Introduction to the R package rich

Jean-Pierre Rossi

CBGP - INRA Montpellier http://www6.montpellier.inra.fr/cbgp $For \ \textit{rich}\ version\ 1.0.1$

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1 Installation

The current stable version (rich 1.0.1) is available from CRAN. You can also install rich from R by simply typing:

```
install.packages("rich", dep=TRUE)
```

The development version is hosted by R-Forge and you can install it from R by typing:

```
install.packages("rich", repos="http://R-Forge.R-project.org", dep=TRUE)
```

2 What is rich?

rich is a set of functions designed to perform simple species richness analyses. Readers will find interesting R resources in the package vegan (Oksanen et al. 2016).

3 Basic features

The function rich computes the species richness on the basis of bootstrap estimation.

```
library(rich)
data(ef)

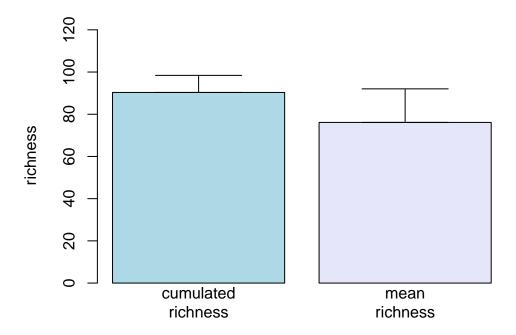
# Bootstrap estimation based on 99 randomizations
o1 <- rich(matrix=ef, nrandom=99)
o1</pre>
```

```
## $cr
## [1] 121
##
## $mr
## [1] 10.4
##
## $mrsd
## [1] 4.938239
##
## $bootCR
    cr.obs
            cr.boot cr.bcorr
                                 cr.bias
                                                     cr.lbn
##
                                            cr.se
                                                               cr.ubn
       121 90.33333 151.6667 -30.66667 8.083745 135.8228 167.5105
##
##
```

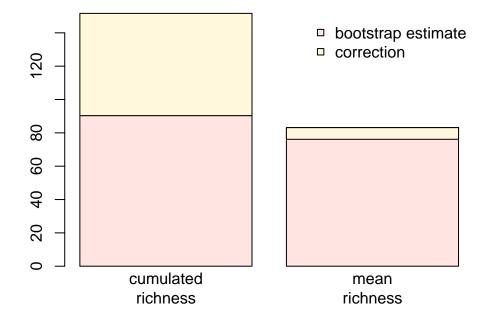
```
## $bootMR
## mr.obs mr.boot mr.bcorr mr.bias mr.se mr.lbn mr.ubn
## 79.63333 76.12828 83.13838 -3.505051 15.90487 51.96541 114.3114
##
## $nrandom
## [1] 99
```

The mean species richness *i.e.* the average value over the sampling units is given in the slot \$mr and its standard deviation is given in \$mrsd. The cumulated richness is given in \$cr. The bootstrap estimate of the cumulated richness is stored in \$bootCR. \$cr.obs is simply the observed cumulated value whereas the corresponding bootstrapped value is reported in \$cr.boot.

We can plot the mean and cumulated bootstrap estimates of species richness:



The dispersion of the bootstrap estimates can be used to compute a corrected value (Manly 1997). rich provides these corrected estimates and the outputs can be visualized as follows:



4 Comparing species richness

4.1 Principle

One very common question is to determine if the species richness estimated in two sampling areas are statistically significant. This is for example the question if we sample fauna in plots under conventional agriculture and organic farming. Usually we perform sampling in each site, using a set of sampling units such as traps for insects, soil monoliths for soil fauna, surbers in rivers surveys etc. Each sampling unit brings a set of species forming a list whose length is the species richness.

Imagine a very simple framework where sites A and B are sampled using n sampling units. Each unit brings one estimation of species richness. We thus end up with n local estimates of the richness S for each site.

If we want to compare the richness of site A and B we must be careful. A very common strategy is to perform a student t test which amounts to compare the mean richness of each site. This corresponds to averaging each set of n values and compare the resulting means. This is not a comparison of the richness in site A and B, but rather a comparisons of the density of species richness in each site. Many users go for a student t test because they need a statistical test and that means they need replicates.

Imagine that 2 sites are sampled with 2 replicates and that the data are as follows:

	site 1		site 2	
	sample 1	sample 2	sample 1	sample 2
species 1	1	0	1	1
species 2	0	1	0	0

Both sites have a mean richness of 1 species per sample. However the cumulated richness is 2 in site 1 and only 1 in site 2. This very simple example illustrates the importance of considering the cumulated richness in biodiversity surveys. The problem is that we end up comparing only 2 values, one per site, with no replicate. This impairs statistical comparisons by mean of usual tests.

Randomization tests offer a solution that is clearly explained in Manly (1997). The function c2cv (standing for *compare 2 cumulated values*) implements such comparison of 2 values of species richness using a randomization procedure. Note that the function only handles 2 values comparison and thus does not allow multi-site direct analysis.

4.2 Functions c2cv and c2m

4.2.1 c2cv

c2cv stands for compare 2 cumulated values.

```
data(efeb)
out <- c2cv(com1=efeb$ef,com2=efeb$eb,nrandom=100,verbose=FALSE)
out$res</pre>
```

```
##
## cv1
                      121.00000000
## cv2
                       22.00000000
## cv1-cv2
                       99.0000000
## p
                        0.00990099
## quantile 0.025
                      -30.00000000
## quantile 0.975
                       45.00000000
## randomized cv1-cv2
                         3.34653465
## nrandom
                       100.00000000
```

The difference between the richness in site 1 and site 2 is given by cv1-cv2 and equals 99 species in the example. The corresponding value after randomizations is indicated by randomized cv1-cv2 and is much smaller. The n randomized values are used to compute the quantiles at p = 0.975 and p = 0.025 corresponding to a global interval of 95%. We can see that the observed difference if well above the upper quantile value (ca. 31) indicating that the observed difference is much larger than expected under the null hypothesis of "no difference between sites".

4.2.2 c2m

c2m compares mean richness of two populations and any type of data can be processed. We illustrates the function using the example of the golden jackals given p. 4 in Manly (1997).

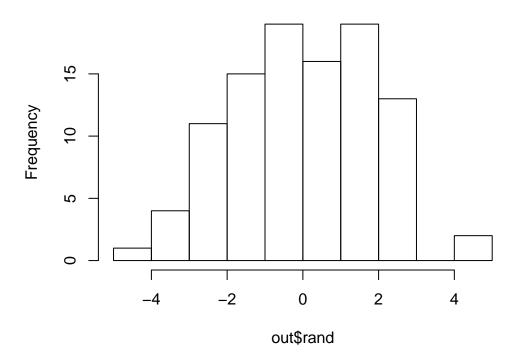
```
# The example of mandible length of male and female
# golden jackals from Manly (1997), p.4.
males<-c(120, 107, 110, 116, 114, 111, 113, 117, 114, 112)
females<-c(110, 111, 107, 108, 110, 105, 107, 106, 111, 111)
out <- c2m(pop1=males, pop2=females, nrandom=99)
out$res
```

```
##
## mv1
                       113.400
## mv2
                       108.600
## mv1-mv2
                         4.800
## p
                         0.020
## quantile 0.025
                        -3.105
## quantile 0.975
                         2.905
## randomized mv1-mv2
                         0.084
## nrandom
                        99.000
```

out\$res contains the results while out\$rand gives the values of the difference between the means to be compared after randomization. We can plot an histogram of these values:

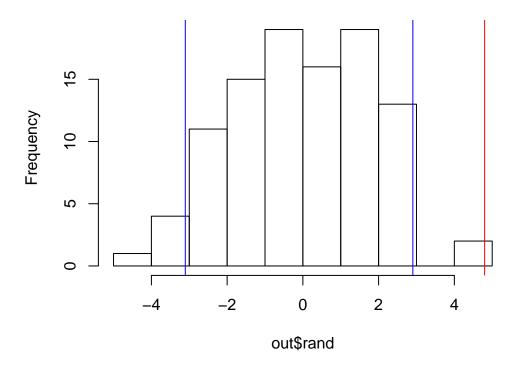
hist(out\$rand)

Histogram of out\$rand



It is interesting to add the vertical lines corresponding to the observed value (in red) and the quantile values for probability values of 0.975 and 0.025 (in blue):

```
hist(out$rand)
abline(v=out$res[3,1], col="red")
abline(v=out$res[5,1], col="blue")
abline(v=out$res[6,1], col="blue")
```

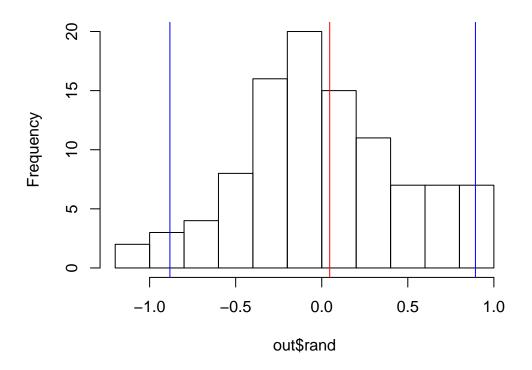


Let's see what happens when the populations are very similar. In the following example we simulate normal populations and compare them using c2m:

```
pop1<-rnorm(10)
pop2<-rnorm(10)
out <- c2m(pop1=pop1, pop2=pop2, nrandom=99)
out$res</pre>
```

```
##
## mv1
                       0.075668974
## mv2
                       0.029476487
## mv1-mv2
                       0.046192487
## p
                       0.430000000
## quantile 0.025
                      -0.882134199
## quantile 0.975
                       0.892886766
## randomized mv1-mv2
                       0.006518599
## nrandom
                      99.00000000
```

```
hist(out$rand)
abline(v=out$res[3,1], col="red")
abline(v=out$res[5,1], col="blue")
abline(v=out$res[6,1], col="blue")
```



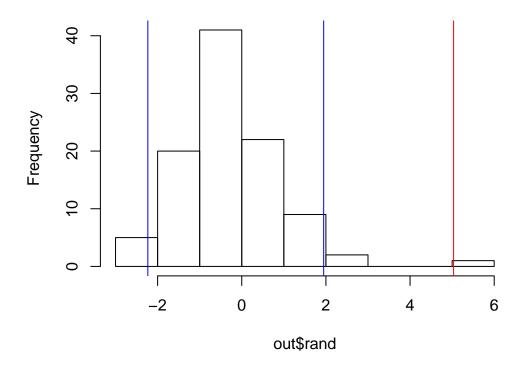
The observed difference lies between the quantiles.

In some cases, the sets of values to be compared can overlap. This is what happen in our second example below. We have recorded the maximum temperature at sites where either *Tomicus destruens* or *T. piniperda*, two closely related species of bark beetles, have been recorded. The species are sympatric in 4 sites which leads to an overlap *i.e.* values common to both species between the distributions to be compared. The values common to both populations are passed to the function c2m by the argument pop3.

```
data(Tomicus)
out <- c2m(pop1=Tomicus$destruens,pop2=Tomicus$piniperda,
pop3=Tomicus$both, nrandom=99)
out$res</pre>
```

```
##
## mv1
                       19.2432432
## mv2
                       14.2083333
## mv1-mv2
                        5.0349099
## p
                        0.0100000
## quantile 0.025
                       -2.2321509
## quantile 0.975
                        1.9470439
## randomized mv1-mv2 -0.2614189
## nrandom
                       99.000000
```

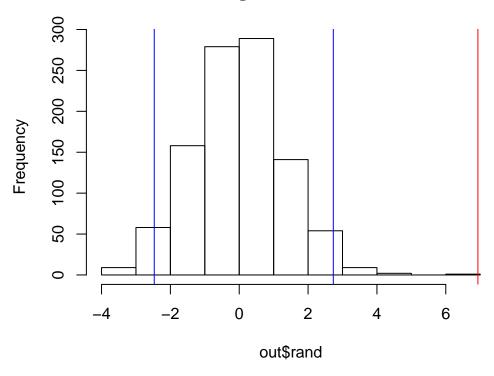
```
hist(out$rand)
abline(v=out$res[3,1], col="red")
abline(v=out$res[5,1], col="blue")
abline(v=out$res[6,1], col="blue")
```



The value of mv1 - mv2 lies outside the envelope defined by the quantiles which indicates a difference in species tolerance to temperature.

c2m can be used to make comparisons between two objects generated by the function rich:

```
data(ef)
o1 <- rich(matrix=ef, nrandom=99, verbose=TRUE)
data(ea)
o2 <- rich(matrix=ea, nrandom=99, verbose=TRUE)
out <- c2m(pop1=o1$sumrow, pop2=o2$sumrow, nrandom=999, verbose=TRUE)
hist(out$rand)
abline(v=out$res[3,1], col="red")
abline(v=out$res[5,1], col="blue")
abline(v=out$res[6,1], col="blue")</pre>
```



5 Rarefaction curves

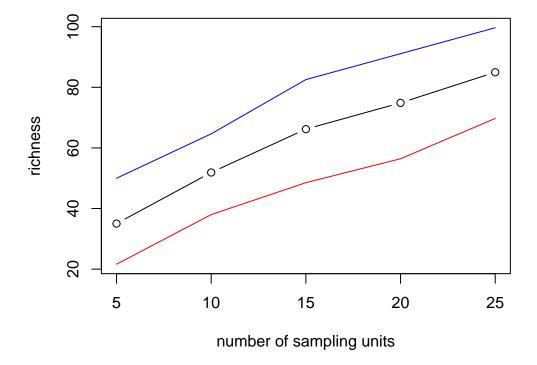
5.1 rarc

rich allows to compute the rarefaction curve which corresponds to the changes in the species richness with sampling intensity. User selects the set of values of sampling size for which the estimate of species richness is needed, the number of randomizations to be performed and the values of the upper and lower bounds. rarc returns a data frame (<code>\$out</code>) with the bootstrap estimates of species richness, the corresponding statistical envelop and the average number of individuals for the sample size to be investigated.

```
data(ef)
t <- rarc(ef,samplesize=c(5,10,15,20,25), nrandom=30, p1=0.975, p2=0.025)
head(t)</pre>
```

```
## $out
##
     mean.richness lb.richness ub.richness mean.nb.individuals
                                                                    samples
## 1
          35.03333
                         21.625
                                       50.00
                                                           397.200 168.8724
## 2
          51.90000
                         38.000
                                       64.65
                                                           783.900 246.5735
## 3
          66.20000
                         48.525
                                       82.55
                                                          1193.733 363.1112
          74.86667
                         56.425
                                       91.10
                                                          1630.233 454.8685
## 4
## 5
          84.96667
                         69.725
                                       99.65
                                                          1999.900 438.0184
```

t can be used to plot the changes in richness according to sample size:



Note that the function uses bootstrap which means sampling with replacement. The consequence is that the richness estimated for a sample size equal to the size of the dataset is *not* equal to the observed richness, it is *lower*. For example the species richness of the dataset ef is 121 and the number of sampling units is 30:

```
data(ef)
r <- rich(ef)
r$cr</pre>
```

[1] 121

```
dim(ef)[1]
```

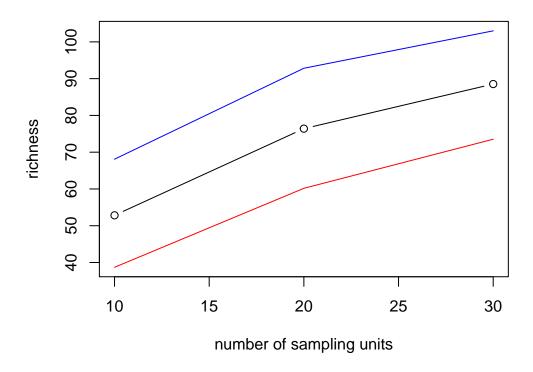
```
## [1] 30
```

If we perform rarefaction curve for (say) samples of {10, 20, 30} we get:

```
data(ef)
t <- rarc(ef,samplesize=c(10, 20, 30), nrandom=30, p1=0.975, p2=0.025)
t</pre>
```

```
## $out
     mean.richness lb.richness ub.richness mean.nb.individuals samples
##
          52.83333
                         38.700
                                     68.100
## 1
                                                         837.100 345.9349
## 2
          76.40000
                        60.175
                                     92.825
                                                        1670.200 474.6547
## 3
          88.53333
                        73.525
                                    103.000
                                                        2406.133 510.2116
##
     sample
## 1
         10
## 2
         20
## 3
         30
```

For n = 30 the bootstrap estimate of the richness is ca. 90 while the observed value is 121. If we plot the cruve and add the observed value the difference is clear:



The interest of such estimates by bootstrap is that the variance of the estimate is meaningful whatever the sampling size which is not the case of rarefaction curves based on resampling with replacement. When replacement is not allowed, the variance decreases with increasing sampling size and becomes null for the maximum sampling size.

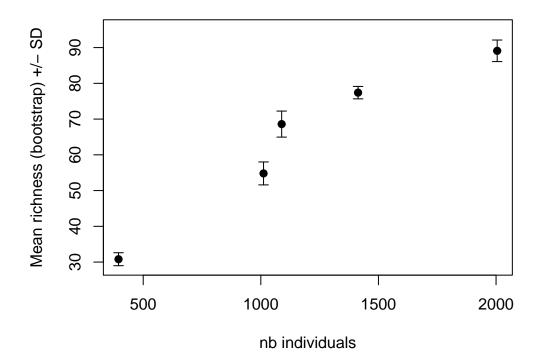
When the argument save is set to TRUE rarc returns an additional list (\$bootstrapped.val) which corrsponds to the raw bootstraped values used to compute the quantiles. It may be useful for users who want to compute standard errors for example. The example below shows how to compute the standard errors.

```
stdev <- rep(NA, times=length(samplesize))
for (i in 1:(length(samplesize))) {
    stdev[i] <- sd(t$bootstrapped.val[[i]][,1])/
        sqrt(length(t$bootstrapped.val[[i]][,1]))
    }</pre>
```

We plot the results:

```
r <- range(t$out$mean.richness-stdev, t$out$mean.richness+2*stdev)
r</pre>
```

[1] 28.98770 95.13287



5.2 raref

raref computes the rarefaction curve and interpolates the species richness corresponding to a given density of individuals (not a number of samples!).

```
data(ef)
  r <- raref(ef, dens=1100, nrandom=50)
  head(r$rar)</pre>
```

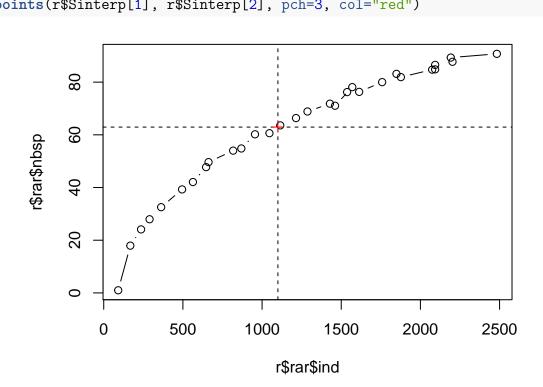
```
##
      nbsp
              ind sample
      1.00 91.40
## 1
                        1
## 2 17.94 168.06
                        2
## 3 24.10 235.86
                        3
## 4 27.96 289.56
                        4
## 5 32.54 362.68
                        5
## 6 39.28 494.86
                        6
```

r\$Sinterp

```
## [1] 1100.00000 62.93212
```

We plot the curve and the interpolated value:

```
plot(r$rar$ind, r$rar$nbsp, type="b")
abline(v=r$Sinterp[1], lty="dashed"); abline(h=r$Sinterp[2], lty="dashed")
points(r$Sinterp[1], r$Sinterp[2], pch=3, col="red")
```



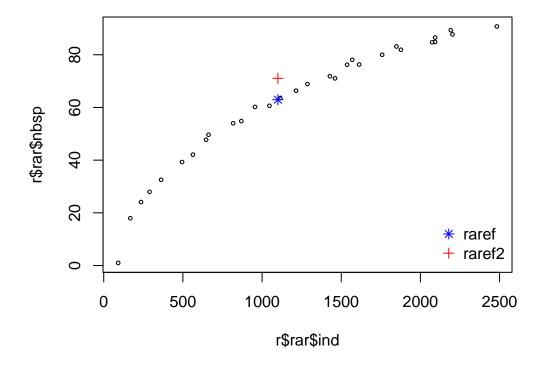
5.3 raref2

raref2 computes another estimation of the species richness by thinning the data matrix so that the overall corresponding density is comprised in a fixed interval.

```
data(ef)
r2 <- raref2(matrix=ef, dens=1100, tolerance=0.01, nrandom=50)
r2$mean.boot</pre>
```

[1] 71.06

We can add this second estimate to the rarefaction curve derived form the outputs of raref:



5.4 shared

shared computes the richness of each group of sample depicting a community, the number of species shared by pairs of communities and the total number of species for each pairs of community. Two or more communities can be compared:

```
sp1<-c(1,2,3,4,5)
   sp2 < -c(0,0,0,0,0)
   sp3 < -c(1,1,0,0,0)
   sp4 < -c(0,0,0,0,0)
   site1<-cbind(sp1, sp2, sp3, sp4)</pre>
   colnames(site1)<-c("sp1", "sp2", "sp3", "sp4")</pre>
   site1
## sp1 sp2 sp3 sp4
## [1,] 1 0 1
## [2,] 2 0 1
## [3,] 3 0 0 0
## [4,] 4 0 0 0
## [5,] 5 0 0 0
   sp1<-c(1,2,3)
   sp2 < -c(1,0,0)
   sp3 < -c(0,0,0)
   sp4 < -c(0,0,0)
   site2<-cbind(sp1, sp2, sp3, sp4)</pre>
   colnames(site2)<-c("sp1", "sp2", "sp3", "sp4")</pre>
   site2
## sp1 sp2 sp3 sp4
## [1,] 1 1 0 0
## [2,] 2 0 0 0
## [3,] 3 0 0 0
   sp1 < -c(1,2,3,4)
   sp2 < -c(1,0,0,0)
   sp3<-c(1,0,0,0)
   sp4 < -c(1,0,0,0)
   site3<-cbind(sp1, sp2, sp3, sp4)</pre>
   colnames(site3)<-c("sp1", "sp2", "sp3", "sp4")</pre>
   site3
##
       sp1 sp2 sp3 sp4
## [1,] 1 1 1
## [2,] 2 0 0
                    0
## [3,] 3 0 0 0
## [4,] 4 0 0 0
```

```
# we create a list containg the sites to be compared:
data<-list(site1,site2, site3)
names(data)<-c("site1","site2","site3")
shared(data)</pre>
```

```
## site1 site2 site3
## site1 2 1 2
## site2 3 2 2
## site3 4 4
```

shared retruns a matrix whose diagonal is the richness of each community.

```
data(efeb)
    shared(efeb)

## ef eb
## ef 121 9
## eb 134 22
```

References

Manly, B.F.J. 1997. Randomization and Monte Carlo Methods in Biology. Chapman & Hall. Oksanen, Jari, F. Guillaume Blanchet, Roeland Kindt, Pierre Legendre, Peter R. Minchin, R. B. O'Hara, Gavin L. Simpson, Peter Solymos, M. Henry H. Stevens, and Helene Wagner. 2016. Vegan: Community Ecology Package. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=vegan.