## Progress report – Fitting stochastic predator-prey

# models with and without functional response data

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#### 5 Abstract

- Asking whether parameters can be identified from a given dataset is an important step in the model development
- 7 process. Most predator-prey model fitting has attempted inverse modelling, identifying parameters solely from
- 8 time series. Here, we aim at identifying the potential benefits of combining data when both growth and attack
- 9 processes are viewed as stochastic. We fit a stochastic predator-prey model of the Leslie type to time series
- 10 and functional response data simulated from the model. Our model has both environmental stochasticity in
- 11 the growth rates and interaction stochasticity, i.e. a stochastic functional response. We examine what the
- 12 FR data brings to the quality of the estimates, and whether estimation is possible (for various time series
- length) solely with time series data. Both bayesian and frequentist estimation are performed, and in both
- 14 cases we report diagnostics of identifiability of the various parameters. [stuff on results here]. Our framework
- to combine data sets is general may be extended to other interaction scenario when both data on interaction
- 16 rates and population counts are available.

## 17 Introduction

- 18 tentative list
- Many attempts to fit predator-prey models to data assume observation stochasticity and do inverse
- modelling. Inverse modelling from time series can be hard due to identifiability issues, is therefore fraud
- with some uncertainties. Even in simple, phenomenological statistical models for two species, there can
- remain considerable uncertainty about the model parameters.
- One way to decrease uncertainty is to use combination of data sets to decrease that uncertainty on the
- parameters.

- This may be best done in a fully stochastic context: there is widespread environmental stochasticity

  (which may dominate). REFs stochastic predator-prey models.
- Stochasticity also affects the functional response for various reasons. Point clouds are anything but just a type II curve. Considering the FR as a stochastic object is both biologically realistic and statistically convienient.
- Here we consider a ground truth model with both stochasticity in growth rates and interactions
  parameters. The model is fitted time series and functional response data in both frequentist and
  bayesian settings.
- We consider both long time series, close to perfect information (T=1000) and time series of realistic ecological length (T= 100, T = 50 or 25). [the latter two remain to be done]. Yet to do: we vary the percentage of data points attributed to the time series vs the functional response.

## 36 Models and statistical methods

### 37 Predator-prey model in discrete time

- 38 We chose a model with a numerical response of the Leslie type (though similar analyses can be done for
- Rosenzweig MacArthur models can be done as well, see Supplement S1). A Beverton-Holt type density-
- 40 dependence for the prey was chosen to avoid cycles in the prey in absence of the predator, so that the model
- behaviour is more reminiscent of its continuous-time counterpart (see Weide et al. for more on connecting
- continous to discrete time models). Our model writes

$$N_{t+1} = N_t \frac{e^{r+\epsilon_{1t}}}{1+\gamma N_t} \exp\left(-G(N_t) \frac{P_t}{N_t}\right), \, \epsilon_{1t} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_1^2)$$
(1)

$$P_{t+1} = P_t \frac{e^{s+\epsilon_{2t}}}{1 + qP_t/N_t}, \, \epsilon_{1t} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_2^2)$$
 (2)

- 43 The roots of this discrete-time formulation can be traced back to Leslie (1948), Leslie and Gower (1960),
- 44 who included a Beverton-Holt regulation for the prey and predator to make discrete-time models more

- similar to their continuous-time counterparts. We consider additionally a saturating functional response  $G(N_t)$
- 46 here, which makes our model resembles the continuous time models of Tanner (1975), May (1973) and later
- <sup>47</sup> Turchin & Hanski (1997), whose notations we have kept. One of the advantages of this model over the
- 48 Rosenzweig-MacArthur is that it can be parameterized using the observed intrinsic growth rates as Tanner
- <sup>49</sup> (1975) did. Parameter values were inspired by small mammals (Turchin & Hanski 1997), which we modified
- slightly [these are not the same models anyway]. The division by  $N_t$  in  $\exp(-G(N_t)P_t/N_t)$  expresses the fact
- 51 that all terms within the exponential are on the prey fitness scale (per capita mortality). This is similar to
- assuming a Nicholson-Bailey type predation term (e.g., Weide et al. 2018).
- Until now, we have not specified a model for the functional response  $G(N_t)$ . With a deterministic functional
- response (FR), we have a classic stochastic predator-prey model with log-normal environmental noise but an
- otherwise 'deterministic skeleton'. A stability analysis of the deterministic model is performed in Appendix
- 56 A1, later used to determine which parameters lead to quasi-cycles or a noisy limit cycles in the stochastic
- 57 model.
- However, here we consider a data-generating process where the functional response is not deterministic but
- 59 itself stochastic, as in the following equation for a Holling type II functional response:

$$G_t|N_t \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{CN_t}{D+N_t}, \sigma_3^2\right)$$
 (3)

- This corresponds to a case where there is mild Gaussian fluctuations around the functional response. Because
- there can be substantial noise on the FR (see e.g. plots in [REFs there]), we also consider more complicated
- cases where the parameters C and D are themselves allowed to vary in time in Supplement S2 [I was thinking
- to only do this in a bayesian setting for the estimation part, since these models need more constraining.

#### 64 General statistical methodology

- Although we apply here data integration to a predator-prey case, the methodology is more general and can in
- 66 principle be applied to any addition of auxiliary information (interaction rate, demographic rate) which is
- 67 available over time and not simply produced by the count data. The approach has similarities to Integrated
- Population Modelling (REFs) and data fusion approaches in ecosystem science (REFs). In a predator-prey
- 69 context, we can cite the recent endeavour of Ferguson et al. to combine count and isotopic (diet) data, but
- their model differ in that it does not view interaction rate as the result of a stochastic process.
- 71 We illustrate the method with the predator-prey case where log-densities for both predator and prey are

gathered in a log-count vector  $\mathbf{x}_t = (\ln(N_t), \ln(P_t))^T$ . Auxiliary information on the functional response, or rather the observed kill rate per predator is denoted  $G_t$ . To this can be added other demographic (vital) rates  $R_t$  that are stacked in a vector as well,  $\mathbf{a}_t = (G_t, R_t)$ . Currently we use  $\mathbf{a}_t = G_t$  but it may useful to add more information in other applications; hence the derivation is kept general. We consider a discrete-time dynamical system (nonlinear difference equation). The population dynamics part of the model gives us the probability law of  $\mathbf{x}_{t+1}|(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{a}_t)$ , since the counts at time t+1 depend both on past abundances and the interaction or demographic data based on the chosen mechanistic model. We also know the probability law of  $\mathbf{a}_t|\mathbf{x}_t$  (in our simple predator-prey case, the functional response). We can therefore write down easily the joint likelihood for both data sources in quite general terms, denoting  $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_{t_m})$ and  $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{a}_1, ..., \mathbf{a}_{t_m})$ :

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}) = p(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{a}_1) \prod_{t=1}^{t_m - 1} p_C(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, \mathbf{a}_{t+1} | \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{a}_t)$$
(4)

where p(y) and  $p_C(y)$  are continuous probability densities for the vector  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})$  and its conditional pdf, respectively. The conditional pdf can be further decomposed using the chain rule

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}, \mathbf{a}_{t+1} | \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{a}_t) = p_2(\mathbf{a}_{t+1} | \mathbf{x}_{t+1}, \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{a}_t) \times p_1(\mathbf{x}_{t+1} | \mathbf{a}_t, \mathbf{x}_t) = p_2(\mathbf{a}_{t+1} | \mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \times p_1(\mathbf{x}_{t+1} | \mathbf{a}_t, \mathbf{x}_t)$$

where  $p_1(y)$  is given by the dynamical system and  $p_2(y)$  is the functional response model (or a demographic model). We therefore end up with a model

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{A}) = p_1(\mathbf{a}_1 | \mathbf{x}_1) p(\mathbf{x}_1) \prod_{t=1}^{t_m - 1} \underbrace{p_1(\mathbf{x}_{t+1} | \mathbf{a}_t, \mathbf{x}_t)}_{\text{dynamical system}} \times \underbrace{p_2(\mathbf{a}_{t+1} | \mathbf{x}_{t+1})}_{\text{auxiliary information model}}$$
(5)

where we swapped  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  to get the dynamical system model first.

### 87 Application to the stochastic predator-prey model

In the simplest case highlighted by our discrete-time dynamical systems of the sections above,  $p_1(y) = p_{11}(x_1)p_{12}(x_2)$  is the product of the two gaussian pdf for log-densities conditional on past densities. Using the equations 1-2, we have

$$n_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t = \ln(N_{t+1})|\mathbf{x}_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{1t}, \sigma_1^2), \mu_{1t} = n_t + r - G_t \frac{P_t}{N_t} - \ln(1 + \gamma N_t)$$
 (6)

$$p_{t+1}|\mathbf{x}_t = \ln(P_{t+1})|\mathbf{x}_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{2t}, \sigma_2^2), \mu_{2t} = p_t + s - \ln(1 + qP_t/N_t)$$
 (7)

with a functional response model  $(p_2)$  also given by a Gaussian pdf (in the simplest case where we assume

near Gaussian noise on the FR, see Discussion)

$$G_t|\mathbf{x_t} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_{3t}, \sigma_3^2), \ \mu_{3t} = \frac{CN_t}{D + N_t}$$

#### 93 Model scenarios

We considered the following parameter sets for the model [illustration needed, 4 panels: (N(t), P(t), F(N), N

<sub>95</sub> vs P) for each parameter, illustrate the first one in the MS, second one in Appendix?]

Parameter	Quasi-cycles	Noisy LC
C	2.5	0
D	1	
Q	10	

The rest of the parameters are [fill in there].

The first parameter set corresponds to a forced focus or quasi-cycles, i.e. sustained oscillations that arise the

interaction between noise and dampened oscillations to the fixed point in the deterministic model. We also

consider a noisy limit cycle, i.e., parameters that give rise to a limit cycle without the noise, so that the cycle

 $_{100}$  is still very regular but perturbed by the noise.

101 These two sets of parameters are crossed with several modalities of data availability: - we consider a time

102 series length T=1000, 100 [should I add 50 and 25?] - we consider that we have functional response data over

100%, 25%, or 0% of the time series data. This is meant to emulate common scenarios in which the kill rates

are not monitored over the whole time series, and quantify the benefits of adding just a little FR data.

Note that in the case without FR data, we fit the model without noise in the functional response [this is

something we need to discuss in depth Olivier, which is what is usually done in this case (Ellner & Turchin

107 2000, newer stuff).

For each parameter x data availability scenario, we fit the models in both bayesian and frequentist settings.

## 109 Model fitting implementation

We fitted the model by MCMC in JAGS and also derived mathematically its likelihood, which we then optimised using the BFGS algorithm [see comments below on Nelder-Mead as well] with optim() in R. Several starting values were considered.

Identifiability was inspected in different ways. In a frequentist setting, we computed the Hessian matrix 113 of the log-likelihood  $H(\theta, Y)$  where Y = (X, A) following eq. XX, at the estimated parameter set value 114  $\hat{\theta}$ . Formally, we compute  $H(\theta, Y)$  as the Hessian of the -log-likelihood as this yields the observed Fisher 115 Information Matrix. When the Hessian  $H(\theta, Y)$  has non-zero eigenvalues (and is therefore invertible), the 116 models are identifiable in the sense that no two parameter sets can give the same log-likelihood value in a 117 neighborhood of the optimum (Rothenberg 1971). We also compute the expected FIM at the true parameter 118 value. This value is relevant theoretically because asymptotically,  $\theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\theta_{\text{true}}, \mathcal{I}(\theta_{\text{true}})^{-1})$  where  $\mathcal{I}(\theta_{\text{true}})$  is the FIM. In the case where the time series length  $T \to \infty$ ,  $H(\theta, y^T) \to \mathcal{I}(\theta_{\text{true}})$  [should I try to prove this 120 properly btw? I think this should be doable by splitting the time series into small chunks, and then proving that the combined log-likelihood is obtained by summing LL for all chunks]. 122

We also computed the expected pairwise correlation between the parameters: the variance-covariance matrix of the parameters is defined by  $\Sigma = H^{-1}$  so that we get easily the expected pairwise parameter correlation matrix ( $\rho_{ij}$ ), with each element defined as  $\frac{\Sigma_{ij}}{\sqrt{\Sigma_{ii}\Sigma_{jj}}}$ .

In a bayesian setting, we inspected the correlations in the Markov chains for pairs of parameters, which translates into pair posterior distributions of parameters. Parameters whose chains were too positively or negatively correlated were considered not identifiable separately.

#### 29 Results

 $_{130}$  [so far this is very preliminary and I do not consider all the abovementioned modalities of the analysis. We  $_{131}$  focus for now on T=1000 and the comparison with/without FR data. In both bayesian and frequentist  $_{132}$  setting]

#### 133 Bayesian analysis

#### 134 Frequentist analysis

- 135 Maximum likelihood and Hessian computation From this we can get (approximate) confidence
- intervals [which we will plot in a similar way to the Bayesian a posteriori estimates]. [do we use approximate
- Gaussian or smthg else? Some people use  $\chi_2$  based on the distribution on the deviance scale.]
- Likelihood profiles Do this for one and two parameters at a time.

#### <sup>139</sup> Bayesian analysis II - reparameterization of the model

- Model wFR is parameterized as often done in the literature (e.g. Weide et al.) but not exactly in terms of
- carrying capacities for the prey. Here we attempt a reparameterization to decrease the correlation between
- pairs of parameters belonging to the same function in the model.

#### 143 Discussion

### 144 Identifiability

- 145 It seems that the model is globally identifiable when FR data is present. However, for the first parameterization,
- pairs of parameters belonging to the same functional forms of the models are highly correlated. These pairs
- are, respectively, (r K), (s, Q), and (C,D). Plots of the functions realized for each parameter pair
- Reparameterizing so that K and Q are more closely related to carrying capacities improved substantially
- pairwise identifiability
- 150 The absence of FR data substantially compromises identifiability. This is all the more important that we
- consider here a fairly small noise on the functional response and relatively rich datasets. [more here based on
- what we find
- 153 [perhaps discussion of the work by Cole et al. exhaustive summaries are difficult to obtain here so we
- cannot do symbolic work. Discuss also the subset profiling of Eisenberg

#### 155 Maximum likelihood algorithms

- 156 [BFGS vs Nelder-Mead]
- 157 [Try likelihood profiles for the case without FR data?]

#### 158 Stochastic or deterministic FR in absence of FR data?

159 [try model with noise on the FR even without FR data?]

#### 160 Future avenues for modelling development

- Inserting demographic information together with functional response data.
- [do I mention more complex FR here or in a Supplement + before]
- Different functional responses, e.g. Ivlev-type. 2 things may be interesting:
- $\bullet$  Simulating with Ivlev and fitting with Ivlev

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- Simulating with Holling and fitting with Ivlev, though beware that (i) we wont be able to match exactly the parameters because the shapes of different (ii) small differences in FR shape can induce large differences in model behaviour sensu Fussmann and Blasius 2005.
- Predator-dependent or multiple-speces functional responses later. All the more important that we predator-dependence can emerge from the discreteness of time.
- Difficulties in measuring the functional response and taking into replacement [Juliano-type models etc.]
- Other kinds of interactions models. Perhaps cases with more interaction data and less time series (mutualisms?).