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Rarefaction of beta diversity

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27	Abstract. Beta diversity has long been used to summarize the amount of variation in species
28	composition among a set of N sampling units. However, while classical beta diversity provides an

estimate of multiple-site dissimilarity among all sampling units, it is not informative on the changes

of multiple-site dissimilarity as a function of sampling effort. For gamma diversity, this pattern is 30 usually represented as a species accumulation curve, which is the graph of the number of observed 31 species when the number of plots varies from 1 to N. Here, we will show that species accumulation 32 33 curves may also be used to summarize directional and non-directional beta diversity as a function of sampling effort. The behavior of the proposed measures of beta diversity is illustrated with one 34 worked example on plant species in Mediterranean coastal vegetation. We believe this approach to 35 36 the measurement of beta diversity provides a relevant contribution to summarize multiple-site 37 dissimilarity as the result of a species turnover process, rather than as a static indicator. For directional species accumulation curves, the method, for which we provide a custom R function, 38 39 further allows summarizing the spatial autocorrelation in species composition among plots along an a-priori defined spatial, temporal or environmental gradient. 40

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42 Keywords: Community turnover; Directional and non-directional accumulation curves; Effective
43 number of plots; Number of species; Spatial autocorrelation.

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45 Introduction

Whittaker (1960, 1972) introduced the concept of beta diversity (the amount of variation in 46 species composition among a set of sampling units) for linking mean local-scale diversity (or alpha 47 diversity) to the diversity of the broader regional species pool (gamma diversity). Since then beta 48 diversity has become a primary tool for connecting the spatial structure of species assemblages to 49 ecological processes and there is a huge literature on its measurement and summarization (for a 50 review, see e.g. Tuomisto 2010a, 2010b; Anderson et al. 2011). According to Whittaker's proposal, 51 given a community composition matrix of S species in N plots (or sampling units), beta-diversity 52 can be calculated as the ratio of the diversity of the pooled set of plots and mean species diversity 53 within each plot, such that $\beta = \gamma/\alpha$. This metric of beta diversity summarizes multiple-site 54 dissimilarity within the community composition matrix. However, it does not provide any 55

information on the changes of multiple-site dissimilarity when the number of plots varies from 1 to 56 N. For gamma diversity, this variation is traditionally represented as a species accumulation curve, a 57 graph of the number of observed species as a function of sampling effort or the area sampled 58 59 (Gotelli and Colwell 2001). In this view, the species accumulation curve represents gamma diversity as the outcome of the sampling process rather than as a fixed summary statistic. A 60 distinction is usually made between directional and non-directional accumulation curves: directional 61 62 curves summarize how species accumulate along an a-priori defined spatial, temporal or environmental gradient. By contrast, non-directional curves measure turnover in community 63 structure without reference to any specific gradient. 64

65 In this paper, we show that species accumulation curves may also be used for summarizing directional and non-directional beta diversity. While beta diversity measures have been developed 66 for a long time, there is a knowledge gap on how multiple-site dissimilarity changes in relation to 67 sampling effort. The present manuscript fills this gap and shows how species accumulation curves 68 can be used to summarize beta diversity as a function of sampling effort. This can be very useful to 69 70 researchers attempting to identify the necessary sampling effort to correctly characterize betadiversity. We also show that comparing the directional beta diversity of a given set of plots with its 71 non-directional counterpart provides a measure of the spatial autocorrelation of species composition 72 among plots induced by the non-random species sorting along the ecological gradient. 73 The paper is organized as follows: first, we present an overview on directional and non-74

directional species accumulation curves and their associated beta diversity measures. Next, to show
the behavior of the proposed measures, a worked example is used with data on plant species cover
in 68 plots of Mediterranean coastal vegetation.

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79 Methods

80 Non-directional species accumulation curves and beta diversity

81 Sample-based accumulation curves are constructed for a set of *N* equal-sized plots by plotting

82 the number of detected species S when the number of sampled plots increases from 1 to N (Scheiner

2003; Scheiner et al. 2011). For non-directional curves, it is assumed that the position of the plots in 83 physical or environmental space is irrelevant. Therefore, accumulation curves are generally 84 constructed via permutation procedures by randomly resampling the N plots and then plotting the 85 average number of species found in 1, 2, ..., N plots (Gotelli and Colwell 2001; Colwell et al. 2004). 86 For standard resampling without spatial constraints, a mathematical expression for sample-based 87 88 accumulation curves was first derived by Shinozaki (1963) and then independently re-discovered by 89 several authors in the 1970s and then again in the 2000 (for a review, see Chiarucci et al. 2008). For 90 species incidence (presence and absence) data, the average number of species detected by sampling all possible combinations of M equal-sized plots randomly and without replacement from a larger 91 92 set of N plots, is given by:

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$$S_{M} = \sum_{i=1}^{S} \left[1 - \frac{\binom{N-N_{i}}{M}}{\binom{N}{M}} \right] = S - \sum_{i=1}^{S} \left[\frac{\binom{N-N_{i}}{M}}{\binom{N}{M}} \right]$$
(1)

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where S_M is an estimator of the number of species in the *M* plots, *S* the total number of species in the entire set of *N* plots $(N \ge M)$, and N_i the number of plots that contain species *i*. The binomial $\rho_{iM} = {\binom{N-N_i}{M}} / {\binom{N}{M}}$ is the probability that species *i* is not present in a randomly selected

98 ratio $\binom{M}{i} \binom{M}{i}$ is the probability that species *i* is not present in a randomly selected 99 sample of M plots. Therefore, $\rho_{iM} = 0$ for $M > N - N_i$.

Species accumulation curves have been used for comparing species richness in assemblages of various sizes after rarefaction to a common level sampling effort or sample completeness (Gotelli and Colwell 2001; Colwell et al. 2004; Chao and Jost 2012), and for extrapolating species richness to a larger area sampled (Colwell et al. 2012; Chao et al. 2014, 2015). Eq. 1 is also used for constructing individual-based accumulation curves relating the estimated number of species to the number of sampled individuals. In this case, *M* and *N* represent the sampled number of individuals
and the overall population size, respectively (Hurlbert 1971; Simberloff 1972).

The estimated number of species S_M represents the gamma diversity in the *M* plots: $\gamma_M = S_M$. By contrast, alpha diversity does not change with *M* being always equal to S_1 . This is easily shown considering that in Eq. 1 each plot appears an equal number of times for the calculation of S_M , irrespective of the value of *M*, such that $\alpha_M = S_1$ (see Ricotta et al. 2012, Appendix S3). From S_M and S_1 we can calculate an index of beta diversity for all values of *M* as (Chao et al. 2014):

$$\beta_M = \frac{S_M}{S_1} = \frac{\gamma_M}{\alpha_M}$$
(2)

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According to Jost (2007), β_M can be interpreted as an 'effective number' of communities or plots, the theoretical number of fully-distinct plots (no shared species) with mean species richness equal to α_M needed to produce the given value of beta diversity (see also Wilson and Shmida 118 1984).

Like the original species accumulation curve, the curve of beta diversity built from the β_M 119 values is a concave and increasing function of M (proof in Appendix 1). Therefore, the graph of β_M 120 vs. *M* shows how the effective number of plots accumulates with sampling effort. Note however 121 that β_M summarizes multiple-site dissimilarity among plots in the range [1, M]. This range is 122 intuitively related to the very meaning of β_M as the effective number of maximally distinct plots. 123 124 For a community composition matrix of S species x N plots, if all plots are compositionally identical, then $\beta_M = 1$ irrespective of the value of *M*. In that case, since $\alpha_M = \gamma_M$, one single 125 'effective' plot is enough to produce the observed value of β_M . By contrast, if the plots do not have 126

any species in common, $\beta_M = M$, meaning that M maximally distinct plots with mean species 127 richness α_M are needed to obtain the observed value of β_M . Therefore, since the range of β_M 128 depends on M, the effective numbers of plots cannot be used for comparing beta diversity for 129 different values of *M*. To remove this dependence, beta must first be rescaled onto the unit interval 130 (Chao et al. 2012; Ricotta and Pavoine 2015). The simplest way to rescale a given quantity X 131 between zero and one is to use the linear transformation $(X - X_{\min})/(X_{\max} - X_{\min})$. This 132 transformation gives a normalized measure of non-directional beta diversity (Harrison et al. 1992; 133 134 Jost 2007):

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$$\beta_{\eta} = \frac{\beta_M - 1}{M - 1} \tag{3}$$

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which can be interpreted as the average proportion of non-overlapping species in the *M* plots. When 138 M = 2, it reduces to the classic Sørensen dissimilarity coefficient. The normalized measure β_{η} 139 summarizes beta diversity in a fixed range of values ($0 \le \beta_{\eta} \le 1$) that is independent of *M*. That is, 140 the minimum and maximum values that β_{η} can take are fixed constants that do not depend on the 141 number of accumulated plots M. This lack of systematic constraints between β_{η} and M ensures that 142 β_{η} can be used for comparing multiple-site dissimilarity at different values of M. For additional 143 normalized dissimilarity measures of beta diversity, see Chao and Chiu (2016). 144 Normalization removes the (undesired) dependence of the range of β_{η} on *M*. However, it does 145 not eliminate the dependence of beta on sampling effort, which is the main assumption of this 146 paper. Therefore, for a given set of plots N, the variation in species composition β_{η} decreases as a 147 function of the number of plots sampled (proof in Appendix 1). Due to this decreasing pattern, 148

149 calling the graph of β_{η} vs. *M* an 'accumulation curve' is not the most appropriate choice. 150 Therefore, like in Wilson and Shmida (1984), we use for these curves the more neutral term of 151 'community turnover' curves.

152 Directional species accumulation curves and beta diversity

The examination of turnover in species composition along a gradient requires explicit consideration of the order of plots in physical or environmental space (Vellend 2001). To this end, given N plots ordered along a predefined gradient of interest, starting from one end of the gradient we can construct a directional species accumulation curve by sequentially adding the plots one after the other along that gradient and plotting the cumulative number of species found in 1, 2, ..., Nplots.

Because each directional accumulation curve is case-specific and depends on the distribution of plots along a user-defined gradient, it cannot be derived theoretically and a mathematical expression for this curve does not exist. Therefore, the values of alpha and gamma diversity along the gradient need to be calculated separately for each curve based on the specific order of plots. Beta diversity for all values of *M* can then be calculated as above:

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$$\vec{\beta}_M = \frac{\vec{\gamma}_M}{\vec{\alpha}_M} \tag{4}$$

166 and

$$\vec{\beta}_{\eta} = \frac{\vec{\beta}_{M} - 1}{M - 1}$$
(5)

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where the arrows on alpha, beta and gamma denote the directional nature of the turnover process. Unlike a non-directional accumulation curve, in the directional case the value of $\vec{\alpha}_M$ (i.e. the mean number of species in the *M* plots) is not constant. Rather, like $\vec{\gamma}_M$, it depends on the order of the plots along the gradient. Accordingly, the order in which individual plots are added affects the shape of the resulting accumulation curve, such that directional beta $\vec{\beta}_{\eta}$ is not necessarily a monotonically decreasing function of *M*. To complete the picture, 'constrained' species accumulation curves which account for the arrangement of plots in physical or environmental space were introduced by Scheiner (2003, his Type IIIA curves) and first explored by Chiarucci et al. (2009). Order-free accumulation curves tend to overestimate the rate of increase in species richness because they ignore the autocorrelation of species composition among the sampling units. In contrast, constrained accumulation curves describe the increase in species richness as a function of both the sampling effort and the autocorrelation in species composition among plots.

In building a constrained accumulation curve, adjacent sampling units are combined step by step 182 using the spatial or environmental proximity among plots as a constraining factor. Given a set of N 183 plots, for each plot a directional species accumulation curve is constructed by sequentially adding 184 the first, second, ..., k-th nearest neighbor. This procedure is repeated for all N plots, generating N 185 directional accumulation curves from which a mean constrained curve is calculated (Chiarucci et al. 186 2009; Bacaro et al. 2016). The resulting curve is thus an intermediate solution between a non-187 directional accumulation curve in which all possible combinations of 1, 2, ..., M plots are used for 188 building the curve and a pure directional curve in which the N plots are ordered along a single 189

190 spatial or environmental gradient.

Denoting by $\vec{\gamma}_{jM}$ and $\vec{\alpha}_{jM}$ the gamma and alpha diversity of the *j*-th directional community turnover curve (*j* = 1, 2, ..., *N*), the constrained beta diversity $\vec{\beta}_M$ for a sequence of *M* plots can be calculated in analogy to Eq. 2 as the ratio of mean gamma to mean alpha:

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$$\overline{\beta}_{M} = \frac{\overline{\gamma}_{M}}{\overline{\alpha}_{M}} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \overline{\gamma}_{jM} / N}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \overline{\alpha}_{jM} / N}$$
(6)

such that

$$\overline{\beta}_{\eta} = \frac{\beta_M - 1}{M - 1} \tag{7}$$

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199 The reasons for calculating beta as $\overline{\beta}_{M} = \overline{\gamma}_{M} / \overline{\alpha}_{M}$ instead of $\overline{\beta}_{M} = 1/N \sum_{j=1}^{N} \overline{\gamma}_{jM} / \overline{\alpha}_{jM}$ were 200 discussed by Chao et al. (2014) in the context of the rarefaction of Hill numbers, and the reader is 201 addressed to this paper for additional details.

The plot of $\overline{\beta_{\eta}}$ vs. *M* describes how 'constrained' beta diversity varies with increasing sampling 202 effort. For each value of M, the difference between β_{η} (or $\overline{\beta}_{\eta}$) and the non-directional beta reflects 203 the amount of autocorrelation in community composition among plots. This is because directional 204 beta summarizes turnover in community structure along an a-priori ecological gradient and is thus 205 directly influenced by the similarity in community composition among plots. By contrast, non-206 directional turnover is calculated with permutation procedures which ignore any autocorrelation in 207 community structure. Therefore, a measure of autocorrelation for directional beta diversity can be 208 calculated as the normalized difference between directional and non-directional beta: 209

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$$\overline{\beta}_{\phi} = \frac{\beta_{\eta} - \beta_{\eta}}{\beta_{\eta} + \overline{\beta}_{\eta}} \tag{8}$$

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with $-1 \le \overline{\beta}_{\phi} \le 1$. Since the compositional dissimilarity among plots will often increase more slowly 213 when sampling units are close to each other, usually $\beta_{\eta} > \overline{\beta}_{\eta}$ and $\overline{\beta}_{\phi} > 0$. Compositional 214 autocorrelation occurs due to two processes: localized dispersal mechanisms and autocorrelation in 215 environmental conditions. We therefore expect greater habitat homogeneity to lead to lower 216 compositional heterogeneity among adjacent plots. If adjacent plots are compositionally very 217 similar to each other, the difference $\beta_{\eta} - \overline{\beta}_{\eta}$ will be high, such that the normalized difference $\overline{\beta}_{\phi}$ 218 will be high too. By contrast, if autocorrelation in community composition among adjacent plots is 219 low, $\overline{\beta}_{\eta}$ will approach its random expectation β_{η} and $\overline{\beta}_{\phi}$ will be close to zero. 220

221 Worked example

We used vegetation plots sampled on recent (Holocene) coastal dunes occupying a narrow strip (< 150 m) of about 16 km length along the seashore on the Tyrrhenian coast of central Italy (Figure 1). The vegetation of the dune profile follows a compressed zonation of habitats along a clearly defined sea-inland environmental gradient that drives considerable turnover in species composition and functioning over short distances: from the pioneer communities of the upper beach to the woody communities (Mediterranean macchia and evergreen forests) of the inland fixed dunes (Acosta et al. 2003).

Vegetation sampling was undertaken in spring (April-May) of 2006. Randomly generated GPS coordinates were used to define the sampling location of 2 x 2m vegetation plots in the study area.
In each plot, the cover of all vascular plant species was recorded using a 10% interval rank scale. A total of 68 plots were sampled and 61 species recorded (Appendix 2). For the 68 plots of coastal dune vegetation used in this study we produced:

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i) A non-directional community turnover curve of β_{η} vs. *M* constructed according to Eq. (1-3).

ii) A spatially-constrained turnover curve of $\overline{\beta}_{\eta}$ vs. *M* (hereafter distance-based turnover curve), in which all plots are ordered according to their distance from the seashore. Carboni et al. (2011) showed that for coastal vegetation, distance from the seashore is related to a directional stress gradient of wind and soil parameters, ranging from the exposed conditions of the upper beach to the more sheltered conditions of the back dune. Therefore, plant communities located closer to the sea are generally subject to higher environmental stress and disturbance.

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iii) A functionally-constrained turnover curve (hereafter trait-based turnover curve), in which all
plots are ordered along an ecological gradient according to the functional characters of the most
abundant species. For building this functional turnover curve, we defined an a-priori directional

gradient in functional trait space. To do so, we used a set of plant functional traits measured for a subset of 42 dominant species. This subset of species was chosen by selecting the most common and abundant species within each habitat along the sea-inland gradient, that collectively account for ~80% of the standing live biomass (see Carboni et al. 2013 for details). This threshold has been shown to ensure a satisfactory description of overall community properties (Pakeman and Quested 2007).

Three quantitative life-history traits were chosen based on their relevance to the functional 253 ecology of plants in coastal dune environments (Carboni et al. 2016): plant height (cm), leaf dry 254 mass content (LDMC; $mg \cdot g^{-1}$) and seed mass (mg). These traits provide a good representation of the 255 species global spectrum of form and function (Diáz et al. 2016) and are also correlated with the 256 257 directional stress gradient of wind and soil parameters which shape the zonation of the coastal dune vegetation (Carboni et al. 2011, 2013). Because of environmental sorting of species according to 258 habitat preferences along the sea-inland stress gradient, we expect that specific species 259 260 combinations with particular suites of traits (e.g. short annual species with succulent leaves on the upper beach) should gradually be replaced along the gradient by other dominant species with 261 different traits (e.g. tall perennial species on the main dune ridge). Carboni et al. (2013) showed that 262 there was a significant relationship between sea-inland stress and community functional 263 composition. 264

First, we calculated the Bray-Curtis pairwise dissimilarity among species based on the selected functional traits. Before calculations, traits were square root-transformed when necessary and scaled to unit length. We next calculated the pairwise functional dissimilarity among plots according to Pavoine and Ricotta (2014, Eq. 3) The resulting plot-to-plot functional distance matrix was then used for constructing the constrained turnover curve of $\vec{\beta}_{\eta}$ vs. *M*. All curves were constructed using a custom R function available as an electronic appendix to this paper (Appendix 3).

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271 Results

The directional and non-directional species accumulation curves of γ_M and $\overline{\gamma}_M$ vs. *M*, together 272 with the corresponding community turnover curves of β_{η} and $\overline{\beta}_{\eta}$ vs. *M*. are shown in Figure 2 and 273 3, respectively. Figure 4 shows the amount of autocorrelation of directional beta diversity β_{ϕ} as a 274 function of sampling effort. As expected, the shape of the curves differs depending on which 275 methods are used to construct the curves, thus providing a useful tool to characterize biodiversity 276 patterns and to explore the relevance of selected functional traits or environmental variables in 277 shaping community structure. Due to the very high autocorrelation of plots in functional space, the 278 trait-based accumulation curve increases less steeply than the corresponding non-directional curve. 279 280 That is, functionally similar plots are on average compositionally more similar to each other than expected by chance alone. As shown in Figure 3, the lower rate of species accumulation of the trait-281 based curve compared to the random non-directional curve results in a lower rate of turnover in 282 community structure and thus in lower beta diversity. 283

On the other hand, the plot of the distance-based accumulation curve is very similar to that of the 284 285 non-directional curve. That is, at least for our case study, distance from the seashore is a less effective indicator of the species sorting than trait-based differences. This is probably due to the 286 effects of natural and anthropogenic disturbance, which tend to modify the natural zonation of 287 288 vegetation along the dune profile giving rise to a complex mosaic of fragmented and intermingled communities. As shown in Figure 4, for the distance-based curve, the autocorrelation of directional 289 beta diversity is much lower than that of the trait-based curve and becomes negligible for M > 45, 290 meaning that after this threshold the compositional turnover of the constrained distance-based curve 291 does not substantially differ from random expectation. This example clearly shows how different 292 degrees of autocorrelation in geographical or functional space can affect the estimates of gamma 293 and beta diversity of community turnover curves. 294

295 Discussion

296 In this paper, we showed that community turnover curves provide a tool for summarizing various types of directional and non-directional beta diversity as a function of sampling effort. Azovsky 297 (2011) separated two conceptually different curves: species-area and species-sampling effort 298 299 relationships. The present manuscript deals mostly with species-sampling effort relationship, although directional analysis of real gradients with ordered plots goes a step further simple species-300 sampling effort relationships sensu Azovsky (2011). The same approach can be extended for 301 constructing incidence- or abundance-based community turnover curves either mathematically or 302 with resampling methods for any taxonomic, functional or phylogenetic diversity metric (Walker et 303 al. 2008; Ricotta et al. 2012; Chao et al. 2014, 2015). The resulting measures of beta diversity can 304 then be compared among habitats sampled with different effort after rarefaction to the sample size 305 of the smaller datasets. For examples, see e.g. Bacaro et al. (2016). In addition, if directional or non-306 directional beta diversity is calculated for a nested series of plots of different size, the resulting 307 turnover curves can be used to analyze how beta diversity scales with local sample area, thus 308 extending our results to species-area relationships (see Palmer and White 1994; Mokany et al. 309 2013). 310

Finally, turnover curves can also be used for calculating the amount of autocorrelation in community composition for directional beta diversity compared to its non-directional counterpart. Species are almost never randomly distributed, either due to heterogeneity of environmental factors or to non-random dispersal mechanisms. Therefore, autocorrelation is a crucial aspect of directional turnover curves and appropriate methods should be used in diversity studies if there is evidence of significant clustering of species in physical or environmental space (Legendre 1993; Fortin and Dale 2009; Bacaro et al. 2016).

Previous methods to assess multivariate spatial community structure include distance-decay plots (Nekola and White 1999; Qian and Ricklefs 2007), multivariate variograms (Wagner 2003) and Mantel correlograms (Borcard and Legendre 2012). Our proposal adds a new tool to the ecologist

- 321 toolbox as it allows to summarize autocorrelation in species composition along spatial, temporal or
- 322 environmental gradients from community turnover curves.

Directional species accumulation curves have been typically used to summarize the decrease in 323 324 species accumulation due to spatial autocorrelation along an environmental gradient compared to non-directional curves (e.g. Chiarucci et al. 2009; Bacaro et al. 2016). The same 'directional' 325 approach can also be used to maximize the rate of species accumulation with a given effort so as to 326 improve the efficiency of species inventories (Palmer et al. 2002; Rocchini et al. 2005). Because the 327 sampling order of plots determines the slope of the accumulation curve, an optimal strategy to 328 maximize species accumulation consists of using external data to choose the order of plots so that 329 330 the resulting accumulation curve is the steepest possible (Rocchini et al. 2005). That curve is a special kind of directional turnover curve, which accumulates species at a faster rate compared to 331 the corresponding random non-directional curves. As a consequence of this increased accumulation 332 rate, the normalized difference between the non-directional and directional beta diversity measures 333 takes negative values showing a general tendency towards a negative correlation in the 334 compositional similarity of subsequent plots. This illustrates how our proposed metric of 335 autocorrelation based on turnover curves can also be used as a synthetic criterion for defining 336 optimization strategies in vegetation sampling, for example to show at what distance species 337 composition is no longer autocorrelated. Thus, one can use this critical distance between sampling 338 units to avoid spending time and resources on redundant information. 339

The idea of calculating an index of beta diversity from species accumulation curves has already been proposed in the past. Ricotta et al. (2002) suggested calculating beta diversity as the slope of the linearized species accumulation curve in semilogarithmic space according to Gleason (1922); Crist and Veech (2006) proposed an additive model of diversity decomposition for which beta diversity is obtained as the difference in species richness between the last and first points of the species accumulation curve: $\beta = \gamma - \alpha = S_N - S_1$. The main difference between these previous works and ours is that we do not treat beta diversity as a fixed quantity: the graph of beta vs. *M* shows how community turnover varies when *M* increases from 1 to *N*. Therefore, using accumulation curves, multiple-site dissimilarity or beta diversity is represented as the result of a species turnover process, rather than as a static indicator. For M = N, β_M reduces to the traditional Whittaker's (static) beta diversity for a set of *N* sampling units $\beta = \gamma_N / \alpha_N$.

We also showed that using the classical multiplicative formula $\beta_M = \gamma_M / \alpha_M$, a measure of beta is obtained which is easily interpretable in terms of 'effective number of plots'. However, due to the constraint $1 \le \beta_M \le M$ we cannot directly use this measure for comparing beta diversity for different numbers of plots. To remove the dependence on *M*, we can use the normalized measure $\beta_\eta = (\beta_M - 1)/(M - 1)$. This scaled version of beta diversity can be used for comparing community turnover for different values of *M*.

In principle, because of the fundamental constraint $M\alpha_M \ge \gamma_M \ge \alpha_M$ (Chao et al. 2012), a 357 similar scaling can also be used for defining a normalized measure of gamma diversity 358 $\gamma_{\eta} = (\gamma_M - \alpha_M) / (M \alpha_M - \alpha_M)$. However, since $\gamma_M = \alpha_M \times \beta_M$, a little algebra shows that 359 $\gamma_{\eta} = \beta_{\eta} = (\beta_M - 1)/(M - 1)$, meaning that there is no fundamental difference between normalized 360 beta diversity and normalized gamma diversity. For a given number of plots, the rescaled version of 361 gamma diversity is *per se* a measure of community turnover, such that normalized beta diversity 362 can be also expressed in terms of the relationship between gamma diversity and its extreme values: 363 if $\gamma_M = \alpha_M$ then $\beta_\eta = 0$; At the other extreme, if $\gamma_M = M \alpha_M$ then $\beta_\eta = 1$. Therefore, the scaled 364 versions of beta diversity and gamma diversity lead to the same normalized measure of species 365 turnover. 366

To conclude, by its very nature, community ecology usually deals with high-dimensional multivariate data and calls for summarizing methods and indices. However, by condensing the structure of a multidimensional community composition matrix into a single indicator, information is inevitably lost, such that a variety of indices is needed to answer a variety of ecological questions

371	(Pavoine 2016). Therefore, accurate knowledge of the basic properties of diversity measures
372	becomes a necessary condition for comparing different habitats in ecologically meaningful ways.
373	Given this, relying on metrics standardized for sampling effort can provide better means for
374	identifying the most relevant biotic and abiotic drivers of community composition in different
375	habitats and taking appropriate management decisions.
376	
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380	
381	Supporting Information
382	Appendix 1. Proofs.
383	Appendix 2. Composition matrix and functional trait values of the dominant species for the coastal
384	dune communities of central Italy.

Appendix 3. R function for the calculation of directional and non-directional accumulation curves,

beta diversity and autocorrelation as a function of sampling effort M.

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496	Figure captions
497	
498	Figure 1. Location of the study area.
499	
500	Figure 2. Directional and non-directional species accumulation curves $\overline{\gamma}_M$ and γ_M vs. <i>M</i> . for the
501	coastal dune communities of central Italy.
502	
503	Figure 3. Directional and non-directional community turnover curves $\overline{\beta}_{\eta}$ and β_{η} vs. <i>M</i> for the
504	coastal dune communities of central Italy.
505	
506	Figure 4. Plot of the amount of autocorrelation of directional beta diversity $\overline{\beta}_{\phi}$ as a function of
507	sampling effort M for the coastal dune communities of central Italy.