

CMEE MiniProject:

You are what you eat; Model optimisation for predicting predator size from prey size and associated abiotic factors, in global marine systems.



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1 You are what you eat; Model optimisation for predicting predator size from
2 prey size and associated abiotic factors, in global marine systems.

3 **Abstract**

4 Marine systems are one of the most difficult to monitor on the planet and one of the most at risk.
5 Those at higher trophic levels are often the most at risk due to dependence on the stability of the rest
6 of the food web. In this study, I aim to build several different types of model for predicting predator size,
7 based upon prey size, feeding interaction, habitat, temperature and depth. The optimal model found
8 was a generalised additive model (GAM), with prey mass, temperature and depth as explanatory
9 variables. Feeding interaction was also found to have an effect, but violated the assumptions of
10 GAM, therefore could not be included in the optimal model. These findings implies that predator size
11 could be predicted from prey size and abiotic factors, which are less labour intensive to collect and
12 could improve efficiency of conservation research.

13 **Introduction**

14 With ever increasing risks to biodiversity (?), and the close proximity of a sixth mass extinction ex-
15 tinction event (?), understanding the dynamics of ecological systems is increasingly important. One
16 of the main threats to biodiversity is overexploitation, where many populations have been reduced to
17 an unsustainable level. This is especially true of marine systems where, despite regulations, approx-
18 imately 63% of fish stocks are below a the threshold population size required to persist (?).

19

20 Population data is particularly difficult to collect in marine systems, especially on pelagic organisms in
21 deep oceans, often restricting data collection to shallow coastal areas. One means of supplementing
22 information in data poor systems is to construct predictive models from existing data and extrapolate
23 with a variety of parameters (?) This method can also aid in targeting studies to test likely models
24 and aid in mitigation against overexploitation.

25

One classical model within ecosystem dynamics is that between predators and prey (?). Information regarding predator and prey physiology and consumption is some of the most easily available in marine systems. The most common method is stomach contents analysis of organisms caught as by-catch or stranded (?). This allows understanding of the position of each species within the food chain, and which prey sources are most important to or most threatened by specific predators.

31

This study uses an existing dataset of marine predators, both in coastal and pelagic zones to construct a model that could be used to predict predator size based upon available prey. The main aim is to investigate the relationship between predator mass and prey mass, on a global scale, across a range of habitats, temperatures and depths. As opposed to defining a typical "null hypothesis", this study is considering several different models for predator mass, based on the above factors, and will select and interpret the optimal model for the system.

Methods

Data Compilation

The data used for this was compiled by Barnes et al, 2008, and comprises 19,625 records of 57 different marine predator species, from 27 locations globally, and 18 studies (?). The dataset included predator species, masses and lengths of predators and prey, habitat, location, type of feeding interaction, depth, mean annual air temperature and mean annual precipitation, for each predation record.

45

As this study aimed to examine relationship between predator and prey sizes, I chose one dimension, mass, as the measure of size, and excluded length as the two variables would violate the assumption of independence. The mean average of predator and prey masses, temperature and depth for each predator species were calculated. For the categorical variables, habitat and feeding interaction, the most common for each predator species was selected. Habitats were sorted into coastal and pelagic, dependent on the definitions of the habitats mentioned in each study. Feeding interactions were

classified into either piscivorous (feeding only on fish), predacious (generalist predators, though diet may include fish), and planktivorous (feeding only on plankton), as defined by Barnes et al, 2008. A new data frame was compiled containing the averages calculated for each species, then used in model fitting.

Model Building and Fitting

I chose to compare three different type of model: a linear regression model, a generalised additive model (GAM) and a generalised linear mixed effects model (GLMM). As the response variable, predator mass, did not have a linear distribution, it was log transformed for use in the linear models, and as the response variable must be consistent to make the models comparable during selection, predator mass was also log transformed for the GAM.

When building the models, I started with the assumption that predator mass would be a function of the average mass of prey species. Additional explanatory variables were also considered and selected for in each model, dependent on whether they improved model fit, described below. The additional variables considered were: feeding interaction, habitat, depth and temperature. For each model, combinations of the explanatory variable were tested and the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) calculated for each model, then compared to give the best fit to the data. The optimal models from each type of model were then compared, again using AIC, to find the model that overall best described the data. The linear regression model comparison was carried out using the "step" function in R, however no equivalent function was available for GAMs and GLMMs, so comparisons were carried out manually using anova tests and AIC to systematically reject variables which decreased the fit of the model.

Model 1: Linear Regression Model - The linear regression model for predator mass was defined as below, where m = mass in grams and ϵ is the error not explained by the explanatory variable.

$$m_{pred} \sim m_{prey} + \epsilon$$

77

78 Linear regression models assume that the data is linear, therefore predator mass, prey mass and
 79 mean depth were log transformed. It also assumes collinearity and independence (?), therefore any
 80 explanatory variables that could interact must be removed. Due to this, habitat and feeding interaction
 81 were removed from the model as they correlated with depth and prey mass respectively. Finally,
 82 normally distributed variables are required, which occurred when the data was log transformed.

83

84 **Model 2: GAM** - The general additive model uses a smoothing function on each explanatory vari-
 85 able, to map each individuals fit to the response variable, and uses a Gaussian distribution as the
 86 variables used are continuous. The equation takes the following form, where m = mass, f denotes the
 87 smoothing function, x_n denote the explanatory variable and ϵ is error not explained by the variables.

$$m_{pred} \sim f(x_1) + f(x_2) + \dots + f(x_n) + \epsilon$$

88

89 The assumptions for GAM also require independence therefore habitat and feeding interaction were
 90 also excluded from the GAM models. Log transforms were not required for the model, as GAMs do
 91 not require linear variables (?), however log transformed models were compared as they were used
 92 in the previous model.

93

94 **Model 3: GLMM** - Mixed models give the ability to account for non-independence of variables by
 95 adding them as random effects, meaning they effect the data but not predictably (?). The following
 96 equation gives the general model for the GLMM, where m = mass, subscripts indicate fixed and
 97 random variables, d = mean depth, h = habitat, i = feeding interaction and ϵ accounts for any other
 98 error.

$$m_{pred} \sim m_{prey-fixed} + d_{fixed} + h_{random} + i_{random} + \epsilon$$

99

100 As a type of linear model, prey mass and depth were both log transformed to give a linear dis-
 101 tribution. Additionally collinearity and independence are also assumptions of GLMMs unless the
 102 non-independent factors are accounted for as random effects, allowing the inclusion of habitat and
 103 feeding interactions in this model.

104 **Computing Languages**

105 Python version 3.5.2 (?) was used to manipulate the raw data into the data frame used for model
 106 building, as the pandas package (?) is fast and efficient at manipulating and building data frames and
 107 csv files.

108

109 R version 3.4.4 (?) was used for model fitting, selection and plotting models. R was most appropriate
 110 for this due to the wealth of packages available for model fitting and plotting. The package mgcv
 111 (?) fits GAM models and allows plots equivalent to the residual plots that can be produced for linear
 112 models. The lme4 package (?) fits linear mixed effects models and gives information about the
 113 significance of each different factor. R also has an inbuilt function to calculate the Akaike Information
 114 Criterion which was used to select the optimal model. Finally, the ggplot2 (?) package was used to
 115 generate plots used in this report (specified in figure legend when used).

116

117 Shell scripts in bash were used to compile the \LaTeX document into a pdf format with references from
 118 the associated BibTeX file and to run the final project, as bash has inbuilt commands to run R and
 119 Python script files.

120 Results

121 Model 1: Linear Regression Model

122 Initially the linear regression model tested contained the three independent explanatory variables:
123 prey mass, depth and temperature. To fulfil the assumption of linearity, prey mass and depth were
124 both log transformed (note that predator mass is log transformed for all models), and a comparison
125 using AIC was made between the fit of the model with and without log transforms ($AIC_{notlogged} =$
126 343.8 , $AIC_{logged} = 236.1$). The smaller AIC value of the log transformed model indicated that it better
127 fitted the data and the large difference between the values shows a significantly different fit.

128
129 Each variable in the model was then tested using the step function in R, which removed the least
130 significant variable in the model then refitted it to the data until the optimal model was found. This
131 model only contained one significant explanatory variable, prey mass (linear regression: $R^2 = 0.90$,
132 $F_{1,55} = 496.3$, $p < 0.001$). The R^2 value for this model was high and positive meaning 90% of
133 the variation in predator mass could be explained by prey mass. Figure 1a indicates the fit of the
134 regression model (shown by a black line) to the data. The coefficients of the regression line were
135 extracted from the model to give an overall equation of:

$$\log(m_{pred}) = 5.41 + 0.761\log(m_{prey})$$

136

137 Where m = mass in grams, therefore when predator mass increases with prey mass.

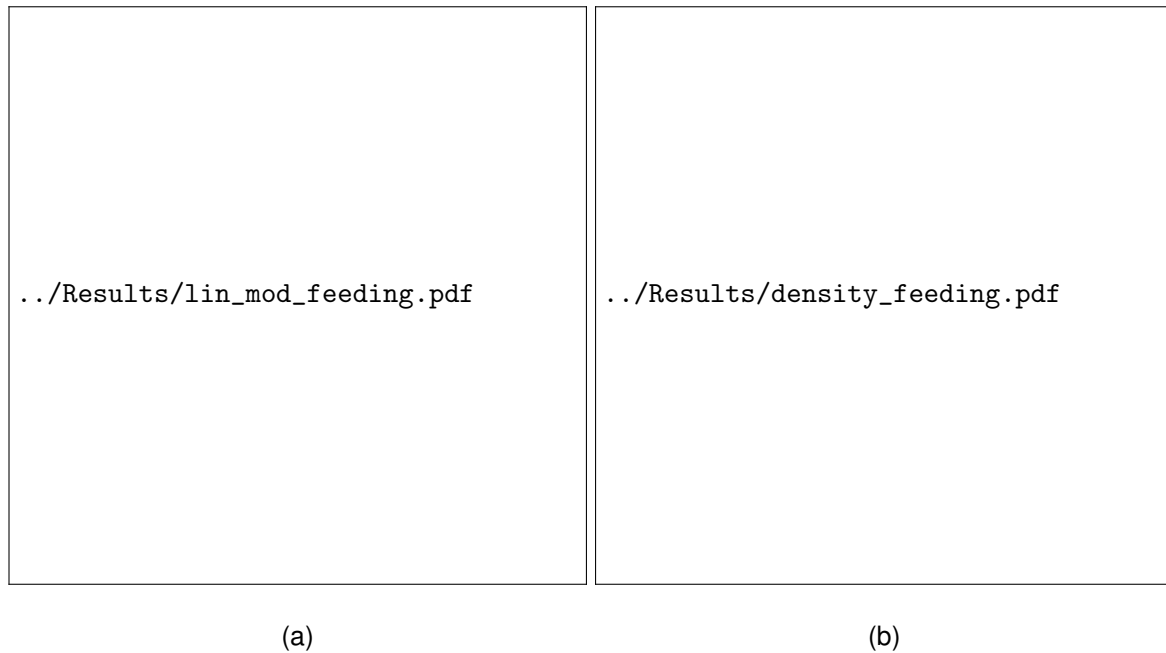


Figure 1: (a) Mean average mass of 57 predator species as a function of mean average mass of prey, both log transformed. The black line represents the linear regression model: $\log(m_{pred}) = 5.41 + 0.761 \log(m_{prey})$, colours represent the three feeding interactions, piscivorous (red, n=19), predacious (blue, n=31) and planktivorous (green, n=7). (b) Density plot of log transformed mean average predator masses by feeding interaction, colours same as (a).

138

139 Although feeding interaction was not accounted for in the linear regression model, due to possible
 140 correlation with prey size, I split Figure 1a by feeding interaction and there appears to be strong
 141 grouping, with larger predators tending to be piscivorous and smaller to be planktivorous, with gener-
 142 alised predation more broadly spread. This relationship is further explored in Figure 1b, a density plot
 143 of each feeding interaction against predator mass, which reiterates this relationship. Planktivorous
 144 species also appear to be confined to a small range of predator masses whereas piscivorous cover
 145 a broader range of predator masses. This is explained further in the linear mixed model section.

146 **Model 2: Generalised Additive Model (GAM)**

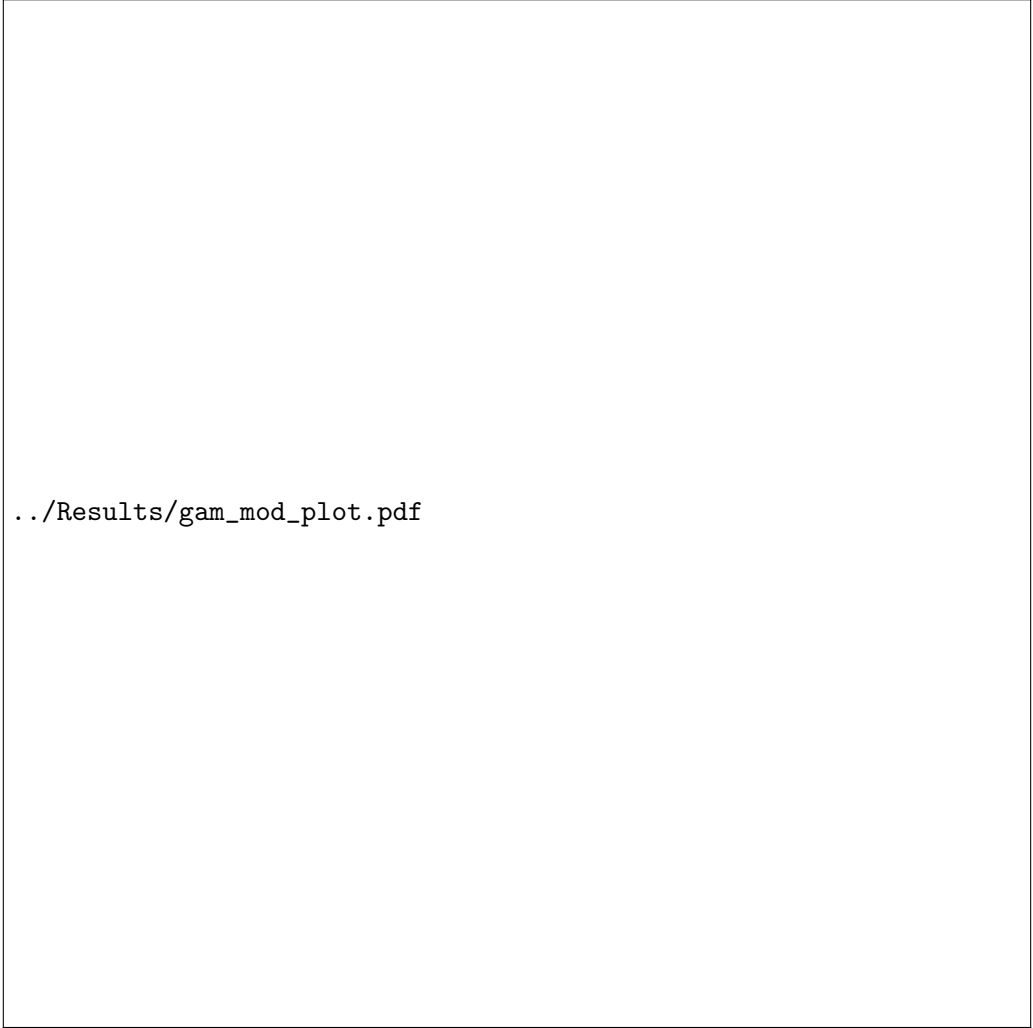
147 The initial GAM, as with the linear regression model, included all independent explanatory variables,
 148 however there is no equivalent of the step function available for GAMs so models fits were tested

149 manually. In each step, the least significant factor was removed, and model refitted, then compared
150 to the previous model. Log transforms were also tested in the same way. The final model with the
151 best fit to the data contained all three explanatory variables, but only prey mass was log transformed:

$$\log(m_{pred}) \sim f(\log(m_{prey})) + f(temp) + f(depth) + \epsilon$$

152

153 Where m = mass in grams, ϵ indicates error not accounted for by the explanatory variables, and
154 all variables are averaged. Figure 2 shows the relationship between each of the smoothed variables
155 and predator mass. Figure2top shows predator mass increased with prey mass, as seen in the linear
156 regression model. Figure 2middle shows a more complex relationship with the smallest predators
157 found at lower temperatures, then medium to larger predators varying within a similar range of tem-
158 peratures. Figure 2bottom shows another linear relationship where larger predators are found at
159 higher depths, whereas small predators tend to stay in shallower areas.



../Results/gam_mod_plot.pdf

Figure 2: Smoothed functions of the explanatory variables used in the GAM model, where dotted lines give standard error and average predator mass is log transformed, n=57. Top: predator mass increases linearly with log transformed prey mass, middle: temperature fluctuates with predator mass change, indicating no clear relationship, bottom: predator mass increase linearly with depth.

Model 3: Linear Mixed Effects Model (GLMM)

As with the first two models, I started the GLMM model with the maximum explanatory variables, including habitat and feeding interaction as random effects which allows for their lack of independence. I then compared the models manually, excluding the least significant factor and comparing the fit of the new models using analysis of variance (ANOVA) as GLMMs are a type of linear model. The AIC values calculated gave the best fitting model as:

$$\log(m_{pred}) \sim \log(m_{prey}) + feeding_{random} + \epsilon$$

166 Where m = mass in grams, feeding interaction is included as a random effect and epsilon indicates
 167 variance not explained by the other variables. This model produced a very similar relationship to the
 168 linear regression model, however also explains the grouped feeding interactions observed in Figure
 169 1.

170 **Model Selection**

171 Once optimal models were chosen for each type of model, the AIC values were compared, with the
 172 linear regression model giving an AIC = 232.5, GAM AIC = 200.4 and GLMM AIC = 239.0, therefore
 173 the GAM has the best fit. Additionally, Figure 3 shows the residual plots for each of the final models,
 174 and GAM has the narrowest range of residuals and most even spread compared to the other models,
 175 further supporting that it is the most appropriate model for the data.

../Results/lin_mod_resid.pdf

(a)

../Results/gam_mod_resid.pdf

(b)

176 Discussion

177 This study aimed to find an optimum model with which to predict predator mass, based upon a
178 range of potential factors. Three types of model were tested: linear regression, generalised additive
179 (GAM) and generalised linear mixed effects (GLMM), and the optimal model was found using GAM
180 method. This model indicated that predator mass was a function of average prey mass, annual air
181 temperature at the location and average depth at which the prey species was found. Predator mass
182 (averaged and log transformed) had a positive linear relationship with prey mass, therefore as prey
183 mass increased, so did predator mass. Additionally, predator mass also increased with depth and
184 varied with temperature fluctuations.

185
186 Many marine predators, especially those of larger mass, tend to have large home ranges and en-
187 counter a wide variety of prey (?). This makes them particularly difficult to monitor, whereas smaller
188 species are often more localised, therefore easily monitored. The model generated could be useful
189 in locations where potential prey species are present, as expected size of predator species could be
190 predicted. This could also highlight those areas where predators are absent despite prey availability.
191 Furthermore, species at higher trophic levels tend to be more vulnerable to disturbance as their per-
192 sistence depends on an entire chain of species, as opposed to one producer (?), so having a means
193 to predict their presence, or lack of, could aid monitoring groups globally.

194
195 In the optimal GLMM, the factor of feeding interaction was present, and relatively distinct clusters
196 for piscivorous and planktivorous species were shown in 1. However, this variable was not included
197 in the final model as it was unlikely to be independent of prey mass, and GAMs do not allow for
198 random effects. Despite this, it is likely that feeding interaction does effect predator mass. This could
199 be accounted for by generalised additive mixed effect models (?), which combine the inclusion of
200 random effects with a GAM, and would be the next logical step from this study.

201

202 Another important assumption of this study, was that density of predators or prey had no affect on
203 predator mass or was constant. This may oversimplify the system as, for example, many whale
204 species feed on plankton however the density of plankton allow a much higher body mass and many
205 piscivorous fish species have been observed increasing predation when only smaller prey species
206 are available (?). This contradicts the findings in this study that indicated planktivorous predators had
207 some of the lowest body masses. Therefore, another area for further study would be to include a
208 factor for density into the model.

209 **Conclusion**

210 Overall, this study showed that the assumptions of models can have a marked effect on which ex-
211 planatory variables are selected during optimisation. For marine predator prey systems, GAM were
212 found to have the best fit to the data, and the function of mixed effects models to include random
213 effects also showed interactions that may have otherwise been missed. To further this study, models
214 combining these two types of model are advised, especially if used in predictions for conservation.