

1 **Oikos 122: 825-834 (2013)**

2

3 **Measuring fractions of beta diversity and their relationships to**  
4 **nestedness: a theoretical and empirical comparison of novel**  
5 **approaches**

6

7 José C. Carvalho<sup>1,2,\*</sup>, Pedro Cardoso<sup>1,3</sup>, Paulo A. V. Borges<sup>1</sup>, Dénes Schmera<sup>4,5</sup> and János  
8 Podani<sup>6</sup>

9

10 <sup>1</sup>*Azorean Biodiversity Group–CITA-A, Universidade dos Açores, Rua Capitão João d'Ávila,*  
11 *9700-042 Angra do Heroísmo, Terceira, Azores, Portugal*

12 <sup>2</sup>*CBMA – Molecular and Environmental Centre, Department of Biology, University of Minho,*  
13 *Gualtar Campus, 4710-057 Braga, Portugal*

14 <sup>3</sup>*National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC, USA*

15 <sup>4</sup>*Section of Conservation Biology, University of Basel, St. Johanns-Vorstadt 10, CH-4056*  
16 *Basel, Switzerland*

17 <sup>5</sup>*Balaton Limnological Institute, Centre for Ecological Research, Hungarian Academy of*  
18 *Sciences, Klebelsberg K. u. 3, H-8237 Tihany, Hungary*

19 <sup>6</sup>*Department of Plant Systematics, Ecology and Theoretical Biology, Institute of Biology, L.*  
20 *Eötvös University and Ecology Research Group of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences,*  
21 *Pázmány P. s. 1/C, H-1117 Budapest, Hungary*

22 \* *Corresponding author. Azorean Biodiversity Group–CITA-A, University of Azores, Angra do*  
23 *Heroísmo, Portugal. Email: josecarvalho@bio.uminho.pt*

24

25

26 **ABSTRACT**

27

28 Beta diversity and nestedness are central concepts of ecology and biogeography and  
29 evaluation of their relationships is in the focus of contemporary ecological and conservation  
30 research. Beta diversity patterns are originated from two distinct processes: the replacement  
31 (or turnover) of species and the loss (or gain) of species leading to richness differences.  
32 Nested distributional patterns are generally thought to have a component deriving from beta  
33 diversity which is independent of replacement processes. Quantification of these phenomena  
34 is often made by calculating a measure of beta diversity, and the resulting value being  
35 subsequently partitioned into a contribution by species replacement plus a fraction shared by  
36 beta diversity and nestedness. Three methods have been recently proposed for such  
37 partitioning, all of them based on pairwise comparisons of sites. In this paper, the  
38 performance of these methods was evaluated on theoretical grounds and tested by a  
39 simulation study in which different gradients of dissimilarity, with known degrees of species  
40 replacement and species loss, were created. Performance was also tested using empirical  
41 data addressing land-use induced changes in endemic arthropod communities of the Terceira  
42 Island in the Azores. We found that the partitioning of  $\beta_{cc}$  (dissimilarity in terms of the Jaccard  
43 index) into two additive fractions,  $\beta_{-3}$  (dissimilarity due to species replacement) plus  $\beta_{rich}$   
44 (dissimilarity due to richness differences) reflects the species replacement and species loss  
45 processes across the simulated gradients in an ecologically and mathematically meaningful  
46 way, whilst the other two methods lack mathematical consistency and prove conceptually self-  
47 contradictory. Moreover, the first method identified a selective local extinction process for  
48 endemic arthropods, triggered by land-use changes, while the latter two methods  
49 overweighted the replacement component and led to false conclusions. Their basic flaw  
50 derives from the fact that the proposed replacement and nestedness components (deemed to  
51 account for species loss) are not scaled in the same way as the measure that accounts for  
52 the total dissimilarity (Sørensen and Jaccard indices). We therefore recommend the use of  $\beta_{cc}$   
53 =  $\beta_{-3} + \beta_{rich}$ , since its components are scaled in the same units and their responses are  
54 proportional to the replacement and the gain/loss of species.

55

56 **Introduction**

57

58 Beta diversity has been interpreted mostly as the extent of change in community composition  
59 (Whittaker 1960, Koleff et al. 2003) along a given gradient and may also be understood as  
60 variation among sampling units without any specific reference to gradients (Anderson et al.  
61 2011). In any case, beta diversity patterns are originated from two distinct processes, the  
62 replacement and the loss (or gain) of species. Of the two, only the loss (or gain) of species  
63 causes richness differences from site to site. When losses or gains occur in a more or less  
64 ordered manner, community pattern becomes nested (Atmar and Patterson, 1993). In  
65 general, nestedness refers to the extent to which species of a smaller assemblage are a  
66 subset of a larger assemblage and is therefore a particular case of richness differences  
67 (Almeida-Neto et al. 2008, Ulrich et al. 2009). In nature, the replacement and loss (or gain) of  
68 species are combined in an infinite number of ways, leading to complex patterns of  
69 community dissimilarity. Therefore, to understand the origins of beta diversity, nestedness  
70 and their causes, one has to determine the relative roles of replacement and richness  
71 differences.

72 The necessity of decomposing measures of beta diversity and nestedness into comparable  
73 fractions is thus obvious. Indeed, the idea of partitioning beta diversity into different  
74 components is not new. Several authors have used various measures with different properties  
75 in order to differentiate the influence of replacement and species loss on the origins of beta  
76 diversity (Harrison et al. 1992, Williams 1996, Lennon et al. 2001, Melo et al. 2009).  
77 Nevertheless, none of these contributions established a comprehensive and unified  
78 framework for partitioning beta diversity. Recently, several attempts have been made to  
79 bridge this gap. The first one is due to Baselga (2010) proposed a general framework for  
80 unifying the different components of beta, suggesting partitioning pairwise beta diversity  
81 expressed by the Sørensen dissimilarity into replacement (turnover) and “nestedness  
82 resultant” components. An alternative solution has also been proposed independently by  
83 Podani and Schmera (2011) and Carvalho et al. (2012). In this, beta diversity is measured by  
84 Jaccard dissimilarity which is decomposed into replacement and richness difference fractions.  
85 The richness difference fraction is taken as a positive contributor to a nestedness measure

86 suggested by Podani and Schmera (2011). Even more recently, Baselga (2012) has rejected  
87 this suggestion and proposed decomposing Jaccard dissimilarity in the same fashion as the  
88 Sørensen index. Unfortunately, these different methods can lead to radically different  
89 conclusions about the same dataset (Carvalho et al. 2012) making inevitable the comparison  
90 of these approaches so that users of either approach can learn their relative merits and  
91 potential pitfalls and limitations.

92 In this paper, we argue that any partitioning of beta diversity should reflect properly the  
93 replacement and the loss (or gain) of species in order to be useful and ecologically  
94 meaningful. We review the concepts behind the different frameworks and the consistency of  
95 their performance with this expectation. For simplicity, we will focus only on pairwise  
96 comparisons of assemblages, although the conclusions could be extended to multiple-  
97 assemblage comparisons. First, we shall use arithmetic equations and small artificial  
98 examples to provide well defendable mathematical support for our arguments and to allow the  
99 reader to interpret the performance of the competing numerical approaches in a clear way.  
100 Then, our arguments are supported further by simulated examples and an actual case study  
101 on changes of the endemic arthropod fauna of Terceira Island (Azores, Portugal).

102

### 103 **Existing methods for partitioning beta diversity**

104

105 To save space, an overview of abbreviations and the mathematical formalism is summarized  
106 in tabular form (Table 1). Note that replacement and (species) turnover are regarded as  
107 synonyms. The method proposed by Baselga (2010) consists in partitioning pairwise  
108 Sørensen dissimilarity ( $\beta_{sor}$ ) into two components: dissimilarity due to species replacement  
109 ( $\beta_{sim}$ ) plus dissimilarity due to nestedness ( $\beta_{nes}$ ),

110

$$111 \beta_{sor} = \beta_{sim} + \beta_{nes}.$$

112

113 The rationale of this method is based on the fact that  $\beta_{sor}$  is sensitive to replacement and  
114 richness differences and  $\beta_{sim}$  (well-known as Simpson dissimilarity) seems to be sensitive to  
115 replacement only. Because, in the absence of nestedness,  $\beta_{sor} = \beta_{sim}$ , Baselga deduced that

116  $\beta_{sor} - \beta_{sim}$  would yield a measure of dissimilarity due to nestedness ( $\beta_{nes}$ ).  
117 The performance of Baselga's (2010) method was found to be inconsistent with the variation  
118 of species replacement and species loss (Podani and Schmera 2011, Schmera and Podani  
119 2011, Almeida-Neto et al. 2012, Carvalho et al. 2012). A new partitioning of beta diversity, due  
120 to Podani and Schmera (2011) and Carvalho et al. (2012) provides formal definitions of both  
121 absolute and relativized measures in terms of the parameters of the 2x2 contingency table  
122 (Table 1). Absolute beta diversity is expressed as  $b+c$  (Weiher - Boylen beta, see Koleff et al.  
123 2003), which is divided into species replacement and richness difference fractions. The term  
124 replacement means that a species in one site is substituted by a species in another site (or  
125 point of time in the same site). Therefore, one replacement always involves two species and  
126 the total number of replaced species is equal to  $2\min(b,c)$ . Richness differences arise from  
127 the loss (or gain) of species and are measured as  $|b-c|$ . Therefore, the contingency table can  
128 be algebraically decomposed into two biologically sound asymmetric components, according  
129 to the expression:

130

$$131 \quad b+c = 2\min(b,c) + |b-c|$$

132

133 (Fig. 1). Under this framework, nestedness is conceived, in absolute terms, as the sum of two  
134 independent components, overlap ( $a$ ) and richness difference ( $|b-c|$ ) with the condition  $a>0$   
135 (Podani and Schmera 2011, 2012).

136 Relativization of beta diversity may be achieved by division with the total number of species of  
137 the system ( $n=a+b+c$ ), which has an obvious theoretical link to the gamma diversity concept  
138 as applied to pairs of sites. Thus, we have the Jaccard dissimilarity  $\beta_{cc}$  ( $\beta_{jac}$  in Baselga'  
139 notation) which can be decomposed into relativized species replacement or dissimilarity due  
140 to replacement ( $\beta_{-3}$ , or  $R_{rel}$  in Podani and Schmera's notation) and relativized richness  
141 difference or dissimilarity due to richness differences ( $\beta_{rich}$  or  $D_{rel}$ ), as given below

142

$$143 \quad \beta_{cc} = \beta_{-3} + \beta_{rich}.$$

144

145 Relativized nestedness ( $N_{rel}$ ) is understood as the sum of Jaccard similarity (overlap) and

146 relativized richness difference, with the same condition as above. It is seen immediately that  
147 there is a fraction shared by beta diversity and nestedness, namely richness difference, either  
148 absolute or relativized (Podani and Schmera 2011, 2012, which may also be consulted for  
149 other pairwise measures of nestedness and their comparative evaluation). Although, the  
150 definition of nestedness differs with studies (Ulrich et al. 2009), our approach establishes a  
151 conceptual and methodological link between beta diversity and nestedness, and facilitate  
152 understanding and application of these measures in ecology and biogeography. (Note that we  
153 did not give any decomposition related to Sørensen dissimilarity because double weighted  
154 overlap scores in this coefficient do not apply to any meaningful definition of nestedness).  
155 However, Baselga (2012) has rejected the above suggestions. Following the same rationale  
156 he used for partitioning  $\beta_{sor}$  into replacement and nestedness-resultant dissimilarity, he  
157 proposed a similar partitioning of  $\beta_{cc}$  into dissimilarity due to replacement ( $\beta_{jtu}$ ) plus  
158 dissimilarity due to nestedness ( $\beta_{jne}$ ), such that:

159

$$160 \beta_{cc} = \beta_{jtu} + \beta_{jne}$$

161

162 (see Table 1).

163

## 164 **Theoretical issues**

165

### 166 *Scaling*

167 In comparing the alternative approaches, let us first examine the scaling of coefficients  
168 involved in the decomposition of beta diversity. In the partitioning of  $\beta_{sor}$ , Baselga (2010)  
169 scaled total dissimilarity ( $b+c$ ) to the sum of species richness scores of both sites ( $2a+b+c$ ),  
170 whilst replacement ( $2\min(b,c)$ ) was scaled to what would be the species richness of each site  
171 if “both sites were equally rich” ( $a + \min(b,c)$ ), resulting in the  $\beta_{sim}$  index. In the partitioning of  
172  $\beta_{cc}$ , Baselga (2012) scaled total dissimilarity ( $b+c$ ) to the total number of species of the  
173 pairwise system ( $a+b+c$ ), whilst replacement ( $2\min(b,c)$ ) was scaled to the quantity  
174  $a+2*\min(b,c)$  assumed to establish the “limit of the total number of species that could be  
175 replaced at all”. It is seen immediately that the replacement fractions implicitly included in  $\beta_{sor}$

176 and  $\beta_{cc}$  are not mathematically and conceptually equivalent to the replacement given by  $\beta_{sim}$   
177 and  $\beta_{jtu}$ , respectively.

178 The scaling problem has been illuminated numerically by small artificial examples in Schmera  
179 and Podani (2011). Nevertheless, in order to have a complete picture on the subject matter in  
180 this communication as well, we provide another convincing example. Suppose that  $a = 3$ ,  $b =$   
181  $5$  and  $c = 2$ . From these values we obtain that  $\beta_{sor} = 7/13$ ,  $\beta_{sim} = 2/5$  and  $\beta_{nes} = 9/65$  (since  
182  $7/13 - 2/5 = 3/13 \cdot 3/5 = 9/65$ ). While  $\beta_{sor}$  expresses the proportion of total presence scores  
183 (i.e.,  $2a+b+c = 13$ ) that are not shared by the two sites,  $\beta_{sim}$  corresponds to the proportion of  
184 presence scores in the poorer site ( $a + \min(b,c) = 5$ ) which are not present in the other site.  
185 The value of  $9/65$ , however, does not reflect any reasonable quantity in terms of species  
186 numbers and their proportions. The reason is that Sørensen dissimilarity and Simpson  
187 dissimilarity are differently scaled (to 13 versus 5), notwithstanding that they have the same  
188 range (0 to 1). Subtracting a quantity from another is indeed incorrect logically if the  
189 measurement units or the scale of the two are not identical. We may thus conclude that  
190 Simpson dissimilarity is an unjustified choice for measuring replacement, if beta diversity is  
191 expressed by Sørensen dissimilarity.

192 The decomposition of  $\beta_{cc}$  as suggested by Baselga (2012) suffers from the same drawback as  
193 that of  $\beta_{sor}$ : different scaling and therefore lack of common currency. Using the same example  
194 as above,  $\beta_{jne} = \beta_{cc} - \beta_{jtu} = 7/10 - 4/7 = 9/70$ . Similarly to the previous case, we are unable to  
195 attribute any meaning to this result, so that any suggestion as to the direct ecological  
196 interpretation of this value in terms of absolute species numbers or their proportions would be  
197 warmly welcome.  $\beta_{jtu}$  is apparently a less fortunate choice for quantifying species replacement  
198 if beta diversity is expressed by the Jaccard index.

199 By contrast, our approach offers easy interpretation of results both *mathematically* and  
200 *ecologically*. For the same example as above, the meaning of absolute values is  
201 straightforward:  $b+c=7$  is the number of species not shared by the two sites (beta),  
202  $2\min\{b,c\}=4$  is species replacement and  $|b-c| = 3$  is richness difference. By standardization  
203 with  $n (=10)$ , we obtain the Jaccard index,  $\beta_{cc} = 7/10$ , relativized species replacement,  $\beta_{-3} =$   
204  $4/10$ , and relativized richness difference component,  $\beta_{rich} = 7/10 - 4/10 = 3/10$ . In words,  $7/10$

205 is the proportion of the total number of species in which the two sites differ,  $4/10$  is species  
206 turnover relative to the total number of species and  $3/10$  is the proportional difference in site  
207 counts. Thus, there is a common currency for all component terms, both absolute and  
208 relativized, therefore the algebraic relationship between total dissimilarity and species  
209 replacement is maintained (Fig. 1) and the ecological meaning of all these terms is  
210 straightforward.

211

### 212 *On maximum replacement*

213 As discussed above, scaling has to do with the maximum possible value of a coefficient.  
214 Therefore, it is highly relevant here to examine the rationale for choosing  $a+2\min(b,c)$   
215 (Baselga 2012) as the maximum value of species replacement when beta diversity is  
216 measured by  $\beta_{cc}$ . This quantity is chosen on the grounds that “the number of species in the  
217 poorest site establishes the limit of the total number of species that could be replaced at all”  
218 (Baselga 2012, p. 3, right column in the Early View document). A key element in this rationale  
219 is that this limit is the number of species “that could potentially be replaced” if the two sites  
220 were equally rich, so that the turnover component becomes “independent” of the richness  
221 difference between the localities. Without entering into details regarding what “correctness”  
222 may mean in this case, we might accept at first glance that  $2\min(b,c)/(a+2\min(b,c))$  is  
223 meaningful under certain circumstances to measure replacement as a self-contained formula.  
224 However, there are several problems that prevent us to accept the proposition to take it either  
225 as a component of Jaccard dissimilarity or as a stand-alone coefficient. Our arguments can  
226 be summarized briefly as follows.

- 227 • The suggestion that the denominator in the replacement component of the Jaccard  
228 dissimilarity ( $\beta_{jtu}$ ) should be  $a+2\min(b,c)$  and its explanation (“because the number of  
229 species in the poorest site establishes the limit of the total number of species that could  
230 be replaced at all”) are contradictory because the number of species in the poorest site  
231 equals to  $a + \min(b,c)$  and not to  $a + 2\min(b,c)$ .
- 232 • We do not see any reason why only the poorer site should establish the theoretical  
233 upper limit of species replacement. It is therefore useful to examine under which

234 circumstances can  $a+2\min(b,c)$  be the maximum. Assume first that the total number of  
235 species in the two sites is constant, so the theoretical maximum can only be determined  
236 by breaking up joint presences in the data. The use of  $a+2\min(b,c)$  as denominator  
237 implies that maximum is reached when  $a/2$  species remain only in site 1 and  $a/2$   
238 species in the other (Fig. 2.A and B). Complications may arise, of course, when “a” is  
239 an odd number. Nonetheless, the two sites can be “potentially” equally rich and  
240 replacement even higher if the set of shared species is split between the sites such that  
241 their richness difference is compensated for (Fig. 2.A and C). The extent to which this  
242 compensation is possible is determined by  $|b-c|$ , so that the maximum of species  
243 replacement can be higher than  $a+2\min(b,c)$  and is in fact constrained by both sites  
244 whenever  $|b-c|>0$ . We can imagine another reasonable solution in which the number of  
245 species in each site remains constant and the total number of species increases. As  
246 seen in Fig. 2.D, in this case the maximum is  $2a+2\min\{b,c\}$ , larger than what Baselga  
247 (2012) proposed.

248 • However, when interest lies in the replacement component of Jaccard dissimilarity, then  
249 there is no reason to consider at all what the maximum of replacement can be; interest  
250 is merely focused on the absolute or relative contribution of the subset of species that  
251 are actually responsible for replacement. For this purpose, the use of “n” (gamma  
252 diversity) as the denominator is the correct and, in fact, the only meaningful choice. We  
253 disagree with the proposal, therefore, that the rationale behind measures of species  
254 replacement “dictates” (as stated in Baselga 2012) the choice of the denominator as the  
255 number of species that could potentially be replaced.

256 • The proposed replacement formula  $2\min(b,c)/(a+2\min(b,c))$  does not satisfy the  
257 requirements set up by Baselga (2012, p. 3, right column in the Early View document)  
258 himself, namely, that “adding unique species to only one of the sites should not affect  
259 the replacement measure”. If a new species is added to the species poorer site, then  
260 the replacement measure suggested by Baselga (2012) does change. (For example, for  
261  $a=5$ ,  $b=4$ , and  $c=1$ , we obtain  $2/7$ , whereas for  $a=5$ ,  $b=4$  and  $c=2$ , we get  $4/9$ ). Addition  
262 of this new species clearly modifies the nominator and the denominator, thus the  
263 *proportion* of the species shared as well, so that the above requirement is in clear

264 conflict with the following one “any change in the proportion of species shared between  
 265 two sites should be reflected by a meaningful measure of species replacement”  
 266 (Baselga 2012, p. 3, right column in the Early View document). It was specified by  
 267 Baselga (2012) as the second main property that a meaningful replacement function  
 268 must have. Confusion around admissible properties of the replacement index probably  
 269 came from the fact that in Fig. 1 of Baselga (2012) changes are monitored over  
 270 increases of  $n$ , while  $n$  remains constant in his Fig. 2.

271 In conclusion, measurement of replacement separately and measurement of the contribution  
 272 of replacement to some other measure in Baselga's (2010, 2012) proposals are contradicting  
 273 and, even if a separate coefficient is sought, the proposed formula does not satisfy the  
 274 requirements set up by its own proponent.

275

276 *Decomposition of beta diversity in the absence of nestedness*

277 Now we examine the deduction that in absence of nestedness, i.e., when the nestedness  
 278 resultant component is zero ( $a = 0$ ), both total beta diversity and its replacement component  
 279 take the value of 1, no matter whether Sørensen or Jaccard dissimilarity is partitioned.  
 280 Baselga (2010, 2012) overlooked the fact that beta diversity is not always identical to species  
 281 replacement if nestedness is lacking. We demonstrate this by the following three examples for  
 282 site pairs  $j$  and  $k$ :

283	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>c</b>
284	$j \ k$	$j \ k$	$j \ k$
285	1 0	1 0	1 0
286	0 1	1 0	1 0
287	0 1	1 0	1 0
288	0 1	0 1	1 0
289	0 1	0 1	0 1
290	0 1	0 1	0 1
291	0 1	0 1	0 1
292	0 1	0 1	0 1
293			

294 In all cases,  $\beta_{sor} = \beta_{sim} = 1$  as well as  $\beta_{cc} = \beta_{jtu} = 1$ . However, in absolute terms beta diversity is  
 295 dominated by richness difference in **a** (1 species replaced by another but  $k$  has six other  
 296 species), richness difference and species replacement are more balanced in **b** (3 species are  
 297 replaced by other 3 and  $k$  has two more species than  $j$ ) and, finally, richness difference is

298 eliminated in  $\mathbf{c}$  (both  $j$  and  $k$  have 4 species). That is, whenever  $(b \neq c) > 0$  and  $a = 0$ , absolute  
299 beta diversity will have a fraction due to species replacement (i.e.,  $2\min\{b,c\}$ ) and another due  
300 to richness difference ( $|b-c|$ ), and so will do relativized beta diversity. Beta diversity can be  
301 equated with species replacement only if  $b = c$ . Clearly, the indeterminate relationship  
302 persists even if  $a > 0$ . The conclusion is that the measure of beta diversity and its replacement  
303 component should carefully be selected and that  $\beta_{\text{sim}}$  and  $\beta_{\text{itu}}$  as defined in Baselga (2010,  
304 2012, respectively) do not reflect properly the replacement component of beta diversity  
305 quantified in either way, therefore  $\beta_{\text{nes}}$  and  $\beta_{\text{jne}}$  are meaningless. This basic problem of  
306 Baselga's methods is illustrated in the small example of Fig. 3.  $\beta_{\text{nes}}$  and  $\beta_{\text{jne}}$  reveal a hump-  
307 shaped relationship with increasing dissimilarity due to the loss of species and, hence, their  
308 behaviour is not consistent with the concept that they try to express quantitatively.

309 To sum it up, if  $a = 0$  and  $(b \neq c) > 0$  then beta diversity can still be partitioned into a  
310 replacement and a richness difference component and these component names are also  
311 valid, though nestedness does not exist. The conclusion is that even if beta diversity and the  
312 replacement component are properly selected, it is incorrect to call their difference as  
313 "nestedness resultant component", because nestedness does not necessarily exist when that  
314 difference is larger than zero. Therefore, the ecologically meaningful term for this difference is  
315 "richness difference", a term suggested independently by Podani and Schmera (2011) and  
316 Carvalho et al. (2012).

317

318

### 319 **Testing the performance of different frameworks**

320

321 The performance of the different frameworks for decomposing beta diversity into additive  
322 components was tested by a simulation study in which different gradients of dissimilarity, with  
323 known degrees of species replacement and species loss, were created. We also examined  
324 the behaviour of the different frameworks in the analysis of empirical data.

325

#### 326 *A simulation study*

327 We created three artificial data sets modelling the temporal change of a given community

328 under different conditions. Each community initially had 100 species. At each time step, each  
329 community suffered a predefined level of species replacement and species loss, according to  
330 three scenarios. In scenario 1, we increased the number of replacements and the number of  
331 losses by one at each step, therefore, species replacement > species loss (recall that one  
332 replacement involves two species). In scenario 2, the number of replacements was set to one,  
333 while the number of losses was set to two, hence species replacement = species loss. For  
334 scenario 3, the number of replacements was set to one and the number of losses was set to  
335 three, thus species replacement < species loss. We continued these processes for 25 steps  
336 in time. For each data set, beta diversity measures were calculated at each step in  
337 comparison to the initial state. Fig. 3 exemplifies the design of these simulations.

338 We advocate that an ecologically meaningful partitioning of beta diversity should obey two  
339 basic expectations under the simulated conditions: i) any dissimilarity measure should  
340 increase monotonically in each scenario, because total dissimilarity, species replacement and  
341 species loss increase at every time step; ii) the ordering relationship between the measures  
342 deemed to represent species replacement ( $\beta_{sim}$ ,  $\beta_{jtu}$  and  $\beta_{.3}$ ) and species loss ( $\beta_{nes}$ ,  $\beta_{jne}$  and  
343  $\beta_{rich}$ ) should be consistent with the proportion between the actual number of replacements and  
344 species losses in the three scenarios. These are the most intuitive and uncontroversial  
345 expectations that we can find. Any measure that does not satisfy these criteria would lead to  
346 obviously wrong ecological conclusions and conservation decisions.

347 All calculations were performed in the R statistical environment (R Development Core Team  
348 2011). The algorithm for the simulation and the calculation of all measures of beta diversity  
349 can be found in Supplementary material Appendix 1.

350 The results of simulations reveal different behaviours of the beta diversity partitioning  
351 methods (Fig. 4). Two functions,  $\beta_{nes}$  and  $\beta_{jne}$ , failed to satisfy the first requirement. These  
352 measures exhibited a hump-shaped behaviour along with increasing loss of species, meaning  
353 that when the loss of species is maximum, both measures give lower values than when  
354 losses are intermediate. Regarding the second criterion, all the measures seem to be  
355 consistent in scenario 1. For scenario 2,  $\beta_{sim} > \beta_{jne}$  and  $\beta_{jtu} > \beta_{jne}$  even though the level of  
356 replacements equals the level of losses at each time step. The performance of  $\beta_{jtu}$  and  $\beta_{jne}$  is  
357 even worse in scenario 3. In this case, a clear process of local extinction (species

358 replacement < species loss) would be regarded by Baselga's framework as a process of  
359 replacement ( $\beta_{sim} > \beta_{jne}$  and  $\beta_{jtu} > \beta_{jne}$ ). Moreover, when the last common species disappears,  
360 in spite of richness differences, there is no longer dissimilarity due to loss of species at all  
361 ( $\beta_{nes} = 0$  and  $\beta_{jtu} = 0$ ) and suddenly dissimilarity is entirely due to species replacement ( $\beta_{sim} = 1$   
362 and  $\beta_{jtu} = 1$ ). Therefore, we argue that in this case  $\beta_{nes}$  and  $\beta_{jtu}$  are consistent with the notion  
363 that two communities with no shared species could not be nested, but does not reflect the  
364 process (species loss) that originated this pattern. Contrary to  $\beta_{nes}$  and  $\beta_{jtu}$ ,  $\beta_{rich}$  is proportional  
365 to the loss of species and reflects all richness differences, independently, of sites being  
366 nested or not (Fig. 4, scenario 3). In conclusion, only the performance of the partitioning of  $\beta_{cc}$   
367 into  $\beta_{-3}$  and  $\beta_{rich}$  was consistent with the modelled gradients in all the three scenarios.

368

#### 369 *A case study*

370 The islands of the Azorean archipelago suffered dramatic land-use changes since human  
371 occupation around 600 years ago (Triantis et al. 2010). Before human settlement, Azorean  
372 islands were mostly forested, but nowadays are dominated by highly modified habitats such  
373 as exotic forests, semi-natural and intensive pastures, agricultural fields and orchards. Land-  
374 use change has influenced all taxonomic groups, in particular the arthropods, which are the  
375 richest of all taxa in the archipelago and also include the majority of endemic species (Borges  
376 et al. 2010). Moreover, their distribution is often very restricted, with many species responding  
377 at a fine spatial and temporal scale to habitat change (Borges et al. 2006, Cardoso et al.  
378 2007, 2010, Triantis et al. 2010). Therefore, we can observe a predictably low level of species  
379 replacement and a high loss of endemic species, originating richness differences, from more  
380 natural to more disturbed land-use types due to selective local extinctions (Borges et al. 2008,  
381 Cardoso et al. 2009b, 2010, Fattorini et al. 2012). To test the different beta diversity  
382 partitioning methods under this scenario we sampled four land-use types corresponding to a  
383 gradient of increasing human induced changes in Terceira Island: native forest (dominated by  
384 *Laurus-Ilex*, *Juniperus* and *Erica* type forests), exotic forest (*Cryptomeria japonica* and  
385 *Eucalyptus* spp.), semi-natural pasture (located above 400 m and with the grazing  
386 concentrated in the summer months) and intensively managed pasture (grazed usually all  
387 year) (see Borges et al. 2008, Cardoso et al. 2009b, for details). For each land-use type, eight

388 sites were surveyed, following a standard procedure (Borges et al. 2005). Briefly, at each site  
389 a 150 m long transect was used to capture epigaeic fauna by pitfall trapping (30 traps  
390 distributed at 5 m intervals). The majority of arthropods (except Crustacea, Acari, Collembola,  
391 Hymenoptera and Diptera) were identified to species level.

392 The number of endemic species caught per sampling site decreases from native forest (mean  
393 = 7.8; sd = 3.1) to intensive pastures (mean = 2.6; sd = 0.9), exotic forest (mean = 1.9; sd =  
394 1.7) and semi-natural pastures (mean = 1.6; sd = 1.4). Therefore, an ecologically meaningful  
395 partitioning of beta-diversity should reflect the selective extinction of endemic species into its  
396 richness differences component (or nestedness component, *sensu* Baselga 2010). Moreover,  
397 as very few endemic species mostly occur in disturbed habitats (Cardoso et al. 2009b,  
398 Fattorini et al. 2012), some replacement could also be expected, even if replacement is  
399 predictably lower than extinction. Four sampling sites were excluded from subsequent  
400 analysis because no endemic species were captured (two transects in exotic forest and two  
401 others in intensive pastures). We constructed a site x species matrix with the endemic  
402 species and subjected it to beta diversity partitioning analysis using the different frameworks.  
403 We used the non-parametric multivariate analysis of variance method (Anderson, 2001) to  
404 test the null hypothesis of no differences of species replacement and richness differences  
405 among the four land-use types. This method compares the variance between groups with the  
406 variance within groups for a dissimilarity matrix by means of the sum of squared distances.  
407 The F-ratio was calculated, as in a single factor ANOVA model, and its P-value was obtained  
408 by 999 permutations. This procedure is implemented in the function “adonis” of the vegan  
409 package (Oksanen et al. 2011) for the R environment (R Development Core Team (2011).

410 Via partitioning  $\beta_{cc}$  into  $\beta_{.3}$  and  $\beta_{rich}$ , as expected, we could reject the null hypothesis for  
411 species replacement (measured by  $\beta_{.3}$ ) and richness differences (measured by  $\beta_{rich}$ ) and  
412 concluded that there was a significant difference across the four land-use types for both  
413 components of beta diversity. It is worth noting that  $R^2$  for  $\beta_{rich}$  is higher than for  $\beta_{.3}$  indicating  
414 that the process of species loss (originating richness differences) is more important than the  
415 species replacement process (Table 2). Using the methods for partitioning  $\beta_{sor}$  into  $\beta_{sim}$  and  
416  $\beta_{nes}$  or  $\beta_{cc}$  into  $\beta_{jtu}$  and  $\beta_{jne}$  (Baselga 2012, 2012), we rejected the null hypothesis for species  
417 replacement (measured by  $\beta_{sim}$  and  $\beta_{jtu}$ ) but not the richness (nestedness) differences

418 (measured by  $\beta_{nes}$  and  $\beta_{jne}$ ) caused by the loss of species (Table 2). Therefore, we concluded  
419 that these frameworks failed to detect the local extinction process suffered by endemic  
420 species as a consequence of land-use changes. Thus, we argue that such frameworks may  
421 lead to wrong conclusions of conservation importance and land-use management strategies.

422

423

## 424 **Discussion**

425

426 A beta diversity partitioning method, in order to be ecologically meaningful, should reflect the  
427 processes that originate community variation, species replacement and species loss (or gain)  
428 and should reflect the proportional relationship between these two components (Williams,  
429 1996, Williams et al. 1999, Carvalho et al. 2012). In this paper, we addressed if the behaviour  
430 of three competing methods of beta diversity partitioning was consistent with these  
431 expectations.

432 Comparison of the three frameworks on theoretical grounds revealed three major, closely  
433 related problems in Baselga's (2010, 2012) methods. Most crucial is scaling, because the  
434 species replacement fractions ( $\beta_{sim}$  and  $\beta_{jtu}$ ) are not standardized the same way as the overall  
435 dissimilarity measures ( $\beta_{sor}$  and  $\beta_{cc}$ , respectively) from which they are subtracted. In fact, the  
436 choice of the maximum possible values for such scaling is not substantiated because there  
437 are several other, equally if not more acceptable possibilities. The "replacement" fraction of  
438 dissimilarity is ill-defined anyway for both cases because in the absence of nestedness beta  
439 diversity is not necessarily identical to replacement. In fact,  $\beta_{sim}$  does not represent the  
440 dissimilarity component of  $\beta_{sor}$  due to replacement, but represents the degree to which the  
441 species-poorer sampling unit is not nested within the species-richer sampling unit (Tuomisto  
442 2010).

443 As a consequence, when tested against modelled gradients, the partitioning methods  
444 proposed by Baselga (2010, 2012) failed to accurately represent the species replacement and  
445 species loss processes that generate community variation. Moreover, when beta diversity  
446 was dominated by species losses, the measures of replacement ( $\beta_{sim}$  and  $\beta_{jtu}$ ) were much  
447 higher than the measures of nestedness ( $\beta_{nes}$  and  $\beta_{jne}$ , deemed to represent the loss of

448 species). Therefore, it is now clear that these methods are inappropriate to infer the relative  
449 strengths of species replacement and species loss on the origins of community variation. We  
450 advocate that these methods could lead to irreversible conservation and management  
451 mistakes, for example, by erroneously identifying a particular area as a high replacement  
452 zone where in fact the process that is occurring is selective extinction, as in the case study  
453 presented in this paper.

454 To the contrary, the partition of  $\beta_{cc}$  into  $\beta_{-3}$  and  $\beta_{rich}$  consistently reflects the replacement and  
455 species loss (or gain) processes in generating beta diversity patterns, and showed a good  
456 proportional relationship between the two components when evaluated using model  
457 communities. Moreover, this framework clearly identified a pattern of endemic species loss  
458 associated to land-use changes in Terceira Island (Azores, Portugal). By decomposing beta  
459 diversity into its two sources of variation (species replacement and species richness  
460 differences) we demonstrated that community change was primarily determined by the loss of  
461 endemic species (originating richness differences among sites) from natural forests to exotic  
462 forests and semi-natural and intensive pastures. Before human settlement, forests occupied  
463 the entire island, therefore, the loss of endemic species seems to be caused by selective  
464 extinction as a consequence of species (in)tolerance to disturbance and land-use change  
465 (Borges et al. 2008; Cardoso et al. 2009b, 2010).

466 In conclusion, we advocate that any beta diversity measure should be evaluated by small  
467 artificial examples, simulated assemblages with well-defined properties and well-known  
468 empirical gradients in order to test whether its behaviour is consistent with the process that is  
469 supposed to be reflected. In the present case, we recommend the theoretically sound and  
470 algebraically correct decomposition of the Jaccard index,  $\beta_{cc}$  into  $\beta_{-3}$  and  $\beta_{rich}$ , when the  
471 objective of the study is to evaluate the relative roles of replacement and species loss (or  
472 gain) in generating beta diversity patterns. Baselga's approaches may appear interesting and  
473 attractive at first sight, but the methodological framework he uses is incoherent, his reasoning  
474 is often self-contradictory and therefore his procedures should be applied with much care.

475

476 *Acknowledgements* - We thank D. Bonte and C. Ricotta for helpful comments. J.C.C.  
477 expresses his gratitude to the Luso-American Foundation for its support (FLAD CandT Links

478 2010 grant). P.C. was supported by the Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology  
479 (SFRH/BPD/40688/2007). Data used in this study were obtained in projects “Reservas  
480 Florestais dos Açores: Cartografia e Inventariação dos Artrópodes Endémicos dos Açores”  
481 (PROJ. 17.01 – 080203) and “Consequences of land-use change on Azorean fauna and flora  
482 - the 2010 Target” (Ref: DRCT M.2.1.2/003/2008).

483

484

## 485 **References**

- 486 Almeida-Neto, M. et al. 2008. A consistent metric for nestedness analysis in ecological  
487 systems: reconciling concept and measurement. – *Oikos* 117: 1227–1239.
- 488 Almeida-Neto, M. et al. 2012. Rethinking the relationship between nestedness and beta  
489 diversity: a comment on Baselga (2010). – *Global Ecol. Biogeogr.*, 21: 772-777.
- 490 Anderson M. J. 2001. A new method for non-parametric multivariate analysis of variance. –  
491 *Austral. Ecol.* 26: 32-46.
- 492 Anderson M. J. et al. 2011. Navigating the multiple meanings of  $\beta$  diversity: a roadmap for the  
493 practicing ecologist. – *Ecol. Lett.* 14: 19-28.
- 494 Atmar, W. and Patterson, B. D. 1993. The measure of order and disorder in the distribution of  
495 species in fragmented habitat. – *Oecologia* 96: 373–382.
- 496 Baselga, A. 2010. Partitioning the turnover and nestedness components of beta diversity. –  
497 *Global Ecol. Biogeogr.* 19: 134–143.
- 498 Baselga, A. 2012. The relationship between species replacement, dissimilarity derived from  
499 nestedness and nestedness. – *Global Ecol. Biogeogr.*, online published, DOI:  
500 10.1111/j.1466-8238.2011.00756.x.
- 501 Borges, P. A. V. et al. 2005. Ranking protected areas in the Azores using standardized  
502 sampling of soil epigeal arthropods. – *Biodivers. Conserv.* 14: 2029-2060.
- 503 Borges, P. A. V. et al. 2006. Invasibility and species richness of island arthropods: a general  
504 model of endemic vs. exotic species. – *J. Biogeogr.* 33: 169-187.
- 505 Borges, P. A. V. et al. 2008. Insect and spider rarity in an oceanic island (Terceira, Azores):  
506 true rare and pseudo-rare species. – In: Fattorini, S. (ed.) *Insect Ecology and  
507 Conservation*. Research Signpost, Kerala, India, pp. 47-70.
- 508 Borges, P. A. V. et al. 2010. A list of the terrestrial and marine biota from the Azores. –  
509 Príncipe Editora.
- 510 Cardoso, P. et al. 2007. Biotic integrity of the arthropod communities in the natural forests of  
511 Azores. – *Biodivers. Conserv.* 16: 2883-2901.
- 512 Cardoso, P. et al. 2009a. Testing the performance of beta diversity measures based on  
513 incidence data: the robustness to undersampling. – *Divers. Distrib.* 15: 1081-1090.
- 514 Cardoso, P. et al. 2009b. A spatial scale assessment of habitat effects on arthropod  
515 communities of an oceanic island. – *Acta Oecol.* 35: 590-597.

516 Cardoso, P. et al. 2010. Drivers of diversity in Macaronesian spiders and the role of species  
517 extinctions. – *J. Biogeogr.* 37: 1034-1046.

518 Carvalho, J. C. et al. 2012. Determining the relative roles of species replacement and  
519 species richness differences in generating beta-diversity patterns. – *Global Ecol.*  
520 *Biogeogr.*, 21: 760-771.

521 Colwell, R. K. and Coddington, J. A. 1994. Estimating terrestrial biodiversity through  
522 extrapolation. – *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. (Series B)* 345: 101–118.

523 Fattorini, S. et al. 2012. Use of arthropod rarity for area prioritisation: insights from the  
524 Azorean islands. – *PLoS ONE* 7: e33995.

525 Gaston, K. J. and Blackburn, T. M. 2000. *Pattern and process in macroecology*. – Blackwell,  
526 Oxford.

527 Harrison, S. et al. 1992. Beta diversity on geographic gradients in Britain. – *J. Anim. Ecol.* 61:  
528 151–158.

529 Jaccard, P. 1912. The distribution of the flora in the alpine zone. – *New Phytol.* 11: 37-50.

530 Koleff, P. et al. 2003. Measuring beta diversity for presence-absence data. – *J. Anim. Ecol.*  
531 72: 367–382.

532 Lennon, J. J. et al. 2001. The geographical structure of British bird distributions: diversity,  
533 spatial turnover and scale. – *J. Anim. Ecol.* 70: 966–979.

534 Magurran, A. E. 2011. Measuring biological diversity in time (and space). – In: Magurran, A.  
535 E. and McGill, B. J. (ed.) *Biological diversity: frontiers in measurement and*  
536 *assessment*. Oxford University Press, pp. 85-94.

537 Melo, A. S. et al. 2009. Environmental drivers of beta diversity patterns in New-World birds  
538 and mammals. – *Ecography* 32: 226-236.

539 Oksanen, J. et al. 2011. *vegan: Community Ecology Package*. R package version 2.0-2.  
540 <http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=vegan>

541 Podani, J. & Schmera, D. 2011. A new conceptual and methodological framework for  
542 exploring and explaining pattern in presence-absence data. – *Oikos* 120: 1625–1638.

543 Podani, J. & Schmera, D. 2012. A comparative evaluation of pairwise nestedness measures.  
544 – *Ecography*, online published, doi: 10.1111/j.1600-0587.2011.07319.x

545 R Development Core Team 2011. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. R  
546 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. ISBN 3-900051-07-0, URL  
547 <http://www.R-project.org/>.

548 Schmera, D. & Podani, J. 2011. Comments on separating components of beta diversity. –  
549 *Community Ecol.* 12: 153–160.

550 Simpson, G.G. 1943. Mammals and the nature of continents. – *Amer. J. Sci.* 241: 1–31.

551 Sørensen, T. A. 1948. A method of establishing groups of equal amplitude in plant sociology  
552 based on similarity of species content, and its application to analyses of the  
553 vegetation on Danish commons. – *Kongelige Danske Videnskabernes Selskabs*  
554 *Biologiske Skrifter* 5: 1–34.

555 Triantis, K. A. et al. 2010. The Macaronesian province: patterns of species richness and  
556 endemism of arthropods. – In: Serrano, A. R. M. (ed.) Terrestrial arthropods of  
557 Macaronesia – biodiversity, ecology and evolution. Sociedade Portuguesa de  
558 Entomologia, Lisbon, pp. 49–71.

559 Tuomisto, H. 2010. A diversity of beta diversities: straightening up a concept gone awry. Part  
560 2. Quantifying beta diversity and related phenomena. – *Ecography* 33: 23–45.

561 Ulrich, W. et al. 2009. A consumer's guide to nestedness analysis. – *Oikos* 118: 3–17.

562 Whittaker, R. H. 1960. Vegetation of the Siskiyou Mountains, Oregon and California. – *Ecol.*  
563 *Monogr.* 30: 280–338.

564 Williams, P. H. 1996. Mapping variations in the strength and breadth of biogeographic  
565 transition zones using species turnover. – *Proc. R. Soc. B: Biological Sciences* 263:  
566 579–588.

567 Williams, P. H. et al. 1999. Interpreting biogeographical boundaries among Afro-tropical birds:  
568 spatial patterns in richness gradients and species replacement. – *J. Biogeogr.* 26:  
569 459–474.

570

571

572

573 Supplementary material (Appendix o20980 at <[www.oikosoffice.lu.se/appendix](http://www.oikosoffice.lu.se/appendix)>). Appendix  
574 1.

575

576 **Table 1.** Measures used in the different partitioning frameworks in which *a* is the number of  
 577 shared species between two sites, *b* and *c* are the numbers of exclusive species of either site  
 578 (Koleff *et al.* 2003).

579

Metric	Notation	Reference
$\beta_{\text{sor}}$	$\frac{b+c}{2a+b+c}$	Sørensen (1948)
$\beta_{\text{sim}}$	$\frac{\min(b,c)}{a+\min(b,c)}$	Simpson (1943) Lennon <i>et al.</i> (2001)
$\beta_{\text{nes}}$	$\frac{ b-c }{2a+b+c} \times \frac{a}{a+\min(b,c)}$	Baselga (2010)
$\beta_{\text{cc}}$ (or $\beta_{\text{jac}}$ )	$\frac{b+c}{a+b+c}$	Jaccard (1912) Colwell and Coddington (1994)
$\beta_{-3}$	$2 \times \frac{\min(b,c)}{a+b+c}$	Williams (1996) Cardoso <i>et al.</i> (2009a)
$\beta_{\text{rich}}$	$\frac{ b-c }{a+b+c}$	Schmera and Podani (2011) Carvalho <i>et al.</i> (2012)
$\beta_{\text{jtu}}$	$2 \times \frac{\min(b,c)}{a+2\min(b,c)}$	Baselga (2012)
$\beta_{\text{jne}}$	$\frac{ b-c }{a+b+c} \times \frac{a}{a+2\min(b,c)}$	Baselga (2012)

580

581

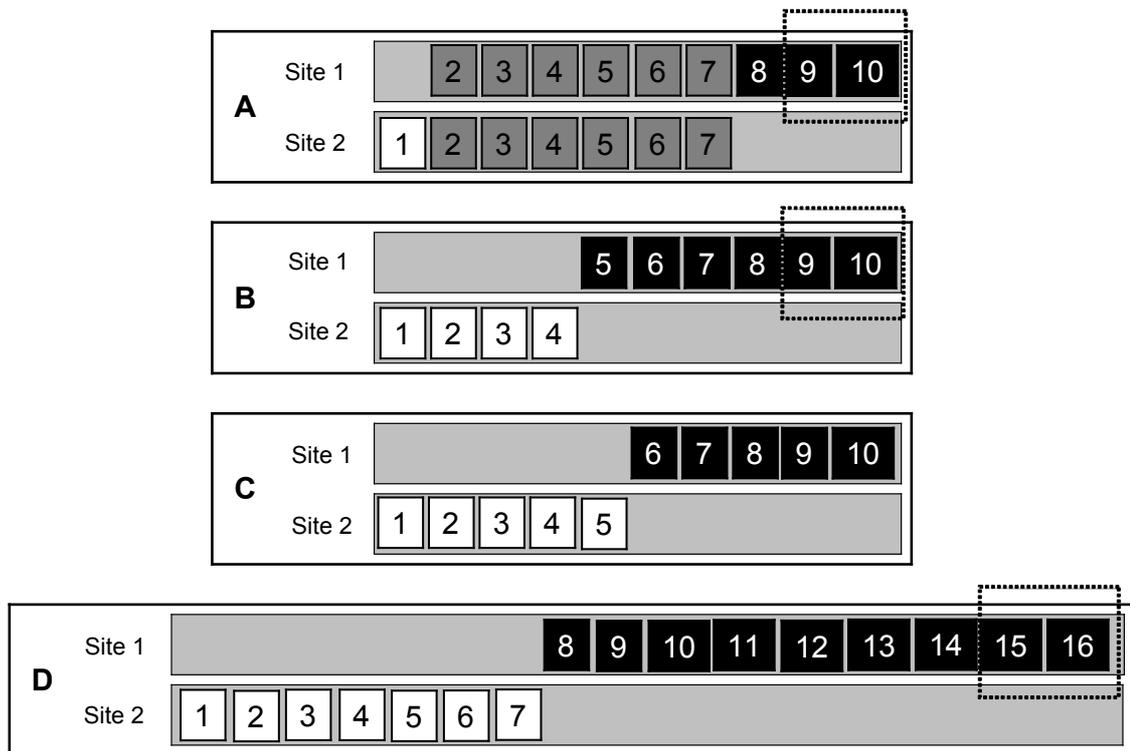
582 **Table 2.** Non-parametric multivariate analysis of variance using  $\beta_{sim}$ ,  $\beta_{nes}$ ,  $\beta_{jtu}$ ,  $\beta_{jne}$ ,  $\beta_{-3}$ ,  $\beta_{rich}$  for  
 583 endemic arthropod communities sampled at four land-use types (d.f. – degrees of freedom,  
 584 SS – sum of squares, MS – mean of squares, F – F-ratio,  $R^2$  – explained variation, P –  
 585 probability value obtained by 999 permutations).

		d.f.	SS	MS	F	$R^2$	P
$\beta_{sim}$	Land-use	3	2.303	0.768	5.185	0.393	0.001
	Residuals	24	3.553	0.148			
	Total	27	5.856				
$\beta_{nes}$	Land-use	3	0.248	0.083	2.641	0.248	0.120
	Residuals	24	0.752	0.031			
	Total	27	1.000				
$\beta_{jtu}$	Land-use	3	2.498	0.833	4.416	0.356	0.001
	Residuals	24	4.526	0.189			
	Total	27	7.024				
$\beta_{jne}$	Land-use	3	0.184	0.062	1.207	0.131	0.403
	Residuals	24	1.222	0.051			
	Total	27	1.407				
$\beta_{-3}$	Land-use	3	0.704	0.235	2.370	0.229	0.045
	Residuals	24	2.377	0.099			
	Total	27	3.081				
$\beta_{rich}$	Land-use	3	1.264	0.421	4.998	0.385	0.003
	Residuals	24	2.023	0.084			
	Total	27	3.287				

586

587

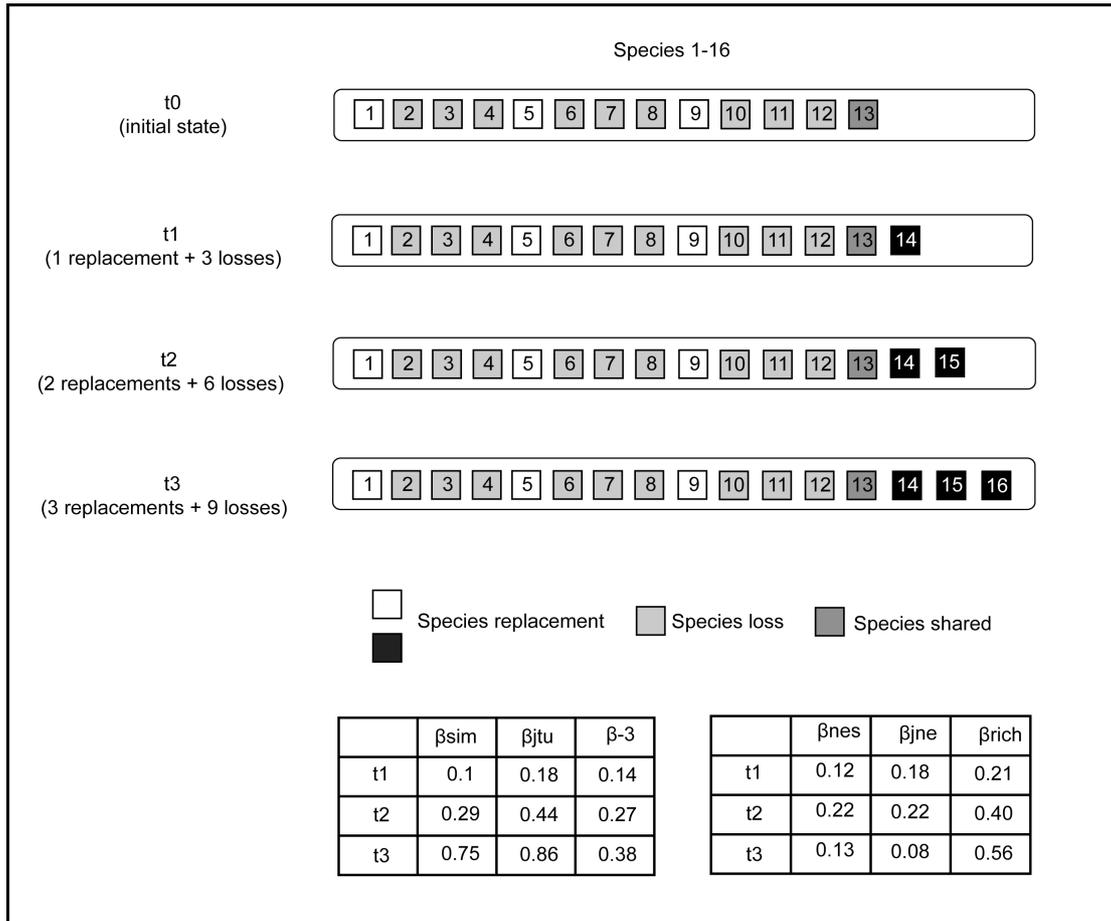




600  
601  
602  
603  
604  
605  
606  
607  
608  
609  
610  
611  
612  
613  
614  
615  
616  
617  
618  
619

**Figure 2.** Comparison of possibilities for determining the theoretical upper limit of species replacement for a pair of sites (**A**) in which absolute species replacement is 2, the number of species shared is 6, and richness difference is 2. If the total number of species is kept constant, then the number of shared species may be divided equally, i.e., species 2-4 go to site 2, species 5-7 go to site 1, thus giving a value of 8 (**B**). The second possibility is splitting the set of shared species to compensate for richness differences, i.e., species 2-5 go to site 2 and species 6-7 go to site 1, yielding 10 (**C**). We may also assume that site totals remain fixed, so that the total number of species raises to 16, yielding a maximum replacement value of 14 (**D**). Black: species unique to site 1, white: species unique to site 2, dark gray: shared species. Dotted boxes enclose species responsible for richness difference.

620

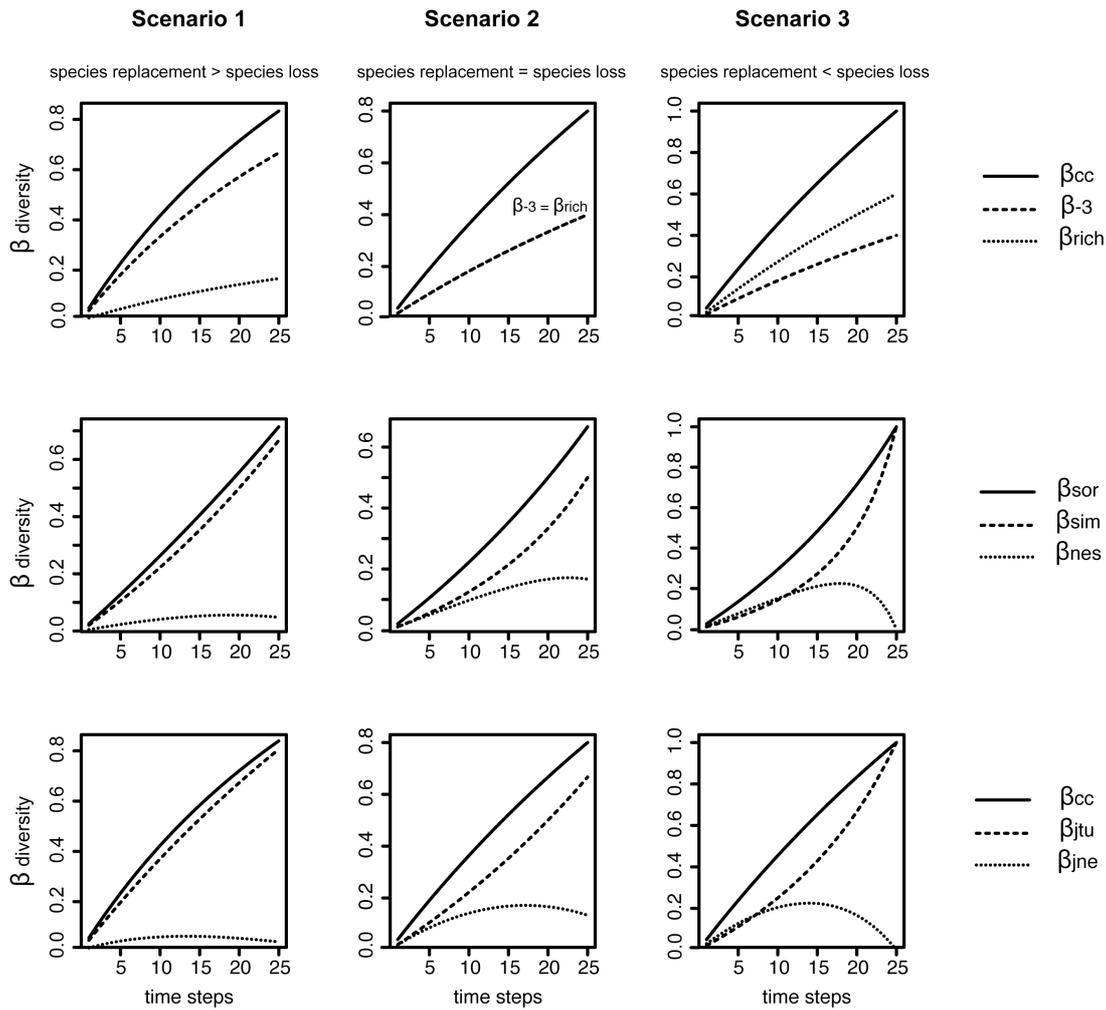


621

622 **Figure 3.** Simulation of a process of local extinctions in one site through time. Measures of  
 623 dissimilarity were calculated for three time steps (t1, t2 and t3) in comparison with an initial  
 624 state (t0). At each time step, one replacement (two species involved) and three losses  
 625 occurred, totalling three replacements and 9 losses at the final stage (t3). Note that  $\beta_{sim} > \beta_{nes}$   
 626 and  $\beta_{jtu} > \beta_{jne}$ , while  $\beta_{-3} < \beta_{rich}$ , when the loss of species is maximum and only three  
 627 replacements had occurred (t3) and the humped-shaped response of  $\beta_{nes}$  and  $\beta_{jne}$  to the loss  
 628 of species.

629

630



632

633

634 **Figure 4.** Response of  $\beta_{sim}$ ,  $\beta_{nes}$ ,  $\beta_{jtu}$ ,  $\beta_{jne}$ ,  $\beta_{-3}$ ,  $\beta_{rich}$  in three simulated scenarios of increasing  
 635 levels of species replacement and species loss along 25 time steps. In scenario 1, the  
 636 number of replacements and the number of losses were set to one at each step, since one  
 637 replacement involves two species, then species replacement > species loss. In scenario 2,  
 638 the number of replacements was set to one, while the number of losses was set to two at  
 639 each step, hence species replacement = species loss. For scenario 3, the number of  
 640 replacements was set to one and the number of losses was set to three at each step, thus  
 641 species replacement < species loss.

642

643