

1 **Interspecific behavioural interference and range dynamics: current insights and future**
2 **directions**

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7 **Abstract**

8 Novel biotic interactions in shifting communities play a key role in determining the ability of
9 species' ranges to track suitable habitat. To date, the impact of biotic interactions on range
10 dynamics have predominantly been studied in the context of interactions between different
11 trophic levels or, to a lesser extent, exploitative competition between species of the same
12 trophic level. Yet, both theory and a growing number of empirical studies show that
13 interspecific behavioural interference, such as interspecific territorial and mating interactions,
14 can slow down range expansions, preclude coexistence, or drive local extinction, even in the
15 absence of resource competition. We conducted a systematic review of the current empirical
16 research into the consequences of interspecific behavioural interference on range dynamics.
17 Our findings demonstrate there is abundant evidence that behavioural interference by one
18 species can impact the spatial distribution of another. Furthermore, we identify several gaps
19 where more empirical work is needed to robustly test predictions from theory. Finally, we
20 outline several avenues for future research, providing suggestions for how interspecific
21 behavioural interference could be incorporated into existing scientific frameworks for
22 understanding how biotic interactions influence range expansions, such as species
23 distribution models, to build a stronger understanding of the potential consequences of
24 behavioural interference on the outcome of future range dynamics.

25

26 *Keywords (5-10)*

27 *interspecific behavioural interference, reproductive interference, interspecific aggression,*
28 *range dynamics, systematic review, elevational gradients, invasion biology, range shift*

29

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45 **I. Introduction**

46 As anthropogenic changes continue to alter the availability and distribution of
47 habitats, the spatial distribution of species' niches will shift, in turn driving shifts in species'
48 ranges (Parmesan and Yohe 2003). Given that species vary in their niches and in their
49 responses to environmental change, communities will not shift in concert, resulting in a
50 global reshuffling of diversity and the formation of novel species assemblages. Similarly,
51 invasions due to anthropogenic factors can have disruptive effects on species assemblages.
52 Interactions between species—whether between previously coexisting species or between
53 newly co-occurring species in shifting communities—play key roles in determining the
54 ability of species' ranges to track suitable habitats (Alexander, Diez, and Levine 2015; Blois
55 et al. 2013; Early and Keith 2019; Ockendon et al. 2014). For instance, the arrival of novel
56 predators can drive prey species to extinction (e.g., brown tree snakes [*Boiga irregularis*]
57 drove the local extinction of several bird species after they were introduced to Guam,
58 (Savidge 1987); conversely, the local extinction of one species can destabilize interaction
59 networks, driving secondary extinctions (e.g., experimental removal of a keystone predator
60 [*Pisaster ochraceus*] led to a decline in diversity in the marine intertidal zone, (Paine 1966)).
61 By and large, studies on the impacts of biotic interactions on population and range dynamics
62 have predominantly focused on interactions across trophic levels or, to a lesser extent,
63 exploitative competition between species of the same trophic level (Sirén and Morelli 2020;
64 Early and Keith 2019; Louthan, Doak, and Angert 2015; Svenning et al. 2014; Legault et al.
65 2020; Ortego and Knowles 2020).

66 Yet, an important type of competition between closely related animal species is often
67 overlooked: interspecific behavioural interference (Grether et al. 2017). Behavioural
68 interference encompasses any aggressive or mating behaviour by one species that is directed
69 toward and has a negative impact on the fitness of another species (Grether et al. 2017;

70 Gröning and Hochkirch 2008; Burdfield-Steel and Shuker 2011). For instance, both territorial
71 aggression between individuals of different species and courtship displays directed by males
72 of one species toward females of another species fall under the umbrella of 'behavioural
73 interference'. Behavioural interference has been documented across a wide range of taxa
74 (Gröning and Hochkirch 2008; Peiman and Robinson 2010), and in general, such aggressive
75 and sexual interactions arise between species that are phenotypically and ecologically similar
76 owing to recent shared ancestry (e.g., species with similar sexual signals and/or perceptual
77 systems), though in some cases, behavioural interference may occur across large
78 phylogenetic distances (e.g., indiscriminate aggression from noisy miners toward a broad
79 range of bird species throughout much of Australia, MacNally et al. 2012, Fig. 1C). Such
80 interactions are costly and lead to decreased fitness as individuals waste energy, are driven to
81 use suboptimal habitat, or miss out on mating opportunities with conspecifics. Consequently,
82 behavioural interference can decrease population growth rates, cause exclusion from
83 adequate habitat, and reduce or prevent dispersal into novel areas (Grether et al. 2017). Thus,
84 interspecific behavioural interference is likely to have important impacts on range dynamics.

85 Several theoretical investigations of behavioural interference have modelled the
86 factors that promote or preclude coexistence (T. J. Case and Gilpin 1974; Kuno 1992; Liou
87 and Price 1994; Amarasekare 2002; Mikami and Kawata 2004; Kishi and Nakazawa 2013;
88 Kyogoku and Sota 2017; Iritani and Noriyuki 2021; Irwin and Schluter 2022; Grether and
89 Okamoto 2022) and a handful have even explicitly analysed how processes affecting
90 coexistence locally scale up to influence the outcome of movement across landscapes
91 (Ribeiro and Spielman 1986; Crowder et al. 2011; Nishida, Takakura, and Iwao 2015;
92 Ruokolainen and Hanski 2016; Legault et al. 2020). One key insight from these models is
93 that the impact of interspecific behavioural interference will be highest on the rarer species,
94 and the magnitude of this impact increases as the asymmetry in frequency increases (e.g.,

95 Amarasekare 2002; Kuno 1992). In other words, as interactions between the rarer species and
96 heterospecifics become increasingly more common than interactions with conspecifics.
97 Consequently, Allee effects resulting from behavioural interference may make it very
98 difficult for viable populations to become established in novel geographic areas (Grether et
99 al. 2017) or may drive precipitous local extinction once population densities fall below a
100 certain threshold. A common result in models incorporating behavioural interference is the
101 formation and maintenance of abutting (parapatric) range limits, which may move according
102 to the magnitude of and degree of asymmetry in interference (Ribeiro and Spielman 1986;
103 Nishida, Takakura, and Iwao 2015). Another insight from these models relates to the
104 interactive effect of resource competition and behavioural interference--several models also
105 show dynamics of systems with both resource competition and behavioural interference are
106 markedly different than systems with resource competition alone (Ribeiro and Spielman
107 1986; Amarasekare 2002; Crowder et al. 2011), which underscores the importance of further
108 research into behavioural interference in attempts at predicting species responses to shifting
109 assemblages.

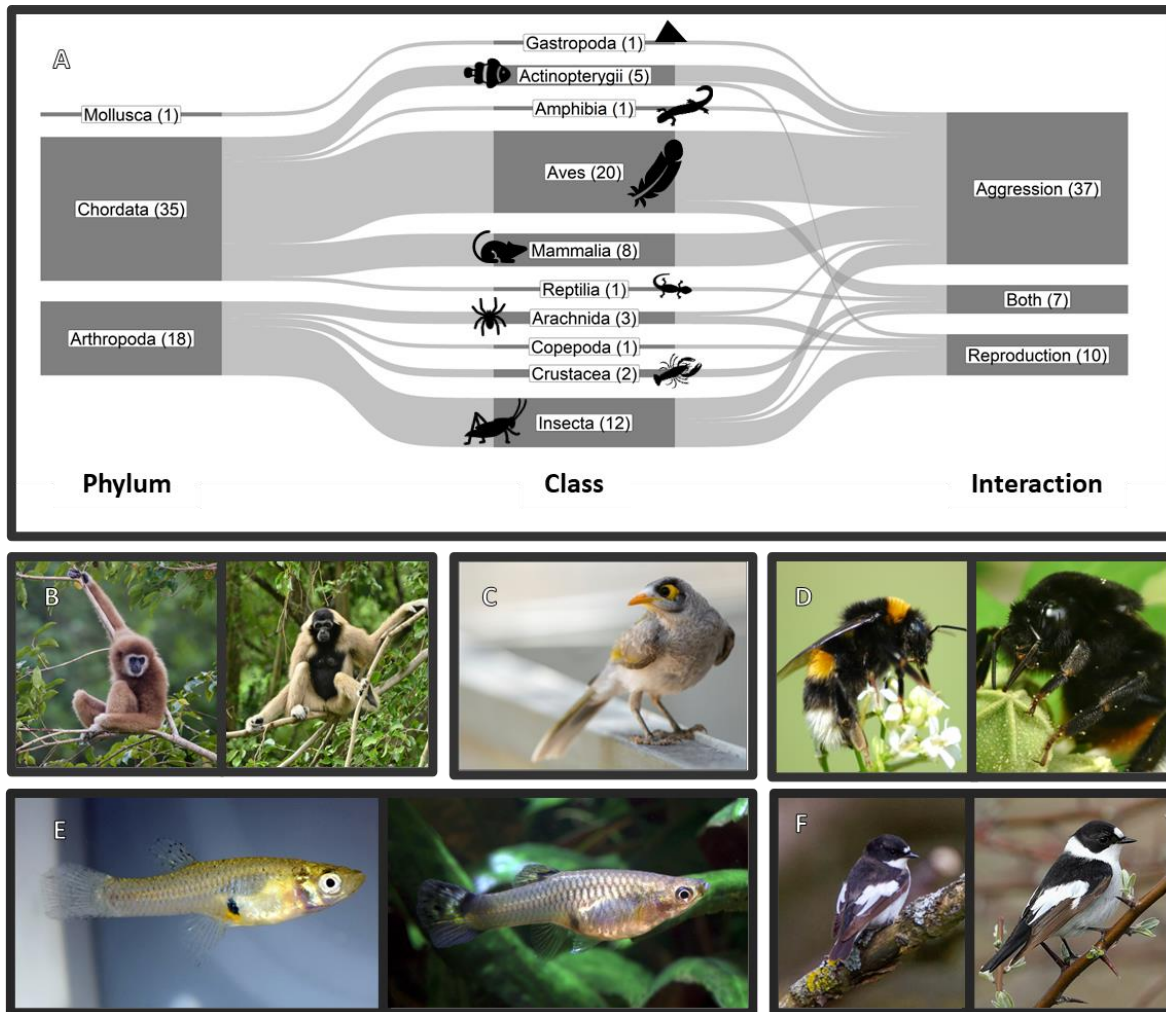
110 Insights derived from theory about the impact of behavioural interference on range
111 dynamics are now backed up by a growing body of empirical research. Interspecific
112 behavioural interference has been shown to impact a range of spatial dynamics, ranging from
113 local-scale habitat use (Vallin et al. 2012) to large-scale range limit shifts (Duckworth and
114 Badyaev 2007). Here we present the results of the first synthesis of this body of work through
115 a systematic literature review, and, in light of the widespread evidence that behavioural
116 interference impacts range dynamics, we discuss patterns emerging from existing studies,
117 highlight key gaps in the literature, and suggest several avenues for future research.

118 **II. Systematic literature review**

119 To identify examples of interspecific behavioural interference influencing the spatial
120 distribution of a species, we conducted a literature search using the “all databases” option in
121 Web of Science (<https://www.webofscience.com/>). We used the search term
122 “*TS=(((behaviour* OR behavior*) NEAR/6 interference) OR (reproduct* NEAR/6*
123 *interference) OR (interspecific NEAR/6 (behaviour* OR behavior*) NEAR/6 competition)*
124 *OR ((interspecific OR heterospecific) NEAR/6 aggress*) OR ((interspecific OR*
125 *heterospecific) NEAR/6 dominan*) OR ((interspecific OR heterospecific) NEAR/6 territor*)*
126 *OR ((interspecific OR heterospecific) NEAR/6 interference) OR (sister AND (taxa OR*
127 *species) AND (competition OR aggress* OR territor*OR dominan* OR interference))) AND*
128 *TS= ((range* NEAR/6 shift*) OR (species NEAR/6 distribution*) OR (range* NEAR/6*
129 *expansion*) OR (range* NEAR/6 dynamic*) OR (species NEAR/6 displace*) OR (species*
130 *NEAR/6 replace*) OR (Altitud* NEAR/6 (zonat* OR zone)))” (NEAR/6 returns search results*
131 that contain the first phrase within six words of the later phrase). While we designed this set
132 of search terms to focus on behavioural interference, we note that hybridization falls under
133 the general umbrella term of 'reproductive interference'. There is a large, related literature
134 covering the spatial dynamics of hybrid zones (Barton 1979; Barton and Hewitt 1989; Buggs
135 2007), which focuses on the way that clines form in the presence of selection acting on
136 hybrid genotypes. Here, however, we focus on the outcome of reproductive behavioural
137 interactions per se, regardless of whether those interactions result in the formation of hybrids.
138 We note that, although some treatments of reproductive interference include aggression in the
139 context of access to mates (e.g., Groning & Hochkirk 2008), we follow recent literature on
140 behavioural interference in classifying all agonistic interactions directed toward
141 heterospecifics as agonistic interference (Grether et al. 2017).

142 As of the search date (2022-10-13), we obtained a database of 338 unique peer-
143 reviewed articles, which both authors contributed to reading and extracting data from. To

144 reduce bias in data extraction between readers, the first 37 papers (10%) were independently
145 read by both of us and data extraction compared. Across all 37 papers, the interpretation of
146 the paper and data extracted was concordant. We only included cases for which there are
147 direct observations of interspecific behavioural interference and an explicit link between that
148 interference to spatial dynamics, which totalled 72 papers in our final set. For instance, in
149 cases where species have abutting boundaries (e.g., parapatric range limits), we only included
150 cases where behavioural interference has been documented and this boundary does not also
151 coincide with clear shifts in habitat types. Similarly, for instances of microhabitat segregation
152 or mosaic distribution patterns, we required the study to demonstrate that shifts in habitat use
153 directly result from behavioural interference. While reading these papers, we also noted
154 papers that the authors cited as further evidence for behavioural interference and/or range
155 dynamics within their own or other study systems which added 26 additional papers to our
156 final set. Of the 98 studies in our final set, 62 studies provided clear evidence that
157 interspecific behavioural interference impacts the spatial distribution of a species, with 19
158 additional studies providing corroborating evidence in combination with other papers. The
159 remaining papers either found no effect ($n = 15$) or were inconclusive ($n = 2$). The 81 papers
160 that, either provide evidence directly or in collaboration with other studies, found clear
161 evidence in favour of interspecific behavioural interference impacting the spatial distribution
162 of a species and were sorted into 54 unique study systems (Figure 1, Table 1). Each of the 54
163 study systems is described in greater detail in Supplementary Table 1.



164

165 Figure 1. There is widespread evidence that behavioural interference (costly aggressive or
 166 reproductive interactions between species) influences spatial dynamics in animals. **A.** The
 167 breakdown of study systems that directly measured the impact of interspecific behavioural
 168 interference on the spatial distribution of one of more species by phylum, class, and whether
 169 the study covered aggressive, reproductive behavioural interference, or both. All study
 170 systems investigated the impact of intraclass behavioural interference, except for one case of
 171 interphylum behavioural interference between a Crustacean and Actinopterygii (Bubb et al.
 172 2009). The interphyla system is counted here as Crustacea study as the crustacean was the
 173 more aggressive species. The Sankey diagram was created using the R package ggsankey
 174 (<https://github.com/davidsjoberg/ggsankey>). **B.** In Thailand, white-handed gibbons
 175 (*Hylobates lar*) (left) and pileated gibbons (*Hylobates pileatus*) (right) are interspecifically

176 territorial at their parapatric range boundary, reinforcing that boundary and, likely, decreasing
177 the frequency of hybridization (Asensio et al. 2017). **C.** Indiscriminate hyperaggression of
178 Noisy miners (*Manorina melanocephala*) has led to shift in the whole structure of avian
179 communities (Mac Nally et al. 2012). **D.** In Japan, the invasive bumblebee *Bombus terrestris*
180 (left) engages in reproductive interference with two species of native bumblebee species,
181 driving rapid declines in *B. ignities* (right) and *B. h. sapporeensis* (Tsuchida et al. 2019). **E.**
182 The accidental introduction of guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*) (left) led to the eradication of
183 invasive mosquito fish (*Gambusia affinis*) (right) in Okinawa owing to reproductive
184 interference, and consequently guppies have been proposed as a potential control agent for
185 mosquito fish elsewhere (Tsurui-Sato et al. 2019). **F.** Pied flycatchers (*Ficedula hypoleuca*)
186 (left) are driven to use sub-optimal habitat by the high aggression of collared flycatchers
187 (*Ficedula albicollis*) (right) (Vallin et al. 2012; Rybinski et al. 2016). All photos under
188 creative commons by Wikimedia-user:Kongkham6211, JJ Harrison, flickr-
189 user:coniferconifer, Vera Buhl, Rex Boggs, Andrej Chudý, Ron Knight, Holger Krisp, and
190 Wikimedia-user:Fredlyfish4.

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193 **Table 1:** All 54 study systems identified during the literature review that found clear
 194 evidence that interspecific behavioural interference (IBI) impacts the spatial distribution of a
 195 species. An expanded table which includes a description of each study system can be found in
 196 Supplementary Table 1. The elevational column indicates whether the study investigated
 197 range dynamics across an elevational gradient. The invasion column indicates whether the
 198 study contained a species outside of its native range. The comparative column indicates
 199 whether the study examined variation in behavioural interference across many species and/or
 200 environments.

Interacting Species	IBI Type	Elevational (Y/N)	Invasion (Y/N)	Comparative (Y/N)	References
Aves					
Great reed warblers (<i>Acrocephalus arundinaceus</i>) & marsh warblers (<i>Acrocephalus palustris</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Rolando and Palestriani 1989)
Bicknell's thrushes (<i>Catharus bicknelli</i>) & Swainson's thrushes (<i>Catharus ustulatus</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	(Freeman and Montgomery 2015)
Black-headed nightingale thrushes (<i>Catharus mexicanus</i>) & ruddy-capped nightingale-thrushes (<i>Catharus frantzii</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	(Jones et al. 2020)
Collared (<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>) & pied (<i>Ficedula hypoleuca</i>) flycatchers	Aggression	N	N	N	(Vallin et al. 2012; Rybinski et al. 2016)
Several species of wood wrens (<i>Henicorhina leucophrys</i> & <i>Henicorhina leucosticta</i>) and thrushes (<i>Catharus mexicanus</i> & <i>Catharus aurantiirostris</i>) along an elevational gradient in Costa Rica.	Aggression	Y	N	N	(Jankowski, Robinson, and Levey 2010)
Narrow-billed woodcreepers (<i>Lepidocolaptes angustirostris</i>) & scaled woodcreepers (<i>Lepidocolaptes squamatus</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Maldonado-Coelho et al. 2017)
Common nightingales (<i>Luscinia megarhynchos</i>) & thrush nightingales (<i>Luscinia luscinia</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Sorjonen 1986; Reif et al. 2015; 2018)
Noisy miners (<i>Manorina melanocephala</i>) & local bird assemblages	Aggression	N	N	N	(Mac Nally et al. 2012; Lill and Muscat 2015)
Flame robins (<i>Petroica phoenicea</i>) & Norfolk robins (<i>Petroica multicolor</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Robinson 1992)
Carolina chickadees (<i>Poecile carolinensis</i>) and black-capped chickadees (<i>Poecile atricapillus</i>)	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	(Bronson et al. 2003; McQuillan and Rice 2015)
Invasive ring-necked parakeets (<i>Psittacula krameri</i>) and native communities	Aggression	N	Y	N	(Hernández-Brito et al. 2014)
Townsend's warblers (<i>Setophaga townsendi</i>) and hermit warblers (<i>Setophaga occidentalis</i>)	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	(Pearson 2000; Pearson and Rohwer 2000)
Western bluebirds (<i>Sialia mexicana</i>) & mountain bluebirds (<i>Sialia currucoides</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Duckworth and Badyaev 2007; Duckworth 2013; Duckworth, Belloni, and Anderson 2015)
Spotted owls (<i>Strix occidentalis</i>) & barred owls (<i>Strix varia</i>)	Aggression	N	Y	N	(Gutiérrez et al. 2007; Van Lanen et al. 2011; Wiens, Anthony, and Forsman 2014)

Dominant and subordinate congeneric birds in urban environments	Aggression	N	N	Y	(Martin and Bonier 2018; Martin, Burke, and Bonier 2021)
Dominant and subordinate birds from North America	Aggression	N	N	Y	(Freshwater, Ghalambor, and Martin 2014)
Birds along an elevational gradient in Borneo	Aggression	Y	N	Y	(Boyce and Martin 2019)
North American perching birds (passerines)	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	N	Y	(Cowen, Drury, and Grether 2020)
Birds along an elevational gradient in Papua New Guinea	Aggression	Y	N	Y	(Freeman, Class Freeman, and Hochachka 2016)
Amphibia					
Southern Appalachian salamander (<i>Plethodon teyahalee</i>) & red-cheeked salamanders (<i>Plethodon jordani</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	(Hairston, Nishikawa, and Stenhouse 1987; Gifford and Kozak 2012)
Actinopterygii					
Damselfish (<i>Dischistodus</i> spp.) in the Great Barrier Reef	Aggression	N	N	N	(Bay, Jones, and McCormick 2001)
Guppies (<i>Poecilia reticulata</i>) & mosquitofish (<i>Gambusia affinis</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	(Tsurui-Sato et al. 2019)
Obscure damselfish (<i>Pomacentrus adelus</i>) & speckled damselfish (<i>Pomacentrus bankanensis</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Eurich, McCormick, and Jones 2018)
Invasive brown trout (<i>Salmo trutta</i>) & white-spotted charr (<i>Salvelinus leucomaenis</i>) in Japan	Aggression	N	Y	N	(Takami et al. 2002; Hasegawa et al. 2004; Hasegawa and Maekawa 2009)
Gopher rockfish (<i>Sebastes carnatus</i>) & Black-and-yellow rockfish (<i>Sebastes chrysomelas</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Larson 1980)
Arachnida					
Invasive sheet-web spiders (<i>Linyphia triangularis</i>) & bowl-and-doily spiders (<i>Frontinella communis</i>)	Aggression	N	Y	N	(Houser, Ginsberg, and Jakob 2014)
Copepoda					
<i>Skistodiaptomus</i> copepods	Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	(Thum 2007)
Crustacea					
Invasive rusty crayfish (<i>Orconectes rusticus</i>) and native Sanborn crayfish (<i>Orconectes sanborni</i>)	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	(Butler and Stein 1985)
Invasive signal crayfish (<i>Pacifastacus leniusculus</i>) in Europe & native communities. This includes an example interphylum behavioural interference: aggression by signal crayfish toward native bullhead fish (<i>Cottus gobio</i>).	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	(Björn Söderbäck 1994; B. Söderbäck 1995; Westman and Savolainen 2001; Westman, Savolainen, and Julkunen 2002; Bubb et al. 2009; Svärdson, Fürst, and Fjälling 1991)
Gastropoda					
Keyhole limpets (<i>Siphonaria lessonii</i>) & pulmonate limpets (<i>Fissurella crassa</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Aguilera and Navarrete 2012)
Insecta					
<i>Aedes</i> mosquitoes (<i>Ae. albopictus</i> & <i>Ae. aegypti</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	(Nasci, Hare, and Willis 1989; Irka E. Bargielowski, Lounibos, and Carrasquilla 2013; Irka Ewa Bargielowski and Lounibos 2016; Lounibos and Juliano 2018; Zhou et al. 2022)

Two tick species (<i>Amblyomma variegatum</i> & <i>Amblyomma hebraeum</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	(Bournez et al. 2015)
Whiteflies (<i>Bemisia tabaci</i> spp.)	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	(Liu et al. 2007; Crowder et al. 2011; Wang, Crowder, and Liu 2012)
Invasive buff-tailed bumblebees (<i>Bombus terrestris</i>) & native bumblebees (<i>Bombus h. sapporoensis</i> & <i>Bombus ignitus</i>) in Japan	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	(Tsuchida et al. 2019)
Rubyspot damselflies (<i>Hetaerina</i> spp.)	Aggression	N	N	Y	(McEachin et al. 2022)
Two ant species (<i>Iridomyrmex</i> spp.)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Haering and Fox 1987)
Arboreal termite species in Papua New Guinea (<i>Microcerotermes biroi</i> , <i>Nasutitermes novarumhebridarium</i> , & <i>Nasutitermes princeps</i>)	Aggression	N	N	Y	(Leponce, Roisin, and Pasteels 1997)
White-crossed seed bugs (<i>Neacoryphus bicrurus</i>) and co-occurring insect communities	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	(McLain and Shure 1987)
Invasive southern green stink bugs (<i>Nezara viridula</i>) & native green stink bugs (<i>Nezara antennata</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	(Kiritani 2011)
Alpine dark bush-crickets (<i>Pholidoptera aptera</i>) & Transylvanian dark bush-crickets (<i>Pholidoptera transylvanica</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	(Dorková et al. 2020)
Eastern subterranean termites (<i>Reticulitermes flavipes</i>) & Western subterranean termites (<i>Reticulitermes grassei</i>)	Aggression	N	Y	N	(Perdereau et al. 2011)
Invasive Asian blue ticks (<i>Rhipicephalus [Boophilus] microplus</i>) & African blue ticks (<i>Rhipicephalus [Boophilus] decoloratus</i>) in South Africa	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	(Sutherst 1987; Tønnesen et al. 2004)
Cepero's groundhoppers (<i>Tetrix ceperoi</i>) & slender groundhoppers (<i>Tetrix subulata</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	(Gröning et al. 2007; Hochkirch, Gröning, and Bücken 2007; Hochkirch and Gröning 2012)
Arboreal ant species in Papua New Guinea	Aggression	N	N	Y	(Mottl et al. 2021)
Mammalia					
Fallow deer (<i>Dama dama</i>) & roe deer (<i>Capreolus capreolus</i>)	Aggression	N	Y	N	(Ferretti and Mori 2020)
White-handed gibbons (<i>Hylobates lar</i>) & Pileated gibbons (<i>Hylobates pileatus</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Suwanvecho and Brockelman 2012; Asensio et al. 2017)
Least chipmunks (<i>Neotamias minimus</i>) & yellow-pine chipmunks (<i>Neotamias amoenus</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	(Chappell 1978; Heller 1971)
Townsend's chipmunks (<i>Neotamias townsendii</i>) & yellow-pine chipmunks (<i>Neotamias amoenus</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Trombulak 1985)
Uinta chipmunks (<i>Neotamias umbrinus</i>) & Colorado chipmunks (<i>Neotamias quadrivittatus</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	(Bergstrom 1992)
Stoats (<i>Mustela erminea</i>) & least weasels (<i>Mustela nivalis</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Erlinge and Sandell 1988)
Pied tamarins (<i>Saguinus bicolor</i>) & Golden-handed tamarins (<i>Saguinus midas</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	(Sobroza et al. 2021)
Chiriquí singing mice (<i>Scotinomys xerampelinus</i>) & Alston's singing mice (<i>Scotinomys teguina</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	(Pasch, Bolker, and Phelps 2013)
Reptilia					
Invasive house geckos (<i>Hemidactylus frenatus</i>) & native communities	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	(Bolger and Case 1992; Petren, Bolger, and Case 1993; Ted J. Case, Bolger, and Petren 1994; Dame and Petren 2006)

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202

203 **(1) Reproductive interference versus interspecific aggression**

204 Our search terms returned more study systems where aggressive interference ($n = 44$)
205 influenced range dynamics than reproductive interference ($n = 17$) (Figure 1A, Table 1,
206 Supplementary Table 1). At face value, these figures suggest that competitive exclusion via
207 aggressive interference is more widespread than sexual exclusion. Yet, this conclusion may
208 be premature. For one thing, we avoided searching for cases of hybrid tension zones (see
209 "Systematic literature review", above), and hybridization is among the more highly studied
210 forms of reproductive interference. Moreover, other forms of reproductive interference
211 include behaviours such as misdirected courtship, signal jamming, and heterospecific mating
212 (Groning & Hochkirch 2008), all of which are difficult to detect, especially in species where
213 these processes occur rapidly.

214 Seven study systems found that both reproductive and aggression influence range
215 dynamics. For instance, where collared (*Ficedula albicollis*) & pied (*Ficedula hypoleuca*)
216 flycatchers have recently (150 years ago) come into sympatry (Fig. 1F), collared flycatchers
217 are more aggressive, which shifts the nest occupancy of pied flycatchers into suboptimal
218 habitat. However, pied flycatchers that nest in suboptimal habitat are less likely to hybridise
219 with collared flycatchers, which reinforces the habitat segregation of the two species (Vallin
220 et al. 2012). Given that interspecific aggression often arises as an adaptive response to
221 reproductive interference (Drury et al. 2015; Drury, Cowen, and Grether 2020; Grether et al.
222 2020; Payne 1980), the abundance of examples of aggressive interference influencing spatial
223 dynamics in vertebrates may be indicative of undetected reproductive interference. Further
224 empirical and theoretical work would help clarify the relative importance as well as the
225 interactive, potentially non-additive, impacts of different types of behavioural interference on
226 spatial dynamics.

227 The taxonomic distribution of case studies was the most apparent difference among
228 the factors associated with different types of behavioural interference (Figure 1). Most
229 examples of reproductive interference influencing range dynamics were conducted on
230 arthropods (9 out of 10). This contrasts with studies of aggressive interference that were
231 dominated by vertebrates (30 out of 37), especially birds ($n = 17$). Empirical examples of
232 reproductive interference are taxonomically widespread (Gröning and Hochkirch 2008), so it
233 is surprising to see that evidence of reproductive interference influencing the spatial
234 dynamics of a species come predominantly from insects and arachnids. One potential
235 explanation for this apparent bias is that it reflects a biological reality about the costs of
236 reproductive interference in arthropods; the fitness cost of reproductive interference may be
237 especially high in arthropods because of females' short reproductive lifespans, and, because
238 in some species, females produce no viable offspring after interspecific mating (Ribeiro and
239 Spielman 1986), which makes a species particularly vulnerable to local extinction (Irwin and
240 Schluter 2022). Alternatively, the bias may reflect a methodological convenience of working
241 with invertebrates—reproductive interference may be hard to measure in the field without
242 experimental mating trials, making larger scale field research of the sort necessary to build a
243 link between reproductive interference and range dynamics more feasible on arthropods.

244

245 **(2) Elevational gradients**

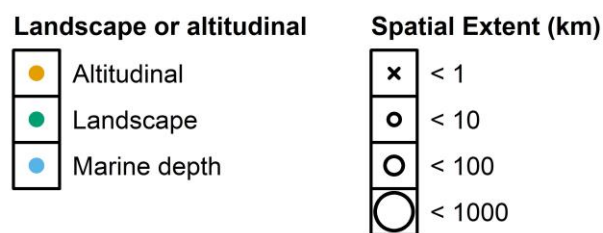
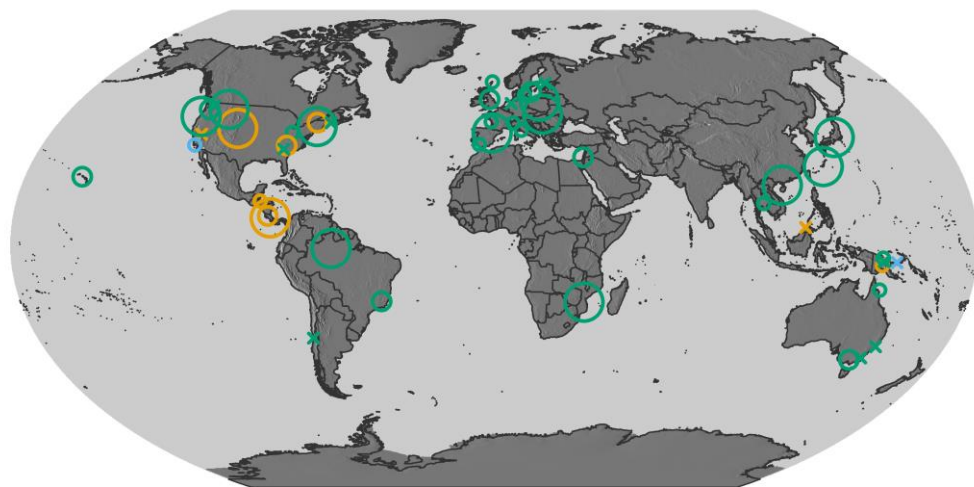
246 Range dynamics along elevational gradients have long been of interest to ecologists
247 and evolutionary biologists. For instance, a classic hypothesis posits that abiotic factors are
248 likely to play a more important role than biotic factors at high-elevation range limits
249 (Louthan, Doak, and Angert 2015). As a result, there may be an increased risk of extinction
250 in montane ecosystems caused by the 'escalator to extinction' (Sekercioglu et al. 2008;
251 Freeman et al. 2018) in which warming conditions cause high-elevation species' climate

252 niches to disappear. Given the interest in biotic interactions along elevational gradients, it is
253 not surprising that we identified multiple examples of interspecific behavioural interference
254 of one species influencing the elevational distribution of another species (17% of cases
255 documenting an impact of behavioural interference on range dynamics). Due to rapid habitat
256 turnover with altitude, range boundaries across elevational gradient are often sharply defined,
257 making studies of range limits inherently simpler along an elevational gradient (Žagar et al.
258 2015; Pasch, Bolker, and Phelps 2013; Jones et al. 2020), so it would be premature to
259 conclude how likely that behavioural interference is to influence elevational range limits in
260 comparison to range boundaries across landscape scales.

261 Several key patterns emerge from studies along elevational gradients. First,
262 interspecific territoriality plays a key role in creating and maintaining elevational range
263 limits. Comparative analyses, for instance, have shown that bird species have wider
264 elevational ranges in mountains without competitors (Burner et al. 2020). Additionally, the
265 response of several species of montane birds to heterospecific songs decreases with distance
266 from their parapatric boundary, indicating a learned response to the presence of an aggressive
267 congener (Jankowski, Robinson, and Levey 2010; Freeman and Montgomery 2015; Freeman,
268 Class Freeman, and Hochachka 2016; Jones et al. 2020; Boyce and Martin 2019). Secondly,
269 asymmetries in dominance are not consistently biased in favour of low elevation species, as
270 there are examples of species pairs with subordinate high elevation species (e.g., *Catharus*
271 thrushes, (Freeman and Montgomery 2015) and of pairs in which the lower elevation species
272 is subordinate (e.g., *Scotinomys* singing mice (Pasch, Bolker, and Phelps 2013), *Neotamias*
273 chipmunks (Bergstrom 1992) and, if aquatic depth gradients are comparable to elevational
274 gradients, *Pomacentrus* damselfish (Eurich, McCormick, and Jones 2018)) (see also Freeman
275 2020). These examples demonstrate the varied and often unpredictable role that behavioural
276 interference can play in influencing elevational range limits, thereby challenging the

277 hypothesis that abiotic factors are likely to play a more important role than biotic factors at
278 high-elevation range limits (Louthan, Doak, and Angert 2015). Finally, we also note a bias in
279 the geographic locations of studies investigating behavioural interference across elevational
280 gradients, with two exceptions in Borneo and Papa New Guinea, all study systems were
281 located Northern and Central America (Figure 2). Studies across landscapes were found
282 across a wider area, but still with noted gaps in Africa and Asia, likely due to an underlying
283 geographic bias in scientific research (Culumber et al. 2019).

284



286

287 Figure 2. The global distribution of field studies that found an effect of interspecific
 288 behavioural interference on the spatial distribution of one or more species. Colour denotes
 289 whether the study investigated the spatial distributions across a landscape (i.e., latitude and
 290 longitude), across an elevational gradient (altitudinal), or across a sea-depth gradient (marine
 291 depth). Size indicates the maximum spatial extent for where data was collected for study but
 292 is not to scale, excluding comparative studies that had a greater than 1000km global
 293 distribution ($n = 7$). Across landscapes, we found examples of behavioural interference
 294 influencing the spatial distributions of species in studies ranging in spatial scope from local
 295 (<1km) scales (e.g. Hochkirch and Gröning 2012, found that, within a single nature reserve,
 296 reproductive interference causes two groundhopper species to exhibit a mosaic of small scale
 297 habitat use) to continental (<1000km) scales (e.g. Reif et al. 2018; 2015, found that across

298 Eastern Europe, aggression drives shifts in habitat preferences in sympatry compared to
299 allopatric populations of common *Luscinia megarhynchos*, and thrush nightingales, *Luscinia*
300 *luscinia*).

301

302 (3) Invasion biology

303 Anthropogenic influences have led to a dramatic rise in the number of non-native
304 species that become invasive after being translocated to novel regions (Blackburn et al.
305 2011). As the ranges of invasive species expand they may engage in interspecific behavioural
306 interference, driving displacement of native species (Rowles and O’Dowd 2007; Lounibos
307 and Juliano 2018; Pereira, Lourenço, and Mota 2020; Kyogoku and Sota 2017). The
308 systematic review identified multiple examples of invasive species engaging in reproductive
309 interference (Tsurui-Sato et al. 2019; Lounibos and Juliano 2018; Tsuchida et al. 2019;
310 Tønnesen et al. 2004; Westman, Savolainen, and Julkunen 2002) and aggressive interference
311 (Bubb et al. 2009; Houser, Ginsberg, and Jakob 2014; Westman, Savolainen, and Julkunen
312 2002; Rowles and O’Dowd 2007) with native species (15/54 =28% of cases). For instance,
313 invading Argentine ants in Australia outcompete native ant species through direct aggressive
314 interactions (Rowles & O’Dowd 2007). Similarly, in Japan, invasive buff-tailed bumblebees
315 (*Bombus terrestris*) engage in reproductive interference with two species of native bumblebee
316 species (Fig. 1D). Copulation between male *B. terrestris* and female
317 *Bombus hypocrite sapporoensis* or *Bombus ignites* results in unviable eggs being laid the
318 following spring when there are no further intraspecific mating opportunities. Consequently,
319 *B. ignities* and *B. h. sapporeensis* have declined rapidly in areas with *B. terrestris*, and further
320 declines could lead to the extinction of the native bumblebee species (Tsuchida et al. 2019).
321 Other well-established cases where invading lineages quickly replace previously established
322 lineages include the replacement of asexual gecko lineages throughout the Pacific that have
323 been displaced by interference from invasive common house geckos (Dame & Petren 2016,
324 Bolger & Case 1992, Petren et al. 1993), and the replacement of *Aedes aegypti* by *Ae.*
325 *albopictus* both throughout the southern U.S. (Nasci, Hare, and Willis 1989) and in China
326 (Zhou et al. 2022).

327 Yet, behavioural interference is not always beneficial to invasive species and
328 detrimental to native species. Invasive species may be unable to establish in areas which
329 contain a more aggressive congener, and higher levels of aggressive or reproductive
330 interference could allow native species to tolerate the presence of the invading species
331 (Crowder et al. 2011), or even prevent its spread. For instance Australian house geckos,
332 *Gehyra dubia*, are more aggressive than the globally invasive Asian house gecko,
333 *Hemidactylus frenatus* which could prevent the invasive species replacing the native
334 (Cisterne, Schwarzkopf, and Pike 2019). Additionally, conservation efforts towards the
335 critically endangered Nashville crayfish, *Orconectes shoupi*, may be aided by its higher
336 aggression toward the invasive bigclaw crayfish, *Orconectes placid* (Bizwell and Mattingly
337 2010). Whether asymmetries in behavioural interference generally influence the outcome of
338 translocations of animal species is, therefore, an important open question.

339 In addition to being a potentially accelerating factor in biological invasions,
340 behavioural interference has also been suggested as a management tool for invasive species.
341 On Okinawa, for instance, the accidental introduction of guppies (*Poecilia reticulata*) led to
342 the eradication of invasive mosquito fish (*Gambusia affinis*) (Fig. 1E, Tsurui-Sato et al.
343 2019). Laboratory experiments indicate that male guppies attempt to mate with female
344 mosquito fish, thereby reducing their reproductive output. Introduced guppies also have
345 negative impacts on native taxa, but by introducing only males, or mixed populations into
346 environments with lethal winter temperatures, guppies could be used to eradicate mosquito
347 fish from other river systems (Tsurui-Sato et al. 2019). Similarly, a study on aggression
348 between invasive brown trout and native white-spotted charr demonstrated that habitat
349 modifications in the form of visual barriers could reduce observed levels of interspecific
350 aggression (Hasegawa & Maekawa 2009).

351

352 (4) Empirical validation of theoretical predictions

353 The formation of parapatric ranges, where two species have adjacent ranges with little
354 or no overlap, is a key prediction of the theoretical models of how interspecific behavioural
355 interference impacts range dynamics when the impacts of behavioural interference are
356 symmetrical (Ribeiro and Spielman 1986). In line with this prediction, we found that, where
357 the impact of behavioural interference is equal, the ranges of interacting species pairs are
358 stable (Asensio et al. 2017; Bull and Burzacott 1994; Thum 2007). For instance, in Thailand,
359 two species of gibbon, white-handed gibbons (*Hylobates lar*) and pileated gibbons
360 (*Hylobates pileatus*), have a parapatric distribution with only a small (<1km wide) boundary
361 where the species are found in sympatry. Both *H. lar* and *H. pileatus* hold territories that are
362 controlled exclusively by monogamous pairs. Detailed mapping of territories and observation
363 of conflict events show that, where the two species are found in sympatry, pairs of both
364 species defend territories against both conspecifics and heterospecifics (Fig. 1B, Asensio et
365 al. 2017). If the impact of behavioural interference is asymmetrical, however, replacement of
366 one species by the other commonly results (Tønnesen et al. 2004; Tsuchida et al. 2019;
367 Tsurui-Sato et al. 2019; Duckworth and Badyaev 2007; Vallin et al. 2012; Sobroza et al.
368 2021). Some studies found that the ranges of the two species were stable even in the presence
369 of asymmetrical behavioural interference because the more dominant species was limited by
370 an abiotic or a different biotic factor (Pasch, Bolker, and Phelps 2013; Bergstrom 1992).

371 Although Allee effects are common in theoretical models of behavioural interference,
372 relatively few case studies identified by our literature review explicitly tested for Allee
373 effects, though several investigators of these studies suggest that Allee effects generate range
374 turnovers (Soderback 1994, Tønnesen et al. 2004, Thum 2007, Kiritani 2011). The paucity of
375 direct evidence for Allee effects was surprising, given documented Allee effects in laboratory
376 studies (e.g., Kyogoku & Nishida 2012) and frequency- and/or density-dependent impacts of

377 interspecific interference in the field (Gómez-Llano et al. 2023; Svensson et al. 2018). Future
378 research, therefore, should aim to understand the importance of Allee effects in determining
379 the outcome of spatial dynamics. For instance, a key test of the impact of behavioural
380 interference on range dynamics would be to artificially induce an Allee effect in field systems
381 known to engage in behavioural interference, by heightening or inverting the densities and/or
382 frequencies of two species that engage in behavioural interference.

383 Similarly, though several models incorporate both behavioural interference and
384 resource competition (Ribeiro and Spielman 1986; Amarasekare 2002; Crowder et al. 2011),
385 our literature search found few explicit analyses disentangling the relative impacts of
386 behavioural interference and resource competition, or the predicted interactive dynamics of
387 both, on range dynamics (but see (Duckworth 2013; Cowen, Drury, and Grether 2020).

388

389 **III. Future Directions**

390 Our systematic literature review demonstrated that there are now many studies that
391 show varied impacts of behavioural interference on range expansion, but it also highlighted
392 several gaps in our understanding. Here, we argue that further research is needed in several
393 key areas, including the role that behavioural interference has played in shaping historical
394 patterns of range dynamics, the impacts of behavioural interference on future range dynamics
395 under climate change, and the extent to which evolution influences outcomes.

396

397 **(1) Identifying the impact of behavioural interference on historical spatial processes**

398 There are several existing approaches for studying historical range dynamics that
399 would be useful to develop further to understand outcomes of behavioural interference across
400 a range of timescales. For instance, at a deep evolutionary timescale, models of ancestral
401 biogeography have proven to be useful tools for making inferences about the pace and

402 trajectory of range evolution within independently evolving lineages (Ronquist 2011).
403 Recently, there have been calls for extending these methods to incorporate ecological factors
404 such as species interactions (Sukumaran and Knowles 2018), and the development of tools
405 for identifying the signature of competitive exclusion in range data (Quintero and Landis
406 2020). Incorporating the possibility for the presence and/or magnitude of behavioural
407 interference to modulate the impacts of competition on range dynamics into these models,
408 similar to advances already developed for trait-mediated dispersal (Klaus and Matzke 2020),
409 could provide a novel tool that would make it possible to test a range of hypotheses that
410 cannot be tested with current methods (Fig 3A).

411 At shallower evolutionary scales, existing population genomic techniques leverage the
412 signatures of historical processes preserved in genomes to test hypotheses about spatial (Peter
413 and Slatkin 2013; Petkova, Novembre, and Stephens 2015; Al-Asadi et al. 2019; He, Prado,
414 and Knowles 2017) and demographic (Gutenkunst et al. 2009; Gronau et al. 2011; Excoffier
415 et al. 2021) dynamics that have unfolded over scales of thousands to millions of years.
416 Largely, these developments have been designed to examine dynamics within independently
417 evolving lineages. Within this constraint, one way forward would be to conduct comparative
418 analyses to test the hypothesis that lineages (e.g., populations, species) experiencing higher
419 levels of behavioural interference expand their ranges at different rates than lineages
420 experiencing little or no behavioural interference (Fig 3B). Recently, Ortego & Knowles
421 (2020) developed an analytical pipeline that explicitly tests for the impact of facilitation
422 and/or competition between species on generating contemporary geographic patterns of
423 genomic diversity. Extending these models to explicitly test for impacts of behavioural
424 interference is an exciting possibility that would generate new insights.

425 On a more contemporary scale, long-term census data have proven to be a useful tool
426 for monitoring dynamics of species assemblages over the past century (Rosenberg et al. 2019,

427 Saunders et al. 2022). Such datasets contain interacting species, and understanding how those
428 interactions impact temporal dynamics is one way forward. One recent attempt has shown
429 that stably coexisting species-pairs that are interspecifically territorial have increased their
430 fine scale habitat overlap more than non-interspecifically territorial pairs, suggesting that
431 interspecific territoriality may actually stabilise coexistence in species that would otherwise
432 engage in high levels of exploitative competition (Nesbit et al. 2023). Future applications
433 could use tools developed for network analyses (Blonder et al. 2012) to examine how
434 behavioural interference influences dynamics within assemblages (Fig 3C).

435

436 **(2) Predicting the impact of behavioural interference in novel assemblages**

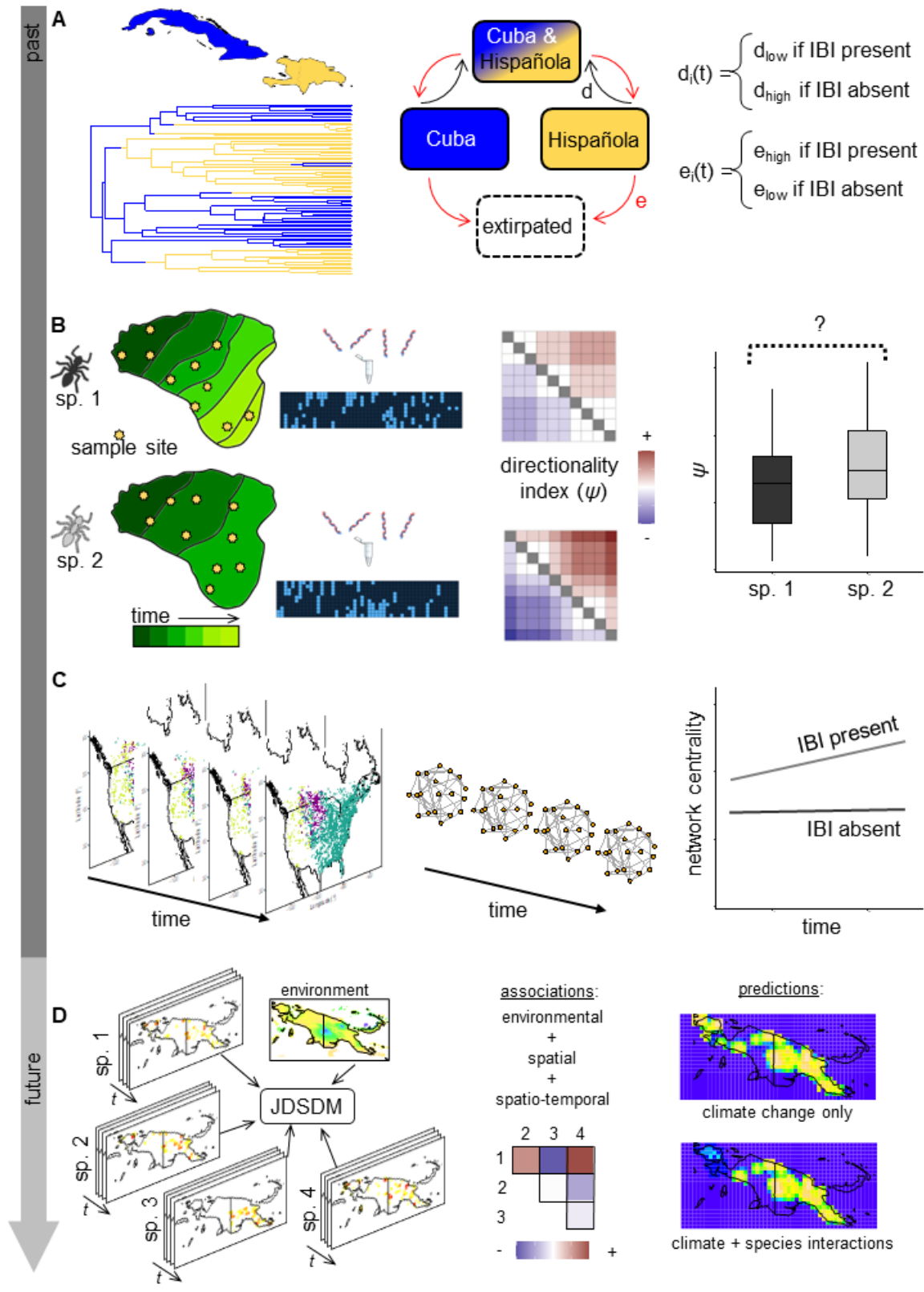
437 Insights generated from investigations of the impacts of behavioural interference on
438 historical range dynamics will be essential for generating predictions about the future impacts
439 of behavioural interference on climate-change driven range dynamics. At the heart of
440 attempts to predict how species' ranges will shift in response to global changes are species
441 distribution models (SDMs). SDMs use measures of abiotic factors and presence-absence
442 data to predict species' future ranges under different climate scenarios (Elith and Leathwick
443 2009; Titley et al. 2021).

444 Attempts to incorporate biotic factors into species distribution models have given rise
445 to joint species distribution models (JSDMs) (Wilkinson et al. 2019; Tikhonov et al. 2017).
446 Yet, implementing and validating JSDMs is fraught with difficulties because positive and
447 negative occurrence patterns often correlate with abiotic factors (Poggiato et al. 2021).
448 Consequently, although some attempts to implement behavioural interference into
449 SDMs/JSDMs have been conducted (Bastianelli et al. 2017; Engler et al. 2013), many
450 examples of interspecific behavioural interference limiting the spatial distribution of species
451 would not be detected using JSDMs. Despite challenges, joint species distribution modelling

452 remains an active area of research with many promising recent developments (Pichler and
453 Hartig 2021; Escamilla Molgora et al. 2022). For instance, joint *dynamic* species distribution
454 models (JDSDMs) use time-series data on abundance to examine the impact of concurrent
455 changes in abundance across assemblages more directly (Thorson, Pinsky, and Ward 2016;
456 Elo et al. 2023). Consequently, we imagine that these tools will be useful for generating
457 predictive models of future range dynamics in the presence of behavioural interference (Fig.
458 3D), for instance by comparing the marginal predictions of such models (i.e., the effects of
459 environmental variables only), to conditional predictions which also incorporate impacts of
460 changing species interactions (Wilkinson et al. 2019; 2021). Recently, for instance, (Novella-
461 Fernandez et al. 2021) devised an index of ‘geographic avoidance’ by comparing species
462 suitable ranges (calculated from SDMs) to their observed ranges. Using this index, they
463 found that two pairs of cryptic species of bats in Europe exhibited spatial partitioning
464 consistent with interspecific competition driving exclusion. They then examined range
465 overlap under future climate projections, demonstrating that some predicted range shifts may
466 not be possible due to predicted range overlap with competitors (Novella-Fernandez et al.
467 2021, see also Engler et al. 2013 and McQuillan and Rice 2015 for a similar approach).
468 Future attempts to generate predictions of range dynamics in the presence of behavioural
469 interference could also be used to disentangle and quantify the differing impacts of
470 behavioural interference versus resource competition.

471

472



473

474 Fig 3. Possible directions for future research into the historical (A-C) and forecasted (D)
475 impacts of behavioural interference (BI) on range dynamics. Approaches to test for historical
476 impacts of BI include (A) extending models of ancestral biogeography to include separate
477 parameters for species that engage in BI and those that do not, (B) deploying genomic tools
478 to test whether the historical dynamics of range expansion differ between species that engage
479 in BI (sp. 2, in this example) and species that do not by calculating pairwise indices of
480 directional movement such as the ψ index (Peter and Slatkin 2013), and (C) using long-term
481 census data to analyse how BI has impacted dynamics of species cooccurrence through time
482 using tools from network analyses (e.g., indices of network centrality). Developments for
483 forecasting and mitigating the impacts of BI on global-change induced range shifts might
484 include (D) fitting joint dynamic species distribution models (JDSDMs) and using model
485 inferences to compare future ranges under pure climate-tracking scenarios to scenarios that
486 incorporate species interactions inferred from JDSDMs.
487

488 The preceding approaches largely rely on metrics of cooccurrence to make inferences
489 about the impacts of behavioural interference, under the assumption that cooccurring lineages
490 are likely to interact. Yet, range overlap per se is not robust evidence that interactions occur.
491 One way forward is to use measurements of fine-scale range overlap (i.e., 'syntopy'), which
492 may be more indicative of the opportunity for species interactions (Drury, Cowen, and
493 Grether 2020). Still, there is no substitute for direct observations of behaviour across large
494 spatiotemporal scales. For instance, a large-scale study of spatiotemporal variation in
495 agonistic behaviour in damselfish shows that interactions between individuals of different
496 species increase after coral bleaching events (Keith et al. 2023). Future studies should
497 directly observe behaviours to demonstrate concrete links between behavioural interference
498 and range dynamics.

499

500 **(3) The role of evolution in mediating responses to behavioural interference**

501 Historically, empirical research into behavioural interference has largely focused on
502 understanding factors that lead to behavioural interference (e.g., Drury, Cowen, and Grether
503 2020; Leighton et al. 2023) and its evolutionary consequences, such as its impact on trait
504 evolution (Grether et al. 2009; Pfennig and Pfennig 2009) or other aspects of the speciation
505 cycle (Tobias, Ottenburghs, and Pigot 2020). This work has shown that the likelihood of
506 behavioural interference decreases with increasing divergence time (e.g., Drury, Cowen, and
507 Grether 2020; Barley et al. 2022) likely owing to the relative similarity in perceptual systems
508 and agonistic and/or mating signals used in closely related species (Grether et al. 2009;
509 Orians and Willson 1964). Consequently, behavioural interference is thought to have a strong
510 impact on the rate of speciation by limiting the rate at which two recently diverged allopatric
511 lineages can coexist in secondary sympatry (Tobias, Ottenburghs, and Pigot 2020). One
512 possible evolutionary outcome of behavioural interference is divergent reproductive or

513 agonistic character displacement, in which selection acts on mating or agonistic signals or
514 perceptual systems to prevent or reduce the occurrence of behavioural interference (Grether
515 et al. 2009; Pfennig and Pfennig 2009). Yet, the benefits of diverging in signals and/or
516 perceptual systems do not always outweigh the costs--for instance, because of the continued
517 pressure of stabilising selection for intraspecific mate recognition (Drury et al. 2019) or
518 because interspecific competitor recognition may be an adaptive pathway to interspecific
519 resource partitioning (Grether and Okamoto 2022) -- and consequently, selection may
520 preclude divergence or even drive convergence between interacting lineages.

521 The evolutionary responses to behavioural interference in shifting ranges should,
522 therefore, play an important role in determining the outcome of range dynamics. For instance,
523 in the case of *Aedes* mosquitoes, reproductive character displacement appears to have slowed
524 down the invasion of *Ae. albopictus* in Florida (Irka E. Bargielowski, Lounibos, and
525 Carrasquilla 2013; I. Bargielowski, Blosser, and Lounibos 2015). Similarly, native
526 bumblebees in Japan have evolved polyandrous mating systems in response to reproductive
527 interference from invasive buff-tailed bumblebees (Tsuchida et al. 2019). Yet it is unknown
528 under which circumstances, and to what extent, evolutionary changes might mediate the
529 impact of behavioural interference on range dynamics. Future long-term studies of zones
530 where behavioural interference occurs, in addition to comparisons between sympatric and
531 allopatric populations, could shed further light on these questions.

532

533 **IV. Concluding remarks**

534 (1) Multiple lines of evidence now demonstrate that interspecific behavioural interference can
535 limit the spatial distribution of species. Case studies demonstrate that this is true across a
536 wide range of animal taxa, and that both reproductive interference and interspecific
537 aggression can influence spatial dynamics.

538

539 (2) In line with predictions derived from theoretical models of behavioural interference, the
540 case studies we compiled demonstrate that symmetry (or lack thereof) in behavioural
541 interference determines the spatial outcome of interactions. Further work is necessary to test
542 other key predictions of theoretical models, such as the presence of Allee effects and
543 interactive impacts of behavioural interference and exploitative competition for resources.

544

545 (3) We identified several other gaps that remain in our broad-scale understanding of the
546 impacts of behavioural interference on spatial dynamics. For instance, which factors (e.g.,
547 phylogenetic distance, life history, climate niche, etc.) explain variation in the presence or
548 magnitude of the effect of behavioural interference on range dynamics?

549

550 (4) Several recent developments have paved the way for modelling the impacts of species
551 interactions on both historical and future spatial dynamics, and future work adapting these
552 methods to further explore the links between behavioural interference and range dynamics is
553 an important way forward.

554

555 (5) In addition to modelling approaches, further work aimed at quantifying the interactive
556 effects of evolutionary change and spatial movement is crucial for predicting the outcome of
557 range dynamics in the presence of behavioural interference.

558

559 (6) The spatial distribution of species has implication for conservation, human health, and
560 agriculture. Alongside other abiotic and biotic factors, our study highlights the need to
561 include interspecific behavioural interference in predicting and managing the current and
562 future distribution of species.

563

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565

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571

572

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1152 Supplementary Table 1: All 54 study systems identified during the literature review that found clear evidence that interspecific behavioural interference (IBI)
 1153 impacts the spatial distribution of a species. The elevational column indicates whether the study investigate range dynamics across an elevational gradient.
 1154 The invasion column indicates whether the study contained a species outside of its native range. The comparative column indicates whether the study derived
 1155 inference from comparing species pairs that engage in behavioural interference with species pairs that do not engage in behavioural interference.

Interacting Species	IBI.Type	Elevational (Y/N)	Invasion (Y/N)	Comparative (Y/N)	Impacts of IBI on Spatial Dynamics	References	Additional Explanations?
Aves							
Great reed warblers (<i>Acrocephalus arundinaceus</i>) & marsh warblers (<i>Acrocephalus palustris</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	Territorial mapping and behavioural observations demonstrate that great reed warblers and marsh warblers are interspecifically territorial, with great reed warblers dominating interactions. In areas where both species occur, marsh warblers use habitat further from reed habitats than sites where great reed warblers are absent.	(Rolando and Palestrini, 1989)	
Bicknell's thrushes (<i>Catharus bicknelli</i>) & Swainson's thrushes (<i>Catharus ustulatus</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	Playback experiments between two parapatric thrush species. Lower elevation Swainson's thrushes respond aggressively to the calls of higher elevation Bicknell's thrushes, but not vice versa. The aggressive responses of Swainson's thrush toward heterospecifics increases with altitude (i.e., closer to range boundary).	(Freeman and Montgomery, 2015)	
Black-headed nightingale thrushes (<i>Catharus mexicanus</i>) & ruddy-capped nightingale-thrushes (<i>Catharus frantzii</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	Playback experiments showed that lower elevation black-capped nightingale-thrushes respond aggressively to the ruddy-capped nightingale-thrush, but not vice-versa.	(Jones <i>et al.</i> , 2020)	Habitat segregation
Collared (<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>) & pied (<i>Ficedula hypoleuca</i>) flycatchers	Aggression	N	N	N	For instance, collared (<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>) & pied (<i>Ficedula hypoleuca</i>) flycatchers have recently (150 years ago) come into sympatry. Collared flycatchers are more aggressive, which shifts the nest occupancy of pied flycatchers into suboptimal habitat. However, pied flycatchers that nest in suboptimal habitat are less likely to hybridise with collared flycatchers, which reinforces the habitat segregation of the two species.	(Vallin <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Rybinski <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	Exploitative competition for nestboxes (but nestbox access mediated by aggression)
Several species of wood wrens (<i>Henicorhina leucophrys</i> & <i>Henicorhina leucosticta</i>) and thrushes (<i>Catharus mexicanus</i> & <i>Catharus aurantirostris</i>) along an elevational gradient in Costa Rica.	Aggression	Y	N	N	Playback experiments show aggressive responses to heterospecific congeners, with the magnitude of such responses increase toward contact zones.	(Jankowski, Robinson and Levey, 2010)	Habitat turnover
Narrow-billed woodcreepers (<i>Lepidocolaptes angustirostris</i>) & scaled woodcreepers (<i>Lepidocolaptes squamatus</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	Fragmentation of the Atlantic Forest in Brazil has facilitated range expansion of narrow-billed woodcreepers. Scaled woodcreepers have been forced to recede into the remaining fragments of forest. However, narrow-billed woodcreepers regularly join mixed-species flocks within the forest and aggressively exclude scaled woodcreepers from joining flocks	(Maldonado-Coelho <i>et al.</i> , 2017)	

Common nightingales (<i>Luscinia megarhynchos</i>) & thrush nightingales (<i>Luscinia luscinia</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	Common and thrush nightingales are interspecifically territorial and exhibit evidence of song convergence in sympatry. This aggression drives shifts in habitat preferences in sympatry compared to allopatric populations.	(Sorjonen, 1986; Reif <i>et al.</i> , 2015, 2018)	
Noisy miners (<i>Manorina melanocephala</i>) & local bird assemblages	Aggression	N	N	N	Noisy miners are extremely aggressive towards nearly all heterospecific birds, even those with little overlap in diet and foraging behaviour, and their presence shapes the structure of entire avian assemblages.	(Mac Nally <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Lill and Muscat, 2015)	
Flame robins (<i>Petroica phoenicea</i>) & Norfolk robins (<i>Petroica multicolor</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	Both species are interspecifically territorial. Migratory flame robins displace the less aggressive Norfolk robin upon returning to breeding habitat, likely displacing Norfolk robins into suboptimal habitat.	(Robinson, 1992)	
Carolina chickadees (<i>Poecile carolinensis</i>) and black-capped chickadees (<i>Poecile atricapillus</i>)	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	Carolina chickadees are more aggressive (dominant) than black-capped chickadees, and that dominant chickadees are preferred by females of both species in mate choice trials. SDMs show that Carolina chickadees' distribution limit largely matches climatic predictors, whereas black-capped chickadee distribution does not, suggesting that it is limited instead by interactions with Carolina chickadees.	(Bronson <i>et al.</i> , 2003; McQuillan and Rice, 2015)	
Invasive ring-necked parakeets (<i>Psittacula krameri</i>) and native communities	Aggression	N	Y	N	Invasive ring-necked parakeets tend to be dominant in aggressive interactions, and consequently the parakeets exclude other species that use tree cavities, including greater noctules (<i>Nyctalus lasiopterus</i>), a threatened bat species. Although many birds currently appear to benefit from parakeet aggression towards predators, greater noctules decline where parakeets occur.	(Hernández-Brito <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	
Townsend's warblers (<i>Setophaga townsendi</i>) and hermit warblers (<i>Setophaga occidentalis</i>)	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	Moving hybrid zone attributed to asymmetries in behavioural interference. Both species defend mutually exclusive territories, though Townsend warblers are likely to be more aggressive toward hermit warblers than vice versa. Similarly, though mating is largely assortative, exceptions are more likely with Townsend males mating with hermit females (not vice versa).	(Pearson, 2000; Pearson and Rohwer, 2000)	
Western bluebirds (<i>Sialia mexicana</i>) & mountain bluebirds (<i>Sialia currucoides</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	As western bluebirds range shifts into mountain bluebirds range, mountain bluebird populations are going locally extinct due to aggression from western bluebirds limiting nesting opportunities.	(Duckworth and Badyaev, 2007; Duckworth, 2013; Duckworth, Belloni and Anderson, 2015)	Exploitative competition for nestboxes (but nestbox access mediated by aggression)
Spotted owls (<i>Strix occidentalis</i>) & barred owls (<i>Strix varia</i>)	Aggression	N	Y	N	Barred owls are invading spotted owls' range and driving declines in spotted owls. Playback experiments with mounts demonstrate asymmetric aggression from barred owls toward spotted owls, and tracking data suggest they exclude spotted owls from breeding territories.	(Gutiérrez <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Van Lanen <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Wiens, Anthony and Forsman, 2014)	Habitat loss, exploitative competition
Dominant and subordinate congeneric birds in urban environments	Aggression	N	N	Y	Subordinate species are less likely to occur and less abundant in cities where dominant species are widespread breeders (compared to in cities where the sub-dominant species is found in allopatry).	(Martin and Bonier, 2018; Martin, Burke and Bonier, 2021)	Exploitative competition for resources not ruled out

Dominant and subordinate birds from North America	Aggression	N	N	Y	Subordinate species migrate further distances than dominant species	(Freshwater, Ghaleb and Martin, 2014)	
Birds along an elevational gradient in Borneo	Aggression	Y	N	Y	Simulated intrusion paper testing whether interspecific aggression drives parapatric ranges along an elevational gradient for different pairs of birds. They found support for this hypothesis in bulbuls: ochraceous bulbuls (<i>Alophoixus ochraceus</i>) respond aggressively to pale-faced bulbuls (<i>Pycnonotus leucops</i>). However, they did not find evidence that parapatric white-eyes (<i>Zosterops</i> sp.) are aggressive to congeners.	(Boyce and Martin, 2019)	
North american perching birds (passerines)	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	N	Y	Analyses of sister taxa show that transitions from allopatry to secondary sympatry are best predicted by the interactive effect of interspecific territoriality and hybridization.	(Cowen, Drury and Grether, 2020)	
Birds along an elevational gradient in Papua New Guinea	Aggression	Y	N	Y	Playback experiments on five species pairs demonstrate that the lower elevation species are more aggressive toward heterospecifics than upper elevation confamilial counterparts, and that species only engaged in aggression towards HS at the range boundary, for three of the five species pairs.	(Freeman, Class Freeman and Hochachka, 2016)	
Amphibia							
Southern Appalachian salamander (<i>Plethodon teyahalee</i>) & red-cheeked salamanders (<i>Plethodon jordani</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	Extensive observational and experimental data (from removal experiments and behavioural experiments) demonstrate that aggressive interference is the cause of the species parapatric elevational ranges in the Great Smokey Mountains. Later modelling suggesting interspecific interactions prevent the low elevation southern Appalachian salamander from expanding into higher elevations.	(Hairston, Nishikawa and Stenhouse, 1987; Gifford and Kozak, 2012)	
Actinopterygii							
Damselfish (<i>Dischistodus</i> spp.) in the Great Barrier Reef	Aggression	N	N	N	Four species of damselfish have non overlapping habitat use within reef. Aquarium studies show the damselfish have wider habitat use than seen in the field and simulated intruder experiments in the field reveal high levels of interspecific aggression between species that use adjacent habitat.	(Bay, Jones and McCormick, 2001)	Habitat segregation
Guppies (<i>Poecilia reticulata</i>) & mosquitofish (<i>Gambusia affinis</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	Mosquitofish decline upon introduction of guppies, and experimental evidence shows that reproductive interference occurs asymmetrically, with negative fitness impacts on mosquitofish, but not guppies.	(Tsurui-Sato <i>et al.</i> , 2019)	
Obscure damselfish (<i>Pomacentrus adelus</i>) & speckled damselfish (<i>Pomacentrus bankanensis</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	Species are interspecifically territorial, and upon removal of obscure damsels, speckled damsels expand territories to occupy vacant space, with knock-on effects for other habitat use of other reef fish.	(Eurich, McCormick and Jones, 2018)	
Invasive brown trout (<i>Salmo trutta</i>) & white-spotted charr (<i>Salvelinus leucomaenis</i>) in Japan	Aggression	N	Y	N	Introduced brown trout has expanded throughout drainage, except upstream of weirs where white-spotted charr are more abundant. Experimental data shows that brown trout are dominant in behavioural trials.	(Takami <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Hasegawa <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Hasegawa and Maekawa, 2009)	

Gopher rockfish (<i>Sebastes carnatus</i>) & Black-and-yellow rockfish (<i>Sebastes chrysomelas</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	Lab experiments show interspecific aggression for territories and removal experiments in the field show that the removal of both species allows the other to expand its depth range.	(Larson, 1980)	
Arachnida							
Invasive sheet-web spiders (<i>Linyphia triangularis</i>) & bowl-and-doily spiders (<i>Frontinella communis</i>)	Aggression	N	Y	N	An invasive species of spider displaces a native species from their constructed web. Furthermore, field experiments demonstrate that bowl-and-doily spiders are less likely to settle in plots where the invasive species is present and that introducing the invasive species leads to declines in bowl-and-doily spiders.	(Houser, Ginsberg and Jakob, 2014)	Exploitative competition for resources ruled out
Copepoda							
<i>Skistodiaptomus</i> copepods	Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	<i>S. oregonensis</i> and <i>S. pygmaeus</i> exhibit a parapatric boundary. Laboratory studies demonstrate high levels of reproductive interference (though no evidence of introgression), suggesting that Allee effects generated by reproductive interference maintain this parapatric boundary.	(Thum, 2007)	Ecological gradients ruled out as possible explanation
Crustacea							
Invasive rusty crayfish (<i>Orconectes rusticus</i>) and native Sanborn crayfish (<i>Orconectes sanborni</i>)	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	An invasive crayfish (<i>O. rusticus</i>) that replaces native crayfish (<i>O. sanborni</i>) tends to be dominant, and because females of the invasive species are larger, males of the native species prefer to mate with invasive females, reducing native female fitness.	(Butler and Stein, 1985)	Juvenile susceptibility to predation of native species
Invasive signal crayfish (<i>Pacifastacus leniusculus</i>) in Europe & native communities	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	Signal crayfish have been introduced in many locations throughout Europe, and in several instances, have coincided with decline of native species. In Finland & Sweden, longitudinal data show replacement of native <i>Astacus astacus</i> , with experimental evidence that both reproductive interference and aggression implicated in the decline. Agonistic interactions with bullhead (<i>Cottus gobio</i>) drive bullhead out of shelters, which may explain pattern where density of signal crayfish is negatively correlated with that of bullhead.	Svårdson et al. 1991 (Söderbäck, 1994, 1995; Westman and Savolainen, 2001; Westman, Savolainen and Julkunen, 2002; Bubb <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	Signal crayfish are resistant to crayfish plague that contributes to decline of native crayfish species; Life history traits (e.g., developmental time)
Gastropoda							
Keyhole limpets (<i>Siphonaria lessonii</i>) & pulmonate limpets (<i>Fissurella crassa</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	Mesocosm experiments demonstrate that large keyhole limpets aggressively displace smaller pulmonate limpets from crevices, and that displacement has fitness consequences not related to exploitative competition.	(Aguilera and Navarrete, 2012)	
Insecta							
<i>Aedes</i> mosquitos (<i>Ae. albopictus</i> & <i>Ae. aegypti</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	In places where <i>Ae. aegypti</i> is established, males in invading populations of <i>Ae. albopictus</i> mate with <i>Ae. aegypti</i> females, greatly reducing their fitness and leading to replacement of <i>Ae. aegypti</i> by <i>Ae. albopictus</i> .	(Nasci, Hare and Willis, 1989; Bargielowski, Lounibos and Carrasquilla, 2013; Bargielowski and Lounibos, 2016; Lounibos and Juliano, 2018; Zhou <i>et al.</i> , 2022)	Larval resource competition

Two tick species (<i>Amblyomma variegatum</i> & <i>Amblyomma hebraeum</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	Two species of tick are largely parapatric. In sympatry, interspecific copulations are commonly observed, with little geographic overlap, suggesting symmetric reproductive interference may maintain parapatric boundary.	(Bournez <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	
Whiteflies (<i>Bemisia tabaci</i> spp.)	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	Invading whitefly species have replaced native strains in several locations owing to asymmetric reproductive interference, in which matings from invading males reduce fitness of native females.	(Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Crowder <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Wang, Crowder and Liu, 2012)	Life history traits (e.g., developmental time, relative fecundity; though not sufficient without asymmetric reproductive interference to explain rapid replacement)
Invasive buff-tailed bumblebees (<i>Bombus terrestris</i>) & native bumblebees (<i>Bombus h. sapporoensis</i> 7 <i>Bombus ignitus</i>) in Japan	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	The invasive bumblebee species <i>bombus terrestris</i> engages in reproductive interference with two species of native bumblebee. Copulation between <i>B. terrestris</i> and <i>B. h. sapporoensis</i> or <i>B. ignitus</i> results in unviable eggs being laid the following spring, driving declines native bumblebee species.	(Tsuchida <i>et al.</i> , 2019)	Exploitative competition for nectar and nest sites
Rubyspot damselflies (<i>Hetaerina</i> spp.)	Aggression	N	N	Y	Rubyspot damselflies, which engage in high levels of reproductive interference and interspecific territoriality, have diverged in microhabitat use in a way that reduces the effects of behavioural interference.	(McEachin <i>et al.</i> , 2022)	
Two ant species (<i>Iridomyrmex</i> spp.)	Aggression	N	N	N	Removal experiments that two species hold mutually exclusive territories and compete for space to build colonies. Over a short period of time (11 months), one species ("C") replaced by another ("A"), in part due to asymmetric competition.	(Haering and Fox, 1987)	Habitational succession
Arboreal termite species in Papua New Guinea (<i>Microcerotermes biroi</i>, <i>Nasutitermes novarumhebridarum</i>, & <i>Nasutitermes princeps</i>)	Aggression	N	N	Y	Long term mapping of arboreal termite nests and their territories in combination with behavioural observations shows that species defend mutually exclusive territories. Removal experiments of <i>N. princeps</i> drives concomitant increase in <i>M. biroi</i> home range.	(Leponce, Roisin and Pasteels, 1997)	
White-crossed seed bugs (<i>Neacoryphus bicrurus</i>) and co-occurring insect communities	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	White-crossed seed bugs engage in asymmetrical reproductive interference (misdirected courtship) and aggression towards many species, and removal experiments demonstrate that several other species increase in density when white-crossed seed bugs are removed.	(McLain and Shure, 1987)	
Invasive southern green stink bugs (<i>Nezara viridula</i>) & native green stink bugs (<i>Nezara antennata</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	Invasive southern green stink bugs are expanding in Japan into the range of and replacing native green stink bugs. In regions of coexistence, heterospecific copulations are commonly observed, and reproductive interference is suspected to drive declines of native species.	(Kiritani, 2011)	Shifting climatic suitability
Alpine dark bush-crickets (<i>Pholidoptera aptera</i>) & Transylvanian dark bush-crickets (<i>Pholidoptera transylvanica</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	Bush-crickets exhibit a 'mosaic' pattern of distribution, where the two species are rarely found in syntopy. Experiments demonstrate that heterospecific matings resulting in transfer of spermatophores are common.	(Dorková <i>et al.</i> , 2020)	Habitat segregation ruled out
Eastern subterranean termites (<i>Reticulitermes flavipes</i>) &	Aggression	N	Y	N	Invasive eastern subterranean termites are dominant in aggressive interactions over native western subterranean termites; success of invasion is attributed to this asymmetry.	(Perdereau <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	Lack of intraspecific aggression in invasive species;

Western subterranean termites (<i>Reticulitermes grassei</i>)							demographic factors (large colony size)
Invasive Asian blue ticks (<i>Rhipicephalus [Boophilus] microplus</i>) & African blue ticks (<i>Rhipicephalus [Boophilus] decoloratus</i>) in South Africa	Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	Invasive Asian blue ticks have replaced African blue ticks in South Africa. Interspecific matings lead to sterile hybrids, so rapid demographic increases in invader populations lead to Allee effects driving local extinction of native species.	(Sutherst, 1987; Tønnesen <i>et al.</i> , 2004, 2004)	Life history traits (e.g., developmental time); host resistance
Cepero's groundhoppers (<i>Tetrix ceperoi</i>) & slender groundhoppers (<i>Tetrix subulata</i>)	Reproductive Interference	N	N	N	Groundhoppers exhibit a 'mosaic' pattern of distribution, where the two species are rarely found in syntopy. Laboratory and field experiments demonstrate that extensive reproductive interference is likely responsible for this spatial distribution.	(Gröning <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Hochkirch, Gröning and Bücker, 2007; Hochkirch and Gröning, 2012)	Habitat segregation ruled out
Arboreal ant species in Papua New Guinea	Aggression	N	N	Y	Colony mapping and behavioural experiments demonstrate that interspecific aggression is the key factor shaping the spatial distribution of ant species in a 9 hectare plot	(Mottl <i>et al.</i> , 2021)	Habitat segregation ruled out
Mammalia							
Fallow deer (<i>Dama dama</i>) & roe deer (<i>Capreolus capreolus</i>)	Aggression	N	Y	N	Fallow deer displace roe deer but not vice versa, and that habitat use by roe deer is affected by presence of fallow deer. Together, these suggest behavioural interference has led to decline in roe deer populations as fallow deer populations have increased.	(Ferretti and Mori, 2020)	Exploitative competition for resources not ruled out
White-handed gibbons (<i>Hylobates lar</i>) & Pileated gibbons (<i>Hylobates pileatus</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	Two species of gibbon are largely parapatric, with a small contact zone that is maintained by interspecific territorial aggression.	(Suwanvecho and Brockelman, 2012; Asensio <i>et al.</i> , 2017)	Niche partitioning (via habitat segregation or diet divergence) ruled out.
Least chipmunks (<i>Neotamias minimus</i>) & yellow-pine chipmunks (<i>Neotamias amoenus</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	Removal experiments of two species of chipmunk that engage in aggressive interference. When yellow-pine chipmunks were removed, least chipmunks captures increased; the converse did not occur.	(Chappell, 1978; Heller, no date)	
Townsend's chipmunks (<i>Neotamias townsendii</i>) & yellow-pine chipmunks (<i>Neotamias amoenus</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	Removal experiments of two species of chipmunk that engage in aggressive interactions with one another show that when heterospecifics are removed, the range size of the retained species and juvenile recruitment increases.	(Trombulak, 1985)	Habitat segregation ruled out
Uinta chipmunks (<i>Neotamias umbrinus</i>) & Colorado chipmunks (<i>Neotamias quadrivittatus</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	Colorado chipmunks cannot move into higher elevational because of aggressive interactions with Uinta chipmunks. Uinta chipmunks hypothesised to be restricted to higher elevations because of the high parasitic load of a bot fly found at lower elevations.	(Bergstrom, 1992)	
Stoats (<i>Mustela erminea</i>) & least weasels (<i>Mustela nivalis</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	Experimental data demonstrates that stoats are dominant over weasels, and observational data shows that weasels are very rarely found in preferred habitat when a stoats held a territory in the area. Distributional data collected over several years shows that when stoats declined, weasels increased locally.	(Erlinge and Sandell, 1988)	
Pied tamarins (<i>Saguinus bicolor</i>) & Golden-handed tamarins (<i>Saguinus midas</i>)	Aggression	N	N	N	Playback experiment of two species on Tamarin, in allopatry and sympatry. Pied tamarins are critically endangered and experiencing range fragmentation, while red-handed tamarins have expanded their range into the range of pied tamarins.	(Sobroza <i>et al.</i> , 2021)	

					Playback experiments show that red-handed tamarin respond more aggressively than the pied tamarins.	
Chiriquí singing mice (<i>Scotinomys xerampelinus</i>) & Alston's singing mice (<i>Scotinomys teguina</i>)	Aggression	Y	N	N	Playback experiments, laboratory experiments, and removal experiments all demonstrate that the higher elevation species (<i>Scotinomys xerampelinus</i>) is dominant and preempts range intrusions from lower elevation species. In removal experiments, <i>Scotinomys xerampelinus</i> didn't descend to occupy areas where <i>Scotinomys teguina</i> was removed, but <i>Scotinomys teguina</i> did invade higher elevation areas when <i>Scotinomys xerampelinus</i> was removed.	(Pasch, Bolker and Phelps, 2013)
Reptilia						
Invasive house geckos (<i>Hemidactylus frenatus</i>) & native communities	Aggression and Reproductive Interference	N	Y	N	Comprehensive longitudinal data, in combination with laboratory and field experiments, show that introduced house geckos are aggressive to and avoided by native species, leading to the decline of native species across many different locations. Reproductive interference has also been demonstrated in some locations.	(Bolger and Case, 1992; Petren, Bolger and Case, 1993; Case, Bolger and Petren, 1994; Dame and Petren, 2006) Competitive exclusion due to differential resource acquisition (though this results from interference competition)

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