

Thesis proposal

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The proposal for my thesis, *Simulation models for predictive ecology*

1 Introduction

2 P1

3 Within the last several hundred years, human activity has induced rapid changes in Earth's atmosphere,
4 oceans, and surface. Greenhouse gas emissions have caused an increase the temperature of both Earth's
5 terrain and oceans, and both agricultural and urban development has rapidly reshaped the Earth's land
6 cover. These the bulk of this change has occurred within the last several hundred years, a geological
7 instant, inducing a sudden shift in conditions to Earth's climate and biosphere. As a result, predicting how
8 ecosystems will change in the future, *ecological forecasting*, and then using these forecasts to make
9 decisions to mitigate the negative consequences of this change on ecosystems, their functioning, and the
10 services they provide to humans has emerged as an imperative for ecology and environmental science
11 (Dietze 2017). However, robust prediction of ecological processes is, to say the least, quite difficult
12 (Beckage *et al.* 2011; Petchey *et al.* 2015). This difficulty is compounded by a few factors, the first being
13 that sampling ecosystems is not easy. Ecological data is often biased, noisy, and sparse in both space and
14 time. The current paucity of ecological data has resulted in much interest in developing global systems for
15 *ecosystem monitoring* (Makiola *et al.* 2020), which would systematize the collection of biodiversity data in
16 manner that makes detecting and predicting change more possible than at the moment (Urban *et al.* 2021).

17 P2

18 The second major challenge in ecological forecasting is that the underlying dynamics of most ecological
19 processes are unknown and instead must be inferred from this (sparse) data. Much of the history of
20 quantitatively modeling ecosystems have been done in the language of dynamical systems, describing how
21 the value of an observable state of the system, represented by a vector of numbers $[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]^T = \vec{x}$
22 changes as over time, yielding models in the form of differential equations in continuous-time
23 settings $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x)$ —or difference equations in discrete-time settings $x_t = f(x_{t-1})$ —where $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is
24 an arbitrary function describing how the system changes on a moment-to-moment basis (e.g. in the
25 context of communities, f could be Lotka-Volterra, Holling-Type-III or DeAngelis-Beddington functional
26 response). The initial success of these forms of models can be traced back to the larger program of
27 ontological reductionism, which became the default approach to modeling in the sciences after its early
28 success in physics, which, by the time ecology was becoming a quantitative science (sometime in the 20th
29 century, depending on who you ask), became the foundation for early quantitative models in ecology.

30 **P3**

31 However, we run into many problems when aiming to apply this type of model to empirical data in
32 ecology. Ecosystems are perhaps the quintessential example of system that cannot be understood by
33 iterative reduction of its components into constituent parts—ecological phenomena are emergent are the
34 product of different mechanisms operating a different spatial, temporal, and organizational scales (Levin
35 1992). Further, the form of this functional response in real systems is effectively unknown, and some
36 forms are inherently more “forecastable” than others (Beckage *et al.* 2011; Chen *et al.* 2019; Pennekamp *et*
37 *al.* 2019). Further this analytical approach to modeling explicitly ignores known realities: ecological
38 dynamics not deterministic, many analytic models in ecology assume long-run equilibrium. Finally,
39 perhaps the biggest challenge in using these models to describe ecological processes is ecosystems vary
40 across more variables than the tools of analytic models are suited for. As the number of variables in an
41 analytic model increases, so does the ability of the scientist to discern clear relationships between them
42 given a fixed amount of data, the so-called “curse” of dimensionality.

43 **P4**

44 But these problems are not solely unique to ecology. The term *ecological forecasting* implicitly creates an
45 analogy with weather forecasting. Although it has become a trite joke to complain about the weather
46 forecast being wrong, over the least 50 years the field of numerical weather prediction (NWP) has
47 dramatically improved our ability to predict weather across the board (Bauer *et al.* 2015). The success of
48 NWP, and the Earth observations systems that support it (Hill *et al.* 2004), should serve as a template for
49 development of a system for monitoring Earth’s biodiversity. Much like ecology, NWP is faced with
50 high-dimensional systems that are governed by different mechanisms at different scales. The success of
51 NWP is that, rather than, say, attempt to forecast the weather in Quebec by applying Navier-Stokes to
52 entire province, to instead use simulation models which describe known mechanisms at different scales,
53 and use the availability to increasing computational power to directly simulate many batches of dynamics
54 which directly incorporate stochasticity and uncertainty in parameter estimates via random number
55 generation.

56 **P6**

57 But forecasting is only half the story—if indeed “[ecologists] have hitherto only interpreted the world in
58 various ways; the point is to change it,” then once we have a forecast about how an ecosystem will change

59 in the future, what if this forecast predicts a critical ecosystem service will deteriorate? We are still left
60 with the question, what do we in the time being to mitigate the negative consequences a forecast predicts?
61 In this framing, mitigating the consequences of anthropogenic change on ecosystems becomes an
62 optimization problem: given a forecast of the probability. We have some goal state for the future, and some
63 estimate of what the state of the world will be given a set of actions. Frame optimization problem
64 mathematically an introduce concept of solution-space and constraint.

65 [Figure 1 about here.]

66 **P7**

67 This dissertation aims to formalize a framework for ecosystem monitoring and forecasting (fig. 1, left), and
68 each chapter address some aspect of this pipeline to data from a monitoring network to forecasts to
69 mitigation strategy (fig. 1, right).

70 **Chapter One: Forecasting the spatial uncoupling of a plant-pollinator
71 network**

72 Interactions between plants and pollinators form networks of interactions, which structure the
73 “architecture of biodiversity” (**Jordano2007?**). The functioning and stability of ecosystems emerge from
74 these interactions, but antropogenic change threatens to unravel and “rewire” these networks
75 (**CaraDonna2017IntRew?**), threatening the persistence of these systems. Plant-pollinator networks face
76 two possible forms of rewiring in response to anthropogenic environmental change: spatial and temporal.
77 Spatially, range shifts could cause interacting species to no longer overlap in space, and shifts in phenology
78 could cause interacting species to no longer overlap in time.

79 This chapter uses several years of data on bumblebee-flower phenology and interactions across several
80 field sites, each consisting of several plots across an elevational gradient, combined with spatial records of
81 species occurrence via GBIF to forecast this uncoupling. This addresses the EBV to forecast of EBV
82 element of the flow from data to mitigation in fig. 1 (left).

83 [Figure 2 about here.]

84 **Data**

85 The data for this chapter is derived from multiple souces and can be split into four categories. (1) Field
86 data from three different field sites across Colorado, each with multiple plots across an elevational
87 gradient, for seven, seven, and three years resptively. This data was collected by Paul CaraDonna and Jane
88 Oglevie (from the Rocky Mountain Biological Laboratory) and Julian Resasco (CU Boulder). (2) GBIF
89 spatial occurrence records of each of these species across Colorado, including a metaweb of interactions
90 across all of Colroado taken from GBIF. (3) Remotely sensed data consisting of current and forecasting
91 bioclimatic variables from CHELSA. (4) Phylogeny derived from NCBI GenBank barcodes for
92 mitochondrial COI (bumblebees) and chloroplast rbcL (flowers).

93 **Methods**

94 As the data we have is spatially sparse and likely to contain many interaction “false-negatives” (Strydom *et*
95 *al.* 2021), we begin by predicting a metaweb of interactions as they exist *in the present*.

96 In stages, (1) take data from multiple sites to predict a spatial metaweb of *Bombus*-flower interactions
97 across Colorado. (2) Predict how these spatial distributions will change under CMIP6. and (3) quantify the
98 lack of overlap between species for which there is a predicted

99 The process of going from data to forecast can be split into the following parts

100 1) Building an interaction prediction model (or rather a set of candidate models, relative abundance,
101 phylo embedding relative abundance + phylo embedding) a la Strydom *et al.* (2021)

102 Reconstructing latent features for each species based on simulating trait evolution on a phylogeny
103 (**Strydom2021FooWeb?**).

104 2) Make it spatial based on distributions.

105 3) Forecast distributions based on CMIP6

106 **Preliminary Results**

107 1) we got a tree and SDMs

108 Transition to next chapter by discussing uncertainty in interaction prediction across space.

109 **Chapter Two: Optimizing spatial sampling of species interactions**

110 This chapter uses simulation models to investigate the relationship between species relative abundance,
111 sampling effort, and probability of accurately detecting an interaction between species, and further
112 proposes a method for optimizing the spatial sampling locations to maximize the probability of detecting
113 an interaction between two species given their distributions. This addresses the optimization of
114 monitoring network part of the flow from data to mitigation in fig. 1.

115 As explored in the previous chapter, there are false-negatives in interation data. There is more than one
116 way to observe a false-negative when sampling interactions: (fig. 3). It begins with a conceptual framework
117 for understanding the difference in false-negatives in occurrence, co-occurrence, and interactions.
118 Co-occurrence is not the same thing as interaction (Blanchet *et al.* 2020), but often is used as a proxy.

119 [Figure 3 about here.]

120 We use a log-normal distribution as a null model of the relative-abundance distribution (Hubbell 2001) to
121 simulate realized false-negative rate as a function of varying sampling effort.

122 This also goes on to includes testing some assumptions of the model with empirical data fig. 4, which we
123 analytically show that our neutral model, if anything, underestimates the probability of false-negatives
124 due to positive correlations in co-occurrence in two spatially replicated networks (Thompson & Townsend
125 2000; Hadfield *et al.* 2014)—further I'm planning to add the field data from the previous chapter into this
126 analysis once available.

127 [Figure 4 about here.]

128 Finally this chapter proposes a simulated annealing method to optimize the efficacy of interactoin
129 detection given a set of observation points where the dist from observation site decays. optimize set of
130 repeated sampling locations L for a pair of species *known* distributions D_a, D_b .

131 **Chapter Three: Optimizing corridor placement against ecological**
132 **dynamics**

133 Promoting landscape connectivity is important to mitigate the effects of land-use change on Earth's
134 biodiversity. However, the practical realities of conservation mean that there is a limitation on how much
135 we can modify landscapes in order to do this. So what is the best place to put a corridor given a constraint
136 on how much surface-area you can change in a landscape? This is the question this chapter seeks to
137 answer. Models for proposing corridor locations have been developed, but are limited in that are not
138 developed around promoting some element of ecosystem function, but instead by trying to find the path of
139 least resistance given a resistance surface (Peterman 2018).

140 This chapter proposes a general algorithm for choosing corridor placement to optimize a measurement of
141 ecosystem functioning derived from simulations run on each proposed landscape modification.

142 [Figure 5 about here.]

143 **Methods**

144 We propose various landscape modifications which alter the cover of a landscape, represented as a raster.
145 We then compute a new resistance surface based on the proposed landscape modification, and based on
146 the values of resistance to dispersal between each location we simulate spatially-explicit metapopulation
147 dynamics model (Hanski & Ovaskainen 2000; Ovaskainen *et al.* 2002) to estimate a distribution of time
148 until extinction for each landscape modification.

- 149 • brief overview of simulated annealing
150 • describe how you build the proposal function
151 • optimize landscape optimization

152 **Chapter Four: MetacommunityDynamics.jl: a virtual laboratory for**
153 **community ecology**

154 This chapter consists of a collection of modules in the Julia language for different aspects of community
155 ecology, including most of the code used for the preceding chapters. Indeed `MetacommunityDynamics.jl`
156 (`MCD.jl`) is the epicenter of this set of tools, but due to the nature of the Julia language, `MCD.jl` is
157 interoperable with several existing packages within the `EcoJulia` organization, including several to
158 which I have contributed. A diagram showing the relation between these packages is shown in fig. 6.

159 [Figure 6 about here.]

160 **Conclusion**

161 **Appendix**

162 [Figure 7 about here.]

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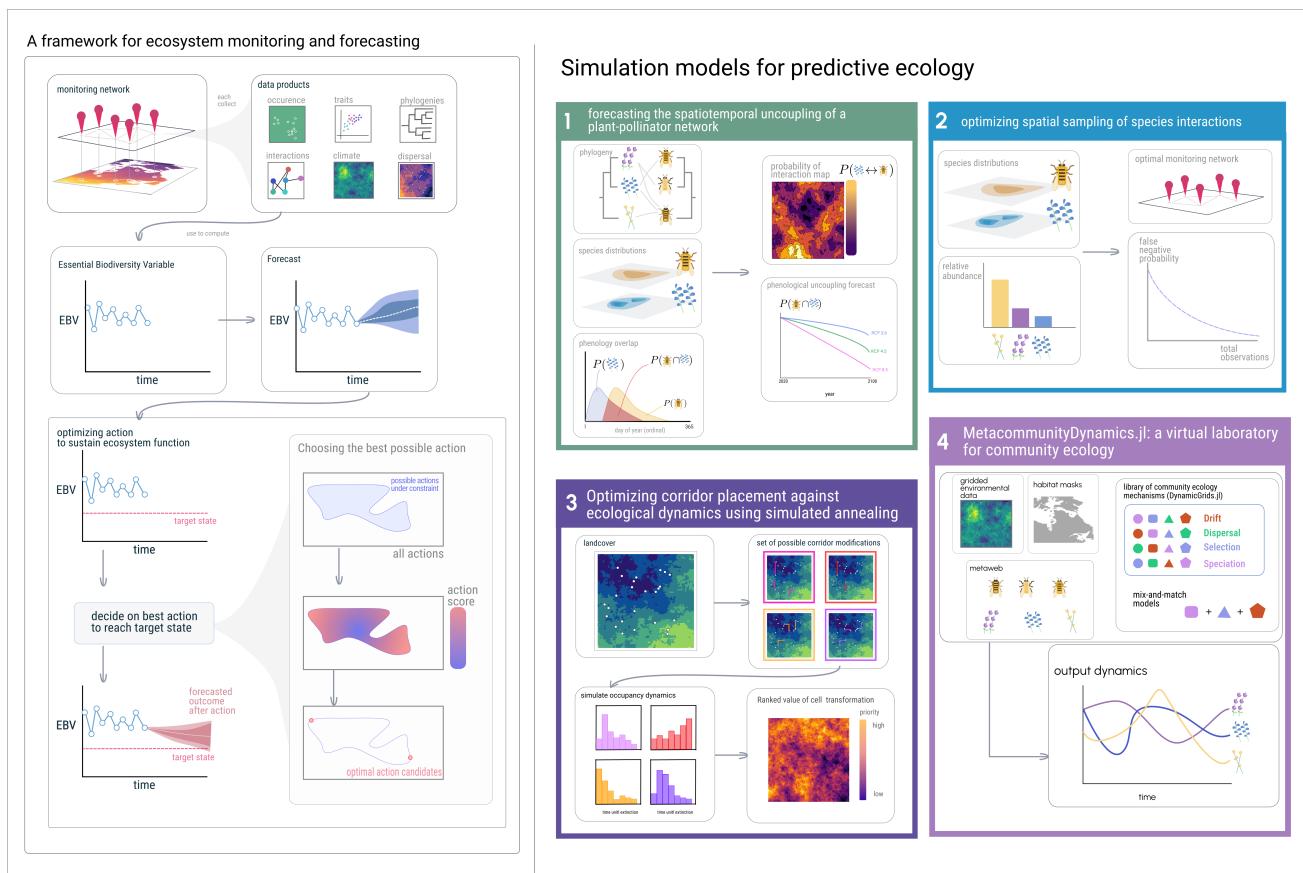


Figure 1: thesis concept

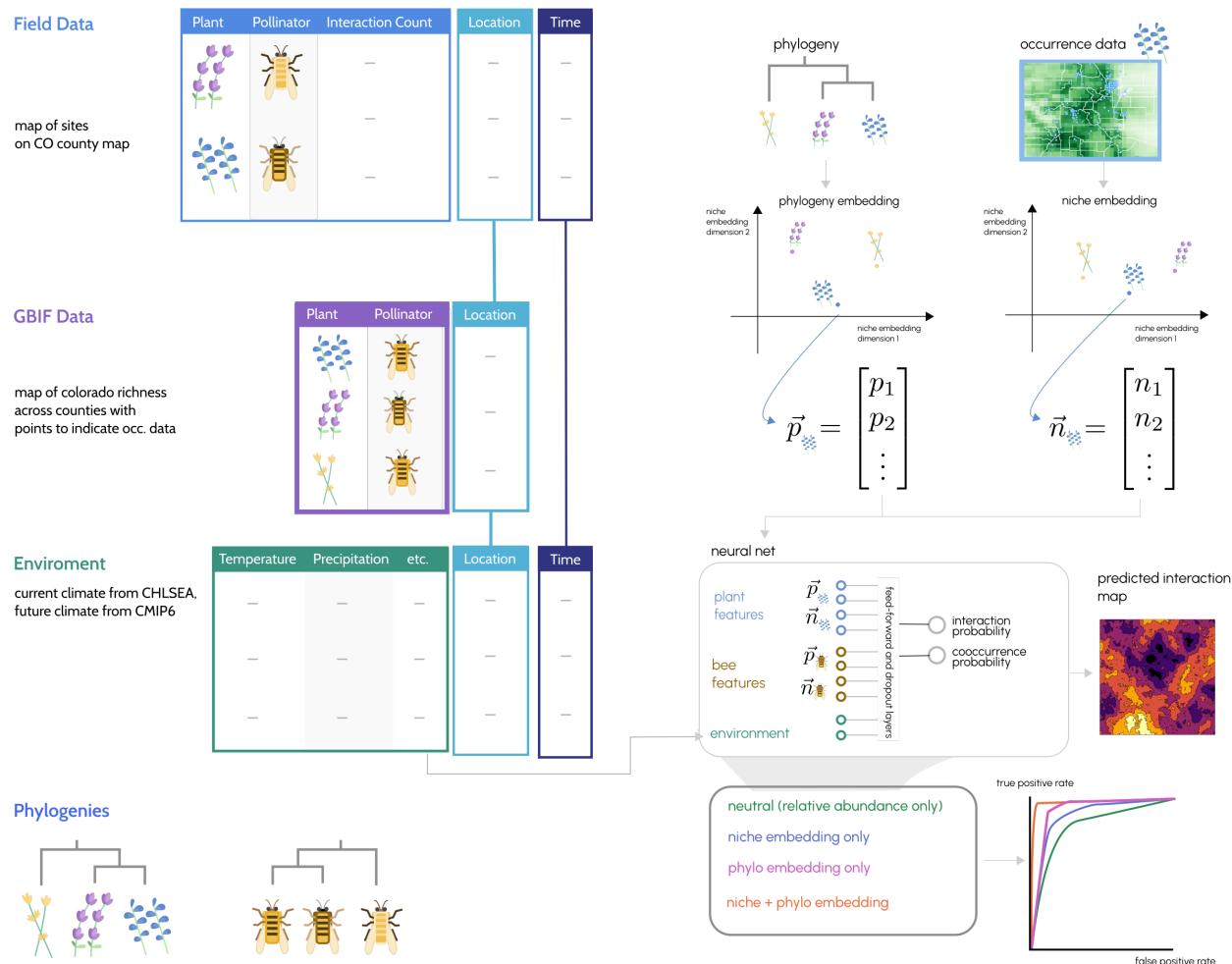


Figure 2: chapter one concept fig

Species A occurs?

		true		false								
		true	Species A observed?									
		true	Species B observed? <table border="1"> <tr> <td>true</td><td>co-occurrence true-positive</td><td>Interaction observed? true false</td><td>co-occurrence false-negative</td></tr> <tr> <td>false</td><td>co-occurrence false-negative</td><td>interaction true-positive interaction false-negative</td><td>occurrence false-negative</td></tr> </table>	true	co-occurrence true-positive	Interaction observed? true false	co-occurrence false-negative	false	co-occurrence false-negative	interaction true-positive interaction false-negative	occurrence false-negative	
true	co-occurrence true-positive	Interaction observed? true false	co-occurrence false-negative									
false	co-occurrence false-negative	interaction true-positive interaction false-negative	occurrence false-negative									
Species B occurs?	true		co-occurrence true-negative	occurrence true-negative								
false												

Figure 3: taxonomy of false negatives

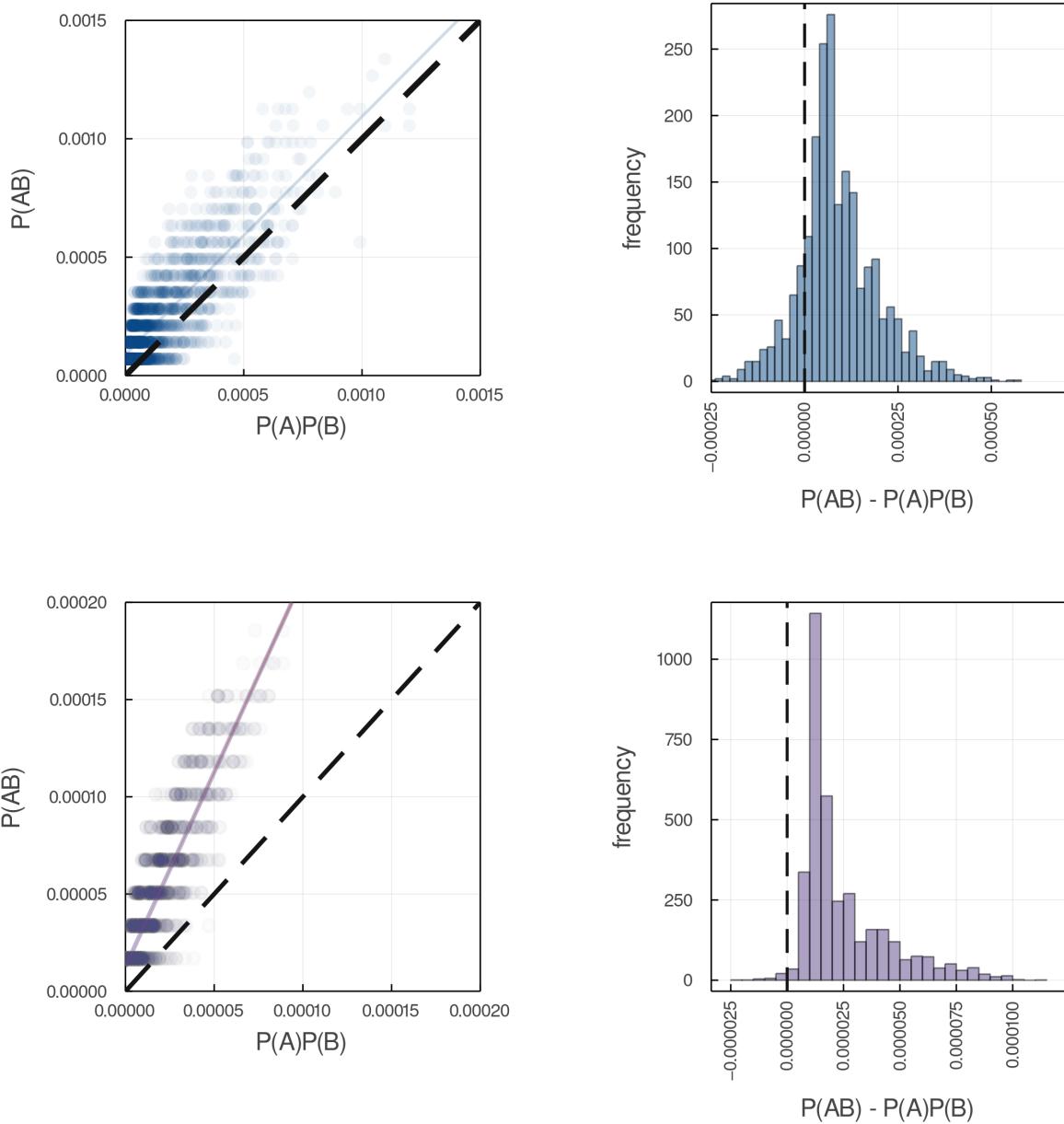


Figure 4: f

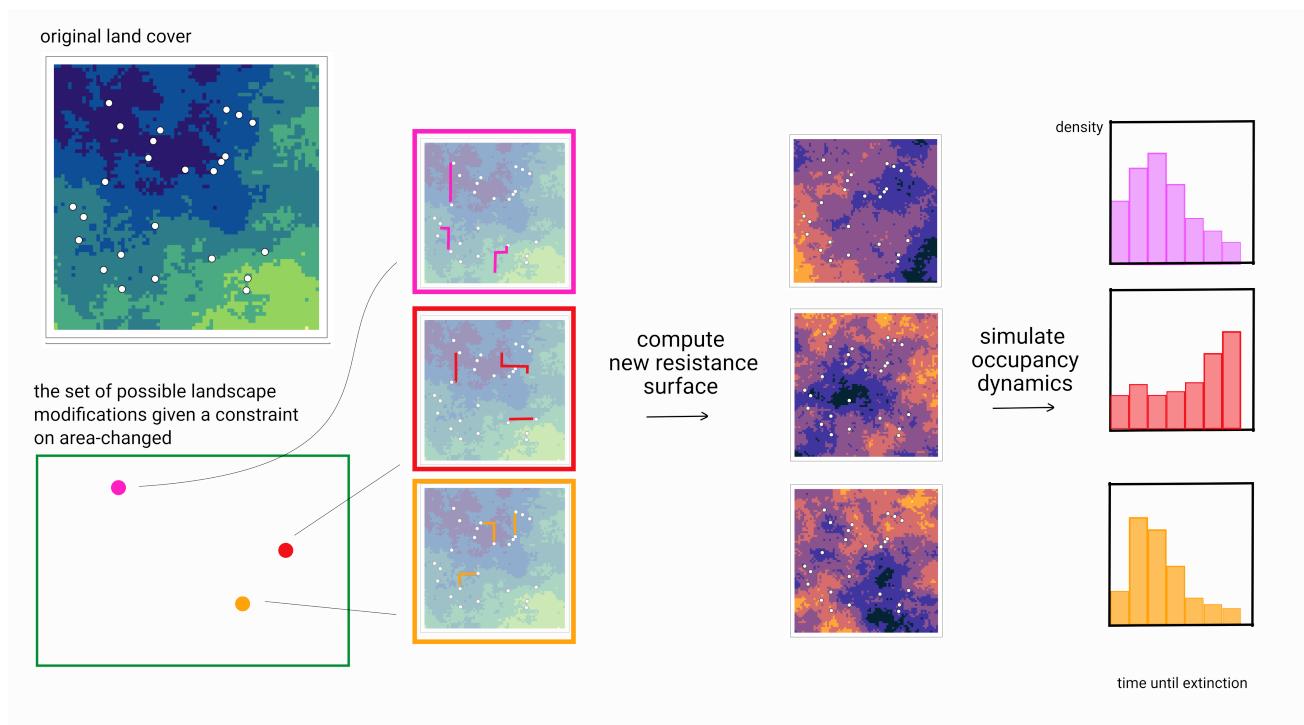


Figure 5: fig

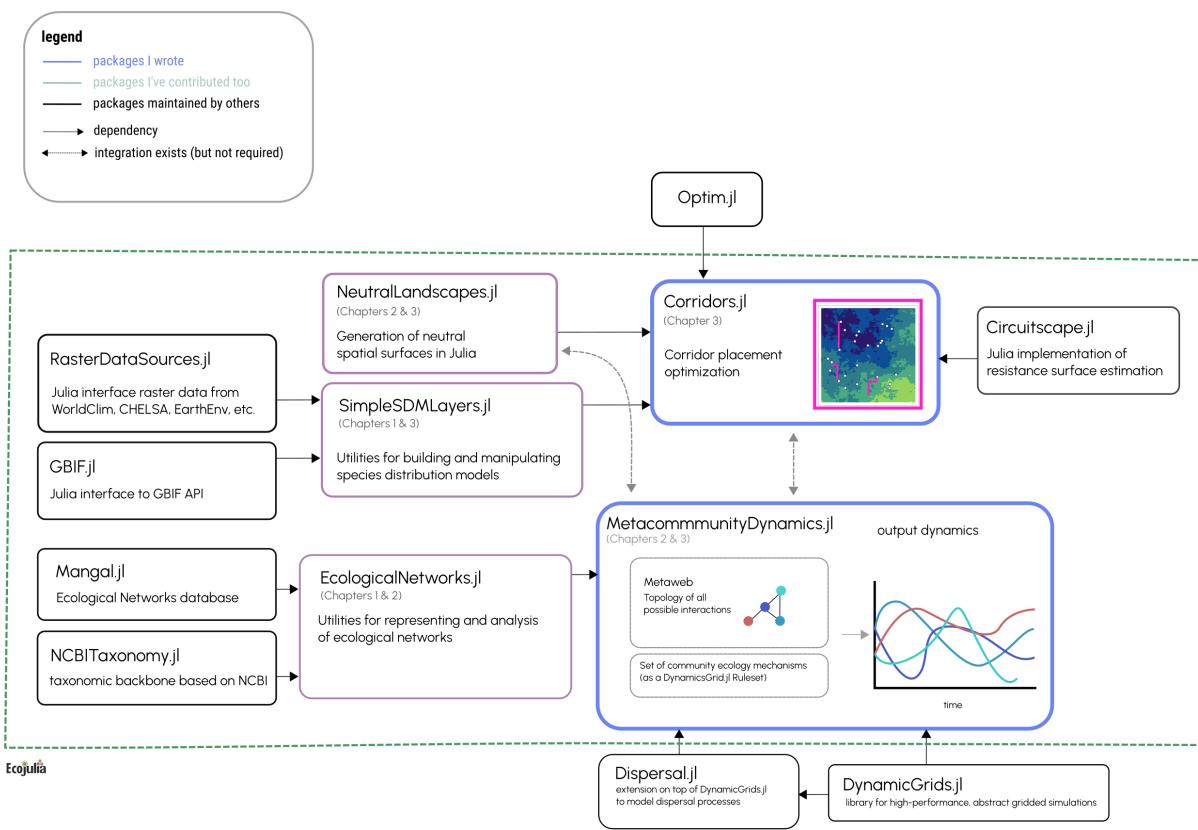


Figure 6: The structure of the software libraries used as part of MCD.jl

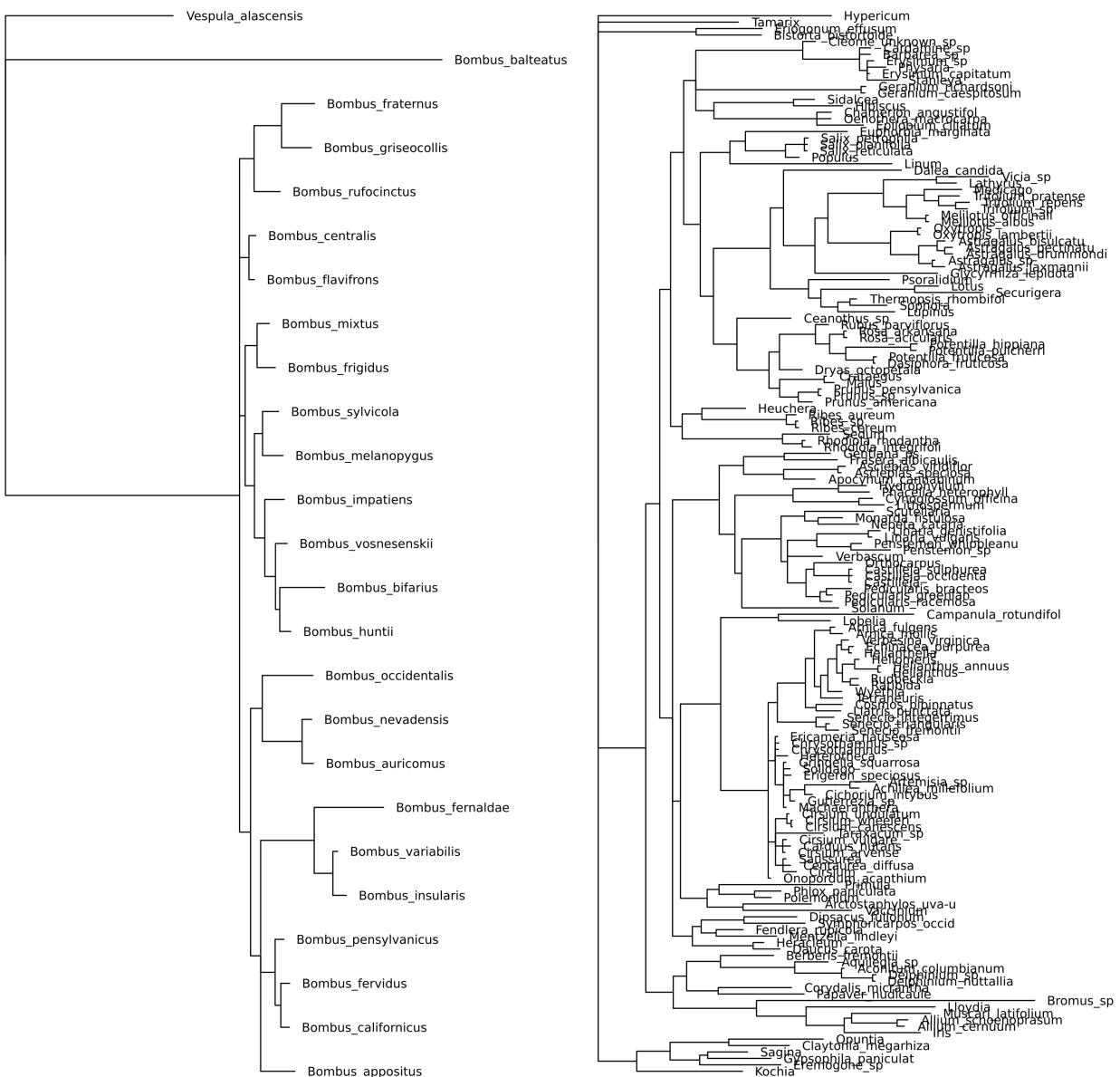


Figure 7: trees