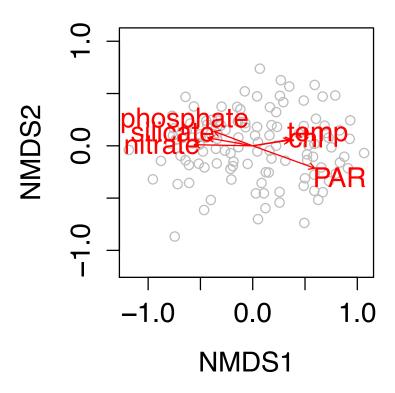
## Comparing continuous environmental correlates with an ordination

```
fit = envfit(ord ~ nitrate + phosphate + silicate + PAR + chl + temp, data = e
nviro, na.rm = T)
ordiplot(ord, display = "sites", type = 'n', main = 'nmds 2D')
points(ord, col = 'grey')
plot(fit, col = 'red', arrow.mul = 0.7)
```

Important: this is not a model, just uses a formula for convenience

## Comparing continuous environmental correlates with an ordination

# nmds 2D



- The vectors show the direction of maximum correlation, between the ordination scores and the environmental values for those samples
- Get an axis of stratification again: but now the ordination is based on species data, not environmental data

```
fit
##
## ***VECTORS
##
##
          NMDS1 NMDS2 r2 Pr(>r)
## nitrate -0.999 -0.049 0.66 0.001 ***
## phosphate -0.999 -0.050 0.33 0.001 ***
## silicate -0.963 -0.271 0.42 0.001 ***
## PAR 1.000 -0.030 0.80 0.001 ***
## chl 0.821 0.570 0.31 0.001 ***
         0.799 -0.601 0.33 0.001 ***
## temp
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
## Permutation: free
## Number of permutations: 999
##
## 21 observations deleted due to missingness
```

envfit() also give correlation statitistics and p-values

### These are from **permutation tests**

Randomly assign the environmental data to the samples. 1000 times. How often is the correlation this large?

Warning: hidden assumptions. E.g. independence of samples.

Do environmental variables map nonlinearly onto the ordination?

Can use a GAM, with the **environment as the response** and the ordination scores as a **2D smoother** 

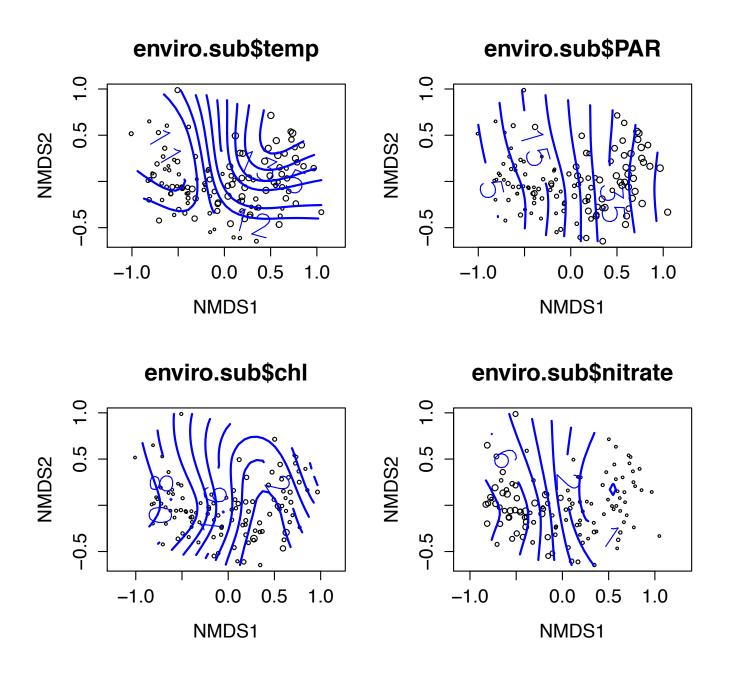
```
e.g., nitrate ~ s(axis1, axis2)
```

```
par(mfrow = c(2,2))
ordisurf(ord4, enviro.sub$temp, bubble = TRUE, labcex = 1.5, col = 'blue', lwd
= 2)

ordisurf(ord4, enviro.sub$PAR, bubble = TRUE, labcex = 1.5, col = 'blue', lwd
= 2)

ordisurf(ord4, enviro.sub$chl, bubble = TRUE, labcex = 1.5, col = 'blue', lwd
= 2)

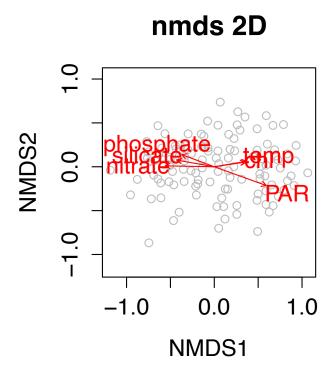
ordisurf(ord4, enviro.sub$nitrate, bubble = TRUE, labcex = 1.5, col = 'blue', lwd
= 2)
```



## Relating multivariate data to predictors

This kind of approach is good for seeing if dominant axes of composition are associated with the environment

But if you really want to directly test the role of some correlates, need a method designed for this



#### **Constrained ordination**

Finding axes in ordination space that correlate with predictors

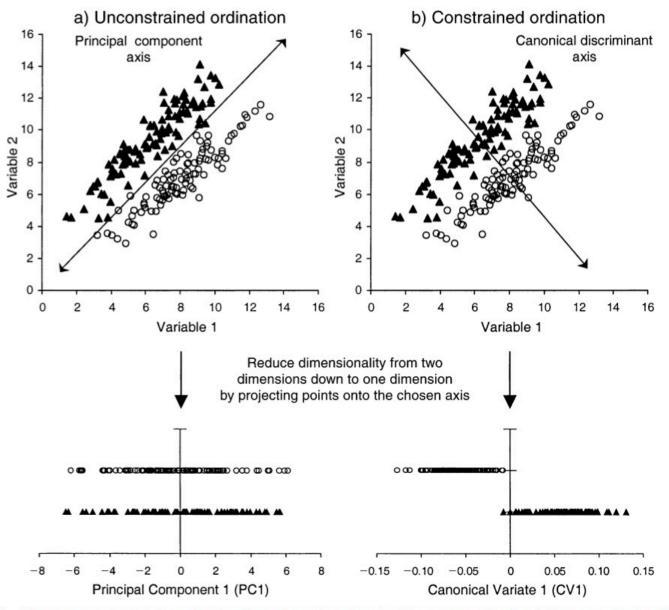


Fig. 1. Visual comparison of the method used to reduce dimensions in (a) an unconstrained and (b) a constrained ordination procedure. Data were simulated from a multivariate normal distribution with the two groups having different centroids (6, 9) and (9, 7), but both variables had a standard deviation of 2, and the correlation between the two variables was 0.9. Note the difference in scale between the first canonical axis (CV1) and the first principal component (PC1).

#### **Constrained ordination**

- Finding axes in ordination space that correlate with predictors
- There are different methods: canonical discriminant analysis, canonical correlation analysis, redundancy analysis, canonical analysis of principal coordinates, etc.
- The basic principle is the same: find the axes in the multivariate response along which the environment explains as much variation as possible
- This more directly answers the question of whether the environment can explain composition
- Because the goals are different, unconstrained ordination may not reveal the same patterns

### Canonical analysis of principal coordinates (CAP)

Incorporates predictors into PCoA

- 1) Take your data on species' abundances, and turn it into a dissimilarity matrix
- 2) Take your dissimilarity matrix and do a PCoA on it
- Now we've gone from dissimilarity to distances in ordination space.
- Can use these distances to see how much variation is accounted for by predictors
- 3) Find axis in predictor space that explains the most variation in community ordination space
- Then find a second orthogonal axis that explains the most remaining variation, etc.

```
species.data = wisconsin(sqrt(species.data))
cap = capscale(species.data ~ month, data = enviro, dist = "bray")
cap
## Call: capscale(formula = species.data ~ month, data = enviro,
## distance = "bray")
##
##
                Inertia Proportion Rank
                 20,620
## Total
                            1.000
## Real Total
                24.350
## Constrained 8.360
                            0.343
                                    11
## Unconstrained 16.000
                            0.657
                                    53
                                    50
## Imaginary -3.730
## Inertia is squared Bray distance
##
## Eigenvalues for constrained axes:
## CAP1 CAP2 CAP3 CAP4 CAP5 CAP6 CAP7 CAP8 CAP9 CAP10 CAP11
## 5.50 1.07 0.49 0.45 0.21 0.18 0.16 0.12 0.08 0.06 0.04
##
## Eigenvalues for unconstrained axes:
   MDS1 MDS2 MDS3 MDS4 MDS5 MDS6
##
                                     MDS7 MDS8
## 1.832 1.717 1.284 1.124 0.872 0.805 0.724 0.624
## (Showed only 8 of all 53 unconstrained eigenvalues)
```

```
## Accumulated constrained eigenvalues
## Importance of components:
                                                           CAP6 CAP7
##
                         CAP1 CAP2
                                      CAP3
                                             CAP4
                                                    CAP5
                                                                         CAP8
                         5.499 1.069 0.4924 0.4503 0.2078 0.1796 0.159 0.1164
## Eigenvalue
## Proportion Explained 0.658 0.128 0.0589 0.0539 0.0249 0.0215 0.019 0.0139
## Cumulative Proportion 0.658 0.786 0.8451 0.8990 0.9238 0.9453 0.964 0.9782
##
                            CAP9
                                  CAP10
                                          CAP11
## Eigenvalue
                       0.08005 0.06490 0.03698
## Proportion Explained 0.00958 0.00777 0.00443
## Cumulative Proportion 0.98781 0.99557 1.00000
##
```

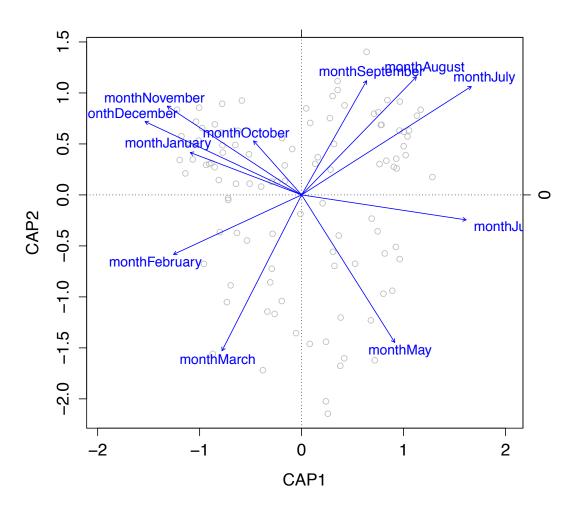
You need 11 axes to code a 12-level factor

Then these axes get rotated to find the axis that explains as much of the response as possible, Etc.

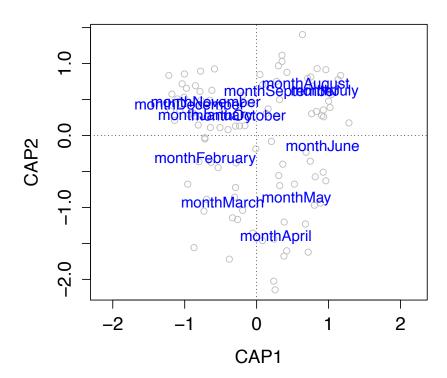
The predictor can only explain so much variation, in total

The 'residual' variation in community distance is also ordinated, using PCoA axes.

```
plot(cap, display = "sites", type = 'n')
points(cap, display = "sites", col = 'grey')
text(cap, display = 'bp', col = 'blue')
```

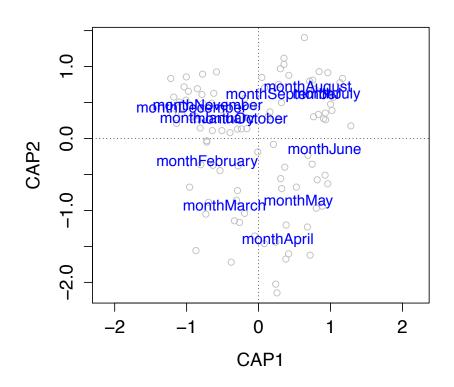


```
plot(cap, display = "sites", type = 'n')
points(cap, display = "sites", col = 'grey')
text(cap, display = 'cn', col = 'blue')
```

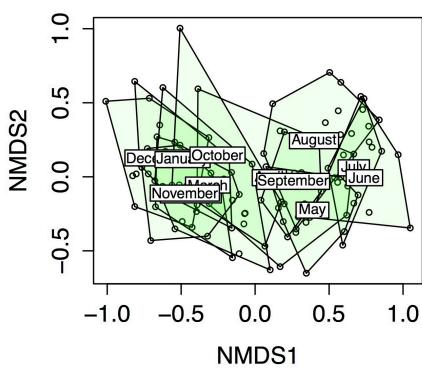


Can plot factor levels as centroids instead

```
plot(cap, display = "sites", type = 'n')
points(cap, display = "sites", col = 'grey')
text(cap, display = 'cn', col = 'blue')
```



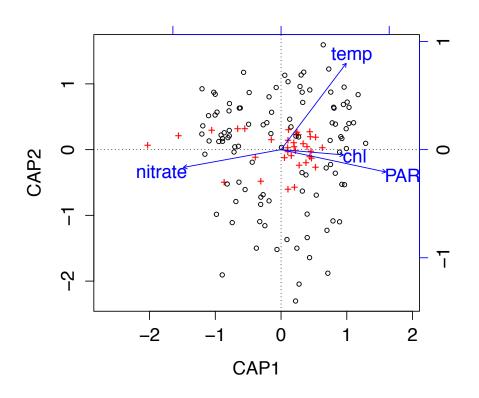
k = 4, axes 1&2



CAP gives clearer patterns by month than NMDS, especially for the first half of the year

This makes sense because it is isolating the variation explained by this predictor

```
cap = capscale(species.data ~ nitrate + chl + temp + PAR, data = enviro, dist
= "bray")
plot(cap)
```

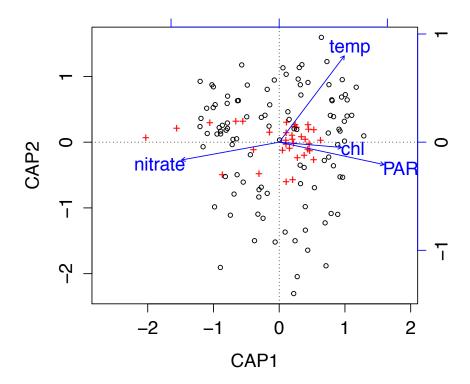


Again, an axis of stratification

Explains 23% of community composition

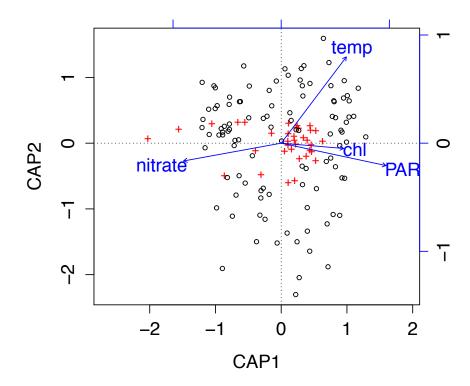
A little more just due to temperature?

#### summary(cap)\$cont



Note: CAP is not evaluating the predictors **individually** 

It is looking for **linear combinations of predictors** that explain the multivariate response In a sense, it accounts for the fact that predictors may be correlated



### summary(cap)\$biplot

```
CAP1
                       CAP2
                               CAP3
                                        CAP4 MDS1 MDS2
##
## nitrate -0.9029 -0.16461
                           0.20422 -0.34066
                                                0
                                                      0
## chl
           0.5769 -0.04886 -0.71824 -0.38586
                                                     0
           0.6023
                   0.79755 0.01816
## temp
                                      0.02903
           0.9691 -0.20721 0.12495 -0.04724
                                                     0
## PAR
```

#### **Permutation tests**

Like PCA, PCoA, NMDS, etc:

Canonical analysis of principal coordinates is not really a model

But we still want to know if these associations are 'significant'

### Can assess with **permutation tests**:

- Reshuffle the environmental data randomly, to break any association
- Do it 1000 times to get a null distribution for a test statistic pseudo-F statistic
- As with envfit(), permutation tests have assumptions that are often broken
- Can include a blocking variable in the permutations (only permute within blocks)

## Test the predictors as a whole

#### Test the individual axes

```
anova(cap, by = "axis")
## Permutation test for capscale under reduced model
## Marginal tests for axes
## Permutation: free
## Number of permutations: 999
##
## Model: capscale(formula = species.data ~ nitrate + chl + temp + PAR, data =
enviro, distance = "bray")
          Df Variance
##
                         F Pr(>F)
                 5.50 31.80 0.001 ***
## CAP1
           1
## CAP2 1 0.99 5.74 0.001 ***
## CAP3 1 0.46 2.68 0.001 ***
## CAP4 1 0.28 1.63 0.025 *
## Residual 99 17.12
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

#### Test the individual variables

```
anova(cap, by = "margin")

## Permutation test for capscale under reduced model

## Marginal effects of terms

## Permutation: free

## Number of permutations: 999

##

## Model: capscale(formula = species.data ~ nitrate + chl + temp + PAR, data = enviro, distance = "bray")

## Df Variance F Pr(>F)

## nitrate 1 0.35 2.03 0.024 *

## chl 1 0.41 2.39 0.015 *

## temp 1 0.82 4.75 0.001 ***

## PAR 1 1.32 7.62 0.001 ***

## Residual 99 17.12
```

#### **Permanova**

Constrained ordination is nice for finding the best predictor axes

But we may want to test specific a priori predictors, e.g. an experimental treatment

Classically, multivariate responses analyzed with MANOVA

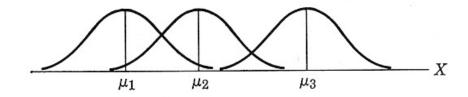


Figure 8.1. The simple anova situation, when the differences among the populations are "real." source: Cooley & Lohnes ((1971)

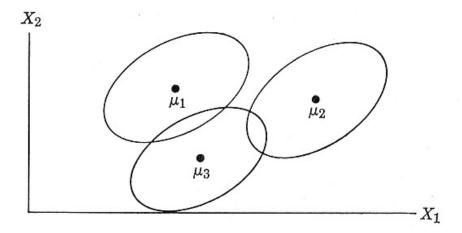


Figure 8.2. The simple manova situation, when the differences among the populations are "real."

#### **Permanova**

- Manova has a number of distribution assumptions that are not suitable for community abundance data
- Permanova tries to get around these issues with two innovations
- 1) Do the analysis on the **dissimilarity matrix**
- i.e., how much of the total dissimilarity is explained by treatment?
- 2) Test significance with **permutation tests**

In some ways, makes very few assumptions, can be applied to any data for which you can make a dissimilarity matrix to represent multivariate variation

```
adonis2(species.data ~ month + nitrate + chl + temp + PAR, data = enviro, dis
t = 'bray', by = 'margin')
## Permutation test for adonis under reduced model
## Marginal effects of terms
## Permutation: free
## Number of permutations: 999
##
## adonis2(formula = species.data ~ month + nitrate + chl + temp + PAR, data
= enviro, by = "margin", dist = "bray")
            Df SumOfSqs
##
                           R 2
                                   F Pr(>F)
            11 1.9061 0.09245 1.3208 0.052 .
## month
## nitrate 1 0.2280 0.01106 1.7377 0.073 .
       1 0.4124 0.02000 3.1437 0.004 **
## chl
## temp 1 0.1470 0.00713 1.1205 0.290
       1 0.1339 0.00650 1.0209 0.376
## PAR
## Residual 88 11.5452 0.55997
           103 20.6176 1.00000
## Total
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

**Important:** Use adonis2 (not adonis), and set by = 'margin' to test each predictor after the others have been accounted for

In this case, only month, chl are significant, but the predictors are highly correlated, may not want to test simultaneously

### The logic of permutation tests

Null hypotheses are about a lack of a relationship

E.g. a lack of a difference in the mean of two groups

Or a lack of correlation between two variables

Instead of assuming a particular model of the data:

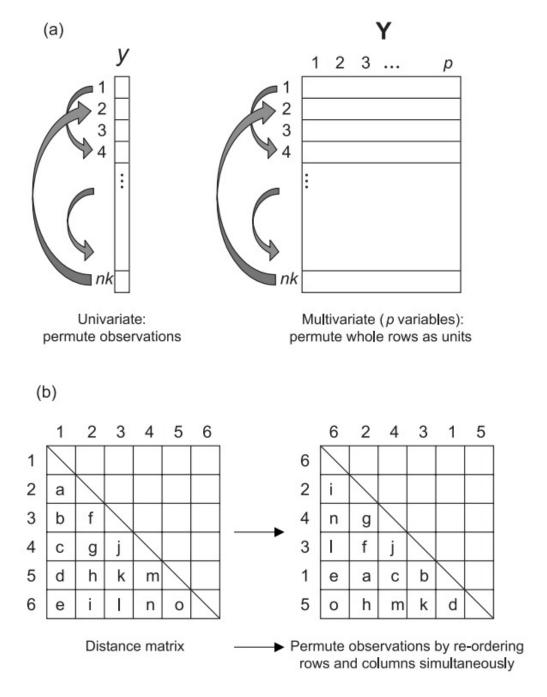
- 1) Randomize the data in a way that simulates the null hypothesis
- 2) Repeat this many times to create a **null distribution** of a statistic

Advantage: Don't have to assume a particular distribution, or a linear relationship, etc.

#### **Disadvantage**:

- Have to be able to construct an appropriate permutation
- Still assuming data are independently distributed, come from the same distribution

## The logic of permutation tests



```
adonis2(species.data ~ month + nitrate + chl + temp + PAR, data = enviro, dis
t = 'bray', by = 'margin')
## Permutation test for adonis under reduced model
## Marginal effects of terms
## Permutation: free
## Number of permutations: 999
##
## adonis2(formula = species.data ~ month + nitrate + chl + temp + PAR, data
= enviro, by = "margin", dist = "bray")
            Df SumOfSqs
##
                            R 2
                                   F Pr(>F)
            11 1.9061 0.09245 1.3208 0.052 .
## month
## nitrate 1 0.2280 0.01106 1.7377 0.073 .
        1 0.4124 0.02000 3.1437 0.004 **
## chl
## temp 1 0.1470 0.00713 1.1205 0.290
## PAR
       1 0.1339 0.00650 1.0209 0.376
## Residual 88 11.5452 0.55997
           103 20.6176 1.00000
## Total
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

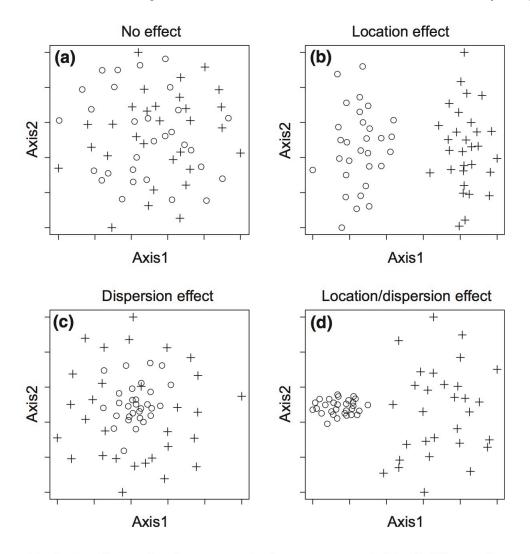
## Permanova also has issues

Permutation tests difficult for complex designs, other non-independence in the data

By transforming data and using dissimilarity matrix, may be affecting type I error rate and/or power, compared to modeling the raw data

### Permanova also has issues

May confound **location** and **dispersion** effects: test with betadisper()



**Fig. 2.** A schematic diagram as in Anderson *et al.* (2008) illustrating on two axes the types of between-group effects that are often of ecological interest: (a) *no effect*; (b) *location* effect; (c) *dispersion* effect; (d) *location/dispersion* effect.