UNIT 4: Structured populations

Outline

Introduction

- Up until now we've tracked populations with a single state variable (population size or population density)
- What assumption are we making?
  - * All individuals are similar enough to be counted as if they are the same
    - * Always (continuous time)
    - * At census time (discrete time)
- What are some organisms for which this seems like a good approximation?
  - * Dandelions, bacteria, insects
- What are some organisms that don't work so well?
  - * Trees, people, codfish

Structured populations

- If we think age or size is important to understanding a population, we might model it as an **structured** population
- Instead of just keeping track of the total number of individuals in our population ...
  - Keeping track of how many individuals of each age
    - or size
    - or developmental stage

Outline

Example: biennial dandelions

- Imagine a population of dandelions
  - Adults produce 80 seeds each year
  - 1% of seeds survive to become adults
  - 50% of first-year adults survive to reproduce again
  - Second-year adults never survive
- Will this population increase or decrease through time?

How to study this population

- Choose a census time
  - Before reproduction or after
  - Since we have complete cycle information, either one should work
- Figure out how to predict the population at the next census

Census choices

- Before reproduction
  - All individuals are adults
  - We want to know how many adults we will see next year
- After reproduction
  - Seeds, one-year-olds and two-year-olds
  - Two-year-olds have already produced their seeds; once these seeds are counted, the two-year-olds can be ignored, since they will not reproduce or survive again

Example: biennial dandelions (repeat)

- Imagine a population of dandelions
  - Adults produce 80 seeds each year
  - 1% of seeds survive to become adults
  - 50% of first-year adults survive to reproduce again
  - Second-year adults never survive
- Will this population increase or decrease through time?

What determines λ?

- If we have 20 adults *before* reproduction, how many do we expect to see next time?
- $\lambda = p + f$ is the total number of individuals per individual after one time step
- What is f in this example?
  - * 0.8
- What is p in this example?
  - * 0.5 for 1-year-olds and 0 for 2-year-olds.
  - * We can't take an average, because we don't know the population structure

What determines $\mathcal{R}$?

- $\mathcal{R}$ is the average total number of offspring produced by an individual over their lifespan
- Can start at any stage, but need to close the loop
- What is the reproductive number?
- * If you become an adult you produce (on average)
  - *Blackboard!*
  - * 0.8 adults your first year
  - * 0.4 adults your second year
- * $\mathcal{R} = 1.2$

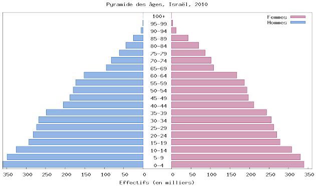
What does $\mathcal{R}$ tell us about λ?

- * Population increases when $\mathcal{R} > 1$, so $\lambda > 1$ exactly when $\mathcal{R} > 1$
- If $\mathcal{R} = 1.2$, then λ
  - * > 1 – the population is increasing
  - * < 1.2 – the life cycle takes more than 1 year, so it should take more than one year for the population to increase 1.2 times

Outline

Modeling approach

- In this unit, we will construct *simple* models of structured populations
    - To explore how structure might affect population dynamics
    - To investigate how to interpret structured data



Regulation

- *Simple* population models with regulation can have extremely complicated dynamics
- *Structured* population models with regulation can have insanely complicated dynamics
- Here we will focus on understanding structured population models *without regulation*:
  - * Individuals behave independently, meaning. . .
  - * Average per capita rates do not depend on population size

Age-structured models

- The most common approach is to structure by age
- In age-structured models we model how many individuals there are in each "age class"
  - Typically, we use age classes of one year
  - Example: salmon live in the ocean for roughly a fixed number of years; if we know how old a salmon is, that strongly affects how likely it is to reproduce

Stage-structured models

- In stage-structured models, we model how many individuals there are in different stages
  - Ie., newborns, juveniles, adults
  - More flexible than an age-structured model
  - Example: forest trees may survive on very little light for a long time before they have the opportunity to recruit to the sapling stage

Discrete vs. continuous time in unstructured models

- continuous-time models are structurally simpler (and smoother)
- discrete-time models only need to assume everyone's the same sometimes
  - * At the census time
  - * More realistic

…in structured models

- We no longer assume everyone is the same (we keep track of age or size)
- So it should be mostly about reproduction
  - * Populations with continuous reproduction (e.g. bacteria), may be better suited to continuous-time models
  - * Populations with **synchronous** reproduction (e.g., moths) may be better suited to discrete-time models
- Continuous time with structure gives people headaches
  - So we won't do it here, even though it may be better for many applications

Outline

Constructing a model

- This section will focus on **linear, discrete-time, age-structured** models
- State variables: how many individuals of each age at any given time
- Parameters: p and f *for each age that we are modeling*

When to count

- We will choose a census time that is appropriate for our study
  - Before reproduction, to have the fewest number of individuals
  - After reproduction, to have the most information about the population processes
  - Some other time, for convenience in counting
    - * A time when individuals gather together
    - * A time when they are easy to find (insect pupae)

The conceptual model

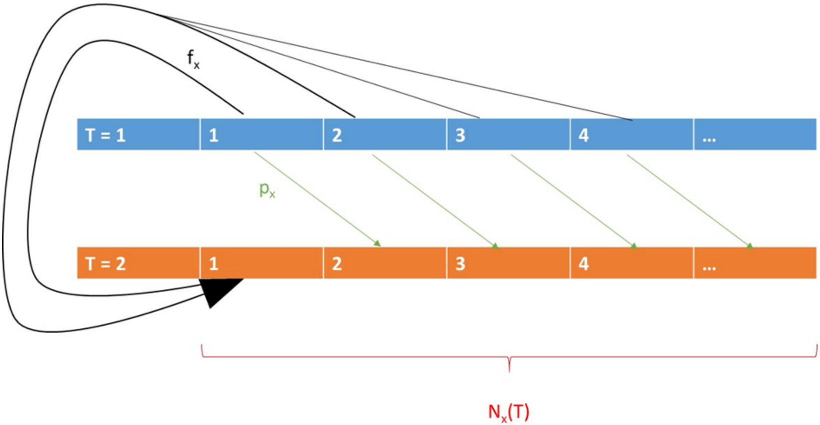
- Once we choose a census time, we imagine we know the population for each age x after time step T.
  - We call these values $N_x(T)$
- Now we want to calculate the expected number of individuals in each age class at the next time step
  - We call these values $N_x(T+1)$
- What are the parameters? — What do we need to know to calculate population for next time?
  - * The survival probability of each age group: p_x
  - * The average fecundity of each age group: f_x

Aadd Above used to be a poll, but it's spoiled a few slides before

Closing the loop

- f_x and p_x must close the loop back to the census time, so we can use them to simulate our model:
  - f_x has units [new indiv (at census time)]/[age x indiv (at census time)]
  - p_x has units [age $x+1$ indiv (at census time)]/[age x indiv (at census time)]

The structured model



Outline

Short-term dynamics

- This model's short-term dynamics will depend on parameters . . .
  - It is more likely to go up if fecundities and survival probabilities are high
- . . . and starting conditions
  - If we start with mostly very old or very young individuals, it might go down; with lots of reproductive adults it might go up

Long-term dynamics

- If a population follows a model like this, it will tend to reach
  - a **stable age distribution**:
    - the *proportion* of individuals in each age class is constant
  - a stable value of λ
    - if the proportions are constant, then we can average over f_x and p_x, and the system will behave like our simple model
- What are the long-term dynamics of such a system?
  - * Exponential growth or exponential decline
- Skipping calculations, but you can poke if curious
- Spreadsheet link

Outline

Life tables

- People often study structured models using **life tables**
- A life table is made *from the perspective of a particular census time*
- It contains the information necessary to project to the next census:
  - How many survivors do we expect at the next census for each individual we see at this census? (p_x in our model)
  - How many offspring do we expect at the next census for each individual we see at this census? (f_x in our model)

Cumulative survivorship

- The first key to understanding how much each organism will contribute to the population is **survivorship**
- In the field, we estimate the probability of survival from age x to age $x+1$: p_x
  - This is the probability you will be *counted* at age $x+1$, given that you were *counted* at age x.
- To understand how individuals contribute to the population, we are also interested in the overall probability that individuals survive to age x: ℓ_x.
  - * $\ell_x = p_1 \times \ldots p_{x-1}$
  - * ℓ_x measures the probability that an individual survives to be counted at age x, given that it is ever counted at all (ie., it survives to its first census)

Calculating $\mathcal{R}$

- We calculate $\mathcal{R}$ by figuring out the estimated contribution at each age group, *per individual who was ever counted*
  - We figure out expected contribution given you were ever counted by multiplying:
  - * $f_x \times \ell_x$

Outline

Dandelion example

Example: biennial dandelions (repeat)

- Adults produce 80 seeds each
- 1% of seeds survive to become adults
- 50% of first-year adults survive to reproduce again
- Second-year adults never survive
- What does the life table look like?

Dandelion life table

x	f_x	p_x	ℓ_x	$\ell_x f_x$
1				
2				
R				

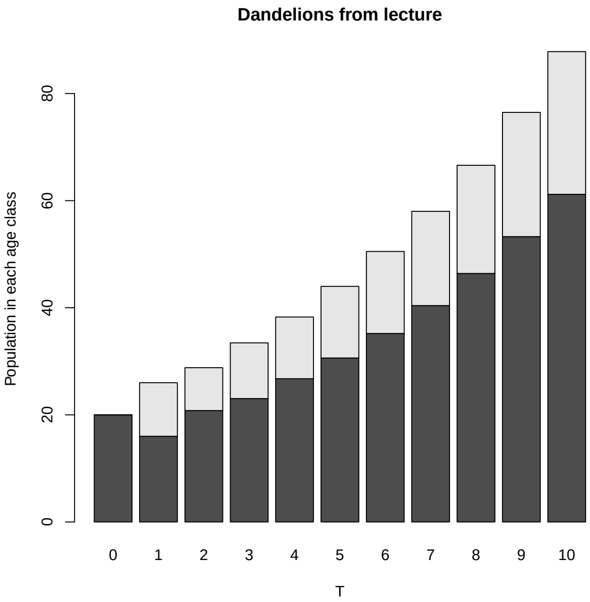
Dandelion life table (repeat)

x	f_x	p_x	ℓ_x	$\ell_x f_x$
1	0.8	0.5		
2	0.8	0		
R				

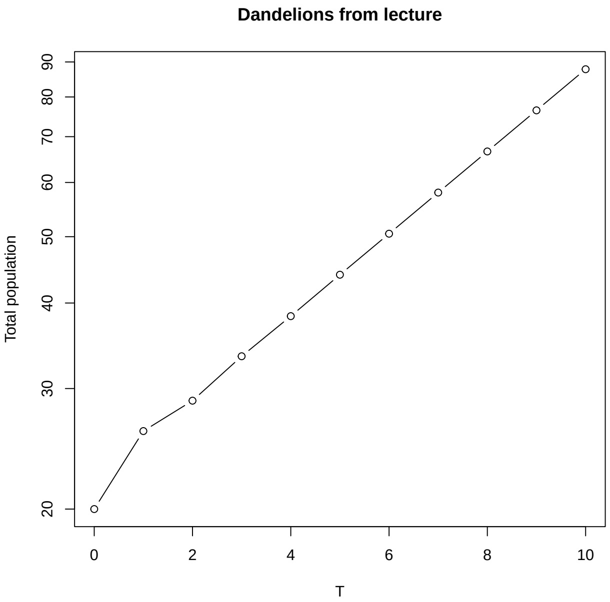
Dandelion life table

x	f_x	p_x	ℓ_x	$\ell_x f_x$
1	0.8	0.5	1.000	0.800
2	0.8	0	0.500	0.400
R				1.200

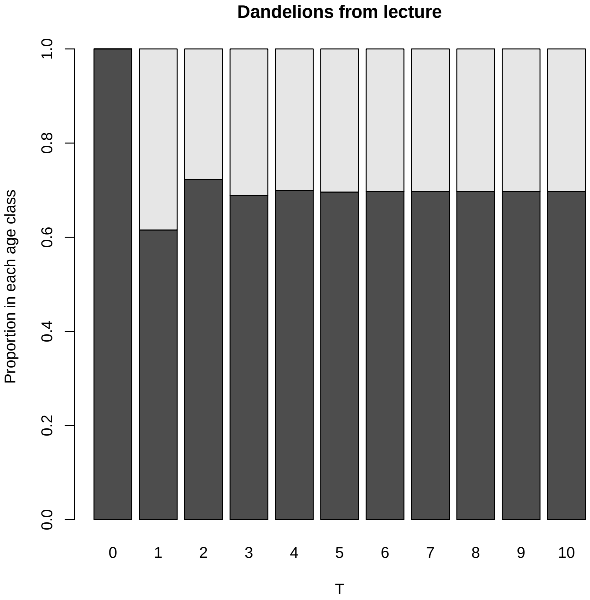
Dandelion dynamics



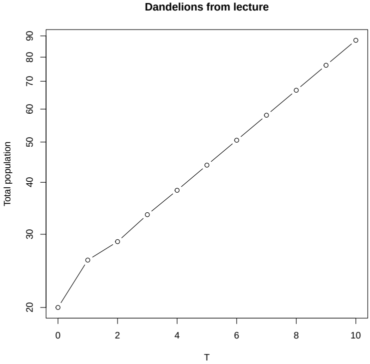
Dandelion population dynamics (present)

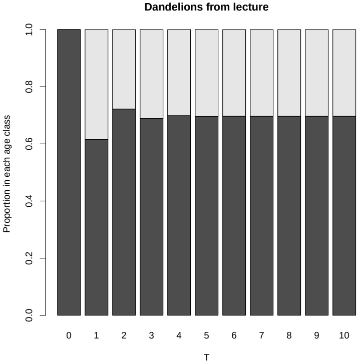


Dandelion age dynamics (present)



Dandelion dynamics





Squirrel example

Gray squirrel population example

x	f_x	p_x	ℓ_x	$\ell_x f_x$
1	0	0.25		
2	1.28	0.46		
3	2.28	0.77		
4	2.28	0.65		
5	2.28	0.67		
6	2.28	0.64		
7	2.28	0.88		
8	2.28	0.0		
R				

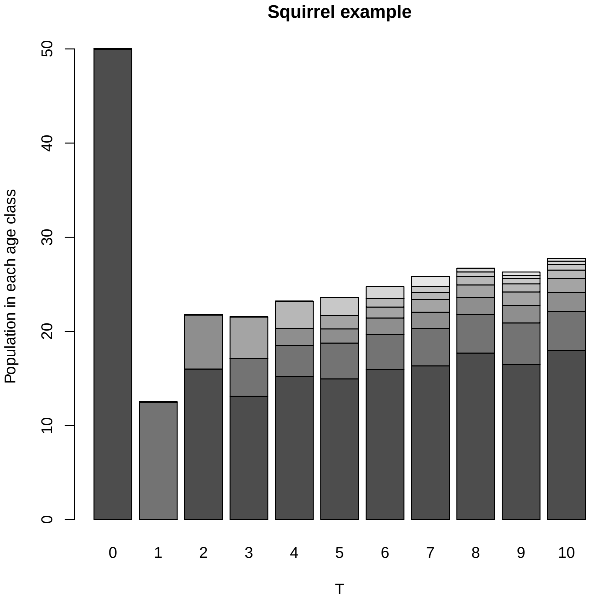
Squirrel observations

- Do you notice anything strange?
  - * Older age groups seem to be grouped for fecundity.
  - * Strange pattern in survivorship; do we really believe nobody survives past the last year?
  - * Might be better to use a model where they keep track of 1 year, 2 year, and "adult" – not much harder.
    - * This is what we call stage structure

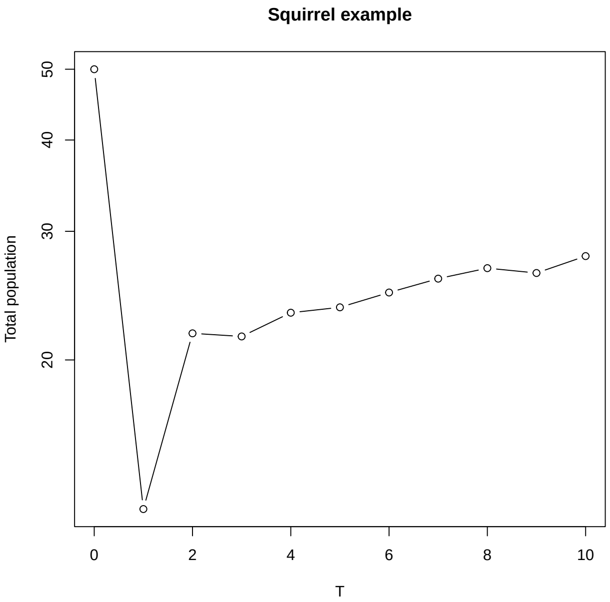
Gray squirrel population example

x	f_x	p_x	ℓ_x	$\ell_x f_x$
1	0	0.25	1.000	0.000
2	1.28	0.46	0.250	0.320
3	2.28	0.77	0.115	0.262
4	2.28	0.65	0.089	0.202
5	2.28	0.67	0.058	0.131
6	2.28	0.64	0.039	0.088
7	2.28	0.88	0.025	0.056
8	2.28	0.0	0.022	0.050
R				1.109

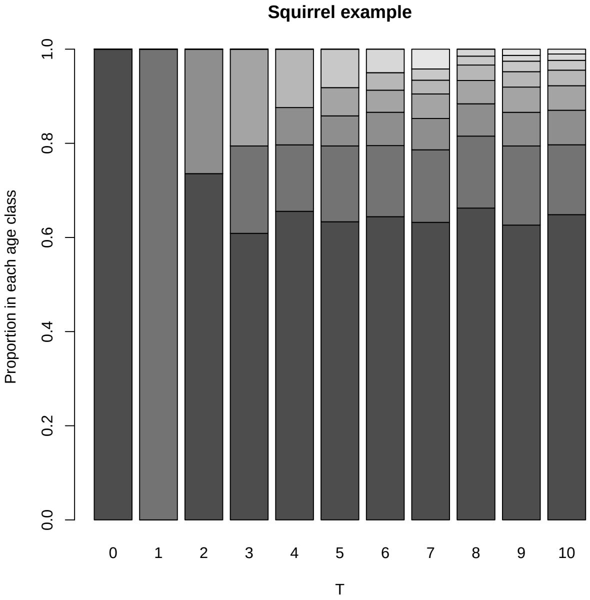
Gray squirrel dynamics



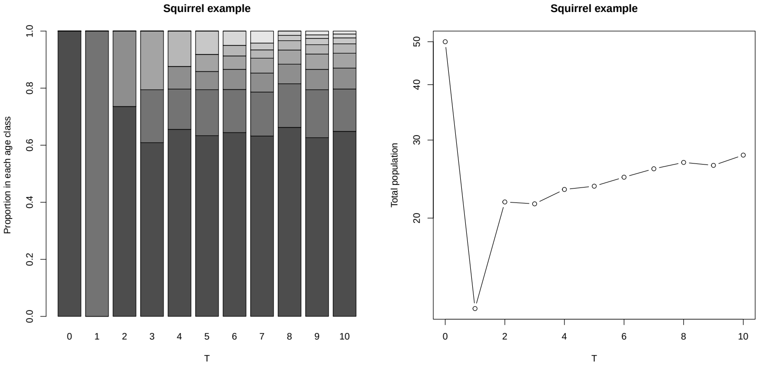
Gray squirrel population dynamics (present)



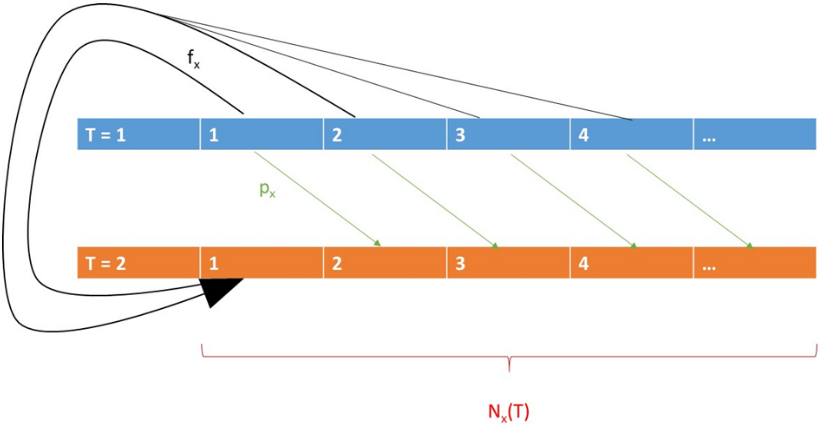
Gray squirrel age dynamics (present)



Gray squirrel dynamics



The structured model (repeat)



Outline

f_x vs. m_x

- Here we focus on f_x – the number of offspring seen at the next census (next year) per organism of age x seen at this census
- An alternative perspective is m_x: the total number of offspring per reproducing individual of age x
- How would I calculate one from the other?
  - * To get f_x we multiply m_x by one or more survival terms, depending on when the census is
  - * f_x needs to close the loop from one census to the next

When do we start counting?

- Is the first age class called 0, or 1?
  - In this course, we will start from age class 1
  - If we count right *after* reproduction, this means we are calling newborns age class 1. Don't get confused.

Example: biennial dandelions (repeat)

- Adults produce 80 seeds each (m_x)
- 1% of seeds survive to become adults
- 50% of first-year adults survive to reproduce again
- Second-year adults never survive
- What does the life table look like?

Dandelion life table

x	f_x	p_x	ℓ_x	$\ell_x f_x$
1	0.8	0.5	1.000	0.800
2	0.8	0	0.500	0.400
R				1.200

Counting after reproduction

x	f_x	p_x	ℓ_x	$\ell_x f_x$
1	0.8	0.01	1.000	0.800
2	40	0	0.010	0.400
R				1.200

There are two different approaches to the third age class

Calculating $\mathcal{R}$

- The reproductive number $\mathcal{R}$ gives the average lifetime reproduction of an individual, and is a valuable summary of the information in the life table
  - $\mathcal{R} = \sum_x \ell_x f_x$
  - If $\mathcal{R} > 1$ in the long (or medium) term, the population will increase
  - If $\mathcal{R}$ is persistently < 1, the population is in trouble
- We can ask (for example):
  - Which ages have a large *contribution* to $\mathcal{R}$?
  - How does $\mathcal{R}$ respond to changes in various p_x and f_x?

The effect of old individuals

- Estimating the effects of old individuals on a population can be difficult, because both f and ℓ can be extreme
  - The contribution of an age class to $\mathcal{R}$ is $\ell_x f_x$
  - Extreme how?
    - * In most populations ℓ can be very small for large x
    - * In many populations, f can be very large for large x
- Reproductive potential of old individuals *may* or *may not* be important
  - * In many tree populations, most individuals don't survive to get huge, but the huge trees may have most of the total reproduction
  - * In many bird populations, old birds produce well, but not enough to outweigh the low probability of surviving to get old.

Old individuals

Outline

Calculating λ

- In a constant population, each age class replaces itself:
  - $\mathcal{R} = \sum_x \ell_x f_x = 1$
- In an exponentially changing population, each year's **cohort** is a factor of λ bigger (or smaller) than the previous one
  - λ is the finite rate of increase, like before
- Looking back in time, the cohort x years ago is λ^{-x} as large as the current one
- The existing cohorts need to make the next one:
  - $\sum_x \ell_x f_x \lambda^{-x} = 1$

λ and $\mathcal{R}$

- If the life table doesn't change, then λ is given by $\sum_x \ell_x f_x \lambda^{-x} = 1$
  - What's the relationship between λ and $\mathcal{R}$?
- When $\lambda = 1$, the left hand side is just $\mathcal{R}$.
  - If $\mathcal{R} > 1$, the population more than replaces itself when $\lambda = 1$. We must make $\lambda > 1$ to decrease LHS and balance.
  - If $\mathcal{R} < 1$, the population fails to replace itself when $\lambda = 1$. We must make $\lambda < 1$ to increase LHS and balance.
- So $\mathcal{R}$ and λ tell the same story about whether the population is increasing

Time scales

- λ gives the number of individuals per individual *every year*
- $\mathcal{R}$ gives the number of individuals per individual *over a lifetime*
- What relationship do we expect for an annual population (life span = census interval)?
  - * $\mathcal{R} = \lambda$; each organism observed reproduces $\mathcal{R}$ offspring on average, all in one time step
- For a longer-lived population?
  - * The $\mathcal{R}$ offspring are produced slowly, so population changes slowly
    - * λ should be closer to 1 than $\mathcal{R}$ is.
    - * But on the same side (same answer about whether population is growing)

Studying population growth

- λ and $\mathcal{R}$ give related information about your population
- $\mathcal{R}$ is easier to calculate, and more generally useful
- But λ gives the actual rate of growth
  - More useful in cases where we expect the life table to be constant with exponential growth or decline for a long time

Growth and decline

- If we think a particular period of growth or decline is important, we might want to study how factors affect λ
  - Complicated, but well-developed, theory
  - In a growing population, what happens early in life is more important to λ than to $\mathcal{R}$.
  - In a declining population, what happens late in life is more important to λ than to $\mathcal{R}$.
- Which is likely to be more important to ecology and evolution?
  - * The two phases (growth and decline) will be roughly balanced
  - * Because otherwise the population would go to zero or infinity

Outline

Outline

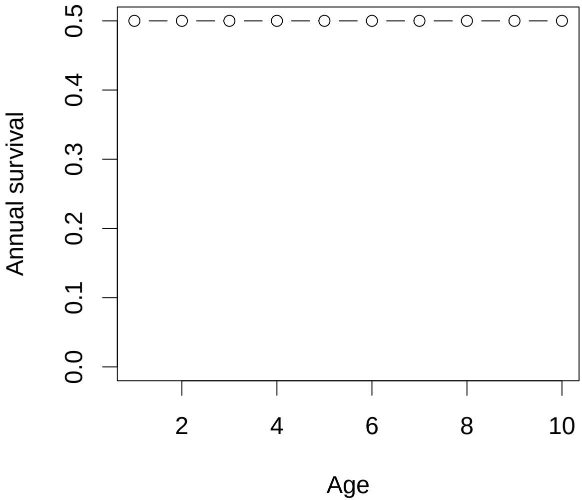
Patterns of survivorship

- What sort of patterns do you expect to see in p_x?
  - * Younger individuals usually have lower survivorship
  - * Older individuals often have lower survivorship
- What about ℓ_x?
  - * It goes down
  - * But sometimes faster and sometimes slower
  - * Best understood on a log scale

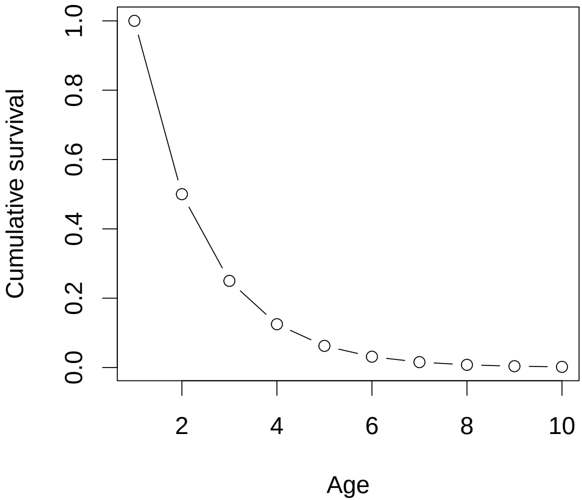
Starting off

- Recall: we always start from age *class* 1
  - If we count newborns, we still call them class 1.
- What is ℓ_1 when we count before reproduction?
  - * 1
  - * ℓ_1 is the probability you're counted at age class 1, *given that* you're counted at age class 1.
  - * We don't count individuals that we don't count

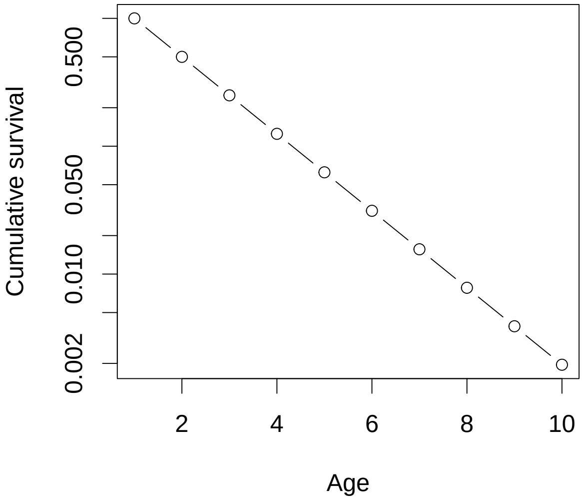
Constant survivorship (present)



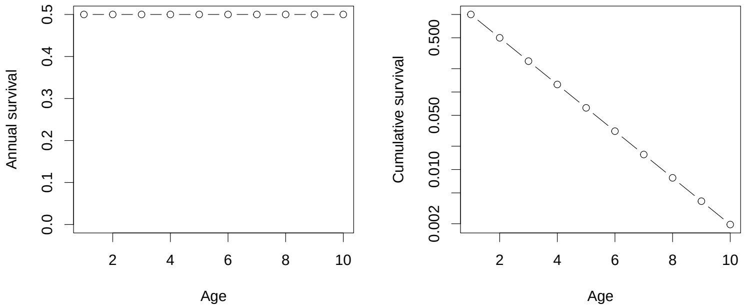
Constant survivorship (present)



Constant survivorship (present)



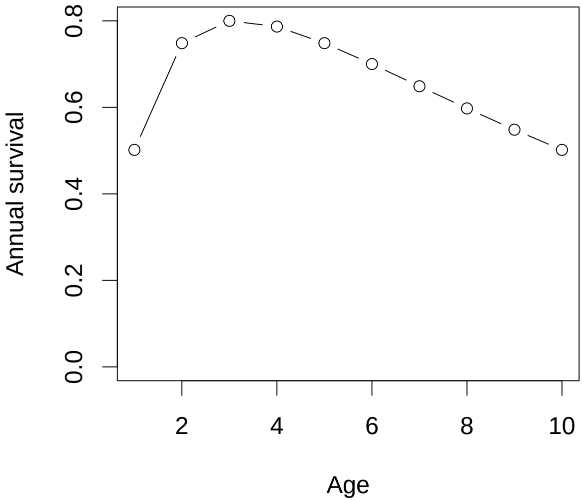
Constant survivorship



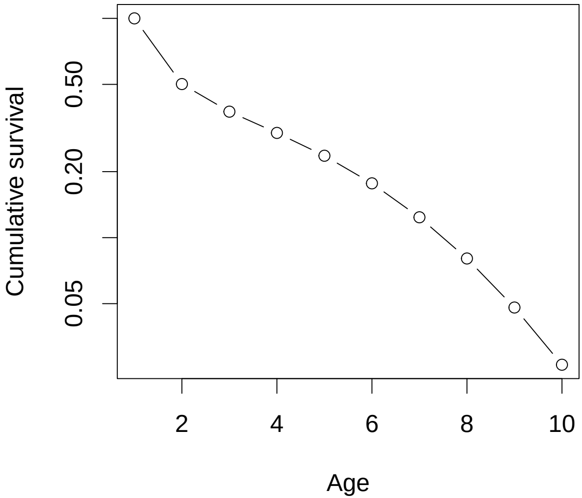
“Types” of survivorship

- There is a history of defining survivorship as:
  - Type I, II or III depending on whether it increases, stays constant or decreases with age *(don’t memorize this, just be aware in case you encounter it later in life)*.
  - Real populations tend to be more complicated
- Most common pattern is: high mortality at high and low ages, with less mortality between

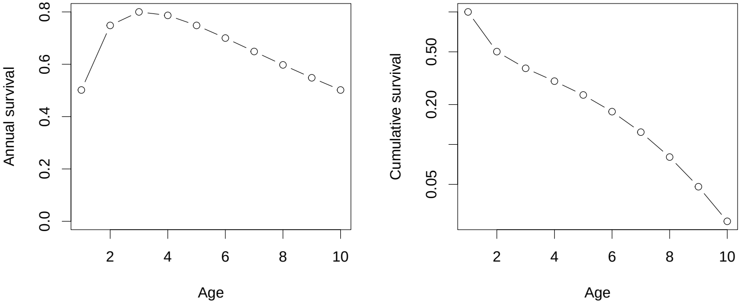
Changing survivorship (present)



Changing survivorship (present)



Changing survivorship



Outline

Fecundity

- Just as in our simple population growth models, we define fecundity as the expected number of offspring at the next census produced by an individual observed at this census
  - Parent must survive from counting to reproduction
  - Parent must give birth
  - Offspring must survive from birth to counting
- Remember to think clearly about sex when necessary
  - Are we tracking females, or everyone?

Fecundity patterns

- f_x is the average number of new individuals *counted* next census per individual in age class x *counted* this census
- Fecundity often goes up early in life and then remains constant
  - * Most birds, many large mammals
- It may also go up and then come down
  - * people
- It may also go up and up as organisms get older
  - * Many fish, many trees

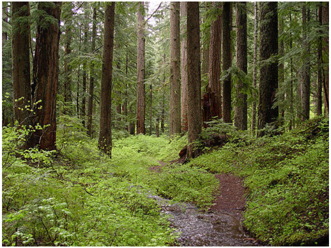
Age distributions

- Not covered this year
- http://www.gapminder.org/population/tool/
- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Population_pyramid

Outline

Forest example

- Forests have obvious population structure
- They also seem to remain stable for long periods of time
- Populations are presumably *regulated* at some time scale



Forest size classes

- When we go to an apparently stable forest ecosystem, it seems to be dominated by large trees, not small ones. What up?
- How is it possible that these systems are dominated by large trees?
  - * Large trees are larger
  - * Population may be declining
  - * Trees may spend longer in some size classes than in others
  - * Life table may not be constant (smaller trees may recruit at certain times and places)

Outline

Stage structure

- Stage structure works just like age structure, except that what stage you are in is not strictly predicted by how old you are
  - Age-structured models need fecundity, and survival probability
  - * In stage-structured models survival is typically broken into:
    - * Survival into same stage
    - * Survival with recruitment (ie., to the next larger class of individuals)
  - More complicated models are also possible

Advantages

- Stage structured models don't need a maximum age
- Nor one box for every single age class

Unregulated growth

- What happens if you have a constant stage table (no regulation)?
  - Fecundity, and survival and recruitment probabilities are constant
- Similar to constant life table
  - Can calculate $\mathcal{R}$ and λ (will be consistent with each other)
  - Can calculate a stable stage distribution
  - *$\mathcal{R}$ is about the same as in age structured model*
- Unregulated growth cannot persist

Summary

- If the life table remains constant (no regulation or stochasticity):
  - Reach a stable age (or stage) distribution
  - Grow or decline with a constant λ
  - Factors behind age distribution can be understood

Outline

Regulated growth

- Our models in this unit assume that individuals are independent
- In this case, we expect populations to grow (or decline) exponentially
- We do not expect that the long-term average value of $\mathcal{R}$ or λ will be exactly 1.

The value of simple models

- There is a lot of mathematical study of unregulated, age-structured populations, but it should be taken with a grain of salt
  - * We know that real populations are regulated
  - * Populations can't increase or decrease exponentially for very long
- Understanding this behaviour is helpful:
  - interpreting age structures in real populations
  - beginning to understand more complicated systems

Regulation and structure

- We expect real populations to be regulated
- The long-term average value of λ under regulation *could* be exactly 1
- There is also likely to be substantial variation from year to year, due to changing conditions and other random-seeming forces

Dynamics

- We expect to see smooth behaviour in many cases
- Cycles and complex behaviour should arise for reasons similar to our unstructured models:
  - Delays in the system
  - Strong population response to density
- Age distribution will be determined by:
  - ℓ_x, and
  - whether the population has been growing or declining recently