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Title: Do joint species distribution models reliably detect interspecific interactions from co-occurrence data in homogenous environments?

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Abstract:

Whether species interactions influence species response to environment and species ranges has always been a central question in Ecology. Joint species distribution models (JSDMs) simultaneously model the species-environment relationships of multiple species and the residual correlation between these species. These residual correlations are assumed to depict whether species co-occur less or more often than expected by the modelled species-environment relationships, which could ultimately be attributed to species interactions, or hidden environmental information. Here, we propose to specifically test the capacity of JSDMs to detect species interactions, at different aggregation scales of data. Using a recently published point-process model, we simulated equilibrium co-occurrence patterns of species pairs by varying the strength and type of interactions (e.g. competition, predator-prey, mutualism) as well as the prevalence of the interacting species in homogeneous environments (assuming the environment does not influence the species responses and co-occurrence). Then, we fitted JSDMs without environmental predictors, and compared the estimated residual correlations against the known interaction coefficients. JSDMs detected competition and mutualism well, but failed with predator-prey interactions. For the latter, JSDMs predicted both negative and positive residual correlations for these kinds of interactions, depending on the prevalence of the interacting species. Interestingly, the degree of residual correlation estimated by JSDMs was strongly influenced by species' prevalence and can thus not be translated to interaction strength. At increasingly coarser data resolution, the signals of negative and positive interactions became indiscernible by JSDMs, but – reassuringly – were rarely confounded. Our simple theoretical exercise demonstrates that when species are modelled at the scale at which

41 species interactions occur, JSDBs are able to depict symmetric interactions (+/+, -/-) but
42 fail for asymmetric interactions between trophic levels. However, when JSDBs are
43 applied at coarse resolutions, they are unlikely to give insights on the underlying biotic
44 interaction mechanisms.

45

46

47 **Introduction**

48 Determining the factors that influence species' ranges is a prerequisite for deriving
49 reliable biodiversity scenarios (Urban, et al. 2016). The importance of abiotic factors has
50 long been recognized (Chase and Leibold 2003, Pulliam 2000, Soberón and Nakamura
51 2009), and correlative species distribution models (SDMs) that relate species'
52 occurrence to prevailing environmental factors have become the most widely used tools
53 in biogeography (Elith and Leathwick 2009, Guisan and Thuiller 2005, Guisan and
54 Zimmermann 2000). However, it is now generally accepted that interspecific
55 interactions likely influence species' distributions at larger spatial and temporal scales
56 than previously thought (Blois, et al. 2013, Svenning, et al. 2014). Ignoring these
57 interactions could thus hamper the ability of SDMs to predict current and future species
58 ranges and communities (Leathwick and Austin 2001, Meier, et al. 2010, Zurell, et al.
59 2016a). Hence, over the last couple of years, several approaches have been discussed or
60 proposed to incorporate interspecific interactions between multiple species into
61 distribution models (Kissling, et al. 2012, Pellissier, et al. 2013, Thuiller, et al. 2013,
62 Wisz, et al. 2013).

63 Aided by computational advances, methods have been introduced that combine species
64 distribution modelling with co-occurrence analyses that originate from community
65 ecology (Ovaskainen, et al. 2017). These joint species distribution models (JSDMs)
66 decompose species co-occurrence patterns into shared environmental responses and
67 residual correlation (Clark, et al. 2014, Hui 2016, Ovaskainen, et al. 2010, Ovaskainen, et
68 al. 2016, Pollock, et al. 2014, Warton, et al. 2015). The latter correlation relates to the

patterns of co-occurrence that are unexplained by the environmental information given to the model. The temptation is then to attribute this residual correlation to biotic interactions, such as competition and facilitation. Although this residual correlation can reflect intuitive ecological (Latimer, et al. 2009, Ovaskainen, et al. 2010) or evolutionary processes (Pollock, et al. 2015), there could also be many non-biological explanations such as missing environmental variables or poor model fit. Theoretically, JSDBs should predict positive residual correlation between a pair of species if these co-occur more often than expected given the environment (or by chance in a homogenous environment) and predict negative residual correlation when the species co-occur less often than expected given the environment (or by chance in a homogenous environment). However, to date, no study exists that explicitly tests JSDB's ability to identify the signal and the strength of species interactions and the effects of complicating factors such as species' prevalence and spatial scale. Also, the limits of JSDBs to detect asymmetric (positive-negative) interactions such as predator-prey relationships have not been tested. For example, a recent study by Araújo and Rozenfeld (2014) showed that range overlaps of species pairs resulting from predator-prey relationships could resemble both co-occurrence patterns of competition (-/-) and mutualism (+/+). The authors also showed that at increasingly coarser resolution, the signal of negative interactions gets lost earlier than the signal of positive interactions. Here, we build on the point-process model of Araújo and Rozenfeld (2014), and estimate JSDBs from the co-occurrence patterns resulting from different types of interspecific interactions (-/-, +/-, +/+) in homogeneous environments and from different species' prevalence levels. That way no other reason like history or missing environmental variables could explain the residual patterns. With that, we aim to answer the questions

of whether JSDBs can detect different interspecific interactions ranging from negative to positive, how JSDBs cope with positive-negative interactions such as predator-prey relationships, and how the ability to detect interactions is influenced by the resolution of the data used for modelling (i.e. scale-dependence).

Methods

Simulating co-occurrence patterns

We used the point-process model developed by Araújo and Rozenfeld (2014) to simulate co-occurrence of species at steady state across all possible interaction types (+/+, +/-, -/-, +/-, -/0, -/0) and all possible combinations of interaction strengths ($0 \leq |I_x| \leq 1$). If there is no interaction between species, then the expected probability of co-occurrence $P(A$ and $B)$ of a species pair is simply given by the product of their prevalence $P(A) \times P(B)$. This corresponds to the null expectation of co-occurrence. With interspecific interaction present, the probability of co-occurrence is a function of species' prevalence and the strength of their interaction, which could be repulsive or attractive. Mutualistic interactions (+/+) will cause the species to co-occur more often than expected under the null model, whereas competitive interactions (-/-) will cause them to co-occur less often than expected. In case of predator-prey relationships (+/-), both positive and negative interactions will cause deviation from the null model. Whether this results in higher or lower co-occurrence than expected by the null model, depends on both the relative strength of positive and negative interactions and on the prevalence of the species. For a more detailed description of the model formulation, please see Araújo and Rozenfeld (2014). For simplicity, the environment is assumed homogenous and does not influence species' ranges and prevalence.

Here, we simulated co-occurrence patterns of two species A and B in homogeneous environments of 100x100 cells for all combinations of potential interactions. Species' occurrence in space was random without any spatial autocorrelation. Araújo and Rozenfeld (2014) showed that the co-occurrence patterns and their scale dependence were comparable between spatially correlated and spatially uncorrelated landscapes. We varied the interaction coefficients I from -1 to 1 in 0.1 increments. This resulted in 441 simulations per prevalence level. As an extension to previous results (Araújo and Rozenfeld 2014), we systematically varied prevalence levels. Specifically, in the first set of five scenarios, species A and B had equal prevalence of varying magnitude [0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5]. In a second set of two scenarios, species A and B had unequal prevalence [A=0.1 and B=0.5; A=0.2 and B=0.4].

To test for scale dependence in co-occurrence patterns and in the estimation of JSDBMs, we aggregated the original landscape grid to two increasingly coarser resolutions by aggregating 2x2 cells and 4x4 cells, respectively. In these cases, species interactions still happen at the initial resolutions, but JSDBMs are fitted at coarser resolution mimicking large scale and coarse resolution data such as atlas data (Gotelli, et al. 2010, Zurell, et al. 2016b), or continental and global datasets (Jetz, et al. 2012, McGill 2010).

All simulations were carried out in R (R Core Team 2015), and the code is provided in the Supplementary Material Appendix 1.

Estimating joint species distribution models

The spatial distributions of species A and B as simulated by the point-process model over the full biotic interaction space served as input for JSDBMs. We fitted JSDBMs using the code provided by Pollock, et al. (2014). These jointly estimate the occurrence

probability of multiple species with a hierarchical multivariate probit regression, and the residual correlation between those species' presences by means of an unstructured covariance matrix. As we were mainly interested in the ability of JSDBMs to detect underlying interactions, we assumed homogeneous environments and fitted the environmental response with an intercept only model that controls for prevalence. The JSDBMs were run with JAGS from within R (R Core Team 2015) with 3 chains. As the simulated data were very simple and without noise, for most combinations of interaction strengths ($-1 < I < +1$) a comparably low number of 10000 iterations with a burn-in of 5000 and a thinning rate of 20, were sufficient for reaching convergence with \hat{r} values below 1.1 for all parameters. For extreme interactions strengths (with an interaction coefficient I of -1 or +1), convergence was not achieved under 10000 iterations and we subsequently tested stability of parameters values for increasing numbers of iterations. The residual correlation between species' presences was given by the mean of the posterior distribution and was judged as significant when the range between the 5% and 95% posterior quantiles did not include zero.

Results

Different prevalence levels produced different co-occurrence patterns across the biotic interaction space (Fig. 1a-f). The co-occurrence index was defined as the number of cells where both species occur together divided by the total number of occupied cells. The null probability of co-occurrence $P(A \text{ and } B)$ is given by the product of species' prevalence $P(A) \times P(B)$, and thus the co-occurrence value corresponding to the null expectation is given by $(P(A) \times P(B)) / ((P(A) + P(B) - P(A) \times P(B)))$ where the dividend is the proportion of cells occupied by both species together and the divisor is the overall proportion of occupied cells. Hence, the exact co-occurrence value corresponding to the

null expectation, where both species co-occur simply by chance, varied with prevalence (Fig. 1a-f). Co-occurrence was always lower than the null expectation for competitive interactions (-/-) and for amensalism (-/0) and always higher than the null expectation for mutualism (+/+) and commensalism (+/0). However, the exact asymmetric interaction coefficients (+/-), at which co-occurrence was not different from the null expectation, strongly depended on prevalence (of the more common species of the species pair). When prevalence was low in both species, then co-occurrence was higher than the null expectation for most combinations of positive-negative (+/-) interactions (Fig. 1b), while co-occurrence was mostly lower than the null expectation if at least one species in the predator-prey relationship was more common (Fig. 1f; Supplementary material Appendix 1, Fig. A1).

JSDMs correctly assigned negative residual correlations to competitive interactions, and correctly assigned positive residual correlations to mutualistic interactions. Specifically, the null expectation of co-occurrence determined the residual correlation estimated by JSDMs. Negative residual correlations were estimated when species co-occurred less often than the null expectation (meaning the co-occurrence value corresponding to the case when both species co-occur only by chance), and positive residual correlations when the species co-occurred more often than the null expectation. However, the magnitude of residual correlations varied across scenarios with different prevalence of the interacting species (Fig. 1g-k). For example, for two species A and B with an intermediate and symmetric negative interaction ($I_A = I_B = -0.5$), JSDMs estimated a residual correlation of approx. -0.19 if both species had a prevalence of 0.1, and a residual correlation of approx. -0.71 if both species had a prevalence of 0.5. These results were robust, as we obtained convergence with \hat{r} values below 1.1 for most

combinations of interaction strengths except for the extreme interaction coefficients of $|I|=1.0$ (Fig. A2). For these extreme cases, convergence was achieved for larger numbers of iterations, whereby the model parameters were stable across different numbers of iterations (Fig. A3). Also, prevalence levels were correctly predicted in all cases.

JSDMs were not able to separate predator-prey relationships from competitive or mutualistic interactions, and assigned both negative and positive residual correlations to such asymmetric (+/-) interactions (Fig. 1). Here, residual correlations from JSDMs exhibited the same sensitivity to prevalence as co-occurrence patterns, meaning that the exact asymmetric interactions coefficients (+/-) that divided positive from negative residual correlations estimated by JSDMs depended on prevalence (Fig. 1g-k; Fig. A1).

Last, JSDMs had difficulties at depicting the underlying co-variation between species at increasingly coarser resolution of the data (Fig. 2a-f). As shown by Araújo and Rozenfeld (2014), co-occurrence patterns were scale-dependent and especially negative interactions became indiscernible at increasingly coarser resolution of the data. This scale dependency of co-occurrence patterns led to more insignificant residual correlation estimates in JSDMs (meaning that the parameters credible interval between the 5% and 95% quantiles of the posterior distribution included zero; Fig. 2 g-j).

Generally, chains mixed well and parameter convergence was well achieved. Thereby, more prevalent species were more sensitive to scaling (Fig. 3, Fig. A4-A10).

Furthermore, for competitive interactions, increasingly coarser resolution of the data led to lower estimates of absolute residual correlation than at the original resolution (where the interaction takes place) while this effect of smaller estimates was much less pronounced for facilitative interactions (Figs. 2-3). For intermediate prevalence levels, negative and positive correlations between species only rarely got confounded (Fig. 2j).

However, for rare species, the probability of confounding negative and positive residual correlations seemed to increase at increasingly coarser resolution of the data (Fig. 3a-b).

Discussion

In this paper, we propose to systematically test the capacity of JSDBMs to retrieve species interactions from co-occurrence patterns in the case of simple bi-partite interactions within a homogenous environment, and test whether this capacity was influenced by the resolution at which species were modelled. The key results are that (i) JSDBMs reliably predict negative residual correlations for competitive interactions and positive residual correlations for mutualistic interactions. However, the magnitude of residual correlation does not directly relate to interaction strength because it is mostly driven by species prevalence. (ii) Positive-negative interactions such as predator-prey relationships can be problematic for model interpretation because JSDBMs cannot disentangle these from competitive and mutualistic interactions. (iii) At increasingly coarser spatial resolution of the data, both the signals of negative and positive interactions become indiscernible by JSDBMs, but reassuringly the signals rarely were confounded. Overall, our results have important implications for the interpretation of JSDBMs, and pinpoint important aspects that will need further model development. At the same time, we want to stress that these results were obtained under idealized conditions, and real-world applications will be complicated by even more factors. If JSDBMs fail to detect interspecific interactions in very simple cases such as the one used here, there is no reason why they should work better at detecting interactions (occurring within local communities) in more complex real world applications.

233 First, we tested JSDBMs' ability to detect negative and positive interactions from co-
234 occurrence data. And indeed, JSDBMs reliably detected competitive and mutualistic
235 interactions in our simulated data, which is promising. However, interpretation of model
236 residuals as interaction coefficients proved non-trivial. Importantly, prevalence strongly
237 affected the magnitude of residual correlations estimated by JSDBMs. This implies that
238 residual correlations from JSDBMs do not directly relate to nor can be interpreted as
239 interaction strength, and also they cannot be compared across different species (with
240 different prevalence levels). In real-world applications, this may be further confounded
241 by the species' environmental response, detection bias, and by (direct and indirect)
242 interactions between multiple species, which should be further tested.

243 Second, we asked whether JSDBMs could distinguish competitive and mutualistic
244 interactions from asymmetric interactions such as predator-prey relationships, which is
245 important when dealing with taxa from multiple trophic levels. As shown previously by
246 Araújo and Rozenfeld (2014), asymmetric positive-negative interactions can result in
247 co-occurrence patterns that could be either higher or lower than expected by chance.
248 Here, we showed that this also depends on interaction strength between species A and B
249 and their prevalence. Specifically, predator-prey relationships are more likely to
250 produce positive residual correlations when prevalence of both species is low. By
251 contrast, when prevalence of at least one species is high, then predator-prey
252 relationships are more like to produce negative residual correlations in JSDBMs. As a
253 consequence, JSDBMs are not able to tease apart predator-prey relationships from
254 competitive or mutualistic interactions, which has been discussed previously but never
255 been shown explicitly (Morales-Castilla, et al. 2015, Warton, et al. 2015). These results
256 suggest that a useful next step would be to incorporate directional conditionality into

future joint species distribution modelling, extending their capacity beyond pairwise symmetric correlations (Hui 2016, Pollock, et al. 2014, Warton, et al. 2015). Recent examples are beginning to consider asymmetric and more complex interactions for small datasets (e.g. Harris 2016, with up to 20 species). These advances would be extremely useful not only for distinguishing predator-prey relationships but also for detecting asymmetric interaction strengths between competing or facilitating species (Harris 2016, Kissling, et al. 2012). Still, it remains to be tested in how far co-occurrence data will allow estimation of asymmetric residual correlation or under which circumstances co-abundance data will be needed (Cazelles, et al. 2015). Incorporating trait information could also help to distinguish competitive and mutualistic interactions from predator-prey relationships, for example by simple plausibility checks (Morales-Castilla, et al. 2015).

Last, we tested for scale dependence of JSDM estimates by analysing the co-occurrence data at increasingly coarse resolution while the interactions took place at the original, fine spatial resolution. We found that with increasingly coarser resolution, both the signals of positive and negative interactions became indiscernible by JSDMs, whereby the signal of negative interactions was more sensitive to scale. This is in line with previous findings that co-occurrence patterns are highly scale-dependent (Araújo and Rozenfeld 2014) and also that the effects of local interspecific interactions vanish at coarser spatial scales (Thuiller, et al. 2015). Thus, JSDMs are unlikely to give any insight on the potential interactions between species if the scale of the data does not match the process scale. At best, they might give better and more reliable models and the residual correlation might shed light on missing environmental variables and historical factors. Also, the species lists from monitoring schemes or atlas data are often at comparably

coarse resolution, for example for many animals, such that the signal of interspecific interactions and sub-scale environmental heterogeneity can get easily confounded (Zurell, et al. 2016b). When we apply JSDBs to vegetation plots, the analysis of the residual correlation in respect to interspecific interactions might thus be more meaningful since the interactions between species, for instance for light competition, might here be at the right scale (e.g. a 10x10m plot). Empirical analyses testing whether the residual correlations from JSDBs are related to known interactions between species might thus be of particular interest. Furthermore, our results showed that less prevalent species are less sensitive to mismatches between process scale and data scale. At the same time, at increasingly coarse resolution negative and positive interactions were confounded easier. Thus, we recommend interpreting JSDBs cautiously when modelling rare species.

In summary, our simulation study indicates that JSDBs might be reliable in inferring simple symmetric species interactions if the species are modelled at the resolution of the interactions. However, even in our idealized and error-free data, JSDBs could easily confound predator-prey relationships with either competitive or mutualistic interactions, they do not give an estimate of interactions strengths, they are not easily comparable across species, they are affected by prevalence and by scale. Thus, we should be very cautious when interpreting JSDB results as interactions (Clark, et al. 2014, Pollock, et al. 2014). Nevertheless, they have the ability of enhancing our analyses and allow us to form hypotheses about potential interspecific interactions when used cautiously (Ovaskainen, et al. 2010). Our results provide a first test of potentially important or confounding factors in JSDB analyses. In the future, more efforts are needed to test JSDBs in more complicated settings, for example to test their ability to

disentangle environmental response and residual correlation for multiple interacting species, for cases when species interact directly and indirectly, and for other confounding factors such as detection bias and missing environmental covariates. Thereby, further theoretical tests under controlled conditions could be useful, but we also emphasise the need for more empirical tests, for example comparing JSDM estimates against known interactions (e.g. from experiments). Hence, JSDMs constitute an important step forward for testing hypotheses of how interspecific interactions affect species distributions. Nevertheless, there are important limits to their capability of detecting interspecific interactions, for example for trophic and indirect interactions, highlighting the need for further model improvements in this respect.

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407 Supplementary material (Appendix EXXXXX at <www.oikosoffice.lu.se/appendix>).

408 Appendix 1.

409

Figure captions

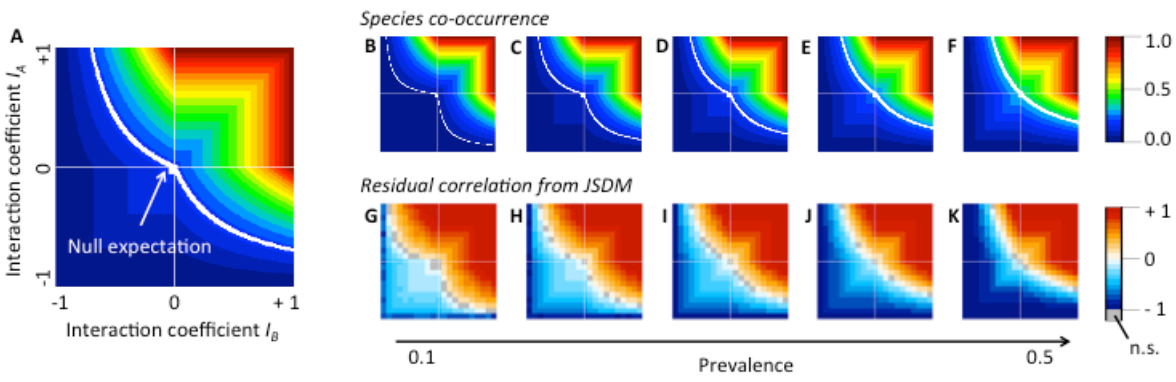
Figure 1. Expected co-occurrence (A-F) and residual correlation (estimated by JSDB; G-K) across the biotic interaction space of two species A and B and for different prevalence levels. (A) Species A and B can have negative to positive effects on each other. The co-occurrence index is defined as the number of cells where species A and B occur together divided by the total number of occupied cells. The null probability of co-occurrence $P(A \text{ and } B)$ is given by the product of species' prevalence $P(A) \times P(B)$, and the corresponding co-occurrence value is given by $(P(A) \times P(B)) / (P(A) + P(B) - P(A) \times P(B))$ (white line). (B-F) show the co-occurrence values obtained at different prevalence levels (0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5) with equal prevalence for both species. Again the null expectation of co-occurrence is shown in white. (G-K) show the corresponding residual correlations estimated by JSDBs, with grey areas indicating non-significant residual correlations.

Figure 2. Scale dependence of co-occurrence patterns and corresponding residual correlations estimated by JSDBs. Both species A and B have prevalence of 0.3. (A-C) show the spatial distribution of species at increasingly coarser resolution resulting from intermediate competition and intermediate mutualism (species A in black, species B in grey, species A and B co-occurring in red). (D-F) show the resulting co-occurrences across the biotic interaction space of species A and B, and (G-I) the corresponding residual correlations estimated by JSDBs (please refer to Fig. 1 for legend description). (J) shows the relationship between (significant) residual correlations estimated at the original resolution and at coarser resolution.

433 Figure 3. Scale dependence of JSDBs for different prevalence levels. Shown is the
434 significant residual correlation estimated by JSDBs at the original scale against
435 significant residual correlation estimated at coarser resolution (block size 2x2 in black,
436 block size 4x4 in red) across biotic interaction space. Scale dependence of JSDBs
437 increases with prevalence from left to right such that no significant residual correlations
438 were estimated for the 4x4 block size in (E).

439

440 **Figures**



441
442 **Figure 1**
443

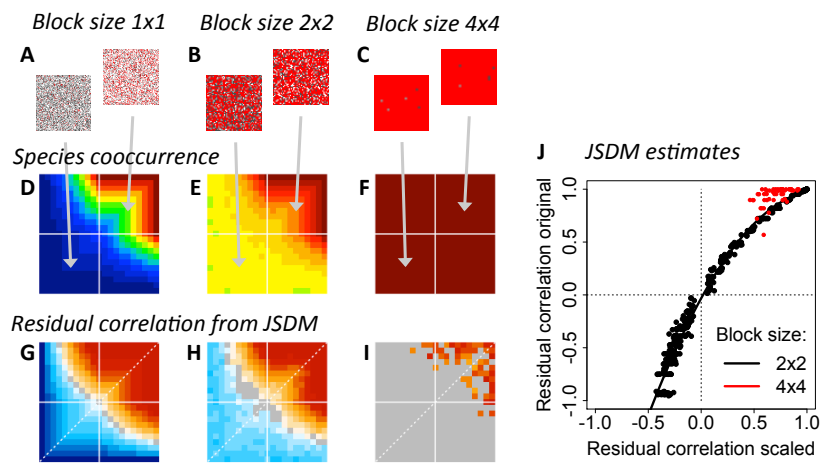


Figure 2

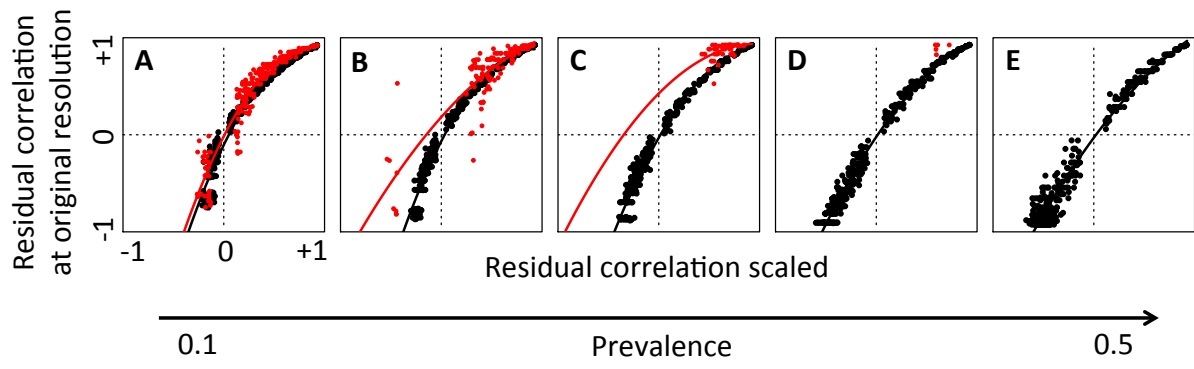


Figure 3