### UNIT 1: Linear population models

# 1 Example populations

#### 1.1 Dandelions

- Start with one dandelion; it produces 100 seeds, of which only 4% survive to reproduce the next year.
- How many dandelions after 3 years?
  - \_
  - See spreadsheet on resource page
- The spreadsheet is an implementation of a dynamical model!

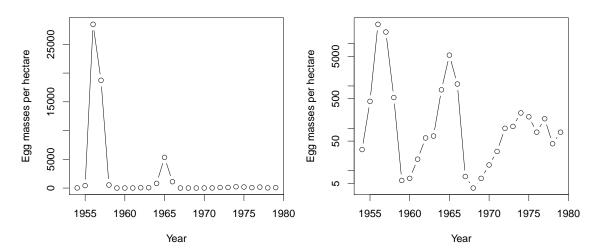
#### Dynamical models

- Make rules about how things change on a small scale
- Assumptions should be clear enough to allow you to calculate or simulate population-level resuls
- Challenging and clarifying assumptions is a key advantage of models

# 1.2 Gypsy moths

- A pest species that feeds on deciduous trees
- Introduced to N. America from Europe 150 years ago
- Capable of wide-scale defoliation

## Gypsy moth populations



Moth calculation

- Researchers studying a gypsy moth population make the following estimates:
  - The average reproductive female lays 600 eggs
  - 10% of eggs hatch into larvae
  - 10% of larvae mature into pupae
  - -50% of pupae mature into adults
  - 50% of adults survive to reproduce
  - All adults die after reproduction
- What happens if we start with 10 moths?

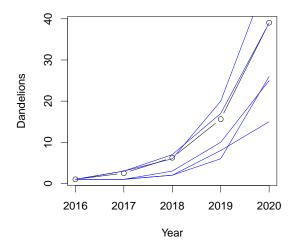
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### Stochastic version

- Obviously, we will not get *exactly* 7.5 moths.
- If we consider moths as individuals, we need a **stochastic** model
- What do we mean by stochastic?

Stochastic model

- A stochastic model has randomness in the model.
- If we run it again with the same parameters and starting conditions, we get a different answer



1.3 Bacteria

- Imagine we have some bacteria growing in a big tank, constantly dividing and dying:
  - They divide (forming two bacteria from one) at a rate of  $0.04/\,\mathrm{hr}$
  - They wash out of the tank at a rate of  $0.02/\,\mathrm{hr}$
  - They die at a rate of  $0.01/\,\mathrm{hr}$
- Rates are **per capita** (i.e., per individual) and **instaneous** (they describe what is happening at each moment of time)
- We start with 10 bacteria/ml
  - How many do we have after 1 hr?

- What about after 1 day?

### Bacteria, rescaled

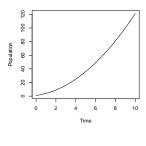
- Imagine we have some bacteria growing in a big tank:
  - They divide (forming two bacteria from one) at a rate of 0.96/day
  - They wash out of the tank at a rate of 0.48/day
  - They die at a rate of  $0.24/\mathrm{day}$
- If we start with 10 bacteria/ml, how many do we have after 1 day?

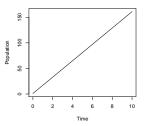
#### Units

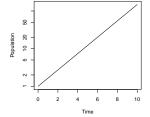
- When we attach units to a quantity, the meaning is concrete
  - -0.24/day must mean exactly the same thing as 0.01/hr
  - The two questions above must have the same answer

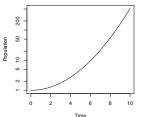
# 2 Exponential growth

- What is exponential growth?
- Which of these is an example?









## Types of growth

arithmetic/linear:
–
geometric/exponential:
–
–
other:
– Many possibilities, we may discuss some later

Exponential decline?

# Terminology

- Sometimes people distinguish
  - arithmetic from linear growth, or

• What does exponential decline look like?

- **geometric** from **exponential** growth
- Based on:

 $\bullet$  We won't worry much about this.

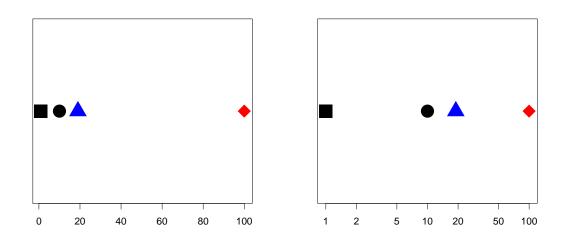
## 2.1 Log and linear scales

# Scales of comparison

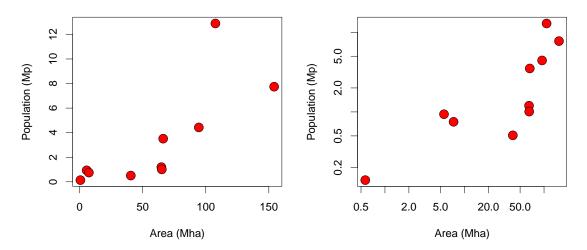
• 1 is to 10 as 10 is to what?

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# Scales of display



There is only one log scale; it doesn't matter which base you use! Canadian provinces



# Predation comparison

- A 500 lb lion is attacking a 1000 lb buffalo!
- This is analogous to a 15 lb red fox attacking:
  - A 30 lb beaver (twice as heavy)?
  - A 515 lb elk (500 lbs heavier)?

#### Different scales

- The log scale and linear scale provide different ways of looking at the same data
- Equally valid
- What are some advantages of each?

# Advantages of arithmetic view

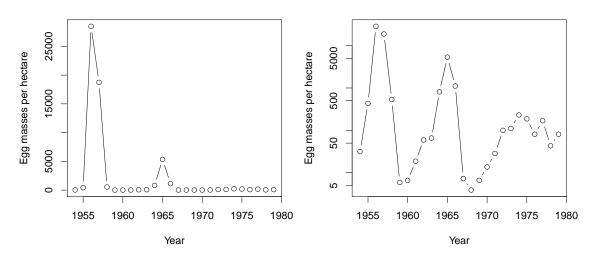
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# Advantages of geometric view

•

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# Gypsy-moth example



## Scales in population biology

- The linear scale looks at differences at the population scale
- The log scale looks at differences at the individual scale (per capita)

#### 2.2 Time scales

#### Characteristic times

- If something is declining exponentially, the rate of change (units [widgets/time]) is always proportional to the size of the thing ([widgets]).
- The constant ratio between the rate of change and the thing that is changing is:
  - the **characteristic time** (something/change), or
  - the rate of exponential decline (change/something)

#### **Bacteriostasis**

- What if we add an agent to the tank that makes the birth and death rates nearly zero?
- Now the bacteria are merely washing out at the rate of 0.02/hr
- If we start with 10 bacteria/ml, how many do we have after:
  - -1 hr?
  - -1 wk?

#### Bacteriostasis answers

- Bacteria wash out at the rate of 0.02/hr
  - \_
- Start with 10 bacteria/ml:
  - \_

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# Bacteriostasis analysis

- Rate of exponential decline is  $r = 0.02/\,\mathrm{hr}$
- Characteristic time is  $T_c = 1/r = 50 \,\mathrm{hr}$
- If experiment time  $t \ll T_c$ , then proportional decline  $\approx t/T_c$
- The answer makes sense for short times and for long times

#### Euler's e

- $\bullet$  The reason mathematicians like e is that it makes this link between instantaneous change and long-term behaviour
- If I drive for an hour, how much closer do I get to the ideal town of Speed?

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- e or 1/e is the approximate answer to a lot of questions like this one
  - If I compound 1%/year interest for 100 years, how much does my money grow?
  - If two people go deal out two decks of cards simultaneously, what is the probability they will never match cards?
  - If everyone picks up a backpack at random after a test, what's the probability nobody gets the right backpack?

### Exponential growth

- We can think about exponential growth the same way as exponential decline:
  - Things are always changing at a rate that would take a fixed amount of time to get (back) to zero
  - This is the characteristic time
  - Exponential growth follows  $N = N_0 \exp(rt) = N_0 \exp(t/T_c)$

### Doubling time

- Some people prefer to think about doubling times.
- These make just as much sense as characteristic times, but don't have the direct link to the instantaneous change.
  - It takes  $T_c$  time to increase by a factor of e
  - It takes  $\log_e(2)T_c \approx 0.69T_c$  to increase by a factor of 2
  - We can write  $T_d = \log_e(2)T_c$
- You should be able to do this calculation
  - $-\exp(rT_d)=2$
  - $-T_d = \log_e(2)/r$
  - $T_d = \log_e(2)T_c$

#### Half life

- The half life plays the same role for exponential decline as the doubling time does for exponential growth:
  - $-T_h = \log_e(2)T_c$
  - It takes  $T_c$  time for a declining population to decrease by a factor of e
  - It takes  $\log_e(2)T_c \approx 0.69T_c$  to decrease by a factor of 2
  - We can write  $T_h = \log_e(2)T_c$

# 3 Constructing models

#### 3.1 Dynamical models

Tools to link scales

- Models are what we use to link:
  - Individual-level to population-level processes
  - Short time scales to long time scales
- In both directions

### Assumptions

- Models are always simplifications of reality
  - "The map is not the territory"
  - "All models are wrong, but some are useful"
- Models are useful for:
  - linking assumptions to outcomes
  - identifying where assumptions are broken

### Dynamical models

- **Dynamical models** describe rules for how a system changes at each point in time
- We will see what these assumptions about how the system *changes* lead to conclusions about what the system *does* over longer time periods

#### States and state variables

- Our dynamic models imagine that a system has a **state** at any given time, described by one or more **state variables**
- Examples:
  - Dandelions: state is population size, described by one state variable (the number of individuals)
  - Bacteria: state is population density, described by one state variable (the number of individuals per ml)
  - Pine trees: state is amount of wood, described by one state variable (tons per hectare)
- Limiting the number of state variables is key to simple models

#### **Parameters**

- Parameters are the quantities that describe the rules for our system
- Examples:
  - Birth rate, death rate, fecundity, survival probability

### How do populations change?

- I survey a population in 2005, and again in 2009. I get a different answer the second time.
- What are some reasons why this answer might change?
  –
  –
  –

### Censusing and intermediate variables

- Often, our population models will imagine that the population is **censused** (counted) at particular periods of time
- Calculations of what happens between census times may be part of how we make our population model, without showing up in the main model itself
  - For example, our moth and dandelion examples

#### Linear population models

- We will focus mostly on births and deaths
- Births and deaths are done by individuals
  - We model the rate of each individual (per capita rates)
  - Total rate is the per capita rate multiplied by population size
- If per capita rates are constant, we say that our population *models* are **linear** 
  - Linear models do not usually correspond to linear growth!

3.2 Examples

### Moth example

• State variables

Parameters

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• Census time

#### Bacteria

• State variables

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• Parameters

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• Census time

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### **Dandelions**

• State variables

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• Parameters

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• Census time

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# 3.3 A simple discrete-time model

# Assumptions

- If we have N individuals after T time steps, what determines how many individuals we have after T+1 time steps?
  - A fixed proportion p of the population (on average) survives to be counted at time step T+1
  - Each individual creates (on average) f new individuals that will be counted at time step T+1
- How many individuals do we expect in the next time step?

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- Individuals are **independent**: what I do does not depend on how many other individuals are around
- The population is censused at regular time intervals  $\Delta t$ 
  - Usually  $\Delta t = 1 \,\mathrm{yr}$
- All individuals are the same at the time of census
- Population changes deterministically

#### **Definitions**

- p is the survival probability
- f is the **fecundity**
- $\lambda \equiv p + f$  is the finite rate of increase
  - ... associated with the time step  $\Delta t$

#### Model

• Dynamics:

$$-N_{T+1} = \lambda N_T$$

$$-t_{T+1} = t_T + \Delta t$$

• Solution:

$$- N_T = N_0 \lambda^T$$

$$-t_T = T\Delta t$$

• How does N behave in this model?

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## Interpretation

- Assumptions are simplifications based on reality
- We can understand why populations change exponentially sometimes
- We can look for *reasons* when they don't

# Examples

- Moths
  - -p=0, so  $\lambda=f$ .
    - \* Moths are **semelparous** (reproduce once); they have an **annual** population
- Dandelions
  - If p > 0, then the dandelions are **iteroparous**; they are a **perennial** population

# 3.4 A simple continuous-time model

# Assumptions

- If we have N individuals at time t, how does the population change?
  - Individuals are giving birth at per-capita rate b
  - Individuals are dying at per-capita rate d
- How we describe the population dynamics?

- Individuals are **independent**: what I do does not depend on how many other individuals are around
- The population can be censused at any time
- Population size changes continuously
- All individuals are the same all the time

#### **Definitions**

- b is the birth rate
- $\bullet$  d is the **death rate**
- $r \equiv b d$  is the instantaneous rate of increase.
- These quantities are not associated with a time period, but they have units:

. .

Model

• Dynamics:

$$-\frac{dN}{dt} = rN$$

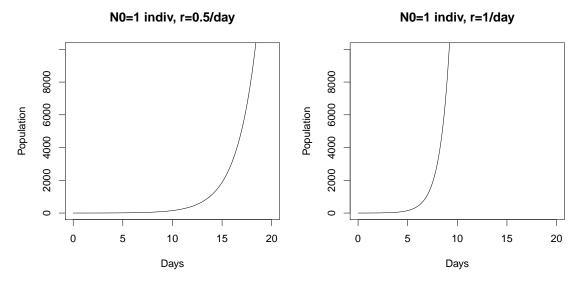
• Solution:

$$-N(t) = N_0 \exp(rt)$$

• Behaviour

Bacteria

- Conceptually, this is just as simple as the dandelions or the moths
  - In fact, simpler
- But we can't do an infinite number of simulation steps on the computer



### Summary

- We can construct simple, conceptual models and make them into dynamic models
- If we assume that *individuals* behave independently, then
  - we expect *populations* to grow (or decline) exponentially

# 4 Units and scaling

## Units are our friends

- Keep track of units at all times
- Use units to confirm that your answers make sense
  - Or to find quick ways of getting the answer
- What is  $3 \, \text{day} \cdot 4 \, \text{espressoes/day}$ ?
- What is  $1 \text{ wk} \cdot 0.02/\text{day}$ ?

18

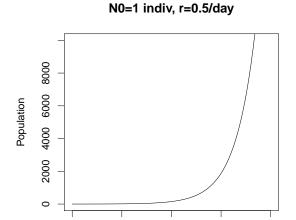
Manipulating units

- We can multiply quantities with different units by keeping track of the units
- We *cannot* add quantities with different units (unless they can be converted to the same units)
- How many seconds are there in a day?
- http://www.alysion.org/dimensional/fun.htm

### Scaling

- Quantities with units set scales, which can be changed
  - If I multiply all the quantities with units of time in my model by 10, I should get an answer that looks the same, but with a different time scale
  - If a multiply all the quantities with units of dandelions in my model by 10, I should get an answer that looks the same, but with a different number of dandelions

# Scaling time in bacteria

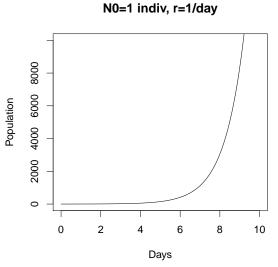


10

Days

15

20



# Thinking about units

5

• What is  $10^3 \text{ day}$ ?

0

- What is  $10^{72} \, \text{hr}$ ?
- \_
- What is  $3 \operatorname{day} \cdot 3 \operatorname{day}$ ?

# Unit-ed quantities

- Quantities with units scale
  - If you change everything with the same units by the same factor, you should not change the behaviour of your system
- We typically make sense of quantities with units by comparing them to other quantities with the same units, e.g.:
  - birth rate vs. death rate
  - characteristic time of exponential growth vs. observation time

### Unitless quantities

- Quantities in exponents must be unitless
- Quantities with variable exponents (quantities that can be multiplied by themselves over and over) must be unitless
- $\bullet$  Quantities that determine *how* a system behaves must have a unitless form
  - Otherwise, they could be scaled
  - Zero works as a unitless quantity:
    - \* 0km = 0cm
- Examples include  $\lambda$  and  $\mathcal{R}$ .

#### Moths

- $600 \, \text{egg/rF}$
- $\cdot 0.1 \, \text{larva/egg}$
- ·0.1 pupa/larva
- $\cdot 0.5 \,\mathrm{A/pupa}$
- $\bullet$  ·0.5 rA/ A
- What's the product?

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### Moth spreadsheet

- Once we close the loop, it doesn't matter where we start:
  - Reproductive adults to reproductive adults
  - Larvae to larvae
  - Pupae to pupae is common in real studies

\*

## Calculating $\lambda$

- $\lambda \equiv p + f$  is the finite rate of increase
- If  $N_{T+1} = \lambda N_T$ , what are the units of  $\lambda$ ?

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- $\bullet$  Therefore p and f must be unitless
  - example, rA/rA; seed/seed
  - to do it right, we close the loop

# 5 Key parameters

#### 5.1 Discrete-time model

- $N_{T+1} = \lambda N_T$
- $\lambda \equiv p + f$

## Calculating fecundity

- ullet Fecundity f in our model must be unitless
- Multiply:
  - Probability of surviving from census to reproduction
  - Expected number of offspring when reproducing
  - Probability of offspring surviving to census
- Need to end where we started

### Calculating survival

- $\bullet$  Survival p must be unitless
- Multiply:
  - Probability of surviving from census to reproduction
  - Probability of surviving the reproduction period
  - Probability of surviving until the next census

### Finite rate of increase

- Population increases when  $\lambda > 1$
- So  $\lambda$  must be unitless
- But it is associated with the time step  $\Delta t$ 
  - This means it is potentially confusing. It is often better to use  $\mathcal{R}$  or r (see below).

### Reproductive number

- The reproductive number  $\mathcal{R}$  measures the average number of offspring produced by a single individual over the course of its lifetime
- The population will increase when  $\mathcal{R}$  ...:
- What are the units of  $\mathcal{R}$ ?

# Lifespan

- What is the lifespan of an individual in this model?
- ullet If p is the proportion of individuals that survive, then the proportion that die is:
- How many time steps do you expect to survive, on average?

\*

## Calculating $\mathcal{R}$

- $\bullet$   $\mathcal{R}$  is fecundity multiplied by lifespan
- $\mathcal{R} = f/\mu = f/(1-p)$
- Why do we multiply by time *steps* instead of lifetime?

-

### Comparison

- $\mathcal{R} = f/\mu = f/(1-p)$
- Unitless
- Population behaviour depends on the comparison  $\mathcal{R}:1$ 
  - Equivalent to  $f: \mu$
- $\lambda = f + p = f + (1 \mu)$
- Unitless
- Population behaviour depends on the comparison  $\lambda:1$ 
  - Equivalent to  $f:\mu$

# Is the population increasing?

• What does  $\lambda$  tell us about whether the population is increasing?

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• What does  $\mathcal{R}$  tell us about whether the population is increasing?

-

• Therefore, these two criteria must be the same!

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## 5.2 Continuous-time model

## Calculating birth rate

- The birth rate b in the continuous-time model is new individuals per individual per unit time
  - An instaneous rate
  - Units of [1/time] implies what assumption?

### Calculating death rate

- The death rate d in the continuous-time model is deaths per individual per unit time
  - An instaneous rate
  - Units of [1/time]

#### Instaneous rate of increase

- Population increases when r = b d > 0
- $\bullet$  r is not unitless

• But we still have a unitless criterion: r = 0

# Calculating $\mathcal{R}$

- The mean lifespan is L = 1/d
  - Equivalent to the characteristic time for the death process
- $\mathcal{R}$  is the average number of births expected over that time frame:

$$-\mathcal{R} = bL = b/d$$

### Comparison

- $\mathcal{R} = bL = b/d$
- Unitless
- Population behaviour depends on the comparison  $\mathcal{R}:1$ 
  - Equivalent to b:d
- $r = b d = f + (1 \mu)$
- Units [1/t] (a rate)
- Population behaviour depends on the comparison r:0
  - Equivalent to b:d

### Is the population increasing?

- $\bullet$  What does r tell us about whether the population is increasing?
- What does  $\mathcal{R}$  tell us about whether the population is increasing?
- Therefore, these two criteria must be the same!

5.3 Links

- If a population grows at rate r for time period  $\Delta t$ , how much does it change?
  - $N_0 \exp(r\Delta t)$  must correspond to  $N_0\lambda$ , where 1 is:
- To link a continuous-time model to a discrete-time model, we set:
  - $\lambda = \exp(r\Delta t)$

#### Characteristic time

- We can now find characteristic times of exponential change:
  - $-T_c = 1/r$  for exponential growth when r > 0
  - $-T_c = -1/r$  for exponential decline when r < 0
- Rule of thumb: population changes by a factor of 20 after 3 characteristic times

# 6 Growth and regulation

### Example: Human population growth

- In the last 50,000 years, the population of modern humans has increased from about 1000 to about 7 billion
- What value of r does this correspond to? If we use a time step of 20-year generations, what value of  $\lambda$  does it correspond to?

:

\*

-

\*

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# Long-term growth rate

- What is the long-term average exponential growth rate (using either r or  $\lambda$ ) of:
  - A successful population?

\*

\*

- An unsuccessful population?

\*

\*

\*

#### Time scales

- Estimated characteristic time scales for exponential growth or decay are usually a few (or a few tens) of generations
  - years to a few kiloyears
- Species typically persist for far longer
  - many kiloyears to megayears

### Balance

• If populations grow and shrink proportionally to their size, why don't they go exponentially to zero or infinity?

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• How is this possible

# Changing growth rates

• What sort of factors can make species growth rates change?

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## Regulation

• What do we expect to happen if a population's growth rate is affected only by seasons and climate?

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• What sort of mechanism could keep a population in a reasonable range for a long time?

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• This is even true for modern humans!

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