

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 rapidly changed Earth's atmosphere, oceans,
4 and surface. Greenhouse gas emissions have caused an increase the temperature of both Earth's terrestrial
5 surface and its oceans, and both agricultural and urban development has rapidly reshaped the cover of
6 Earth's surface. These the bulk of this change has occurred within the last several hundred years, a
7 geological instant, potentially inducing shocks to ecosystems that could threatened their integrity
8 (**Scheffer?**). As a result understanding and predicting how ecosystems will change in the future,
9 *ecological forecasting*, and making making descisions based on these predictions mitigating the
10 consequences of this change, on ecosystems has emerged as an imperative for ecology and environmental
11 science [Dietze (2017);].

12 P2

13 However, robust forecasting of ecological processes will change in the future is, to say the least, quite
14 difficult (Beckage *et al.* 2011; Petchey *et al.* 2015). This difficultly is compounded by a few factors, the first
15 being that sampling ecosystems is not easy. Ecological data is often biased, and noisey, spatially and
16 temporally sparse. As a result *ecosystem monitoring* (Makiola *et al.* 2020) has emerged as an imperative.
17 Developing a system for ecological observation, which is able to coordinate across locations.

18 (**AndyUrbanBiomonitoring?** paper).

19 The second major challenge in forecasting ecosystems is that the underlying dynamics of most ecological
20 processes are fundamentally unknown (and unknowable) and instead must be inferred.

21 Much of the history of quantitatively modeling ecosystems have been done in the language of dynamical
22 systems, describing how the value of an observable state of the system, represented by a vector of numbers
23 $[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]^T = \vec{x}$ changes as over time. It turns out to be much more effective to, rather than attempt to
24 directly model $\vec{x}(t)$ itself, to instead describe how \vec{x} changes from one timestep to the next, yielding
25 models in the form of differential equations in continuous-time settings $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x)$ – or difference
26 equations in discrete-time settings $x_t = f(x_{t-1})$ – where $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is an arbitrary function describing
27 how the system changes on a moment-to-moment basis (e.g. in the context of communities, f could be
28 Lotka-Voltera, Holling-Type-III or DeAngelis-Beddington functional response). The form of this

29 functional response in real systems is effectively unknown, and some forms are inherently more
30 “forecastable” than others (Chen *et al.* 2019).

31 **P3**

32 However, we run into many problems when aiming to apply this type of model to empirical data in ecology.

33 The initial success of ODE models can be traced back to the larger program of ontological reductionism,
34 which became the de facto approach model physical sciences after its early success in physics, which, by
35 the time ecology was becoming a quantitative science (sometime in the 20th century, depending on who
36 you ask), became the foundation for early quantitative models in ecology.

37 But ecosystems are perhaps the quintessential example of system that cannot be understood simply by
38 iterative reduction of its components. Emergent phenomena, mechanisms at different scales, etc.

39 Some have been explored in the ecological literature: (1) Some applications of dynamic models in ecology
40 assume long-run equilibrium. (2) Stochasticity

41 (3) Ecological processes vary across more variables than the tools of analytic models are suited for. As
42 the number of variables in an analytic model increases, so does the ability of the scientist to discern
43 clear relationships between them, and so does overfitting potential. Curse of dimensionality— Until
44 the 20th century, no theory of the gravitational dynamics of more than 2 bodies. Understanding the
45 gravitational dynamics of more than two planets with any reliability proved difficult. Using the
46 same models (diffeqs), how could we adequately predict ecosystems?

47 **P4**

48 The term *ecological forecasting* implicitly creates an analogy between predicting how ecosystems will
49 change in the future by using the term “forecasting”—the most immediate analog being the success story
50 of weather forecasting via numerical weather prediction (NWP).

51 Although it is become almost hack to complain about the dang weather forecast being wrong, over the
52 least 50 years the (Bauer *et al.* 2015).

53 The success of NWP, and the Earth observations that support it should serve as a template for
54 development of a system for monitoring Earth’s biodiversity. Much like ecology, NWP is faced with
55 high-dimensional systems that are governed by different mechanisms at different scales.

56 NWP has worked because it incorporates information about data and meteorological processes collected at
57 difference scales into models that. Use of computational methods in NWP.

58 Much as one would not aim to forecast the weather in Quebec by applying Navier-Stokes, forecasting
59 ecological systems must

60 Transition to simulation as the solution: shift toward approach of building models that *generate* data.

61 (resolving the semantic ambiguity of what differentiates “mechanistic” vs “phenomenological” models is out
62 of scope for now).

63 More broadly a reflection reflect ecology lagging behind the statistical methods used in sciences that face
64 similar challenges (many dimensions, many mechanisms at different scales, each with stochasticity).

65 Chaotic dynamics emerge from simple analytic models, and . Whether ecosystems actually exhibit chaotic
66 behavior is a different question.

67 **P5**

68 But forecasting isn’t the only difficult problem here.

69 Transition to theme of optimization given unknown information. A forecast gives us a range of future
70 values with uncertainty around them. Further a convenient property that a forecasting model’s
71 uncertainty goes up over time (if we assume the underlying process is Markov–this is a strong assumption
72 but oft true of the models we fit to temporal data)

73 In face of uncertainty, decision making is an optimization problem. We have some goal state for the
74 future, and some estimate of what the state of the world will be given a set of actions. Frame optimization
75 problem mathematically an introduce concept of solution-space and constraint.

76 Indeed Marx’s most well known quote that “philosophers have hitherto only interpreted the world in
77 various ways; the point is to change it.” and a necessary step toward establishing a just and sustainable
78 world.

79 [Figure 1 about here.]

80 **P6 – final intro para**

81 Three major components here: 1) Ecosystem monitoring, 2) Forecasting using the products of that
82 monitoring, and 3) Choosing the best possible mitigation strategy.

83 This flow is outlined in the left panel of fig. 1

84 **Chapter One: Forecasting the spatial uncoupling of a plant-pollinator
85 network**

86 Plants and pollinators form interaction networks, called the “architecture of biodiversity” (**Jordano2007?**).

87 The stability, function, and persistance of ecosystems relies on the structure of these interactions.

88 Antropogenic change threatens to unravel these networks. Two aspects to this change: spatial and
89 temporal. Spatially, range shifts along elevational gradient, and temporall, phenological shifts.

90 The issue is that we don’t really know what interactions are like now. So not only do we need to predict
91 with data that is spatially and temporally sparse and likely to contain many interaction “false-negatives”
92 (**Strydom2021?**)

93 This chapter uses several years of data on bee-flower phenology and interactions, combined with spatial
94 records of species occurrence via GBIF, to forecast how much overlap there will be between
95 plants/pollinators in space/time.

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 [Figure 2 about here.]

100 **Data**

101 The data for this chapter is derived from multiple souces and can be split into three categories. (1) Field
102 data from three different locations acvross Colorado. All field sites have multiple plots across an
103 elevational gradient.

104 System description: lots of data on *Bombus* (bumblebees) and wildflowers. Three different sites, (7/7/3)
105 years each, each covering an elevational gradient.

106 **Methods**

107 Split the process into parts.

108 1) Building an interaction prediction model. 2) Make it spatial based on distributions. 3) Forecast
109 distributions based on CMIP6.

110 **Preliminary Results**

111 1) we got a tree

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

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

114 There are false-negatives in interation data. Co-occurrence is not the same thing as interaction (**cite?**), but
115 often is used as a proxy.

116 This chapter unravels the relationship between a given species relative abundance and the sampling effort
117 needed to adequately understand this species distribution and interactions.

118 There is more than one way to observe a false-negative.

119 [Figure 3 about here.]

120 It begins with a conceptual framework for understanding the difference in false-negatives in occurrence,
121 co-occurrence, and interactions (fig. 3). We use a null model of the relative-abundance distribution
122 (Hubbell 2001) to simulate realized false-negatives as a function of varying sampling effort.

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

127 [Figure 4 about here.]

128 new addition: - simulate species distribution and efficacy of detection given a set of observation points
129 where the dist from observation site decays. optimize set of repeated sampling locations L for a *known*
130 distribution D. address SDM not being the territory

131 **Results**

- 132 • nonrandom association figure sampling effort under neutral model

133 **Chapter Three: Optimizing corridor placement against ecological** 134 **dynamics**

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

142 This chapter proposes a general algorithm for optimizing corridor placement based on a measurement of
143 ecosystem functioning derived from simulations run on a proposed landscape modification. We propose
144 various landscape modifications which alter the cover of a landscape, represented as a raster (fig. 6, left).
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 (fig. 6, right).

149 **Methods**

- 150 • land cover -> resistance -> extinction time simulated annealing to
151 • optimize landscape optimization

152 **CH4 a software note on the resulting packages.**

153 (MetacommunityDynamics.jl: a virtual laboratory for community ecology): a collection of modules in the
154 Julia language for different aspects of metacommunity ecology, including most of the code used for the
155 preceding chapters.

156 [Figure 5 about here.]

157 **Conclusion**

158 **Appendix**

159 [Figure 6 about here.]

160 **References**

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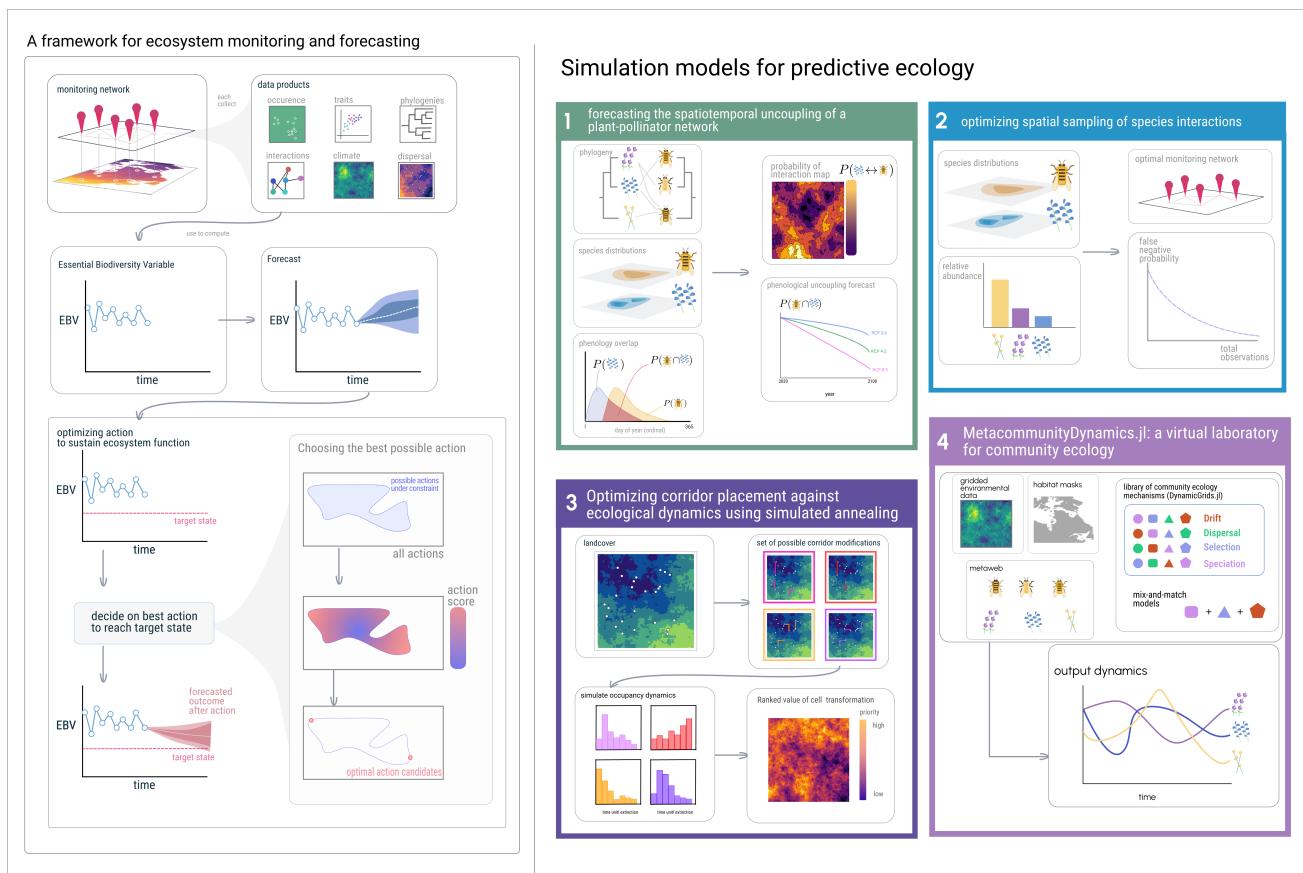


Figure 1: thesis concept

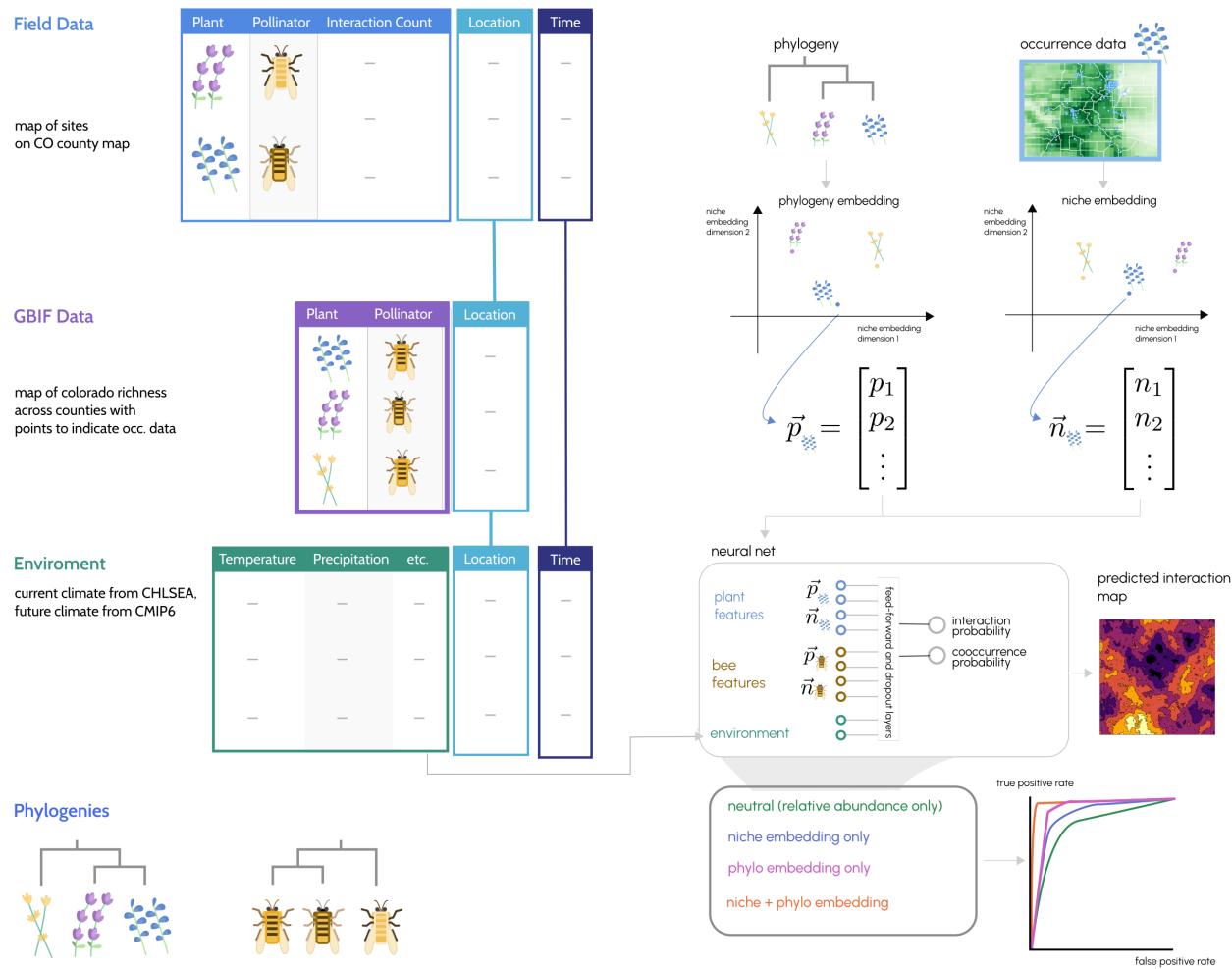


Figure 2: chapter one concept fig

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> <th></th>	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

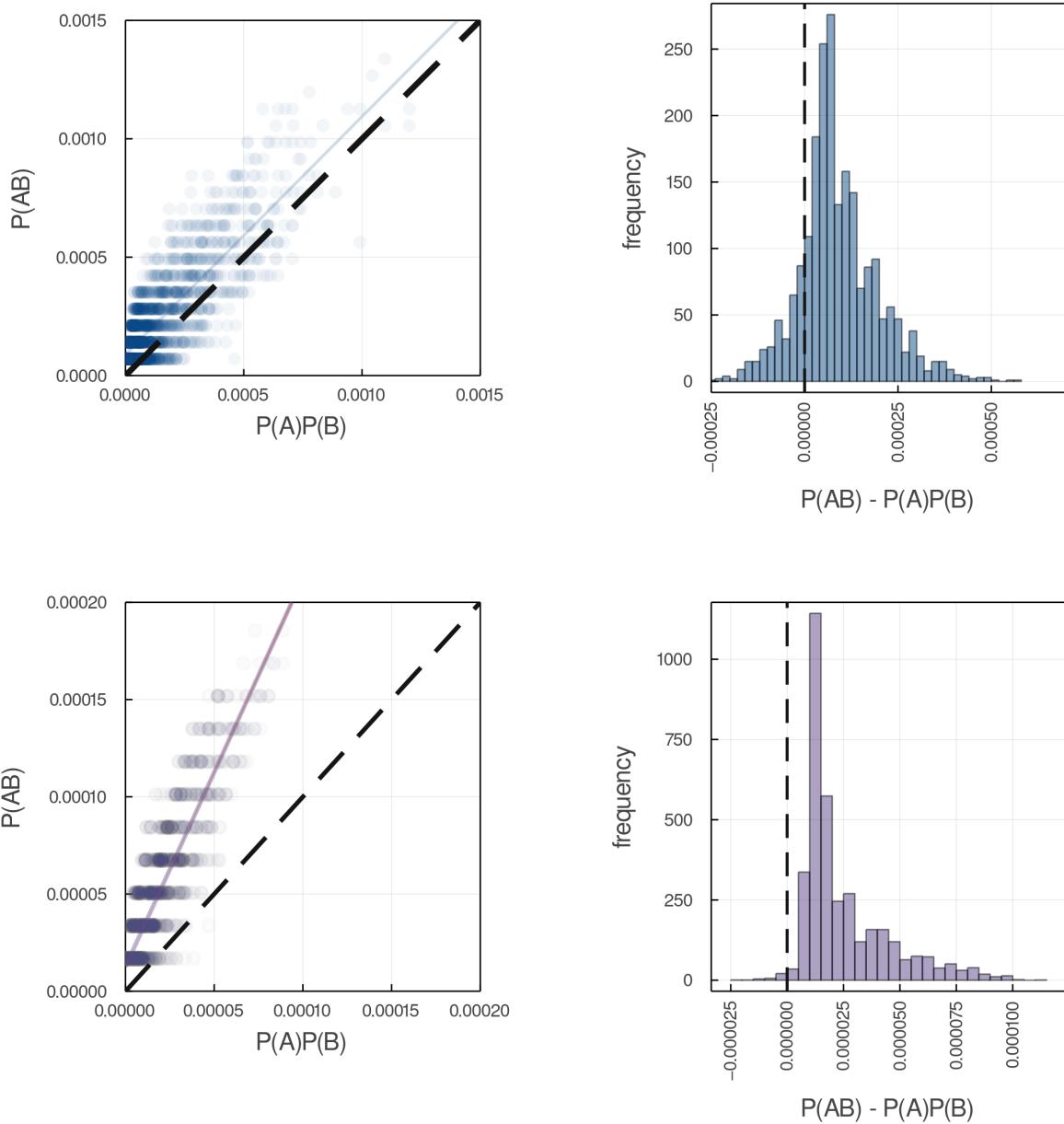


Figure 4: f

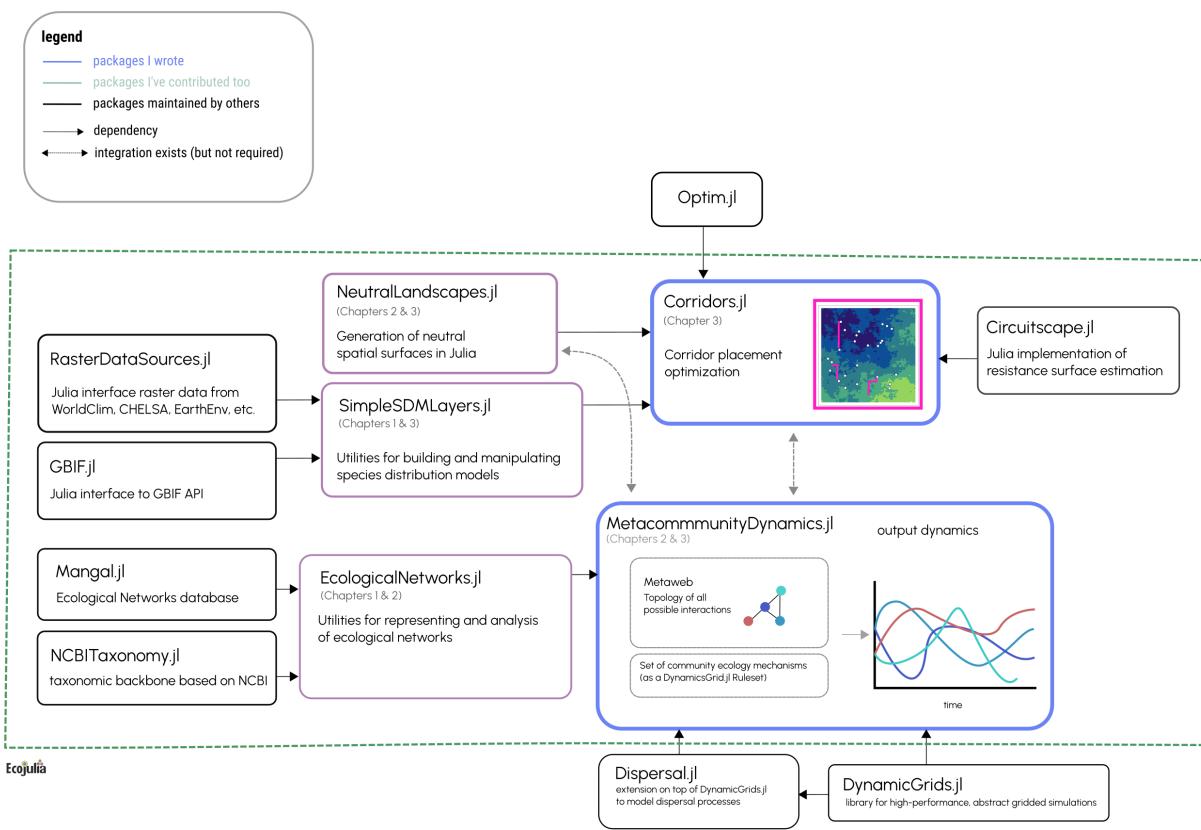


Figure 5: todo

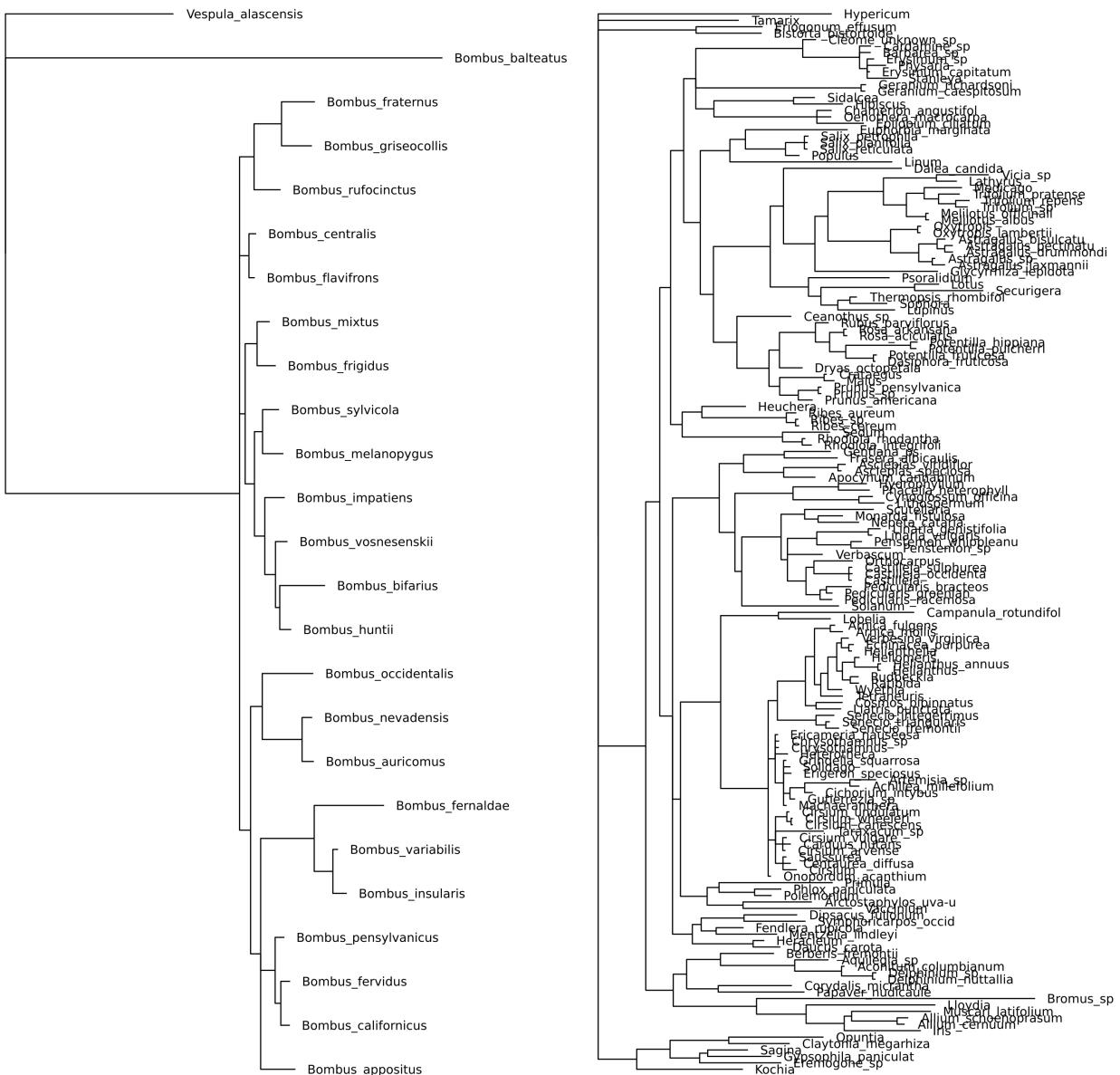


Figure 6: trees