

# VEGAN: ECOLOGICAL DIVERSITY

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## CONTENTS

1. Diversity indices	1
2. Rarefaction	2
3. Taxonomic diversity	3
4. Species abundance models	4
4.1. Fisher and Preston	4
4.2. Ranked abundance distribution	6
5. Species accumulation and beta diversity	7
5.1. Species accumulation models	7
5.2. Beta diversity	8
6. Species pool	10
6.1. Number of unseen species	10
6.2. Pool size from a single site	12
6.3. Probability of pool membership	12

The **vegan** package has two major components: multivariate analysis (mainly ordination), and methods for diversity analysis of ecological communities. This document gives an introduction to the latter. Ordination methods are covered in other documents. Many of the diversity functions were written by Roeland Kindt and Bob O'Hara.

Most diversity methods assume that data are counts of individuals. The methods are used with other data types, and some people argue that biomass or cover are more adequate than counts of individuals of variable sizes. However, this document mainly uses a data set with counts: stem counts of trees on 1ha plots in the Barro Colorado Island. The following steps make these data available for the document:

```
> library(vegan)
> data(BCI)
```

## 1. DIVERSITY INDICES

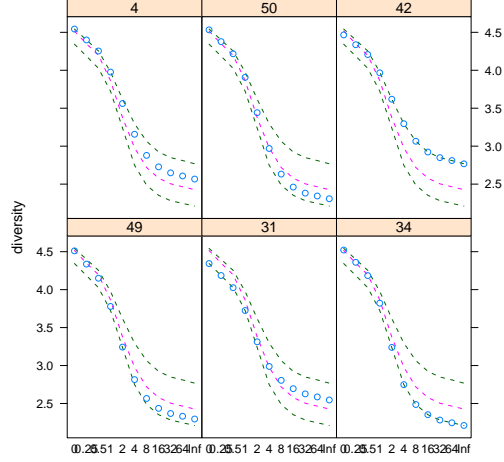
Function **diversity** finds the most commonly used diversity indices:

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \quad H &= - \sum_{i=1}^S p_i \log_b p_i && \text{Shannon-Weaver} \\ (2) \quad D_1 &= 1 - \sum_{i=1}^S p_i^2 && \text{Simpson} \\ (3) \quad D_2 &= \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^S p_i^2} && \text{inverse Simpson} \end{aligned}$$

---

*Date:* Id: diversity-vegan.Rnw 271 2008-03-20 08:41:29Z jarioksa processed with vegan 1.11-2 in R version 2.6.2 (2008-02-08) on March 20, 2008.

FIGURE 1. Rényi diversities in six randomly selected plots. The plot uses Trellis graphics with a separate panel for each site. The dots show the values for sites, and the lines the extremes and median in the data set.



where  $p_i$  is the proportion of species  $i$ , and  $S$  is the number of species so that  $\sum_{i=1}^S p_i = 1$ , and  $b$  is the base of the logarithm. It is most common to use natural logarithms (and then we mark index as  $H'$ ), but  $b = 2$  has theoretical justification. The default is to use natural logarithms. Shannon index is calculated with:

```
> H <- diversity(BCI)
```

which finds diversity indices for all sites.

**Vegan** does not have indices for evenness (equitability), but the most common of these, Pielou's evenness  $J = H' / \log(S)$  is easily found as:

```
> J <- H/log(specnumber(BCI))
```

where **specnumber** is a simple **vegan** function to find the numbers of species.

**Vegan** also can estimate Rényi diversities of order  $a$ :

$$(4) \quad H_a = \frac{1}{1-a} \log \sum_{i=1}^S p_i^a$$

or the corresponding Hill numbers  $N_a = \exp(H_a)$ . Many common diversity indices are special cases of Hill numbers:  $N_0 = S$ ,  $N_1 = \exp(H')$ ,  $N_2 = D_2$ , and  $N_\infty = 1/(\max p_i)$ . The corresponding Rényi diversities are  $H_0 = \log(S)$ ,  $H_1 = H'$ ,  $H_2 = -\log(\sum p_i^2)$ , and  $H_\infty = -\log(\max p_i)$ . We select a random subset of five sites for Rényi diversities:

```
> k <- sample(nrow(BCI), 6)
> R <- renyi(BCI[k, ])
```

We can really regard a site more diverse if all of its Rényi diversities are higher than in another site. We can inspect this graphically using the standard **plot** function for the **renyi** result (Fig. 1).

Finally, the  $\alpha$  parameter of Fisher's log-series can be used as a diversity index:

```
> alpha <- fisher.alpha(BCI)
```

## 2. RAREFACTION

Species richness increases with sample size, and differences in richness actually may be caused by differences in sample size. To solve this problem, we may try to rarefy species richness to the same number of individuals. Expected number of

species in a community rarefied from  $N$  to  $n$  individuals is:

$$(5) \quad \hat{S}_n = \sum_{i=1}^S (1 - p_i), \text{ where } p_i = \binom{N - x_i}{n} / \binom{N}{n}$$

where  $x_i$  is the count of species  $i$ , and  $\binom{N}{n}$  is the binomial coefficient, or the number of ways we can choose  $n$  from  $N$ , and  $p_i$  give the probabilities that species  $i$  does not occur in a sample of size  $n$ . This is defined only when  $N - x_i > n$ , but for other cases  $p_i = 0$  or the species is sure to occur in the sample. The variance of rarefied richness is:

$$(6) \quad s^2 = p_i(1 - p_i) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^S \sum_{j>i} \left[ \binom{N - x_i - x_j}{n} / \binom{N}{n} - p_i p_j \right]$$

Equation 6 actually is of the same form as the variance of sum of correlated variables:

$$(7) \quad \text{var} \left( \sum x_i \right) = \sum \text{var}(x_i) - 2 \sum_{i=1}^S \sum_{j>i} \text{cov}(x_i, x_j)$$

The number of stems per hectare varies in our data set:

```
> quantile(rowSums(BCI))
 0%   25%   50%   75%  100%
340.0 409.0 428.0 443.5 601.0
```

To express richness for the same number of individuals, we can use:

```
> Srar <- rarefy(BCI, min(rowSums(BCI)))
```

Rarefaction curves often are seen as an objective solution for comparing species richness with different sample sizes. However, rank orders typically differ among different rarefaction sample sizes.

As an extreme case we may rarefy sample size to two individuals:

```
> S2 <- rarefy(BCI, 2)
```

This will not give equal rank order with the previous rarefaction richness:

```
> all(rank(Srar) == rank(S2))
```

```
[1] FALSE
```

Moreover, the rarefied richness for two individuals is a finite sample variant of Simpson's diversity index (or, more precisely of  $D_1 + 1$ ), and these two are almost identical in BCI:

```
> range(diversity(BCI, "simp") - (S2 - 1))
```

```
[1] -0.002868298 -0.001330663
```

Rarefaction is sometimes presented as an ecologically meaningful alternative to dubious diversity indices, but the differences really seem to be small.

### 3. TAXONOMIC DIVERSITY

Simple diversity indices only consider species identity: all different species are equally different. In contrast, taxonomic diversity sees how different two different species are. The index is much used in aquatic ecology, in particular for studying the effects of pollution or other degradation, which often is first evident in the loss of higher taxonomic units.

The two basic indices are called taxonomic diversity ( $\Delta$ ) and taxonomic distinctness ( $\Delta^*$ ):

$$(8) \quad \Delta = \frac{\sum \sum_{i < j} \omega_{ij} x_i x_j}{n(n-1)/2}$$

$$(9) \quad \Delta^* = \frac{\sum \sum_{i < j} \omega_{ij} x_i x_j}{\sum \sum_{i < j} x_i x_j}$$

These equations give the index values for a single site, and summation goes over species  $i$  and  $j$ , and  $\omega$  are the taxonomic distances among taxa,  $x$  are species abundances, and  $n$  is the total abundance for a site. With presence absence data, both indices reduce to the same index called  $\Delta^+$ , and for this it is possible to estimate standard deviation. There are two indices derived from  $\Delta^+$ : it can be multiplied with species richness<sup>1</sup> to give  $s\Delta^+$ , or it can be used to estimate an index of variation in taxonomic distinctness  $\Lambda^+$ :

$$(10) \quad \Lambda^+ = \frac{\sum \sum_{i < j} \omega_{ij}^2}{n(n-1)/2} - (\Delta^+)^2$$

We still need the taxonomic differences among species ( $\omega$ ) to calculate the indices. These can be any distance structure among species, but usually it is found from established hierarchic taxonomy. Typical coding is that differences among species in the same genus is 1, among the same family it is 2 etc. However, the taxonomic differences are scaled to maximum 100 for easier comparison between different data sets and taxonomies. Alternatively, it is possible to scale steps between taxonomic level proportional to the reduction in the number of categories: if almost all genera have only one species, it does not make a great difference if two individuals belong to a different species or to a different genus.

Function `taxondive` implements indices of taxonomic diversity, and `taxa2dist` can be used to convert classification tables to taxonomic distances either with constant or variable step lengths between successive categories. There is no taxonomic table for the BCI data in `vegan`<sup>2</sup> but there is such a table for the Dune meadow data (Fig. 2):

```
> data(dune)
> data(dune.taxon)
> taxdis <- taxa2dist(dune.taxon, varstep = TRUE)
> mod <- taxondive(dune, taxdis)
```

#### 4. SPECIES ABUNDANCE MODELS

Diversity indices may be regarded as variance measures of species abundance distribution. We may wish to inspect abundance distributions more directly. `vegan` has functions for Fisher's log-series and Preston's log-normal models, and in addition several models for species abundance distribution.

**4.1. Fisher and Preston.** In Fisher's log-series, the expected number of species  $\hat{f}$  with  $n$  individuals is:

$$(11) \quad \hat{f}_n = \frac{\alpha x^n}{n}$$

<sup>1</sup>This text normally uses upper case letter  $S$  for species richness, but lower case  $s$  is used here in accordance with the original papers on taxonomic diversity

<sup>2</sup>Actually I made such a classification, but taxonomic differences proved to be of little use in the Barro Colorado data: they only singled out sites with Monocots (palm trees) in the data.

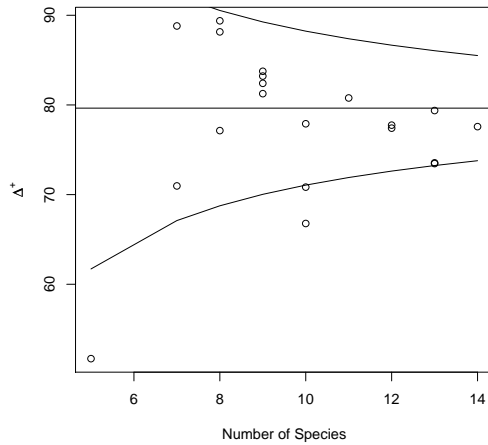


FIGURE 2. Taxonomic diversity  $\Delta^+$  for the dune meadow data. The points are diversity values of single sites, and the funnel is their approximate confidence intervals ( $2 \times$  standard error).

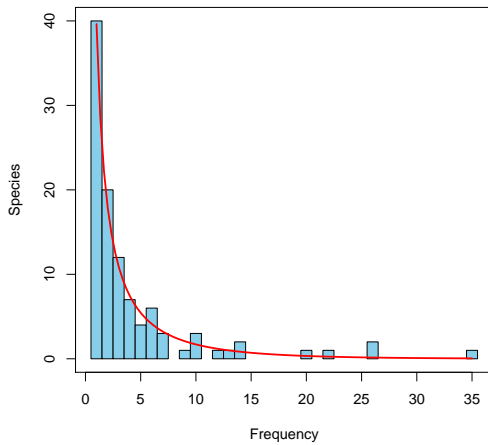


FIGURE 3. Fisher's log-series fitted to one randomly selected site (25).

where  $\alpha$  is the diversity parameter, and  $x$  is a nuisance parameter defined by  $\alpha$  and total number of individuals  $N$  in the site,  $x = N/(N - \alpha)$ . Fisher's log-series for a randomly selected plot is (Fig. 3):

```
> k <- sample(nrow(BCI), 1)
> fish <- fisherfit(BCI[k, ])
> fish
```

```
Fisher log series model
No. of species: 105
```

```
      Estimate Std. Error
alpha    43.54      5.386
```

We already saw  $\alpha$  as a diversity index. Now we also obtained estimate of standard error of  $\alpha$  (these also are optionally available in `fisherfit`). The standard errors are based on the second derivatives (curvature) of log-likelihood at the solution of  $\alpha$ . The distribution of  $\alpha$  is often non-normal and skewed, and standard errors are of not much use. However, `fisherfit` has a `profile` method that can be used

to inspect the validity of normal assumptions, and will be used in calculations of confidence intervals from profile deviance:

```
> confint(fish)
      2.5 %    97.5 %
34.01124 55.25360
```

Preston's log-normal model is the main challenger to Fisher's log-series. Instead of plotting species by frequencies, it bins species into frequency classes of increasing sizes. As a result, upper bins with high range of frequencies become more common, and sometimes the result looks similar to Gaussian distribution truncated at the left.

There are two alternative functions for the log-normal model: `prestonfit` and `prestondistr`. Function `prestonfit` uses traditionally binning approach, and is burdened with arbitrary choices of binning limits and treatment of ties. Function `prestondistr` directly maximizes truncated log-normal likelihood without binning data, and it is the recommended alternative. Log-normal models usually fit poorly to the BCI data, but here our random plot (number 25):

```
> prestondistr(BCI[k, ])
Preston lognormal model
Method: maximized likelihood to log2 abundances
No. of species: 105

      mode      width      S0
0.957454  1.622660 29.131500

Frequencies by Octave
      0      1      2      3      4      5
Observed 40.00000 20.00000 19.00000 13.00000 8.000000 4.000000
Fitted   24.47713 29.12149 23.69874 13.19155 5.022556 1.308014
      6
Observed 1.0000000
Fitted   0.2330016
```

**4.2. Ranked abundance distribution.** An alternative approach to species abundance distribution is to plot logarithmic abundances in decreasing order, or against ranks of species. These are known as ranked abundance distribution curves, species abundance curves, dominance–diversity curves or Whittaker plots. Function `radfit` fits some of the most popular models using maximum likelihood estimation:

$$(12) \quad \hat{a}_r = \frac{N}{S} \sum_{k=r}^S \frac{1}{k} \quad \text{brokenstick}$$

$$(13) \quad \hat{a}_r = N\alpha(1-\alpha)^{r-1} \quad \text{preemption}$$

$$(14) \quad \hat{a}_r = \exp[\log(\mu) + \log(\sigma)\Phi] \quad \text{log-normal}$$

$$(15) \quad \hat{a}_r = N\hat{p}_1 r^\gamma \quad \text{Zipf}$$

$$(16) \quad \hat{a}_r = Nc(r+\beta)^\gamma \quad \text{Zipf–Mandelbrot}$$

Where  $\hat{a}_r$  is the expected abundance of species at rank  $r$ ,  $S$  is the number of species,  $N$  is the number of individuals,  $\Phi$  is a standard normal function,  $\hat{p}_1$  is the estimated proportion of the most abundant species, and  $\alpha$ ,  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\beta$  and  $c$  are the estimated parameters in each model.

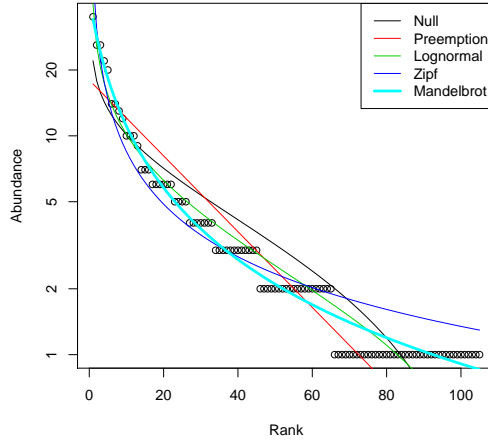


FIGURE 4. Ranked abundance distribution models for a random plot (no. 25). The best model is chosen by the AIC, and displayed with a thick line.

It is customary to define the models for proportions  $p_r$  instead of abundances  $a_r$ , but there is no reason for this, and `radfit` is able to work with the original abundance data. We have count data, and the default Poisson error looks appropriate, and our example data set gives (Fig. 4):

```
> rad <- radfit(BCI[k, ])
> rad
RAD models, family poisson
No. of species 105, total abundance 442
```

	par1	par2	par3	Deviance	AIC	BIC
Null				63.7881	361.7503	361.7503
Preemption	0.039086			60.6770	360.6391	363.2931
Lognormal	0.85921	1.0913		20.1649	322.1271	327.4350
Zipf	0.12092	-0.79937		28.7972	330.7594	336.0673
Mandelbrot	0.90845	-1.3074	5.5974	5.0666	309.0287	316.9906

Function `radfit` compares the models using alternatively Akaike's or Schwartz's Bayesian information criteria. These are based on log-likelihood, but penalized by the number of estimated parameters. The penalty per parameter is 2 in AIC, and  $\log S$  in BIC. Brokenstick is regarded as a null model and has no estimated parameters in `vegan`. Preemption model has one estimated parameter ( $\alpha$ ), log-normal and Zipf models two ( $\mu, \sigma$ , or  $\hat{p}_1, \gamma$ , resp.), and Zipf-Mandelbrot model has three ( $c, \beta, \gamma$ ).

Function `radfit` also works with data frames, and fits models for each site. It is curious that log-normal model rarely is the choice, although it generally is regarded as the canonical model, in particular in data sets like Barro Colorado tropical forests.

## 5. SPECIES ACCUMULATION AND BETA DIVERSITY

Species accumulation models and species pool models study collections of sites, and their species richness, or try to estimate the number of unseen species.

**5.1. Species accumulation models.** Species accumulation models are similar to rarefaction: they study the accumulation of species when the number of sites increases. There are several alternative methods, including accumulating sites in the

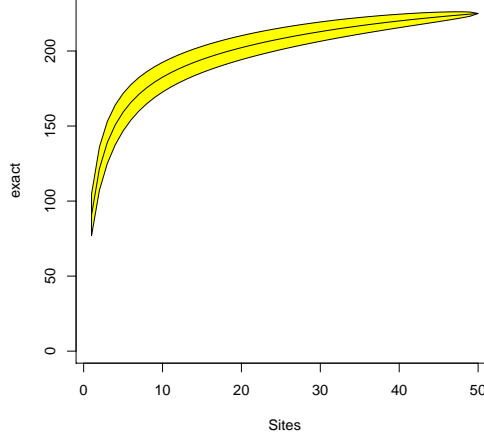


FIGURE 5. Species accumulation curve for the BCI data; exact method.

order they happen to be, and repeated accumulation in random order. In addition, there are three analytic models. Rarefaction pools individuals together, and applies rarefaction equation (5) to these individuals. Kindt's exact accumulator resembles rarefaction:

$$(17) \quad \hat{S}_n = \sum_{i=1}^S (1 - p_i), \text{ where } p_i = \binom{N - f_i}{n} / \binom{N}{n}$$

where  $f_i$  is the frequency of species  $i$ . Approximate variance estimator is:

$$(18) \quad s^2 = p_i(1 - p_i) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^S \sum_{j>i} \left( r_{ij} \sqrt{p_i(1 - p_i)} \sqrt{p_j(1 - p_j)} \right)$$

where  $r_{ij}$  is the correlation coefficient between species  $i$  and  $j$ . Both of these are unpublished: eq. 17 was developed by Roeland Kindt, and eq. 18 by Jari Oksanen. The third analytic method was suggested by Coleman:

$$(19) \quad S_n = \sum_{i=1}^S (1 - p_i), \text{ where } p_i = \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n} \right)^{f_i}$$

and he suggested variance  $s^2 = p_i(1 - p_i)$  which ignores the covariance component. In addition, eq. 19 does not properly handle sampling without replacement and underestimates the species accumulation curve.

The recommended is Kindt's exact method (Fig. 5):

```
> sac <- specaccum(BCI)
> plot(sac, ci.type = "polygon", ci.col = "yellow")
```

**5.2. Beta diversity.** Whittaker divided diversity into various components. The best known are diversity in one spot that he called alpha diversity, and the diversity along gradients that he called beta diversity. The basic diversity indices are indices of alpha diversity. Beta diversity should be studied with respect to gradients, but almost everybody understand that as a measure of general heterogeneity: how many more species do you have in a collection of sites compared to an average site.

The best known index of beta diversity is based on the ratio of total number of species in a collection of sites ( $S$ ) and the average richness per one site ( $\bar{\alpha}$ ):

$$(20) \quad \beta = S/\bar{\alpha} - 1$$



Substraction of one means that  $\beta = 0$  when there are no excess species or no heterogeneity between sites. For this index, no specific functions are needed, but this index can be easily found with the help of **vegan** function **specnumber**:

```
> ncol(BCI)/mean(specnumber(BCI)) - 1
[1] 1.478519
```

The index of eq. 20 is problematic because  $S$  increases with the number of sites even when sites are all subsets of the same community. Whittaker noticed this, and suggested the index to be found from pairwise comparison of sites. If the numbers of species in two sites are  $A$  and  $B$ , and the number of species shared between these two sites is  $J$ , then  $\bar{\alpha} = (A + B)/2$  and  $S = A + B - J$ . Index 20 can be expressed as:

$$(21) \quad \beta = \frac{A + B - J}{(A + B)/2} - 1 = \frac{A + B - 2J}{A + B}$$

This is the Sørensen index of dissimilarity, and it can be found for all sites using **vegan** function **vegdist** with binary data:

```
> beta <- vegdist(BCI, binary = TRUE)
> mean(beta)
[1] 0.3399075
```

There are many other definitions of beta diversity in addition to eq. 20, and many of these reduce to well known dissimilarity indices. All commonly used indices can be found using **designdist** function which allows defining your own dissimilarity measures. One of the more interesting indices is based on the Arrhenius species–area model

$$(22) \quad \hat{S} = cX^z$$

where  $X$  is the area (size) of the patch or site, and  $c$  and  $z$  are parameters. Parameter  $c$  is uninteresting, but  $z$  gives the steepness of the species area curve and is a measure of beta diversity. In islands,  $z$  is typically about 0.3. This kind of islands can be regarded as subsets of the same community, indicating that we really should talk about gradient differences if  $z > 0.3$ . We can find the value of  $z$  for a pair of plots using function **designdist**:

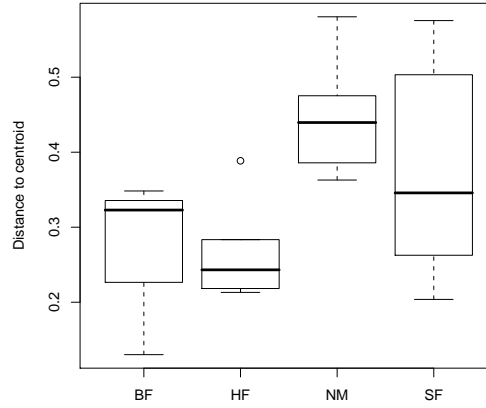
```
> z <- designdist(BCI, "(log(A+B-J)-log(A+B)+log(2))/log(2)")
> quantile(z)
      0%      25%      50%      75%     100%
0.2732845 0.3895024 0.4191536 0.4537180 0.5906091
```

The size  $X$  and parameter  $c$  cancel out, and the index gives the estimate  $z$  for any pair of sites.

Function **betadisper** can be used to analyse beta diversities with respect to classes or factors. There is no such classification available for the Barro Colorado Island data, and the example studies beta diversities in the management classes of the dune meadows (Fig. 6):

```
> data(dune)
> data(dune.env)
> z <- designdist(dune, "(log(A+B-J)-log(A+B)+log(2))/log(2)")
> quantile(z)
      0%      25%      50%      75%     100%
0.1154772 0.4873301 0.6374299 0.7655347 1.0000000
> mod <- with(dune.env, betadisper(z, Management))
> mod
```

FIGURE 6. Box plots of beta diversity measured as the average steepness ( $z$ ) of the species area curve in the Arrhenius model  $S = cX^z$  in Management classes of dune meadows.



#### Homogeneity of multivariate dispersions

Call: `betadisper(d = z, group = Management)`

No. of Positive Eigenvalues: 12

No. of Negative Eigenvalues: 8

Average distance to centroid:

	BF	HF	NM	SF
Average distance to centroid	0.2671	0.2693	0.4473	0.3728

Eigenvalues for PCoA axes:

	PCoA1	PCoA2	PCoA3	PCoA4	PCoA5	PCoA6	PCoA7	PCoA8	PCoA9
1	1.6746	0.9354	0.6017	0.3941	0.2972	0.2263	0.1640	0.0830	0.0695
2	0.0355	0.0286	0.0045	-0.0001	-0.0189	-0.0356	-0.0427	-0.0483	-0.0599
3	-0.0828	-4.2259							

## 6. SPECIES POOL

**6.1. Number of unseen species.** Species accumulation models indicate that not all species were seen in any site. These unseen species also belong to the species pool. Functions `specpool` and `estimateR` implement some methods of estimating the number of unseen species. Function `specpool` studies a collection of sites, and `estimateR` works with counts of individuals, and can be used with a single site. Both functions assume that the number of unseen species is related to the number of rare species, or species seen only once or twice.

Function `specpool` implements the following models to estimate the pool size  $S_p$ :

$$(23) \quad S_p = S_o + \frac{f_1^2}{2f_2} \quad \text{Chao}$$

$$(24) \quad S_p = S_o + f_1 \frac{N-1}{N} \quad \text{1st order Jackknife}$$

$$(25) \quad S_p = S_o + f_1 \frac{2N-3}{N} + f_2 \frac{(N-2)^2}{N(N-1)} \quad \text{2nd order Jackknife}$$

$$(26) \quad S_p = S_o + \sum_{i=1}^{S_o} (1-p_i)^N \quad \text{Bootstrap}$$

Here  $S_o$  is the observed number of species,  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are the numbers of species observed once or twice,  $N$  is the number of sites, and  $p_i$  are proportions of species. The idea in jackknife seems to be that we missed about as many species as we saw only once, and the idea in bootstrap that if we repeat sampling (with replacement) from the same data, we miss any many species as we missed originally.

The variance estimators of Chao is:

$$(27) \quad s^2 = f_2 \left( \frac{G^4}{4} + G^3 + \frac{G^2}{2} \right), \text{ where } G = \frac{f_1}{f_2}$$

The variance of the first-order jackknife is based on the number of “singletons”  $r$  (species occurring only once in the data) in sample plots:

$$(28) \quad s^2 = \left( \sum_{i=1}^N r_i^2 - \frac{f_1}{N} \right) \frac{N-1}{N}$$

Variance of the second-order jackknife is not evaluated in `specpool` (but contributions are welcome). For the variance of bootstrap estimator, it is practical to define a new variable  $q_i = (1-p_i)^N$  for each species:

$$(29) \quad s^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{S_o} q_i(1-q_i) + 2 \sum \sum Z_p, \quad \text{where} \\ Z_p = \dots$$

The extrapolated richness values for the whole BCI data are:

```
> specpool(BCI)
  Species      Chao  Chao.SE Jack.1 Jack1.SE  Jack.2      Boot
All      225 236.6053 6.659395 245.58 5.650522 247.8722 235.6862
  Boot.SE  n
All 3.468888 50
```

If the estimation of pool size really works, we should get the same values of estimated richness if we take a random subset of a half of the plots:

```
> s <- sample(nrow(BCI), 25)
> specpool(BCI[s, ])
  Species      Chao  Chao.SE Jack.1 Jack1.SE  Jack.2      Boot
All      212 231.8824 10.19570 236.96 8.136437 245.8917 224.2438
  Boot.SE  n
All 4.654368 25
```

These typically are even lower than the observed richness (225 species) at the whole data set.

**6.2. Pool size from a single site.** The `specpool` function needs a collection of sites, but there are some methods that estimate the number of unseen species for each single site. These functions need counts of individuals, and species seen only once or twice, or other rare species, take the place of species with low frequencies. Function `estimateR` implements two of these methods:

```
> estimateR(BCI[k, ])
                25
S.obs      105.000000
S.chao1    142.142857
se.chao1    16.733201
S.ACE      148.773956
se.ACE      6.536657
```

Chao's method is similar as above, but uses another, "unbiased" equation. ACE is based on rare species also:

$$(30) \quad \begin{aligned} S_p &= S_{\text{abund}} + \frac{S_{\text{rare}}}{C_{\text{ACE}}} + \frac{a_1}{C_{\text{ACE}}} \gamma^2 \quad \text{where} \\ C_{\text{ACE}} &= 1 - \frac{a_1}{N_{\text{rare}}} \\ \gamma^2 &= \frac{S_{\text{rare}}}{C_{\text{ACE}}} \sum_{i=1}^{10} i(i-1) a_1 \frac{N_{\text{rare}} - 1}{N_{\text{rare}}} \end{aligned}$$

Now  $a_1$  takes the place of  $f_1$  above, and means the number of species with only one individual. Here  $S_{\text{abund}}$  and  $S_{\text{rare}}$  are the numbers of species of abundant and rare species, with an arbitrary upper limit of 10 individuals for a rare species, and  $N_{\text{rare}}$  is the total number of individuals in rare species.

The pool size is estimated separately for each site, but if input is a data frame, each site will be analysed.

If log-normal abundance model is appropriate, it can be used to estimate the pool size. Log-normal model has a finite number of species which can be found integrating the log-normal:

$$(31) \quad S_p = S_\mu \sigma \sqrt{2\pi}$$

where  $S_\mu$  is the modal height or the expected number of species at maximum (at  $\mu$ ), and  $\sigma$  is the width. Function `veiledspec` estimates this integral from a model fitted either with `prestondistr` or `prestonfit`, and fits the latter if raw site data are given. Log-normal model fits badly, and `prestonfit` is particularly poor. Therefore the following explicitly uses `prestondistr`, although this also may fail:

```
> veiledspec(prestondistr(BCI[k, ]))
Extrapolated   Observed   Veiled
    118.48959    105.00000    13.48959
> veiledspec(BCI[k, ])
Extrapolated   Observed   Veiled
    662.3095    105.0000    557.3095
```

**6.3. Probability of pool membership.** Beals smoothing was originally suggested as a tool of regularizing data for ordination. It regularizes data too strongly, but it has been suggested as a method of estimating which of the missing species could occur in a site, or which sites are suitable for a species. The probability for each species at each site is assessed from other species occurring on the site.

Function `beals` implement Beals smoothing:

```
> smo <- beals(BCI)
```

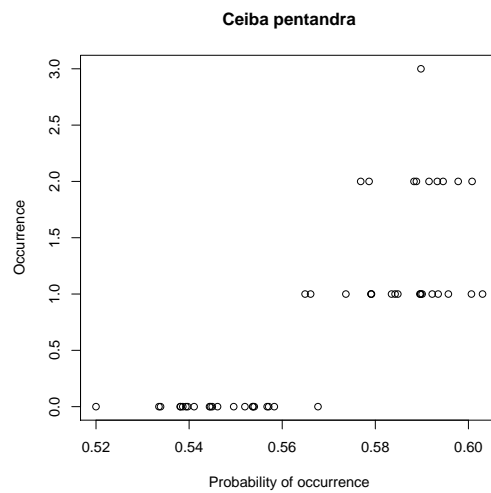


FIGURE 7. Beals smoothing for *Ceiba pentandra*.

We may see how the estimated probability of occurrence and observed numbers of stems relate in one of the more familiar species (Fig. 7):

```
> j <- which(colnames(BCI) == "Ceiba.pentandra")
> plot(smo[, j], BCI[, j], main = "Ceiba pentandra", xlab = "Probability of occurrence",
+      ylab = "Occurrence")
```

For the probability of the pool membership, jackknived estimates should be used, and concerned site and species should be removed when estimating the probability, but this is not done in `beals` which uses the traditional equations.