

- 1 **Appendix Table 2:** Environmental and anthropogenic factors co-shape plant species richness across the
- 2 Western Siberian tundra paper ODMAP protocol.

ODMAP element	Contents
<b>OVERVIEW</b>	
<i>Authorship</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Authors: V. Zemlianskii, P. Brun, N.E. Zimmermann, K. Ermokhina, O. Khitun, N. Koroleva, G. Schaepman-Strub</li> <li>• Contact email: <a href="mailto:vitalii.zemlianskii@ieu.uzh.ch">vitalii.zemlianskii@ieu.uzh.ch</a></li> <li>• Title: Climate and infrastructure co-shape plant species richness across the Western Siberian tundra</li> <li>• DOI: N/A</li> </ul>
<i>Model Objective</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Objective: Mapping/Explanation</li> <li>• Target output: predicted community-level species richness</li> </ul>
<i>Taxon</i>	Vascular plants, mosses and lichens
<i>Location</i>	<b>Western Siberian tundra</b> , Russia
<i>Scale of analysis</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Spatial extent (Lon/Lat): Longitude 66.8233 - 83.232754 E, Latitude 73.495569 N - 66.479605 N</li> <li>• Spatial resolution: 1 km</li> <li>• Temporal resolution and extent: resolution none; extent of field sampling 2005-2018</li> <li>• Type of extent boundary: floristic (boundary of Yamal-Gydan floristic province (CAVM, 2003))</li> </ul>
<i>Biodiversity data overview</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Observation type: Community plots</li> <li>• Response/Data type: species numbers</li> </ul>
<i>Type of predictors</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Climatic, topographic, anthropogenic</li> </ul>
<i>Conceptual model / Hypothesis</i>	Species richness is co-shaped by natural (climate, topography, etc.) and anthropogenic factors
<i>Assumptions</i>	We assumed that (a) relevant ecological drivers (or proxies) of species richness are included, (b) detectability does not change across habitats, (c) sampling is adequate and representative (and any biases are accounted for/corrected), distance to infrastructure is an effective proxy to measure anthropogenic impact
<i>SDM algorithms</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Model algorithms:</b> We built macroecological models using GLMs, GAMs, GBMs and Random Forests algorithms and one ensemble method (the mean probability of occurrence from three best performing modelling algorithms).</li> <li>• <b>Model tuning:</b> For GLMs and GAMs, we step-wise optimized the Akaike information criterion by removing uninformative terms from the model equation.</li> <li>• <b>Model averaging/ensemble:</b> GAMs, GBMs, Random Forest were combined in an ensemble</li> </ul>
<i>Model workflow</i>	We used General Linear Models, General Additive Models, Random Forests, and Gradient boosting to predict species richness as a response variable of environmental predictors selected based on univariate predictive performance, limited collinearity (absolute pairwise Pearson correlation coefficients <0.7), and ecological relevance. We estimated the

	<p>role of anthropogenic factors using distance from infrastructure derived from Open Street Maps as a proxy for human influence.</p> <p>For each model, we tested three options: using environmental only set of predictors, actual distance to infrastructure raster and a hypothetical zero human influence raster (distance to infrastructure was set to maximum value). Predictive model performance was assessed using a 5-fold cross-validation</p>
<i>Software</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Software:</b> R (version 4.1.2, R Core Team, 2021), QGIS (version 3.12, <a href="https://www.qgis.org/">https://www.qgis.org/</a>) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ <b>R-Packages used:</b> ecospat (Broennimann et al., 2014), gam (Hastie, 2020), gbm (Greenwell et al., 2020), randomForest (Liaw and Wiener, 2002) and raster (Bivand et al. 2021).</li> </ul> </li> <li>• <b>Data availability:</b> <a href="https://datadryad.org/stash/share/bFWEuics4IXhXfj2xvo4or1sUYa-WriskoaRUuoVdeU">https://datadryad.org/stash/share/bFWEuics4IXhXfj2xvo4or1sUYa-WriskoaRUuoVdeU</a></li> <li>• <b>Code availability:</b> <a href="https://datadryad.org/stash/share/bFWEuics4IXhXfj2xvo4or1sUYa-WriskoaRUuoVdeU">https://datadryad.org/stash/share/bFWEuics4IXhXfj2xvo4or1sUYa-WriskoaRUuoVdeU</a></li> </ul>
<b>DATA</b>	
<i>Biodiversity data</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Taxonomic reference system:</b> We used Pan-Arctic species list (PASL) (Raynolds et al., 2013) as taxonomic reference</li> <li>• <b>Ecological level:</b> community-level</li> <li>• <b>Biodiversity data source:</b> We used Russian Vegetation Archive data (Ermokhina et al., 2022) for identifying community-level species richness</li> <li>• <b>Sampling design:</b> Data was collected using standard Braun-Blanquet method according to Arctic Vegetation Archive protocol (Walker et al., 2013, 2016, 2018). Sample size varied from 16 to 100 m according to AVA protocol for tundra communities. Plots were classified the plots to small (less than 100m2) and large (100m2) to correct for the potential effect of plot size on species richness.</li> <li>• <b>Sample size:</b> 1438 plots</li> </ul>
<i>Data partitioning</i>	5-fold cross-validation
<i>Predictor variables</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Predictor variables: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Climatic: 19 bioclimatic variables (seasonal and annual statistics of temperature and precipitation), mean ground temperature, annual statistics of climate moisture index, total cloud cover, potential evapotranspiration, site water balance, and growing degree days, mean wind speed</li> <li>○ Paleoclimatic: mean annual temperature, annual precipitation sum, paleo-elevation, distance to land ice, maximum (latest) year in time-series where the location was covered by land ice.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Topography: altitude (incl. standard deviation of altitude), slope, aspect, topographic position index, terrain wetness index and solar radiation</li> <li>○ Vegetation: Mean normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) was tested but omitted during variable selection</li> <li>○ Anthropogenic impact: Distance to infrastructure and used as a proxy for anthropogenic impact, combining industrial activities and the resulting increase of reindeer pressure into one single predictor</li> <li>● Data sources: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Bioclimatic variables: CHELSA (Karger et al., 2017), and CHELSA-BIOCLIM+ (Brun et al., 2022).</li> <li>○ Mean ground temperature (2000-2016): ESA Global permafrost project (Obu, et al., 2019)</li> <li>○ Paleoclimate: CHELSA-TraCE21k dataset (Karger et al., 2021)</li> <li>○ Terrain wetness index (Marthews et al., 2015)</li> <li>○ Mean wind speed: Global Wind Atlas (<a href="https://globalwindatlas.info/en">https://globalwindatlas.info/en</a>)</li> <li>○ Topography: ArcticDEM based (Morin et al., 2016; Porter et al., 2018)</li> <li>○ Vegetation: NDVI for the period July-August 2019-2020 as observed by MODIS (<a href="https://modis.gsfc.nasa.gov/">https://modis.gsfc.nasa.gov/</a>)</li> <li>○ Human impact: derived from Open Street Maps (<a href="https://www.openstreetmap.org/">https://www.openstreetmap.org/</a>)</li> </ul> </li> <li>● Data processing: slope, aspect and solar radiation as well as distance to infrastructure were calculated in QGIS (version 3.12, <a href="https://www.qgis.org/en/site/">https://www.qgis.org/en/site/</a>)</li> </ul>
<b>MODEL</b>	
<i>Variable pre-selection</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● The selection was based on univariate predictive performance (&gt;5% explained deviance), limited collinearity (absolute pairwise Pearson correlation coefficients &lt;0.7), and ecological relevance.</li> <li>● The final 14 variables include mean ground temperature, potential evapotranspiration (min), mean temperature of driest quarter, climate moisture index (max), distance to infrastructure, growing degree days above 5°C, climate moisture index (range), (log transformed) slope, cloud area fraction and mean wind speed.</li> </ul>
<i>Multicollinearity</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● We conducted Spearman’s rank correlations between all pairs of variables and dropped three variables that were highly correlated with others (Spearman’s <math> \rho  &lt; 0.7</math>) to reduce the risk of overfitting during model calibration.</li> <li>● For predictor variables having Spearman’s rank correlation close to threshold (<math>\pm 0.2</math>), and similar predictive power (<math>\pm 3\%</math> explained deviance) the selection was based on ecological relevance</li> </ul>
<i>Model settings</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● For GLMs, we defined a linear and a quadratic term for each predictor.</li> <li>● For GAMs, we used smooth terms with four degrees of freedom.</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• For GBMs, we set the number of trees to 80, the minimum number of data points per leaf to 10, learning rate equals to 0.1 and the distribution equals 'poisson'</li> <li>• For Random Forests we fitted 500 regression trees, considering three predictors for each tree</li> </ul>
<i>Model estimates</i>	We used Spearman correlation and mean absolute error to estimate model performance. Only models with Spearman correlation > 0.55 were included into resulting ensemble.
<i>Model averaging/ensembles</i>	We calculated the mean species richness from three best-performing models (Spearman correlation > 0.55) as consensus method for combining the output of different single-models.
<i>Non-independent analyses</i>	
<b>ASSESSMENT</b>	
<i>Performance statistics</i>	Performance statistics estimated on validation data (from data partitioning). Agreement between observed and predicted species richness was assessed using Spearman correlation coefficients and mean absolute error (MAE).
<i>Plausibility checks</i>	Maps of modelled predictions were checked by experts
<b>PREDICTION</b>	
<i>Prediction output</i>	<b>Prediction unit:</b> species numbers
<i>Uncertainty quantification</i>	We calculated model disagreement as the range between maximum and minimum predicted species richness in each pixel as measure of uncertainty.

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