Title: The dimensionality of biological diversity revisited.

Gabriel Nakamura de Souza[1,2], Larissa Oliveira Gonçalves[2] and Leandro da

Silva Duarte[2].

[1] – Email: gabriel.nakamura.souza@gmail.com; Orcid ID
orcid.org/0000-0002-5144-5312

[2] – Departamento de Ecologia, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, CP

15007, Porto Alegre, RS 91501-970, Brazil.

Abstract

Biodiversity can be represented by a variety of different dimensions (e.g.

taxonomic diversity [operationalized mainly as species richness], functional

diversity, phylogenetic diversity, genetic diversity). While the many different

representations of biodiversity can lead to a more complete understanding of its

variability across scales, they also lead to some degree of "fragmentation" of

the concept, and do not provide insight into the intrinsic multidimensionality

embedded in biodiversity. Developing a unified measure that integrates all the

known dimensions of biodiversity is a theoretical solution for this problem;

however, it remains an operationally utopian task. In this study we explore the

concept of dimensionality of biological diversity and propose a way to

integrate different dimensions. We define dimensionality of diversity as the

number of dimensions needed to effectively describe biological diversity. We

also provide an operational framework to quantify the concept and an example

of the proposed framework using South American small mammal communities

(cricetids and marsupials). Our results demonstrate that the taxonomic

dimension of diversity captures most of the variation among these communities

across space, in detriment to the functional and phylogenetic dimensions of

diversity. We conclude by highlighting the need for considering two

components of dimensionality — the correlation among dimensions and

variance — in the same framework.

Keywords: biodiversity metrics, communities, biodiversity measurement,

correlation, variation.

Introduction

Biodiversity consists of the fundamental source of information that underlies all ecological studies, which justifies the efforts present in the agenda of ecological research to develop measures that properly operationalize the concept of biodiversity (Wilson 1989). This importance is reflected in the immensurable number of metrics that have appeared to date in an attempt to encompass all the variation in biodiversity. At the same time that the number of metrics to operationalize biodiversity grows and promotes the vast possibility of describing its different components, the same proliferation of metrics promotes what is best exemplified by the term coined by Hurlbert (1971) as the "non-concept of diversity".

Which components of diversity must diversity metrics (among those showing desirable statistical properties) represent in order to sufficiently express the variation underlying biodiversity? Searching for an answer to this question comprises the main goal of this article, and we believe that it must necessarily involve the adequate operationalization of a property of diversity named dimensionality (Lyashevska and Farnsworth 2012, Stevens and Tello 2014, Stevens and Gavilanez 2015). Dimensionality is a property of biodiversity that is related to the amount of information needed from different dimensions (e.g. taxonomic, functional or phylogenetic) to effectively describe its variation. Therefore, if the amount of information needed to effectively describe biodiversity comes from several different dimensions, the more dimensional it is (Stevens and Gavilanez 2015). Alternatively, if a single or

few dimensions provide the amount of information needed to effectively

describe biodiversity, then the less dimensional it is. In summary, analyzing the

dimensionality of biodiversity enables the assessment of how much

information we need from different sources of variation to effectively describe

what we call biodiversity (Stevens and Tello 2014).

Some approaches have already been proposed for quantifying the

dimensionality of biodiversity. The most recent involves the calculation of

Evenness of Eigenvalues (hereafter EE) (Stevens and Tello 2014). The

rationale of this method is straightforward and understandable through the

analogy colors (O. Lyashevska, non-published data). The great variety of

colors can be summarized in only three basic axes: red, green and blue, known

as the RGB system. These three colors comprise the minimum set of axes of

variation able to capture the amount of information present in a pallet of colors

(considering the basic color system). Calculating EE is like summarizing

numerous colors (metrics of diversity) to a minimum set that effectively

capture the most information (biodiversity). The higher the EE (the maximum

value is 1), the more axes needed (more primary colors), the lower the EE, the

fewer biodiversity measures needed (only a few primary colors).

Nonetheless, EE provides an incomplete picture for dimensionality of

biodiversity. While this measure helps to understand how correlated the metrics

are in a given set of communities, it is not able to reveal which dimensions

contribute most to the observed dimensionality. This problem is illustrated in

Figure 1. Circles and triangles represent two metacommunities for which two

metrics of diversity was calculated and plotted against each other (panel A). In

one scenario, biodiversity measures are highly correlated with each other

(HiC), while in the other scenario the same biodiversity measures minimally

correlated with each other (LoC scenario). Thus, communities in HiC and LoC

present low and high dimensionality (according to EE), respectively (panel B).

However, in the scenario HiC we can note that the metric 2 for triangles has a

much lower variance than metric 1 (high correlation and differential variation

among metrics – HiC/DifV). In contrast, both metric 1 and metric 2 present

similar variation for the circles (high correlation and similar variation among

metrics – HiC/EqV). In other words, EE did not distinguish the differential

contribution of the distinct metrics, since it relies only on the component of

correlation among metrics. A similar situation is expressed by the LoC

scenario, in which metric 1 has lower variation than metric 2 for triangle

communities while variation does not differ between the two metrics for the

circle communities (respectively, low correlation and differential variation

[Lo/DifV] and low correlation and equal variation [Lo/EqV]).

Through EE we can not distinguish the amount of variation that each

metric of diversity account to the entire metacommunity. A community can

present high values of correlation for diversity metrics however each metric

may account for a different amount of variation in the multidimensional space,

thus, to characterize a sufficient portion of variation in biodiversity for these

communities we must rely for more than one metric. This shed light to the

problem of use only EE to operationalize the dimensionality concept.

In order to overcome the problem illustrated in Figure 1, that EE do not

capture adequately the concept of dimensionality, a framework that combines

measures that capture both the component of correlation among metrics and the

component of variation among metrics must be used. The variation component

could be operationalized by applying a measure called Importance Value (IV)

(Willig and Hollander 1995, Wilsey et al. 2005). Importance Values allow the

biodiversity measures that are most important in capturing the information of

biodiversity contained in the entire set of metrics used to represent it to be

recognized. In Figure 1C we illustrate how the IV can distinguish the different

patterns of variation that metrics 1 and 2 present in metacommunities

represented by circles and triangles. We expect that IV for circle communities

present similar values for both metrics in both HiC and LoC scenarios, on the

contrary, for triangle communities we expected that metric 1 present higher IV

than metric 2 in HiC and lower values of IV in LoC.

Therefore, in this study, our aim is to propose a general framework to study

the dimensionality of biodiversity by extending the investigation of

dimensionality through the union of two different methods: EE and IV. The

scenarios proposed in Figure 1 can be interpreted as a logical test to access if

EE and IV can distinguish different patterns regarding the two components of

dimensionality, that are correlation and variation in biodiversity metrics, thus,

specifically, our objectives were to: 1) test, through numerical simulations, the

theoretical expectations presented in Figure 1 regarding EE and IV to assess

the dimensionality of communities; and 2) provide an empirical example of the

application of the measures of dimensionality with small mammal

communities, showing how the information of the presented framework for

dimensionality can be used.

Methods

Investigating the dimensionality of biodiversity: obtaining EE and IV

131   Our framework to investigate the dimensionality of biodiversity

comprises by three steps. The first step is to calculate the matrix of

biodiversity, hereafter called matrix **M** (*sensu* Ricotta 2005). In our work

matrix **M** will be contain three metrics of diversity: a measure of functional

diversity (FD [Petchey & Gaston, 2006)]), a measure of phylogenetic diversity

(PD [Faith, 1992]) and richness. We choose these three metrics since they

represent a sample of the metrics most used to represent, respectively, the

functional, phylogenetic and taxonomic dimensions, and thus comprise the

main accessed components of biological diversity in the ecological literature

(Magurran 2011). Furthermore, the specific choices of metrics to compose the

matrix **M** should not matter to the operationalization of dimensionality (for EE

metric), as pointed out by Stevens and Tello (2018), who found that using

different sets of diversity metrics to represent the same dimensions used here

did not affect their results. The second step involves performing a Principal

Component Analysis (PCA) of matrix **M**. As will be shown next, the

standardization method applied to matrix **M** must differ between the

calculation of EE and IV.

The third step is the calculation of the dimensionality metrics EE and

IV. The first is calculated by applying Camargo's evenness index over the

eigenvalues resulting from a PCA performed on a standardized matrix **M**

(metrics scaled to a mean of zero and equal variance), following the same

procedure used by Stevens and Gavilanez (2015). IV was calculated based on

Wilsey et al., (2005), by using numerical elements provided by a PCA of

matrix **M** standardized by the maximum values of each metric. This

standardization was done to remove the effect of different units of each

diversity metric without modify the original variation of the metrics. To obtain

IV for each metric in matrix **M** we apply Equation 1 to components returned

from the PCA, where IV_i represent the Importance Value for a given

biodiversity metric, r^2_{ij} is the correlation of metric i with principal component j

(PC_j) and R^2_j is the amount of variation that PC_j accounts for in ordination

space.

$$IV_i = \sum r^2_{ij} \times R^2_j \qquad \text{Equation 1}$$

We calculate both EE and IV for metacommunities simulated according

to the patterns of biodiversity metrics illustrated by the scenarios of Figure 1

(HiC/EqV], HiC/DifV, LoC/EqV and LoC/DifV) (but, for three biodiversity

metrics instead of two). We are interested in whether EE can correctly detect

the levels of redundancy in dimensions of diversity (high or low) and if IV can

identify differences in the contribution of each dimension of diversity. The

differences between IV must be lower in communities in which all metrics

possess similar variation (HiC/EqV and LoC/EqV, represented by circle

communities in Figure 1) and greater in scenarios in which only one, or a few

metrics, account for most of the variation in matrix **M** (HiC/DifV and

LoC/DifV, represented by triangle communities in Figure 1). Furthermore, EE

values must be equal in scenarios with equal and differential variation in

metrics importance but differ between scenarios HiC and LoC. An illustration

of the general framework to investigate dimensionality of diversity is presented

in Figure 2.

Simulation methodology

To test the theoretical expectations about EE and IV in the measurement

of dimensionality we simulated metacommunities according to a pattern-

oriented procedure to achieve specific patterns of correlation and variation

among metrics of biodiversity. We simulated scenarios that followed the

patterns presented in Figure 1: HiC/EqV - biodiversity metrics that are highly

correlated and with similar variation in dimensional space (illustrated in

Fig.1A, HiC with circles); HiC/DifV - biodiversity metrics that are highly

correlated but with variation among measures in multidimensional space being

due to one dimension (illustrated in Fig. 1A with triangles).

To generate the communities in scenario HiC/EqV and HiC/DifV we

followed a simulation procedure based on species distribution patterns

expected by the species sorting model (Leibold et al. 2004). Under this model,

species possess traits that allow them to persist in a community according to

some availability of resources present along a gradient.

The simulation procedure starts with a phylogeny simulated by a birth-

death processes (function *sim.bdtree* from package geiger [Harmon, Weir,

Brock, Glor, & Challenger, 2008]) and a species, chosen by chance, to colonize

the community and start the assembling procedure. The addition of species to

the community is dependent on the species already present in that community.

In one extreme of the gradient represented by communities that assemble the

metacommunity, some communities will possess only species that are

phylogenetically closely related to each other (the 10% most phylogenetically

related species), with the phylogenetic restriction becoming less until the other

extreme in which the communities will present species have the same

probability of being selected to coexist (less selective conditions), creating a

gradient of phylogenetic diversity in the metacommunity (a pattern expected by

a process of phylogenetic habitat filtering, *sensu* Duarte [2011]). Specifically,

in Scenario HiC/EqV, we simulate a trait that is continuously conserved over

the phylogenetic tree (Paradis, 2012) (a trait that evolves accordingly to a

Brownian model of evolution, using the function *rTraitCont* with the ρ [*rho*]

parameter set to value of 3) with the number of species in each community

increasing gradually (more phylogenetic filter, less species), creating a gradient

in phylogenetic, functional and taxonomic diversity in a metacommunity that

had high correlation and similar values of variation in diversity metrics. In

Scenario HiC/ DifV we simulated a trait that evolves according to a stabilizing

selection regime (Ornstein-Uhlebeck model with the strength of selection set

by α parameter with a value of 0.8) that restricts trait variation to bet within an

optimal range (represented by θ [theta] with value of 0). This allowed us to we

generate a metacommunity in which the metrics of diversity possess high

correlation, but variation of FD is much lower than that of the metrics Richness

and PD.

In Scenario LoC/ DifV, we simulated metacommunities according to the

same rationale as for HiC Scenario. We start with a phylogeny and then

generate traits following the same procedures described above, however, the

trait was generated to possess low phylogenetic signal and the phylogenetic

tree used to calculate PD for each community was modified to simulate a

process of evolution in which most speciation occurs near the root (a star-like

phylogeny). This procedure resulted in diversity metrics with low correlation,

and low variability for PD and Richness, since we set the same number of

species for all communities; most of the variation in this scenario is due to the

FD metric. Finally, the Scenario LoC/EqV was simulated in a manner by which

all species present in the phylogenetic tree had equal probability of being

present in any community in the metacommunity (no phylogenetic habitat

filtering acting on the assembly of the metacommunity). This procedure

generated metacommunities with low correlation and similar variation in the

diversity metrics.

We generated 999 metacommunities for each scenario described above

(HiC/EqV; HiC/DifV; LoC/EqV and LoC/DifV). In all scenarios the

metacommunities were composed of 50 communities, with each community

possessing a minimum of 20 and a maximum of 200 species. The phylogenetic

filter was applied to act gradually through the communities by increasing by

the order of 10% (i.e, start selecting only the 10% most phylogenetically

related species, then the 20% most and so on until 90% of the most related

species are selected. The details and an illustration of the simulation procedures

and scenarios are presented in Supplementary Material S1.

Finally, to test the differences in importance of each dimension in each

one of the scenarios presented above we used compare the IV values with a

graphical tool called profile of importance (*sensu* Wilsey et al. 2005) and

obtained F values from a linear model (Equation 2) that compare the IV of the

three dimensions to test the magnitude of differences among dimensions of

diversity for EqV and DifV scenarios.

Assessing dimensionality of biodiversity in small mammal communities

To illustrate the application of the dimensionality framework, we used a

database of small mammal communities (marsupial and cricetid mammals)

distributed throughout the South America continent. We consider the same

three dimensions of diversity used in the simulation analysis (taxonomic,

phylogenetic and functional, represented by Richness, PD and FD,

respectively) to assemble matrix **M.** The EE and IV metrics were calculated as

previously described in the section *Investigating the dimensionality of*

biodiversity: obtaining EE and IV, although we used only the first axis of

variation provided by the PCA of matrix **M** to calculate the IV metric.

We calculated EE using the procedures described by Stevens and Tello

(2014) and Stevens and Gavilanez (2015), except we did not use a stop

criterion for choosing axes derived from the PCA, since we were working with

a matrix that possess only three dimensions, which is near the minimum needed

to obtain any evenness metric.

We also compare the observed values of EE with a null distribution

composed of 999 EE values generated according to two null models. The first

null model randomizes a matrix of incidence of species preserving the

differences in richness among sites, but shuffling species equiprobably (*sim3*

function in *EcoSimR* package [Gotelli, 2000]). The second null model

randomizes a matrix of incidence preserving both differences in species

richness among sites and species frequency (*sim9* function in *EcoSimR*

package). Null analysis of EE allows testing the null hypothesis that the

observed EE do not differ from a given variation in species richness; in other

words, failure to reject the null hypothesis means that the observed EEs can be

explained by variation in richness among localities. We implemented a

function named *dimensionality* to calculate EE from a matrix **M** with the

possibility of choosing the evenness method that will be used in the calculation

(the function can be accessed at

https://github.com/GabrielNakamura/dimensionality_function).

To calculate IV for the metacommunities of small mammals we applied

the R code for IV function, *ImportanceVal*, (the function can be accessed at

https://github.com/GabrielNakamura/IV_function/blob/master/ImportanceVal.

R). We used the Kaiser-Gutmann stop criterion and a bootstrap procedure to

generate confidence intervals for the IV of each dimension. We made all the

calculations with a standardized matrix **M** (scale to zero mean and unit

variance in the case of EE and standardized by the maximum values of each

metric for calculating IV for reasons were explained in the previous section).

The bootstrapped IV was submitted to an Ordinary Least Square (OLS) linear

model (Equation 2) to test the null hypothesis that IV do not differ among

dimensions of diversity.

$IV_i = \alpha + \beta * dimension_i + \varepsilon_i$ Equation 2

In Equation 1 IV_i represents the predicted value of IV for dimension i, resulting

from the sum of the intercept α and the effect of the dimension i (β_i). ε_i

represents the error term associated with residuals, that follows a gaussian

distribution.

Results

Simulated data

299   Our simulation shows that EE and IV behave as we predicted according

the scenarios tested. EE did not differ between scenarios HiC/DifV and

HiC/EqV (Figure 1A). Relative to IV, HiC/DifV presented greater differences

than the differences among IV of metrics in HiC/EqV, as expressed through the

distribution of F values from the two scenarios (Figure 1C).

The results for scenarios LoC also behaved as we predicted, with EE not

differing between LoC/DifV and LoC/EqV (Figure 2B), and IV having higher

differences in the scenario that possessed different contributions (LoC/DifV)

than the scenario with similar contributions of dimensions (LoC/EqV), as can

be seen in the boxplot D of Figure 2 through the magnitude of F values.

Finally, comparing EE values between scenarios HiC and LoC shows greater

values of EE in LoC than HiC, revealing the difference in the correlation

component of dimensionality between the two scenarios.

Small mammal communities

Calculation of EE for the small mammal communities resulted in an

observed value of 0.46. Figure 4 reveals that the correlation component of

dimensionality, at least for the three dimensions analyzed (functional,

phylogenetic and taxonomic), may be due to spatial gradients in species

richness.

Following our proposed framework, the IV metric is illustrated in Figure 5

through what we call Importance Values profile (*sensu* Willig and Hollander,

1995). The analysis of IV showed that the taxonomic dimension, represented

by richness, captures most of the variation component of dimensionality of

diversity, with a value of 0.32, followed by the phylogenetic dimension (PD)

with 0.29 and the functional dimension (FD) with 0.22. These values represent,

respectively, 38%, 34% and 26% of the total variation in the significant axis

selected for the IV analysis of matrix **M** (only the first axis was selected

according to the Kaiser-Guttman criterion). Furthermore, the ANOVA model

showed that IV differed significantly (F-value= 3.428; $p<0.05$), reinforcing the

greater contribution of richness in capturing most of the variation in the

dimensionality of communities of cricetids and marsupials.

Discussion

Our simulations clearly demonstrate the need to using EE and IV in a

complementary manner, since a single value of EE can be found for

communities possessing different rankings of importance of dimensions, as we

demonstrated through simulated communities in scenarios of high and low

correlations between metrics (HiC and LoC). The IV showed to be effective in

quantifying and detecting the differences in the contribution of each dimension.

Given these findings, our framework represents a step beyond the frameworks

proposed by Stevens and Tello (2014 and 2018) and Stevens and Gavilanez

(2015) in two ways. First, it allows accessing the variation component of

dimensionality of diversity, and second by providing, as far as we know, the

first formal statistical test to evaluate the behavior of EE and IV.

Despite the use of only three dimensions in the present work, the

methods used here are highly flexible in the sense that we can use a matrix **M**

that contains many more dimensions (Ricotta 2005). Therefore, in other words,

we could represent diversity in a much more complete manner with metrics

that capture other dimensions, such as the genomic dimension (*e.g.* Nei 1978),

and so many others (*e.g.* Gotelli et al. 2012) that can be quantified and used to

assess the dimensionality present in ecological communities. Including these

dimensions will allow assessing the contribution of other metrics to capturing

the information of communities and whether these metrics account for a

complementary source of information relative to the phylogenetic, functional

and taxonomic dimensions.

Our example using the dimensionality framework with small mammal

communities showed that cricetids and marsupials possess low dimensionality

and that the observed value can be explained by variation in the taxonomic

dimension (represented by richness). These findings differ from those of

Stevens and Gavilanez (2015), who found the dimensionality of bat

communities to be significantly more dimensional than expected by null

models (the same null models used in the present work), although the observed

value was lower than that observed in the present study. This difference

between the present study and that performed by Stevens and Gavilanez

(2015), evidence that the correlation component of dimensionality of diversity

can change depending on the taxonomic group being investigated and that the

factors generating this correlation can also be differ.

Our results for IV with the small mammal communities were in contrast

with the findings of Wilsey et al (2005) and Lyashevska and Farnsworth

(2002), who concluded that richness to be of less importance than other

diversity metrics. So, we have evidence indicating that the variation component

of dimensionality, in addition to the correlation component, presents specific

patterns depending on the taxonomic group being investigated, highlighting the

need to understand the contingencies in the correlation and variation

components of dimensionality of different communities.

Conclusion and future directions

The main take home message of the present study is an updated

definition of the concept of dimensionality for ecological communities

(Stevens and Tello 2014) by including the variation component and

operationalize it though EE and IV. Thus, an effective investigation of

dimensionality must involve assessing both correlation and variation among

metrics of diversity.

Since the evidence presented in the literature is limited, and based only

on specific groups of organisms, some questions still need to be addressed to

render a more complete understanding and generalization of the role of some

factors in explaining the dimensionality of ecological communities. For

instance, we might wonder if some dimensions of diversity are consistently

more informative than others in describing diversity patterns among different

taxa, or if distinct factors (historical, evolutionary and/or ecological) generate

higher or lower levels of dimensionality of diversity across communities in

predictable ways.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank W Ulrich and one anonymous review for invaluable

suggestions in previous versions of the manuscript, V Debastiani for

suggestions in simulation methodology and E Wild for prof-reading the

english. GN received PhD. fellowship from CAPES and LDSD research

activities has been supported by CNPq Productivity fellowships. The authors

have no conflict of interest to declare.

References

Duarte, L. D. S. 2011. Phylogenetic habitat filtering influences forest nucleation in
grasslands. - Oikos 120: 208–215.

Faith, D. P. 1992. Conservation evaluation and phylogenetic diversity. - Biol.
Conserv. 61: 1–10.

Gaston, K. J. 1996. What is biodiversity?. - In: Gaston K.J. (ed.), Biodiversity: a

biology of numbers and difference. Blackwell Science, pp. 1–9.

Gotelli, N. J. et al. 2013. Environmental proteomics, biodiversity statistics, and food-

web structure. – Trends Ecol. Evol. 27: 436-442.

Lyashevska, O. and Farnsworth, K.D. 2012. How many dimensions of biodiversity do

we need?. - Ecol. Indic. 18: 485–492.

Magurran, A. and McGill, B.J. 2010. Biological Diversity: frontiers in measurement

and assessment. - Oxford Univ. Press.

Magurran, A.E. 1988. Ecological Diversity and its Measurement. - Princeton Univ.

Press.

Naeem, S. 2002. Ecosystem consequences of biodiversity loss: the evolution of a

paradigm. – Ecology 83: 1537-1552.

Nanney, D. 2004. No Trivial Pursuit. - Bioscience 54: 720–721.

Petchey, O.L. and Gaston, K.J. 2002. Functional diversity (FD), species

richness and community composition. – Ecol. Lett. 5: 402-411.

Purvis, A. and Hector, A. 2000. Getting the measure of biodiversity. - Nature 405:

212–219.

Ricotta, C. 2005. Through the jungle of biological diversity. - Acta Biotheor. 53: 29-

38.

421 Stevens, R.D. and Gavilanez, M.M. 2015. Dimensionality of community structure:

422 phylogenetic, morphological and functional perspectives along biodiversity and

423 environmental gradients. – Ecography. 38: 861–875.

424 Stevens, R.D. and Tello, J.S. 2014. On the measurement of dimensionality of

425 biodiversity. - Glob. Ecol. Biogeogr. 23: 1115-1125.

426 Tucker, C.M. and Cadotte, M.W. 2013. Unifying measures of biodiversity:

427 understanding when richness and phylogenetic diversity should be congruent. -

428 Divers. Distrib. 19:845–854.

429 Whittaker, R.H. 1972. Evolution and Measurement of Species Diversity. - Taxon 21:

430 213–251.

431 Willig, M.R. and Hollander, R.R. 1995. Secondary sexual dimorphism and

432 phylogenetic constraints in bats: a multivariate approach. - J. Mammal. 76: 981–992.

433 Wilsey, B.J. et al. 2005. Relationships among indices suggest that richness is an

434 incomplete surrogate for grassland biodiversity. - Ecology 86: 1178–1184.

436 **Figures captions**

437 Figure 1: A) Relationships between two diversity metrics from two metacommunities

438 – circles that represent the Equal Variation and triangles that represents Different

439 Variation among biodiversity metrics. These metacommunities can present high

440 correlation among metrics (HiC) and low correlation among metrics (LoC). B)

441 Evenness of eigenvalues (EE). C) Importance Values (IV).

442 Figure 2: General framework to investigate dimensionality of diversity through the

443 calculation of the metrics EE and IV. Starting with a set of communities, metrics of

diversity are calculated to assemble matrix **M** (step 1). A PCA of matrix **M** (step 2) is

then performed and the measures of dimensionality of diversity calculated (step 3).

Details for the calculation of IV and EE are provided in the text of the Methods

section Investigating the dimensionality of biodiversity: obtaining EE and IV.

Figure 3: Profile of importance for IV and EE metric (bar plots A and B) calculated

for simulated metacommunities according to scenarios HiC and LoC. For each of

these scenarios we presented situations in which the metrics either had similar

contributions or had different contributions to dimensionality (respectively EqV and

DifV). Boxplots C and D represent the F-value distributions from linear models for

scenarios HiC/DifV, HiC/EqV, LoC/DifV and LoC/EqV.

Figure 4: Histogram of null EEs. The dotted lines represent the 25% and 95% of the

null distribution. The solid lines represent the observed EE, indicating that observed

EE does not differ from the null models.

Figure 5: IV profile of communities of marsupial and cricetid mammals of South

America. Bar height correspond to the observed IV for each dimension while the lines

represent the 95% confidence intervals generated by a bootstrap procedure.

Dimensions of biodiversity

Taxonomic   Phylogenetic   Functional

metric 1   metric 2   metric 3

Comm 1
Comm 2
Comm 3
.
Comm n

Matrix **M**

Communities

Step 1

PCA of matrix **M**

PC1

PC2

calculation of dimensionality metrics

Step 2

Evenness of Eigenvalues (EE)

Importance Values (IVs)

Step 3