

The Spatial and Temporal Domains of Modern Ecology

Lyndon Estes^{*1,2,3}, Paul R. Elsen^{1,4}, Tim Treuer⁵, Labeeb Ahmed⁶,
Kelly Caylor^{1,7}, Jason Chang⁶, Jonathan J. Choi⁵, and Erle Ellis⁶

¹Woodrow Wilson School, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544, USA

²Civil and Environmental Engineering, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544, USA

³Graduate School of Geography, Clark University, Worcester MA 01610, USA

⁴Department of Environmental Science, Policy, and Management,
University of California Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA

⁵Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544, USA

⁶Geography and Environmental Systems, University of Maryland Baltimore County,
Baltimore, MD 21250, USA

⁷Earth Research Institute, University of California Santa Barbara, Santa Barbara, CA 93106, USA

*To whom correspondence should be addressed; E-mail: LEstes@clarku.edu.

Abstract

In order to properly understand ecological phenomena, it is necessary to quantify their behavior over the range of spatial and temporal scales at which they manifest. Ecology has been concerned with this need since the early 1990s, and the ability to collect multi-scaled ecological observations has grown rapidly since then. Characterizing the spatial and temporal domains of modern ecological observations can therefore provide important insight into the field's progress in understanding towards a more comprehensive understanding of ecosystem behaviour. To characterize these domains, we conducted a meta-analysis of recent (2004-2014) ecological studies, in which we quantified four primary dimensions of their

reported observations: plot resolution, sampling interval, effective duration (time between start and end of temporal replicates), and effective extent (area enclosed by spatial replicates). We also estimated the *actual* extent and duration, which respectively represent the summed area and time covered by spatial and temporal replicates. **Replace this text with more specific summary of observed scales: Here we show that ecology remains a largely field-based discipline that makes observations within generally narrow spatial and temporal domains, despite the well-established literature on the importance of scale (1–3).**

1 The scales at which ecosystems are observed plays a critical role in shaping our understand-
2 ing of their structure and function (1–3). Ecological patterns emerge from temporal and spatial
3 domains that may be coarser or finer than the processes that shape them, which means that inves-
4 tigation across multiple scales is the *sine qua non* for understanding ecological phenomena (1).
5 This awareness has grown rapidly since the 1980s, accelerated by the need to understand how
6 changes in the global climate, ocean, and land systems are affecting everything from individual
7 populations (4) to entire biomes (5), while technological advances in areas such as remote sens-
8 ing and genetics are making it ever-easier to quantify ecological features across a broad range of
9 scales (2, 6).

10 Given this awareness of the centrality of scale to understanding ecology, and the growing ability
11 to study ecological phenomena across a broad range of spatial and temporal scales, it is important
12 to assess the scales at which current ecological research is conducted. To gain insight into this
13 question, we quantified the spatial and temporal domains of empirical observations that were re-
14 ported in a representative sample of studies published between 2004–2014 in the top 30 ecological
15 journals (by impact factor). Empirical observations provide the necessary means for developing
16 and testing the models that explain why ecological patterns vary in time and space (1, 7), thus
17 it stands to reason that the temporal and spatial distributions of ecological observations may be

indicative of modern ecology’s progress towards achieving a holistic, predictive understanding of ecosystems (1, 2).

We characterized observational domains along two key spatial dimensions, resolution (grain) and extent, and their temporal corollaries, interval and duration (Table 1). Here resolution is the area of an individual spatial replicate, or the two-dimensional space in which all measurable features of a natural object(s) were recorded (as opposed to sub-sampled), while extent is the area enclosed by the outer-most spatial replicates, or, if the system or habitat being sampled was distinct from its surrounding matrix (e.g. forest patches in grassland habitats), the summed area of sampled patches (see SI for full definition). Interval refers to the average time elapsed between individual temporal replicates, and duration is the time elapsed between the first and last temporal replicates, or, in the case of temporally unreplicated observations, the estimated time spent collecting the observation (SI). We also calculated two additional metrics, the integrated area of spatial replicates (i.e. resolution multiplied by number of replicates) and the summed observational time of all temporal replicates. We estimated these additional dimensions to evaluate the degree to which the actual scales of ecological observations differ from those they ostensibly represent, and therefore refer to them as the *actual* extent and *actual* duration.

Table 1: The dimensions of ecological observations estimated in this meta-analysis.

Dimension	Description
Resolution	Area (m ²) of an individual spatial replicate (plot)
Extent	Area (ha) encompassed by all spatial replicates
Actual extent	Summed area (ha) of all spatial replicates
Interval	Time elapsed (days) between successive temporal replicates
Duration	Time elapsed (days) between first and last temporal replicates
Actual duration	Summed observational time (days) of all temporal replicates

We calculated these dimensions from 375 discrete observations (defined here as data collected from non-experimentally manipulated, or “natural” (7), systems) reported within a 134 paper sub-

set of 348 randomly selected articles (from 42,918 total). An additional 62 papers that were cited as the source of observations in the selected papers were also reviewed.

To account for uncertainty in the estimation of observational dimensions due to 1) unclear methodological description in the reviewed papers, and 2) observer interpretation, we conducted a resampling analysis ($n=1000$) in which scale values were randomly perturbed within the bounds of estimated inter-observer variation (SI). We constructed histograms for each dimension from the mean of the perturbed ensembles, and estimated 95% confidence intervals for each histogram bin (Fig. 1). We constructed kernel density estimates from the full resampled ensemble in order to assess observational distributions within different juxtapositions of the four space-time dimensions (Fig. 2).

In terms of resolution, the majority (67%) of observations were collected in plots of $<1 \text{ m}^2$ resolution, 24% were collected within plots of 1 m^2 up to 1 ha, and the remaining 9% in plots of $\geq 1 \text{ ha}$ (Fig. 1A). The total spatial extent (the number of sampled sites multiplied by the spatial resolution) of 86% of observations was $<10 \text{ ha}$, while 36% covered less than 1 m^2 (Fig. 1B). Only 14% covered an extent $\geq 10 \text{ ha}$, with just 4% spanning areas ≥ 1 million ha.

In the temporal dimensions, 36% of observations were not repeated (Fig. 1C), 15% were repeated at short intervals (sub-second to daily), 21% at daily to monthly intervals, 19% at monthly to yearly intervals, and 8% at yearly to decadal intervals. The temporal duration of studies (the total amount of time the ecological feature was directly observed, calculated as the number of repeat observations multiplied by the effective sampling duration; SI) was less than one day for 71% of sampled observations, between one day and one month for 17% of observations, between one month and one year for 7% of observations, and greater than one year for 5% of observations (including several paleoecological studies covering centuries to millennia; Fig. 1D).

Juxtaposing the observational dimensions provides further insight into the spatio-temporal distribution of ecological observations and the domains in which they are concentrated (Fig. 2).

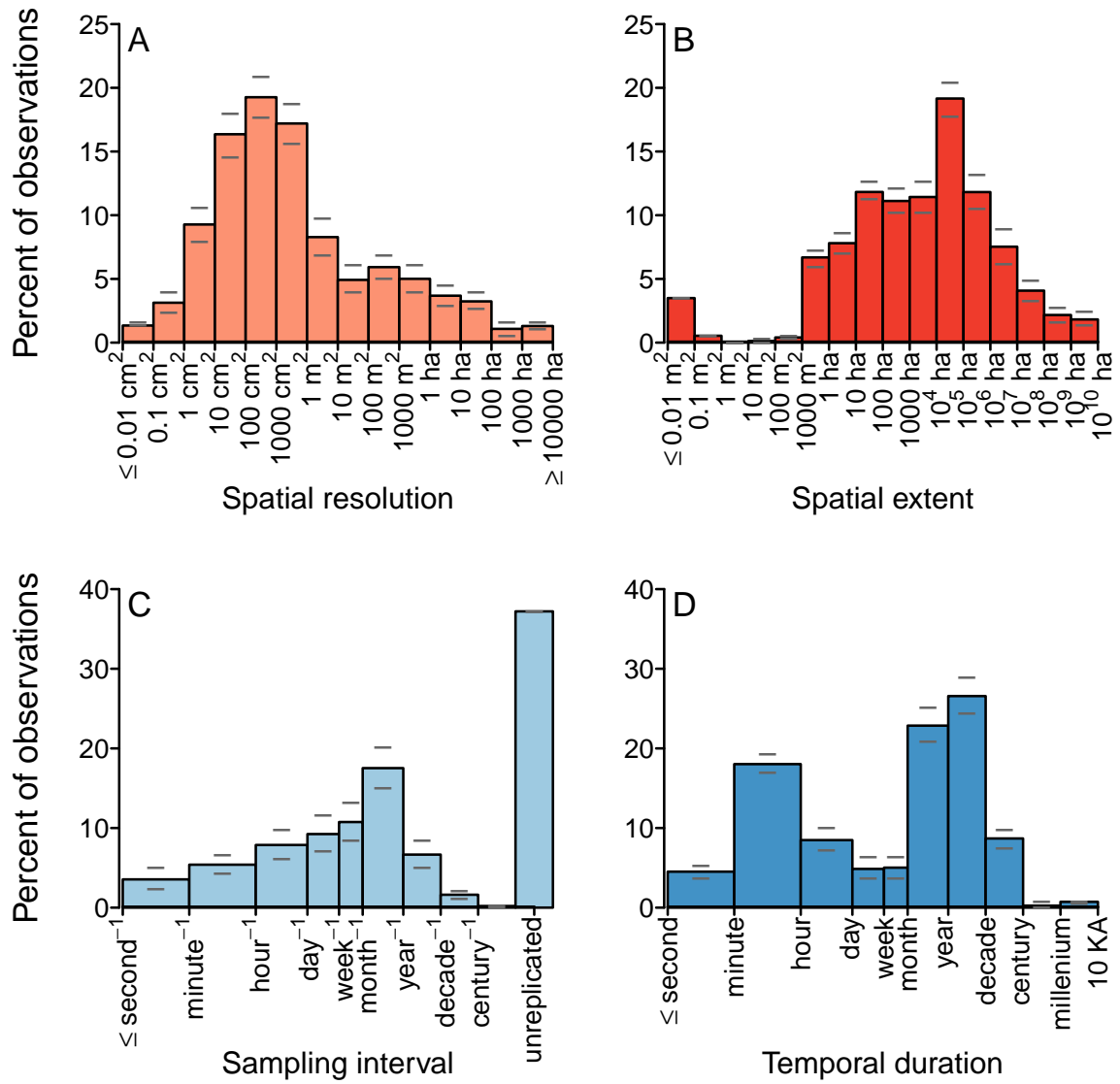


Figure 1: Histograms of the spatial resolution (A) and extent (B), sampling interval (C) and temporal duration (D) of ecological observations collected from the surveyed ecological studies. Bars represent the average percentages for each bin realized after 1000 perturbed resamples, while grey bars indicate the 95% confidence interval.

Contrasting spatial resolution with sampling interval reveals that the majority of temporally replicated observations (the 36% that were unreplicated were excluded because they have no interval value) had resolutions of 10 cm²-1 m² and were revisited at daily to yearly intervals (Fig. 2A). A less dense, oblong concentration of observations bounded on the lower right by monthly to yearly observations at 100 m² and on the upper left by near-daily to monthly observations with 1-10 ha resolution is also evident. This lower right to upper left orientation reflects the tradeoff between resolution and return interval that is typical of satellite imaging (8), and stands in contrast to the upper right to lower left line that stretches between this concentration and the high frequency (minute-hour intervals), high spatial resolution (0.1-100 cm²) observations. This line demonstrates the opposite tradeoff that occurs with field-based observations, where larger plot sizes demand greater effort that in turn reduces sampling frequency (9).

Contrasting temporal duration and spatial extent (for all observations) reveals that the bulk of ecological observations covered total time periods of one minute to <1 month and areas of ≤ 1 m² (Fig. 2B). The next greatest concentration were instantaneous (≤ 1 second) observations of <1 m² extent, followed by a fainter concentration centered on 1 hour duration and between 1 m² and 1 ha in extent. Very few observations had spatial extents >1,000,000 ha, and because these were collected by satellites that make near-instantaneous measurements, they tended to have aggregate durations of ≤ 1 hour. In contrast, the longest periods of observation were provided by paleo-ecological or long-term weather stations, both of which produce continuous, point-scale measurements (e.g. sediment cores and weather instrumentation).

Comparing the two spatial dimensions against one another (for all observations) reveals a log-linear relationship wherein resolution strongly constrains extent, such that the ratio between extent and resolution falls as the latter increases (Fig. 2C). As with interval, this pattern indicates that spatial replication diminishes with plot size (9) in field-based studies, which accounted for 80% of observations. This stands in contrast to the 6.5% of observations that were made with remote

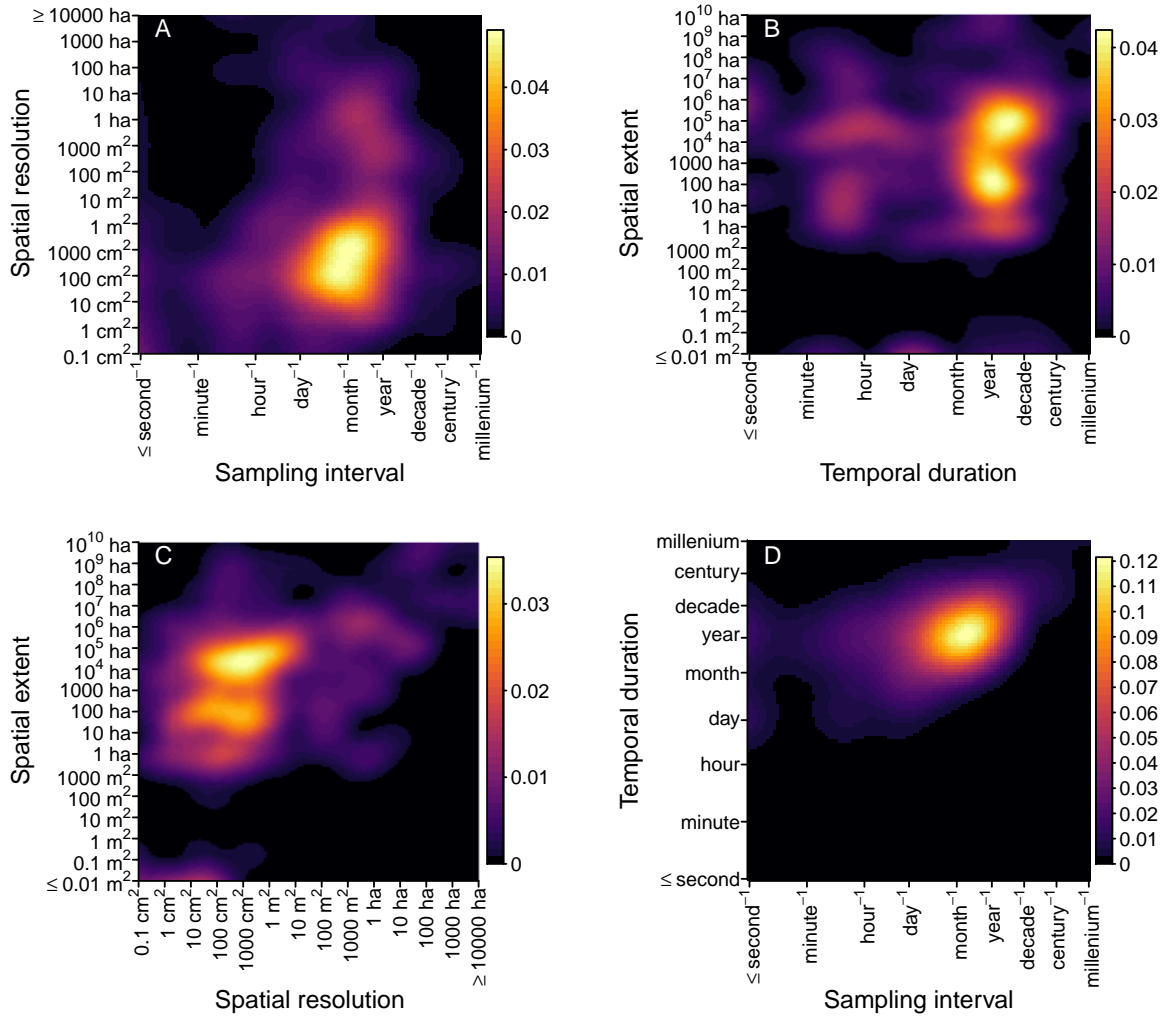


Figure 2: Two-dimensional kernel density estimates of observational densities within the domains defined by A) sampling interval and spatial resolution, B) temporal duration and spatial extent, C) spatial resolution and spatial extent, and D) sampling interval and temporal duration. Density estimates were applied to the log-transformed values of each observational dimension, and density estimates are rescaled to represent percentages.

86 sensing, which have fine spatial resolutions relative to their large extents. These comprise the
 87 majority of observations in the four low density patches (e.g. 0.1-10 ha resolution and 1-10 million
 88 ha extent) falling above the denser line that terminates at 100 ha resolution and 1000 ha extent.

A similar linear relationship between sampling interval and temporal duration was not evident (unreplicated observations were excluded because they lacked interval values). For repeated observations, the greatest concentration was among those made at daily to yearly intervals with overall durations of hours to months (Fig. 2D). A second concentration of sub-monthly to yearly observations lasting one second or less is also evident. Very few repeat observations exceeded a year in duration, and these were collected at daily to yearly intervals.

Uncertainties in quantifying observational scales

This analysis did not necessarily quantify the scales *represented* by ecological observations (SI). Observations that were non-continuous in time or space (e.g. point-based field measurements) may effectively represent larger scales than our estimates suggest, due to phenomenon-dependent factors such as autocorrelation and representativeness of the sampling scheme (? , 10–13). From a spatial perspective, this concern does not apply to contiguous sampling schemes, which were primarily based on remote sensing and cover the largest area, thus the net effect is that this analysis may underestimate the effective areas of smaller observational extents. From a temporal perspective, our analysis likely underestimates the effective duration of many observations, particularly those where instantaneous, repeated measures of slow-changing ecological features were made. Snapshots in time may be sufficient to capture the temporal dynamics of such phenomena (e.g. changes in vegetation cover (14)), and for these the total time elapsed between the first and last measurements (the span of observation) may more closely approximate effective duration. However, many studies focused on more dynamic phenomena, and for these long periods of continuous observation may be more important for understanding dynamics than frequent repeats. For example, wildfire extent and duration can be mapped by daily return satellites (15, 16), but the instantaneous nature of the imaging means that it cannot be used to directly measure fire behavior (17), except patterns resolving themselves at scales greater than 12-24 hours. For this reason, and to provide a consistent standard for estimating duration, we recorded actual duration.

Adding to our motivation to record actual observational scales was the fact that most studies provided insufficient methodological detail to judge whether sampling schemes were suitable matched to and representative of the phenomena they were measuring. The observational scales were not clearly reported in many studies, such that we had to estimate spatial resolution and extent in 62% and 68% of cases, respectively, and temporal interval and duration in 40% and 86% of cases. Although the confidence intervals around our scale estimates (Fig. 1) suggests that our findings are robust to this level of uncertainty, it would have likely confounded efforts to estimate effective scales.

Insights into the scales of modern ecology

Despite these caveats, our results provide valuable insight into the spatial and temporal domains being addressed by modern ecological research. Our results show that most observations are collected at small spatial scales, are either unrepeated or relatively infrequent (≥ 1 month interval), and in aggregate cover relatively narrow periods of time (≤ 1 month). Very little research is conducted at high spatial and temporal resolutions over large areas or for long time periods, indicating that, despite the well-established understanding of the importance of multi-scale assessments for understanding ecological patterns and processes (1, 3), efforts focused on larger scales are still relatively sparse within the discipline (1, 3). Furthermore, the unclear documenting of observational scales implies that scale is not a primary concern in much ecological research (2, 18). Taken together, this narrowness and poor documentation (a tendency that is also evident in the geographical sciences (19)) suggests that the ecological understanding drawn from many of these observations may have limited generalizability (3, 18, 19), a concern that has been previously noted due to ecology's geographical bias towards anthropogenically undisturbed and temperate ecosystems (20).

The generally small spatial scales of observation is a consequence of the continued dominance of field-based research, and the limited use of methods that allow larger areas to be comprehensively observed, such as remote sensing. Despite early and repeated calls for ecologists to use

remote sensing because it provides a synoptic view that field measurements cannot (21–23), and subsequent demonstration of its importance for multi-scale studies (24, 25), our results indicate this method has not yet been widely adopted in ecological research. Two reasons lie behind this slow uptake. First, remote sensing can be a challenging method for ecologists to learn, many of whom may not have access to appropriate training (23). Second, satellite observations typically have lower information content than field measurements for a given location, and in many cases only provide proxy measures for the ecological features of interest, such as forest understorey structure (26), thereby making ecologists less inclined to use the technology (21).

In contrast to remote sensing, ecologists have made broader use of technologies that increase the temporal resolution of observations. Automated sensors were used to record 12% of all observations, and accounted for most very high frequency measurements (intervals ≤ 1 hour). As with spatial data, finely resolved temporal data can be aggregated to facilitate multi-scale analyses (and many of the reviewed studies that used automated sensing aggregated the resulting observations before analyzing them), whereas longer-interval data (e.g. annual biomass accumulation) cannot be disaggregated into shorter interval measurements (e.g. weekly biomass accumulation) without interpolation, which turns data into modeled, rather than direct, observations.

In the coming years, rapid technological advances should increase the concentration of ecological observations in currently under-represented domains. The growing numbers of high-resolution satellite sensors, together with new analytical platforms that provide free access to large volumes of pre-processed data and computational power (27), will lower technical barriers that have so far prevented ecologists from adopting this observational technology (23). Similarly, the advent of unmanned systems offers the ability to measure ecological features at high spatial and temporal frequencies over large areas (28), which were scales that were previously impractical to access. The ever-falling cost of sensor technology and the ubiquity of cell phones also means that ecologists, together with a growing army of citizen-scientists, have the unprecedented ability to make

spatially dense, high frequency observations over large areas (29–32). A greater attentiveness to scale in general, including more meticulous documentation of observed dimensions, may help to facilitate the spread of ecological research to sparsely studied scales, while improving transferability of knowledge within the discipline.

References

1. Levin, S. A. The problem of pattern and scale in ecology. *Ecology* **73**, 1943–1967 (1992).
2. Chave, J. The problem of pattern and scale in ecology: What have we learned in 20 years? *Ecology Letters* **16**, 4–16 (2013).
3. Wiens, J. A. Spatial scaling in ecology. *Functional Ecology* **3**, 385–397 (1989). PT: J.
4. Tingley, M. W., Koo, M. S., Moritz, C., Rush, A. C. & Beissinger, S. R. The push and pull of climate change causes heterogeneous shifts in avian elevational ranges. *Global Change Biology* **18**, 3279–3290 (2012).
5. Xiao, J. F. & Moody, A. Photosynthetic activity of US biomes: Responses to the spatial variability and seasonality of precipitation and temperature. *Global Change Biology* **10**, 437–451 (2004).
6. Schneider, D. C. The Rise of the Concept of Scale in Ecology The concept of scale is evolving from verbal expression to quantitative expression. *BioScience* **51**, 545–553 (2001).
7. Tilman, D. Ecological experimentation: Strengths and conceptual problems. In *Long-Term Studies in Ecology*, 136–157 (Springer, 1989).
8. Estes, L. D. *et al.* A platform for crowdsourcing the creation of representative, accurate land-cover maps. *Environmental Modelling & Software* **80**, 41–53 (2016).

9. Kareiva, P. & Andersen, M. Spatial aspects of species interactions: The wedding of models and experiments. In *Community Ecology*, 35–50 (Springer, 1988).
10. Underwood, A. J. *Experiments in Ecology: Their Logical Design and Interpretation Using Analysis of Variance* (Cambridge University Press, 1997).
11. Palmer, M. W. & White, P. S. Scale dependence and the species-area relationship. *American Naturalist* 717–740 (1994).
12. Cao, Y., Williams, D. D. & Larsen, D. P. Comparison of Ecological Communities: The Problem of Sample Representativeness. *Ecological Monographs* **72**, 41–56 (2002).
13. Legendre, P. Spatial autocorrelation - trouble or new paradigm? *Ecology* **74**, 1659–1673 (1993).
14. Hansen, M. C. *et al.* High-resolution global maps of 21st-century forest cover change. *Science* **342**, 850–853 (2013).
15. Roy, D., Jin, Y., Lewis, P. & Justice, C. Prototyping a global algorithm for systematic fire-affected area mapping using MODIS time series data. *Remote Sensing of Environment* **97**, 137–162 (2005).
16. Jones, B. M. *et al.* Fire Behavior, Weather, and Burn Severity of the 2007 Anaktuvuk River Tundra Fire, North Slope, Alaska. *Arctic, Antarctic, and Alpine Research* **41**, 309–316 (2009).
17. Clements, C. B. *et al.* Observing the dynamics of wildland grass fires: FireFlux-a field validation experiment. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society* **39**, 1369–1382 (2007).
18. Wheatley, M. & Johnson, C. Factors limiting our understanding of ecological scale. *Ecological Complexity* **6**, 150–159 (2009).

- 206 19. Margulies, J. D., Magliocca, N. R., Schmill, M. D. & Ellis, E. C. Ambiguous Geographies:
207 Connecting Case Study Knowledge with Global Change Science. *Annals of the American*
208 *Association of Geographers* **106**, 572–596 (2016).
- 209 20. Martin, L. J., Blossey, B. & Ellis, E. Mapping where ecologists work: Biases in the global
210 distribution of terrestrial ecological observations. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*
211 **10**, 195–201 (2012).
- 212 21. Turner, W. *et al.* Remote sensing for biodiversity science and conservation. *Trends in Ecology*
213 *& Evolution* **18**, 306–314 (2003).
- 214 22. Kerr, J. T. & Ostrovsky, M. From space to species: Ecological applications for remote sensing.
215 *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **18**, 299–305 (2003). TY - JOUR.
- 216 23. Pettorelli, N. *et al.* Satellite remote sensing for applied ecologists: Opportunities and chal-
217 lenges. *Journal of Applied Ecology* **51**, 839–848 (2014).
- 218 24. Estes, L. D., Okin, G., Mwangi, A. & Shugart, H. H. Habitat selection by a rare forest antelope:
219 A multi-scale approach combining field data and imagery from three sensors. *Remote Sensing*
220 *of Environment* **112**, 2033–2050 (2008).
- 221 25. Estes, L. D., Mwangi, A. G., Reillo, P. R. & Shugart, H. H. Predictive distribution modeling
222 with enhanced remote sensing and multiple validation techniques to support mountain bongo
223 antelope recovery. *Animal Conservation* **14**, 521–532 (2011).
- 224 26. Estes, L., Reillo, P., Mwangi, A., Okin, G. & Shugart, H. Remote sensing of structural com-
225 plexity indices for habitat and species distribution modeling. *Remote Sensing of Environment*
226 **114**, 792–804 (2010).

- 227 27. Google Earth Engine Team. Google Earth Engine: A planetary-scale geo-spatial analysis
228 platform (2015).
- 229 28. Anderson, K. & Gaston, K. J. Lightweight unmanned aerial vehicles will revolutionize spatial
230 ecology. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment* **11**, 138–146 (2013).
- 231 29. Wolf, A., Falusi, J., Caylor, K., Sheffield, J. & Wood, E. A GSM-based surface meteorology
232 network in service of improved African hydrological data assimilation and drought forecasting
233 (San Francisco, 2012).
- 234 30. Collins, S. L. *et al.* New opportunities in ecological sensing using wireless sensor networks.
235 *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment* **4**, 402–407 (2006).
- 236 31. Porter, J. *et al.* Wireless Sensor Networks for Ecology. *BioScience* **55**, 561–572 (2005).
- 237 32. Dickinson, J. L. *et al.* The current state of citizen science as a tool for ecological research and
238 public engagement. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment* **10**, 291–297 (2012).

239 **Acknowledgements** This work was supported by funds from the Princeton Environmental Institute
240 Grand Challenges program and the NASA New Investigator Program (NNX15AC64G). Erle Ellis,
241 Jason Chang, and Labeeb Ahmed of the GLOBE Project (<http://globe.umbc.edu>) were supported
242 by the U.S. National Science Foundation (1125210).