

1 **Joint species distribution modelling of insect microbiota: Time to jump onto a new oppor-**
2 **tunity**

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20 **Abstract**

21
22 How microbes influence insects, each other and *vice versa*, is a topical question in insect science.
23 With this contribution, we highlight joint species distribution models (JSDMs) as a statistical
24 framework particularly well suited for resolving it. While JSDM has been widely applied to mi-
25 crobiota of organisms other than insects, only a handful of studies have applied them thus far to
26 insect microbiota. To encourage insect microbiota researchers to catch up with the benefits of
27 JSDM, we introduce the statistical and ecological basics of JSDM and give flesh to the modelling
28 framework by reviewing how it has so far been applied to insect microbiota. We highlight the
29 power of JSDMs in separating host, environmental and microbial drivers of community assembly,
30 and in generating hypotheses about how different microbes influence each other. To stimulate a
31 broad adoption of JSDMs in studies of insect microbiota, we propose a predictive framework for
32 identifying and characterizing five ecological categories of insect-associated microbes: (1) obli-
33 gate nutritional symbionts; (2) facultative endosymbionts; (3) specialized gut associates; (4) tran-
34 sient microbes; and (5) pathogens and parasites. In particular, we hypothesize how the ecological
35 characteristics of these different microbial categories are reflected in the statistical signatures re-
36 covered by JSDMs. We further suggest how JSDM can be applied to address the phylogenetic and
37 ecological scales at which microbiome patterns are structured and to uncover how global environ-
38 mental changes may reshape insect microbiota.

39
40 **Keywords:** insect microbiome, Joint Species Distribution Modelling (JSDM), Hierarchical Mod-
41 elling of Species Communities (HMSC), host-microbe associations, symbiosis, community assem-
42 bly, species interactions

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44 **Highlights:**

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- 47 • Different kinds of insect-associated microbes generate different JSDM signatures
 - 48 • JSDM can separate host, environmental and microbial drivers of community assembly
 - 49 • JSDM remains little used for insect microbiota, but is much used for other microbiotas
 - 50 • JSDM can move insect microbiome research from description to ecological inference
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53 **Introduction**

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55 Microbes can fundamentally alter the dynamics of insect populations and communities—and in-
56 sects, on their part, serve as both hosts and vectors of microbes (1,2). Reflecting the growing in-
57 sight into the importance of insect–microbe interactions, research on insect microbiota has rapidly
58 increased over the past decade (Fig. 1, green line). At the same time, research developing or ap-
59 plying joint species distribution modelling (JSDM) has increased at much the same rate (Fig. 1,
60 black line). Importantly, many of the ecological questions gaining attention in current insect mi-
61 crobiome research are resolvable by JSDM (3). Microbiome studies frequently ask how host spe-
62 cies, host populations, environmental conditions, and interactions among microbes shape micro-
63 bial community composition. As such processes often act simultaneously, it remains difficult to
64 distinguish their relative importance using conventional analytical approaches. JSDM has been
65 explicitly designed to resolve the relative contributions of multiple drivers spanning several levels
66 of biological organization. JSDM can be especially powerful in disentangling the processes struc-
67 turing microbial co-occurrence networks: which microbes are found together because of shared
68 niche (e.g. host or environmental conditions), and which are found together because they facilitate
69 each other (3,4).

70

71 Despite the apparent match between the analytical challenges of insect microbiota studies and the
72 strengths of JSDM, only a handful of studies have thus far applied JSDM for insect microbiota
73 (Fig. 1, red line). Instead, JSDM has been widely applied to microbiota of organisms other than
74 insects (Fig. 1, brown line), including humans (5), primates other than humans (6), mammals other
75 than primates (7), birds (3), fishes (8), amphibians (9), sponges (3), ticks (10) and plants (11), as
76 well as to microbiota inhabiting soil (12) and dead wood (13).

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78 That JSDM remain underused in studies of insect microbiota appears a missed opportunity. The
79 main purpose of this article is to encourage insect microbiota researchers to catch up with the
80 benefits of JSDM and thus to start making full use of this powerful tool. We first recapitulate the
81 statistical and ecological basics of JSDM, then give flesh to the modelling framework by reviewing
82 how it has so far been applied to studies of insect microbiota, and finally discuss how JSDM could
83 provide a systematic framework for understanding—and predicting—how different types of in-
84 sect-microbe associations are structured, maintained and affected by global change.

85

86 **What is joint species distribution modelling?**

87

88 Single species distribution models (SDMs) are widely applied statistical tools for analysing how
89 the occurrences or abundances of a focal species depend on variation in the abiotic and biotic
90 environmental conditions, as well as on other factor that vary in space and time (14). As an exam-
91 ple of insect-microbiota studies, (15) used generalized linear mixed modelling (GLLM) to test how
92 the prevalence of a bacterial symbiont *Wolbachia* varies across space and time in a grasshopper
93 species. As the simplest extension of SDMs to the many-microbes case, stacked species distribu-
94 tion modelling fits a SDM *independently* for each microbe, and then makes inferences or predic-
95 tions based on such as a collection of models (16).

96

97 In contrast, with joint species distribution models (JSDM), the model parameters are estimated
98 *jointly* for all microbes (4,17,18). JSDMs are hence multivariate models where the response

99 variable is a vector, e.g., the presences of all microbial symbionts within a host individual (Box 1).
100 Fitting the model simultaneously to many microbes brings two distinct advantages. First, JSDM
101 allows us to estimate how microbes' dependency on their hosts and environments depend on their
102 phylogenetic relationships, thus relating niche variation to shared evolutionary history (4,19). Sec-
103 ond, JSDMs estimate residual associations among microbes that remain unexplained after account-
104 ing for host- and environmental factors (4). Thus, as compared to the identification of microbial
105 co-occurrences directly from the raw data, residual associations identified by JSDM can bring
106 additional resolution for identifying both positive and antagonistic interactions among different
107 microbes – for example, protection conferred by a mutualistic bacterium against a pathogen. We
108 argue that this flexibility of JSDMs makes them particularly well suited to insect microbiota,
109 whose members differ fundamentally in transmission modes, host specificity and ecological func-
110 tion (1,20). Furthermore, JSDMs have recently greatly improved in their computational scalability,
111 enabling their application to thousands (21) or even hundreds of thousands (22) of microbial taxa.
112

113 **What have JSDMs revealed about insect-associated microbes?**

114
115 To date, only four papers have explicitly applied JSDM to insect microbiota (for our literature
116 search, see Fig. 1). While all four applied the HMSC framework (4), they addressed markedly
117 different biological systems and questions (Table 1). In terms of the host community considered,
118 (23) focused on a single butterfly species, (24) on bacterial and fungal microbiota of two mosquito
119 species, (25) on pathogens in diverse bumblebees and (26) on bacterial communities associated
120 with species-rich assemblages of phorid flies (Table 1). Likewise, the studies differed in their an-
121 alytical approaches, with (25) analysing PCR-based presence-absence data for viruses and other
122 pathogens, while the three other studies used marker gene amplicon sequencing to characterizing
123 bacterial (and in case of (24) also fungal) communities (Table 1).
124

125 Variation in the types of the host and microbiome communities was reflected in the questions
126 addressed by the four studies and hence in the fixed and random effects included in their JSDMs
127 (Table 1). All studies, except the single-species study of (23), asked how the microbiota variation
128 was structured by the host species. (24) included the contrast between the two hosts as a fixed
129 effect, whereas (25) and (26) treated their diverse sets of host species as random effects (Table 1).
130 (26) and (24) further quantified within-species host genetic variation using COI haplotypes, and
131 all studies except (25) considered the effect of the sex of the host individual. Importantly, and as
132 something that the JSDM approach specifically supports, all four studies included the host indi-
133 vidual as a community-level random effect, allowing variation among individual hosts to be quan-
134 tified after accounting for the host and environmental factors measured. In addition to these host-
135 related predictors, the studies controlled for environmental variation that they expected to influ-
136 ence host microbiota, as well as factors implied by their study designs—such as the random effect
137 of the sampling site (Table 1). The studies based on high-throughput sequencing accounted for the
138 zero-inflated nature of the data through a hurdle-approach, i.e. separate modelling of microbial
139 presence and then abundance-when-present, while the PCR-detection based study of (25) restricted
140 their analyses to presence-absence data.
141

142 These four studies illustrate the ability of JSDMs to partition microbiome variation among host-,
143 environmental- and individual-level components, while simultaneously generating hypotheses
144 about microbial associations. The pathogen-focused study by (25) found the host species to be the

145 dominant source of variation, suggesting a high degree of host specificity among the pathogens
146 considered. In contrast, a consistent finding from all three studies on bacterial and fungal micro-
147 biomes was that host species, host genotype and host sex explained only a minor proportion of
148 variation in the overall microbial community composition, despite some individual microbial taxa
149 exhibiting strong responses. Instead, all three studies identified host individual as the dominant
150 source of microbial variation, highlighting substantial heterogeneity among individual insects be-
151 yond that captured by the host and environmental variables measured. The residual associations
152 estimated by the models differed among studies, reflecting differences in the ecological structure
153 of the microbial communities investigated. (23) found a strong negative association between En-
154 terobacteriaceae and bacteria belonging to other families, suggesting competitive exclusion among
155 bacterial clades. In contrast, (24) and (26) reported predominantly positive associations among
156 microbial taxa, suggesting a nested community structure. While these associations are likely to
157 reflect ecological interactions among the microbes, they may also reflect the influences of some
158 unmeasured host-specific factors. This uncertainty remains because these two explanations cannot
159 be conclusively disentangled from each other without additional data from manipulative experi-
160 ments (4,27).

161
162 While the four studies reviewed above appear to be the only explicit applications of JSDMs to
163 insect microbiota, other studies have used related approaches. As one example, (28) used HMSC
164 to examine how treatment by *Bacillus thuringiensis* var. *israelensis* (a naturally occurring soil
165 bacterium used as a biological larvicide) influenced chironomid communities—effectively revers-
166 ing the perspective adopted by the other studies, by modelling insects as the response community.
167 As a second example, (29) modelled vector–virus–microbiome interactions, asking how a micro-
168 bial symbiont of an aphid influenced the probability of virus acquisition. As they considered just
169 one microbe and just one virus, instead of the more generic JSDM they applied a system-tailored
170 hierarchical model connecting microbe, virus and environmental conditions. As a third example,
171 (30) investigated the distribution of viruses across 13 species of bumblebees. Similarly to what
172 could be achieved with JSDM, they examined factors influencing individual-level probabilities of
173 infection but used a co-phylogenetic model to focus specifically on the interplay between the host
174 and the virus phylogenies. This approach revealed that while the interaction between the hosts and
175 the viruses were generally unpredictable, closely related species were more likely to exhibit similar
176 patterns of infection.

177 178 **How could JSDM help advancing research in insect microbiota?**

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180 We propose that systematic application of JSDM approaches can play a major role in addressing
181 three core questions related to insect microbiota:

182
183 *How to identify and characterize major ecological categories of insect-associated microbes?* The
184 four studies summarized in Table 1 highlight how the ecological characteristics of microbial com-
185 munities are reflected in the statistical signatures recovered by JSDMs. These studies span three
186 broad ecological categories of insect-associated microbes: transient microbial communities
187 (23,24), facultative endosymbionts embedded within diverse and largely transient bacterial com-
188 munities (26), and pathogens (25). Building on this evidence and ecological reasoning, we foresee
189 a more general use of JSDM outputs for identifying major ecological categories of insect-associ-
190 ated microbes (Table 2). Applying JSDMs across diverse insect species and populations will allow

191 the predictions of Table 2 to be tested for microbes whose roles have already been revealed, as
192 well as hypothesizing ecological roles of newly discovered microbes whose biology remains un-
193 certain. The power of JSDBMs for doing so relates to their ability to quantify the relative contribu-
194 tions of different types of host-specific and environmental factors that may favour particular sym-
195 bionts or shape symbiont-mediated host responses (26). JSDBM analyses can further facilitate the
196 distinction between stable, vertically transmitted obligate symbionts and facultative symbionts in-
197 cluding reproductive manipulators or defensive mutualists, pathogens, and environmentally ac-
198 quired associates.

199
200 *At what phylogenetic and ecological scales are microbiome patterns structured?* Microbiome var-
201 iation can be analyzed at multiple levels of biological resolution, ranging from bacterial genera to
202 ASVs and from host populations to higher insect clades (31,32). Comparing JSDBMs fitted across
203 these scales can distinguish long-term evolutionary associations from recent ecological processes,
204 revealing the biological scales at which microbiome assembly is most predictable and identifying
205 which patterns are evolutionarily conserved versus environmentally contingent.

206
207 *How does global environmental change reshape insect microbiota?* Heat stress, pesticides, habitat
208 modification, introduced species and other anthropogenic disturbances alter insect communities
209 and, undoubtedly, their microbiota, yet the mechanisms underlying these effects remain poorly
210 understood (1,33,34). By simultaneously modelling host-, environment- and microbe-associated
211 drivers of community composition, JSDBM provides a framework for identifying how environmen-
212 tal change propagates through insect-associated microbial communities, and how microbial sym-
213 bionts buffer insect hosts against environmental stress or alternatively amplify the consequences
214 of environmental change.

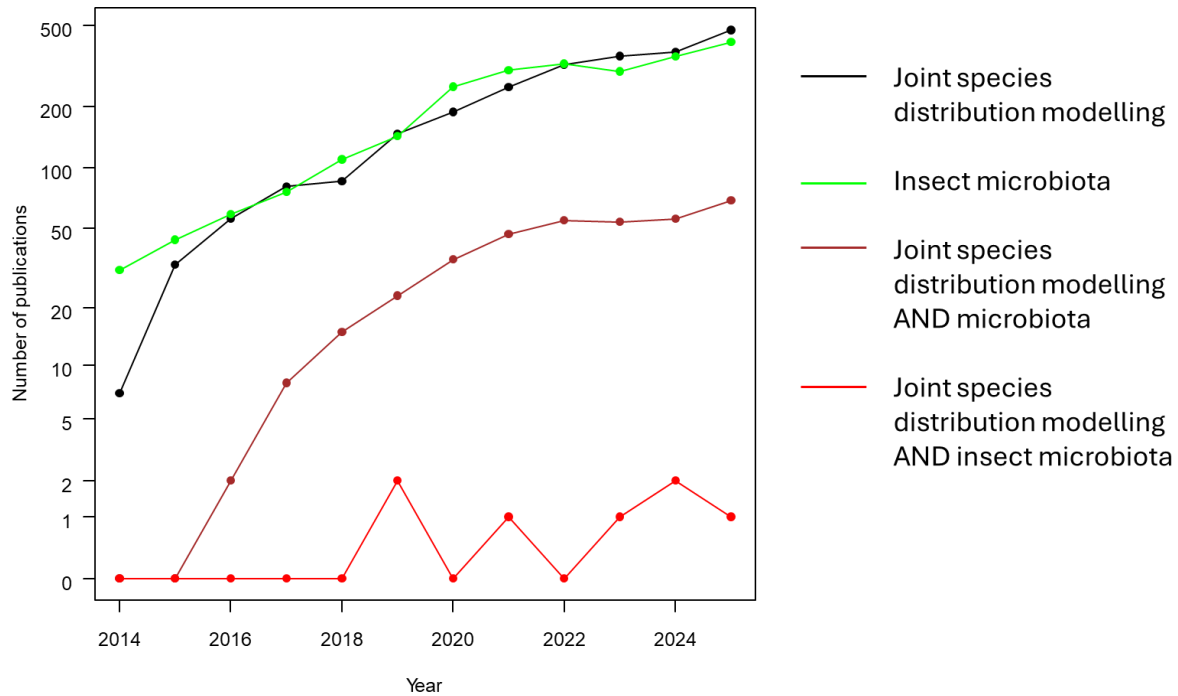
215
216 In conclusion, we consider that systematic application of JSDBMs can move insect microbiome
217 research beyond describing community composition towards testing general ecological and evo-
218 lutionary hypotheses.

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226
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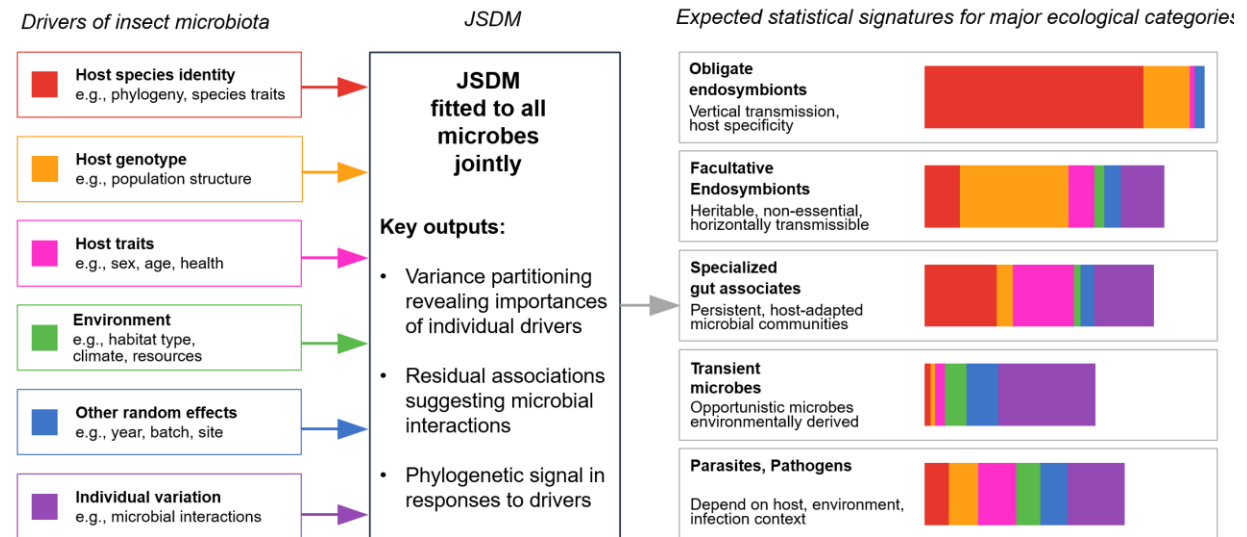
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Figure 1. Joint species distribution modelling remains little utilized in studies of insect microbiota. The figure shows yearly numbers of publications in the Dimensions scientific research database (app.dimensions.ai; accessed June 8th 2026) as identified by the search terms (1) “Joint species distribution modelling”, (2) “Insect microbiota”, (3) “Joint species distribution modelling” and “microbiota”, or (4) “Joint species distribution modelling” and “insect microbiota”. For “modelling”, also “modeling” or “model” were accepted, and for “microbiota”, also “microbiome” was accepted. Note the logarithmic scaling of the y-axis.

Box 1. JSDM as statistical framework for studying insect microbiota.



The figure illustrates how drivers of microbiota composition enter as JSDM input, and how JSDM outputs are expected to reflect ecological characteristics of the studied communities. Like single species distribution models, JSDM approaches can be built within many kinds of statistical frameworks (4,46,47). Among the most popular approaches are generalized linear latent variable models (18,48,49), which directly generalize GLLMs for multiple species. We exemplify here the statistical structure of JSDM through Hierarchical Modelling of species communities (HMSC) (4,50). In HMSC notation, the species data are denoted by y_{ij} , where i indexes the sampling units and j the species. The underlying linear predictor is modelled as a function of fixed effects and latent variables: $L_{ij} = \sum_k x_{ik} \beta_{kj} + \sum_h \eta_{ih} \lambda_{hj}$. Concerning the fixed effects, x_{ik} is the value of the predictor k in sampling unit i , and β_{kj} is the response of species j to this predictor. Variation among the species responses β_{kj} can be captured by a second-level regression model that uses species traits as predictors and phylogenetic relationships as the variance-covariance structure (19,50). Concerning the latent variables, η_{ih} represents some latent (unknown or unmeasured) environmental (or other) conditions of the sampling unit i , whereas the term λ_{hj} measures how the species respond to that latent variable. While for the fixed effects the environmental conditions (x_{ik}) have been measured and only the species responses to them (β_{kj}) are estimated, for the latent variable part of the model both the latent variables (η_{ih}) and the species responses to them (λ_{hj}) are estimated. Co-occurrence patterns among the species can then be quantified by the species-to-species variance-covariance matrix Ω , with element $\Omega_{j_1 j_2} = \sum_h \lambda_{h j_1} \lambda_{h j_2}$ measuring the level of co-occurrence between species j_1 and j_2 (4).

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Table 1. Key characteristics of the four studies that have applied joint species distribution modelling to insect microbiota.

Reference	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)
Host community	One butterfly species (<i>Melitaea cinxia</i>).	Two mosquito species (<i>Ochlerotatus impiger</i> and <i>O. nigripes</i>).	22 species of bumblebees.	75 species of scuttle flies (Diptera: Phoridae).
Microbial community	Bacterial (16S rRNA V5-V6 region) OTUs (n=562) detected with high-throughput sequencing (HTS).	Bacterial (16S rRNA V4 region) OTUs (n=418) and fungal (ITS2) OTUs (n=51) detected with HTS.	Viruses (n=5) and other pathogens (n=4) detected with PCR methods.	Bacterial communities represented either by 16S rRNA V4 region OTUs (n=50), 16S-V4 ZOTUs (n=100), or <i>Wolbachia</i> COI ZOTUs (n=24) detected with HTS.
Fixed effects	The sex and infection status of the host individual. The abundance of the focal OTU, the OTU community composition, and the metabolite composition of the host plant.	The interaction between host species and the sex of the host individual. Sequencing depth.	Altitude, annual mean temperature and annual precipitation of the sampling locality.	The sex of the host individual and the season of sampling.
Random effects implemented through latent variables.	The host plant (n=55) and the host individual (n=142).	The sampling site (n=5), the year of collection (n=5), the COI haplotype of the host (n=40), and the host individual (n=400 for bacteria and 364 for fungi)	The sampling site (n=19), the host species (n=22) and the host individual (n=771).	The sampling site (n=6), the host species (n=75), the host genotype (n=328) and the host individual (n=1634).
Model type	Hurdle approach: probit model for presence-absence, lognormal model for abundance conditional on presence.	Hurdle approach: probit model for presence-absence, lognormal model for abundance conditional on presence.	Probit model for presence-absence.	Hurdle approach: probit model for presence-absence, lognormal model for abundance conditional on presence.

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249 **Table 2. Predicted statistical signatures of major functional categories of insect-associated**
250 **microbes in joint species distribution models.** The symbols denote the expected relative im-
251 portance of each component (***high, **moderate, *low). The predictions are derived from the
252 following considerations: *Obligate nutritional symbionts*, such as *Buchnera* in aphids (35), are
253 expected to show extremely strong host specificity, with little contribution from environmental
254 factors or variation among individuals (36). More recently acquired heritable symbionts may ex-
255 hibit similar patterns, although these may be obscured by rapid sequence evolution and frequent
256 gains or losses within host lineages (37). *Facultative endosymbionts*, such as *Wolbachia*, are ver-
257 tically transmitted yet occasionally switch hosts, allowing both host-related and environmental
258 factors to shape their distributions (38). Simultaneously, they can interact with other members of
259 the microbiota (39,40). *Specialized gut associates*, such as those of honeybees, often show remark-
260 ably stable composition, yet their abundances vary substantially with host age, diet, health, season,
261 parasite and pathogen load and environmental stress (41,42). Diverse *transient microbes* oppor-
262 tunistically colonize different environments (including insect bodies), and their occurrence may
263 depend primarily on environmental exposure and vary strongly among environments and individ-
264 uals (43). *Pathogens and parasites* of insects, as well as pathogens vectored by insects, often ex-
265 hibit strong host specificity but are also influenced by geography, seasonality, and co-occurrence
266 with other microbes (44,45).
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Functional category	Example	Prevalence	Transmission	Host specificity	Expected variance partitioning					Microbial associations
					Species	Geno- type	Popu- lation	Environ- ment	Indi- vidual	
Obligate nutritional symbionts	<i>Buchnera</i> (aphids)	~100%	Strictly vertical	Very high	***	*				Rare
Facultative endosymbionts	<i>Wolbachia</i> , <i>Spiroplasma</i>	Intermediate, variable	Vertical, occasional host switches	Medium to high	*	***	***	*	***	Strong positive & negative interactions
Specialized gut associates	<i>Snodgrassella</i> , <i>Gilliamella</i> (honeybees)	Very high	Social, maternal, environmental	High	**	**			*	Structured co-occurrence
Transient microbes	<i>Pseudomonas</i> , <i>Enterobacter</i>	Low	Environmental	Low			*	**	***	Inconsistent
Pathogens and parasites	<i>Nosema</i> , <i>Crithidia</i> (bees), <i>Phytoplasma</i>	Variable	Horizontal, vector-mediated	Variable	**	*	**		***	Co-infection and exclusion networks

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272 **References and recommended reading**

273

274 Papers of particular interest, published within the period of review, have been highlighted as:

275 * of special interest

276 ** of outstanding interest

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