Individual-based multiple-unit dissimilarity: novel indices for assessing temporal

variability in community composition

Running title: Individual-based multiple-unit dissimilarity

Ryosuke Nakadai[*12]

[1] Department of Environmental and Biological Sciences, Faculty of Science and Forestry,

University of Eastern Finland, Yliopistokatu 7, 80101 Joensuu, Finland

[2] Department of Ecosystem Studies, Graduate School of Agricultural and Life Sciences,

The University of Tokyo,1-1-1 Yayoi, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-8657, Japan

* Correspondence: R. Nakadai

E-mail: r.nakadai66@gmai.com

Keywords: Individual, individual turnover, beta-diversity, multiple-temporal

dissimilarity

Abstract

1. Beta-diversity was originally defined spatially, i.e., as variation in community

composition among sites in a region. However, the concept of beta-diversity has since

been expanded to temporal contexts. This is referred to as "temporal beta-diversity",

and most approaches are simply an extension of spatial beta-diversity.

2. The persistence and turnover of individuals over time is a unique feature of temporal

beta-diversity. Nakadai (2020) introduced the "individual-based beta-diversity"

concept, and provided novel indices to evaluate individual turnover and compositional

shift by comparing individual turnover between two periods at a given site. However,

the proposed individual-based indices are applicable only to pairwise dissimilarity, not

to multiple-temporal (or more generally, multiple-unit) dissimilarity.

3. Here, individual-based beta-diversity indices are extended to multiple-unit cases.

4. To demonstrate the usage the properties of these indices compared to average

pairwise measures, I applied them to a dataset for a permanent 50-ha forest dynamics

plot on Barro Colorado Island in Panama.

5. Information regarding "individuals" is generally missing from community ecology

and biodiversity studies of temporal dynamics. In this context, the method proposed

here is expected to be useful for addressing a wide range of research questions

regarding temporal changes in biodiversity, especially studies using individual-tracked

forest monitoring data.

Introduction

The concept of beta-diversity was introduced by Whittaker (1960, 1972) to define the variation in community composition among sites in a region. Several other beta-diversity indices have subsequently been proposed (reviewed by Koleff et al., 2003, Anderson et al., 2011, Jost et al., 2011, Legendre & De Cáceres, 2013). Recent studies have focused on temporal changes in community composition at both single sites and multiple sites surveyed repeatedly over time (Magurran 2011, Legendre & Condit, 2019). Temporal changes in community composition are referred to as "temporal beta-diversity" (Hatosy et al., 2013, Legendre & Gauthier, 2014, Shimadzu et al., 2015), which is simply an extension of spatial beta-diversity. Only a few studies have focused on methodological developments of temporal beta-diversity (Shimadzu et al., 2015, Legendre, 2019, Nakadai, 2020). The persistence and turnover of individuals over time is a key feature of temporal beta-diversity (Magurran et al., 2019, Nakadai, 2020). The speed and frequency of compositional change over time is associated with the speed of individual turnover, and must be considered in community comparisons because even randomly high individual turnover can result in high temporal beta-diversity (Nakadai, 2020). To address this, Nakadai (2020) proposed the "individual-based beta-diversity" concept, and provided novel indices to evaluate individual turnover and compositional shift by comparing individual turnover between two periods at a given site.

Diserud and Ødegaard (2007) first proposed a multiple-site (or more generally, a multiple-unit) similarity measure, which has conceptual and methodological advantages over conventional approaches, which calculate average pairwise similarities (Koleff & Gaston, 2002; Gaston et al., 2007, Baselga et al., 2007). Average pairwise dissimilarity indices generally cannot take into account components shared among more than three units (i.e., sites or temporal units) (Baselga et al., 2007). Many dissimilarity indices have been extended to multiple-unit indices (Baselga, 2013, 2017).

The pairwise indices proposed by Nakadai (2020) are limited by the typical problems

associated with the application of multiple-unit datasets; in particular, the presence of

long-lived individuals resulted in underestimates of individual turnover when the

average values of the pairwise indices were used. Extending individual-based indices

to multiple-temporal datasets may allow accurate assessment of the temporal

variability of community composition based on individual turnover. Therefore, the

purpose of this paper was to develop new multiple-unit indices that can quantify

compositional variability across time according to the speed of individual turnover. I

extended individual-based beta-diversity indices to multiple units after briefly

reviewing the history of pairwise and multiple-unit indices. Then, I applied these

indices to data from a 50-h forest dynamics plot on Barro Colorado Island (BCI) in

Panama (Condit et al., 2019), as a case study to demonstrate the usage and properties of

indices compared to average pairwise measures.

Materials and methods

Conventional incidence-based and abundance-based indices and novel

individual-based indices

Two types of dissimilarity indices have been proposed in previous studies:

incidence-based and abundance-based dissimilarity indices (Baselga et al., 2013,

Nakadai, 2020). Specifically, the widely used Bray–Curtis dissimilarity index (Bray &

Curtis, 1957, which was originally proposed as a proportional difference index by

Odum (1950), is an abundance-based extension of the Sørensen index (Legendre &

Legendre, 1998, Baselga et al., 2013). Conventional beta-diversity indices are based on

intersection (*A*, *a*) and relative complement (*B*, *b* and *C*, *c*) components. For example,

the Sørensen dissimilarity index (d_{sor}; Sørensen, 1948) is formulated as follows:

$d_{sor} = \frac{b+c}{2a+b+c}$ 　　　　　　　　equation 1

101 where a is the number of species common to both sites, b is the number of species that

102 occur at the first but not the second site, and c is the number of species that occur at the

103 second but not the first site. Similarity, the Bray–Curtis dissimilarity index (Bray &

104 Curtis, 1957) is formulated as follows:

106 $d_{bc} = \frac{B+C}{2A+B+C}.$      equation 2

108 The abundance-based components are as follows:

109 $A = \sum_i \min(x_{ij}, x_{ik})$   equation 3a

110 $B = \sum_i x_{ij} - \min(x_{ij}, x_{ik})$    equation 3b

111 $C = \sum_i x_{ik} - \min(x_{ij}, x_{ik})$    equation 3c

113 where x_{ij} is the abundance of species i at site j, and x_{ik} is the abundance of species i at

114 site k. Therefore, A is the number of individuals of each species at both sites j and k,

115 whereas B and C are the numbers of individuals unique to sites j and k, respectively.

116  In Nakadai (2020), I developed an individual-based temporal beta-diversity

117 approach for the Bray–Curtis dissimilarity index (i.e., an abundance-based temporal

118 beta-diversity index). Over time, some individuals replace others, so ecological

119 communities are always dynamic and vary by at least some degree in space and time

120 (Mori et al., 2018). In addition, some individuals of long-lived species (e.g., trees and

121 vertebrates) persist over the long term, whereas individuals of short-lived species are

122 replaced by conspecifics or different species (Nakadai, 2020). Therefore, it should be

123 possible to distinguish the community dynamics component of persistence (P) from

124 those that change over time, i.e., mortality and recruitment (M and R, respectively). M

125 refers to individuals occurring at time 1 (abbreviated T1) that die before time 2

126 (abbreviated T2), thereby representing the death of individuals during the time

between T1 and T2. R identifies individuals that were not alive at T1 but were

subsequently found at T2, thereby representing R during the period between T1 and T2.

Component P refers to the persistence of individuals from T1 to T2. Although P, M,

and R relate to components A, B, and C, respectively, here I have used different

characters to emphasize the processes represented by each component. The respective

abundances were calculated as follows:

$\qquad P = \sum_o \min(z_{o1}, z_{o2}) \qquad$ equation 4a

$\qquad M = \sum_o z_{o1} - \min(z_{o1}, z_{o2}) \quad$ equation 4b

$\qquad R = \sum_o z_{o2} - \min(z_{o1}, z_{o2}) \quad$ equation 4c

where z_{l1} is individual o at time T1, and z_{o2} is individual o at time T2. Both z_{o1} and z_{o2}

take a value only of 1 or 0 (presence and absence, respectively). Therefore, P is the

number of individuals present at both T1 and T2, whereas M and R are the numbers of

individuals unique to T1 and T2, respectively (Nakadai 2020). This formulation of the

individual-based temporal beta-diversity index for Bray–Curtis (d_{MR}) dissimilarity can

be expressed as follows:

$\qquad d_{MR} = \frac{M+R}{2P+M+R} \qquad\qquad$ equation 5

$\qquad$ In some cases, there is turnover of different individuals belonging to the same

species even when the community composition is stable over time, which contributes

to a dynamic compositional equilibrium across time periods. Therefore, the

components that change over time (M and R) are separated into two further

components: compositional equilibrium (E) and shift (B and C), respectively (Nakadai

2020). Component M can be partitioned into lost individuals that contribute to

compositional change in a community (B) and lost individuals replaced by

conspecifics, contributing substantially to equilibrium in community composition

(E_{loss}). Similarly, component R can be partitioned into gained individuals that

contribute to compositional change in a community (C) and gained individuals

replacing conspecifics, thereby contributing substantially to equilibrium in community

composition (E_{gain}). By definition, the numbers of E_{loss} and E_{gain} individuals are

identical; hence, I replaced both E_{loss} and E_{gain} with the coefficient E, i.e., the

component that contributes to dynamic compositional equilibrium (Nakadai 2020).

Furthermore, components M and R can also be analyzed in the same manner as

community data (Nakadai, 2020). Therefore, the Bray–Curtis dissimilarity between

communities can be calculated based on M and R as follows:

$$v_s = \frac{B+C}{2E+B+C} = \frac{B+C}{M+R}. \qquad\qquad \text{equation 6}$$

where v_s indicates the speed of compositional shifts in a community relative to the total

speed of individual turnover associated with M and R. If v_s is 0, then individual turnover

would not contribute to compositional shifts in a community; i.e., M and R are identical,

and an equilibrium state exists. If v_s is 1, all individual turnovers contribute to

compositional shifts, and M and R are completely different. It is also possible to calculate

v_s as d_{BC}/d_{MR}, as follows:

$$\frac{d_{BC}}{d_{MR}} = \frac{B+C}{2A+B+C} \div \frac{M+R}{2P+M+R} = \frac{B+C}{2(P+E)+B+C} \div \frac{M+R}{2P+M+R} = \frac{B+C}{2P+M+R} \div \frac{M+R}{2P+M+R} = \frac{B+C}{2E+B+C} =$$

v_s equation 7

Conventional multiple-unit beta-diversity indices

Multiple-site dissimilarity indices were first proposed by Diserud and Ødegaard

(2007), and make it possible to consider species information shared among more than

three units using the inclusion–exclusion principle (Erickson, 1996). Since then,

various multiple-unit beta-diversity indices have been proposed (Baselga et al., 2007,

Baselga, 2013), including several new multiple-unit indices based on pairwise

dissimilarity indices (Baselga et al., 2007, Baselga, 2010, 2012, 2017). Specifically,

these multiple-unit dissimilarity indices share the A (a), B (b), and C (c) components of

indices based on abundance (incidence). a_{mu}, b_{mu}, and c_{mu} correspond to a, b, and c,

respectively, of incidence-based pairwise dissimilarity indices. These components are

as follows:

$a_{mu} = \sum_j S_j - S_T$ equation 8a

$b_{mu} = \sum_{j<k} \min(p_{jk}, p_{kj})$ equation 8b

$c_{mu} = \sum_{j<k} \max(p_{jk}, p_{kj})$ equation 8c

where S_j is the total number of species at site j, S_T is the total number of species at all sites

considered together, and p_{jk} and p_{kj} are the numbers of species exclusive to units j and k,

respectively, when compared pairwise (Baselga, 2010). Specifically, p_{jk} is the number of

individuals included in unit j but not in unit k, and *vice versa*.

A_{mu}, B_{mu}, and C_{mu} correspond to A, B, and C, respectively, from abundance-based

pairwise dissimilarity indices:

$A_{mu} = T_{AB} - \sum_i^S \max(x_{ij}, x_{ik}, x_{il}, x_{im}, x_{in} \dots)$ equation 9a

$B_{mu} = \sum_{j<k} \min\left(\sum_i^S [x_{ij} - \min(x_{ij}, x_{ik})], \sum_i^S [x_{ik} - \min(x_{ij}, x_{ik})]\right)$

equation 9b

$C_{mu} = \sum_{j<k} \max\left(\sum_i^S [x_{ij} - \min(x_{ij}, x_{ik})], \sum_i^S [x_{ik} - \min(x_{ij}, x_{ik})]\right)$

equation 9c.

where T_{AB} is the total abundance in the data set (details see Baselga, 2017).

Multiple-unit indices for Sørensen and Bray–Curtis are formulated as follows

(Baselga, 2010, 2013),

$d_{sor.mu} = \dfrac{b_{mu}+c_{mu}}{2a_{mu}+b_{mu}+c_{mu}}$ equation 10

$d_{BC.mu} = \dfrac{B_{mu}+C_{mu}}{2A_{mu}+B_{mu}+C_{mu}}.$ equation 11

Novel individual-based multiple-unit beta-diversity indices

In this study, I developed individual-based components and novel indices for

multiple-unit data sets, as follows:

$P_{mu} = \sum_j I_j - I_T$ equation 12a

$M_{mu} = \sum_{j<k} \min(q_{jk}, q_{kj})$ equation 12b

$R_{mu} = \sum_{j<k} \max(q_{jk}, q_{kj}).$ equation 12c

where I_j is the total number of individuals in a unit j, I_T is the total number of individuals

in all units considered together, and q_{jk} and q_{kj} are the numbers of individuals exclusive to

units j and k, respectively, when compared pairwise.

The multiple-unit individual-based index is formulated as follows:

$d_{MR.mu} = \dfrac{M_{mu}+R_{mu}}{2P_{mu}+M_{mu}+R_{mu}}.$ equation 13

Furthermore, as an extension of equation 9, I also introduced $v_{s.mu}$, which

indicates the compositional variability in a community relative to the individual

turnover, as follows:

$v_{s.mu} = d_{BC.mu}/d_{MR.mu}.$ equation 14

Case study: the permanent 50-ha forest dynamics plot on BCI in Panama

To demonstrate the use of the new individual-based multiple-unit indices, I analyzed

the data from Condit et al. (2019). The permanent 50-ha forest dynamics project plot

on BCI in Panama was established in 1981 by Robin Foster and Stephen Hubbell

(Hubbell & Foster, 1983). Data from this plot have been used in many scientific papers,

and descriptions of the area and survey methods are widely available (e.g., Legendre &

Condit, 2019). Some statistics about the plot are provided in Table 1. This 50-ha plot

has been subjected to eight detailed surveys since its inception: in 1982, 1985, 1990,

1995, 2000, 2005, 2010, and 2015. The BCI data were divided into 1,250 quadrats (20

m × 20 m). Harms et al. (2001) classified quadrats into six habitat zones and one mixed

zone (Table S1).

First, I calculated both the average values of individual-based beta-diversity

indices (d_{MR}, v_s) and newly developed multiple-unit indices ($d_{MR.mu}$, $v_{s.mu}$), and tested

the relationships using simple linear regression. Second, because high turnover can

result in high compositional variability within a community, I tested the relationship

between newly developed multiple-unit indices ($d_{MR.mu}$) and two previous ones ($d_{BC.mu}$,

$d_{sor.mu}$). Finally, I analyzed the difference in composition variability ($v_{s.mu}$) using the

Wilcoxon rank sum test, which allows for pairwise comparisons between groups with

correction for multiple testing. The p-values were adjusted by the Holm method. All

analyses were conducted in R software (ver. 4.0.3; R Development Core Team, 2020).

The *betapart* R package (Baselga & Orme, 2012) was used to calculate multiple-unit

versions of the Bray–Curtis and Sørensen dissimilarity indices, and the function

pairwise.wilcox.test was used to compare the differences among habitats.

Results

Simple linear regression showed a significant correlation between d_{MR} and $d_{MR.mu}$

(*adjusted-R²* = 0.971, *p* < 0.0001; Fig. 1a). A significant correlation between v_s and

$v_{s.mu}$ (*adjusted-R²* = 0.899, *p* < 0.0001; Fig. 1b) was also found. Both multiple-unit

indices were lower than the average values of the pairwise indices at all times. $d_{BC.mu}$

and $d_{sor.mu}$ increased significantly with increasing $d_{MR.mu}$ (*adjusted-R²* = 0.756, *p* <

0.0001 and *adjusted-R²* = 0.444, *p* < 0.0001, respectively; Fig. 2). The $v_{s.mu}$ differed

considerably among habitat zones, especially group 4 (swamp), which was

significantly different from all other habitats (Fig. 3, Table S2).

Discussion

Individual turnover is a major driver of compositional change and variability within a

community, although it has rarely been discussed. Higher individual turnover clearly

facilitates higher variability in community composition; thus, compositional variability

over time can occur even when considering only ecological drift. Hubbell's unified

neutral theory of biodiversity (Hubbell, 2001) postulates ecological neutrality among

species within communities and emphasized the role of ecological drift in biodiversity

patterns. To elucidate compositional variability, the impact of individual turnover (i.e.,

ecological drift) should be excluded. However, almost no methods exist to quantify the

impact of individual turnover on compositional variability.

The individual-based indices introduced herein can assess compositional

variability considering the contribution of individual turnover. The case study clearly

demonstrated that the novel individual-based index significantly correlated with

conventional incidence- and abundance-based indices (Fig. 2); however, variations

among communities still exist. The $v_{s.mu}$ (= $d_{BC.mu}/d_{MR.mu}$) differed among habitat zones,

especially for group 4 (swamp), which was significantly different from all other

habitats (Fig. 3, Table S1). Compositional change over time in this swamp habitat has

also been reported in terms of responses to a drought event at the BCI plot (Legendre

and Condit 2019). The present results indicated significant compositional variability in

the swamp even after controlling for individual turnover.

Although temporal beta-diversity has attracted attention (Magurran, 2011,

Magurran et al., 2019), it is simply an extension of spatial beta-diversity. Both

methodological and conceptual frameworks rooted in community dynamics should be

used. Above all, information from "individuals" has been absent from studies of

temporal dynamics in community ecology and biodiversity. In this context, the method

proposed here is expected to be useful for addressing a wide range of research

questions related to temporal changes in biodiversity, especially studies using

individual-tracked forest monitoring data. For example, tree censuses using identity

tags for individuals (Condit, 1998) have been conducted globally, and data are now

available for many forest plots across the world, for example from the Forest Global

Earth Observatory database ([https://forestgeo.si.edu/explore-data)](https://forestgeo.si.edu/explore-data) (Legendre &

Condit et al., 2019). It is expected that new methods for analyzing temporal variation in

biodiversity will continue to be developed, including null models that assume the

replacement of individuals.

Author contribution

R.N. conceived the study, designed the methods described herein, analyzed the

empirical data, and wrote the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

Financial support was provided by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science

(grant 18J00093).

Data Availability

Data   are   available   from   the   Dryad   Digital   Repository

(https://doi.org/10.15146/5xcp-0d46; accessed on 10th of April in 2020) (Condit et al.,

2019).

References

Anderson, M.J., Crist, T.O., Chase, J.M., Vellend, M., Inouye, B.D., Freestone, A.L.,

Sanders, N.J., Cornell, H.V., Comita, L.S., Davies, K.F., Harrison, S. P., Kraft,

N.J.B., Stegen, J. C. & Swenson, N. G. (2011). Navigating the multiple meanings

of β diversity: a roadmap for the practicing ecologist. *Ecol. Lett.,* 14, 19–28.

Baselga, A. (2010). Partitioning the turnover and nestedness components of beta

diversity. *Glob. Ecol. Biogeogr.*, 19, 134–143.

Baselga, A. (2012). The relationship between species replacement, dissimilarity

derived from nestedness, and nestedness. *Glob. Ecol. Biogeogr.*, 21, 1223–1232.

Baselga, A. (2013). Separating the two components of abundance–based dissimilarity:

balanced changes in abundance vs. abundance gradients. *Methods Ecol. Evol.*, 4,

552–557.

Baselga, A. (2017). Partitioning abundance‐based multiple‐site dissimilarity into

components: Balanced variation in abundance and abundance gradients. *Methods*

Ecol. Evol., 8, 799–808.

Baselga, A. & Orme, C. D. L. (2012). *betapart*: an R package for the study of beta

diversity. *Methods Ecol. Evol.*, 3, 808–812.

Baselga, A., Jiménez-Valverde, A., & Niccolini, G. (2007). A multiple-site similarity

measure independent of richness. *Biol. Lett.*, 3, 642–645.

Bray, J.R., & Curtis, J.T. (1957). An ordination of the upland forest communities of

southern Wisconsin. *Ecol. Monogr.*, 27, 325–349.

Brice, M.H., Cazelles, K., Legendre, P., & Fortin, M.J. (2019). Disturbances amplify

tree community responses to climate change in the temperate–boreal ecotone.

Glob. Ecol. Biogeogr., 28, 1668–1681.

Condit, R. (1998). Tropical forest census plots: methods and results from Barro

Colorado Island, Panama and a comparison with other plots. Springer Science &

Business Media.

Condit, R., Perez, R., Aguilar, S., Lao, S., Foster, R., Hubbell, S.P. (2019). Complete

data from the Barro Colorado 50-ha plot: 423617 trees, 35 years, 2019 version.,

Dryad, Dataset, https://doi.org/10.15146/5xcp-0d46

Diserud, O.H. & Ødegaard, F. (2007). A multiple-site similarity measure. *Biol. Lett.*, 3,

20–22.

Erickson, M.J. (1996). Introduction to Combinatorics. Wiley, New York, NY, USA.

Gaston K.J, Davies, R.G., Orme, C.D.L., Olson, V.A., Thomas, G.H., Ding, T.S.,

Rasmussen, P.C., Lennon, J.J., Bennett, P.M., Owens, I.P.F. & Blackburn, T. M.

(2007). Spatial turnover in the global avifauna. *Proc. R. Soc. B* 274, 1567–1574.

Harms, K.E., Condit, R., Hubbell, S. P., & Foster, R. B. (2001). Habitat associations of

trees and shrubs in a 50-ha neotropical forest plot. *J. Ecol.*, 89, 947–959.

Hatosy, S.M., Martiny, J.B., Sachdeva, R., Steele, J., Fuhrman, J.A., & Martiny, A.C.

(2013). Beta diversity of marine bacteria depends on temporal scale. *Ecology*, 94,

1898–1904.

Hubbell, S.P. (2001). The unified neutral theory of biodiversity and biogeography.

Princeton University Press.

Hubbell, S.P. & Foster, R.B. (1983). Diversity of canopy trees in a neotropical forest

and implications for conservation. In: Whitmore, T., Chadwick, A., & Sutton, A.

(eds). Tropical Rain Forest: Ecology and Management. The British Ecological

Society, Oxford, pp. 25–41.

Jost, L., Chao, A. & Chazdon, R. (2011). Compositional similarity and beta diversity.

Biological Diversity: Frontiers in Measurement and Assessment (eds A.

Magurran & B.J. McGill), Oxford University Press, Oxford, pp. 66–84.

Koleff, P. & Gaston, K.J. (2002). The relationships between local and regional species

richness and spatial turnover. *Global Ecol. Biogeogr.*, 11(5), 363–375.

Koleff, P., Gaston, K.J., & Lennon, J.J. (2003). Measuring beta diversity for

presence–absence data. *J. Anim. Ecol.*, 72, 367–382.

Legendre, P. & Condit, R. (2019). Spatial and temporal analysis of beta diversity in the

Barro Colorado Island forest dynamics plot, Panama. *For. Ecosyst.*, 6, 7.

Legendre, P. & De Cáceres, M. (2013). Beta diversity as the variance of community

data: dissimilarity coefficients and partitioning. *Ecol. Lett*, 16, 951–963.

Legendre, P. & Gauthier, O. (2014). Statistical methods for temporal and space–time

analysis of community composition data. *Proc. Roy. Soc. B.*, 281, 20132728.

Legendre, P. & Legendre, L. (1998). Numerical Ecology, 2ndedn. Elsevier,

Amsterdam.

Legendre, P. (2019). A temporal beta-diversity index to identify sites that have changed

in exceptional ways in space–time surveys. *Ecol. Evol.*, 9, 3500–3514.

Magurran, A. E. (2011). Measuring biological diversity in time (and space). *Biological*

Diversity: Frontiers in Measurement and Assessment (eds A. Magurran & B.J.

McGill), pp. 85–104. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

Magurran, A.E., Dornelas, M., Moyes, F., & Henderson, P. A. (2019). Temporal β

diversity–A macroecological perspective. *Glob. Ecol. Biogeogr.*, 28, 1949–1960.

Mori, A.S., Isbell, F., & Seidl, R. (2018). β-diversity, community assembly, and

ecosystem functioning. *Trends Ecol. Evol.*, 33, 549–564.

Nakadai, R. (2020). Degrees of compositional shift in tree communities vary along a

gradient of temperature change rates over one decade: application of an

individual-based temporal beta-diversity concept. *Ecol. Evol.*, 10, 13613–13623.

Odum, E.P. (1950). Bird populations of the Highlands (North Carolina) Plateau in

relation to plant succession and avian invasion. *Ecology*, 31, 587–605.

R Development Core Team (2020). R: a language and environment for statistical

computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.

http://www.R-project.org/.

Shimadzu, H., Dornelas, M., & Magurran, A.E. (2015). Measuring temporal turnover

in ecological communities. *Methods Ecol. Evol.*, 6, 1384–1394.

Sørensen, T. A. (1948). A method of establishing groups of equal amplitude in plant

sociology based on similarity of species content and its application to analyses of

the vegetation on Danish commons. *Biol. Skar.*, 5, 1–34.

Whittaker, R. H. (1960). Vegetation of the Siskiyou mountains, Oregon and California.

Ecol. Monogr., 30, 279–338.

Whittaker, R.H. (1972). Evolution and measurement of species diversity. *Taxon*, 21,

213–251.

Legends

Figure 1 Correlations between novel multiple-unit indices and the average values of

conventional pairwise indices (d_{MR}-$d_{MR.mu}$; *adjusted-R^2* = 0.971, $p < 0.0001$, v_s-$v_{s.mu}$;

adjusted-R^2 = 0.899, $p < 0.0001$)

Figure 2 Correlations between a novel individual-based multiple-unit index ($d_{MR.mu}$)

and conventional multiple-unit indices ($d_{BC.mu}$-$d_{MR.mu}$; *adjusted-R^2* = 0.756, $p < 0.0001$,

$d_{sor.mu}$-$d_{MR.mu}$; *adjusted-R^2* = 0.444, $p < 0.0001$).

Figure 3 Comparison of the composition variability ($v_{s.mu}$) among habitat zones using

the Wilcoxon rank sum test, which allows for pairwise comparisons between groups

with correction for multiple testing. The same letters indicate the same group based on

the p-values, which were adjusted by the Holm method. Detailed information on the

habitat zones is shown in Table S1.

 Figure 1

427 **Figure 2**

431   **Figure 3**

Appendices

Table S1 Habitat clarification in Harms et al. (2001). Group 1: old forest, low plateau; group 2: old forest, high plateau; group 3: old forest, slope; group 4: old forest, swamp; group 5: old forest, streamside; group 6: young forest; and group 7: mixed habitats.

Table S2 Results of the pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum test. The p-values were adjusted by the Holm method.

Supplementary File 1 R script for the individual-based multiple-unit beta-diversity calculations performed using sample data.