1	Titl	e:
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- 2 Integrating over uncertainty in spatial scale of response within multispecies occupancy
- 3 models yields more accurate assessments of community composition

4

5 **Running title:** Spatial-scale selection in occupancy models

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18

20 Abstract:

21	1. Species abundance and community composition are affected not only by the local
22	environment, but also by broader landscape and regional context. Yet determining the
23	spatial scale at which landscapes affect species remains a persistent challenge that hinders
24	ecologists' abilities to understand how environmental gradients influence species
25	presence and shape entire communities, especially in the face of data deficient species
26	and imperfect species detection.
27	2. Here we present a Bayesian framework that allows uncertainty surrounding the 'true'
28	spatial scale of species' responses (<i>i.e.</i> , changes in presence/absence) to be integrated
29	directly into a community hierarchical model.
30	3. This scale selecting multi-species occupancy model (ssMSOM) estimates the scale of
31	response, and shows high accuracy and correct type I error rates across a broad range of
32	simulation conditions. In contrast, ensembles of single species GLMs frequently fail to
33	detect the correct spatial scale of response, and are often falsely confident in favoring the
34	incorrect spatial scale, especially as species' detection probabilities deviate from perfect.
35	4. Integrating spatial scale selection directly into hierarchical community models
36	provides a means of formally testing hypotheses regarding spatial scales of response, and
37	more accurately determining the environmental drivers that shape communities.
38	

40 Introduction

41 Features of the landscape beyond the local scale often affect the processes that give rise 42 to patterns of community composition (Wiens 1989; Levin 1992; Kneitel & Chase 2004; 43 Dray et al. 2012; Fortin et al. 2012; McGarigal et al. 2016). As a result, ecologists have 44 sought to quantify what landscape features, in what contexts, and at what spatial scales 45 explain the presence and abundance of species. Yet determining how species respond to 46 the landscape has been challenging, in part because the relevant spatial scale(s) at which 47 environmental conditions affect species and communities are rarely known *a priori*. This 48 difficulty has led to uncertainty regarding the conclusions of many landscape level 49 studies (Jackson & Fahrig 2015). The development of statistical methods that more 50 robustly incorporating scales of responses within the statistical analysis of communities 51 (Borcard & Legendre 2002; Jombart et al. 2009; Matthiopoulos et al. 2011; Dray et al. 52 2012; Warton et al. 2015; Ovaskainen et al. 2016, 2017), and more accurately convey 53 uncertainty regarding these scales (Chandler & Hepinstall-Cymerman 2016), have the 54 potential to accelerate basic and applied ecological research. 55 When considering landscape level effects on species presence, abundance, or 56 biomass, two properties of the species are generally of interest. First, at what spatial scale 57 does the species respond to the environment (Desrochers et al. 2010), and second, how 58 do they respond (positively or negatively)? The most commonly used approach for 59 determining spatial scale of response (*i.e.*, the spatial context, spatial contingency; Fortin 60 et al. 2012) quantifies the average environmental value within buffers of various radii 61 (Holland et al. 2004; Weaver et al. 2012; Zuckerberg et al. 2012; McGarigal et al. 2016), 62 and then repeats a statistical analysis using the environmental covariate at each spatial

scale (Figure 1). For each species in turn, or for some community-level index like species
richness or diversity (*e.g.*, Shannon Index), the most likely spatial scale (as quantified by
AICc, correlation coefficient, or slope parameter value) is selected to represent the best
match of a species' response to landscape heterogeneity.

67 This multi-scale analysis approach has been successful in elucidating species and 68 community responses (McGarigal et al. 2016). By considering landscapes as a whole it 69 has helped quantify the benefits of small forest fragments to biological communities, and 70 related ecosystem services (Karp et al. 2013; Mendenhall et al. 2016). More generally it 71 has highlighted that species respond to different environmental conditions at different 72 spatial scales, and that species distribution models possess greater predictive power when 73 these multiple scales are directly incorporated (Desrochers et al. 2010; Weaver et al. 2012). However, the current multi-scale approach does present a number of problems 74 75 related to estimating the spatial scale of response, exacerbating uncertainty by treating 76 species individually rather than the community as an integrated whole, and ignoring 77 issues with species detectability. All of these will inflate error in estimating the true 78 spatial scale of response, and quantifying how species respond to the environment. 79 First, single species model comparison approaches that select a single best model 80 typically neither quantify nor integrate over uncertainty regarding scale selection. This

81 means that other parameters may be biased if the 'most likely' scale is not the true scale.

82 Relatedly, the set of scales analyzed is often quite small (Desrochers *et al.* 2010; Jackson

83 & Fahrig 2015), and as a result is unlikely to even include the true spatial scale. Meta-

84

85 those analyzed—suggesting that the true spatial scale is even more extreme (Jackson &

analysis has shown that the most likely spatial scale is often at one of the extremes of

86	Fahrig 2015). Recently, Chandler & Hepinstall-Cymerman (2016) proposed a modeling
87	approach that internalizes spatial scale estimation within a single species model by using
88	smoothing kernels to average landscape variables around focal sites. This single-species
89	model addresses these two problems by maximizing likelihood over the spatial scale
90	parameter, and also allows confidence intervals to be calculated around it. Further,
91	because spatial scale is a continuous (albeit bounded) parameter, it eliminates the
92	problem of not including the true spatial scale among the scales assessed (provided an
93	appropriate range of scales is investigated).
94	The second major problem with the standard approach is that it makes
95	assessments of multiple species in a species-by-species fashion. In the study of entire
96	communities, however, this approach is often inadequate, because it ignores rare species
97	(which are both typically of greatest conservation concern, and may be trophically
98	influential). This problem is especially true in tropical communities, which are
99	particularly under threat from land-use change, and where species rarity is common
100	(MacArthur 1969; Hubbell 2001). Further, a species by species approach is prone to
101	estimation bias and loss of power (Ovaskainen & Soininnen 2011; Banks-Leite et al.
102	2014). Hierarchical joint community models have been proposed to move beyond
103	piecemeal assessments (Ovaskainen & Soininnen 2011; Warton et al. 2015; Ovaskainen
104	et al. 2017). By assuming that species parameters come from common distributions,
105	overall community error is minimized and rare species can be included in analyses.
106	Finally, imperfect detection of species is a problem for animal communities
107	generally, especially when species traits, site characteristics, or the time or conditions of
108	observation influence detectability. Multi-species occupancy models (MSOMs) are a

109 commonly adopted solution to account for imperfect and variable detection within 110 communities (Iknayan et al. 2013). MSOMs are typically implemented in a Bayesian 111 framework (relying on MCMC to overcome challenges in maximizing likelihoods when 112 numerous random effects exist). Yet, model comparison and selection is still difficult to 113 implement with Bayesian models (e.g., Hooten & Hobbs, 2015; but see Lele et al. 2007). 114 Together this means that comparing models across a large range of spatial scales would 115 be both time extremely time consuming (because MCMCs are relatively slow), and non-116 trivial to implement. Because MSOMs are not easily amenable to adequate testing at 117 multiple spatial scales, the scale of response has generally not been incorporated into 118 community analyses that incorporate imperfect detection. Consequently, their power has 119 not been sufficiently directed to understand how landscape features structure community-120 level processes. 121 Fortunately scale selection can be integrated directly into MSOMs by establishing 122 a parameter that allows the spatial scale at which species respond to be estimated (e.g., 123 Chandler & Hepinstall-Cymerman, 2016). When extended to the community as a whole, 124 incorporating scale selection into the model should result in the appropriate spatial 125 scale(s) being estimated directly from the data within a single model run, and also ensure 126 that other parameter estimates are not biased because they were analyzed at the wrong 127 spatial scale. One of us (LOF) recently developed the foundations of the approach 128 presented here in an attempt to internalize scale selection within hierarchical multispecies 129 models to overcome uncertainty about what spatial scale to analyze data for two specific 130 empirical studies (Frank et al. In Press; Karp et al, In review). However, this technique

131 was not fully developed in those works, and it remains unclear whether this approach has

132	correct type I error rates, and whether it does indeed increase power and accuracy over
133	more traditional approaches. Here we fully describe, and demonstrate the use of, a multi
134	spatial scale selection multi-species occupancy model (hereafter; ssMSOM), and test its
135	performance in estimating both spatial scale of response, and species' strengths of
136	response to the environment (<i>i.e.</i> , a landscape-level covariate). We compare this approach
137	to the standard method of analysis: a series of species-by-species GLMs. While the
138	approach here is demonstrated with a simple single season occupancy model for multiple
139	species, the internalized scale selection is generalizable. For example, it could be directly
140	integrated into abundance models, or combined with flexible hierarchical modeling
141	approaches to query population dynamics through times, or the effects of species traits,
142	phylogenetic relatedness, or interspecific competition on community structure (Yackulic
143	et al. 2014; Frishkoff et al. 2017).

144

145 Methods

146 Model overview:

147 The scale selecting multi-species occupancy model (ssMSOM) estimates parameters

148 related to occupancy and detection probabilities in communities containing multiple

species (indexed by i), across multiple sites (j), with multiple site visits (k). The observed

150 detection histories $(Y_{i,j,k})$ are assumed to derive from unobserved (latent) occupancy states

151 $(Z_{i,j}, \text{ where } Z_{i,j} = 1 \text{ for presence, and } 0 \text{ for absence) and detection probabilities determined}$

by species, and site $(P_{i,j})$; visit based variability in detection is ignored for simulations and

153 models, but could be incorporated if desired). Specifically:

$$Y_{i,j,k} \sim Bern(\mathbf{Z}_{i,j} * P_{i,j}).$$

154 The occupancy state $(Z_{i,j})$ in turn was assumed to come from some underlying occupancy

155 probability according to:

156
$$Z_{i,i} \sim Bern(\psi_{i,i})$$

157 The detection process was modeled according to:

$$\operatorname{logit}(\mathbf{P}_{i,j}) = \alpha \mathbf{0}_i + \alpha \mathbf{1}_i * Env_{j,1} \, .$$

158 And the occupancy probability $(\psi_{i,j})$ according to:

$$\operatorname{logit}(\psi_{i,j}) = \beta 0_i + \beta 1_i * Env_{j,s} + \gamma 0_j.$$

159 Here $Env_{j,s}$ is a site-by-scale matrix of some landscape level environmental variable

160 (centered and scaled within each column). All parameters in the α and β groups are

161 estimated for each species, with species terms drawn from a normal distribution of mean

162 (μ) and variance (σ^2) estimated from the data. γ terms were random intercepts for each

163 site (variance estimated from data around a mean of 0) designed to incorporate consistent

164 differences in occupancy probabilities in all species across sites that are not accounted for

by *Env*. The indexing value *s* (representing columns of the *Env_{j,s}* matrix) spans multiple

spatial scales, and the parameter value of *s* that best fits the data is estimated from the

167 model. Because models are implemented using MCMC, this process results in a posterior

168 distribution for values of *s*, which fully integrates over the uncertainly regarding the

169 proper spatial scale, and which further can be used to select the most appropriate spatial

scale (e.g., posterior mean or mode) or an interval of spatial scales that well describe the

171 data. This formulation is conceptually similar to generalized linear models that integrate

172 over phylogenetic uncertainty in tree topology (de Villemereuil et al. 2012). For

173 simplicity, the environmental effect of a species' detection probability is assumed to

174 come from the environmental conditions at the finest (*i.e.*, most local) spatial scale. This

- assumption could be relaxed if there is reason to expect that more distant environmental
- 176 conditions somehow affect detection probability.

177	For demonstration and testing purposes, we here assume that a single
178	environmental gradient affects community composition. However, the ssMSOM could be
179	generalized to include multiple environmental conditions (multiple site-by-scale
180	environment matrixes, e.g., $Env1_{j,s} Env2_{j,t} Env3_{j,u}$, etc.), each affecting communities at
181	different spatial scales (with scale parameters s , t , u , etc., each independently estimated
182	from the data).
183	
184	Simulation conditions
185	In order to test the performance of the ssMSOM, we simulated communities, using an
186	Env matrix based on empirical landscape forest cover. Spatial forest cover data for

187 simulation and analysis came from northwestern Costa Rica, used as part of a study of

188 how local and landscape level habitat conversion affects community composition (Karp

189 et. al. In review). In that study, sites were selected to ensure that local forest cover varied

190 independently from landscape level forest cover. To measure surrounding forest cover,

- all tree cover within 1.5km of sites was classified using high-resolution Google Earth
- images obtained from 2013-2016. The resulting 5m-resolution tree cover map was

193 verified based on ground-truthed data collected in the field. For analysis, site level forest

194 cover proportion was calculated in radii from 50m to 1500m, in 50m increments,

resulting in an *Env* matrix with 30 columns. For the ssMSOM it would be most appealing

to use the smallest increments possible to generate the largest number of spatial scales

197 possible, since using few spatial scales makes it likely that the true scale will not be

among the analyzed set. We settled on 50m increments because of a balance of

- 199 computational efficiency in model runs, and increments that approximate a continuous
- 200 stretch from our smallest to largest spatial scale.
- 201 To test the performance of ssMSOM under a variety of conditions, we simulated
- 202 120 communities (four at each of the 30 spatial scales), each with 16 species (N_{sp}) , across
- 203 50 sites (N_{site}), with three site visits per site (N_{visit}). All species parameters were drawn
- 204 from normal distributions, generating diversity in species' commonness (simulations
- 205 included both common and rare species), and species' responses to tree cover (some
- 206 responded negatively and others responded positively to 'deforestation'). This diversity
- 207 of overall commonness and responses to the environment mimics patterns observed in
- 208 many empirical systems. We repeated these simulations under five alternative detection
- 209 scenarios:
- 210 1. Perfect detection, where the probability of detecting a species at a site if the site211 is occupied is 1.
- 212 2. High detection probability: average detectability equals ~ 0.5 .
- 213 3. Low detection probability: average detectability equals ~ 0.25 .
- 4. Low detection with detection affected by local environment: average
- detectability equals ~ 0.25, but rising to ~0.5 under high local values of Env and dropping
- 216 to ~ 0.1 under low local values of *Env*.
- 5. Low detection with species-specific variation in detectability by local
- environment: Same as 4, but some species increase in detectability with increasing values
- 219 of local *Env*, while others decrease in detectability.
- For an overview of all simulation parameters see Table 1.

221

222 Model comparison

To examine ssMSOM performance, versus a typical analysis strategy for this type of data, we compared it to a series of single species models fit using maximum likelihood across all 30 spatial scales. These models are referred to as piecemeal GLMs throughout and are described by standard binomial GLM functions of the form:

$$logit(\psi_j) = \beta 0 + \beta 1 * Env_j$$
$$Y_i \sim bern(\psi_i)$$

where ψ_j is the naïve occupancy probability of the focal species at the focal spatial scale, and Y_j is the naïve occupancy state (*i.e.*, whether a species was detected at a site across all site visits or not). To match the approach taken by empirical analyses species with observations at fewer than 10% of all sites were excluded from analysis (because data would presumably be insufficient for precise parameter estimates; *e.g.*, Desrochers *et al.* 2010; Zuckerberg *et al.* 2012). We then used AICc to choose the optimal spatial scale for each species in turn.

234 We focus on two core questions when evaluating the ssMSOM versus standard 235 GLM approaches. First, does using an integrated community analysis provide more 236 accurate estimates of the correct spatial scale (s) than a piecemeal approach? For species 237 for which βI is close to 0, the spatial scale of response cannot be evaluated in the 238 piecemeal GLMs because the scale of response is undefined if the species does not 239 respond to the environment. For this set of analyses we therefore additionally excluded 240 all species for which βI was not significantly different from 0 in the most likely GLM, as 241 estimation of true spatial scale should be more accurate for the remaining species.

242 Second, even when estimating spatial scale is not the primary goal and is 243 therefore considered a nuisance variable, does integrating over uncertainty regarding the 244 correct spatial scale result in more accurate estimates of how species respond to the 245 environment (β 1) than a piecemeal approach? To answer this question we additionally 246 compared parameter estimates with GLMs using the true spatial scale under which 247 simulations were conducted. While for empirical data the true spatial scale is never 248 known without error, using it here represents the 'best-case scenario' for community 249 level analyses of landscape level responses to the environment. 250 To quantify the accuracy of the ssMSOM versus a piecemeal GLM approach, we 251 calculated the root mean square error (RMSE) across the entire community of the family 252 of parameter estimates from the true simulated value. With regards to 's', we consider the

253 posterior mode in the case of the ssMSOM, where as for the GLMs we consider the

spatial scale that minimizes AICc for each species. To ensure the results are comparable

in both approaches we calculate RMSE for each species in turn, even though in the case

256 of the ssMSOM the parameter s is estimated for all species simultaneously, and is

therefore identical for all species.

We also examine coverage probability of the posterior estimates (*i.e.*, the inverse of type I error). If models are behaving as expected, the 95% CIs of the parameter estimates should contain the true value 95% of the time. For ssMSOMs and GLMs the coverage probabilities for β 1 can be calculated directly from species-specific parameter estimates. Similarly coverage probabilities around '*s*' for the ssMSOMs can be calculated using equal tail Bayesian credible intervals around the posterior of *s*. To calculate a value equivalent to coverage probabilities of the spatial scale in the case of the piecemeal

265 GLMs we first calculated the AICc weight for all spatial scales for a given species, and

- then asked whether the true spatial scale was within the top 95% of the cumulative model
- 267 weights.
- 268
- 269 Model Fitting

270 Models were fit using JAGS through the R environment. Simulation code in R and JAGS 271 model code is available in the supplement. For MCMC analyses diffuse priors were used 272 throughout, with a flat prior placed on 's'.

- 273
- 274 **Results**
- 275 Inferring spatial scale

276 The posterior mode of spatial scales from the ssMSOM tended to accurately estimate the 277 true spatial scale of response, and had relatively low error, typically off by less than 278 100m under the conditions simulated (Figures 2 and 3). In contrast, piecemeal GLMs 279 failed to consistently recover the true spatial scale for the majority of species in the 280 community, even when detection was perfect. The degree of error was lower when 281 restricting analysis to only those species for which the lowest AICc GLM showed a 282 significant relationship with the environmental gradient, though RMSE across the entire 283 community was still >3X that of the ssMSOM (Figure 3a). Further, when detection itself 284 varied along the environmental gradient at local scales in a species-specific manner, 285 using a standard GLM approach resulted in error in estimating species response scales 286 that is no better (and sometime worse) than guessing a scale at random (Figure 3a). Not 287 surprisingly, error in estimating the scale of response within piecemeal GLMs was

288 greatest for both species that were detected in a small number of sites, as well as species

289 detected in the majority of sites (Figure 3b).

290 The ssMSOM demonstrated correct type I error rates when estimating s. 291 regardless of detection regime. In contrast, piecemeal GLMs showed inflated type I error 292 when estimating the true spatial scale, which was exacerbated as detection probability 293 deviated from perfect (Figure 4). This behavior was further accentuated when excluding 294 species that did not have a significant response to the environmental gradient at its most 295 likely spatial scale, such that nearly 20% of all species assessments did not include the 296 true spatial scale model in the top 95% Akaike weighted models under a low-detection 297 regime with specific-specific variation in detectability by environment. 298 299 Estimating species responses to the environment 300 Estimates of species responses to the environment (βI) were more accurate in the

301 ssMSOM than in piecemeal GLMs, even when GLMs were run using the true spatial

302 scale (Figure 5). These patterns were not strongly affected by detection regime, though in

303 general estimates are more accurate when detection probabilities are high. Type I error

does however strongly shift with detection. If detection is perfect, and the true spatial

305 scale in known *a priori*, then a piecemeal GLM approach performs as well as the

306 ssMSOM (Figure 6). However, when the spatial scale must be inferred from the data

307 GLMs generate falsely confident results, with the true values of species responses

308 excluded from the 95% confidence intervals up to 30% of the time under some simulated

309 conditions (*i.e.* 6X the nominal type I error rate). In contrast the ssMSOM possess 95%

310 CIs that behave has expected, regardless of detection regime.

311

312 **Discussion**

313	Here we described and tested the statistical properties of the ssMSOM against the
314	standard method for ascertaining species' and communities' scales of response. We find
315	that internalizing scale selection into the model results in greater community wide
316	accuracy for key parameter estimates, and reduces the probability of making incorrect
317	inferences. The key strength of the ssMSOM is that it does not rely on setting the spatial
318	scale a priori. Like the approach of Chandler & Hepinstall-Cymerman (2016), the
319	ssMSOM avoids the problem of researchers selecting only a few scales to investigate,
320	which are too narrow to include the true scale of response (Jackson & Fahrig 2015). This
321	of course requires that researchers first extract landscape data from as broad a range of
322	scales as possible, ideally in the finest increments possible. This allows spatial scale to be
323	treated as nearly continuous, such that 95% CIs can be created, and inferences made as
324	with any other continuous parameter in the model. When taking a flexible scale
325	estimation approach it is essential to use as fine scale environmental data as possible. If
326	environmental data are coarse with respect to the resolution at which species interact with
327	the environment then the estimated spatial scale of response will be strongly upwardly
328	biased and overall model performance will suffer (Mendenhall et al. 2011).
220	

329

330 Examples of empirical use

331 Two recent studies have demonstrated the power of using the scale selection routine from

the ssMSOM (*i.e.*, indexing the *Env* matrix by scale) when analyzing empirical datasets.

333 Frank et al. (in press) used a phylogenetic occupancy model (Frishkoff et al. 2017) with

334 the internalized spatial scale selection method presented here, finding that bat responses 335 to deforestation are strongly phylogenetically conserved. Similarly, Karp et al (in review) 336 used Bayesian spatial scale selection embedded within an N-mixture model to examine 337 how bird communities responded to habitat conversion while accounting for imperfect 338 detection in order to understand how β -diversity was structured along land-use and 339 climate gradients. In both cases spatial scale selection strongly supported deforestation 340 affecting the communities at fairly small spatial scales. While in both cases scales at over 341 a kilometer away from focal sites were queried, for bats the posterior distribution peaked 342 at 50m, and excluded all scales above 100m, while for birds scales below 300m were 343 favored. Because of the ssMSOM framework, these studies were able to analyze both 344 common and rare species. Had these studies relied on individual GLMs (or species-by-345 species occupancy models) the uncertainty around the scale of response would likely 346 have been extremely high, and un-estimatable for the majority of rare species. This was 347 particularly important in the case of Neotropical bats for which rare and hard to detect 348 species tended to be found in natural forests. Indeed, if imperfect detection were not 349 taken into account species richness would have appeared to have been unaffected by 350 forest loss, when in fact it declined sharply (Frank *et al. In press*). These early examples 351 of embedding spatial scale selection into hierarchical models highlight the broad 352 applicability of the method. The ssMSOM approach is easily extended to abundance 353 models (i.e., N-mixture or recapture models), or indeed any Bayesian implementation of 354 multispecies models with or without detection for which the true spatial scale of response 355 is unknown could benefit from the general approach.

356

357 Assumptions, limitations, and future directions

358 Critically, for the simulations presented (and within the ssMSOM itself) there is the 359 assumption that a single, true spatial scale exists at which all species respond to the 360 environment. This may or may not be true for a given assemblage in nature. Empirical 361 studies have shown that different species respond to different spatial scales (e.g., 362 Chambers *et al.* 2016), and theoretical approaches suggest that some species traits may 363 modulate the scale of response (Jackson & Fahrig 2012). However, we show in our 364 simulations that empirical analyses conducted on a species by species basis (as past 365 studies have been) are often unable to recover the true spatial scale at which species 366 respond, and show high heterogeneity in the scale of response even if all species are 367 simulated to respond at the same spatial scale. While many species likely do respond at 368 different scales, this finding casts some doubt on the specific estimates of scales of 369 response presented in past empirical studies. The high degree of inaccuracy inherent in 370 the piecemeal GLM approach may be partially responsible for the lack of correlation 371 between empirically estimated scales of response, and species traits thought to modulate 372 these scales (Jackson & Fahrig 2015).

Future development of the ssMSOM and similar community wide approaches should be able to relax the assumption that all species have the same scale of response, although doing so may diminish the ability to precisely estimate response scales for rare species. One path would be to estimate spatial scale separately for two or more groups of species, delimited based on natural history knowledge, functional guild placement, or other *a priori* expectations (Pacifici *et al.* 2014). An *a priori* grouping based approach, however, is at best an imperfect solution. Ideally individual species' scales of response

would be allowed to vary from one another—using random effect structures within the scale selection component of the model would be one logical way to do so. Allowing random variation among species could additionally allow species' level covariates to affect the scale of response, thereby facilitating testing the hypothesis that some species' traits correlate with scale of response that both maintains high power, and is minimally afflicted by type I error.

386 In real communities, species' responses to the broader landscape might be 387 predicated on conditions at the local scale (*i.e.*, an interaction between local and 388 landscape scales). For example, a farm-land bird species might benefit from landscape 389 level tree cover when the local habitat is agriculture, but might only exist in forest when 390 there are low amounts of landscape level tree cover because it uses forest edge habitat. 391 Allowing interaction terms between landscape and local effects (e.g., forest cover as 392 estimated within a point count radius) will allow these types of species interactions with 393 the environment to be tested (Matthiopoulos et al. 2011; Paton & Matthiopoulos 2016). 394 Chandler and Hepinstall-Cyberman (2016) pointed out that the step function used 395 to calculate proportion of focal habitat within a given radius has no theoretical basis, and 396 instead favor a Gaussian weighting function. This approach could be easily implemented 397 with the Bayesian framework presented here, by indexing the Env matrix based on the 398 output of the weighting function over incremental changes in its key parameter. While, 399 alternatives to the commonly used step functions are certainly appealing on theoretical 400 grounds, at least one study that examined Gaussian weighting versus a step function 401 radius method found that models performed roughly equivalently (Timm et al. 2016). 402

403 Conclusion

404 Humans are altering landscapes across the globe, such that the remaining extent of 405 natural habitats are often much diminished and severely fragmented (Haddad et al. 2015). 406 Such complex, heterogeneous landscapes challenge ecologists' abilities to discern the 407 underlying environmental drivers of community composition. Yet achieving successful 408 conservation strategies in these landscapes requires simultaneously describing and 409 predicting how these spatially heterogeneous environments affect not just individual 410 species, but entire communities. Internalizing spatial scale selection within community 411 models offers one approach to uncover the environmental drivers behind such community 412 change while accommodating the unavoidable uncertainty in the 'true' scale of species' 413 responses. The ssMSOM possess high accuracy and correct type I error rates when both 414 identifying the spatial scale of response, and the direction and magnitude with which 415 individual species respond to environmental gradients. This approach represents a 416 promising path forward for understanding the ecological drivers of community 417 composition, and the consequences of ongoing environmental change. 418 419 Acknowledgements

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424 Data Accessibility: R scripts for simulating communities and running ssMSOMs are

425 available in the supplemental material.

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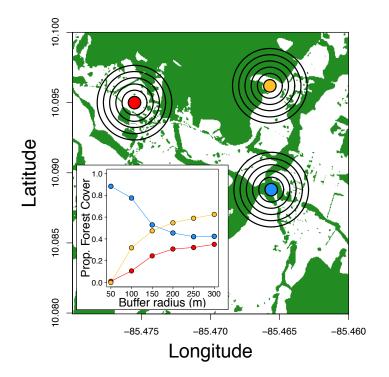
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535536 Figures and Tables

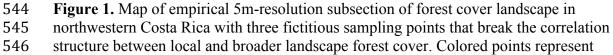
538 Table 1: Simulation conditions of communities.

		Detection Regime				
					Low-	
Component	Parameter	Perfect	High	Low	Env	Low-Env Variable
uc	$\mu_{\alpha 0}$	100	0	-1	-1	-1
ctic	$\sigma_{\alpha 0}$	0	1	1	1	1
Detection	$\mu_{\alpha 1}$	0	0	0	1	1
Q	$\sigma_{\alpha 1}$	0	0	0	0	1
	$\mu_{\beta 0}$	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1
cy	$\sigma_{\beta 0}$	1	1	1	1	1
Occupancy	$\mu_{\beta 1}$	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
nəc	$\sigma_{\beta 1}$	1	1	1	1	1
ŏ	$\sigma_{\gamma 0}$	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
	S	variable	variable	variable	variable	variable
ole	Nsp	16	16	16	16	16
Sample Size	Nsite	50	50	50	50	50
Sa Sa	Nvisit	3	3	3	3	3

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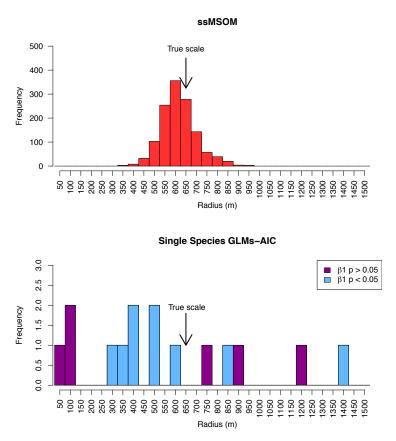


547 50m-point count radii, and each successive buffer represents an increase in radius of

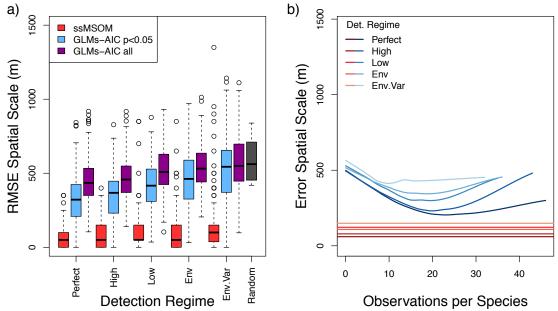
548 50m. Only 50-300m radii are shown, though for simulation analyses radii extended to

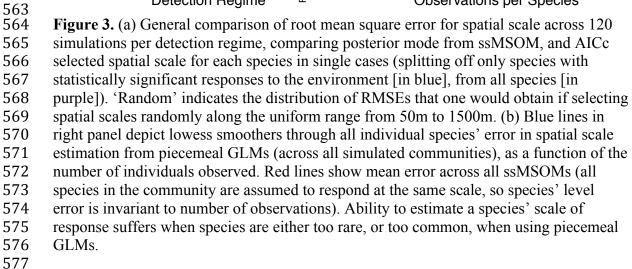
- 549 1500m.
- 550

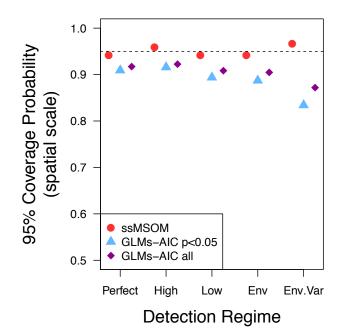




552 553 Figure 2. Example histograms of single species GLMs, and the ssMSOM. Example comes from low detection case (mean detection = ~ 0.25). Upper panel depicts posterior 554 555 distribution of the spatial scale that describes species responses to the environment from 556 the ssMSOM. Lower panel depicts the spatial scale that minimizes AICc for each single-557 species GLM, after removing one species that was observed in fewer than 10% of sites 558 (*i.e.* 15 species remaining). Purple bars are species for which the response to the environment does not differ significantly from 0, at the 'best' spatial scale, whereas blue 559 560 species have significantly positive or negative responses to the environment at the 'best' 561 spatial scale.



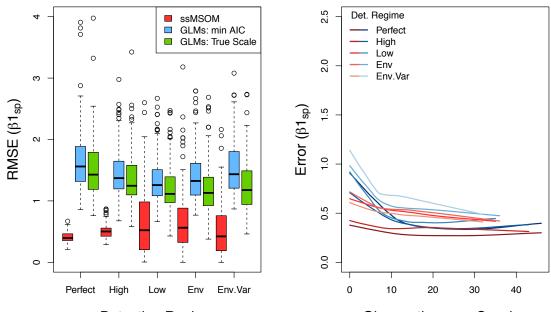




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Figure 4. Quality of inference of true spatial scale declines for single species cases declines as detection becomes lower confounded with environment. For ssMSOM coverage probability indicates the proportion of simulations (n = 120 per regime) for which the true spatial scale was within the 95% CIs of the spatial scale posterior. For GLMs coverage probability indicates the proportion of species across simulations for which the true spatial scale was within the top 95% of Akaike weighted models.



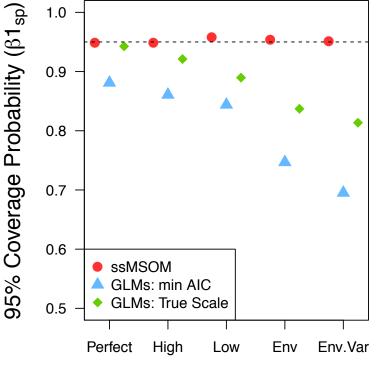


Detection Regime

Observations per Species

589 590 **Figure 5.** Accuracy of estimates of species responses to the environment ($\beta 1_{sp}$). Left panel depicts boxplots of community level RMSE of $\beta 1_{sp}$ values for each of 120 591 592 simulations per detection regime. Species observed in fewer than 10% of sites were 593 removed from GLM estimates in left panel. Right panel depicts lowess smoothers through individual species' error in $\beta \hat{1}_{sp}$ (across all simulated communities), as a function 594 of the number of individuals observed. Here blue lines represent estimates from 595 596 piecemeal GLMs (using min. AICc), whereas red lines represent estimates from 597 ssMSOMs.

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Detection Regime

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601 **Figure 6.** Coverage probabilities around true value of response to the environment ($\beta 1_{sp}$).

Each point represents the proportion of species across all simulations for which the true

value fell within the 95% CIs of the estimate. For GLMs all species observed in fewer

than 10% of sites were excluded from the analysis. GLMs min AICc indicates each

species' GLM at the 'best' spatial scale. GLM True scale is the GLM from at the spatial

- scale that the responses were simulated at, regardless of whether this GLM possessed the
- 607 lowest AICc.