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EDUARD SZÖCS

# QUANTITATIVE ECOTOXICOLOGY

WITH R!

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# **Preface**



# 1

## Introduction

```
require(devtools)  
install_github("qetx", "EDiLD")
```

```
require(qetx)
```



## 2

# The Measurement Process

### 2.1 Winsorized Mean and Standard Deviation

#### *Example data*

The following sulfate concentrations (mg/L) were measured during a routine water quality survey of the Savannah River (South Carolina). The data is available in the `qetx` package <sup>1</sup>:

```
data(so4)
```

```
so4
## [1] 1.3 2.3 2.6 3.3 3.5 3.5 3.6 4.0 4.1 4.5 5.2 5.6
## [13] 5.7 6.1 6.2 6.5 6.9 7.1 7.7 7.9 9.9

length(so4)

## [1] 21

mean(so4)

## [1] 5.119

sd(so4)

## [1] 2.137
```

So there are 21 measurements with a mean of 5.12 mg/L and a standard deviation of 2.14 mg/L.

#### *Winsorization*

Suppose we have a detection limit of 2.5 mg/L and want to winsorize values below LOD, i.e. replace the two lowest values by 2.6 mg/L and the two highest values by 7.7 mg/L.

<sup>1</sup> Note that in this case you do not have to assign the data to a name.

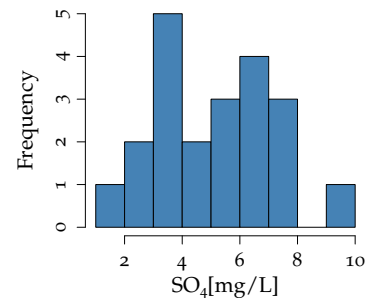


Figure 2.1: A histogram of the `so4` data.

Happily there is function in the `qetx`-package to do this for us: `winsor()`. This function takes a vector of values and a second argument specifying how many values should be winsorized (either by giving a LOD-value or the number of values on each side) <sup>2</sup>.

```
so4_w <- winsor(so4, lod = 2.5)
so4_w

## [1] 2.6 2.6 2.6 3.3 3.5 3.5 3.6 4.0 4.1 4.5 5.2 5.6
## [13] 5.7 6.1 6.2 6.9 6.5 7.1 7.7 7.7 7.7
## attr("width")
## [1] 2
```

<sup>2</sup> Look at the source of this function - type the function name into the console - to see which computations are done.

This give the expected results, moreover we see that on each end two observations where modified <sup>3</sup>.

```
mean(so4_w)

## [1] 5.081

sd(so4_w)

## [1] 1.792

sd_winsor(so4_w)

## [1] 2.24
```

<sup>3</sup> stored within the attribute 'width' of the resulting vector. **TODO: verbatim within sidenote.**

The Winsorized mean ( $\bar{x}_w$ ) now is 5.08 mg/L, the standard deviation of the modified data set ( $s$ ) is 1.79 mg/L and the Winsorized standard deviation ( $s_w$ ) 2.24 mg/L.

## 2.2 Probability Plotting



3

## **Bioaccumulation**



**4**

## **Tests for Detection of Chronic Lethal and Sub-lethal Stress**



## 5

# Lethal and Other Quantal Responses to Stress

### 5.1 Fitting dose-response models

#### Example data

Newman and Aplin (1992) exposed mosquitofish *Gambusia holbrooki* to a series of NaCl concentrations for 96h. The data is available from the `qetx` package.

```
data(salt)
str(salt)

## 'data.frame': 6 obs. of 3 variables:
## $ dead : int 16 22 40 69 78 77
## $ total: int 76 79 77 76 78 77
## $ conc : num 10.3 10.8 11.6 13.2 15.8 20.1
```

There are three columns:

*dead* Number of fish died.

*total* Total number of fish exposed.

*conc* NaCl concentration (g/L).

First we calculate the proportion of died fish and save it as a new column in our data.frame:

```
salt$prop <- salt$dead/salt$total
```

As always we first take a look at the data, to produce Fig. 5.2:

```
plot(prop ~ conc, data = salt, log = 'x', pch = 16,
     xlab = "NaCl-Concentration", ylab = "Proportion dead")
```

#### Introduction

1



Figure 5.1: LD<sub>50</sub>. Source: <http://xkcd.com/1260/>

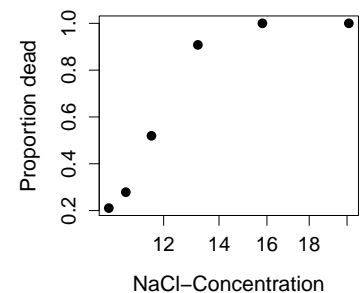


Figure 5.2: Proportion of fish died at different NaCl concentrations. The x axis is on a log scale.

<sup>1</sup> Ritz, 2010



**6**

## **Population and Metapopulation Effects**





# 7

## Community Effects

### 7.1 Species Richness

#### *Example data*

Ten species were sampled at eight sites around an outfall and the number of individuals per species noted. The data is available from the `qetx` package has a usual species x sites format and the row-names give the distance to the outfall<sup>1</sup>:

```
data(abu)
abu
```

##	Sp1	Sp2	Sp3	Sp4	Sp5	Sp6	Sp7	Sp8	Sp9	Sp10
## -1	12	11	10	8	8	5	2	2	1	0
## -0.5	12	12	10	8	8	4	3	2	2	1
## 0	58	21	3	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
## 0.5	18	16	15	5	4	0	0	0	0	0
## 1	11	11	11	8	7	3	2	1	1	0
## 1.7	8	12	13	3	3	3	1	2	0	0
## 2.7	12	10	8	11	8	4	1	1	2	0
## 5.3	10	11	8	6	6	5	4	2	1	1

<sup>1</sup> Most functions for multivariate techniques need the data in this format - rows = samples, columns = species.

For our analyses we will use two packages:

*vegan* A package for Community Ecology.

*BiodiversityR* A package for biodiversity, suitability and community ecology analysis<sup>2</sup>

```
require(vegan)
require(BiodiversityR)
```

<sup>2</sup> Advisable further reading: Kindt and Coe (2005) freely available at <http://www.worldagroforestry.org/resources/databases/tree-diversity-analysis>

### Rarefaction

The total number of individuals per sample can be calculated as the row sums

```
rowSums(abu)

##      -1 -0.5      0  0.5      1  1.7  2.7  5.3
##     59  62  85  58  55  45  57  54
```

As the total number of individuals varies we will use the rarefaction method to estimate species richness at a sample size of 40 individuals.

```
rarefy(abu, 40, se = TRUE)

##      -1 -0.5      0      0.5      1      1.7      2.7
## S  8.4757 9.347 4.0496 4.99092 8.3665 7.8767 8.3122
## se 0.6225 0.687 0.7458 0.09492 0.6788 0.3313 0.6962
##      5.3
## S  9.4139
## se 0.6572
## attr(,"Subsample")
## [1] 40
```

As can be seen species richness drops at the outfall, but increases again downstream (Fig. 7.1). Rarefaction curves can be easily created as well as species accumulation curves:

```
rarecurve(abu, sample = 40)

env <- data.frame(dist = rownames(abu))
rankabuncomp(abu, env, 'dist', scale = 'accumfreq')
```

## 7.2 Species Diversity

Function `diversity()` from the `vegan` package can calculate the Shannon and Simpson diversity indices <sup>3</sup>:

```
diversity(abu, base = 2)

##      -1      -0.5      0      0.5      1
## 2.8673512 2.9862404 1.2475503 2.1119181 2.7892213
##      1.7      2.7      5.3
## 2.5720769 2.8102132 3.0159575
```

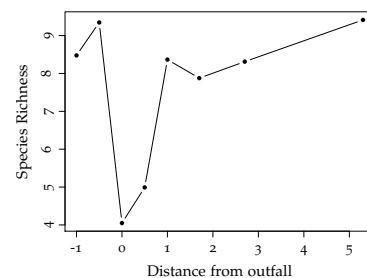


Figure 7.1: Species Richness along outfall

<sup>3</sup> The logarithm with base 2 is used for the Shannon index

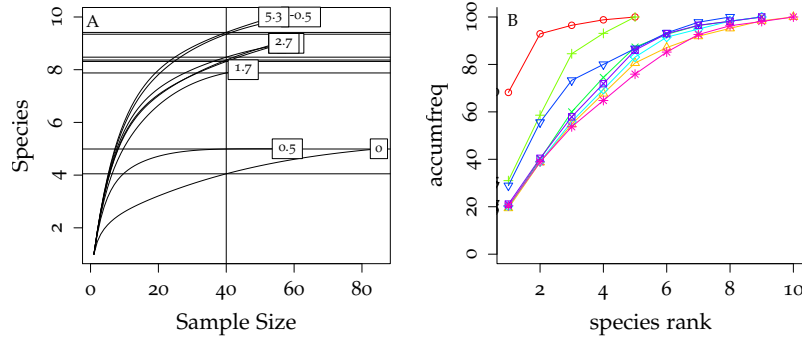


Figure 7.2: A) Rarefaction Curve. B) Rank abundance curve

```
diversity(abu, index = "simpson")
```

```
##          -1          -0.5          0          0.5          1
## 0.84860672 0.85691988 0.47141869 0.74851367 0.83768595
##          1.7          2.7          5.3
## 0.79802469 0.84148969 0.86145405
```

Brillouin's index is not implemented so have to calculate it by hand:

```
N <- rowSums(abu)
log(factorial(N)/apply(factorial(abu), 1, prod), base = 2)/N
```

```
##          -1          -0.5          0          0.5          1
## 2.5566733 2.6578637 1.1447406 1.9283402 2.4710966
##          1.7          2.7          5.3
## 2.2413558 2.4986847 2.6527313
```

Or use the function `brillouin` from the `qetx` package, which runs the two above lines of code for us:

```
brillouin(abu, 2)
```

### Species Evenness

Pielou's J can be easily calculated from the shannon index by dividing it with the number of species in each sample:

```
diversity(abu)/log(rowSums(abu > 0))
```

```
##          -1          -0.5          0          0.5          1
## 0.90454859 0.89894792 0.53729068 0.90955361 0.87990134
```

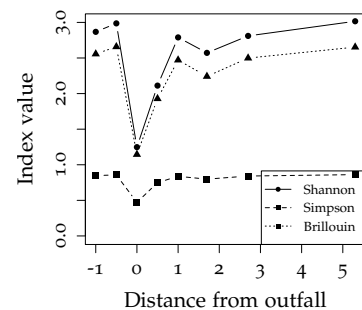


Figure 7.3: Diversity indices along outfall

```
##      1.7      2.7      5.3
## 0.85735897 0.88652356 0.90789368
```

### 7.3 Dissimilarity indices

```
data(oil)
oil

##      Abra nitida Abra tenuis Acanthocardia echinata
## 1           0           1           0
## 2           0           0           2
## 3           0           0           0
## ...
## 19          0           0
## 20          2           0
```

### 7.4 Ordination techniques - PCA, RDA, NMDS, MDS, dbRDA

4

<sup>4</sup> Further reading: [Borcard et al. \(2011\)](#)

### 7.5 Testing hypotheses - PERMANOVA

### 7.6 Analyzing mesocosm data - Principal Response Curves (PRC)

#### Example data

Here we will analyze the pyrifos data set from [Van den Brink and Ter Braak \(1999\)](#) which is shipped with the vegan package.

Describe experiment

```
require(vegan)
data(pyrifos)
head(pyrifos[, c(1:8)])

##      Simve Daplo Cerpu Alogu Aloco Alore Aloaf Copsp
## w.4.c1 3.951    0    0    0    0    0    0 2.773
## w.4.c2 2.303    0    0    0    0    0    0 2.079
## w.4.c3 4.595    0    0    0    0    0    0 3.761
## w.4.c4 2.398    0    0    0    0    0    0 3.296
## w.4.c5 4.025    0    0    0    0    0    0 3.466
## w.4.c6 2.303    0    0    0    0    0    0 2.197
```

So rows correspond to samples and columns are the species (with abbreviated names), a usual species x sites matrix. The column names code treatment and time, but we will create a separate `data.frame` with information about experimental ditch, sampling time and treatment:

```
ditch <- gl(12, 1, length = 132)
week <- gl(11, 12, labels = c(-4, -1, 0.1, 1, 2, 4, 8, 12,
  15, 19, 24))
dose <- factor(rep(c(0.1, 0, 0, 0.9, 0, 44, 6, 0.1, 44,
  0.9, 0, 6), 11))
pyrifos_env <- data.frame(ditch, week, dose)
```

### Introduction

Principal Response Curves (PRC)<sup>5</sup> are commonly used for analyzing ecotoxicological mesocosm experiments. PRC analyses the change of a community due to a treatment over time and is a special form of Redundancy Analysis (RDA)<sup>6</sup>.

<sup>5</sup> Van den Brink and Ter Braak, 1999

<sup>6</sup> ?

### Overall pattern

With this a hand we can easily calculate and plot (Figure 7.4)<sup>7</sup> the PRC using the `prc()` function:

```
pyrifos_prc <- prc(response = pyrifos, treatment = dose,
  time = week)
pyrifos_prc_sum <- summary(pyrifos_prc, scaling = 1)
```

```
plot(pyrifos_prc, select = abs(pyrifos_prc_sum$sp) > 1,
  scaling = 1)
```

<sup>7</sup> Note that only species with scores greater or smaller than 1 are displayed to avoid cluttering of the plot

The plot shows on the x axis the time and on the y-axis the difference from the control treatments. The farther apart from the x-axis the more different are the communities compared to the control (you can say the x axis represents the control).

We see a clearly treatment-related effect: After application at week 0 the treated communities rapidly change treatment dependent. However to the end of the experiment the treated and the control get similar again, which indicates a 'recovery'.

On the right-hand side we see the species names and their scores. The more extreme the scores the more this species contributed to the plotted pattern. However, you cannot directly infer from these

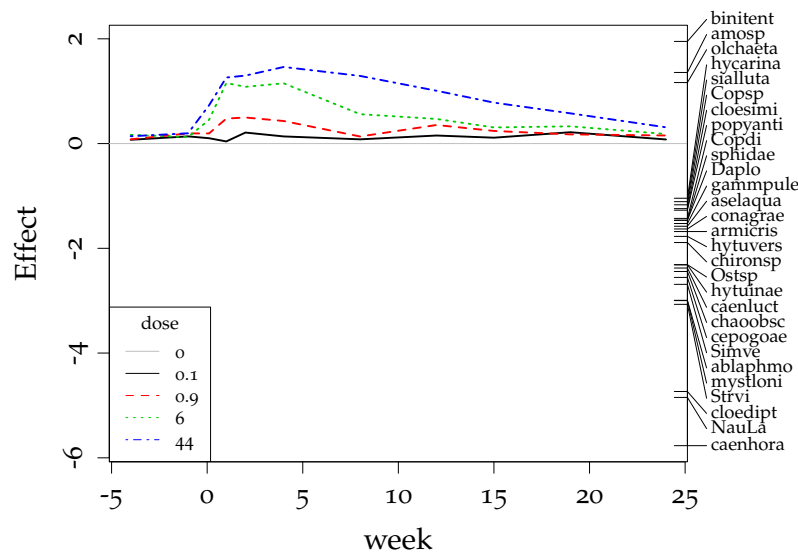


Figure 7.4: Principal response curves (PRC) with species weights for the pyrifos data set indicating effects of the insecticide on the invertebrate community.

species scores which species are more susceptible. For example *Gammarus pulex* (gammapule) has a relatively low scores, although it's response pattern (Figure 7.5) shows a strong response, but with no recovery. PRC displays global pattern in the community, but the pattern of *G. pulex* is different from most other species, therefore it gets a lower species score.

We can also look at the numerical output<sup>8</sup> for this plot using the summary method:

```
pyrifos_prc_sum
```

```
##
## Call:
## prc(response = pyrifos, treatment = dose, time = week)
## Species scores:
##      Simve      Ostsp      NauLa      Strvi binitent caenhora
##    -2.688    -2.312    -4.847    -3.070     1.951    -5.768
## caenluct cloedipt hytuinae ablaphmo cepogoe chaoobsc
##    -2.376    -4.734    -2.316    -2.993    -2.555    -2.442
## mystloni
##    -2.998
##
## Coefficients for dose + week:dose interaction
```

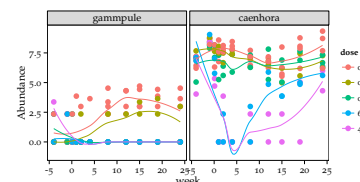


Figure 7.5: Responses of *G. pulex* and *C. horaria* to chlorpyrifos.

<sup>8</sup> Only a shortened output is given here.

```
## which are contrasts to dose 0
## rows are dose, columns are week
##      -4    -1    0.1    1    2    4
## 0.1 0.07218 0.1375 0.1020 0.04068 0.2101 0.1364
## 0.9 0.08106 0.1935 0.1936 0.47699 0.4977 0.4306
## 6   0.16616 0.1232 0.4539 1.15638 1.0835 1.1511
## 44  0.13979 0.1958 0.7308 1.26088 1.2978 1.4627
```

The output of `prc()` gives us more detailed information about the RDA model:

```
pyrifos_prc
```

```
## Call: prc(response = pyrifos, treatment = dose,
## time = week)
##
##              Inertia Proportion Rank
## Total          288.99200    1.00000
## Conditional     63.34900    0.21921   10
## Constrained    96.68400    0.33456   44
## Unconstrained 128.95900    0.44624   77
## Inertia is variance
##
## Eigenvalues for constrained axes:
##   RDA1   RDA2   RDA3   RDA4   RDA5   RDA6
## 25.2823  8.2969  6.0442  4.7662  4.1482  3.8568
##   RDA7   RDA8
##  3.5875  3.3341
##
## Eigenvalues for unconstrained axes:
##   PC1   PC2   PC3   PC4   PC5   PC6
## 17.1561  9.1894  7.5849  6.0636  5.7298  4.8434
##   PC7   PC8
##  4.5184  4.1046
## (Showed only 8 of all 77 unconstrained eigenvalues)
```

We see that 21.9 % of the variance can be attributed to time (Conditional), 33.5 % can be explained by the treatment regime (Constrained) and 44.6 % of residual variance (Unconstrained), which cannot be explained by time and treatment.

The first RDA axis has an eigenvalue of 25.3. If we divide this eigenvalue by the sum of all eigenvalues, we get the proportion of explained variance which is displayed on the first axis<sup>9</sup>:

<sup>9</sup> `rda()` (and therefore also `prc()`) returns a huge object with all kind of information stored in it. See `?cca.object` for the internal structure. Here I directly access the eigenvalues from this object

```
pyrifos_prc$CCA$eig[1]/sum(pyrifos_prc$CCA$eig) * 100

##      RDA1
## 26.14946
```

The significance of the PRC diagram can be tested via permutations. However observations from a experimental ditch are not independent, since the same ditch was measured repeatedly during the experiment. We have to take this into account: each ditch represents a time-series. We will permute the whole series of one ditch, keeping the temporal order (see Tab. 7.1).

To setup such a permutation scheme we use the `permut` package, which is automatically loaded with `vegan`<sup>10</sup>:

```
control = how(plots = Plots(strata = ditch, type = "free"),
              within = Within(type = "none"), nperm = 99)
```

This sets up our permutation scheme:

*plots* We will permute ditches, without any restrictions.

*within* But within one ditch there will be no permutations.

*nperm* We want 99 permutations.

Permutation tests for PRC can be performed using `anova`:

```
set.seed(1234)
anova(pyrifos_prc, permutations = control, first = TRUE)

## Permutation test for rda under reduced model
## Plots: ditch, plot permutation: free
## Permutation: none
## Number of permutations: 99
##
## Model: prc(response = pyrifos, treatment = dose, time = week)
##      Df Variance      F Pr(>F)
## RDA1    1  25.2823 15.0958  0.01 **
## Residual 77 128.9589
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

This runs a permutation test for the first eigenvalue of our model. We see that our first axis explains a statistically significant proportion of variation (Fig. 7.6). The minimum p-value that we could get is 0.01 (=1/no. of permutations).

Table 7.1: 3 ditches observed for 4 weeks and a possible permutation.

Week	Ditch	Perm
1	1	3
2	1	3
3	1	3
4	1	3
1	2	1
2	2	1
3	2	1
4	2	1
1	3	2
2	3	2
3	3	2
4	3	2

<sup>10</sup> `vegan` is in active development and you should always use the newest version.

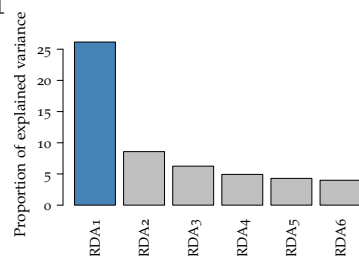


Figure 7.6: Proportion of explained variance of the first 6 RDA-axes. Note that treatment and time were factors and (internally) dummy-coded, therefore we have a total of 44 axes.



You can also test the significance of each axis separately<sup>11 12</sup>

```
anova(pyrifos_prc, permutations = control, by = "axis")
```

or the terms in the model:

```
anova(pyrifos_prc, permutations = control, by = "terms")

## Permutation test for rda under reduced model
## Terms added sequentially (first to last)
## Plots: ditch, plot permutation: free
## Permutation: none
## Number of permutations: 99
##
## Model: rda(formula = pyrifos ~ dose * week + Condition(week))
##           Df Variance      F Pr(>F)
## dose       4  30.6951 4.58193  0.04 *
## week       0   0.0000
## dose:week  40  65.9886 0.98503  0.05 *
## Residual   77 128.9589
## ---
## Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

<sup>11</sup> Legendre et al., 2011

<sup>12</sup> The results for the first axis are identical, but testing only the first eigenvalue is computationally more efficient since we are generally not interested in all axes.

This shows that the interaction term in the model is statistically significant. Note that no output for week is generated - this is because with the specified permutation scheme the significance of a week effect cannot be assessed.

### *Effects per week*

Now that we have looked at the overall effects, we may want to look at effects at individual time-points and explore the nature of the treatment x time interaction.

We follow here <sup>13</sup> and use the ln-transformed nominal dose as continuous explanatory variable <sup>14</sup>.

```
dose_c <- log(20 * as.numeric(levels(dose))[dose] + 1)
```

Now we can write a for-loop and compute for every week a RDA and a permutation test <sup>15</sup>.

```
rdas <- NULL
for (i in levels(week)) {
  rdas[[i]]$rda <- rda(pyrifos[week == i, ] ~
                      dose_c[week == i])
  rdas[[i]]$anova <- anova(rdas[[i]]$rda, by = 'terms',
```

<sup>13</sup> Van den Brink and Ter Braak, 1999

<sup>14</sup> But before we have to convert dose from a factor to a numeric vector via `as.numeric(levels(x))[x]`

<sup>15</sup> First we create an empty object (rdas) that will hold our results. Next we run on a subset of data (based on week) a RDA and permutation test. The results of both are stored as a list entry.

```

      step = 199)
}

```

However there is also convenience function in the `getx` package:

```
rdas <- rda_per_time(pyrifos, dose_c, week)
```

This returns a very big list: one list entry per week and each entry itself contains two lists: `rda` (RDA-Model) and `anova` (permutation test)). Digging through this manually is to .... therefore we need to extract only the information we need.

We can use `sapply()` to apply a function to every list entry and return results in a vector. For example to extract the p-values for each week we can use:

```
sapply(rdas, function(x) x$anova[1, 4])
```

```
##      -4      -1     0.1      1      2      4      8     12     15
## 0.334 0.343 0.039 0.001 0.007 0.001 0.001 0.001 0.001
##      19      24
## 0.001 0.001
```

Have a look at the object structure to write a custom function to extract the information you need:

```
str(rdas[[1]]$anova)
```

### Other methods

Other methods to analyse mesocosm experiments include:

*multivariate GLMs* <sup>16</sup> In R: `mvabund`-package.

<sup>16</sup> Warton et al., 2011; and Wang et al., 2012

*trait-based indicators* <sup>17</sup> Currently no package, but have look at `rspear`-package (section 7.8).

<sup>17</sup> Liess and Beketov, 2011

*community endpoints* <sup>18</sup> You can use `vegan` for the computations.

<sup>18</sup> Sanchez-Bayo and Goka, 2012

## 7.7 Species Sensitivity Distributions (SSD)

### Introduction

Species Sensitivity Distributions (SSD) are a central tool for risk assessment in ecotoxicology.

introduction

### Example data

```
data(ec50)
```

### Calculate SSD

We have data for a total of 35 taxa, with multiple EC50 values per taxon. We could aggregate/average these values into a single observation per taxon.

Here we aggregate using the geometric mean (with base 10).

```
logmean <- function(x) 10^(mean(log10(x)))
agg <- aggregate(ec50$conc, by = list(species = ec50$species),
  logmean)
```

The result is a data.frame with 35 species and the mean EC50/LC50 values.

We can now fit a parametric distribution to this data using the `fitdistrplus` package. The choice of distribution is a crucial one - to help the choice one can fit different distributions to the data and the one that fits best to the data. Here we fit a normal, a log-normal, a logistic and a weibull distribution to the data:

```
require(fitdistrplus)
ft_norm <- fitdist(agg$x, distr = "norm")
ft_lnorm <- fitdist(agg$x, distr = "lnorm")
ft_logis <- fitdist(agg$x, distr = "logis")
ft_weib <- fitdist(agg$x, distr = "weibull")
```

To compare different distributions we can use Information Criteria like AIC or BIC. A graphical comparison may also help decision.

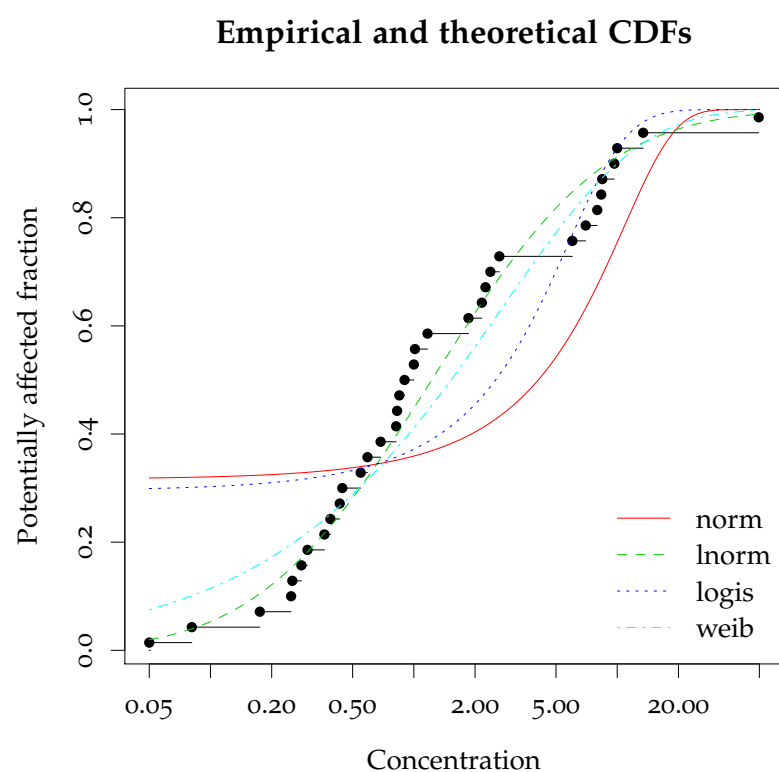
```
gofstat(list(ft_norm, ft_lnorm, ft_logis, ft_weib), fitnames = c("norm",
  "lnorm", "logis", "weib"))

## Goodness-of-fit statistics
##               norm  lnorm  logis
## Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic 0.3188 0.1201 0.2992
## Cramer-von Mises statistic  1.0916 0.0797 0.6914
## Anderson-Darling statistic  5.8682 0.4702 3.9085
##               weib
## Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic 0.1575
## Cramer-von Mises statistic  0.1690
## Anderson-Darling statistic  0.9821
```

```
##
## Goodness-of-fit criteria
##
##                                norm lnorm logis  weib
## Aikake's Information Criterion 253.8 148.2 227.1 155.0
## Bayesian Information Criterion 256.9 151.3 230.2 158.1

cdfcomp(list(ft_norm, ft_lnorm, ft_logis, ft_weib), xlogscale = TRUE,
        legendtext = list("norm", "lnorm", "logis", "weib"),
        xlab = "Concentration", ylab = "Potentially affected fraction")
```

Figure 7.7: SSD



From the plot we can clearly see that the normal and logistic distributions are not appropriate here. AIC and BIC tell the same story and the log-normal distribution fits best.

The fitted distribution has the following parameters:

```
ft_lnorm
## Fitting of the distribution 'lnorm' by maximum likelihood
## Parameters:
```

```
##          estimate Std. Error
## meanlog    0.2024    0.2620
## sdlog      1.5503    0.1853
```

The 5% quantile of this distribution is the HC5 (Figure 7.8):

```
quantile(ft_lnorm, 0.05)

## Estimated quantiles for each specified probability (non-censored data)
##          p=0.05
## estimate 0.0956
```

Confidence Intervals can be produced using bootstrap:

```
bt_lnorm <- bootdist(ft_lnorm, niter = 999)
quantile(bt_lnorm, 0.05)

## (original) estimated quantiles for each specified probability (non-censored data)
##          p=0.05
## estimate 0.0956
## Median of bootstrap estimates
##          p=0.05
## estimate 0.1034
##
## two-sided 95 % CI of each quantile
##          p=0.05
## 2.5 % 0.04625
## 97.5 % 0.22548
```

So the lower CI for the HC5 is 0.047 (Figure 7.8).

`fitdistrplus` allows also to use interval and censored data. However first we need to restructure our dataset:

```
require(plyr)
int <- ddpily(ec50, .(species), summarise, left = min(conc),
             right = max(conc))
```

```
ft_lnorm_int <- fitdistcens(int, "lnorm")
quantile(ft_lnorm_int, 0.05)

## Estimated quantiles for each specified probability (censored data)
##          p=0.05
## estimate 0.1124
```

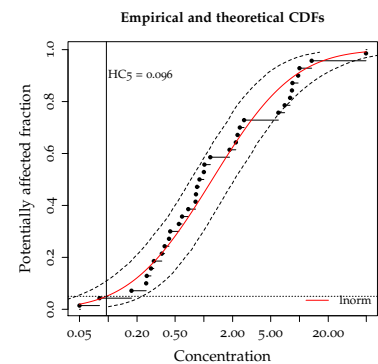


Figure 7.8: SSD

## 7.8 Species At Risk (SPEAR)

```
require(rspear)
```

# R Session Info

```
sessionInfo()

## R version 3.0.2 (2013-09-25)
## Platform: x86_64-pc-linux-gnu (64-bit)
##
## locale:
##  [1] LC_CTYPE=en_US.UTF-8
##  [2] LC_NUMERIC=C
##  [3] LC_TIME=en_US.UTF-8
##  [4] LC_COLLATE=en_US.UTF-8
##  [5] LC_MONETARY=en_US.UTF-8
##  [6] LC_MESSAGES=en_US.UTF-8
##  [7] LC_PAPER=en_US.UTF-8
##  [8] LC_NAME=C
##  [9] LC_ADDRESS=C
## [10] LC_TELEPHONE=C
## [11] LC_MEASUREMENT=en_US.UTF-8
## [12] LC_IDENTIFICATION=C
##
## attached base packages:
##  [1] splines    tcltk      grid        stats      graphics
##  [6] grDevices  utils      datasets    methods    base
##
## other attached packages:
##  [1] rspear_0.1-2          fitdistrplus_1.0-1
##  [3] survival_2.37-4       ggplot2_0.9.3.1.99
##  [5] reshape2_1.2.2        BiodiversityR_2.3-6
##  [7] tikzDevice_0.6.3      filehash_2.2-1
##  [9] qetx_0.0.1            vegan_2.1-40
## [11] lattice_0.20-24       permute_0.8-0
## [13] knitr_1.5
##
## loaded via a namespace (and not attached):
##  [1] codetools_0.2-8      colorspace_1.2-4
```

```
## [3] dichromat_2.0-0    digest_0.6.4
## [5] evaluate_0.5.1     formatR_0.10
## [7] gtable_0.1.2       highr_0.3
## [9] labeling_0.2        MASS_7.3-29
## [11] munsell_0.4.2       plyr_1.8
## [13] proto_0.3-10        Rcmdr_2.0-2
## [15] RColorBrewer_1.0-5 scales_0.2.3
## [17] stringr_0.6.2       tcltk2_1.2-9
## [19] tools_3.0.2
```



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