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Leveraging Massive Opportunistically Collected Datasets to Study Species Communities in Space and Time

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ABSTRACT

Online portals have facilitated collecting extensive biodiversity data by naturalists, offering unprecedented coverage and resolution in space and time. Despite being the most widely available class of biodiversity data, opportunistically collected records have remained largely inaccessible to community ecologists since the imperfect and highly heterogeneous detection process can severely bias inference. We present a novel statistical approach that leverages these datasets by embedding a spatiotemporal joint species distribution model within a flexible site-occupancy framework. Our model addresses variable detection probabilities across visits and species by modelling phenological patterns and by extending the use of latent variables to characterise observerspecific detection and reporting behaviour. We apply our model to an opportunistically collected dataset on lentic odonates, encompassing over 100,000 waterbody visits in Flanders (N-Belgium), to show that the model provides insights into biological communities at high resolution, including phenology, interannual trends, environmental associations and spatiotemporal codistributional patterns in community composition.

1 | Introduction

Understanding how species assemble into communities across space and time and how environmental conditions, biotic interactions, dispersal and anthropogenic pressure shape this process constitutes one of the grand aims of ecology. This gave rise to the field of metacommunity ecology (Leibold and Chase 2017), while simultaneously providing crucial insights for other disciplines such as conservation biology. In addition to theoretical modelling (Lerch et al. 2023; Vanoverbeke et al. 2016) and experimental approaches (Logue et al. 2011), metacommunity ecology predominantly relies on

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multivariate analyses of field-based survey data to generate insights (Leibold et al. 2022; Logue et al. 2011). Over the past decades, developments in statistical ecology have strongly influenced the way high-dimensional community datasets are being analysed, starting with the application of distance-based ordination methods (Legendre and Legendre 1998; Peres-Neto et al. 2006), followed by the more recent development of joint species distribution modelling tools (JSDMs) (Ovaskainen and Abrego 2020; Pollock et al. 2014; Ries et al. 2016; Warton et al. 2015), the latter also revealing potential signatures of interspecific interaction patterns and providing species-specific inferences. Both distance-based ordination and JSDM-based approaches allow linking quantitative signatures in datasets to existing theoretical paradigms of species assembly (Cottenie 2005; Leibold et al. 2022; Ovaskainen et al. 2019).

With some exceptions (e.g., Mungi et al. 2023), most species community datasets are heavily constrained in their geographical, temporal and taxonomic scope and resolution, as rigorously collecting highly standardised data following a predetermined sampling design is expensive and time-consuming. The vast majority of studies treat communities as static by analysing single time points, ignoring interannual and seasonal variation, even though theoretical and conceptual work increasingly highlights the importance of time to understand metacommunity dynamics (Guzman et al. 2022; Wolkovich et al. 2014; Yin and Rudolf 2024).

Over the past decade, the number of citizen science initiatives has been growing rapidly, resulting in large opportunistically collected biodiversity datasets that provide a rich source of data with broad spatiotemporal extent and often high spatiotemporal resolution. For instance, naturalists all over the world are using biodiversity data platforms such as iNaturalist, eBird and Observation.org, generating millions of species records on a weekly basis (Dickinson et al. 2010). While the advantages of these datasets are evident, they feature major drawbacks that hamper straightforward rigorous statistical analyses for metacommunity ecology and conservation research. First, opportunistic data collection typically suffers from spatiotemporal and taxonomic sampling biases due to the absence of predefined sampling guidelines (Bowler et al. 2022; Neyens et al. 2019; Pocock et al. 2023; Shirey et al. 2021). Second, imperfect detection, that is, the near-ubiquitous phenomenon that species tend to go unnoticed even though they are present during biological surveys (MacKenzie et al. 2002), is particularly exacerbated in large-scale opportunistic datasets as the probability of detecting and reporting species strongly varies among naturalists and throughout the season, and as species vary in conspicuousness or attractiveness (Dickinson et al. 2010). Failing to account for imperfect and heterogeneous detection can lead to severe bias in ecological inference and species distribution estimates (Guillera-Arroita et al. 2014; Lahoz-Monfort et al. 2014; Rota et al. 2011).

Often, unstructured opportunistically collected data (e.g., through portals such as iNaturalist or Observation.org) contains more than presence-only information, as records of non-focal species reveal the activity of observers, enabling reconstructing pseudo-visits and checklists (van Strien et al. 2013). In large opportunistically collected datasets, a subset of sites is typically visited repeatedly within a single biological season, producing detection/non-detection histories (Mackenzie et al. 2018). Provided that occupancy remains constant throughout the season (i.e., the closure assumption), the site-occupancy modelling framework (MacKenzie et al. 2002) offers a means to address imperfect and highly heterogeneous detection that is inherent to opportunistically collected data. This has led to several successful applications to opportunistically collected data on single species, often to quantify interannual trends and to address applied conservation research questions (Hochachka et al. 2012; Isaac et al. 2014; van Strien et al. 2010, 2011, 2013; Termaat et al. 2019).

Multispecies site-occupancy models have subsequently been developed to model community data sampled under imperfect detection (Beissinger et al. 2016; Dorazio et al. 2006; Sutherland et al. 2016). Recently, these efforts have been further extended to accommodate large spatial structures (Doser et al. 2023), to integrate multiple population- and community-level data sources and types (Zipkin et al. 2023), to allow for spatially varying coefficients (Doser et al. 2024), to harness the flexibility of neural networks (Joseph 2020) or to facilitate the uptake by ecologists (Doser et al. 2022). While offering much flexibility in many respects, these recently developed methods miss key features of state-of-the-art JSDMs that assume perfect detection (e.g., modelling trait-based and phylogenetic influences; Ovaskainen and Abrego 2020) and they predominantly leave the (spatio)temporal dimension unexplored, in contrast to recently developed cutting-edge machine learning approaches for opportunistically collected data (Cole et al. 2023; Davis et al. 2023; Fink et al. 2023; Smith and Edwards 2021; Teng et al. n.d.). The latter approaches, on the other hand, tend either to ignore imperfect detection or to adjust for search effort using covariates without explicitly disentangling the detection and occupancy process. Furthermore, although the importance of interobserver heterogeneities has long been recognised (Sauer et al. 1994), it has received remarkably limited attention to date (Johnston et al. 2018; Kelling et al. 2015).

In this paper, we develop a Bayesian model to analyse large opportunistically collected datasets in the context of metacommunity ecology by combining a flexible site-occupancy approach with a state-of-the-art JSDM, the Hierarchical Modeling of Species Communities framework (Ovaskainen and Abrego 2020). We present a novel way to parsimoniously map observer-specific detection and reporting behaviour across species by extending the use of the popular latent variable approach in JSDMs from site-species to observer-species relationships. As such, our approach facilitates the use of widely available opportunistically collected biodiversity data to fuel large-scale spatiotemporal metacommunity analyses, while explicitly acknowledging the shortcomings of such data.

2 | Material and Methods

2.1 | Model Structure and Rationale

In the following, we provide a high-level outline of our modelling approach. A full overview, including all model equations, technical details and key assumptions, is provided in the Supporting Information in Section S1.

Typically, JSDMs model whether species have been detected across sites as principal outcome (Guillera-Arroita et al. 2015). Such an approach, however, confounds the actual occupancy process with the detection process (Guillera-Arroita 2017), which can be problematic when analysing opportunistically collected data, especially in the face of sampling biases across sites, years, seasons and species, and with a large number of observers. Therefore, we instead model the detection outcome during individual visits to subsequently infer the latent occupancy process, following the site-occupancy principle (MacKenzie et al. 2002). Specifically, the detection outcome $y_{v,i}$, pertains to whether species *i* has been reported (0: no; 1: yes) during visit v, which took place on day d(v) by observer o(v). We define a (pseudo-)visit v as an instance where an observer reports at least one sighting of any species on a specific day at a specific site (a grid cell, a transect, a pond ...). Deriving discrete visits is facilitated by the multispecies nature of biodiversity portals such as iNaturalist and Observation.org, since records of non-focal species within a consistent taxonomic scope enable inferring observer activity.

Relying on the site-occupancy framework (MacKenzie et al. 2002), we assume $y_{v,i}$ follows a Bernoulli distribution:

$$y_{v,i} \mid z_{s(v),t(v),i} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p_{v,i} z_{s(v),t(v),i}),$$

where $p_{v,i}$ is the probability of detecting species *i* during visit *v* (if it would be present), and $z_{s,t,i}$, is the latent occupancy status (0: absent; 1: present) for species *i* in the visited site *s* and year *t*. We assume the latent occupancy status $z_{s,t,i}$ follows a Bernoulli distribution as well:

$$z_{s,t,i} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\psi_{s,t,i})$$

where $\psi_{s,t,i}$ is the probability that site *s* is occupied by species *i* in year *t*. Both $p_{v,i}$ and $\psi_{s,t,i}$ can be modelled through a logistic regression approach. Rather than treating $p_{v,i}$ and $\psi_{s,t,i}$ constant across all visits, sites and years, we model both parameters by tailoring their linear predictors to accommodate the inherent complexity of opportunistic data and by harnessing the shared information across space, time and species of the metacommunity.

We model the latent occupancies $z_{s,t,i}$ across sites, years and species on a logit scale through a spatiotemporally modified implementation of HMSC. Following the standard implementation of HMSC, the influence of environmental predictors on the occupancy is modelled efficiently across species through partial pooling, shrinking estimates towards the community mean, and by accounting for traits and phylogeny (Tikhonov et al. 2020). Since opportunistically collected data provides opportunities to model temporal patterns in more detail than conventional applications of HMSC, we model interannual trends parsimoniously using exact, species-specific Gaussian processes, a powerful way of accounting for temporal autocorrelation (Rasmussen and Williams 2006), and we capture yearly deviations from the smooth interannual trends through species-specific, normally distributed (i.i.d.) random effects (Outhwaite et al. 2018). Residual site-species associations are captured by a latent factor approach (Bhattacharya and Dunson 2011; Norberg et al. 2019; Ovaskainen et al. 2016, 2017; Tikhonov et al. 2020), which constitutes a model-based ordination to condense information across sites and species into a finite number of dimensions (Hui et al. 2015). We model the site loadings as a combination of spatially structured and spatially unstructured random effects to capture spatially autocorrelated patterns and noisily distributed patterns, respectively. We model the former using B-splines projected Gaussian processes as an efficient alternative to exact Gaussian processes to cover a large number of locations (Monod et al. 2022), and we use normally distributed (i.i.d.) random effects to model the latter. Finally, residual patterns across sites, years and species not captured by the above-mentioned separable components, are compressed into site-year loadings, modelled using Bsplines projected Gaussian processes and a second set of species loadings, capturing regional changes in co-distributional patterns over time. We refer to the Supporting Information in Section S1.2 for all technical details regarding the modelling of the occupancy probabilities.

By integrating the outlined JSDM in a site-occupancy model, non-detections during repeated visits are used to further inform the estimation of occupancy probabilities whenever a species might be present despite not being detected. To ensure the informativeness of individual visits, it is important to model the detection probabilities comprehensively across visits, observers, seasons and species, which we achieve by capitalising on the same statistical techniques used in HMSC. In a similar manner to how environmental associations are modelled in the occupancy part of our model, we use partial pooling, trait data and phylogenetic relatedness (Ovaskainen et al. 2017) to model the influence of detection covariates on detection probabilities across species efficiently. We also introduce a latent factor approach to parsimoniously model interobserver heterogeneity in the propensity to detect and report each species, ordinating observers and species along a limited number of dimensions, akin to how residual patterns among sites and species are modelled in HMSC (Bhattacharya and Dunson 2011). Finally, phenological patterns influencing species detectability are captured by hierarchical cyclic splines, with one common phenological pattern across the metacommunity, from which each species can deviate with a species-specific spline (hierarchical GAM, type GS; Pedersen et al. 2019). For simplicity, we assume individual observer behaviour and phenology to be constant across the study period, though this assumption could easily be relaxed. We refer to the Supporting Information in Section S1.3 for all technical details on the modelling of detection probabilities. We also provide an overview of the considered prior specifications and key modelling assumptions in the Supporting Information in Sections S1.4 and S1.5.

We implemented the model in the probabilistic programming language Stan (Betancourt 2017; Carpenter et al. 2017), relying on the multipath Pathfinder algorithm, a recently developed quasi-Newton variational inference method that has been shown to quickly reach the high probability region of complex target distributions, to initialise dynamic Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) chains (Zhang et al. 2022). HMC is a gradientbased Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm that is well suited to estimate high-dimensional models (Monnahan et al. 2017), which further helps in efficiently (often <100 iterations) reaching the high probability region during the adaptation phase (Hoffman and Ma 2020; Zhang et al. 2022). This combined approach enables sampling using many short chains until the desired level of precision for the intended application is achieved, without wasting computational resources (Margossian and Gelman 2023).

Fully documented Stan code and a complete R-pipeline for data preparation, model running, results extraction and visualisation are available on GitHub: https://github.com/mfajgenblat/oppor tunisticJSDM.

2.2 | Simulation-Based Model Evaluation

Several methods have been proposed to assess site-occupancy model performance. However, most focus on detection rather than occupancy outcomes (e.g., the MacKenzie-Bailey test or Bayesian posterior predictive checks; MacKenzie and Bailey 2004), or use site-occupancy models as a benchmark for simpler models (Rota et al. 2011). Empirical performance evaluation to infer the occupancy process is challenging because a species' true absence can rarely be confirmed (Miller et al. 2015), precluding computing explanatory power or predictive performance. Therefore, we adopt simulation-based calibration, a stringent and increasingly used method to evaluate the accuracy and reliability of complex Bayesian models and computational algorithms (Cook et al. 2006; Gelman et al. 2020; Modrák et al. 2023; Talts et al. 2018). It is particularly valuable for siteoccupancy models, as it can test the model's ability to accurately separate detection probabilities from occupancy probabilities, ensuring that model assumptions and computational methods are correctly specified. Our simulation setting emulates a metacommunity of 100 sites visited by observers over a 10-year period. In addition to calibration, we compare occupancy predictions, environmental associations and interannual trends inferred from our proposed model with those from a simplified version that ignores detection and only models whether each species was ever reported. A detailed description of the model evaluation procedure is provided in the Supporting Information in Section S1.7.

2.3 | Case Study

We illustrate our model and its output through an application to opportunistically collected data of adult lentic dragonflies and damselflies (Odonata) in Flanders (northern Belgium), from the biodiversity data platform Waarnemingen.be – Observations.be, the Belgian subsite of Observation.org. Sightings were collected from 2009 to 2023 by members of the Flemish Dragonfly Society and other naturalists. For their larval development, lentic odonates are bound to bodies of standing water, which are ideal study systems in metacommunity ecology as they represent well-defined patches of suitable habitat surrounded by a terrestrial matrix. The ecology of many species is well studied (Corbet 1999), their taxonomy is stable and odonates are often used as model organisms for ecological and evolutionary research in natural populations (Córdoba-Aguilar et al. 2022) and as sentinels for freshwater conservation and to evaluate restoration processes (Samways 2024).

Each individual waterbody constitutes a site, and the model infers the occupancy state of each waterbody across species and years using environmental information and spatial and (spatio)temporal autocorrelation patterns. As a first step, we linked geotagged sightings of adult odonates to the closest waterbody (max. distance 100m) using a comprehensive inventory of 93,135 bodies of standing water across the study area (Scheers et al. 2022) and we defined an individual visit as an event where at least one odonate species was sighted near a waterbody by a specific observer on a specific day. We followed the approach of van Strien et al. (2013) to construct detection/non-detection checklists of odonate species from presence-only reports of individual species, inferring non-detections for unreported species. To minimise potential misidentification errors, we only retained visits conducted by experienced odonate 'enthusiasts'-contributors who account for the vast majority of records in the database (see Supporting Information in Section S1.8, for all methodological details). To consider the resulting species checklists under a repeated visit structure, we also made the closure assumption that community occupancy was stationary throughout the year (Doser and Stoudt 2024), and that detection only varies seasonally but not interannually (Supporting Information in Section S1.5).

In our case study, we considered 12 land cover classes (De Saeger et al. 2020; fractions within a 200 m buffer around each waterbody) and the (logarithmically transformed) waterbody area as environmental variables. We considered six trait variables: body size, good dispersal, affinity for temporal ponds, nutrient level preference, an antipredation index (derived from number and size of larval antipredatory spines) and a temperature optimum proxy (i.e., the species temperature index; STI) (Harabiš and Hronková 2020; De Knijf et al. 2006; Termaat et al. 2019). In an alternative model specification, we did not include any occupancy predictors or traits for unconstrained ordination purposes.

We used categorised list length (i.e., the number of species detected during a visit) as a proxy for search effort, with categories of singleton (one species), short (two-three species) and longer (> three species) lists, by including it as a dummy-coded predictor for detection probabilities, as previous studies have shown this method to account for variation in sampling intensity among visits (Isaac et al. 2014; Szabo et al. 2010).

The model was run on a high-performance computing cluster utilising 36 cores during a period of 7 days. Further methodological details are provided in the Supporting Information in Section S1.8.

3 | Results

3.1 | Simulation-Based Model Evaluation

The histograms of the rank statistics obtained as part of the simulation-based calibration procedure do not indicate important deviations from a uniform distribution (Figure S1),

indicating that our model is capable of properly inferring both detection and occupancy parameters in a well-calibrated fashion. Furthermore, simulations indicate that the model outperforms a naive implementation that ignores imperfect detection with respect to predicting occupancy probabilities (92% of simulations), the signs of environmental associations (100% of simulations) as well as retrieving interannual trends (88% of simulations) (Figure S2). Model performance is substantially higher over the full range of detection and occupancy rates, in particular for predicting occupancies, and only becomes comparable when detection is near-perfect (Figures S3 and S4).

3.2 | Metacommunity Insights From Opportunistic Data: Case Study on Lentic Odonates

In our case study, 467,126 of the 756,427 odonate sightings registered in the region between 2009 and 2023 pertain to 50 obligatory or facultative lentic species and could be linked to a waterbody (<100 m distance). From these sightings, we derived 112,814 discrete waterbody visits, omitting visits by less-experienced observers (defined as having performed <75 visits throughout the study period) to ensure data quality and waterbodies that have been visited infrequently (< three times throughout the study period). As a result, a total of 6672 waterbodies is considered in the analysis (7.2% of all known waterbodies in the study area), with an average of 16.9 visits performed per waterbody throughout the study period, by a total of 445 selected observers (Figure S5). Due to the large number of individual findings, we restrict ourselves to a non-exhaustive bird's-eye

perspective, with the principal aim of showcasing what types of inference our model is capable of.

Overall, we found the probability of detecting and reporting a species (given its presence) during an average visit to be low across all species during their week of peak phenological activity, with posterior medians ranging from 0.0003 for Leucorrhinia caudalis to 0.0417 for Libellula quadrimaculata for visits with long lists, and even lower probabilities for visits with singleton and short lists (Figure S6). With the exception of Sympecma fusca (the only species that overwinters as adult in the study area and, hence, can be detected year-round), all species show a clear seasonal pattern (Figure 1a), strongly influencing detectability. In addition to the time of the year, we also found observer identity to strongly modulate the detection probability, with substantial variation across species (Figure 1b). The model-based ordination of observers and species revealed that the most important axis of variation in observer behaviour pertains to the ease of detection and identification (Figure 1b). At one end of the spectrum, we find observers that mainly report species that are common and easily approachable (facilitating identification), such as several species of damselflies (Zygoptera spp.) and darters (Sympetrum spp.). These observers feature strongly lowered propensities to report species that necessitate in-flight identification skills such as many dragonfly species (Anisoptera spp.), which require a well-developed search image (e.g., Coenagrion lunulatum) or that are widespread but easily overlooked because of their resemblance to more abundant species (e.g., Ischnura pumilio). At the other end of the spectrum, we find observers





(a) Occupancy-related predictor associations



displaying opposite behaviour, primarily focusing on the rare and challenging species while being less likely to report easily detected and identified species (Figure 1b).

We identified strong statistical support for associations between the considered environmental predictor variables (pond area and land cover variables) and the occupancy of species (Figure 2a). Some of these associations are related to the considered species traits (Figure 2b), and we found that environmental associations show a relatively weak phylogenetic structure, as reflected by a posterior median phylogenetic signal of 11.3% (95% credible **FIGURE 2** | Associations between environmental variables and the occupancy of species, and the influence of traits thereon. (a) Heatmap showing the posterior median regression coefficients for the influence of the considered environmental predictors on the occupancy probability (on the logit scale), for each species. For clarity, colour scales have been truncated to the [-5,5] interval, with more extreme values being represented by the ends of the colour spectrum. Associations with high statistical support (>95% posterior probability) are indicated by a star in the centre of the heatmap cell. Species are ordered taxonomically, with a taxonomic tree displayed at the left of the heatmap, shaded by family (yellow: Aeshnidae; green: Gomphidae; pink: Corduliidae; purple: Libellulidae; orange: Coenagrionidae; blue-green: Lestidae). (b) Heatmap showing the posterior median regression coefficients for the influence of the considered species traits on the environmental associations. Associations with high statistical support (>95% posterior probability) are indicated by a star (*) in the centre of the heatmap cell.

interval [2.8, 34.2]). Among the land cover variables, we found the fraction of heathland to be the most important occupancy predictor for the metacommunity, with 22 species featuring high statistical support (>95% posterior probability) for a positive association, including *Leucorrhinia rubicunda* and *Coenagrion hastulatum* (Figure 2a). When considering patterns of species richness along gradients of the environmental predictor variables (Ovaskainen and Abrego 2020), the posterior predicted species richness increases most along the fraction of heathland surrounding water bodies, while the opposite holds for agricultural land (Figure S7).

Residual co-distributional associations among species across waterbodies that are not explained by the considered environmental factors are captured by the latent factor component of the model, constituting a constrained, model-based ordination. The model can accommodate both structured (i.e., spatially autocorrelated) and unstructured (i.e., noisy) patterns across space and weights their importance through a spatial signal parameter for each latent dimension. Spatially structured patterns seem to be the most important, with an average posterior median spatial signal of 75.3% across latent dimensions. The species loadings can be used to derive an interspecific association matrix, reflecting which pairs of species tend to co-occur more often than expected by chance alone. Upon comparison to an interspecific association matrix derived from an alternative model without any environmental predictors (i.e., unconstrained ordination), we can evaluate the extent to which the environmental predictors are able to explain apparent (co-)distributional patterns. In our case study, a considerable amount of co-distributional variation remains present (Figure 3). At least some of the patterns seem to be driven by a shared preference for early successional, shallow waterbodies, as indicated by the high correlations among the species Lestes barbarus, Sympetrum fonscolombii, Lestes dryas and Ischnura pumilio (among others).

For each species, pure interannual variation in occupancy patterns is captured by temporal random effects. In analogy with the spatial co-distributional associations, we can derive spatiotemporal co-distributional associations, as the model also accounts for regional differences in interannual trends within the species communities. These results suggest that communities



FIGURE 3 | Spatial interspecific association matrix. Each cell indicates whether a pair of species features a higher (blue-green) or lower (red) probability of co-occurring across sites. The (above-diagonal) upper triangle shows the posterior median associations obtained under the main model, that corresponds to a constrained ordination (i.e., conditioned on the environmental predictor variables). The (below-diagonal) lower triangle shows the posterior median associations obtained under the main model, that corresponds to a constrained ordination (i.e., conditioned on the environmental predictor variables). The (below-diagonal) lower triangle shows the posterior median associations obtained under an alternative model that does not include environmental predictor variables and, hence, constitutes an unconstrained ordination. Species are ordered to highlight the most important axis of variation.

dominated by generalist and thermophilic species (e.g., *Ischnura elegans, Anax imperator* and *Coenagrion scitulum*) display regionally opposite interannual trends compared to species associated with oligotrophic and cooler conditions (e.g., *L. rubicunda and Leucorrhinia dubia*), hinting at alternative stable communities that displace each other (Figure S8).

By modelling the occupancies of species across space and time by means of environmental, interannual, spatial and spatiotemporal components, as well as by accounting for imperfect detection during individual visits and by assuming a MAR missingness mechanism (Bowler et al. 2024), we can produce yearly estimates of the spatial distribution of each individual species across the study area (see Figure S9 for a single example species) and derive yearly trends in the fraction of occupied waterbodies (Figure 4). Upon linearisation of the interannual trends by ordinary least squares, we find high statistical support (>95% posterior probability) for 25 species declining and 14 species increasing in occupancy across years. An exploratory analysis of the relationship between the linearised trend slopes and the six considered traits suggests that species with a low thermal optimum (STI) show particularly stark declines (Figure S10).

By summing posterior occupancy probabilities across individual species, we can visualise how patterns in species richness develop across space and time (Figure 5a). In addition to visualising the averaged species richness across the study area over the study period (Figure 5b), we can also visualise computed species richness slopes for all waterbodies within the study area (Figure 5c). The Campine region (northeastern Flanders) harbours the highest species richness but simultaneously faces the strongest absolute declines, with estimated (posterior median) losses of over three species in many waterbodies over the 15year study period. Conversely, a considerable increase in species richness can be observed in the northern part of the province of East Flanders (northwest of Brussels) (Figure 5c).



FIGURE 4 | Yearly trends in the estimated proportion of occupied waterbodies by each species in the study area. The full line indicates the posterior median trend, while the shaded area indicates 95% credible intervals. Species are ordered alphabetically.

4 | Discussion

Opportunistically collected biodiversity data are notoriously challenging to handle, leaving them underutilised in disciplines such as metacommunity ecology and conservation research. Our approach leverages the vast amount of data to explicitly and flexibly address the complexities underlying the detection process, extracting valuable biological and ecological insights into the distribution of species in time and space. As long as detection/non-detection checklists can reliably be inferred and reasonable assumptions regarding closure among repeated visits can be made (Doser and Stoudt 2024; Hochachka et al. 2023; van Strien et al. 2013), it provides a complementary method to standardised survey data. Through our case study on lentic odonates, we demonstrate how to infer phenology, observer behaviour patterns, environmental associations, trait and phylogenetic influences, interannual trends and spatial and spatiotemporal co-distributional patterns, collectively describing the metacommunity and how it is observed. Furthermore, our simulation results indicate that high-quality insights can also be derived from moderately sized datasets (100 sites visited over 10 years). The wealth of results can serve and benefit a wide range of applications, from fuelling metacommunity ecology research to informing

8 of 13



FIGURE 5 | Patterns of species richness in space and time. (a) Yearly maps of posterior median estimated species richness across all 93,135 known waterbodies in Flanders. For clarity, colour scales have been truncated to the [-5,5] interval, with faint yellow colours corresponding to a richness of 10 (or less) species and purple corresponding to a richness of 25 (or more) species. Maps are shown biennially (every 2years) and presented in a slightly tilted, stacked perspective to conserve space, with the year printed next to each map. (b) Map of the posterior median estimated species richness across all 93,135 known waterbodies in Flanders, averaged over all years. An identical colour scale has been used as for panel (a). (c) Map of the posterior median slope of the species richness throughout the 15-year study period all 93,135 known waterbodies in Flanders. The slopes have been obtained by performing ordinary least squares on the (untransformed) yearly species richness estimates, for each posterior iteration and by subsequently computing the posterior median slope. By using the untransformed yearly species richness estimates, the values can be interpreted as the number of species lost or gained over the 15-year period. Red colours correspond to three (or more) species lost, while blue-green colours correspond to three (or more) species lost, while blue-green colours correspond to three (or more) species lost, while blue-green colours correspond to three (or more) species lost, while blue-green colours correspond to three (or more) species lost, while blue-green colours correspond to three (or more) species lost.

conservation and policymaking, while simultaneously valorising efforts of naturalists.

Our approach provides means for researchers in metacommunity ecology to exploit opportunistically collected data, now by far the most widely available biodiversity data on Earth. It enables analyses at unprecedented taxonomic and spatial scales and offers opportunities to include the temporal dimension, meeting recent calls for an increased emphasis on the role of time in metacommunity ecology (Guzman et al. 2022; Yin and Rudolf 2024). Despite a high degree of standardisation, typically used datasets in metacommunity ecology might be prone to phenological biases, as communities are rarely sampled simultaneously across all sites, let alone during the phenological peaks of each individual species. Our model, on the other hand, spans the entire yearly phenological cycle, fully acknowledging seasonally varying detection probabilities. Our model can easily be extended to capture interannual phenological variation, further improving the estimation of detection probabilities and providing meaningful biological insights on phenological change in the process. Other model developments such as the inclusion of hidden Markov model components, distributed lag structures, spatially varying environmental associations or temporally varying interspecific

associations might allow the detection of more complex (spatio)temporal dynamics in metacommunity structure, such as regime shifts and historical legacy effects (Doser et al. 2024; Fukami 2015; Gasparrini et al. 2010; McClintock et al. 2020).

While properly executed standardised surveys of species (abundances) always constitute the gold standard approach for biodiversity monitoring (Reynolds et al. 2011), our model aids these efforts by providing yearly trend estimates for the entire species community through the efforts of naturalists and citizen scientists, without coercing them into following a restrictive protocol. More specifically, our approach can fill gaps for species, sites or time windows for which rigorously collected data is absent (Bowler et al. 2024). Ongoing efforts in the field of data fusion will facilitate the combined use of both types of monitoring paradigms (Pacifici et al. 2016; Theobald et al. 2015; Zipkin et al. 2023).

Our approach shares some inherent limitations of HMSC and similar joint species distribution models. For instance, its correlative nature does not eliminate the possibility of confounding, and the omission of relevant environmental predictors can impede the interpretation of interspecific associations as biotic interactions (Ovaskainen and Abrego 2020). These limitations may be

further compounded in large-scale applications like ours, where the choice of environmental predictors is constrained by their availability (e.g., land cover data). In our case study, the inclusion of more detailed local environmental predictors (e.g., water physicochemical variables) was rendered impossible due to the spatial resolution, but it could have further improved our understanding of the metacommunity. Further model extensions using Bayesian imputation techniques (Gelman et al. 2014) offer perspectives to utilise partially available physicochemical data on a fraction of waterbodies, thereby exploiting species as bioindicators, as well as statistical relationships between local physicochemical variables and land cover. Likewise, the availability of detection metadata is often limited in opportunistically collected biodiversity datasets. For instance, the use of list length in our application might be a suboptimal proxy for search effort as it is sensitive to species richness patterns through space and time. Biodiversity portals such as Observation.org now enable observers to record their GPS tracks during visits, which could offer substantial benefits for the analysis of opportunistically collected datasets. An additional limitation arises from acknowledging imperfect detection, as the true absence of a species cannot be established with certainty, complicating the straightforward assessment of predictive performance. A final limitation of our approach is that it is restricted to inferring occupancy, whereas incorporating species abundances could further enhance the understanding of metacommunities.

Since imperfect and heterogeneous detection is a nearubiquitous phenomenon in biology, our approach can cater applications beyond opportunistically sampled biodiversity data in the strict sense. For instance, Fountain-Jones et al. (2024) recently outlined the exciting opportunities that both joint species distribution models and site-occupancy models could offer for the analysis of microbiomes, and Allaband et al. (2024) present compelling evidence that the time of sample collection is critical for the replicability of microbiome analyses, with the effects of time exceeding those of experimental interventions, leading to altered conclusions. Our approach offers a one-step solution, as diurnal patterns in detection can be accounted for in the same way as phenological patterns. Other potential applications include eDNA sampling and camera trapping.

We hope the present framework provides a venue for further methodological developments in joint species distribution modelling while accounting for imperfect detection, and that its application to the large amount of available biodiversity data will increasingly contribute to our understanding of the processes shaping the assembly of species across time and space.

Author Contributions

M.F., R.W., M.H. and L.D.M. conceived the initial idea; G.D.K., R.S., P.L., P.V. and T.N. contributed substantially to further conceptualisation; M.F., R.W. and T.N. designed the methodology; M.F. and R.W. performed the statistical analysis and led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed significantly to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Data Availability Statement

Fully documented Stan code and a complete R-pipeline for data preparation, model running, results extraction and visualisation are available on GitHub: https://github.com/mfajgenblat/opportunisticJSDM. Through these scripts, interested readers can replicate analyses and apply the model to their own datasets.

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Supporting Information

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section.