

Supplementary Information for *Coexistence barriers confine the poleward range of a globally-distributed plant*

David W. Armitage*
Department of BioSciences
Rice University
Houston, TX 77005

Stuart E. Jones
Department of Biological Sciences
University of Notre Dame
Notre Dame, IN 56556

1 Study Species

2 The floating aquatic duckweeds *Spirodela polyrhiza* and *Lemna minor* are some of the smallest and most
3 widely-distributed plants on earth, occupying all continents except Antarctica [1]. The species have similar
4 habitat preferences and frequently co-occur at both local (Fig. S1) and regional (Fig. S2) scales. While the
5 ranges of these species show significant overlap, lake surveys have revealed that *L. minor* is the more abundant
6 taxon in mixed *Spirodela-Lemna* communities. When present, *S. polyrhiza* is almost always encountered
7 within larger crops of *L. minor* or the minute duckweed *Wolffia sp.*, whereas *L. minor* is more frequently
8 encountered in dense monocultures [2]. Dispersal occurs primarily via aquatic birds [3], though the poleward
9 edges of both species' ranges terminate short of the dispersal capabilities of migratory waterfowl and
10 availability of freshwater habitats. The species exhibit different responses to cold temperatures, with *S.*
11 *polyrhiza* producing dormant turion fronds and *L. minor* remaining viable as sunken vegetative fronds [4].
12 Further, *S. polyrhiza* grows slightly better at higher temperatures, possibly explaining its higher prevalence
13 in the tropics than *L. minor*, which grow better in cooler climates [1, 2] (Fig. S3A).

14 Estimating model parameters

15 We measured low-density growth rates of *S. polyrhiza* and *L. minor* in temperature-controlled growth cham-
16 bers as previously described [2]. Briefly, axenic duckweed strains were grown in 100 mL flasks containing
17 a chemically-defined medium approximating the natural mesotrophic pond waters from which they were
18 collected [5]. Growth assays were carried out for 28 days at static temperatures (T) ranging from 3°C
19 to 37°C. Temperature-dependent low-density growth rates, $\mu_j(T)$ (day^{-1}), were measured from replicated
20 monocultures inoculated with initial densities of 3 to 5 vegetative fronds. Growth at these densities was
21 assumed exponential and estimated using the formula $\mu = [\log(N_t/N_0)]t^{-1}$. These values were used to fit
22 thermal growth curves for each species, the best-fitting of which is shown as eq. 2 [6] (Fig. S3). Mortality,
23 m_j , was estimated from replicated monocultures of 250 individual fronds of the same age grown at 18, 28,
24 23, and 33°C. After comparing the results of various intercept-only, linear, and unimodal functions fit to
25 these rates, we concluded that there were no systematic differences in mortality rates over this temperature
26 gradient and so mean values were taken from intercept-only regression coefficients (Fig. S3). Inter- and
27 intraspecific competitive responses, α_{jk} , were empirically estimated from reductions in a species' growth
28 rate across conspecific or heterospecific densities ranging from 0 to >1000 individuals at 12 and 28°C [7]
29 (Fig. S3). Since competition was observed to weaken at lower temperatures, we modeled α_{jk} as a linear
30 function of temperature (T) such that $\alpha_{jk}(T) = \max[0, \alpha'_{jk} + \psi_{jk}(T - 20)]$, where α'_{jk} is the competition
31 coefficient at 20 °C, and ψ_{jk} is a positive parameter measuring the change in competition with temperature.
32 Turion production and germination functions (eqs. 4 & 5) were fitted using values from the literature [4, 5].
33 All parameter values are shown in table S1.

34 Following model selection, our final model (eq. 1 in the main text) was able to predict the observed *per*
35 *capita* growth rates of both *S. polyrhiza* and *L. minor* with good accuracy across a range of temperatures
36 (predicted - observed $R^2 = 0.79, 0.80$, for each species, respectively) (Fig. S4) [2]. We also verified that
37 our competition model made realistic predictions of relative abundances of duckweeds in natural settings.
38 To do this, we compared invasion models fit to a real 10-year temperature time series from the South
39 Bend International Airport (SBN, Indiana, USA; 41.7077°N, 86.3158°W) to the relative abundances of *L.*
40 *minor* and *S. polyrhiza* surveyed in 23 nearby ponds (Fig. S5). Model predictions were also compared to
41 MaxEnt occurrence records (detailed below) using the mutual information criterion [8]. This metric measures

*Corresponding author: dave.armitage@gmail.com

42 the information shared between a random binary variable of 'true' presence/background records (Y) and a
 43 random variable of binary (presence/absence) classification outcomes from our competition and competition-
 44 free mechanistic niche models, \hat{Y} . The mutual information shared between these variables, $I(Y, \hat{Y})$ is the
 45 reduction of uncertainty in one variable (here, Y), given a second (here, \hat{Y}). This is calculated as a difference
 46 in entropies, H , such that

$$I(Y, \hat{Y}) = H(Y) - H(Y|\hat{Y}) \quad (\text{S1})$$

47 With a standard binary confusion matrix, the equation for mutual information can be written following [9]:

$$I(Y, \hat{Y}) = \log_2(n) + \frac{\mathbf{c}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{c}}{n} \quad (\text{S2})$$

48 where n is the total count of observations (both presence and randomly-selected background points), \mathbf{c} is a
 49 column vector with entries of 1, and \mathbf{A} is a matrix comprised of confusion matrix elements as follows:

$$\mathbf{A} = \log_2 \left[\begin{pmatrix} tn & fn \\ fp & tp \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} n^+ \hat{n}^- & n^+ \hat{n}^- \\ n^- \hat{n}^+ & n^+ \hat{n}^- \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \right], \quad (\text{S3})$$

50 where tn , tp , fn , and fp are the true negative, true positive, false negative and false positive counts,
 51 respectively. Likewise, n^+ and n^- are the counts of overall positive and negative (here, background) points,
 52 while \hat{n}^+ , \hat{n}^- are the counts of predicted positives and negatives from each model at a particular threshold
 53 of \bar{r} . For models with and without competition, mutual information was calculated over a range of \bar{r} values
 54 corresponding to a binary presence/absence criterion, with the expectation that the best-fitting model's
 55 mutual information will be greatest at or near the biologically-meaningful cutoff of $\bar{r} = 0$. Note that since
 56 true absences are unavailable, our 'negative' classifications actually represent background points (the same
 57 as those used in our MaxEnt models) that may or may not actually contain our plants. Despite this caveat,
 58 since both our mechanistic models are being compared over the same presence/background points and spatial
 59 extents, we can still compare mutual information metrics between models.

60 Detailed Methods for MaxEnt Ecological Niche Models

61 Spatial point occurrence records for each species were downloaded using the *rgbif* package [10]. This pack-
 62 age facilitates remotely accessing data from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility database (GBIF;
 63 <http://gbif.org>; accessed February 2019) using the R language [11]. After downloading all georeferenced
 64 records for *Lemna minor* (193,395 records, doi:10.15468/dl.wpisn8) and *Spirodela polyrhiza* (83,531 records;
 65 doi:10.15468/dl.2pixjr). We cleaned the data using the R package *CoordinateCleaner* [12], which flags and
 66 removes problematic entries. Our specific omission criteria included:

- 67 1. Points falling within a 10 km radius of a country's capital city.
- 68 2. Points falling within a 1 km radius of a country's centroid coordinate.
- 69 3. Points possessing identical longitude and latitude values.
- 70 4. Points falling within a 1° radius of the GBIF headquarters in Copenhagen, Denmark.
- 71 5. Points falling within a 1 km radius of biodiversity institutions such as herbaria.
- 72 6. Points determined to be in the ocean.
- 73 7. Points having at least one coordinate exactly equal to zero degrees.
- 74 8. Points collected prior to 1900.
- 75 9. Points outside of the study regions of interest (Mexico, USA, Canada, United Kingdom, Ireland,
 76 and northern continental Europe). Note that we also retained all global records to create fig. 4 in
 77 the main text.

78 We amended these occurrence records with gridded survey records from the UK and Ireland provided
 79 by the Botanical Society of Britain and Ireland (BSBI; ver. February 2019) [13]. Point locations for these
 80 data represent the centroids of 10 km² grid cells in which a species was observed. Despite the gridded nature
 81 of these observations, the sampling scheme is far more thorough than data obtained through GBIF, and are
 82 trusted to represent the true spatial extent of the study species across the UK and Ireland.

83 Because statistical niche models can be sensitive to the effects of spatially-clustered and duplicated
84 occurrence records [14], we randomly sampled one individual record falling within cells arranged in a gridded
85 overlay. For our regional occurrence datasets, the cell sizes were $1.3^\circ \times 1.3^\circ$, $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$, and $0.3^\circ \times 0.3^\circ$ for the N.
86 America, N. EU, and UK datasets, respectively. We generated a fourth dataset by combining the unfiltered
87 observations in all three regions, and then then spatially filtering these points by sampling from $1.5^\circ \times 1.5^\circ$
88 grid cells. The number of records remaining in each regional dataset before and after correcting for spatial
89 sampling bias is summarized in table S1.

90 Two different sets of environmental covariates were used to fit statistical niche models. The first included
91 12 bioclimatic variables downloaded from the WorldClim database [15] at 2.5 arcmin resolution. We selected
92 these variables based on their hypothesized or known contributions to the growth of aquatic plants. Our
93 second set of covariates includes only the BIO1 (average annual temperature) and BIO7 (annual temperature
94 amplitude) measurements, which are the same variables used in our mechanistic invasion model predictions
95 (eq. 1). Summaries of these covariates and the models in which they were used can be found in table S2.
96 These bioclimatic variables were then clipped to the extents of our study regions. We conducted principal
97 component analyses (PCA) on these environmental variables to obtain the first two principal component
98 axes (Fig. S5) and tested how the first environmental principal component varied across latitude in each
99 region using linear regression.

100 We used the MaxEnt software (version 3.4) [16] implemented within the R package *ENMeval* [17] to
101 create niche models for our two duckweed species. MaxEnt is a statistical niche modeling framework that
102 uses environmental covariates extracted from spatial occurrence data to predict a species' habitat suitability
103 relative to a randomly-sampled environmental background [18]. As a presence-only method, MaxEnt can
104 use the type of aggregated occurrence records stored on the GBIF, and despite not permitting information
105 on species' absences, performs favorably in comparisons with other statistical niche modeling approaches
106 [19]. For each of our species (*L. minor* and *S. polyrhiza*) and set of covariates (2 or 12 BIOCLIM variables),
107 we generated individual MaxEnt models for each of our three study regions, as well as a fourth, combined
108 region. Environmental background points were generated within each of these regions by randomly sampling
109 between 10,000 (UK & Ireland) and 30,000 (combined regions) random points that did not coincide with a
110 species' observation record.

111 We employed two strategies to avoid overfitting the MaxEnt models. First, we generated four nested,
112 spatial partitions of the presence and background data, which were then used for 4-fold cross validation
113 across spatially-segregated training and test datasets [20]. Second, we fit our models using a range of
114 regularization parameters (1.5 through 6). Higher values of the regularization parameters result in more
115 general, smoother model predictions [18]. MaxEnt models were fit with combinations of linear, quadratic,
116 hinge, and product feature classes using *ENMeval* [17] with clamping enabled. Best-fit MaxEnt models were
117 selected using a pluralistic approach to improve precision while controlling for overfitting. We favored models
118 with a combination of low AIC values [21], average 10% threshold omission rates closest to 0.1, and higher
119 regularization parameters. MaxEnt habitat suitability thresholds were estimated using a 10% omission
120 rate criterion. One-sided binomial tests used to determine model discriminatory performance. This test
121 estimates the probability that a given MaxEnt or mechanistic invasion model's predictions are significantly
122 better than what would be obtained by chance alone [22]. To do this, we use the true positive rate (*TPR*:
123 the fraction of correctly-classified location records) to calculate the binomial probability of observing at least
124 $n \times TPR$ correctly-predicted location records out of n total records, assuming a null probability equivalent
125 to the fractional predicted area (a) classified as suitable habitat by our models. Tests were run using the
126 `binom.test()` function in R.

127 Estimating Range Limits

128 We used an inverse regression approach [23] to estimate the latitudinal limits of *S. polyrhiza* from model
129 outputs. For each study region, we extracted both invasion and MaxEnt model outputs from cells containing
130 an observation record. After fitting a linear regression model to these points, we estimated these models'
131 x -intercepts and their inverse 95% confidence intervals, which represent predictions for the latitudinal limit
132 of *S. polyrhiza*. For our invasion model, this limit is defined as the latitude at which the low-density growth
133 rate, \bar{r}_{inv} , equals zero. For MaxEnt models, it was defined as the latitude at which the cloglog occurrence
134 probability, p_{occ} , equalled the 10% omission threshold, τ . While choosing such a binary presence/absence
135 threshold is subjective, it is necessary for quantifying a range boundary, and we found that a 10% omission
136 threshold resulted in good approximations of the species' observed distributions. Since \bar{r}_{inv} and p_{occ} can be
137 nonlinear over latitude, we performed regressions only on data points near the maximum latitude in each

138 region. These subsets were selected where the latitude-output response appeared linear and included 138,
 139 244, and 73 location records for the UK + Ire., N. America, and N. EU study regions, respectively.

140 Range limit estimates from these models were compared to the distribution of observed maximum range
 141 limits, \bar{L}_{\max} , which were estimated using nonparametric bootstrapping of the maximum latitude for each
 142 region. We acknowledge that while imperfect, this metric does capture much of the variation in maximum
 143 latitude across longitudinal bins. We summarize these maxima with bias-corrected and accelerated (BC_a)
 144 95% confidence intervals, which account for skewness in the resampled maxima [24]. Overlap between
 145 confidence bands is taken as agreement between different models and between models and occurrence records.

146 Partitioning Coexistence Mechanisms

147 Modern coexistence theory (MCT) provides a conceptual and analytical framework for partitioning the ef-
 148 fects of various fluctuation-dependent and fluctuation-independent mechanisms contributing to coexistence
 149 [25]. As explained in the main text, stable coexistence hinges on satisfying the reciprocal invasibility criterion
 150 (i.e., $\bar{r}_{j\setminus\text{inv}} > 0$ for all species in a community) [26, 27]. The relative strength of each mechanism is then
 151 obtained by calculating invader-resident differences. A standard, non-spatial MCT partitioning uses Taylor
 152 approximations to decompose the invasion growth rate into three primary components: (1) the *fluctuation-*
 153 *independent growth rate*, which is the growth rate in the absence of fluctuations in competition, and includes
 154 the effects of intrinsic growth and negative density-dependence arising from niche differences, (2) *relative*
 155 *nonlinearity in competition*, which measures the differential impacts of nonlinear averaging (and thereby
 156 Jensen’s inequality) on species’ nonlinear responses to competition, and (3) the *storage effect*, which mea-
 157 sures the buffering of population losses in harsh times relative to large gains in favorable times, and is a
 158 form of temporal niche partitioning [28, 29]. Importantly, the latter two mechanisms can only occur when
 159 environments or resources fluctuate through time.

160 We used a recently-developed computational method [30] for partitioning each species’ invasion and res-
 161 ident growth rates, $\bar{r}_{j\setminus\text{inv}}$ and $\bar{r}_{j\setminus\text{res}}$, into terms reflecting the additive contributions of fluctuation-dependent
 162 and independent coexistence mechanisms [25, 31]. This method, while accurate, results in slightly different,
 163 though arguably more interpretable results than the classic small-variance approximations used for parti-
 164 tioning in the classical MCT approach [29, 31]. We briefly outline this approach below, but refer interested
 165 readers to the original literature for a more thorough overview [32, 30].

166 Our invasion models contain three variable quantities that can affect each species’ invasion and resident
 167 growth rates: conspecific densities ($N_j(t)$), heterospecific densities ($N_k(t), k \neq j$), and temperature, ($T(t)$).
 168 Species’ long-term average invasion and resident growth rates can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{r}_{j\setminus\text{inv}} &= \frac{1}{s} \sum_{v=1}^m r_j(T(t_v), N_k(t_v)) \\ \bar{r}_{j\setminus\text{res}} &= \frac{1}{s} \sum_{v=1}^m r_j(T(t_v), N_j(t_v)), \end{aligned} \tag{S4}$$

169 where $r_j(T, N_k) = (N_j + S_j)^{-1}(dN_j/dt + dS_j/dt)$, and $t_v (v = 1, \dots, s)$ are finely-spaced time steps stretching
 170 over 365 total days. Following [30], we can partition these average *per capita* rates such that

$$\bar{r}_j = \varepsilon_j^* + \varepsilon'_j + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^T + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^{N_k} + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^{(T\#N_k)} + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^{(TN_k)}, \tag{S5}$$

171 where $k = j$ for the species in its resident state, and $k \neq j$ in its invasion state. The ε_j terms are defined
 172 as

ε_j^*	$= r_j(\bar{T}, \bar{N}_k^*),$	the fluctuation-free growth rate
ε'_j	$= r_j(\bar{T}, \bar{N}_k) - \varepsilon_j^*,$	the effect of fluctuation-driven change in mean N_k
$\bar{\varepsilon}_j^T$	$= \frac{1}{s} \sum_{v=1}^s r_j(T(t_v), \bar{N}_k) - [\varepsilon_j^* + \varepsilon'_j],$	the main effect of variation in temperature
$\bar{\varepsilon}_j^{N_k}$	$= \frac{1}{s} \sum_{v=1}^s r_j(\bar{T}, N_k(t_v)) - [\varepsilon_j^* + \varepsilon'_j],$	the main effect of variation in competitor density
$\bar{\varepsilon}_j^{TN_k}$	$= \frac{1}{s} \sum_{v=1}^s r_j(T(t_v), N_k(t_v)) - [\varepsilon_j^* + \varepsilon'_j + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^T + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^{N_k}],$	the interaction of T and N_k variation
$\bar{\varepsilon}_j^{(T\#N_k)}$	$= \frac{1}{s^2} \sum_{v=1}^s \sum_{w=1}^s r_j(T(t_v), N_k(t_w)) - [\varepsilon_j^* + \varepsilon'_j + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^T + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^{N_k}],$	the independent variation component of $\bar{\varepsilon}_j^{TN_k}$
$\bar{\varepsilon}_j^{(TN_k)}$	$= \bar{\varepsilon}_j^{TN_k} - \bar{\varepsilon}_j^{(T\#N_k)},$	the covariance component of $\bar{\varepsilon}_j^{TN_k}$,

173 where \bar{T} and \bar{N}_k are arithmetic averages taken over the final 365 days of the simulation. \bar{N}_k^* represents
174 the average value of N_k when temperatures do not fluctuate, which in our model, are point equilibria
175 and therefore constant over time. Next, like in the analytical treatment of modern coexistence theory, we
176 performed invader-resident comparisons to assess the relative extent to which each of the terms above benefits
177 or harms the invading species. For example, we can define $\Delta_j^T = \bar{\varepsilon}_{j\setminus\text{inv}}^T - \bar{\varepsilon}_{k\setminus\text{res}}^T$ ($j \neq k$) as the relative
178 (dis)advantage experienced by an invader owing solely to the species' varying responses to temperature
179 fluctuations. This term and $\Delta_j^{N_k}$ measure the relative nonlinearity in species' responses to temperatures and
180 competitor densities. Likewise, $\Delta_j^{(TN_k)} = \bar{\varepsilon}_{j\setminus\text{inv}}^{(TN_k)} - \bar{\varepsilon}_{k\setminus\text{res}}^{(TN_k)}$ represents the contribution of covariance between
181 the environment (T) and competitive factor (N_k) to the invader's growth rate. This term quantifies the
182 coexistence mechanism called the temporal storage effect [29]. For our analysis, we set the MCT invader-
183 resident comparison quotients, q_{ir} , to 1, since they cannot be uniquely defined for all of our environmental
184 states [32, 30], and are very close to 1 when unique solutions exist [2].

185 We calculated the growth components for each species in its invader state at each point across a grid
186 of average temperatures ranging from -10 to 37 °C with amplitudes ranging from 0 to 33 °C. These values
187 span the natural range of temperature spaces across Earth. As described in the main text, we first simulated
188 the dynamics of the resident species for 10 years, checking that its long-term growth rate was approximately
189 zero. We used the final year of resident densities and temperatures to calculate the growth rate of an invader
190 at each time step, which was then geometrically-averaged to obtain $\bar{r}_{j\setminus\text{inv}}$. Partitioning then proceeded as
191 described above and in [30]. To check our results, we verified that the following relations held for each species
192 in its invader state:

$$\begin{aligned}
\bar{r}_{j\setminus\text{inv}} &= \varepsilon_j^* + \varepsilon'_j + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^T + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^{N_k} + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^{(T\#N_k)} + \bar{\varepsilon}_j^{(TN_k)} \\
&\approx \bar{r}_{j\setminus\text{inv}} - \bar{r}_{k\setminus\text{res}} \\
&\approx \Delta_j^* + \Delta_j' + \Delta_j^T + \Delta_j^{N_k} + \Delta_j^{(T\#N_k)} + \Delta_j^{(TN_k)}, \quad (j \neq k).
\end{aligned}
\tag{S6}$$

193
194 We plotted our results as a heatmap over our 2-D temperature-amplitude grid, onto which we overlaid
195 spatially-thinned global datasets of *S. polyrhiza* or *L. minor* observation records (figs. 5 and S4) obtained
196 from GBIF and BSBI. We also overlaid the zero-growth isoclines for each species.

197 Estimating stabilizing and equalizing components

198 We also calculated the stabilizing and equalizing components of the Δ_j^i partitions in eq. S3 [33, 30]. Here,
199 stabilizing components $\bar{\Delta}^i$ represent the average contribution of a particular coexistence mechanism i to

200 competitors' invasion growth rates and equals the arithmetic average across species of a particular Δ^i .
 201 Positive stabilization will help both species increase when rare. Equalizing effects arise when a particular
 202 coexistence mechanism reduces fitness differences between an invader and resident and are equal to $\Delta_j^i - \overline{\Delta^i}$.
 203 Thus, a particular component of the growth rate partition (e.g., the storage effect, $\Delta_j^{(TN_k)}$) can result in
 204 any combination of stabilization and equalization terms depending the direction and relative magnitude of
 205 its actions on both species. Summed across a species, the terms will equal the species' invasion growth rate.
 206 Note that although this stabilization value can be positive even when an individual contribution of Δ_j^i is
 207 negative, our $\overline{\Delta^T}$ was positive only when both Δ_j^i 's were greater than zero.

208 References

- 209 1. Landolt, E. Physiologische und ökologische Untersuchungen an Lemnaceen. *Berichte der Schweizerischen*
 210 *Botanischen Gesellschaft* **67**, 271–410 (1957).
- 211 2. Armitage, D. W. & Jones, S. E. Negative frequency-dependent growth underlies the stable coexis-
 212 tence of two cosmopolitan aquatic plants. *Ecology* **100**, e02657 (2019). URL [https://esajournals.](https://esajournals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/ecy.2657)
 213 [onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/ecy.2657](https://esajournals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/ecy.2657).
- 214 3. Coughlan, N. E., Kelly, T. C. & Jansen, M. A. K. “Step by step”: high frequency short-distance
 215 epizoochorous dispersal of aquatic macrophytes. *Biological Invasions* **19**, 625–634 (2017). URL <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10530-016-1293-0>.
 216
- 217 4. Jacobs, D. L. An ecological life-history of Spirodela polyrhiza (greater duckweed) with emphasis on
 218 the turion phase. *Ecological Monographs* **17**, 437–469 (1947). URL [http://www.jstor.org/stable/](http://www.jstor.org/stable/1948596)
 219 [1948596](http://www.jstor.org/stable/1948596).
- 220 5. Docauer, D. M. *A nutrient basis for the distribution of the Lemnaceae*. Ph.D dissertation, University of
 221 Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI (1983).
- 222 6. van der Heide, T., Roijackers, R. M. M., van Nes, E. H. & Peeters, E. T. H. M. A simple equation for
 223 describing the temperature dependent growth of free-floating macrophytes. *Aquatic Botany* **84**, 171–175
 224 (2006). URL <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0304377005002226>.
- 225 7. Hart, S. P., Freckleton, R. P. & Levine, J. M. How to quantify competitive ability. *Journal of Ecol-*
 226 *ogy* (2018). URL [https://besjournals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/1365-2745.](https://besjournals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/1365-2745.12954)
 227 [12954](https://besjournals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/1365-2745.12954).
- 228 8. Finn, J. T. Use of the average mutual information index in evaluating classification er-
 229 ror and consistency. *International Journal of Geographical Information Systems* **7**, 349–366
 230 (1993). URL <https://doi.org/10.1080/02693799308901966>. Publisher: Taylor & Francis _eprint:
 231 <https://doi.org/10.1080/02693799308901966>.
- 232 9. Baldi, P., Brunak, S., Chauvin, Y., Andersen, C. A. F. & Nielsen, H. Assessing the accuracy of prediction
 233 algorithms for classification: an overview. *Bioinformatics* **16**, 412–424 (2000). URL [http://academic.](http://academic.oup.com/bioinformatics/article/16/5/412/192336)
 234 [oup.com/bioinformatics/article/16/5/412/192336](http://academic.oup.com/bioinformatics/article/16/5/412/192336). Publisher: Oxford Academic.
- 235 10. Chamberlain, S. A. & Boettiger, C. R. Python, and Ruby clients for GBIF species occurrence data.
 236 *PeerJ Preprints* **5**, e3304v1 (2017). URL <https://peerj.com/preprints/3304>.
- 237 11. Team, R. D. C. R: A language and environment for statistical computing (2019). URL [http://www.](http://www.R-project.org)
 238 [R-project.org](http://www.R-project.org).
- 239 12. Zizka, A. *et al.* CoordinateCleaner: Standardized cleaning of occurrence records from biological collec-
 240 tion databases. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* **10**, 744–751 (2019). URL [https://besjournals.](https://besjournals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/2041-210X.13152)
 241 [onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/2041-210X.13152](https://besjournals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/2041-210X.13152).
- 242 13. Walker, K. J., Pearman, D. A., Ellis, R. W., McIntosh, J. W. & Lockton, A. *Recording the British and*
 243 *Irish Flora, 2010-2020* (Botanical Society of the British Isles, London, UK, 2010).
- 244 14. Fourcade, Y., Engler, J. O., Rödder, D. & Secondi, J. Mapping species distributions with MAXENT
 245 using a geographically biased sample of presence data: A performance assessment of methods for cor-
 246 recting sampling bias. *PLoS ONE* **9** (2014). URL [https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4018261/)
 247 [PMC4018261/](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4018261/).

- 248 15. Hijmans, R. J., Cameron, S. E., Parra, J. L., Jones, P. G. & Jarvis, A. Very high resolution interpolated
249 climate surfaces for global land areas. *International Journal of Climatology* **25**, 1965–1978 (2005). URL
250 <https://rmets.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/joc.1276>.
- 251 16. Phillips, S. J., Anderson, R. P., Dudík, M., Schapire, R. E. & Blair, M. E. Opening the black box: an
252 open-source release of Maxent. *Ecography* **40**, 887–893 (2017). URL <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/ecog.03049>.
253
- 254 17. Muscarella, R. *et al.* ENMeval: An R package for conducting spatially independent evaluations and
255 estimating optimal model complexity for Maxent ecological niche models. *Methods in Ecology and*
256 *Evolution* **5**, 1198–1205 (2014). URL <https://besjournals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/2041-210X.12261>.
257
- 258 18. Elith, J. *et al.* A statistical explanation of MaxEnt for ecologists. *Diversity and Distributions* **17**, 43–57
259 (2011). URL <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/j.1472-4642.2010.00725.x>.
- 260 19. Elith, J. & Graham, C. H. Do they? How do they? WHY do they differ? On finding reasons for
261 differing performances of species distribution models. *Ecography* **32**, 66–77 (2009). URL <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/j.1600-0587.2008.05505.x>.
262
- 263 20. Radosavljevic, A. & Anderson, R. P. Making better Maxent models of species distributions: complexity,
264 overfitting and evaluation. *Journal of Biogeography* **41**, 629–643 (2014). URL <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/jbi.12227>.
265
- 266 21. Burnham, K. P. & Anderson, D. R. *Model Selection and Multimodel Inference: A Practical Information-*
267 *Theoretic Approach* (Springer Science & Business Media, 2003).
- 268 22. Phillips, S. J., Anderson, R. P. & Schapire, R. E. Maximum entropy modeling of species geographic dis-
269 tributions. *Ecological Modelling* **190**, 231–259 (2006). URL [http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S030438000500267X)
270 [article/pii/S030438000500267X](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S030438000500267X).
- 271 23. Draper, N. R. & Smith, H. *Applied Regression Analysis*. Wiley series in probability and statistics (Wiley,
272 Hoboken, NJ, 1998), 3rd edn.
- 273 24. Efron, B. & Tibshirani, R. J. *An Introduction to the Bootstrap* (Chapman & Hall, New York, NY, 1993).
274 Google-Books-ID: gLlpIUxRntoC.
- 275 25. Chesson, P. Mechanisms of maintenance of species diversity. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*
276 **31**, 343–366 (2000). URL <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.31.1.343>.
- 277 26. Turelli, M. Does environmental variability limit niche overlap? *Proceedings of the National Academy*
278 *of Sciences of the United States of America* **75**, 5085–5089 (1978). URL <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC336268/>.
279
- 280 27. Chesson, P. L. & Ellner, S. Invasibility and stochastic boundedness in monotonic competition models.
281 *Journal of Mathematical Biology* **27**, 117–138 (1989). URL <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/BF00276099>.
282
- 283 28. Chesson, P. L. & Warner, R. R. Environmental variability promotes coexistence in lottery competitive
284 systems. *The American Naturalist* **117**, 923–943 (1981). URL <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2460572>.
- 285 29. Chesson, P. Multispecies competition in variable environments. *Theoretical Population Biology* **45**,
286 227–276 (1994). URL <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0040580984710136>.
- 287 30. Ellner, S. P., Snyder, R. E., Adler, P. B. & Hooker, G. An expanded modern coexistence theory for
288 empirical applications. *Ecology Letters* **22**, 3–18 (2019). URL <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/ele.13159>.
289 [_eprint: https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/pdf/10.1111/ele.13159](https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/pdf/10.1111/ele.13159).
- 290 31. Barabás, G., D’Andrea, R. & Stump, S. M. Chesson’s coexistence theory. *Ecological Monographs* **88**, 277–
291 303 (2018). URL <https://esajournals.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/ecm.1302>.
- 292 32. Ellner, S. P., Snyder, R. E. & Adler, P. B. How to quantify the temporal storage effect using simulations
293 instead of math. *Ecology Letters* **19**, 1333–1342 (2016). URL <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/ele.12672>.
294
- 295 33. Chesson, P. Quantifying and testing coexistence mechanisms arising from recruitment fluctuations.
296 *Theoretical Population Biology* **64**, 345–357 (2003).

297 34. Carrea, L. & Merchant, C. GloboLakes: Lake Surface Water Temperature (LSWT) v4.0 (1995-2016)
298 (2019).

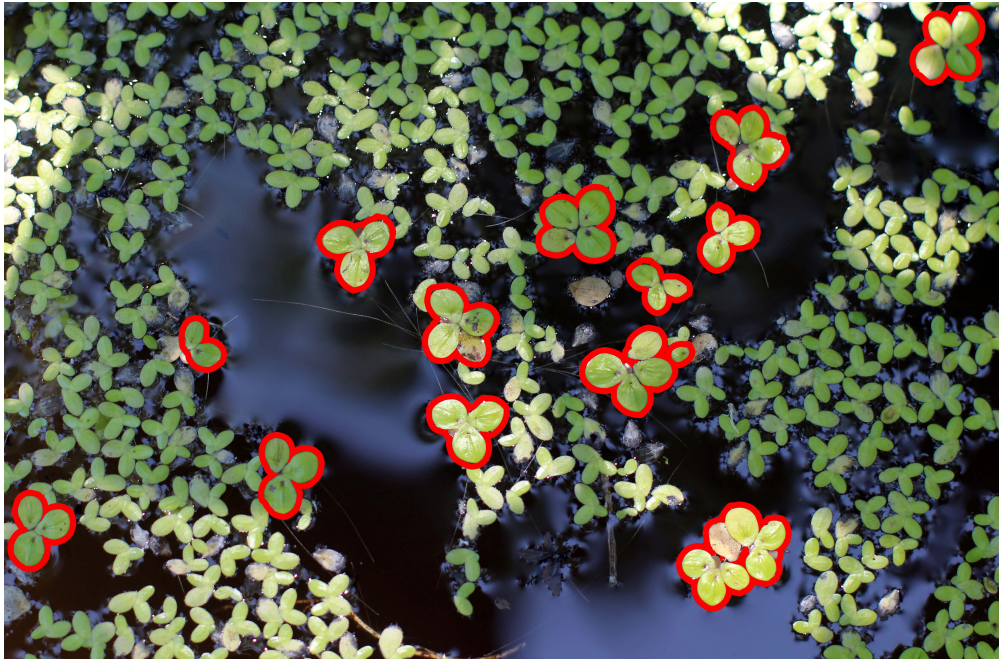


Fig. S1. A typical mixed community of *Lemna minor* and *Spirodela polyrhiza* (outlined in red). Individual vegetative plants consist of a single frond usually joined to parent, sibling, and offspring fronds in clusters of 3-4 individuals. These clusters typically break apart following the production of additional offspring. No *S. polyrhiza* turions are visible.

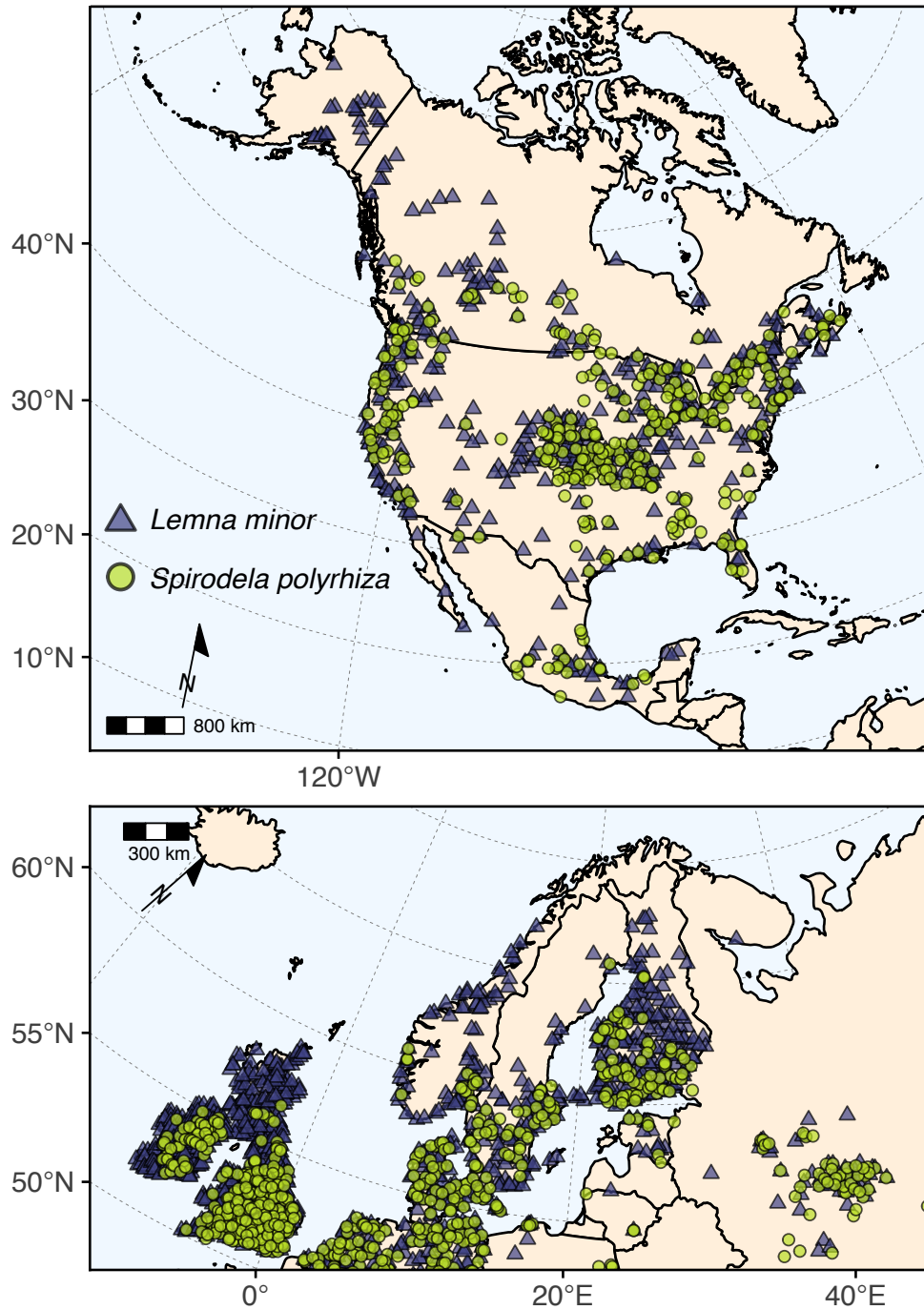


Fig. S2. Maps of location records for *Lemna minor* and *Spirodela polyrhiza* for North America (CA, USA, MX) and Northern Europe. Note the greater northern range limits for *L. minor* relative to *S. polyrhiza*. Points have been spatially-thinned for easier viewing.

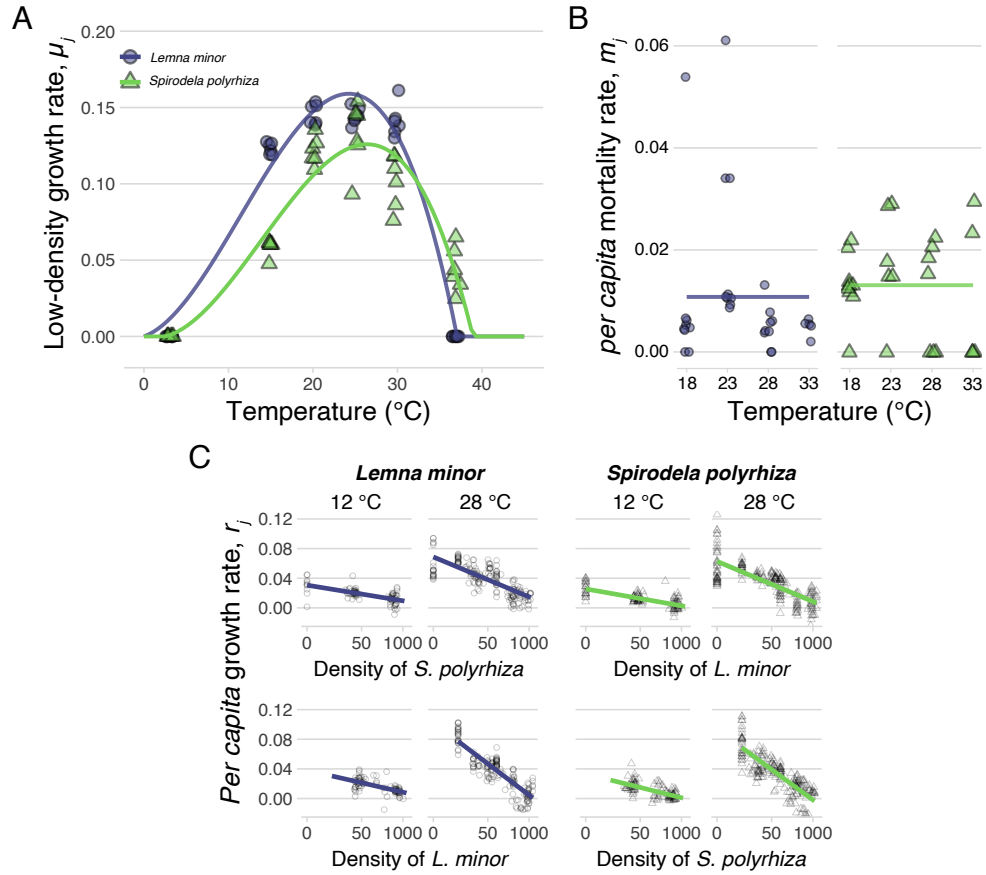


Fig. S3. (A) Empirically-measured thermal growth maxima, $\mu_j(T)$ (per day), for *L. minor* and *S. polyrhiza* (data from [2]). Curves were fit using equation 2. (B) Empirically-measured mortality rates, m_j (per day), for *L. minor* and *S. polyrhiza* (data from [2]). Lines denote mean values. (C) Partial residual plots showing the effects of ambient temperature on interspecific (top) and intraspecific (bottom) negative density dependence for each species. Points are partial residuals of growth rates r_j (per day) from experimental cultures [2]. Regression lines show the conditional effects of heterospecific and conspecific densities, controlling for the impacts of the other species.

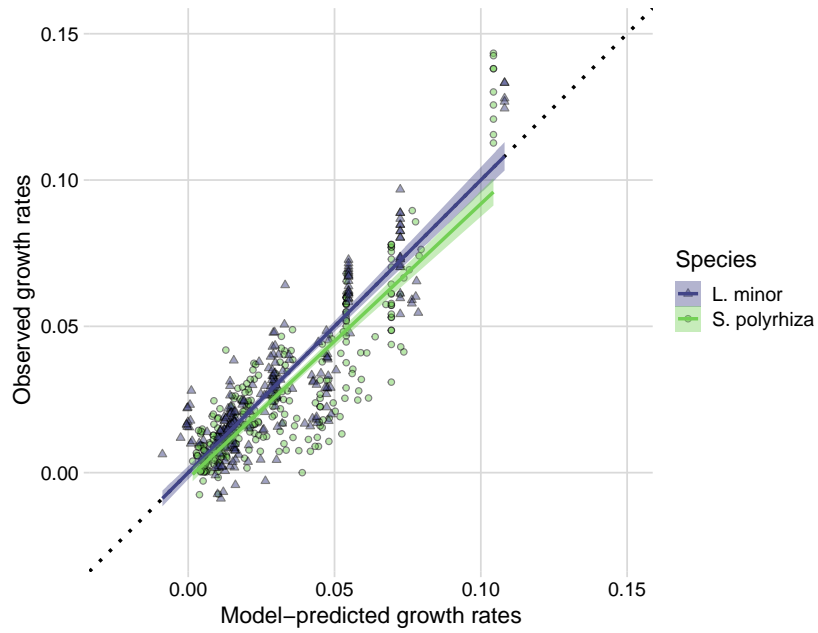


Fig. S4. Relationship between model-predicted and observed growth rates for *L. minor* and *S. polyrhiza*. Model predictions use equation 1 with parameters estimated from growth experiments. Observed values are from measurements taken in competition assays under fluctuating temperatures (see [2] for details). State variables used to generate predictions were temperature, conspecific density, and heterospecific density. Dotted line denotes perfect predictive accuracy. Regression lines for each species are also displayed. For *L. minor* and *S. polyrhiza*, respectively, regression slopes are 1.00 ± 0.03 and 0.99 ± 0.01 , intercepts are both approximately zero, and $R^2 = 0.80$ and 0.79 .

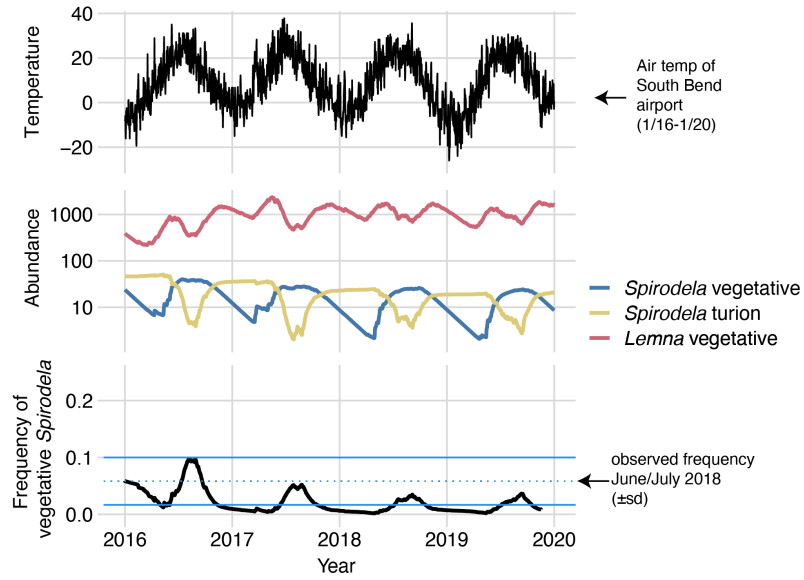


Fig. S5. Simulated dynamics of duckweed competition model using temperature states from South Bend Airport, IN, USA. Bottom panel shows simulated frequency of *S. polyrhiza* in the *Lemna-Spirodela* community. Blue lines denote the mean observed frequency (dotted line, 5.83%) and standard deviation (solid lines, $\pm 4.16\%$) from 23 pond surveys conducted in the nearby region. Note that these simulated long-term frequencies are independent of initial frequencies and abundances.

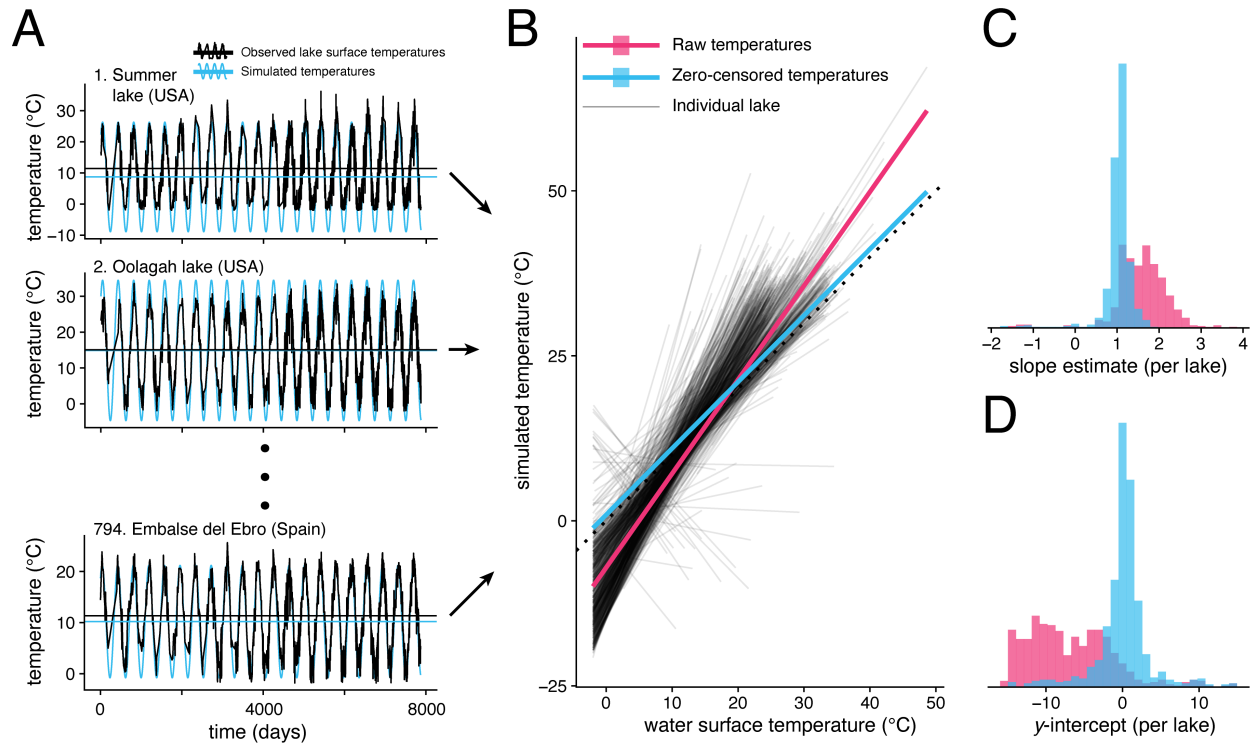


Fig. S6. A) Correspondence between observed lake temperature time series (black lines) and sinusoidal temperature time series simulated from annual mean and variances (blue lines). Horizontal lines are temperature means for each series. Data are from lakes spanning a range of sizes pulled from the GloboLakes Long-Term Lake Surface Temperature database [34]. B) Association between observed lake surface temperatures and simulated sinusoidal temperatures for 794 lakes from the GloboLakes database. C-D) Histograms depicting distributions of slope and intercept estimates for GloboLakes data.

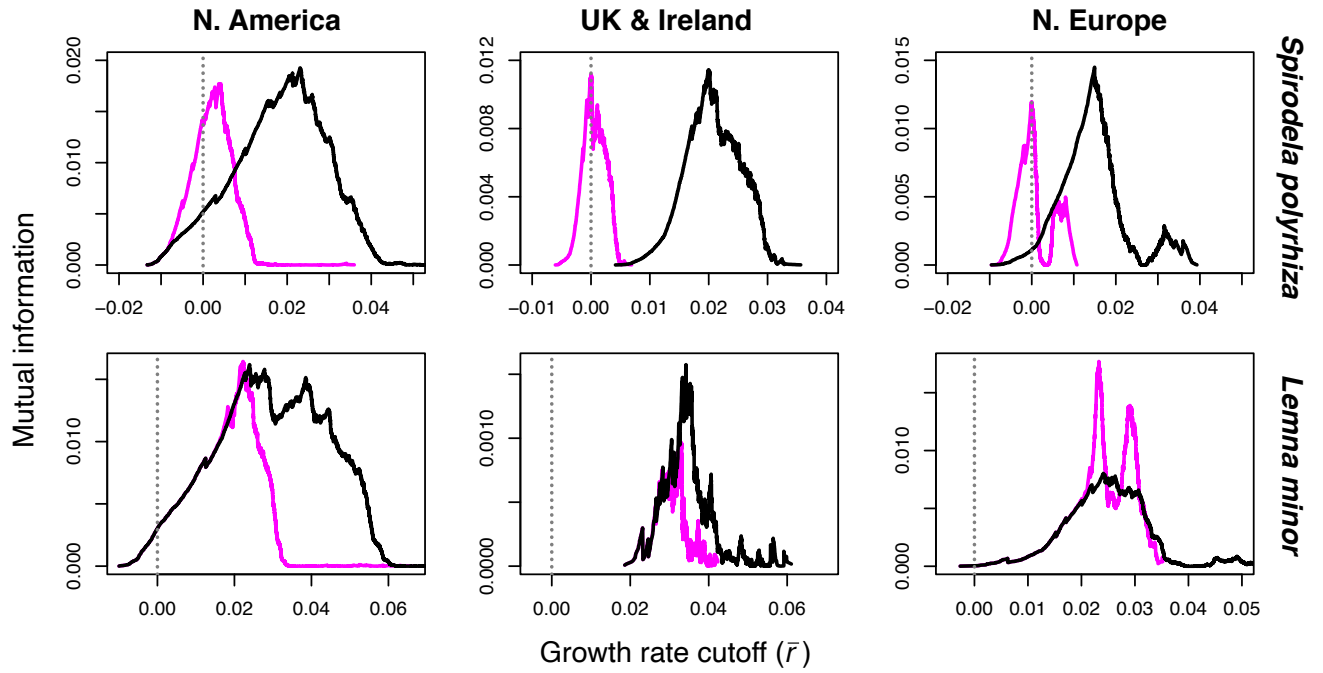


Fig. S7. Mutual information comparisons between mechanistic invasion models with and without competition terms. Magenta lines denote mutual information for models with resident competitors (\bar{r}_{inv}) and black lines for models without resident competitors (\bar{r}_{res}). Dotted line denotes the cutoff at which $\bar{r} = 0$. Distance of models' maxima from this point is a measure of relative model fit, and alignment of two models' maxima at a particular \bar{r} suggests they exhibit equivalent performance

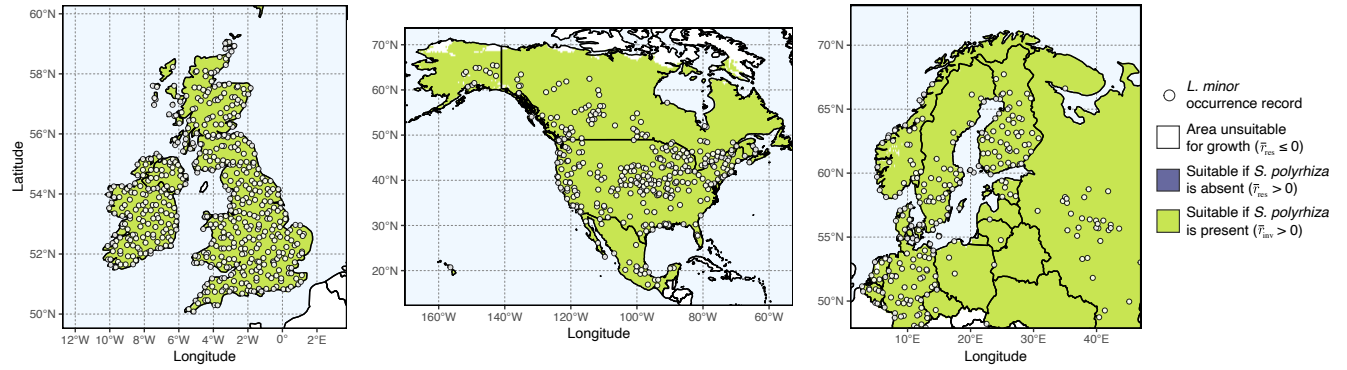


Fig. S8. Range predictions for *L. minor* from the competition model (eq. 1) projected across geographic space. Binary outcomes show areas of predicted population persistence satisfying the invasion criterion ($\bar{r} > 0$). The predicted latitudinal limits of *L. minor* do not change if competition from resident *S. polyrhiza* is accounted for.

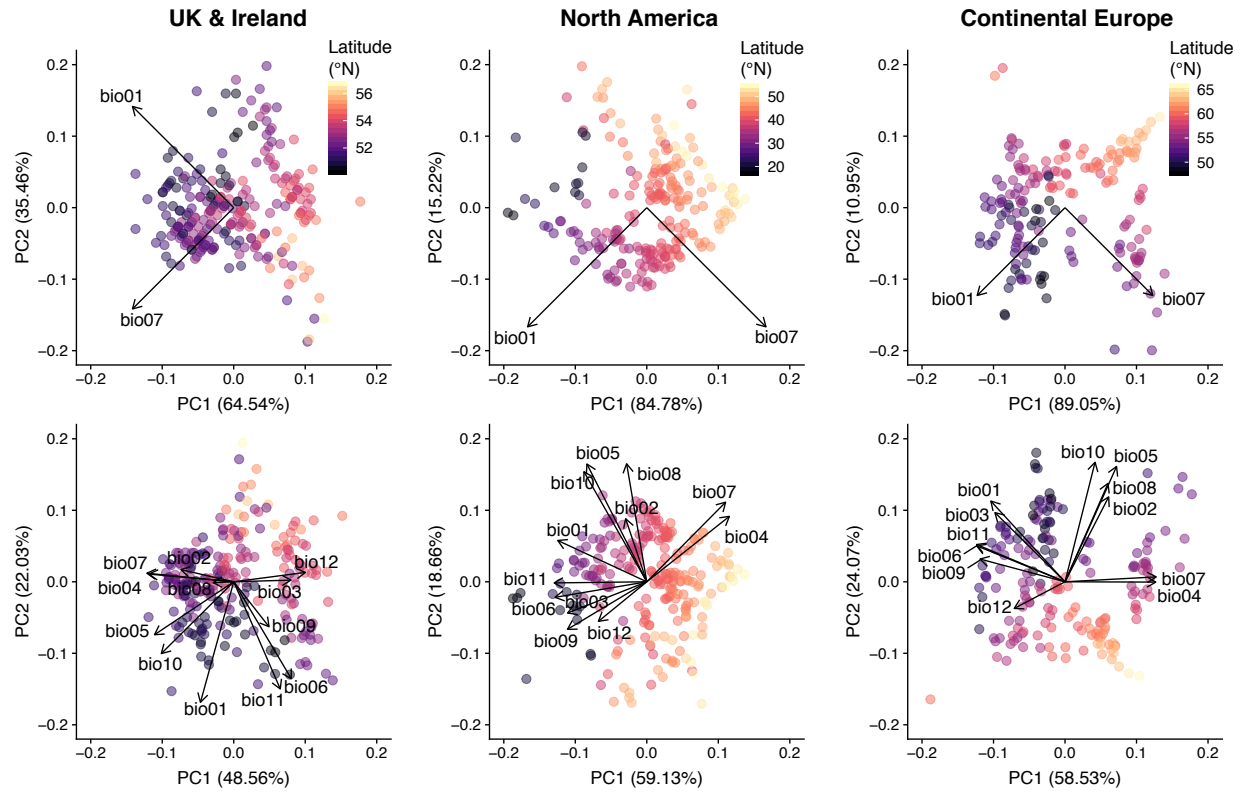


Fig. S9. Principal components biplots showing first two PCA axes for environmental covariates for each study region. Points represent observations of *S. polyrhiza*, and are shaded by latitude, and arrows denote loading of each variable. The top row shows results for mean temperature (bio01) and temperature amplitude (bio07) variables — used to fit invasion models and 2-variable MaxEnt models. Second row contains results for variables used in the 12-variable MaxEnt model (bio1-bio12). Descriptions of these variables can be found at <http://www.worldclim.org/bioclim>. Values on axis labels denote percentage of variance explained by the first and second PC axes.

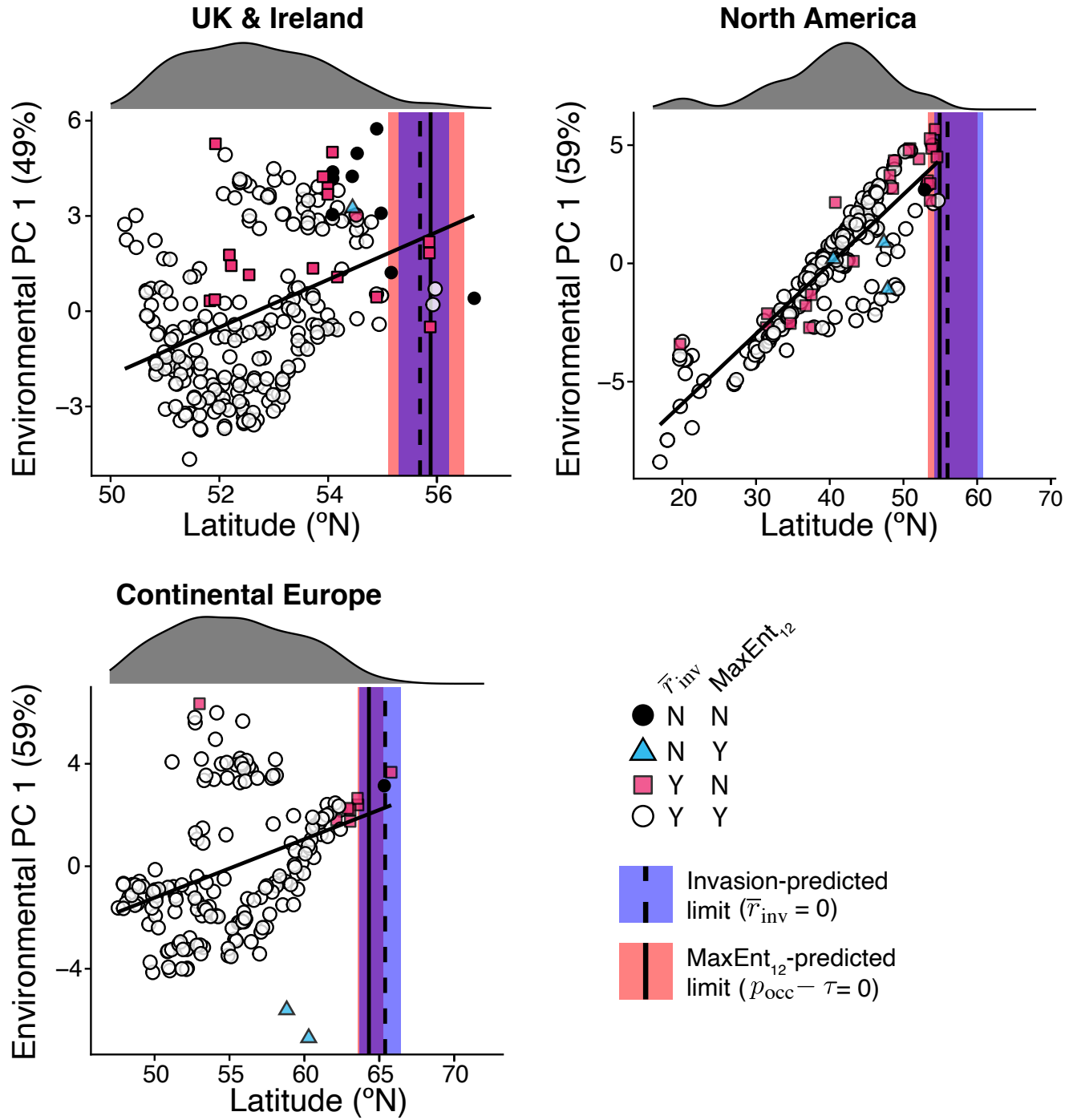


Fig. S10. Latitudinal limit predictions for invasion model and 12-variable MaxEnt model. Points denote *S. polyrhiza* observation records, colored by model classification results, and vertical lines signify the estimated latitudinal limits for each model type and region. Histograms above each plot show the latitudinal dispersion of occurrence records after spatial thinning.

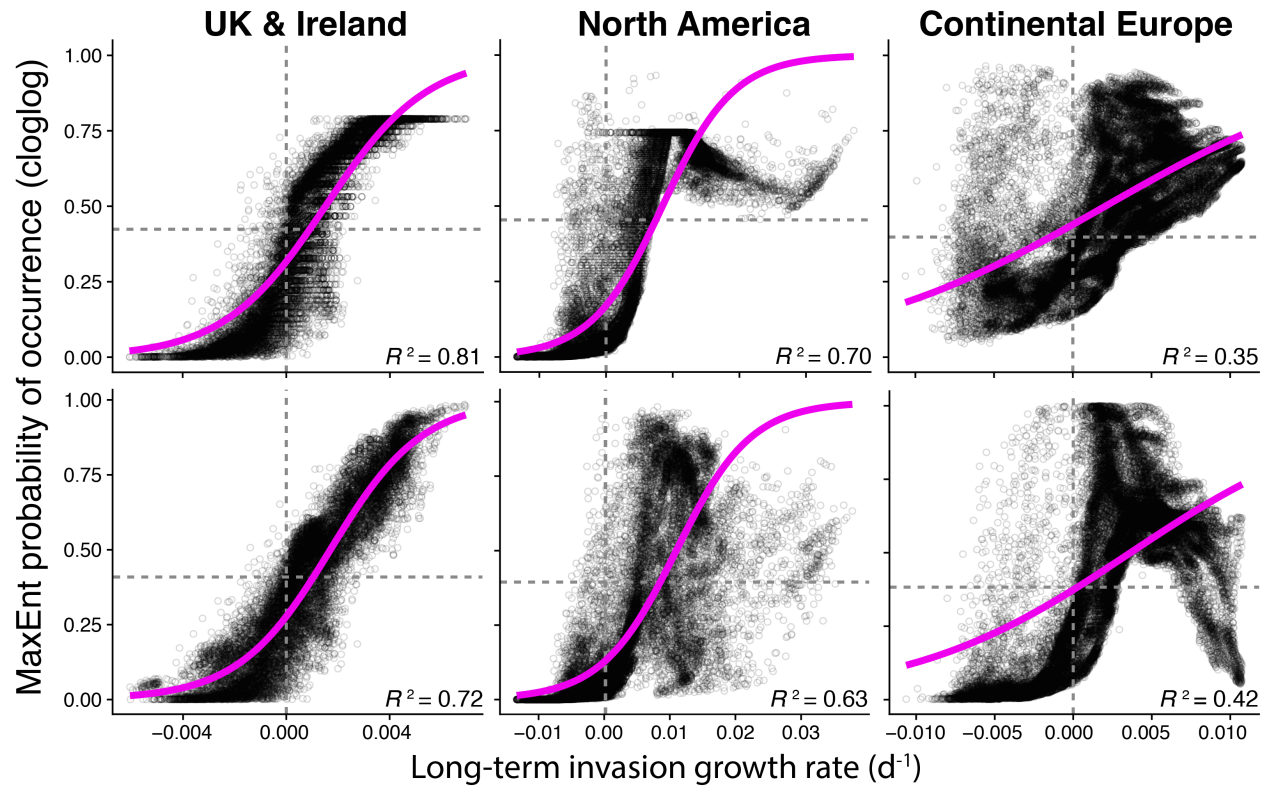


Fig. S11. Relationships between invasion model-predicted growth rates, \bar{r}_{inv} , and MaxEnt-predicted occurrence probabilities for *S. polyrhiza*. Points represent values for each 2.5 arcmin grid cell. Horizontal and vertical dashed lines indicate the MaxEnt presence/absence threshold and low-density growth thresholds, respectively. Colored lines show results from beta regression models. The top and bottom rows contain data from the 2 and 12-variable MaxEnt models, respectively.

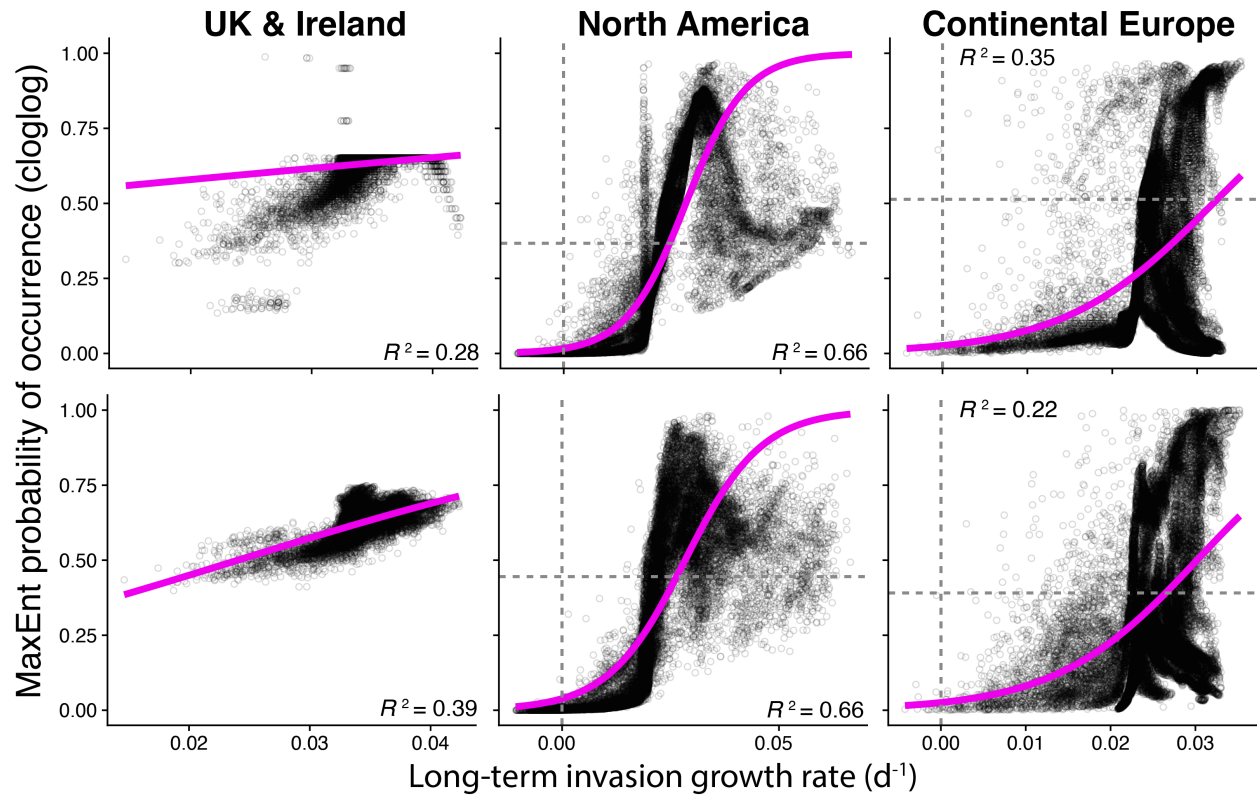


Fig. S12. Relationships between invasion model-predicted growth rates, \bar{r}_{inv} , and MaxEnt-predicted occurrence probabilities for *L. minor*. Points represent values for each 2.5 arcmin grid cell. Horizontal and vertical dashed lines indicate the MaxEnt presence/absence threshold and low-density growth thresholds, respectively. Colored lines show results from beta regression models. The top and bottom rows contain data from the 2 and 12-variable MaxEnt models, respectively.

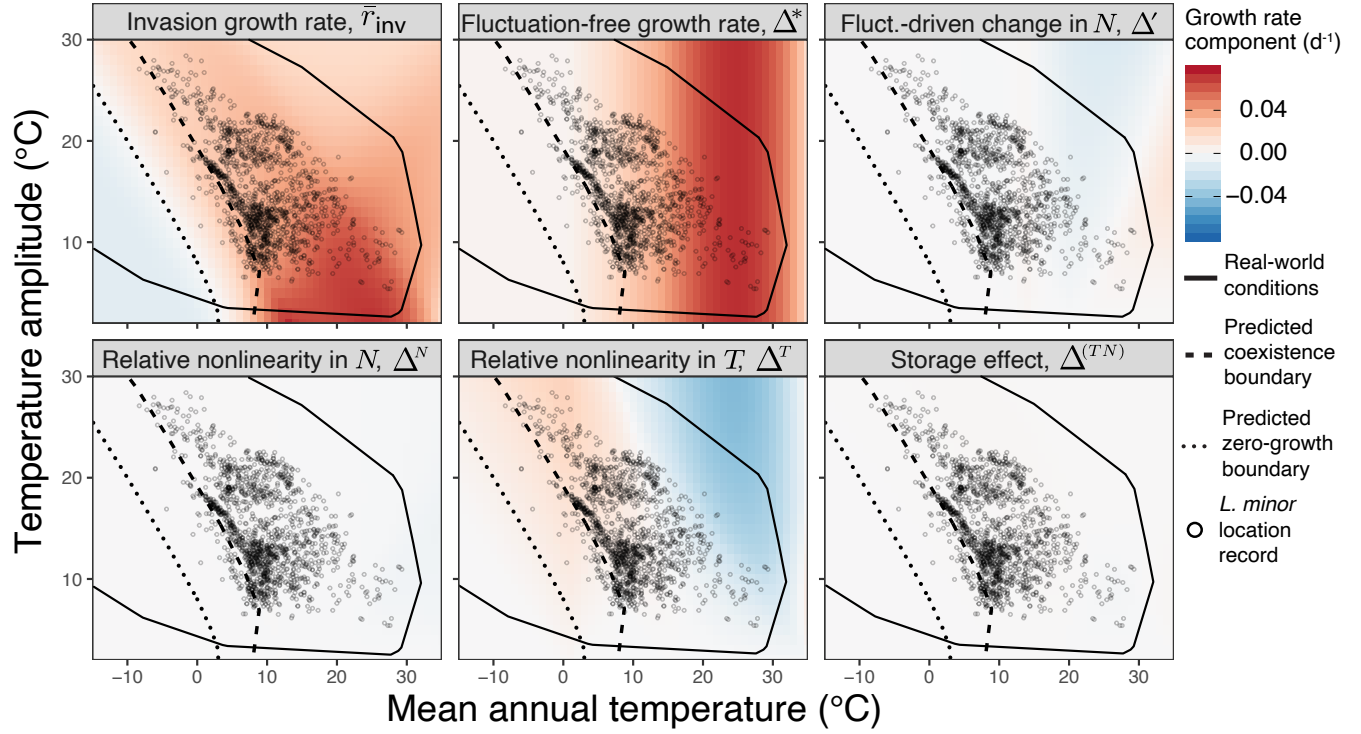


Fig. S13. Long-term invasion-growth rate partitioning for *Lemna minor*. The upper-left panel displays the overall growth rate, \bar{r}_{inv} , and the following panels reflect the contributions of various coexistence-promoting mechanisms from equation 3. Points represent thinned global occurrence records for *L. minor*. Both coexistence boundaries and zero-growth boundaries are shown.

Table S1. Parameter values used for simulating mechanistic niche models. See [2] for estimation procedures.

Parameter	Description	Species	Value (\pm 95% CI)
$T_{\max,j}$	Maximum growth temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	3.89×10^1 (4×10^{-1})
		<i>L. minor</i>	3.70×10^1 (7×10^{-1})
$T_{\min,j}$	Minimum growth temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	3.8 (1.6)
		<i>L. minor</i>	5×10^{-1} (1.1)
c_j	Scaling constant for thermal growth model	<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	1.7×10^{-5} (1.8×10^{-6})
		<i>L. minor</i>	2.2×10^{-5} (1.3×10^{-6})
$T_{d,j}$	Temperature at which 50% of growth is devoted to turions ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	1.5×10^1
		<i>L. minor</i>	n.a.
$T_{g,j}$	Temperature at which 50% of turions germinate at 20 days ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	2.5×10^1
		<i>L. minor</i>	2.5×10^1
$\alpha_{jj}(\bar{T})$	Intraspecific competition parameter (at 20°C)	<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	1.069×10^{-1} (1.6×10^{-2})
		<i>L. minor</i>	1.005×10^{-1} (1.5×10^{-2})
$\alpha_{jk}(\bar{T})$	Interspecific competition parameter (at 20°C)	<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	6.46×10^{-2} (9×10^{-3})
		<i>L. minor</i>	5.91×10^{-2} (1.0×10^{-2})
ψ_{jj}	Effect of 1°C temperature change on α_{jj}	<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	6.2×10^{-3} (1.9×10^{-3})
		<i>L. minor</i>	6.3×10^{-3} (1.7×10^{-3})
ψ_{jk}	Effect of 1°C temperature change on α_{jk}	<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	3.1×10^{-3} (1.1×10^{-3})
		<i>L. minor</i>	3.0×10^{-3} (1.1×10^{-3})
m_j	Species' average <i>per capita</i> mortality rate (d^{-1})	<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	1.34×10^{-2} (7.4×10^{-4})
		<i>L. minor</i>	1.07×10^{-2} (6.8×10^{-4})

Table S2. Numbers of cleaned observation records for each of the study species both before and after spatial bias correction via grid filtering. "Combined" row represents points aggregated from the three study regions.

Species	Region	Before spatial filter	After spatial filter
<i>L. minor</i>	World	153,575	445
	N. America	1,402	340
	N. EU	104,050	272
	UK + Ireland	22,470	546
	Combined	127,922	750
<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	World	69,989	315
	N. America	897	225
	N. EU	58,906	192
	UK + Ireland	2,266	250
	Combined	62,069	516

Table S3. Bioclimatic variables used to fit ecological niche models.

Name	Description	\bar{r}_{inv}	MaxEnt ₂	MaxEnt ₁₂
BIO1	Annual mean temperature	Y	Y	Y
BIO2	Mean of monthly diurnal temperature range			Y
BIO3	Isothermality (BIO2/BIO7)			Y
BIO4	Temperature seasonality (annual standard deviation)			Y
BIO5	Max temperature of warmest month			Y
BIO6	Min temperature of coldest month			Y
BIO7	Annual temperature amplitude	Y	Y	Y
BIO8	Mean temperature of wettest quarter			Y
BIO9	Mean temperature of driest quarter			Y
BIO10	Mean temperature of warmest quarter			Y
BIO11	Mean Temperature of coldest quarter			Y
BIO12	Annual precipitation			Y

Table S4. Fit statistics for 2- and 12-covariate MaxEnt models. Features include hinge (H), linear (L), quadratic (Q), and polynomial (P) functions, or any combination of the four. RM indicates the regularization multiplier. Area-under-curve (AUC) values are calculated by averaging across 4 independently subsetted evaluation datasets. Δ AUC show average differences between individual calibration and evaluation AUC values. Omission rate (OR) metrics can be compared to theoretical expectations of omission rates of 0 (OR_{MTP}) and 0.1 (OR_{10%}). Omission rates equal to or lower than their theoretical expectations and Δ AUC values closer to zero signify lower overfitting.

Species	Region	Covariates	Features	RM	AUC	Δ AUC	OR _{MTP}	OR _{10%}	Parameters
<i>S. polyrhiza</i>	UK & Ireland	2	LQHP	3.5	0.74	0.01	0.007	0.098	6
		12	LQH	4	0.74	0.02	0.011	0.102	16
	N. America	2	LQ	1.5	0.77	0.02	0.002	0.093	3
		12	LQ	1.5	0.81	0.02	0.012	0.116	12
	N. Europe	2	H	4	0.71	0.03	0.003	0.091	18
		12	LQ	1.5	0.80	0.02	0.001	0.086	14
<i>L. minor</i>	UK & Ireland	2	H	1.5	0.67	0.03	0.003	0.090	37
		12	H	3	0.76	0.02	0.002	0.090	35
	N. America	2	L	4	0.65	0.01	0.004	0.101	2
		12	L	3	0.66	0.02	0.003	0.101	5
	N. Europe	2	L	2	0.73	0.01	0.001	0.109	2
		12	H	3	0.76	0.02	0.002	0.090	35

Table S5. Comparison of *S. polyrhiza*'s observed northern latitudinal limits, \bar{L}_{\max} ($^{\circ}$ N), with niche model-estimated latitudinal limits, \hat{L}_{\max} . Values in parentheses denote 95% confidence intervals. True positive rates (TPR) and binomial test results (p -values) are used to assess model model fit to observation records. For model definitions, see Materials and Methods section.

Region	\bar{L}_{\max}	Model	\hat{L}_{\max}	TPR
UK & Ireland	(55.9, 56.6)	\bar{r}_{res}	(65.0, 68.5)	1.00 ^{n.s.}
		\bar{r}_{inv}	(55.3, 56.2)	0.95**
		MaxEnt ₂	(55.4, 56.7)	0.90**
		MaxEnt ₁₂	(55.2, 56.5)	0.89**
N. America	(54.0, 54.7)	\bar{r}_{res}	(62.7, 66.0)	1.00 ^{n.s.}
		\bar{r}_{inv}	(54.5, 60.5)	0.98**
		ME ₂	(51.9, 54.7)	0.91**
		ME ₁₂	(53.4, 60.0)	0.90**
N. Europe	(63.7, 65.8)	\bar{r}_{res}	(77.2, 80.7)	1.00*
		\bar{r}_{inv}	(63.8, 66.5)	0.98**
		ME ₂	(63.5, 64.4)	0.90**
		ME ₁₂	(63.7, 64.2)	0.95**

^{n.s.} $p > 0.05$; * $p < 0.005$; ** $p < 0.001$