diversity on varying rates of energy transfer, which are determined by various limiting factors and environmental stability. Without disagreeing with their model, two aspects of primary production deserve further consideration. The animal diversity of a given system will probably be higher if the production is apportioned more uniformly throughout the year rather than occurring as a single major bloom, because tendencies towards competitive displacement can be ameliorated by specialization on varying proportions of the resources (MacArthur and Levins, 1964). Both the predictability of production on a sustained annual basis and the causation of resource heterogeneity by predation will facilitate this mechanism. Thus, per production unit, greater stability of production should be correlated with greater diversity, other things being equal.

The realization of this potential, however, depends on more than simply the annual stability of carbon fixation. Rate of production and subsequent transfer to higher levels must also be important. Thus trophic structure of a community depends in part on the physical extent of the area (Darlington, 1957), or, in computer simulation models, on the amount of protoplasm in the system (Garfinkel and Sack, 1964). On the other hand, enriched aquatic environments often are characterized by decreased diversity. Williams (1964) has found that regions of high productivity are dominated by few diatom species. Less productive areas tended to have more species of equivalent rank, and hence a greater diversity. Obviously, the gross amount of energy fixed by itself is incapable of explaining diversity; and extrinsic factors probably are involved.

Given sufficient evolutionary time for increases in faunal complexity to occur, two independent mechanisms should work in a complementary fashion. When predation is capable of preventing resource monopolies, diversity should increase by positive feedback processes until some limit is reached. The argument of Fryer (1965) that predation facilitates speciation is germane here. The upper limit to local diversity, or, in the present context, the maximum number of species in a given subweb, is probably set by the combined stability and rate of primary production, which thus influences the number and variety of non-primary consumers in the subweb. Two aspects of predation must be evaluated before a generalized hypothesis based on predation effects can contribute to an understanding of differences in diversity between *any* comparable regions or faunistic groups. We must know if resource monopolies are actually less frequent in the diverse area than in comparable systems elsewhere, and, if so, why this is so. And we must learn something about the multiplicity of energy pathways in diverse systems, since predation-induced diversity could arise either from the presence of a variety of subwebs of equivalent rank, or from domination by one major one. The predation hypothesis readily predicts the apparent absence of monopolies in tropical (diverse) areas, a situation classically represented as "many species of reduced individual abundance." It also is in accord with the disproportionate increase in the number of carnivorous species that seems to accompany regional increases in animal diversity. In the present case in the two adequately sampled, structurally analogous, subwebs, general membership increases from 13 at Mukkaw Bay to 45 in the Gulf of California, a factor of 3.5, whereas the carnivore species increased from 2 to 11, a factor of 5.5.

SUMMARY

It is suggested that local animal species diversity is related to the number of predators in the system and their efficiency in preventing single species from monopolizing some important, limiting, requisite. In the marine rocky intertidal this requisite usually is space. Where predators capable of preventing monopolies are missing, or are experimentally removed, the systems become less diverse. On a local scale, no relationship between lati-

tude (10° to 49° N.) and diversity was found. On a geographic scale, an increased stability of annual production may lead to an increased capacity for systems to support higher-level carnivores. Hence tropical, or other, ecosystems are more diverse, and are characterized by disproportionately more carnivores.

LITERATURE CITED

- Anon. 1952. Surface water temperatures at tide stations. Pacific coast North and South America. Spec. Pub. No. 280: p. 1-59. U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.
- Bakus, G. J. 1964. The effects of fish-grazing on invertebrate evolution in shallow tropical waters. Allan Hancock Found. Pub. 27: 1-29.
- Connell, J. H. 1961a. Effect of competition, predation by *Thais lapillus*, and other factors on natural populations of the barnacle *Balanus balanoides*. Ecol. Monogr. 31: 61-104.
- . 1961b. The influence of interspecific competition and other factors on the distribution of the barnacle *Chthamalus stellatus*. Ecology 42: 710-723.
- Connell, J. H., and E. Orias. 1964. The ecological regulation of species diversity. Amer. Natur. 98: 399-414.
- Darlington, P. J. 1957. Zoogeography. Wiley, New York.
- Feder, H. M. 1959. The food of the starfish, *Pisaster ochraceus*, along the California coast. Ecology 40: 721-724.
- Fischer, A. G. 1960. Latitudinal variations in organic diversity. Evolution 14: 64-81.
- Fryer, G. 1965. Predation and its effects on migration and speciation in African fishes: a comment. Proc. Zool. Soc. London 144: 301-310.
- Garfinkél, D., and R. Sack. 1964. Digital computer simulation of an ecological system, based on a modified mass action law. Ecology 45: 502-507.
- Gause, G. F. 1934. The struggle for existence. Williams and Wilkins Co., Baltimore.
- Grice, G. D., and A. D. Hart. 1962. The abundance, seasonal occurrence, and distribution of the epizooplankton between New York and Bermuda. Ecol. Monogr. 32: 287-309.
- Hall, C. A., Jr. 1964. Shallow-water marine climates and molluscan provinces. Ecology 45: 226-234.
- Hedgpeth, J. W. 1957. Marine biogeography. Geol. Soc. Amer. Mem. 67, 1: 359-382.
- Hiatt, R. W., and D. W. Strasburg. 1960. Ecological relationships of the fish fauna on coral reefs of the Marshall Islands. Ecol. Monogr. 30: 65-127.
- Hoshiai, T. 1960. Synecological study on intertidal communities III. An analysis of interrelation among sedentary organisms on the artificially denuded rock surface. Bull. Marine Biol. Sta. Asamushi. 10: 49-56.
- . 1961. Synecological study on intertidal communities. IV. An ecological investigation on the zonation in Matsushima Bay concerning the so-called covering phenomenon. Bull. Marine Biol. Sta. Asamushi. 10: 203-211.

- Hutchinson, G. E. 1959. Homage to Santa Rosalia or why are there so many kinds of animals? *Amer. Natur.* 93: 145-159.
- Klopfer, P. H., and R. H. MacArthur. 1960. Niche size and faunal diversity. *Amer. Natur.* 94: 293-300.
- . 1961. On the causes of tropical species diversity: niche overlap. *Amer. Natur.* 95: 223-226.
- Lack, D. 1949. The significance of ecological isolation, p. 299-308. *In* G. L. Jepsen, G. G. Simpson, and E. Mayr [eds.], *Genetics, paleontology and evolution*. Princeton Univ. Press, Princeton.
- MacArthur, R., and R. Levins. 1964. Competition, habitat selection, and character displacement in a patchy environment. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci.* 51: 1207-1210.
- MacArthur, R. H., and J. W. MacArthur. 1961. On bird species diversity. *Ecology* 42: 594-598.
- Marcus, E., and E. Marcus. 1962. Studies on Columbellidae. *Bol. Fac. Cienc. Letr. Univ. Sao Paulo* 261: 335-402.
- Margalef, R. 1958. Mode of evolution of species in relation to their place in ecological succession. XVth Int. Congr. Zool. Sect. 10, paper 17.
- Paine, R. T. 1963. Trophic relationships of 8 sympatric predatory gastropods. *Ecology* 44: 63-73.
- Paris, O. H. 1960. Some quantitative aspects of predation by muricid snails on mussels in Washington Sound. *Veliger* 2: 41-47.
- Parker, R. H. 1963. Zoogeography and ecology of some macro-invertebrates, particularly mollusca in the Gulf of California and the continental slope off Mexico. *Vidensk. Medd. Dansk. Natur. Foren., Copenh.* 126: 1-178.
- Rigg, G. B., and R. C. Miller. 1949. Intertidal plant and animal zonation in the vicinity of Neah Bay, Washington. *Proc. Calif. Acad. Sci.* 26: 323-351.
- Roden, G. I., and G. W. Groves. 1959. Recent oceanographic investigations in the Gulf of California. *J. Marine Res.* 18: 10-35.
- Simpson, G. G. 1964. Species density of North American recent mammals. *Syst. Zool.* 13: 57-73.
- Slobodkin, L. B. 1961. *Growth and regulation of Animal Populations*. Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, New York.
- . 1964. Ecological populations of Hydrida. *J. Anim. Ecol.* 33 (Suppl.): 131-148.
- Wells, H. W., M. J. Wells, and I. E. Gray. 1964. Ecology of sponges in Hatteras Harbor, North Carolina. *Ecology* 45: 752-767.
- Williams, L. G. 1964. Possible relationships between plankton-diatom species numbers and water-quality estimates. *Ecology* 45: 809-823.