

# Cons. Sci. Week 5: Population Ecology and Island Biogeography

Isla Myers-Smith  
School of GeoSciences

# Schedule for Today

9:30 - 10:00 - Lecture Population Ecology

10:00 - 10:30 Activity 1 - Island biogeography colonisation

10:30 - 10:45 Break

10:45 - 11:15 - Lecture Island Biogeography

11:15 – 11:40 Discussion of Island Biogeography as applied to conservation

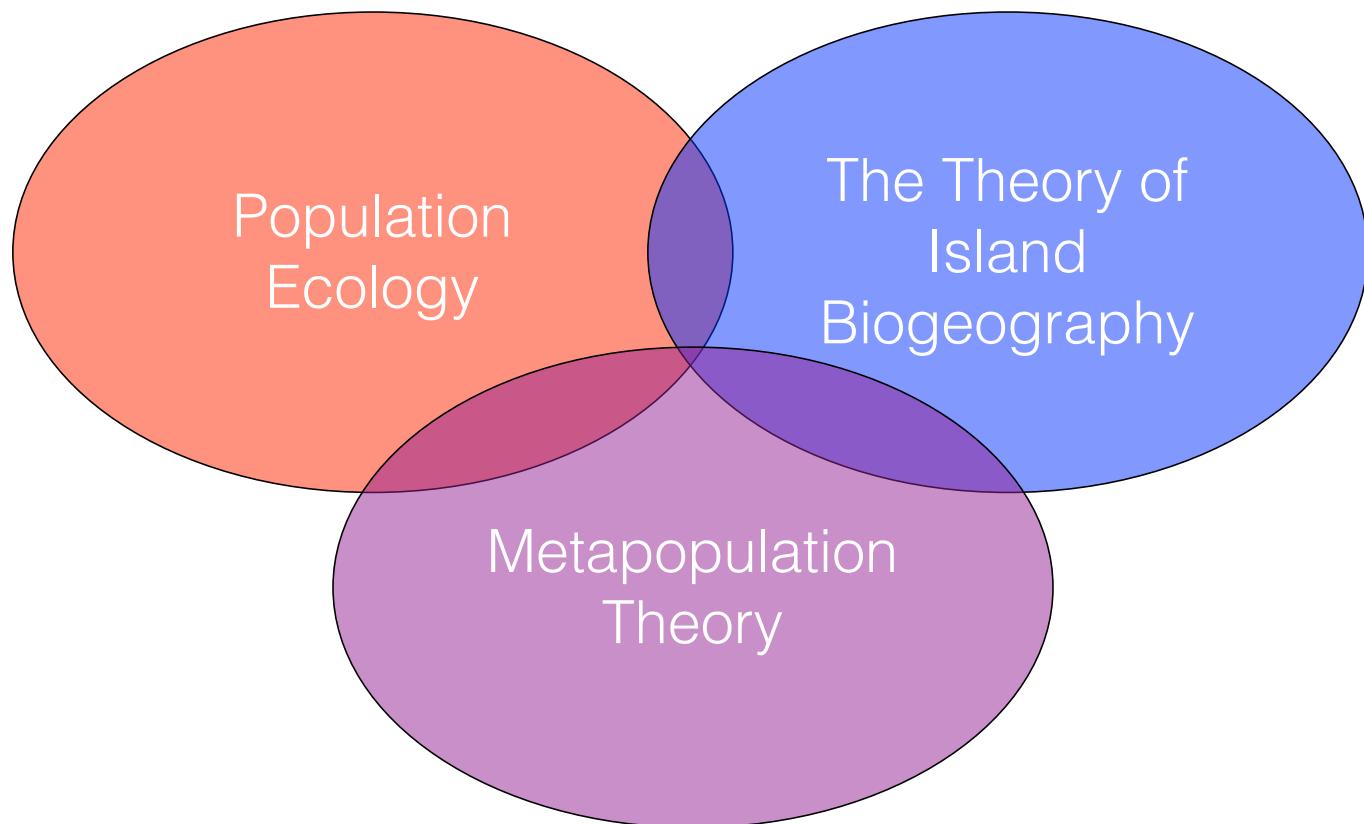
11:40 - 12:15 Activity in groups - mark recapture population estimates

12:00 - 12:30 Debrief of discussions and activities

- Report back from each group on the mark recapture estimates

Discussion of homework, fieldtrip, blog, opinion pieces, course conference, etc.

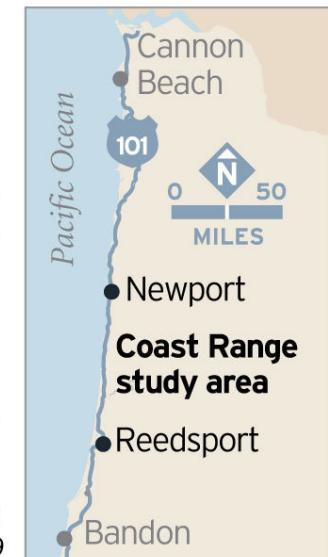
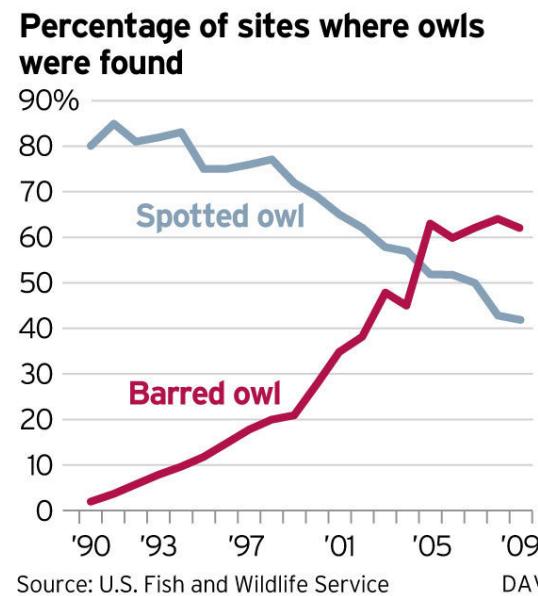
# Today's Lecture



# Population Ecology

- Learning Objectives:
- Population viability analysis
- Exponential population growth
- Demographic stochasticity
- Population matrices
- The extinction vortex
- Genetics in conservation

# Population Viability analysis

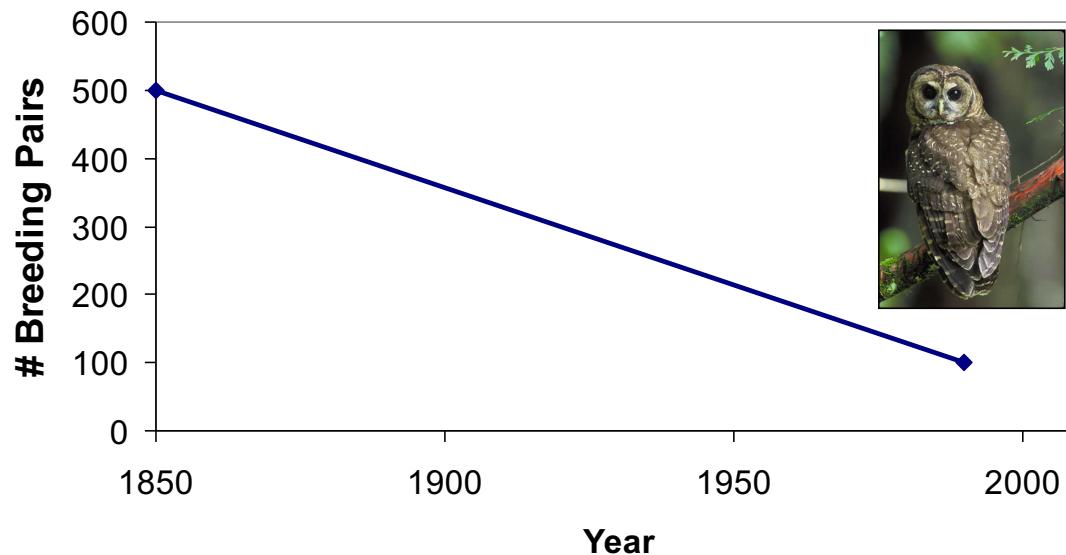


DAVID BADDERS/THE OREGONIAN

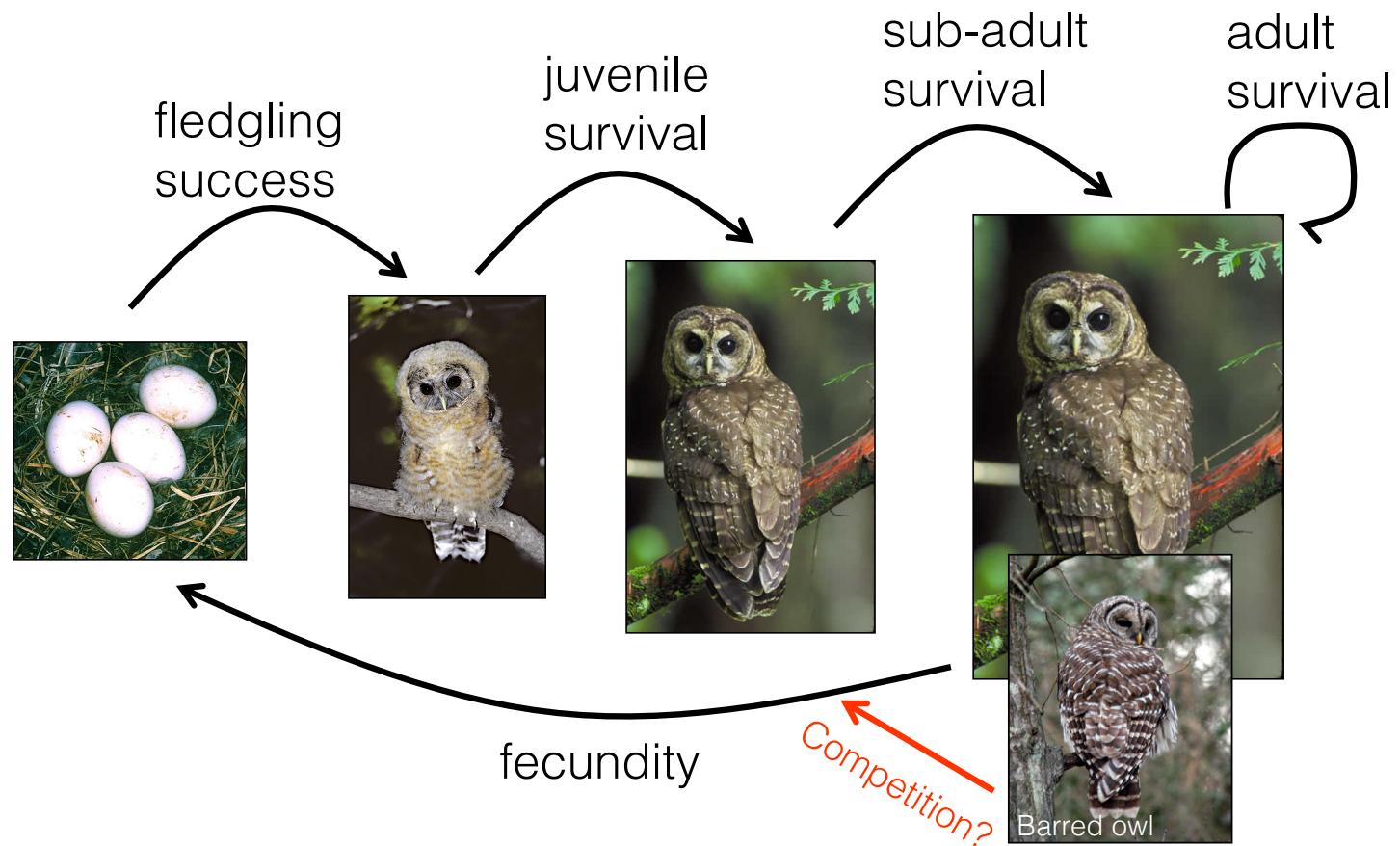
Morris & Doak (2002) Quantitative Conservation Biology

## Simple Model:

- Count individuals over time
- Estimate trend
- Project forward



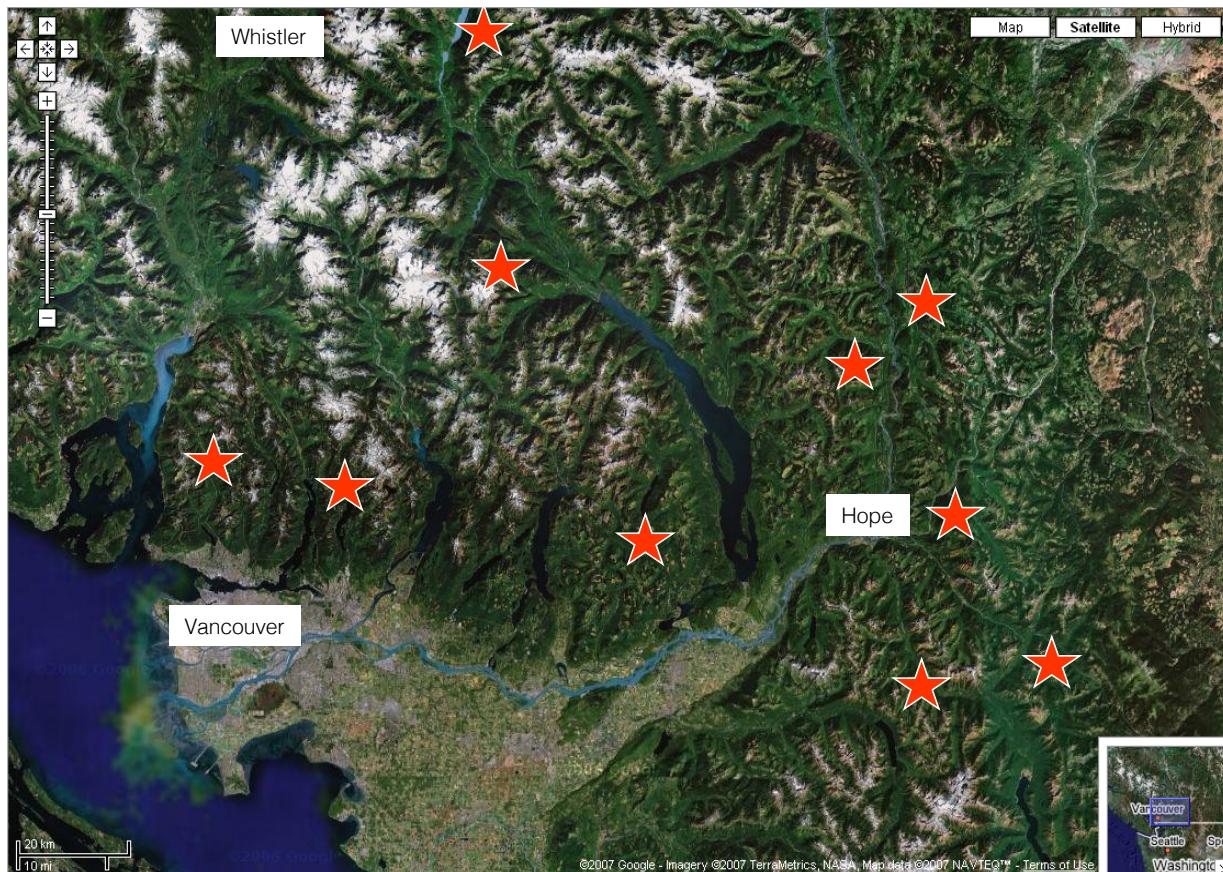
# Adding realism: Demographic structure



# Adding realism: Spatial structure

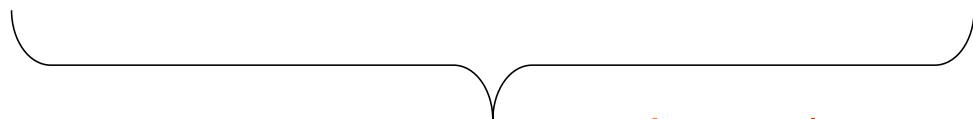


Potentially  
suitable  
owl habitat



# A SIMPLE MODEL: Exponential Population Growth

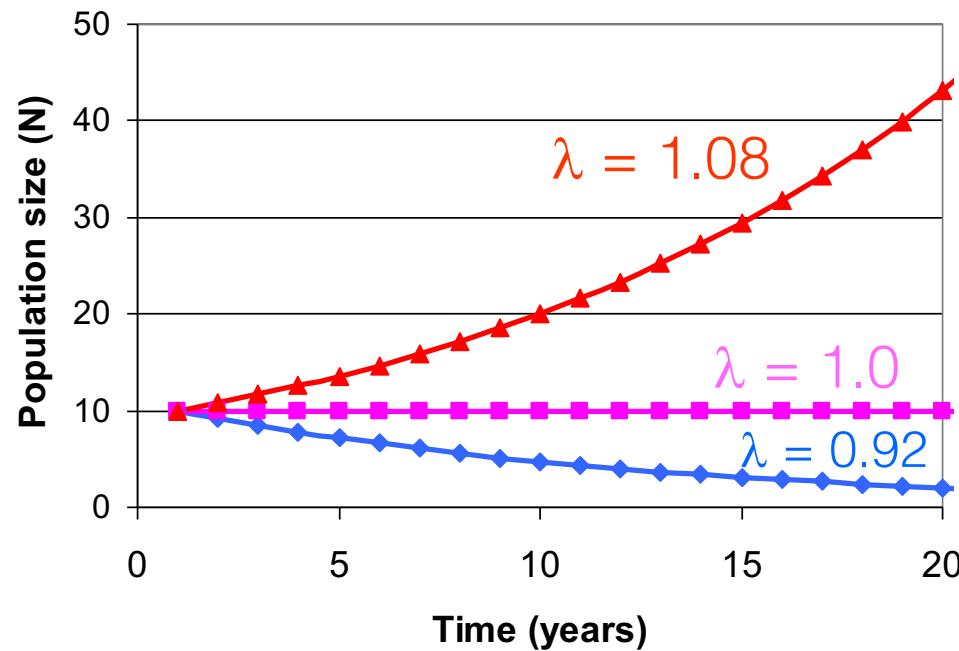
$$N_{t+1} = N_t \times (1 + \text{birth} - \text{death} + \text{immigration} - \text{emigration})$$



$$N_{t+1} = N_t \times \lambda \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{Annual} \\ \text{population} \\ \text{growth rate} \end{array}$$

If  $\lambda$  is constant in time, we have only three possibilities

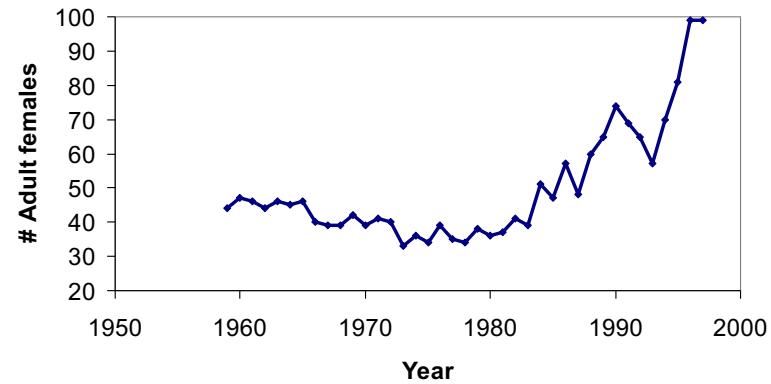
$$N_{t+1} = N_t \times \lambda$$



The outcome is deterministic

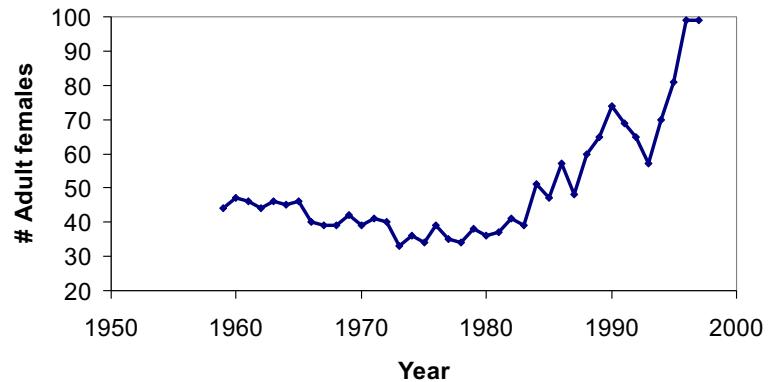
# But life is not entirely deterministic...

Grizzly bears in Yellowstone



# But life is not entirely deterministic...

Grizzly bears in Yellowstone



## Sources of stochasticity:

- Demographic
- Environmental
- Genetic

# Demographic Stochasticity

What does a per capita birth rate of 0.2 mean?

Does every adult have 0.2 offspring?

# Demographic Stochasticity

What does a per capita birth rate of 0.2 mean?

Does every adult have 0.2 offspring?

No, for every  $z$  individuals now, we expect  $0.2 \times z$  new offspring next year

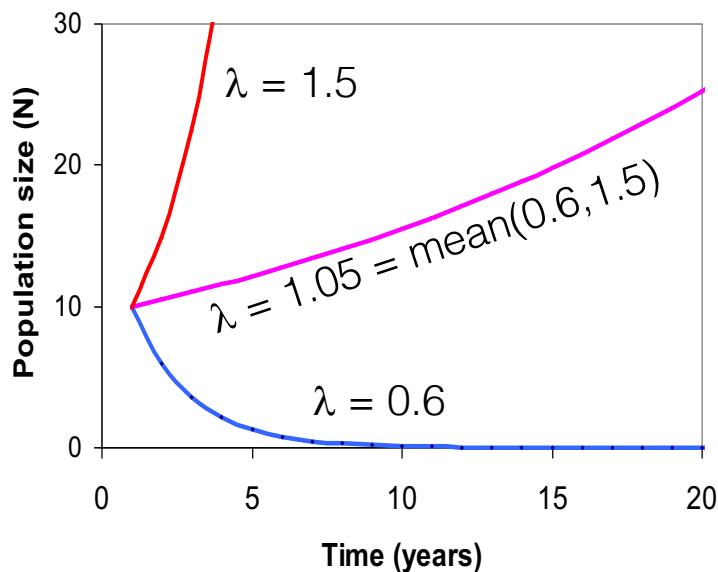
e.g., in a population of 100, we expect 20 new offspring next year

Each adult produces 0, 1, 2... etc. offspring,  
and the average is 0.2

With 10 individuals, we expect 2 offspring in an average year,  
but we could get 0, 1, 2, 3, etc.  
because of demographic stochasticity

# Environmental variability

Deterministic population growth



$$N_{t+1} = N_t \times \lambda$$

What happens if we alternate  
 $\lambda = 0.6$  and  $\lambda = 1.5$ ?

- (A) Population increase
- (B) Population decrease
- (C) Population steady
- (D) Unpredictable

$$N_{t+1} = \underbrace{N_t \times \lambda_1}_{\downarrow}$$

$$N_{t+2} = N_{t+1} \times \lambda_2$$

$$N_{t+2} = N_t \times \lambda_2 \times \lambda_1$$

and so on...

- If this is  $> 1$ , the pop. will grow over the 2 yrs
- If  $< 1$  it will shrink

If we pick randomly from  $n$  possible values of  $\lambda$  in each year, the long-term expected population growth rate is given by the geometric mean of the  $\lambda$ 's

$$\lambda_1 = 0.6$$

$$\lambda_2 = 1.5$$

Geometric mean:

$$\left( \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \right)^{1/n}$$

In this case ( $n = 2$ ):

$$N_{t+1} = \underbrace{N_t \times \lambda_1}_{\downarrow}$$

$$N_{t+2} = N_{t+1} \times \lambda_2$$

$$N_{t+2} = N_t \times \lambda_2 \times \lambda_1$$

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$$\lambda_1 = 0.6$$

$$\lambda_2 = 1.5$$

Geometric mean:

$$\left( \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \right)^{1/n}$$

In this case ( $n = 2$ ):

$$(0.6 \times 1.5)^{1/2} = 0.949$$

(arithmetic mean = 1.05)

# Why?

Population growth is a multiplicative process

$\lambda = 1.5$  means we multiply the population size by 1.5

$\lambda = 0.6$  means we divide the population size by  $1/0.6 = 1.67$

If we randomly chose  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  at each time step, the expected average population growth is the geometric mean, not the arithmetic mean

Arithmetic mean

$$(0.6 + 1.5)/2 = 1.05$$

Population grows (wrong)

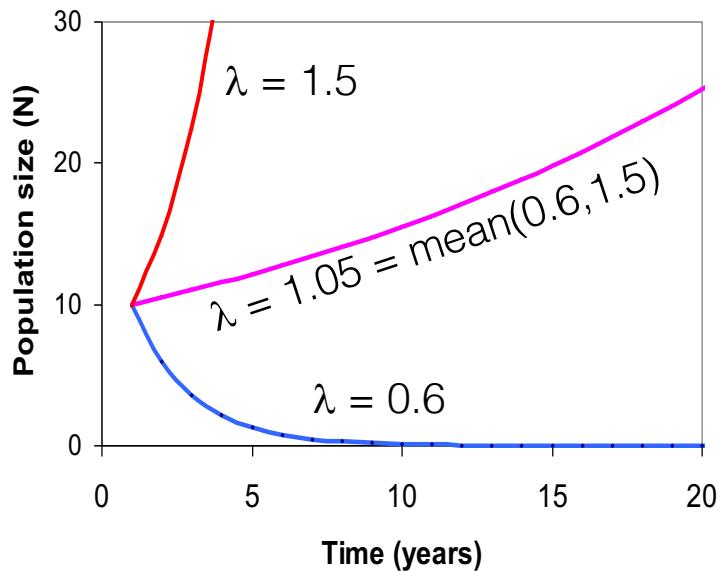
Geometric mean

$$(0.6 \times 1.5)^{1/2} = 0.949$$

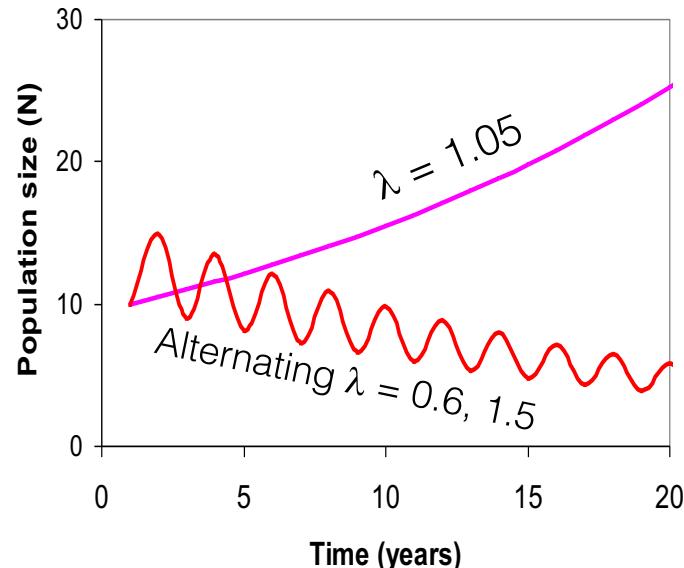
Population shrinks (right)

# Environmental variability

Deterministic population growth



$N_{t+1} = N_t \times \lambda$   
What happens if we alternate  
 $\lambda = 0.6$  and  $\lambda = 1.5$ ?



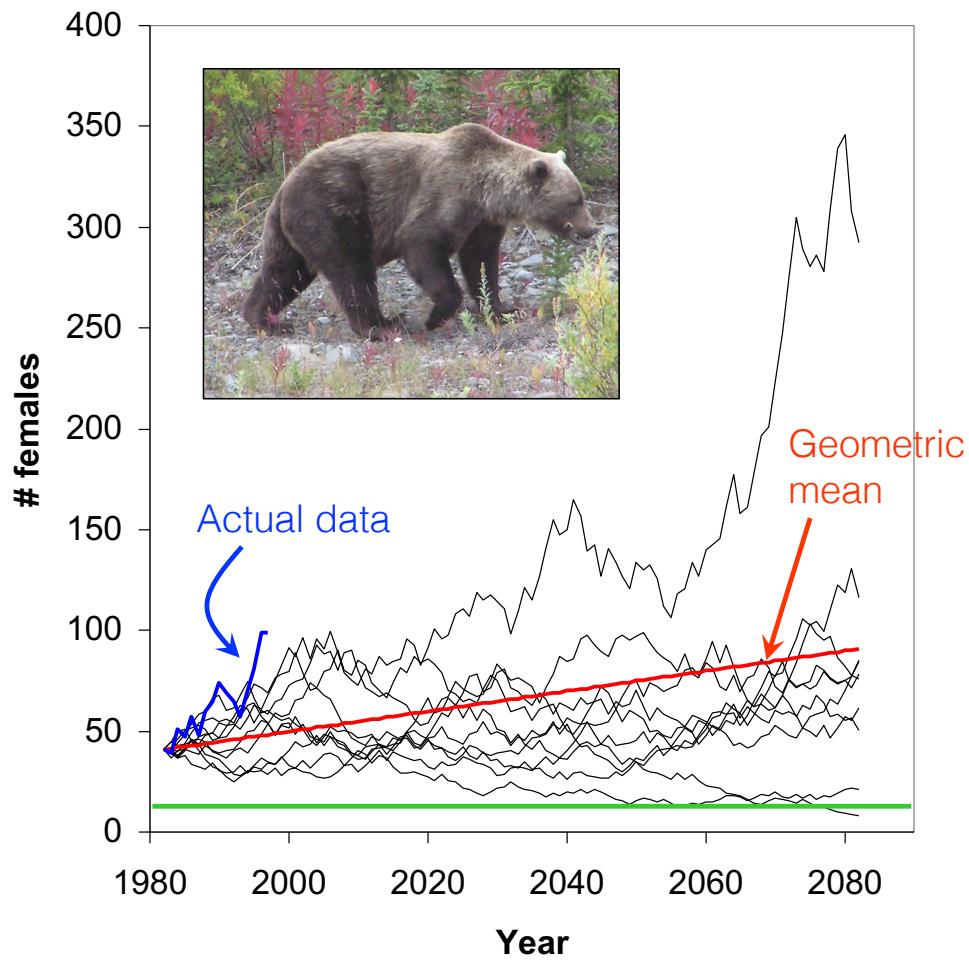
# Simple Population Viability Analysis

- Start with 41 bears, pick one of six  $\lambda$ 's at random in subsequent years, project forward
- Decide on extinction/viability threshold,  $N = 10$
- Calculate proportion of simulations that dip below threshold during 100 years



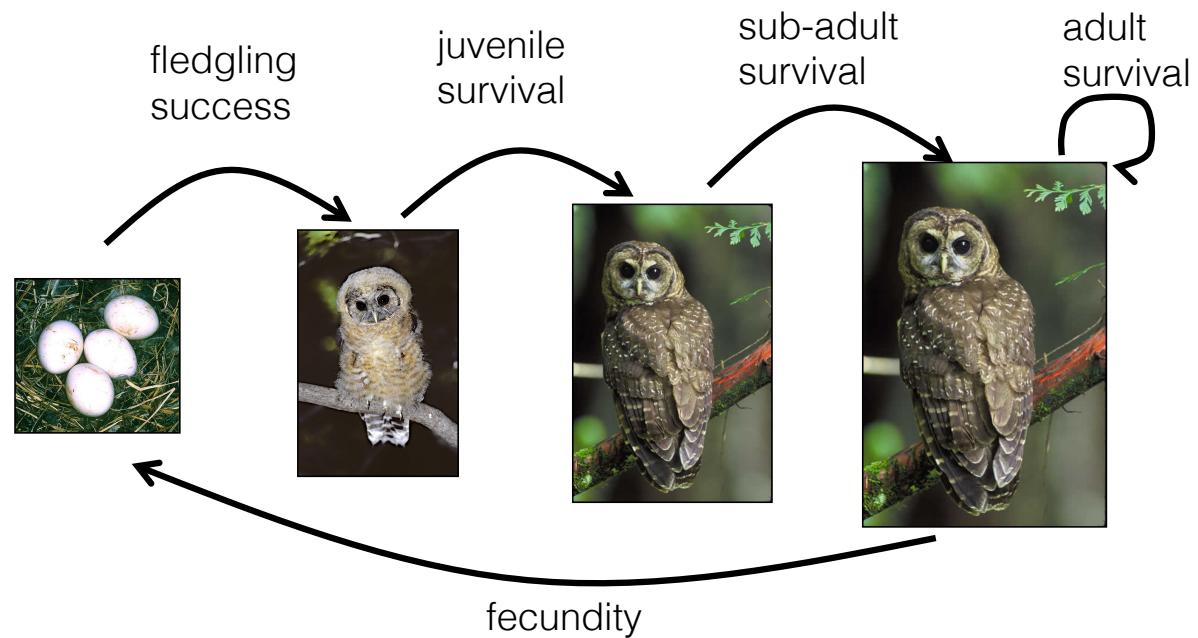
## Simple Population Viability Analysis: Grizzly Bears in Yellowstone

- Extinction threshold: 10
- Ten simulations
- Positive expected pop. growth
- Actual pop. growth better than expected



## Structured population models: The population projection matrix

If we can collect the data, a more realistic (complex) model can be more useful



## The population projection matrix

Stage at time:  $\rightarrow t$



	fledgling	juvenile	adult
$t + 1$	0	0	2 (# surviving fledglings/adult)
fledgling survival	0.8	0.35	0
	0	0.4	0.8 adult survival

only adults produce eggs

prob. of juv. becoming adult

prob. of juv. staying juv.

prob. of juv. becoming adult

# Projecting population growth: Matrix algebra

Projection matrix



0	0	2
0.8	0.35	0
0	0.4	0.8

$\times$

10
8
7

$\times$

# individuals in each stage at time t

$=$

14 $0 \times 10 + 0 \times 8 + 2 \times 7$
10.8 $0.8 \times 10 + 0.35 \times 8 + 0 \times 7$
8.8 $0 \times 10 + 0.4 \times 8 + 0.8 \times 7$

$=$

$n(t+1)$

A

Using matrix algebra and some other mathematical tools, we can calculate:

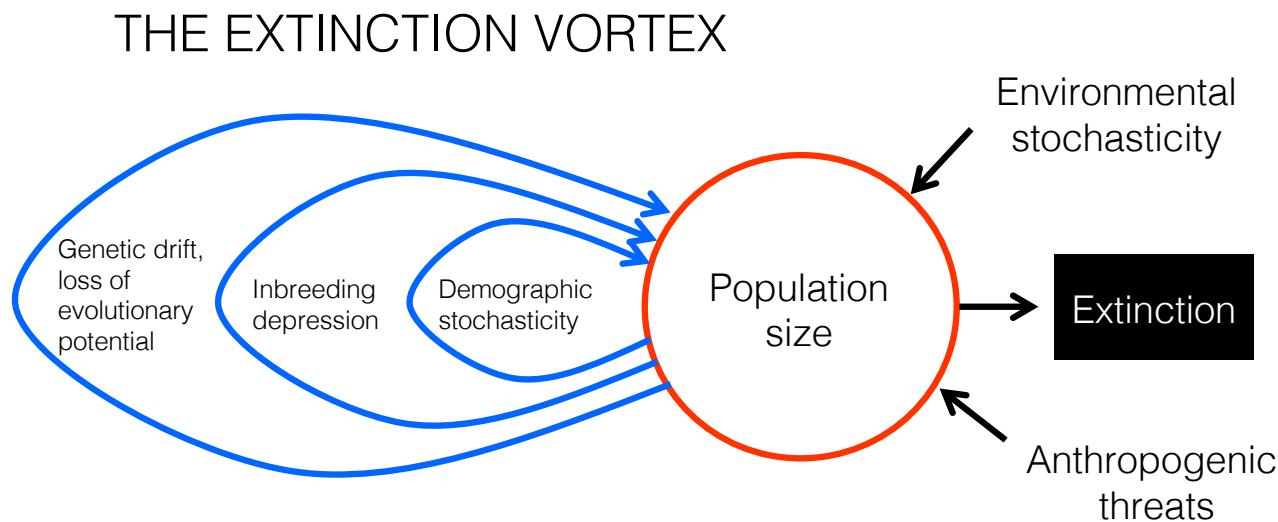
- 1) The population growth rate,  $\lambda$
- 2) The stable stage distribution (proportions of individuals in each stage at equilibrium)
- 3) The sensitivity of  $\lambda$  to small changes in each matrix element



What would be the consequences of management interventions that affected different life stages?

# The Problem with Being Small

- Sensitivity to environmental variation (one bad year could wipe you out)
- Inbreeding and loss of genetic variation
- Amplified effect of demographic stochasticity

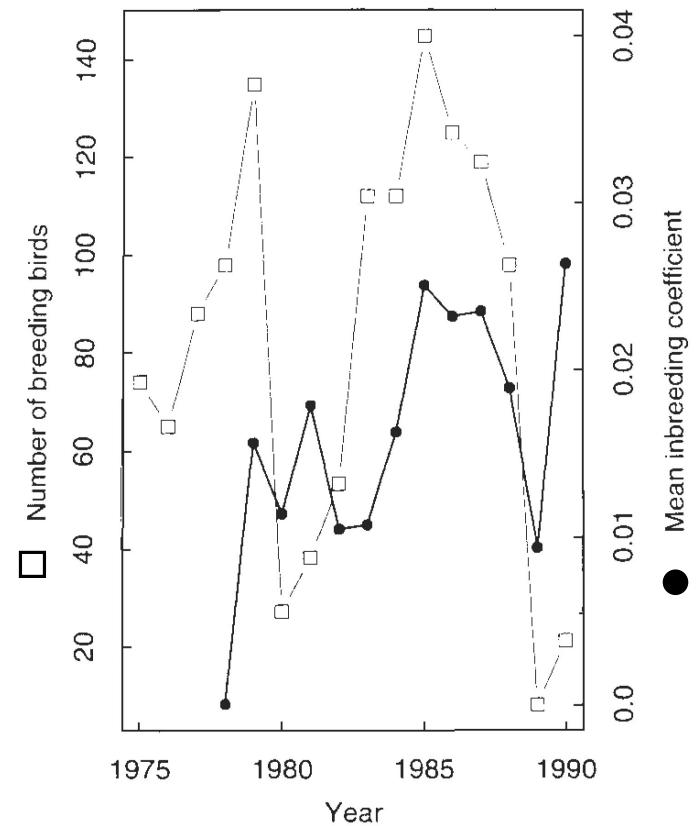


# Song sparrows on Mandarte Island, B.C.

Inbred birds selected against during severe population crash, 1989



Jamie Smith



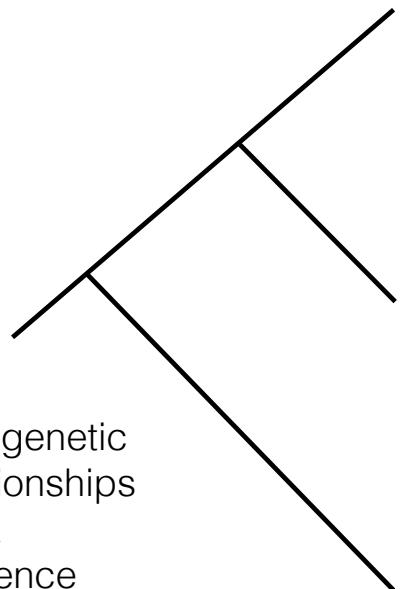
Keller et al. (1994) Nature

# Other applications of genetics in conservation

## Resolving taxonomic uncertainty

Some distinctions are clear ..... others are not so clear

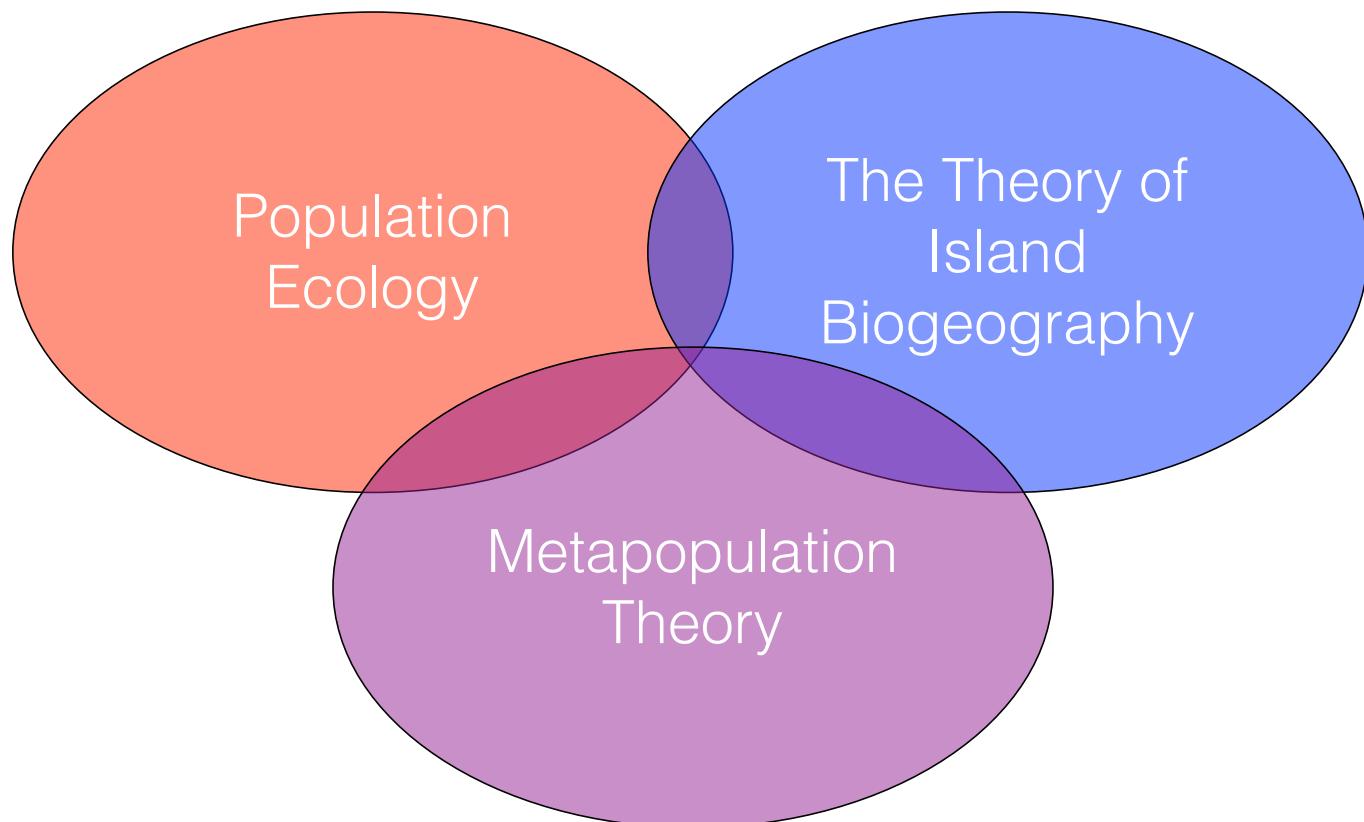
Phylogenetic  
Relationships  
(DNA  
sequence  
data)



hybridization

April 2006, NWT

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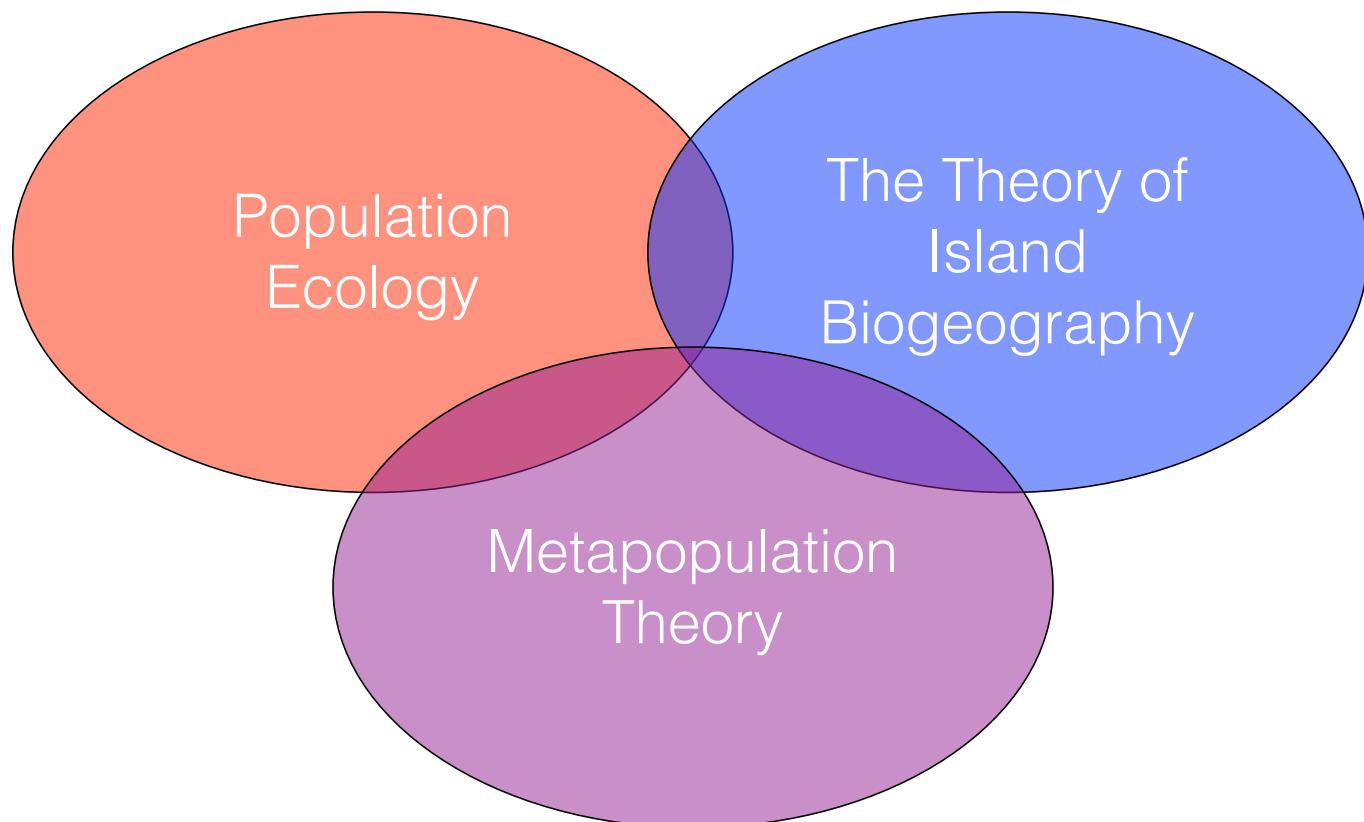
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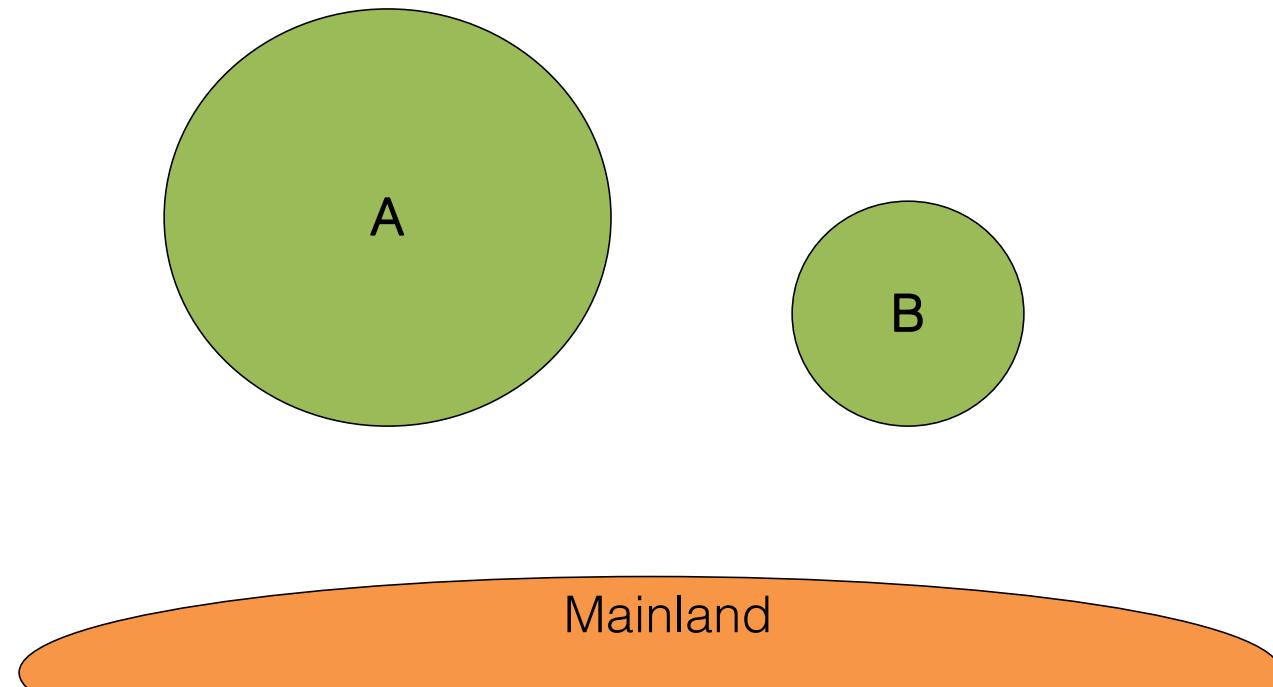
# Island Biogeography

Learning Objectives:

- Species-Area and Species-Isolation relationships
- Equilibrium Theory of Island Biogeography
- Metapopulation dynamics
- Habitat fragmentation and edge effects
- Extinction debt and colonisation credit

# Island Area and Species Richness

Which island has more species?



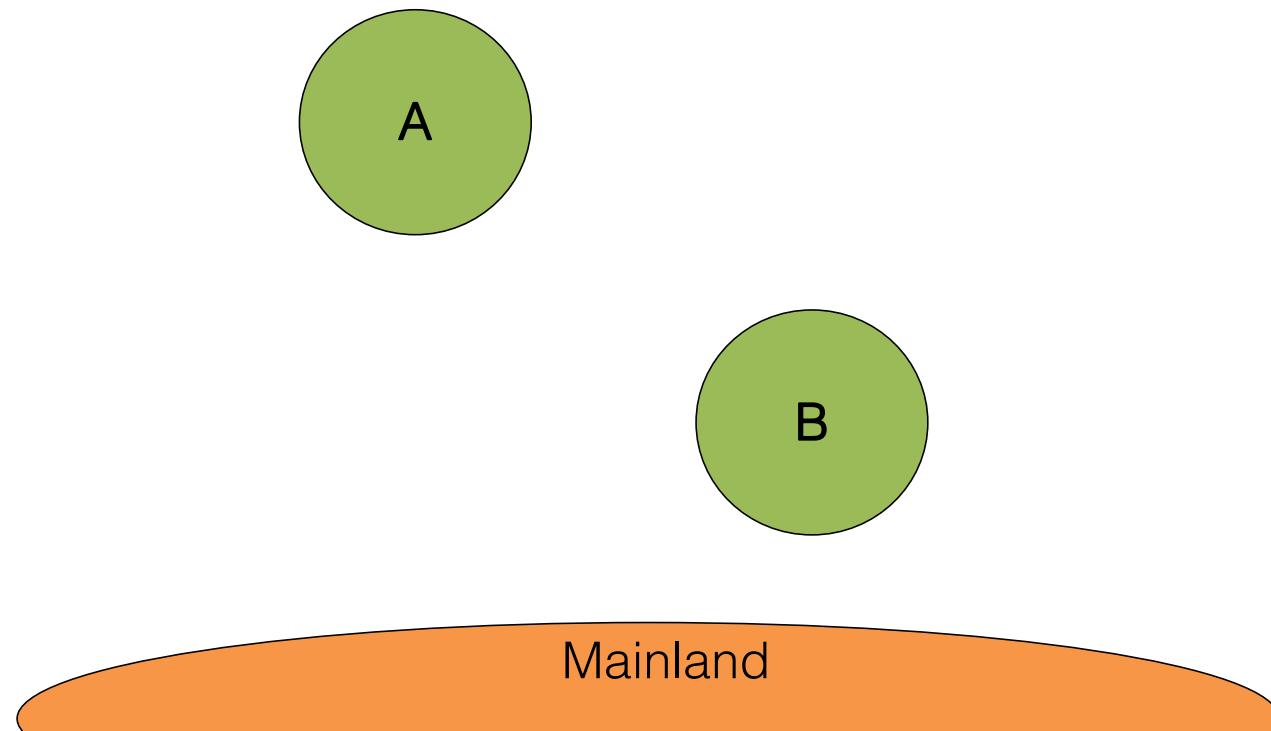
# Island Area and Species Richness

Larger islands tend to have more species

- More area → more habitat heterogeneity → more niches → more species
- Larger population sizes → lower extinction rates
  - Less chance of a stochastic event wiping out species
  - Less chance of inbreeding
- Larger islands can support species with large ranges

# Island Isolation and Species Richness

Which island has more species?

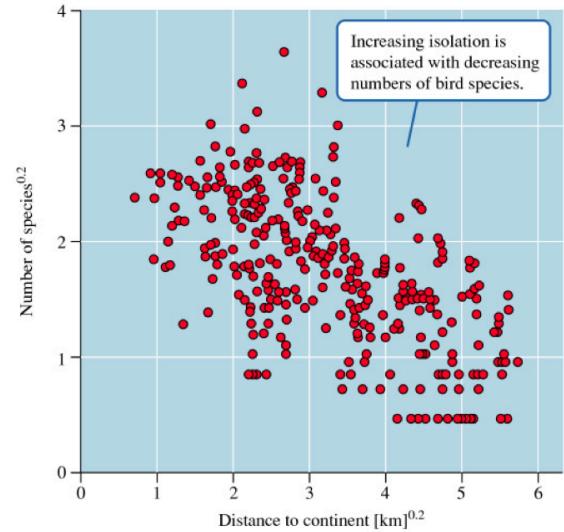
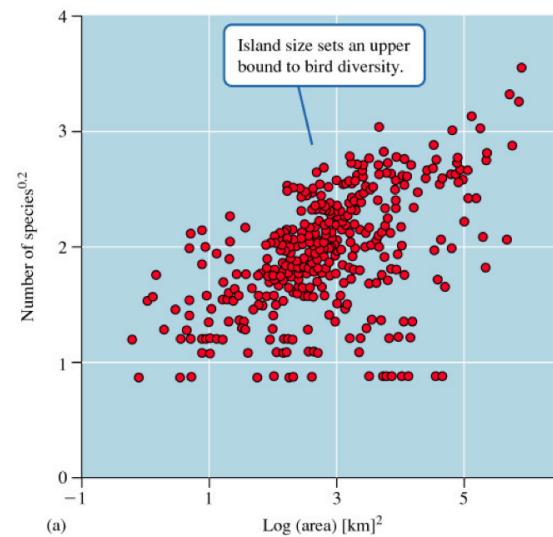
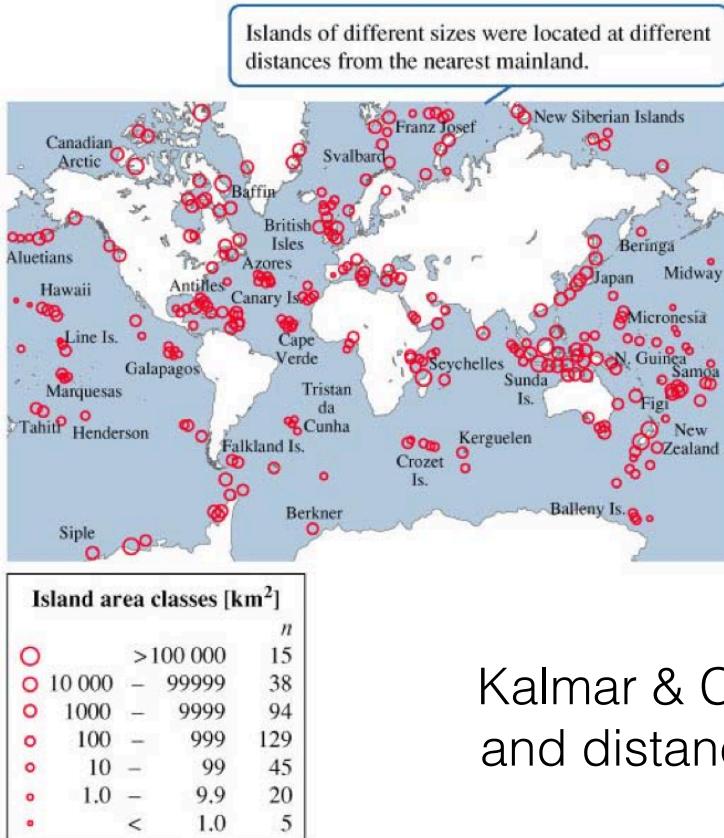


# Island Isolation and Species Richness

Islands closer to the mainland tend to have more species

- Higher colonization rates on close islands
  - New species can more easily disperse there
- Varies hugely for different groups of organisms based on dispersal ability

# Island Bird Diversity

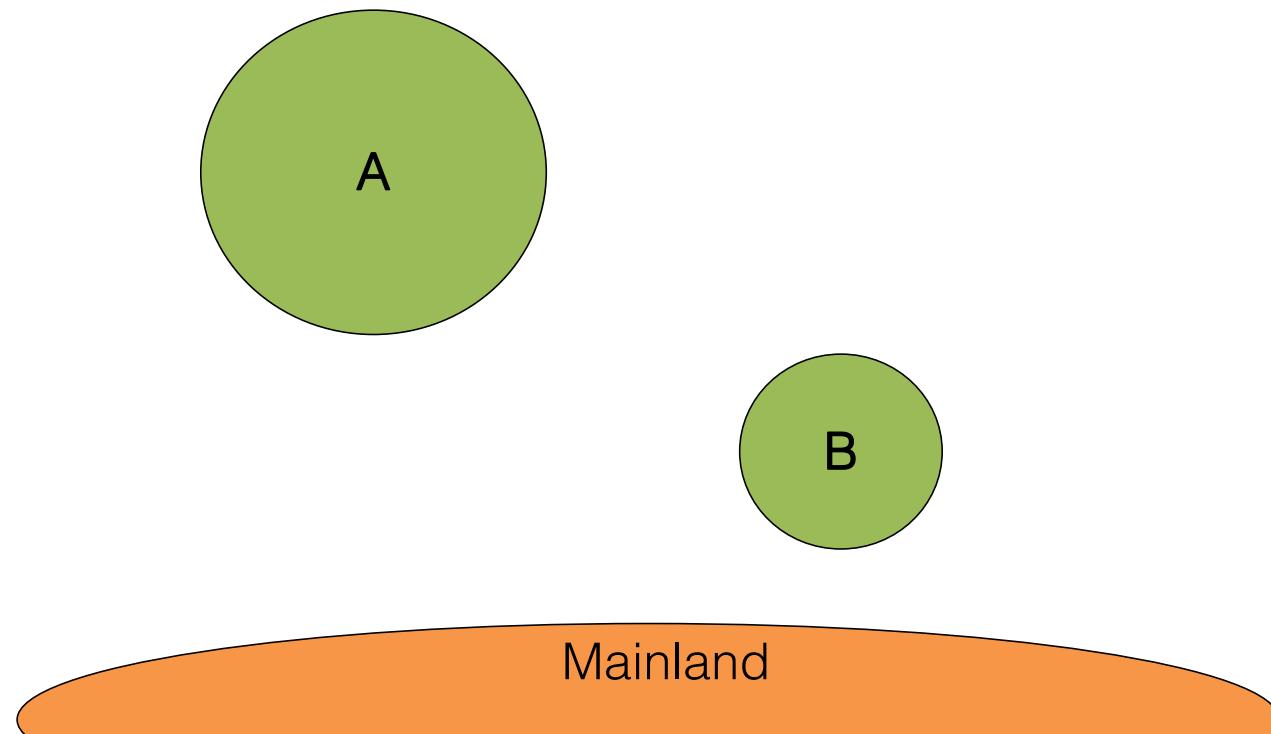


Kalmar & Curry (2006) concluded that both island size and distance from the mainland affected bird diversity

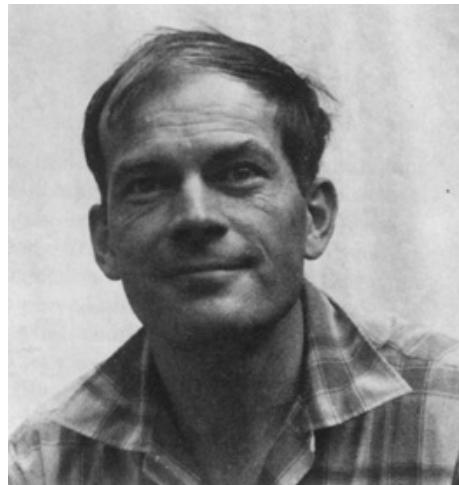
Kalmar & Curry Global Ecology and Biogeography, 2006

## Isolation and Area

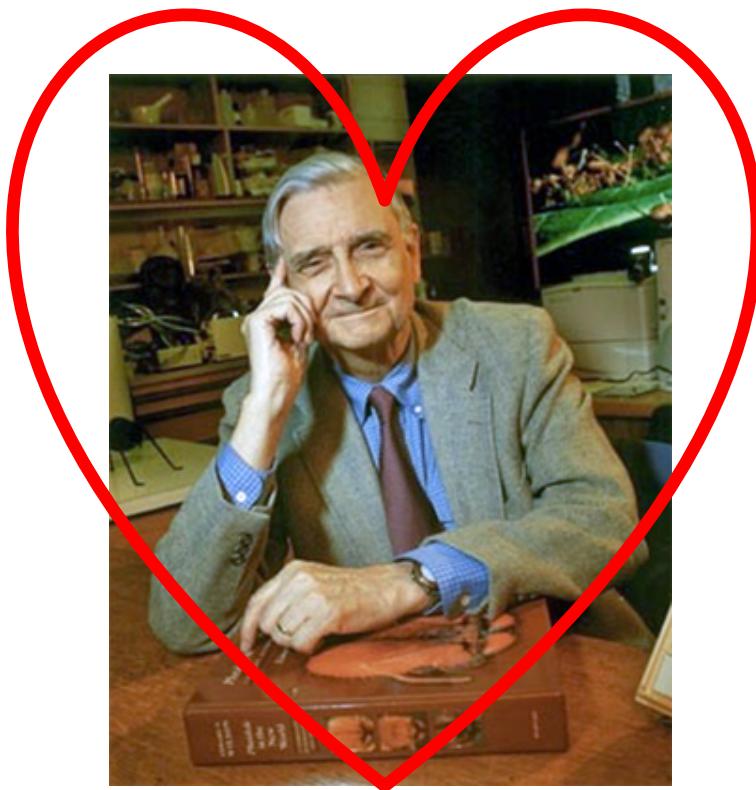
Which island has more species?



# Theory of Island Biogeography (1963, 1967)



Robert MacArthur



E.O. Wilson

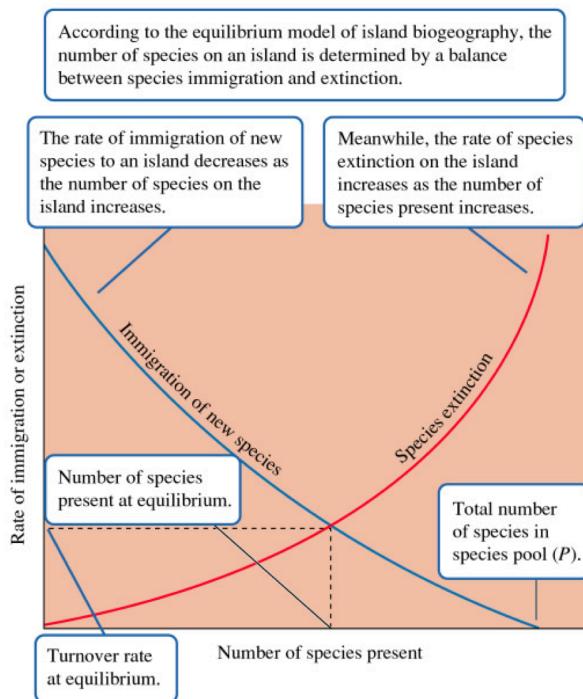
## Theory of Island Biogeography

- Patterns of species diversity on islands are the result of a balance between rates of immigration and extinction.
- The causal mechanisms are all those that contribute to immigration or extinction (e.g., ease of dispersal, larger population size, etc.).
- Mac & Wil used this model to predict how island size and isolation affect rates of immigration and extinction.

# Theory of Island Biogeography

Rate of immigration slows as number of species present increases:

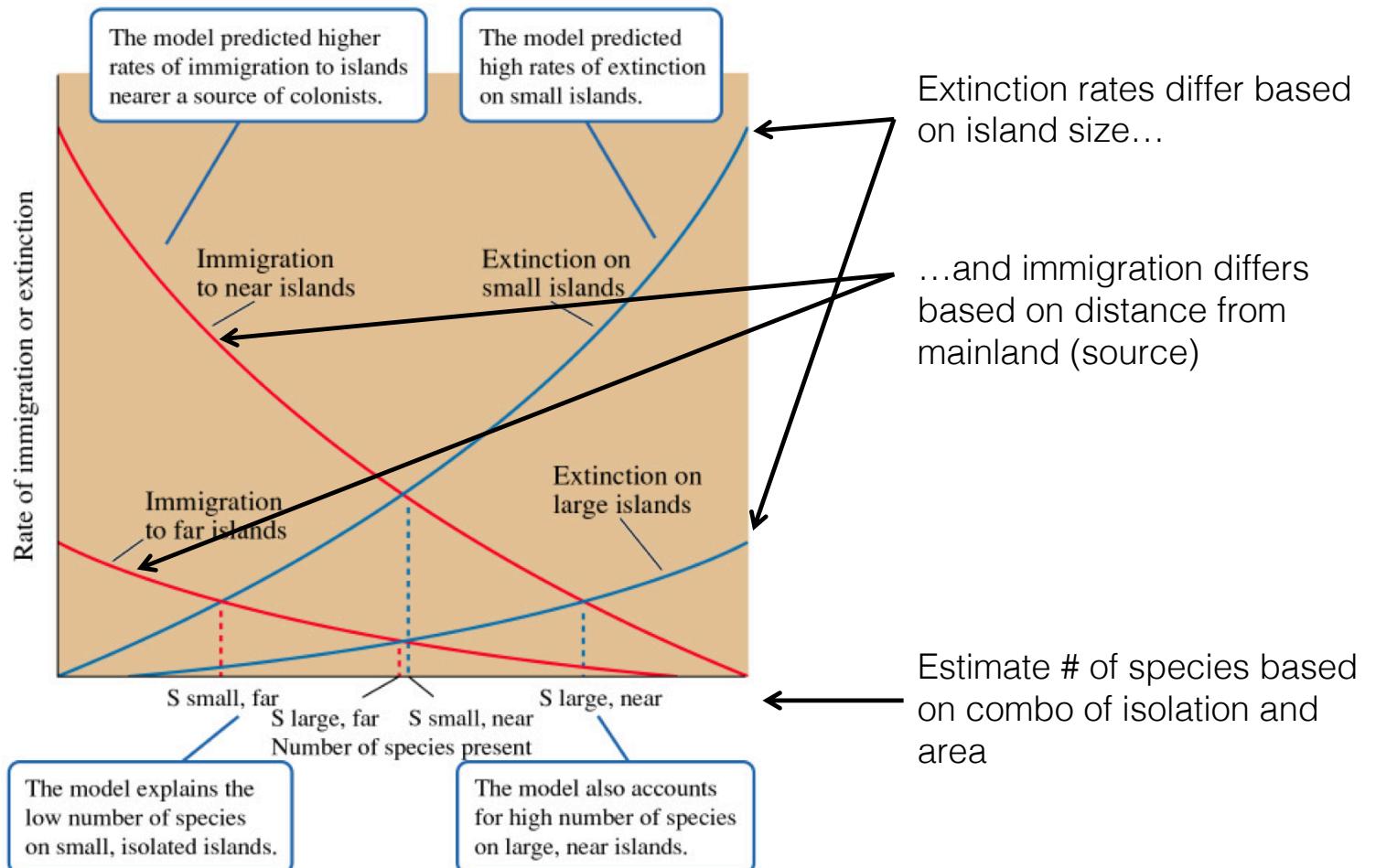
The chance that a new arrival is a new species becomes less as the number of species present approaches the size of the entire species pool.



Rate of extinction speeds up as number of species present increases:

- 1) Larger pool of possible extinctions
- 2) As total number of species increases, population size of each species must decrease
- 3) As number of species increases, potential for competitive interactions between species increases

The equilibrium model of island biogeography explained variation in number of species on islands by the influences of isolation and area on rates of immigration and extinction.



# Criticisms of the Theory

- Interspecific differences and interactions among species
  - Assumption that identities and characteristics of particular species aren't important
- Isolation from mainland may not be most meaningful measure of isolation
  - Species can disperse from other islands in an archipelago (“stepping stone” colonization)
- Importance of speciation
  - Speciation not included in model; generally considered a much slower process than colonization

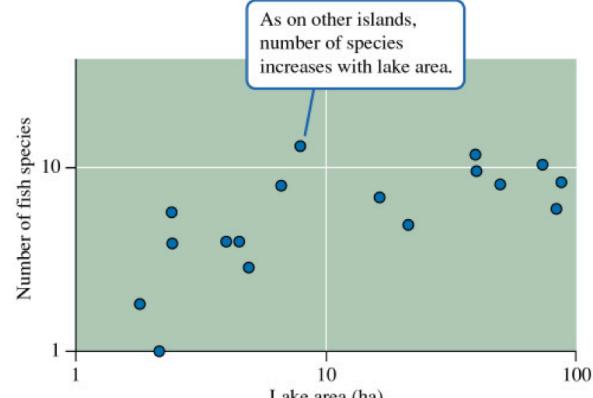
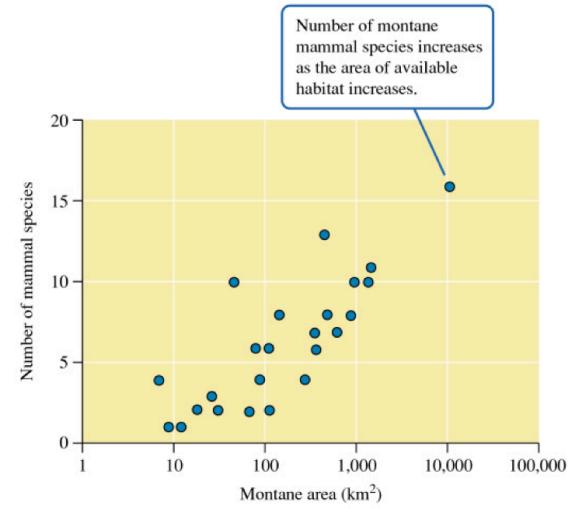
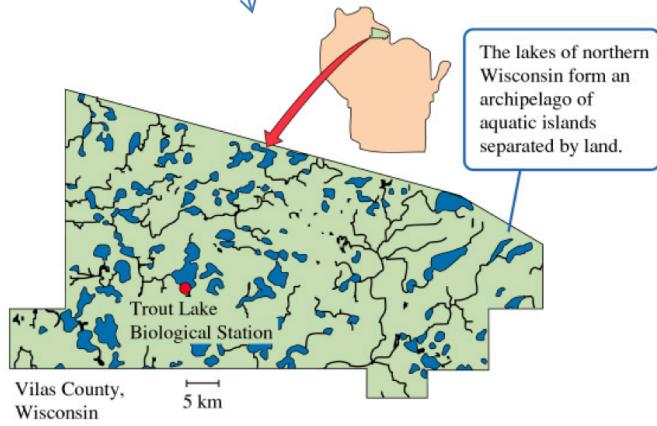
# Island Biogeography – Just for Islands?

## Species-area curves

“Islands” can include any habitat “patch” –

e.g. mountain habitat

or lakes



# Island Biogeography for populations?

- The same principles (species-area relationships and species-isolation relationships) apply to colonization and extinction rates of habitat patches in **meta-populations**.
- Instead of focusing on species richness (# of species) we now focus on the maintenance of a single species in a region.

## Metapopulations



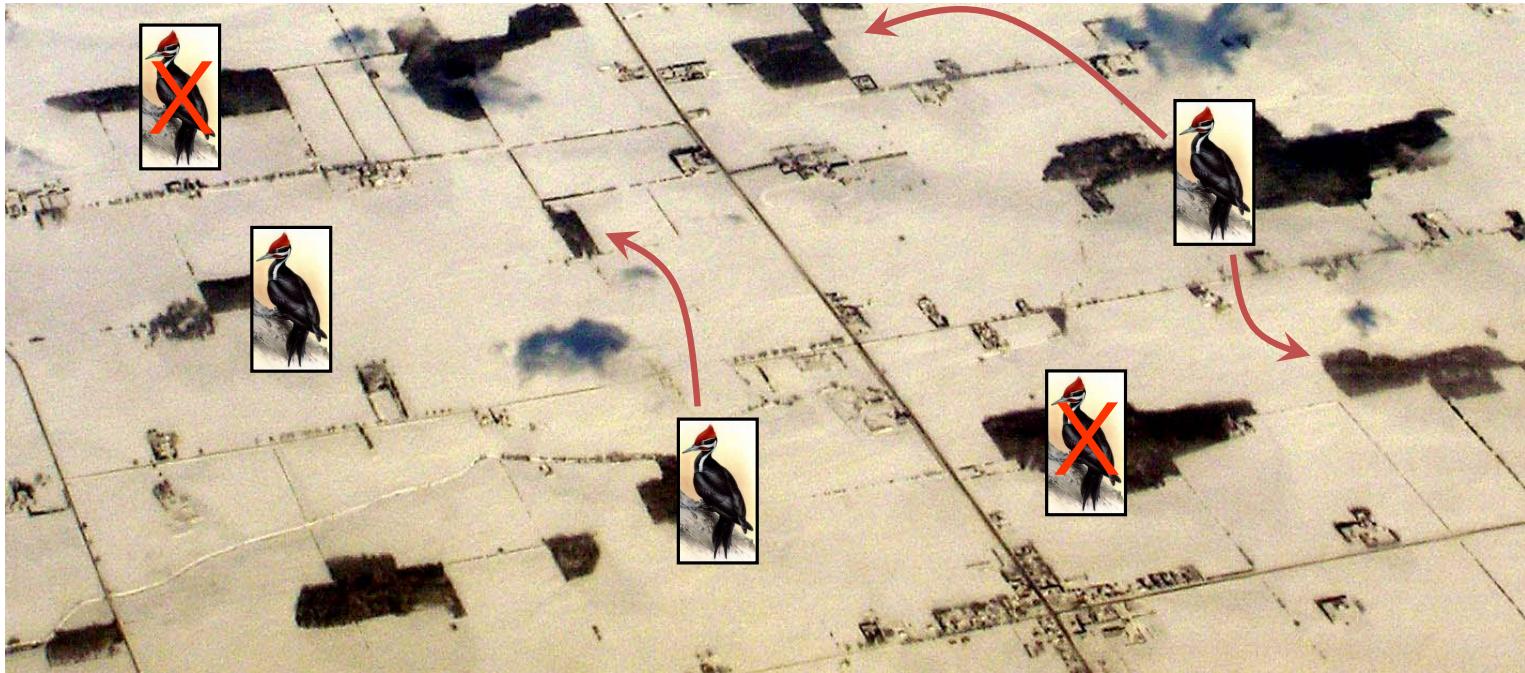


## Metapopulations

- Small populations within fragments – prone to extinction
- Recolonization of empty patches from occupied patches
- Persistence at regional scale: extinction-colonization balance



## Extinction and Colonisation



12 habitat patches, 5 are occupied

2 local extinctions, 3 patches colonised – now 6 are occupied

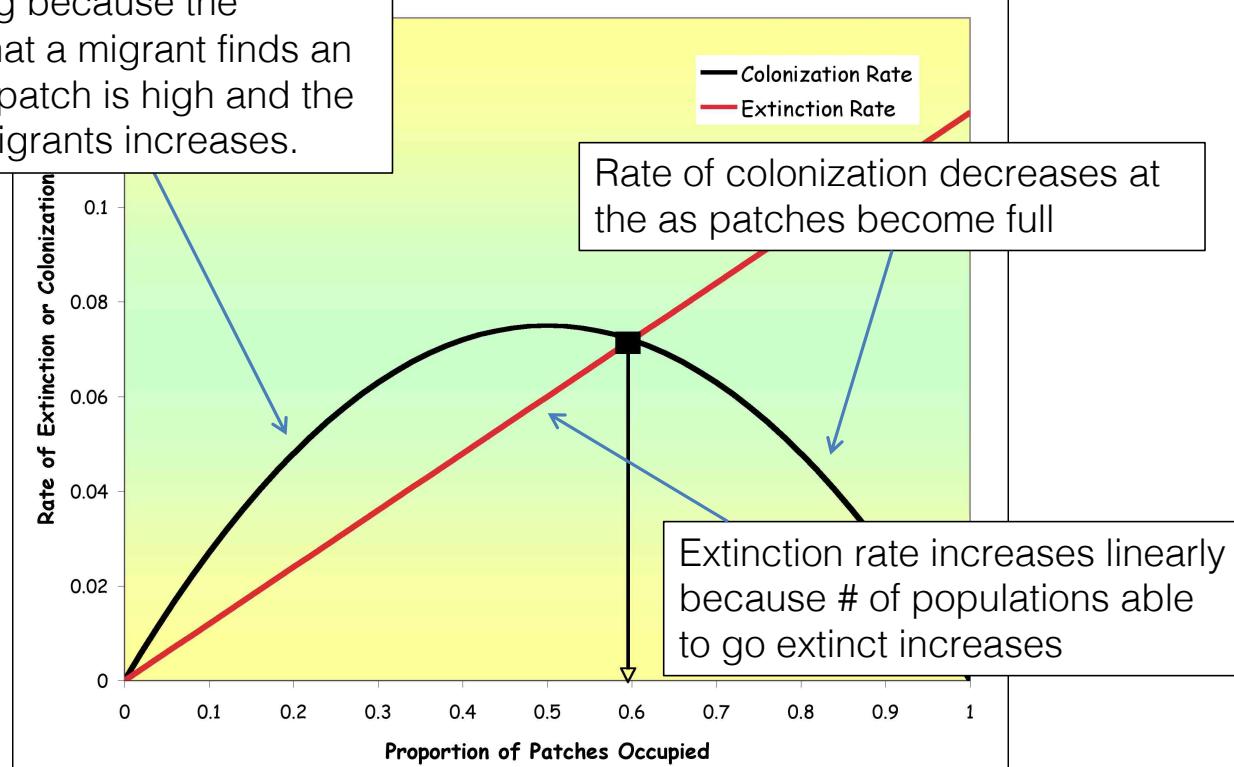
## Extinction and Colonisation



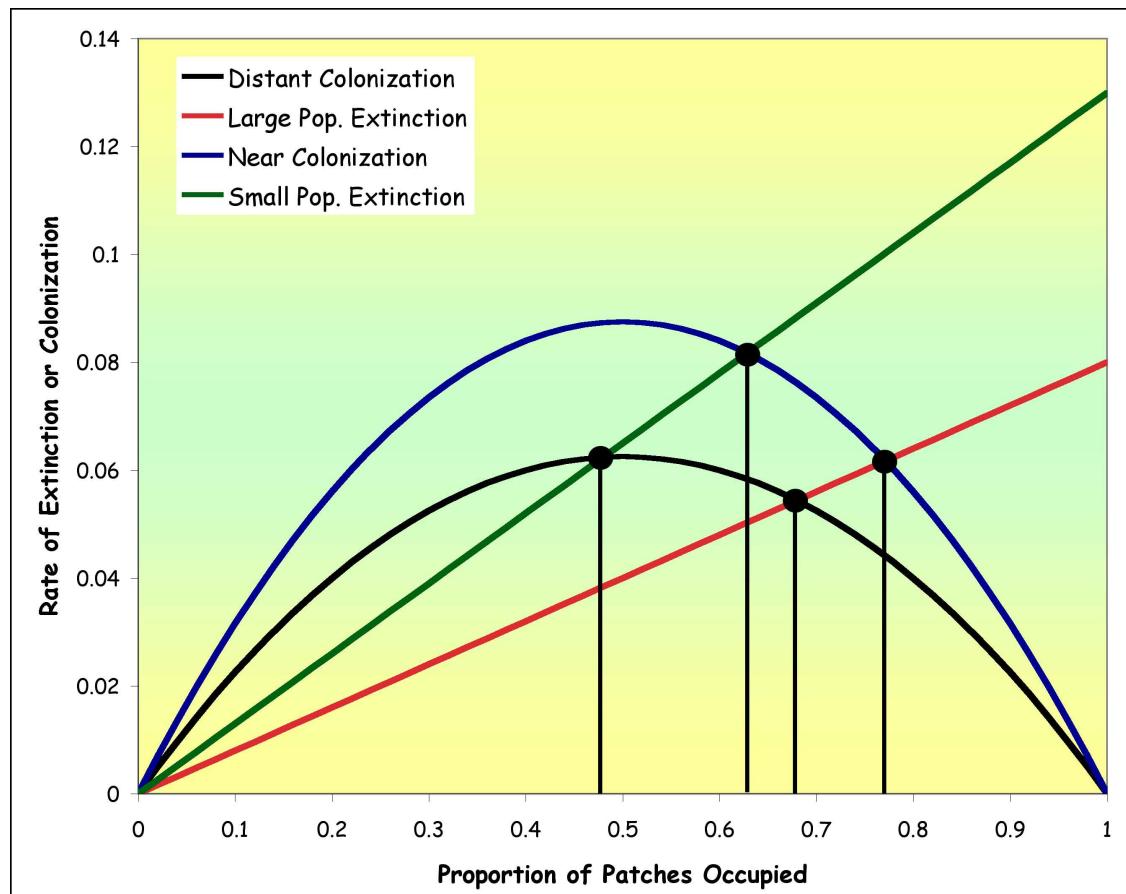
12 habitat patches, 6 are occupied

# Extinction and Colonisation

Rate of colonization increases at the beginning because the probability that a migrant finds an unoccupied patch is high and the number of migrants increases.



Metapopulation dynamics also depend on size and isolation



## Extinction and Colonisation



Would destruction of this habitat affect our metapopulation?

## A simple (but important) lesson from metapopulation models – sources and sinks

Criterion for metapopulation persistence:

Extinction must be less than or equal to colonization.

What if we destroy some habitat?

- Fewer sources of colonization
- Same local extinction probability
- Push metapopulation closer to extinction threshold

This is true even if we destroy unoccupied habitat!

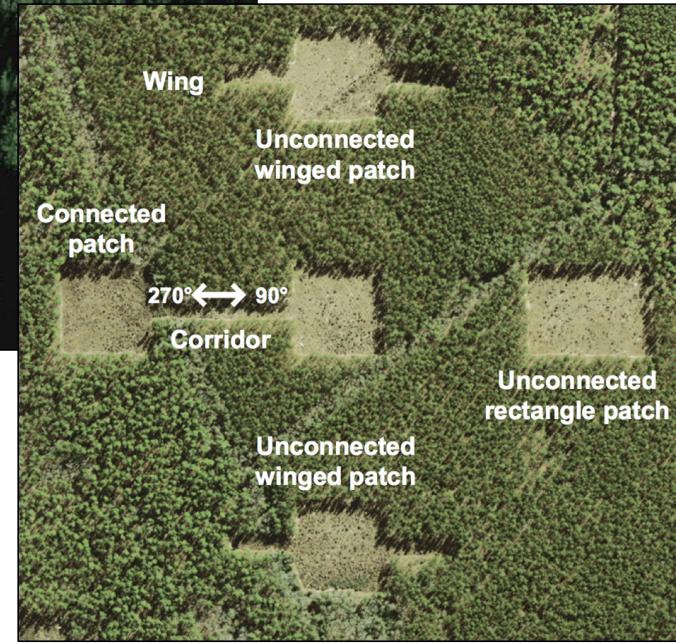
# Key conservation messages from metapopulation theory

- Habitat patch size and connectivity/isolation are important
- Unoccupied but suitable habitat can be very important
- Occupied habitat may not be suitable
- What happens locally depends on regional context  
(destruction/creation of habitat)
- Lags such as extinction debts and colonisation credits in local extinctions/invasions can occur

# What are extinction debts and colonisation credits?



# Corridors



# Edge Effects



# Habitat Fragmentation

## EdGE meeting – positive vs. negative effects of habitat fragmentation

Are the negative effects of habitat fragmentation a zombie idea? Do we see positive or negative effects of habitat fragmentation more often? And even before we do that, can we make broad generalisations about the effects of habitat fragmentations; if we can, should we be? What would be the potential effects on conservation policy and actions?



REVIEWERS  
AR  
ADVANCE

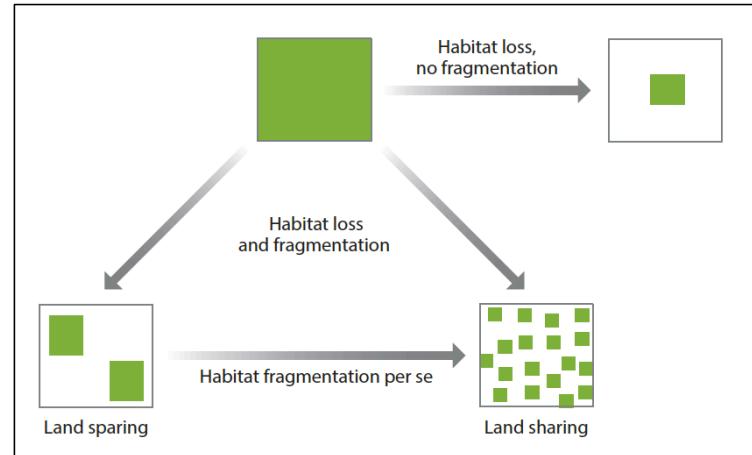
Review in Advance first posted online on May 31, 2017. (Changes may still occur before final publication online and in print.)

Ecological Responses to Habitat Fragmentation Per Se

Lenore Fahrig

Geomatics and Landscape Ecology Research Laboratory, Department of Biology, Carleton University, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada K1S 5B6; email: lenore.fahrig@carleton.ca

<http://www.annualreviews.org/doi/abs/10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-110316-022612>



<https://edineconet.wordpress.com/blog/>

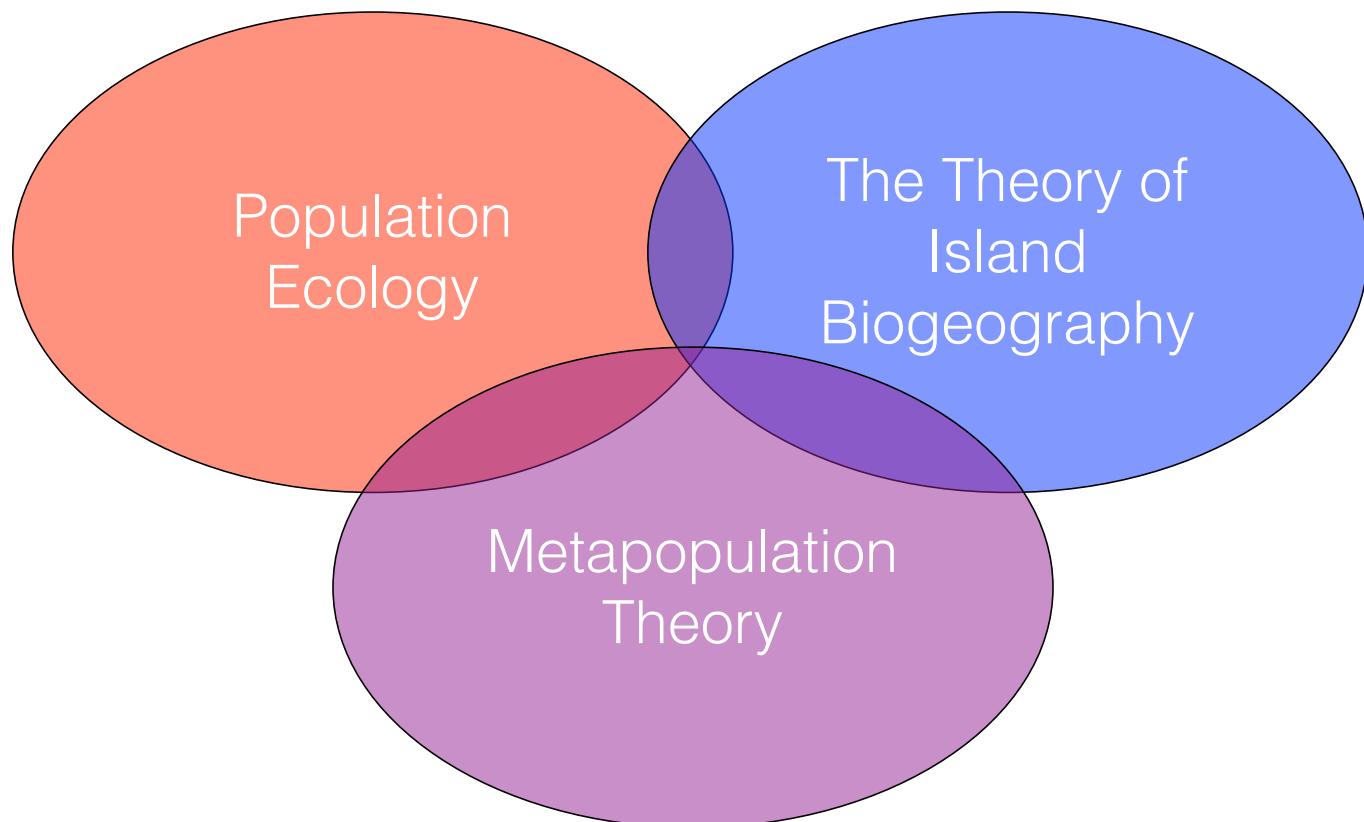
How can Island Biogeography and  
Metapopulation Theory inform  
conservation?



# How can Island Biogeography and Metapopulation Theory inform conservation?

- Large reserves are better than small ones
  - IB: larger reserves contain more species
  - MT: larger reserves reduce extinction rates for existing species
- Connected patches are better than isolated ones
  - IB: connected patches contain more species
  - MT: connected patches allow better recolonization, rescue effect for existing species
- But, fragmentation can create greater habitat heterogeneity potentially enhancing biodiversity

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