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Title: Transferability of ecological forecasting models to novel biotic conditions in a long-term

experimental study

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ABSTRACT

Ecological forecasting models play an increasingly important role for managing natural

resources and assessing our fundamental knowledge of processes driving ecological dynamics.

The relevance of these models, however, may depend on their transferability to novel conditions

as global environmental change pushes ecosystems beyond their historical conditions. Because

species interactions can alter resource use, timing of reproduction, and other aspects of a species'

realized niche, changes in biotic conditions, which can arise from community reorganization

events in response to environmental change, have the potential to impact model transferability.

Using a long-term experiment on desert rodents, we assessed model transferability under novel

biotic conditions to better understand the limitations of ecological forecasts. We show that

ecological forecasts can be less accurate when the models generating them are transferred to

novel biotic conditions, and that the extent of model transferability can depend on the species

being forecast. We also demonstrate the importance of incorporating uncertainty in forecast

evaluation with transferred models generating less accurate and more uncertain forecasts. These

results also suggest that how a species perceives its competitive landscape can influence model

transferability, and that when uncertainties are properly accounted for, transferred models may

still be appropriate for decision making. Assessing the extent of the transferability of forecasting

models is a crucial step to increase the relevance of ecological forecasts in a changing world.

INTRODUCTION

Ecological forecasts - predictions for the future state of ecosystems - are increasingly

important for understanding, managing, and conserving natural and managed systems (Clark et

al., 2001; Dietze et al., 2018; Bodner et al., 2021; Lewis et al., 2023). Most ecological forecasts

are based on models that are fit to the dynamics of the ecosystem being studied. Making

forecasts from these models assumes that the general behavior of the ecosystem will remain the

same in the future. With climate change, land use change, and the spread of invasive species,

however many ecosystems will be experiencing environmental shifts making it unclear how

forecasting models will perform as altered conditions take effect (Yates et al. 2018). Deploying

models in novel conditions is also important in ecology because data limitations often require us

to use data and models developed in one ecosystem to develop models for less well-studied

ecosystems (e.g., Fitzpatrick and Hargrove 2009, McCune 2016). Evaluating forecasting models

in novel conditions can also provide an assessment of the generality of ecological theory (Lewis

et al. 2023), strengthening our overall knowledge of how ecological systems operate. Therefore,

a crucial step for ecological forecasting, and ecology more broadly, is understanding how well

models, and predictions from those models, perform under conditions that differ from those used

for model development (Werkowska et al. 2017; Yates et al., 2018; Charney et al. 2021; Lewis et

al., 2023).

The effectiveness of models for making predictions under novel conditions is known as

model transferability (Randin et al. 2006). In ecology, novel conditions can result from

differences in abiotic conditions, the biotic context (e.g., the presence or abundance of other

species), or both. Studies of model transfer are limited in ecological forecasting (Lewis et al.

2023), but initial analyses indicate that model transferability is negatively influenced by model

complexity (with more complex models tending to generalize less successfully than simpler

models; Wenger and Olden 2012, Liu et al. 2020, Lewis et al. 2023), and the degree of

ecological novelty (with larger differences in environmental conditions resulting in poorer

transfer; Sequeira et al 2018, Lewis et al. 2023). While analyses related to ecological novelty

often focus on abiotic conditions or coarse biotic conditions such as habitat structure (e.g.,

Spence and Tingley 2020, Qiao et al 2019, Regos et al 2019), altered biotic conditions are also a

potential concern for model transferability. Changes in the biotic conditions can fundamentally

alter the observed dynamics between a species and their resources and environment (Casini et al.

2009, Tingley et al. 2014). For example, the loss of a key species may impact the surrounding

habitat and therefore the abundance of other species (Power et al. 1996, Goheen et al. 2018), the

loss of predators or competitors may relieve biotic pressures on species allowing them to

increase in abundance (e.g., Holt et al. 2008, Trewby et al 2007, Leal et al 1998), and the arrival

of invasive species may dramatically depress abundances through predation and competition that

the resident species are not adapted to deal with (Wiles et al. 2003, Gallardo et al 2016). Shifts in

the strength and number of species interactions can also impact the skill of forecasts (Daugaard

et al. 2022). Thus, changes in biotic conditions can potentially alter the transferability of

forecasting models even if other environmental conditions remain unchanged. Because many

environmental issues involve both altered abiotic and biotic conditions (e.g., climate-induced

range shifts, colonization of invasive species, global extinctions), understanding the impact of

altered biotic conditions on forecasts is critical for understanding the potential limitations of

model transferability for ecological forecasting.

Little is known about the impact of altered biotic conditions on model transferability in

forecasting because suitable data is limited (Paniw et al 2023). Community change - caused by

extinction, colonization, or shifts in dominance - generally co-occurs with larger-scale changes in

abiotic environment, habitat structure, or other landscape-level alterations. Thus, disentangling

the effects of community change on model transferability from other environmental changes

requires experimental manipulations that selectively manipulate species to generate different

biotic communities experiencing the same general environment. Most experiments are short-

term, however, lasting on average one to three years (Field et al. 2007, Magnusson 1990), which

reduces the data available to both fit a model and test the model outcomes, especially if assessing

performance under natural environmental variation is a goal. Therefore, to rigorously assess the

impact of changing biotic composition on model transferability and forecast performance, long-

term experimental manipulations are required.

Here, we assess model transferability under novel biotic conditions using a long-term

experiment on desert rodents in the southwestern US. For over 40 years, the Portal Project has

collected monthly data on natural and experimentally manipulated rodent communities all

experiencing the same abiotic environment. In this experiment a competitively dominant genus,

Dipodomys spp. (kangaroo rats), has been excluded resulting in significant impacts on other

species in the system (Brown 1998, Bledsoe and Ernest 2019, Diaz and Ernest 2022). Using this

unique dataset, we investigate how biotic context influences forecast model parameters and

prediction accuracy when models fit under one set of biotic conditions are used to forecast under

a novel biotic regime. Assessing forecast accuracy under novel biotic conditions can help us

better understand the limitations of ecological forecasting and draw more accurate inferences

about population dynamics under climate change.

METHODS

Rodent data

To examine whether shifting biotic conditions can impact model transferability, we

obtained data on rodent population dynamics from a long-term monitoring program in the

Chihuahuan Desert near Portal, Arizona (Brown 1998, Ernest et al. 2018). The 20-ha study site

consists of 24 50 m x 50 m plots, each enclosed with a 50 cm fence with different sized gates to

manipulate rodent species access. Plots are randomly assigned to three levels of rodent

community manipulation: controls (large gates, all rodents have full access to plots), kangaroo

rat removals (small gates, behaviorally dominant seedeaters, *Dipodomys* spp., are excluded), and

total rodent removals (no gates, all rodents excluded but occasional transient individuals occur).

The rodent communities in each plot are censused monthly around the new moon using 49

Sherman traps, and basic information is collected for all trapped rodents. Further details about

the experimental setup and sampling methods are discussed elsewhere (Ernest et al. 2016, Ernest

et al. 2018). In this study, we only used data on the communities found in long-term (i.e.,

treatments maintained across all years) controls (plots 4, 11, 14, 17) and kangaroo rat removal

(plots 3, 15, 19, 21). Data were obtained using the 'portalr' package (Christensen et al. 2019) and

are also archived on Zenodo (10.5281/zenodo.8436468).

We used count data from long-term control and *Dipodomys* removal plots for the desert

pocket mouse (*C. penicillatus*) and Bailey's pocket mouse (*C. baileyi*). We selected these species

because there were extended time periods when they were relatively abundant in both control

and kangaroo rat removal plots (i.e., fewer zeros which can complicate modeling) and both

species respond strongly to the experimental removal of *Dipodomys* (Bledsoe and Ernest 2019,

Diaz and Ernest 2022). Previous modeling efforts (Christensen et al. 2018) found five different

community regimes at the site, so we selected the two regimes where each non-*Dipodomys*

species was highly abundant. Regime transitions are probabilistic, so we used the edge of the

range for the transition to ensure that the data was entirely within the regime and did not include

transitions between the regimes. Continued trapping at the site suggests that the 2010-2015

regime has continued and so we extended this time period to the end of 2019, shortly before an

extensive gap in data collection due to the COVID-19 pandemic. This resulted in data for *C.*

baileyi spanning from December 1999 to June 2009 (new moon number 278-396) and for *C.*

penicillatus from September 2010 to December 2019 (new moon number 411-526). By selecting

the dominant species during periods of stability in the community, the analysis was focused on

the influence of the experimental manipulation of biotic conditions on forecast model transfer.

Environmental covariates data

We used environmental covariates that are thought to be important drivers of ecological

processes in this desert ecosystem. We obtained site-level monthly data on mean air temperature

(°C) and cumulative precipitation (millimeters) that fell during warm or cool months (calculated

as the sum of precipitation that fell on days when minimum temperature was > or < 4 °C)

through the 'portalr' package (Christensen et al. 2019). This data is collected by an on-site

weather station and any gaps are filled with modeled data from nearby regional weather stations

(Ernest et al. 2018). Mean air temperature is a strong driver of seasonal abundance of *C.*

penicillatus, and potentially other smaller rodent species, as it influences foraging effort and

seasonal activity (i.e., entering bouts of torpor or seasonal dormancy; Reynolds and Haskell,

1949, Meyer and Valone 1999). We used a one-month lag to capture the time it takes for

individuals to behaviorally respond to changing temperature. We used cumulative precipitation

over the preceding 365-day as a covariate because the size of granivore populations responds to

precipitation-related changes in annual seed production over the last year, with little carryover to

subsequent years (Brown et al. 1979, Brown and Heske 1990). In this ecosystem, winter and

summer precipitation have different influences on plant growth and seed production, with cool

precipitation being important for the winter annual plant community and shrub growth and

establishment, and warm precipitation being important for the summer annual plant community

and the perennial plant community (for information on the two mostly distinct annual plant

communities at the site, see Ernest et al. 2018).

Modeling Approach

To assess how well forecasting models can transfer to different biotic conditions, we fit

models separately to the control plots (where kangaroo rats are present) and the *Dipodomys*

removal plots (where kangaroo rats are absent). We fit these treatment-specific models for each

species to allow us to compare the parameters of the models from the different treatments and

assess how well the models from one treatment could predict abundances on the other treatment.

The general model structure was an autoregressive model with 1 time-step and 1-year lags

plus the three environmental covariates. Each time-series model had the form:

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$$Z_t \sim NegBin \left(\lambda_t , \phi \right) \qquad \text{(Eqn. 1)}$$

$\lambda_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 log(Z_{t-1} + 1) + \beta_2 log(Z_{t-12} + 1) + \eta_1 T_{t-1} + \eta_2 \sum_{i=t-12}^{t} P_{w,i} +$

$\eta_3 \sum_{i=t-12}^{t} P_{c,i}$ (Eqn. 2)

where Z_t, the species-specific count at time *t* is drawn from a negative binomial distribution with

parameters λ_t (the conditional mean of abundance at time *t*) and ϕ (overdispersion). The

conditional mean was modeled as a function of an intercept (β_0), autoregressive terms for the

abundance of the previous observation ($\beta_1 log(Z_{t-1} + 1)$) and the abundance at the same time

in the previous year $\beta_2 log(Z_{t-12} + 1)$, i.e., 12 time steps), linear terms for the effects of mean

temperature of the previous month ($\eta_1 T_{t-1}$) and the annual cumulative values of warm

($\eta_2 \sum_{i=t-12}^{t} P_{w,i}$) and cold ($\eta_3 \sum_{i=t-12}^{t} P_{c,i}$) precipitation. The inclusion of weather data up to

time *t* is realistic in the forecasting context of this system since the weather data is collected in

real-time and automatically integrated into the dataset (White et al. 2019) making it available for

predictions for time *t*. Models were implemented in a frequentist framework using the 'tscount'

package (Liboschik et al. 2017) in R version 4.1.1 (R Core Team, 2021). We chose to only

include time-series terms based on the observed counts (excluding terms based on the

conditional mean) to allow models to be effectively transferred. This means that "internal" and

"external" forms of the model (see Liboschik et al. 2017) are the same.

This modeling approach requires consistently sampled data (Liboschik et al. 2017), so

values for the small number of missing samples (n = 9/116 (7.8%) for *C. penicillatus* and n =

4/119 (3.4%) for *C. baileyi*) were imputed using linear interpolation. Because we trap as close as

possible to the new moon (Ernest et al. 2018) the annual periodicity of sampling is not exactly 12

periods. There are on average 12.37 new moons/year. Therefore, we also fit the models using a

13 period lag for comparison. The results were qualitatively similar (Appendix S2). Code used to

conduct analyses is archived on Zenodo (10.5281/zenodo.10063826).

To examine the relative importance of biotic conditions in driving variation in model

parameters across the time-series, sequential model fitting with rolling origins was performed to

generate a number of different forecasting models each with five years of training data (Simonis

et al. 2021). Models were fit separately for data on C. *penicillatus* and *C. baileyi* in control and

removal plots. We used the 'rsample' package (Frick et al. 2022) to conduct rolling origin

modeling on each dataset, with 60 data points (12 observations/year for 5 years) used for model

training and 12 data points (12 observations/year for 1 year) for model evaluation. This produced

45 sets of overlapping models and evaluations for C. *penicillatus* and 48 sets for *C. baileyi*.

Comparing model parameters

We compared the coefficients from each model for each treatment. We primarily focused on the actual parameter values by quantifying the degree of overlap in the probability distribution functions of each parameter. We obtained parameter values from each model and calculated the integral of the minimum between their probability densities using the overlap function in the 'overlapping' package (Pastore et al. 2022). The resulting overlap index is on a scale from 0 to 1, with 0 indicating distinct distributions of parameters values indicating a strong change and 1 indicating completely overlapping distributions indicating no change (Pastore et al. 2022). This analysis combines variation between the original non-transferred and transferred models for a single origin with variation within models among origins, providing perspective on whether the influence of biotic conditions is sufficiently strong to be observable even when temporal variation in parameter estimates is present. To also focus directly on the shift in parameter values in response to the experimental manipulation of biotic context, controlling for temporal variation in parameter estimates, we characterized the proportion of pairwise changes for each origin by calculating the difference in parameter estimates from each treatment (Appendix S1 Table 1).

We checked to make sure that the interpretability of the parameters associated with individual environmental covariates was not unduly influenced by collinearity by performing pairwise correlation and covariance assessments among the covariates and their parameters. Environmental covariates used in the models had low correlations and the covariances and correlation values of their coefficients were low (Appendix S1).

Model transfer

To assess model transferability to different biotic contexts, we generated forecasts for both

the treatment data to which the model was fit (non-transferred model) and to the data for the

other treatment (transferred model). Forecasts from transferred models (e.g., model parameters

for the removal model used to predict counts in the control plots) were made using the initial

conditions from time-series being forecast, and the model parameters for the data the model was

trained on. Similar steps were followed to generate forecasts for the non-transferred model

(where data and model were matched; e.g., control model used to predict control data).

Forecasting evaluation

We evaluated the models from each rolling origin using end-sample evaluation -

forecasting past the end of the training time-series and evaluating on the observed test data

(Simonis et al. 2021). We made forecasts for three-time horizons (1-step, approximately 1

month; 6-steps, approximately half a year; and 12-steps, approximately 1 year) into the future for

each rolling origin. The test data for each model were the subsequent 12 observations following

each set of training data (following White et al. 2019). We assessed accuracy of point forecasts

using root mean squared error (RMSE) and forecast uncertainty using Brier score, which is a

proper scoring rule that extends the mean squared error to distributional forecasts (Simonis et al.

2021). For each species non-transferred and transferred model RMSE values and Brier scores

were calculated for each rolling origin model at each forecast horizon. We then calculated the

difference between the pairs of RMSE values and Brier scores from each origin for the non-

transferred and transferred models to assess the effect of novel biotic conditions in driving

forecast predictability. Negative values for RMSE and Brier score differences indicate better

forecast performance from the non-transferred model, and positive values indicate better forecast

performance from the model transferred to the new biotic conditions.

RESULTS

Model parameter comparison

The two species differed in whether their model parameters were influenced by the biotic

context. For *C. penicillatus*, the parameter estimates generally did not differ significantly for

models fit to data on control and removal plots, indicating similar associations between

abundances and environmental variables in both plot types (Fig 2). This is indicated by relatively

high overlap in the distributions of most of the parameters (range of overlap coefficient:

0.83,0.90; Fig. 2). Pairwise comparisons of model parameters from the same origin show that

most parameters did not shift in a consistent direction (Appendix S1 Table 1). In contrast, *C.*

baileyi parameter estimates tended to differ between models fit to data on control and removal

plots, with parameter estimates for the environmental covariates showing relatively low overlap

(range of overlap coefficient: 0.15-0.56). Autoregressive terms, on the other hand, exhibited

more overlap (AR $(1) = 0.69$, AR $(12) = 0.67$; Fig. 2). *C. baileyi* also exhibited high proportions

of pairwise shifts in one direction for all three environmental variables and the intercept

(Appendix S1 Table 1). In combination this suggests that the form of the forecasting model is

dependent on the biotic context for this species.

Model transferability under novel biotic conditions

The two species also differed in how well transferred models performed at forecasting

compared to the non-transferred models. For *C. penicillatus*, the transferred models performed

similarly to the non-transferred models on both control and removal plot data (Figs. 3 and 4).

Both transferred and non-transferred models showed a consistent pattern of increasing prediction

error with increasing forecast horizon length for both RMSE and Brier score (Fig. 4). In contrast,

for *C. baileyi,* the transferred models generally performed less well than the non-transferred

models when making forecasts. Point forecast (RMSE) scores showed a clear pattern of better

performance for the non-transferred models for both control and removal data (Figs. 3 and 4).

Brier scores were also generally better for the non-transferred model, particularly on the removal

plots. However, the Brier score result was less strong when evaluating forecasts made for the

control data. While the majority of origins showed worse forecasts for the transferred model, the

mode of the difference between the original and transferred model was near zero for all forecast

horizons (Fig. 4). This suggests that there was higher uncertainty in the predictions from the

models transferred from the removal plots, which counteracted the less accurate predictions from

those models (as indicated by RMSE), making the transferred model on the controls less

confident in the less accurate predictions. Finally, similar to the *C. penicillatus* models, both

models fit to *C. baileyi* data exhibited decreasing model performance at increasing forecast

horizons (Fig. 4).

DISCUSSION

Ecological forecasts can be less accurate when models are transferred to novel biotic

contexts. In this study, we observed this effect even though the long-term experimental nature of

the Portal Project meant that plots with different species compositions were intermingled and

there was no difference in the environmental conditions between the different biotic contexts.

Decreased performance from models transferred to novel biotic conditions, however, depended

on the species being forecast, with *C. baileyi* exhibiting significant shifts in both model

parameters and forecast abundances, but *C. penicillatus* showing little change in either.

This highlights the need to account for biotic interactions in forecasting models,and the need to

understand when and why changes in the biotic context impact model transferability.

We expect changes in the biotic context to impact forecasting models if shifts in the

biotic context involve species with strong influences on the species being forecast. *C. baileyi*,

which colonized the site in 1995, increased in abundance when *Dipodomys* were experimentally

removed, demonstrating strong competitive impacts by *Dipodomys* (Ernest and Brown 2001*,*

Thibault et al 2010, Bledsoe and Ernest 2019*).* Our forecast models reflect this competitive

impact with higher intercepts for the removal models when compared to the controls, which

causes some of the divergence in forecasts when models are transferred. While *C. baileyi* is

competitively inferior to *Dipodomys*, it is larger and competitively dominant over its congener *C.*

penicillatus. With the removal of *Dipodomys*, *C. baileyi* shifts its stature in the community to

that of the competitive dominant, which increases not only its abundance but could allow *C.*

baileyi to exploit regions of its fundamental niche that overlap with *Dipodomys* (Thibault et al

2010, Diaz and Ernest 2022). A shift in the realized niche could explain differences in

environmental parameters between control and removal plots as *C. baileyi* is no longer

constrained by competition and can react more directly to the environmental drivers. The dual

effect of altered competition on the intercept and environmental parameters then causes the

transferred models to perform poorly (Fig. 2).

Changes in biotic context do not always alter competitive hierarchies, however. Like *C.*

baileyi, *C. penicillatus* increases in abundance when *Dipodomys* spp. are removed, indicating a

strong competitive interaction between these species (Valone and Brown 1995, Bledsoe and

Ernest 2019, Diaz and Ernest 2022). With the establishment of *C. baileyi* on removal plots,

however, the competitive pressures on *Dipodomys* removal plots increased. In response, *C.*

penicillatus decreased their residency in the previously preferred plot (i.e., removals) and

increased their probability of dispersing to nearby control plots (Bledsoe and Ernest 2019).

Perhaps due to behavioral interactions between these territorial species, the less dominant *C.*

penicillatus exhibited shifts in abundance between plots even when *C. baileyi* abundances

decreased in 2010 (Bledsoe and Ernest 2019, Christensen et al 2019). Thus, *C. penicillatus* may

perceive competition with its close congener as being a similar competitive environment to plots

containing *Dipodomys* spp. This could explain the similarities in both the intercepts and the

environmental parameters because competitive pressures are never alleviated and *C. penicillatus*

has little opportunity to exploit unexpressed areas of its fundamental niche. Species with many

weak interactions seem to be more forecastable (Daugaard et al. 2022) as changes in a single

competitor in the network are unlikely to result in a large shift in the expressed niche of the focal

species being forecast. The fact that *C. penicillatus* does not exhibit significantly different

dynamics despite the removal of *Dipodomys* highlights the challenges of understanding when

biotic context will influence ecological forecasting due to complex species networks in nature.

Declines in the accuracy of forecasts with increasing forecast horizon exhibited an

interesting interaction with model transfer to novel biotic contexts. Decreasing forecast

performance as forecasts are made further into the future is a common pattern in ecological

forecasts (Dietze et al. 2018, Harris et al. 2018) that is demonstrated by both *C. baileyi* and *C.*

penicillatus models. However, transferred models for *C. baileyi* decrease in forecast accuracy

more rapidly with the forecast horizon (as indicated by increasing deviations between the

original and transferred models, Fig. 3). At short timescales, the strong short-term autoregressive

components in the models allow good predictions even when transferring the model, but as the

forecast horizon increases the differences in other model parameters become more prevalent

leading to greater decay in accuracy for the transferred models (Fig. 1). This interaction suggests

that estimates of decay in forecast accuracy may be overly optimistic if the composition of the

community is also shifting at the timescales of the forecasts. This lends experimental support to

the idea that estimates of model transferability need to consider multiple aspects of transfer

(Gavish et al. 2017), in this case including both transfer to novel biotic context and transfer

outside of the historical window used for fitting the models.

Differences between our two metrics for assessing forecast performance (RMSE and

Brier score) demonstrate the importance of incorporating uncertainty in forecast evaluation and

show an interesting interaction between uncertainty and model transfer to novel biotic contexts.

The RMSE, which only evaluates point estimates (not uncertainty), was worse for transferred *C.*

baileyi models on both control and removal plots, even at short horizons. The Brier score, which

integrates model uncertainty, exhibited a similar pattern for the removal plot data, but showed

reduced responses to model transfer on the control plots (Fig. 3). This difference between the

Brier score and RMSE response suggests that while the predictions from the transferred removal

models are less accurate, the uncertainty in those predictions is also higher, so the model is less

confident in the less accurate predictions. Potentially, models fit to the removals exhibit better

uncertainty under model transfer because these models are exposed to a wider range of variation

in abundance than models fit to the control plots. Due to the competitive release from *Dipodomys*

spp., *C. baileyi* abundances are typically higher and more variable in removal plots. This wider

range of variation is likely due to reduced constraints on population growth during good years

and potentially a shift in response to environmental drivers. If this increased variation is not fully

captured by the models' dynamics it will result in increased error terms and uncertainty, thus

resulting in predictions that are penalized less by evaluation metrics that include uncertainty.

This complex interaction between model transfer, uncertainty, and experimental treatment

suggests that it is important to incorporate uncertainty into the assessment of model

transferability because it can provide insights that are different from point estimates alone. It also

shows that, in some cases, transferred models may be appropriate for decision making even if

they make less accurate point forecasts, as long as the decision making properly incorporates

uncertainty. In general, evaluating uncertainty - either by using metrics that include it or by

measuring model transferability and associated forecast uncertainties - will be important for

assessing how effectively models can be transferred and their utility for implementing

conservation strategies on species or locations with limited data availability (Houlahan et al.

2017, Yates et al. 2018).

In this study, we focused on single species models to demonstrate and assess model

transferability under varying biotic conditions. Single species models are common in ecological

modeling, forecasting, and management, but because they do not attempt to model species

interactions these models are likely to be particularly susceptible to changes in the biotic context.

Multivariate community models, which can include species interactions, have the potential to

provide improved transfer to novel biotic conditions by incorporating information on processes

such as competition. For example, for the control plots this type of model could include the

interactions between *C. baileyi* and *Dipodomys* species, potentially allowing it to transfer more

effectively to the removal plots where *Dipodomys* abundance would influence predictions as an

observed value at or near zero. The use of these types of models in dynamic ecological

forecasting remains uncommon since the number of ecosystems with sufficiently long time-

series on all of the key species in the community is limited. Since explicitly modeling

interactions is important for modeling population dynamics (e.g., Lima et al. 2008), species

distributions (e.g., Pollock et al. 2014), and model transferability, further exploration of

multivariate community predictions will be an important next step for ecological forecasting.

We have shown that changes in the presence of other species can impact both the

parameters of ecological forecasting models and their predictions. This suggests that caution will

be necessary when making forecasts in new systems or over long enough periods of time that the

composition of other species in the community undergoes change. This is important because the

development of ecological forecasting models is often limited by data availability, making the

ability to transfer models to new scenarios important (Houlahan et al. 2017, Yates et al. 2018,

Lewis et al. 2023) Therefore models that better represent the complex dynamics of biological

interactions, and effectively predict beyond the conditions they were built on, are needed in an

era of fast-paced environmental change (Yates et al. 2018). Developing such transferable

models, in terms of space, time, and biotic context, and effectively communicating the

uncertainties in their predictions, are important endeavors to facilitate the expanded development

and use of ecological forecasts (Houlahan et al. 2017, Yates et al. 2018).

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Time-series data on *Dipodomys* spp. (blue lines), *Chaetodipus baileyi* (red lines), and

C. penicillatus (green lines) on control plots (top panel) and removal plots (bottom panel) in a

long-term experiment near Portal, AZ. The two species-specific periods used for modeling and

forecasting *Chaetodipus* spp. are indicated by brackets.

Figure 2. Comparison of parameter values obtained from models fit to data on *C. penicillatus*

(top row) and *C. baileyi* (bottom row) on control plots (green densities) and removal plots (grey

densities).

Figure 3. Predictions for *C. penicillatus* (top two plots) and *C. baileyi* (bottom two plots)

abundances from models fit to non-transferred (blue lines) and transferred (red lines) data.

Figure 4. Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE, top plots) and Brier score (bottom plots) of non-

transferred and transferred models of *C. penicillatus* (left plots) and *C. baileyi* (right plots) on

control (green) and removal plots (grey) at different forecast horizons.

FIGURES

Figure 1.

Figure 2.

Figure 3.

Figure 4.