

Estimating Interaction Strengths in Ecological Communities

Intro to MAR modeling

Eli Holmes

FISH 507 – Applied Time Series Analysis

5 March 2019

Topics

- Univariate and multivariate Gompertz models
- Example study: CA kelp forest ecosystem

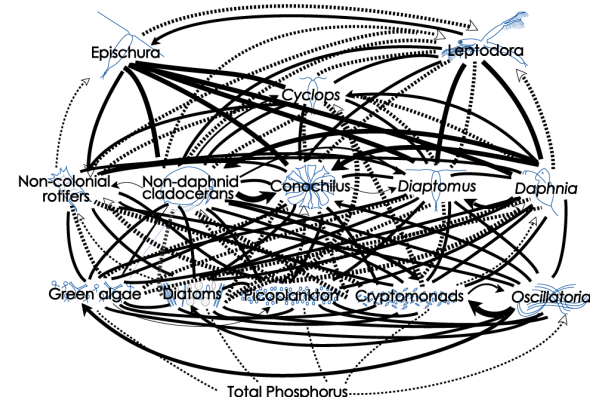
Simple 2-spp model

- 2x2 B matrix

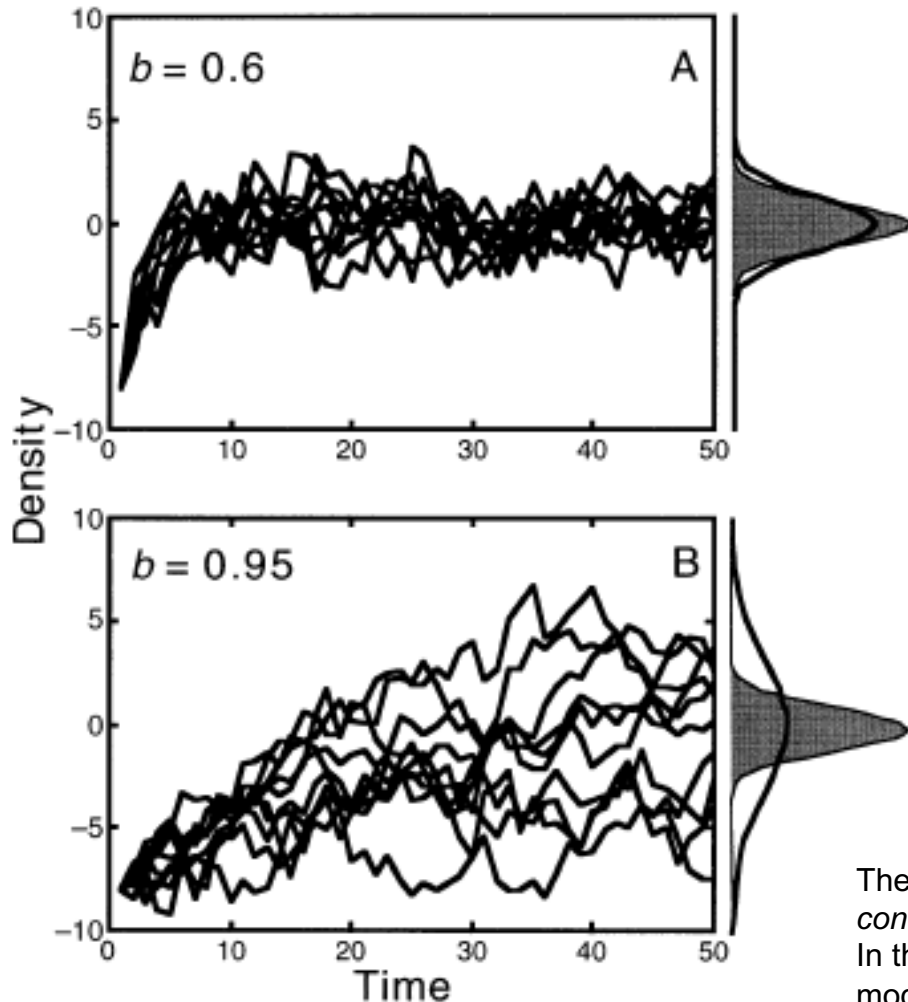


Large multivariate models

- Big B matrices



Mean-reverting processes



In lecture, I will talk about estimating mean-reversion in the context of density-dependence and species interactions, but mean-reverting stochastic processes are ubiquitous.

The **Ornstein-Uhlenbeck** process is the classic *continuous* time mean-reverting stochastic process. In the population dynamics literature, the **Gompertz** model is the classic discrete time mean-reverting process (although the Gompertz model also refers to a continuous time version).

Univariate Gompertz models

$$x_t = bx_{t-1} + u + w_t$$

Density dependence

univariate discrete exponential growth not in log-space

$$n_t = n_{t-1} \cdot \exp(u)$$

univariate discrete density-dependent growth not in log-space

general

$$n_t = n_{t-1} \cdot f(n_{t-1})$$

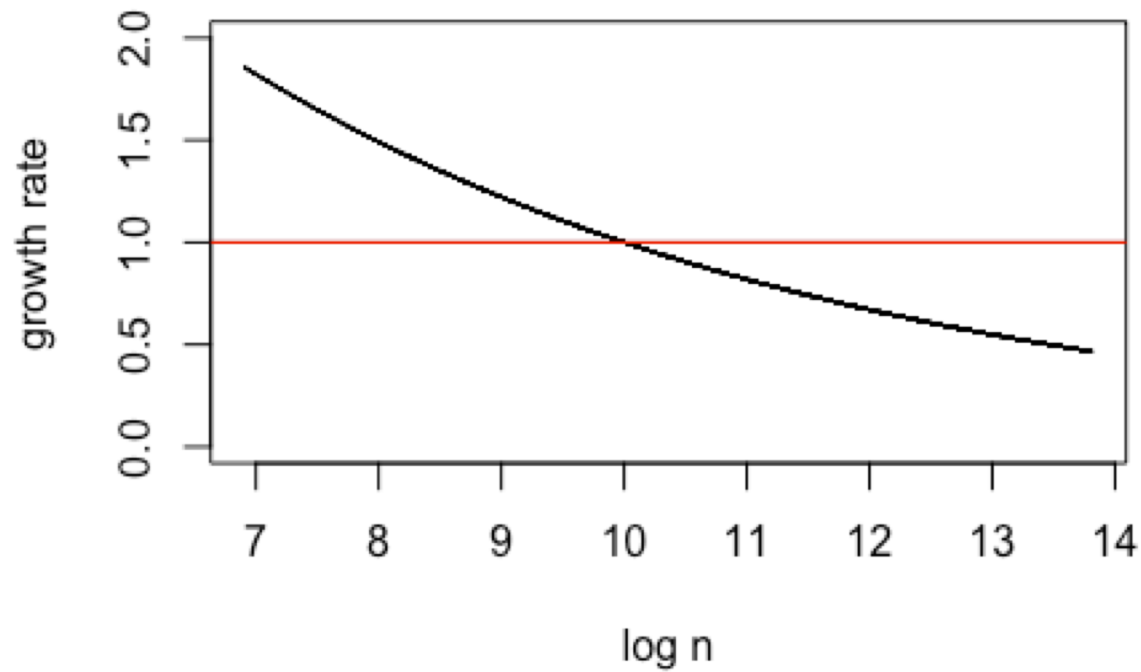
Specific type

$$n_t = n_{t-1} \cdot \exp(u + f(n_{t-1}))$$

The shape of $f(n_{t-1})$ determines the dynamics of the system:

- stable or unstable equilibrium
- Speed at which equilibrium is approached
- Equilibrium level
- Sensitivity to perturbations

$$n_t = n_{t-1} \cdot \exp[u + (b - 1)\ln n_{t-1}]$$



Gompertz model written in log space is AR(1)

$$n_t = n_{t-1} \cdot \exp[u + (b-1)\ln n_{t-1}]$$

Taking the natural log of both sides

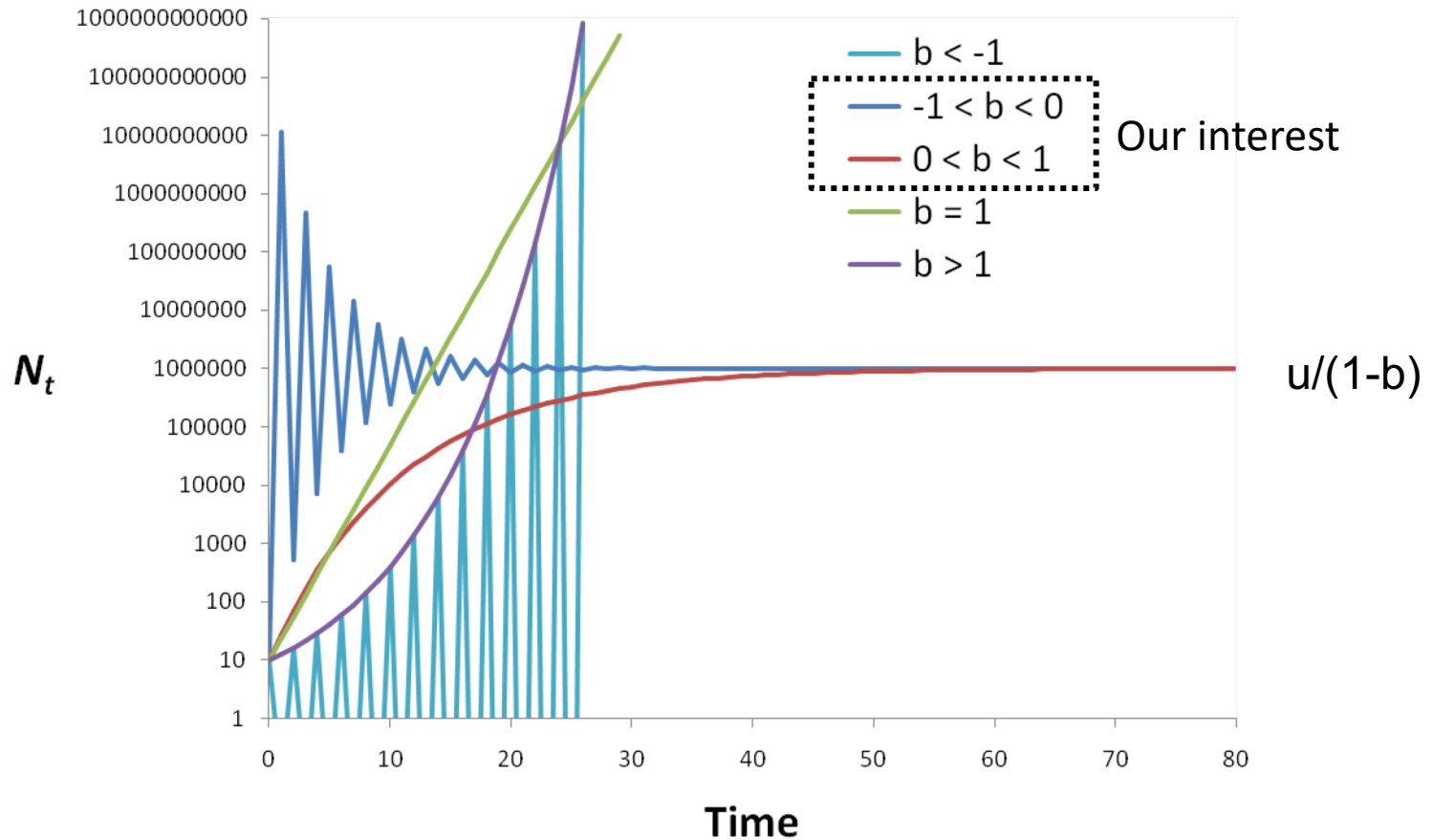
$$\begin{aligned}\ln n_t &= \ln n_{t-1} + u + (b-1)\ln n_{t-1} \\ &= \ln n_{t-1} + u + b \ln n_{t-1} - \ln n_{t-1} \\ &= u + b \ln n_{t-1}\end{aligned}$$

Substituting x_t for $\ln n_t$

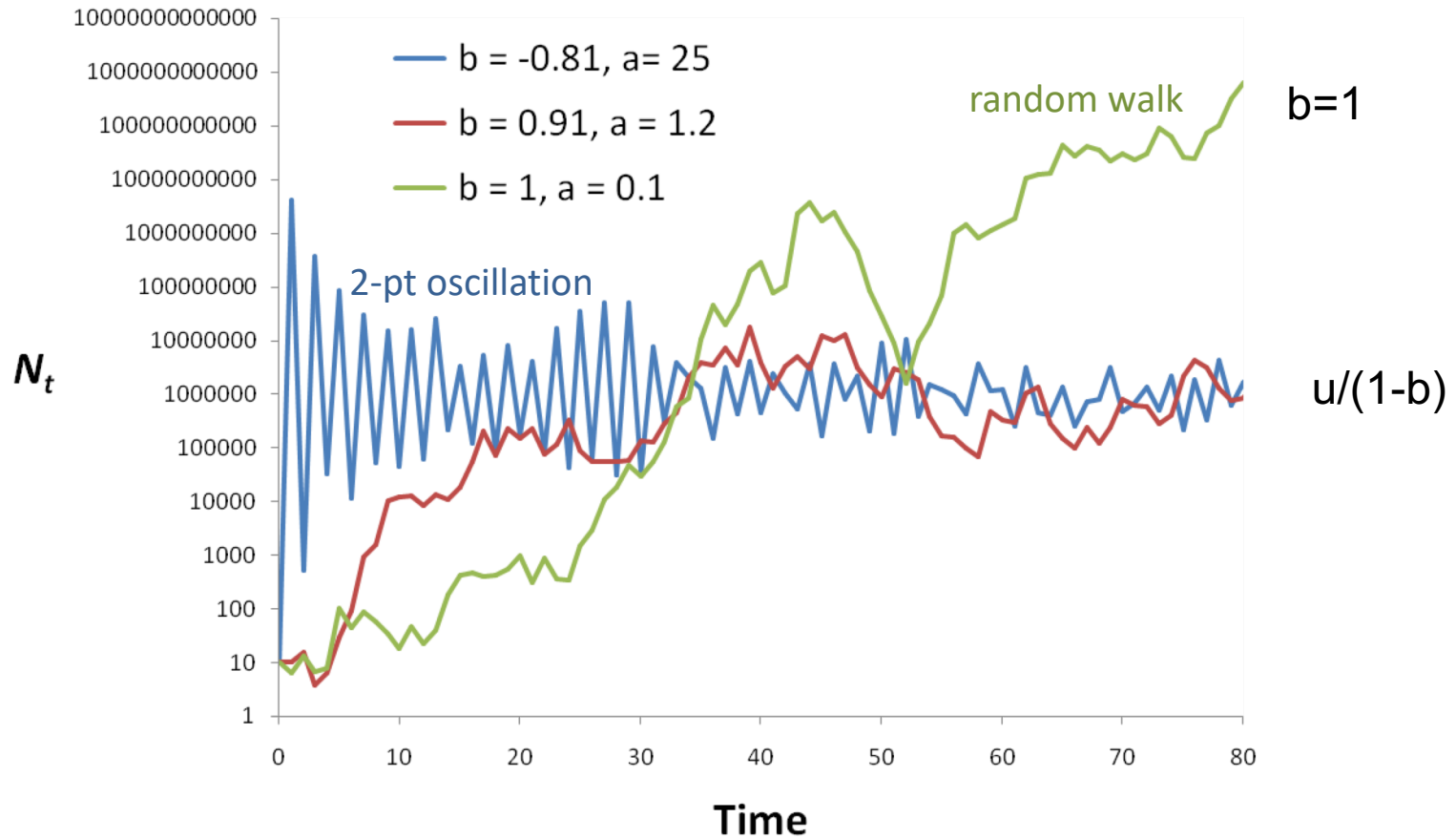
$$x_t = u + bx_{t-1}$$

AR(1) minus the noise term

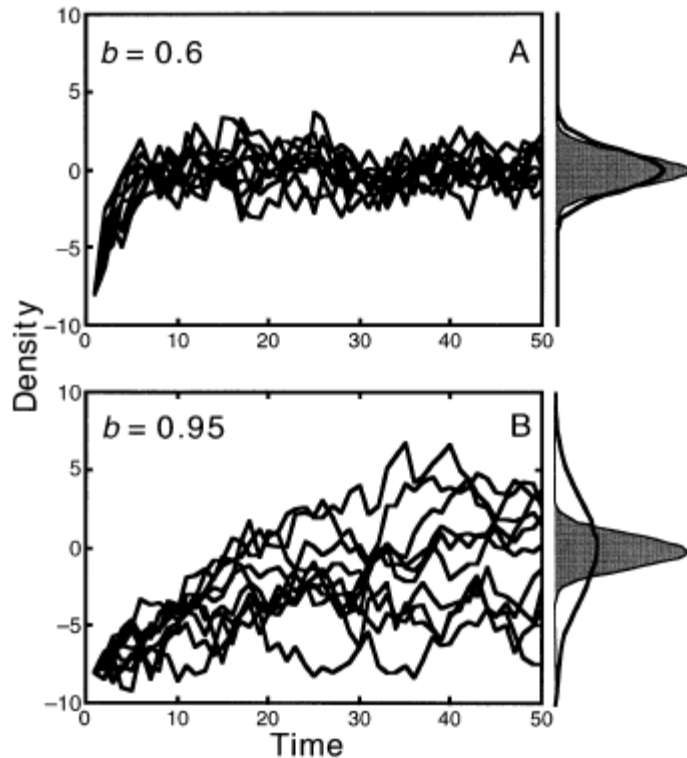
Properties of this model



Add stochasticity (process error)



Equilibrium for the stochastic Gompertz process



It has a stationary distribution
probability distribution of X_t as $t \rightarrow \infty$
given $|b| < 1$

Normally distributed with
mean μ_∞ and variance ν_∞

Fig. 1 - Ives et al. (2003)

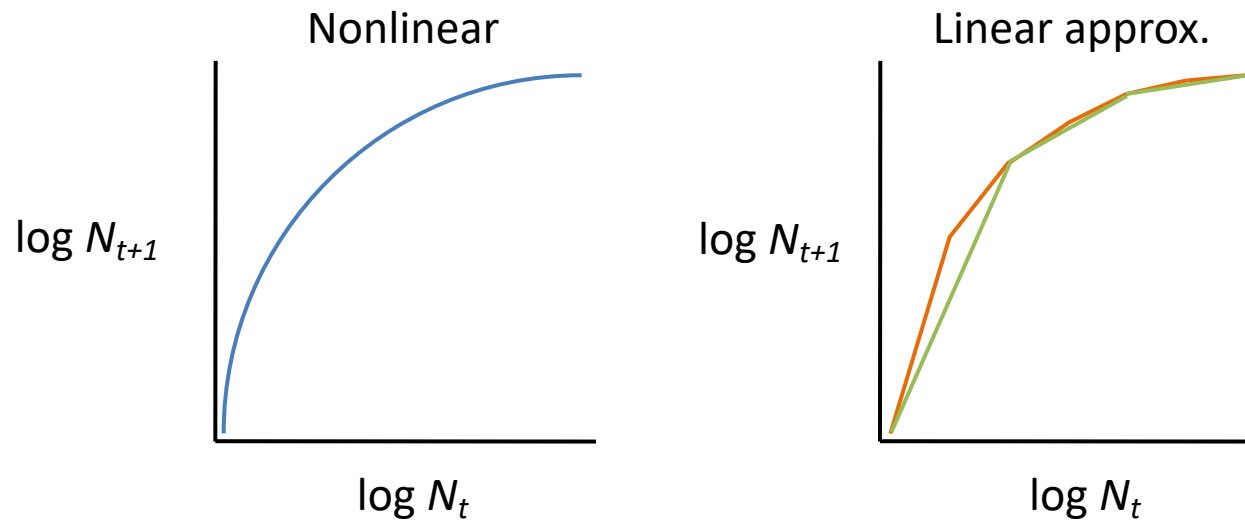
Main properties

- Mean reverting, aka density-dependent
- Stationary, so it fluctuates around a mean
- Point equilibrium as opposed to a cycle equilibrium like Lotka-Volterra (Lynx & hare) models you studied in Ecology 101
- Can be seen as a **locally linear** approximation of other types of density-dependent interaction models

“locally linear” is jargon for “only holds for sure if x doesn’t change too much”. In our case, $x = \log(n) = \log$ abundance.

Real systems do not necessarily have log-linear density-dependence

Note: If N is not spanning very large values a linear model may suffice



Modern literature on MAR(1) models allow B to be time-varying which allows that linear approximation to vary in time.

observation error is known a problem obs error = spurious density-dependence

ECOLOGY LETTERS
Ecology Letters, (2011) doi: 10.1111/j.1461-0248.2011.01702.x

LETTER

Are patterns of density dependence in the Global Population Dynamics Database driven by uncertainty about population abundance?

Abstract
Density dependence in population growth rates is of immense importance to ecological theory and application, but is difficult to estimate. The Global Population Dynamics Database (GPDD), one of the largest collections of population time series available, has been extensively used to study cross-taxa patterns in density dependence. A major difficulty with assessing density dependence from time series is that uncertainty in population abundance estimates can cause strong bias in both tests and estimates of strength. We analyse 627 data sets in the GPDD using Gompertz population models and account for uncertainty via the Kalman filter. Results suggest that at least 45% of the time series display density dependence, but that it is weak and difficult to detect for a large fraction. When uncertainty is ignored, magnitude of evidence for density dependence is strong, illustrating that uncertainty in abundance estimates qualitatively changes conclusions about density dependence drawn from the GPDD.

Keywords
Density dependence, GPDD, observation error, time series.

Ecology Letters (2011)

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INTRODUCTION

Density dependence in population growth rates is a fundamental concept for ecological theory as well as for population management. Estimating density dependence in wild populations has, however, proved challenging. Ideally, density dependence in growth rates should be estimated directly from the effects of density acting on the traits contributing to population growth. Given current progress in statistical methods for jointly analysing data on both population size and demographic traits (Beaubeau *et al.* 2005), and with long-term population studies involving demographic data becoming increasingly common, this approach holds a bright future. However, the number of such studies is currently limited and they only cover a rather narrow range of taxa. Long-term time series on population abundance are more common and can be used to estimate density dependence in population growth rates. Under this approach, density dependence is defined as a general tendency of per capita growth rates to decrease when population size is large and increase when it is small, and is identified as a statistical pattern not tied to any specific biological mechanism (Wolda & Dennis 1993).

It was noted early that estimates and tests of density dependence based on regressing log transformed current observed population size, y_t , on previous log transformed observed population size, y_{t-1} , are sensitive to uncertainty in the observations (St-Amant 1970; Kuno 1971; Ito 1972; Skellam 1977). Similar concerns were aired about estimates from fisheries models of stock-recruitment data (Ludwig & Walters 1981; Walters & Ludwig 1981). Uncertainty inflates the Type I error rate of tests for density dependence (Shenk *et al.* 1998) and tends to bias estimates towards stronger density dependence if dynamics are under-compensatory and towards weaker density dependence if dynamics are over-compensatory (Benson 1973). Bulner (1975) devised two tests for density dependence taking the time series nature of the data into account. One of those was designed to be robust

against uncertainty about population size and has been shown to perform better than density dependence tests ignoring uncertainty in estimates of population abundance (Shenk *et al.* 1998). Simple procedures to correct for effects of uncertainty such as the SIMEX method have been suggested (Solow 1998; Freckleton *et al.* 2006) but typically require that the variance of the uncertainty about population size is known. A more direct approach to account for uncertainty is provided by state space models, first used for modelling population dynamics in the fisheries literature (e.g. Mendelsohn 1988; Sullivan 1992). State space models in these cases consist of a model of a population dynamical process combined with a model of the uncertainty in the abundance estimates, sometimes termed observation, measurement or sampling error, and may be used to estimate the variance of this uncertainty as well as to filter out its effects (de Valpine & Hastings 2002; Calder *et al.* 2003; Buckland *et al.* 2004; Dennis *et al.* 2006). Estimates derived from state space models tend to have smaller bias than estimates ignoring uncertainty about population abundance, but can also have large variances (Knappe 2008), and the statistical properties of even simple state space model estimators are not fully understood (Dennis *et al.* 2006; Lebreton 2009).

The Global Population Dynamics Database (GPDD), containing over 5000 time series on population abundances obtained from various forms of population surveys, has provided an opportunity for ecologists to explore population dynamical patterns over a wide range of taxa (Inchausti & Halley 2001). Analyses using data in the GPDD have focused on, e.g., extinction risks (Pagan *et al.* 2001; Inchausti & Halley 2003; Brook *et al.* 2006), population cycles (Kendall *et al.* 1998; Murdoch *et al.* 2002) and effects of weather (Knappe & de Valpine 2011) but, arguably, the studies stirring the most attention as well as debate have addressed population regulation and density dependence. These have explored patterns in the shape of density dependence (Sibly *et al.* 2005; Polansky *et al.* 2009) and in the strength of regulation and density dependence (Brook & Bradshaw 2006; Sibly *et al.* 2007;

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ESTIMABILITY OF DENSITY DEPENDENCE IN MODELS OF TIME SERIES DATA

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Abstract. Estimation of density dependence from time series data on population abundance is hampered in the presence of observation or measurement errors. Fitting state-space models has been proposed as a solution that reduces the bias in estimates of density dependence caused by ignoring observation errors. While this is often true, I show that, for specific parameter values, there are identifiability issues in the linear state-space model when the strength of density dependence and the observation and process error variances are all unknown. Using simulation to explore properties of the estimators, I illustrate that, unless assumptions are imposed on the process or observation error variances, the variance of the estimator of density dependence varies critically with the strength of the density dependence. Under compensatory dynamics, the stronger the density dependence the more difficult it is to estimate in the presence of observation errors. The identifiability issues disappear when density dependence is estimated from the state-space model with the observation error variance known to the correct value. Direct estimates of observation variance in abundance censuses could therefore prove helpful in estimating density dependence but care needs to be taken to assess the uncertainty in variance estimates.

Key words: density dependence; state-space models; time series analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Density dependence can be loosely defined as a quantitative influence of population size on some life history or population trait of interest. The concept is of central importance to population ecology since it determines both the limiting and the short time behavior of the dynamics of populations. Empirical estimates of density dependence are therefore important from a scientific as well as from a management perspective. Assessment of density dependence in the dynamics of natural populations has however proved to be challenging (Dennis *et al.* 2006).

When relevant data are available, effects of density dependence can be directly linked to life history traits. For instance, density dependence in recruitment (e.g. Crespin *et al.* 2006) and survival (e.g. Festa-Bianchet *et al.* 2003) have been estimated by mark-recapture analyses and density dependence in fecundity has been inferred from data on reproduction (e.g. Solbreck and Ives 2007). Density dependence in life history traits influences density dependence in population growth rate (Lande *et al.* 2002). It can be argued that density dependence in population growth is the most important form of density dependence for determining long-term behavior of populations. However, since the link from demographic traits to population change is almost never known with good precision, density dependence in

population growth rate is not easily inferred from life history data even if the effects of density dependence on several life history traits are well known. Time series analysis of population abundance data provides an alternative or complementary method that ideally could serve as a more direct way of estimating density dependence in population growth rate.

Estimates of density dependence must rely on measures of population density that are usually difficult to obtain with precision (Freckleton *et al.* 2006). This problem is particularly relevant to estimates of density dependence in growth rate derived from time series data on population size in that both the dependent and the independent variable are measured with uncertainty. Introducing observation error to dynamical data changes its dynamical structure (Dennis *et al.* 2006) and estimators relating to the dynamics of the data that do not account for observation errors are therefore often biased. Specifically, tests and estimators of density dependence based on time series data are known to be biased if observation errors are present but ignored for both direct (Kuno 1971, Walters and Ludwig 1981, Shenk *et al.* 1998, Freckleton *et al.* 2006) and delayed (Solow 2001) density dependence. An appealing method for overcoming this difficulty is provided by the state-space framework (Harvey 1990), a general term for statistical models of observations of hidden state variables that are dynamically linked through time. For time series data on population abundance, state-space models can be used for explicit modeling of both the observation and the population dynamical processes (Stenseth *et al.* 2003, Jamieson and Brooks 2004).

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¹E-mail: jonas.knappe@teorekol.lu.se

2994

2010

2008

Reports

Estimating R matrix is not so easy, but replication helps A LOT

MARSS models (however you fit them) allow you to easily incorporate replication.

ESTIMATING DENSITY DEPENDENCE, PROCESS NOISE, AND OBSERVATION ERROR

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ESTIMABILITY OF DENSITY DEPENDENCE IN MODELS OF TIME SERIES DATA

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Reducing bias and improving precision in species extinction forecasts

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Abstract. Forecasting the risk of population decline is crucial in the realm of biological conservation and figures prominently in population viability analyses (PVA). A common form of available data for a PVA is population counts through time. Previous research has suggested that improving estimates of population trends and risk from count data depends on longer observation periods, but that is often impractical or undesirable. Making multiple observations within a single time step is an alternative way to gather more data without extending the observation period. In this paper, we examine the trade-off between the length of the time period over which observations of the population have been taken and the total number of observations or samples that have been recorded through an analysis of simulated

Predator-prey interactions



2-species: Predator-Prey

Moose $x_{m,t} = u_m + b_{m \rightarrow m} x_{m,t-1} + b_{w \rightarrow m} x_{w,t-1}$

Wolf $x_{w,t} = u_w + b_{w \rightarrow w} x_{w,t-1} + b_{m \rightarrow w} x_{m,t-1}$



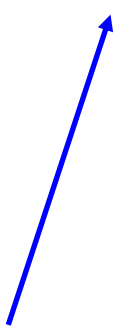
$$\text{MAR}(1): x_t = Bx_{t-1} + u + w_t$$

“spp” abundance

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{m,t} \\ x_{w,t} \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_{m \rightarrow m} & b_{w \rightarrow m} \\ b_{m \rightarrow w} & b_{w \rightarrow w} \end{bmatrix}}_B \begin{bmatrix} x_{m,t-1} \\ x_{w,t-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} u_m \\ u_w \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} w_m \\ w_w \end{bmatrix}$$

B = interaction matrix

Process variation
MVN(0,Q)



Adding covariates

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{m,t} \\ x_{w,t} \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} b_{m \rightarrow m} & b_{w \rightarrow m} \\ b_{m \rightarrow w} & b_{w \rightarrow w} \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{B = interaction matrix}} \begin{bmatrix} x_{m,t-1} \\ x_{w,t-1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} u_m \\ u_w \end{bmatrix} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} c_{1 \rightarrow m} & c_{2 \rightarrow m} & c_{3 \rightarrow m} \\ c_{1 \rightarrow 2} & c_{2 \rightarrow w} & c_{3 \rightarrow w} \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{covariate effect}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} c_{1,t} \\ c_{2,t} \\ c_{3,t} \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{covariates}} + \begin{bmatrix} w_m \\ w_w \end{bmatrix}$$

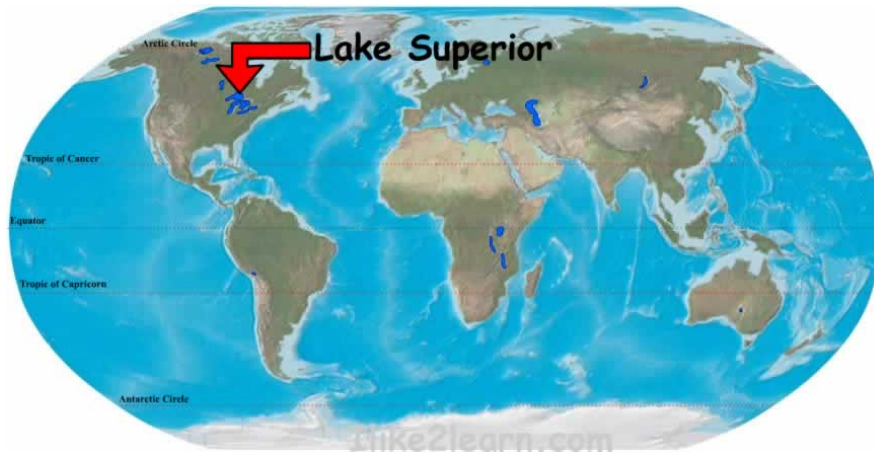
B = interaction matrix

covariate effect

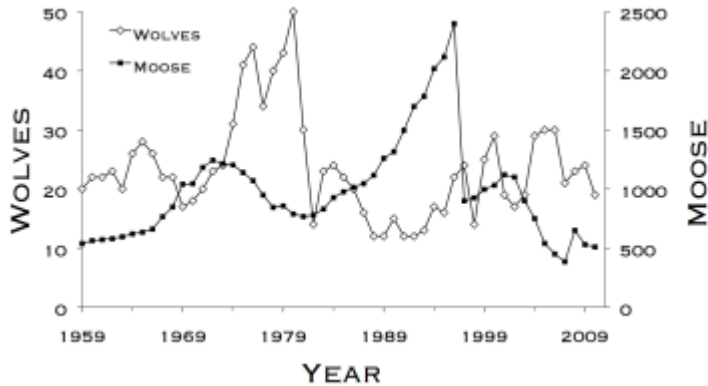
covariates

Process variation not from covariates (“unexplained”)

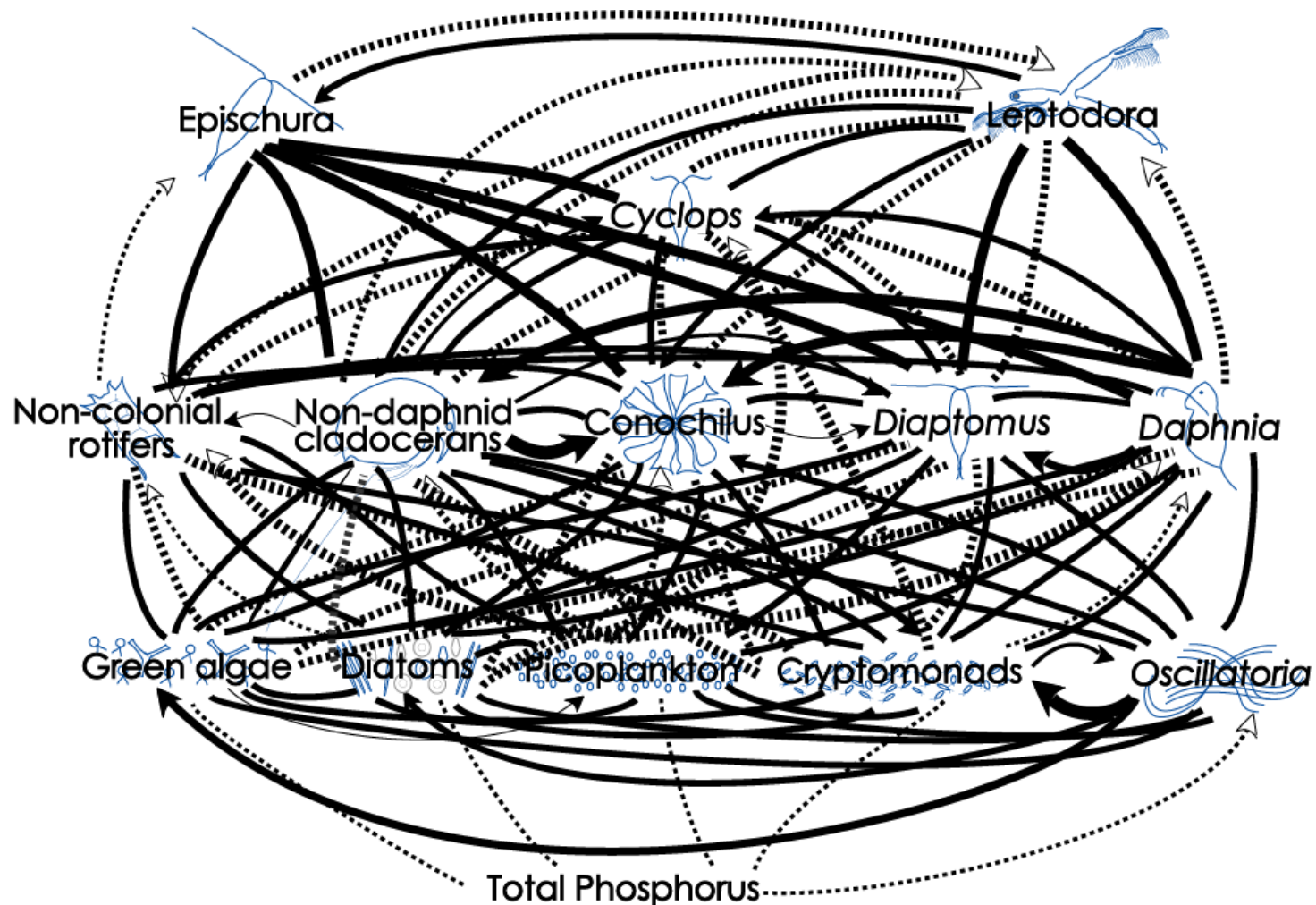
Chapter 14: HWS18a Moose and Wolf example analysis



Effect of winter snow and summer heat on moose and wolves.



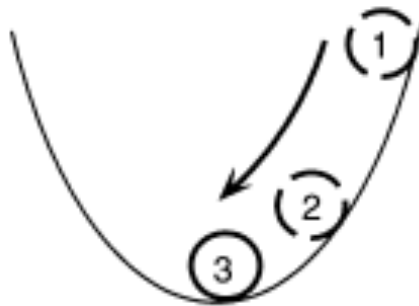
Using MAR models to understand dynamics in larger communities



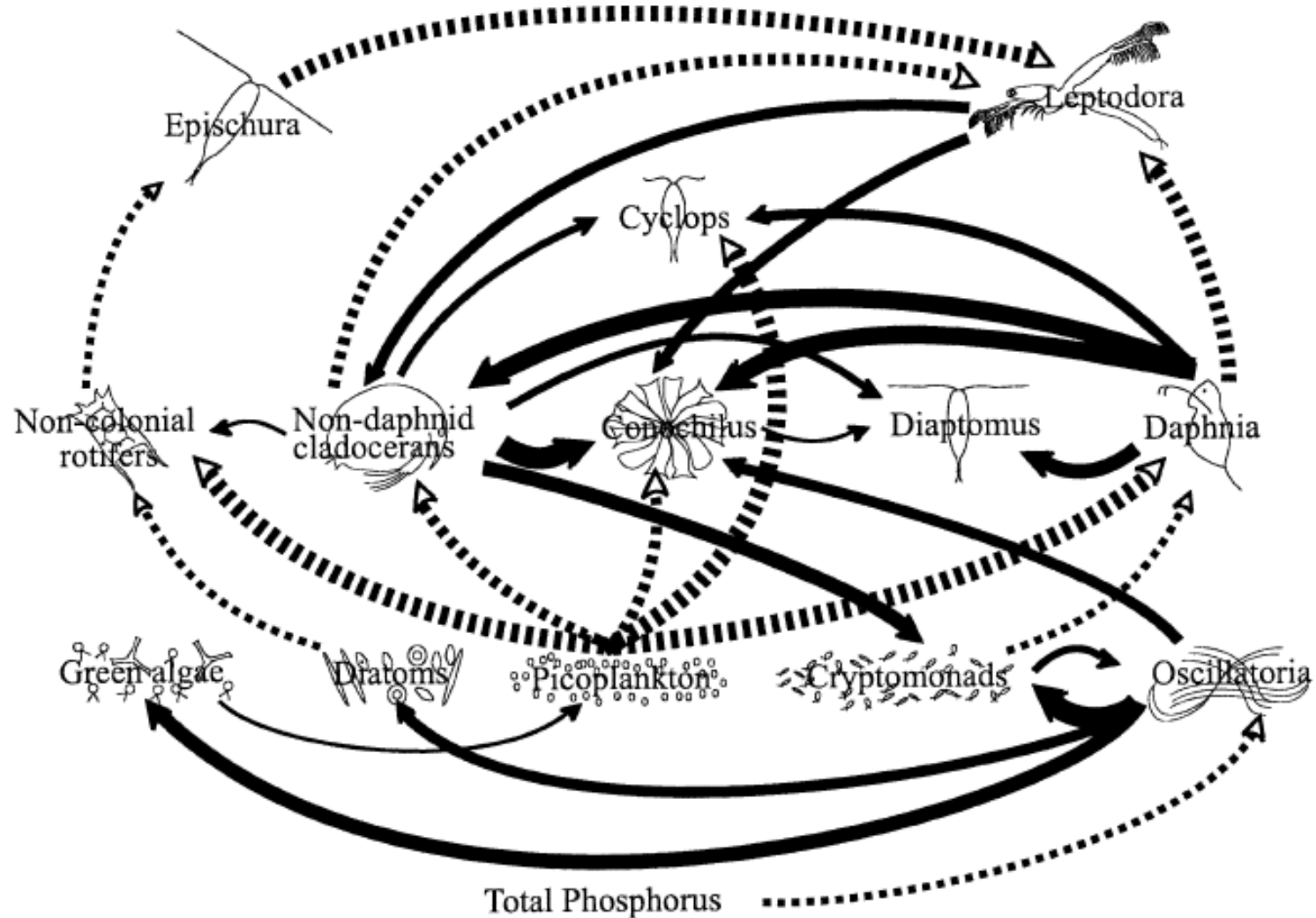
Dashed lines are (+) interactions; solid lines are (-)

Hampton et al. (2006)

Using MAR models to quantify stability



Using MAR models to identify the 'important' links



Dashed lines are (+) interactions; solid lines are (-)

Hampton et al. (2006)

MAR(1) Models

State equation

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{c}_t + \mathbf{w}_t \quad \mathbf{w}_t \sim \text{MVN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{Q})$$

Observation equation

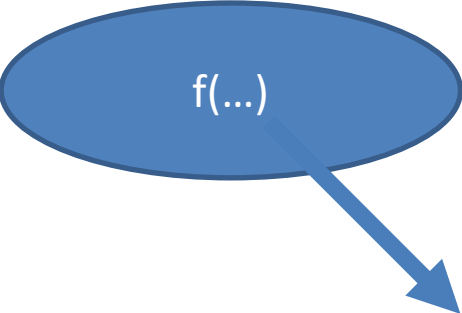
$$\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{x}_t + \mathbf{v}_t \quad \mathbf{v}_t \sim \text{MVN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R})$$

MAR(1) Models

State equation

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{c}_t + \mathbf{w}_t \quad \mathbf{w}_t \sim \text{MVN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{Q})$$

Observation equation

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{x}_t + \mathbf{v}_t \quad \mathbf{v}_t \sim \text{f}(\dots)$$


Another observation error model

Multivariate AR(1) process

B matrix structure:

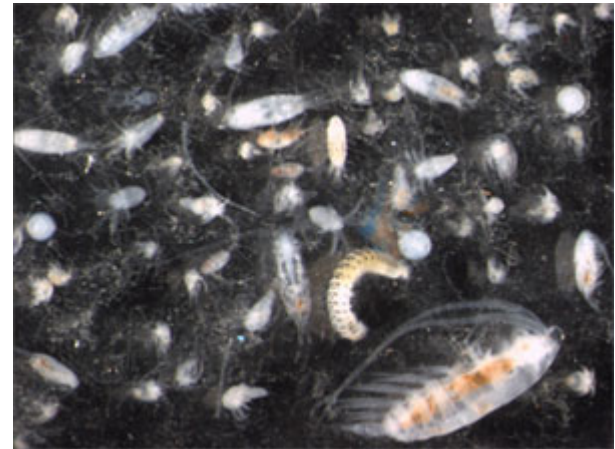
$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} & \cdots & b_{1p} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ b_{31} & \vdots & b_{33} & \cdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{p1} & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & b_{pp} \end{bmatrix}$$

Inter-specific effects
(can be set to zero)

Inter-specific effects
(can be set to zero)

Intra-specific effects

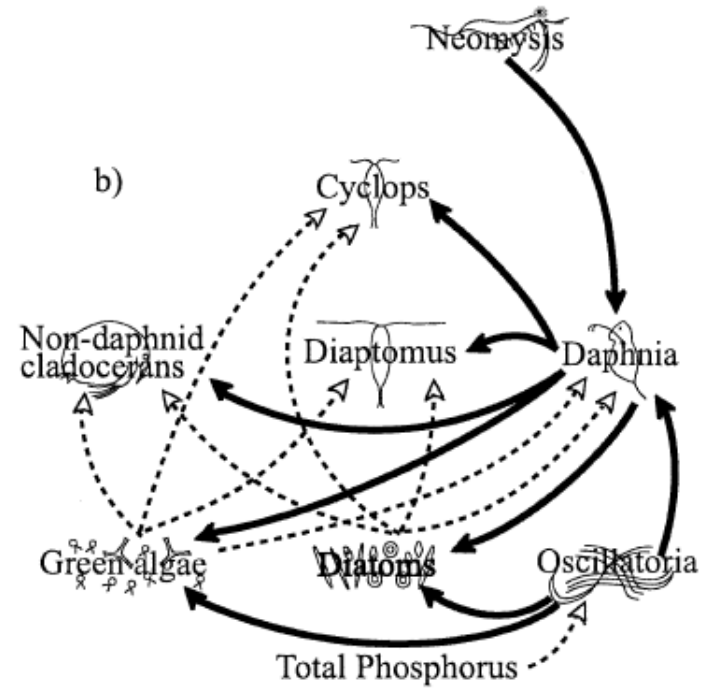
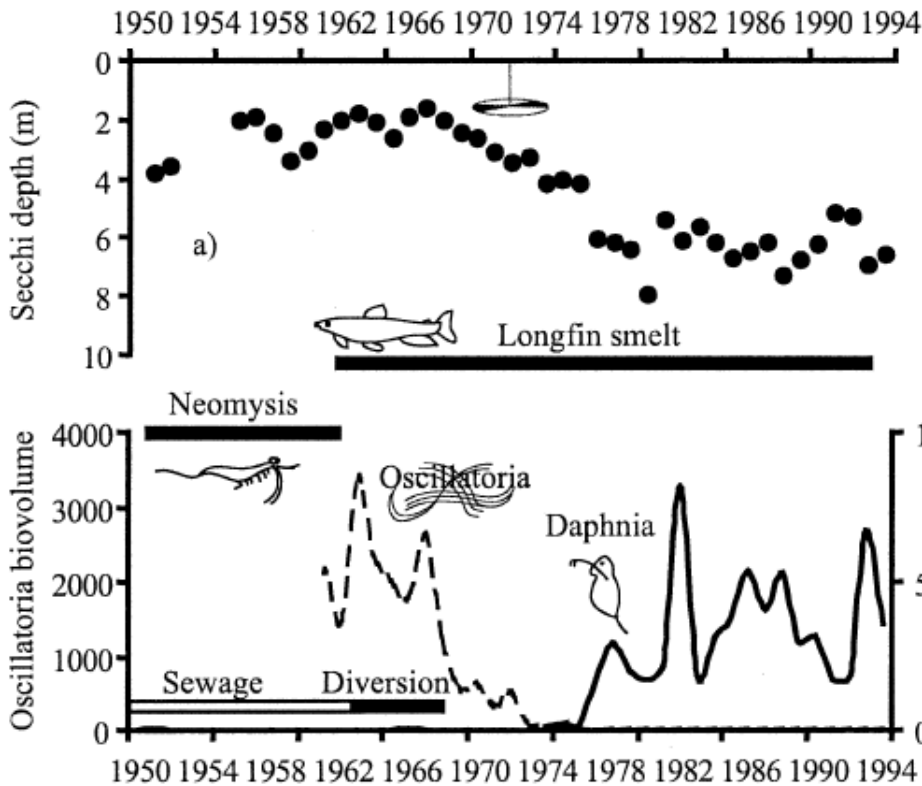
MAR(1) models have been widely used to study dynamics of plankton communities



Many ecological applications are reviewed in

Hampton, S.E., E.E. Holmes, D.E. Pendleton, L.P. Scheef, M.D. Scheuerell, and E.J. Ward.
2013. Quantifying effects of abiotic and biotic drivers on community dynamics
with multivariate autoregressive (MAR) models. *Ecology* 94:2663-2669

Lake Washington: a large change in sewage inputs in the late 1960s led to a dramatic change in the plankton community



Multivariate AR(1) process, “MAR1”

Note no SS part

Assume p different interacting species, then for each sp. i :

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}_t = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{21} & \dots & b_{n1} \\ b_{12} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{n2} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ b_{1n} & b_{2n} & \dots & b_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}_{t-1} + \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \dots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \dots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix}_t$$

B

$$\mathbf{w}_t \sim MVN(0, \mathbf{Q})$$

$X_{j,t-1}$ is abundance index of species j at time $t-1$

b_{ij} is effect of species j on species i

Note: when $i = j$, b_{ij} is effect of species i on itself

Multivariate AR(1) process

Can add effects of q different environmental covariates:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}_t = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{u} + \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{21} \\ c_{12} & c_{22} \\ \dots & \dots \\ c_{1n} & c_{2n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}_t + \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \dots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix}_t$$

$q=2$

$c_{k,t}$ is covariate k (e.g., temperature) at time t

C_{ik} is effect of covariate k on species i

Multivariate AR(1) process

Can write all of this as:

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{c}_t + \mathbf{w}_t \quad \mathbf{w}_t \sim MVN(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{Q})$$

\mathbf{x}_t is $p \times 1$ vector of species abundance at time t

\mathbf{u} is $p \times 1$ vector of intrinsic growth rates

\mathbf{B} is $p \times p$ matrix of density-dependent effects

\mathbf{x}_{t-1} is $p \times 1$ vector of species abundance at time $t-1$

\mathbf{C} is $p \times q$ matrix of covariate effects

\mathbf{c}_t is $q \times 1$ vector of covariate values at time t

An underwater photograph showing a large school of silver fish swimming in a kelp forest. The water is clear and blue, with sunlight filtering through the kelp leaves, creating a dappled light effect. A larger, darker fish is visible in the foreground, swimming towards the right.

Estimating changes in species interactions & community stability in a kelp forest ecosystem

Mark Scheuerell *NOAA Northwest Fisheries Science Center*

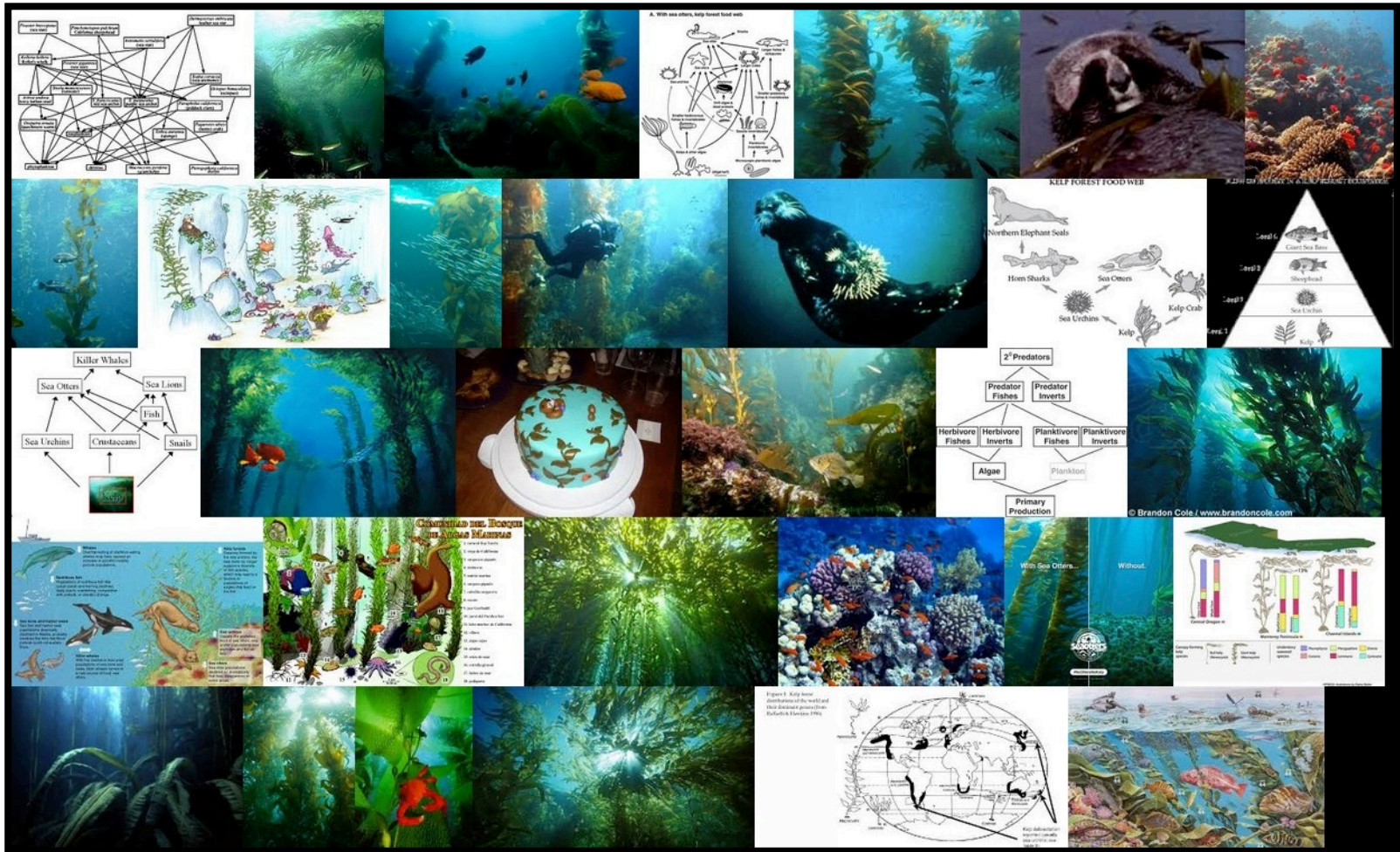
Eric Ward *NOAA Northwest Fisheries Science Center*

Steve Katz *Washington State University*

Acknowledgments

- United States taxpayers
- Eli Holmes, Jim Thorson, Eric Buhle
- Lots of other students, post-docs & unsuspecting colleagues

Kelp forest ecosystems



Conventional wisdom



Conventional wisdom



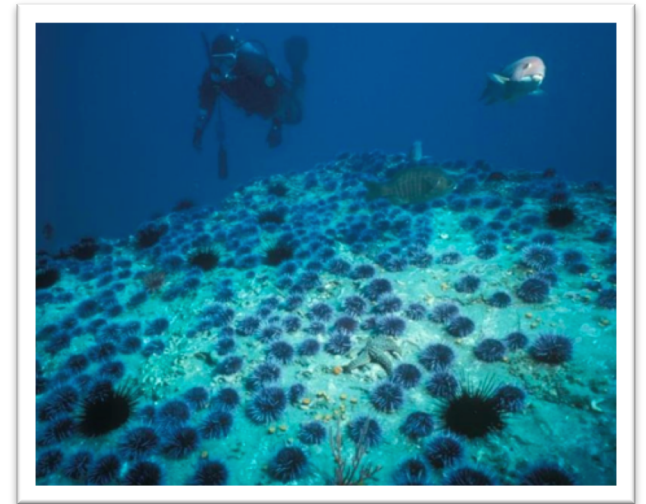
Otters

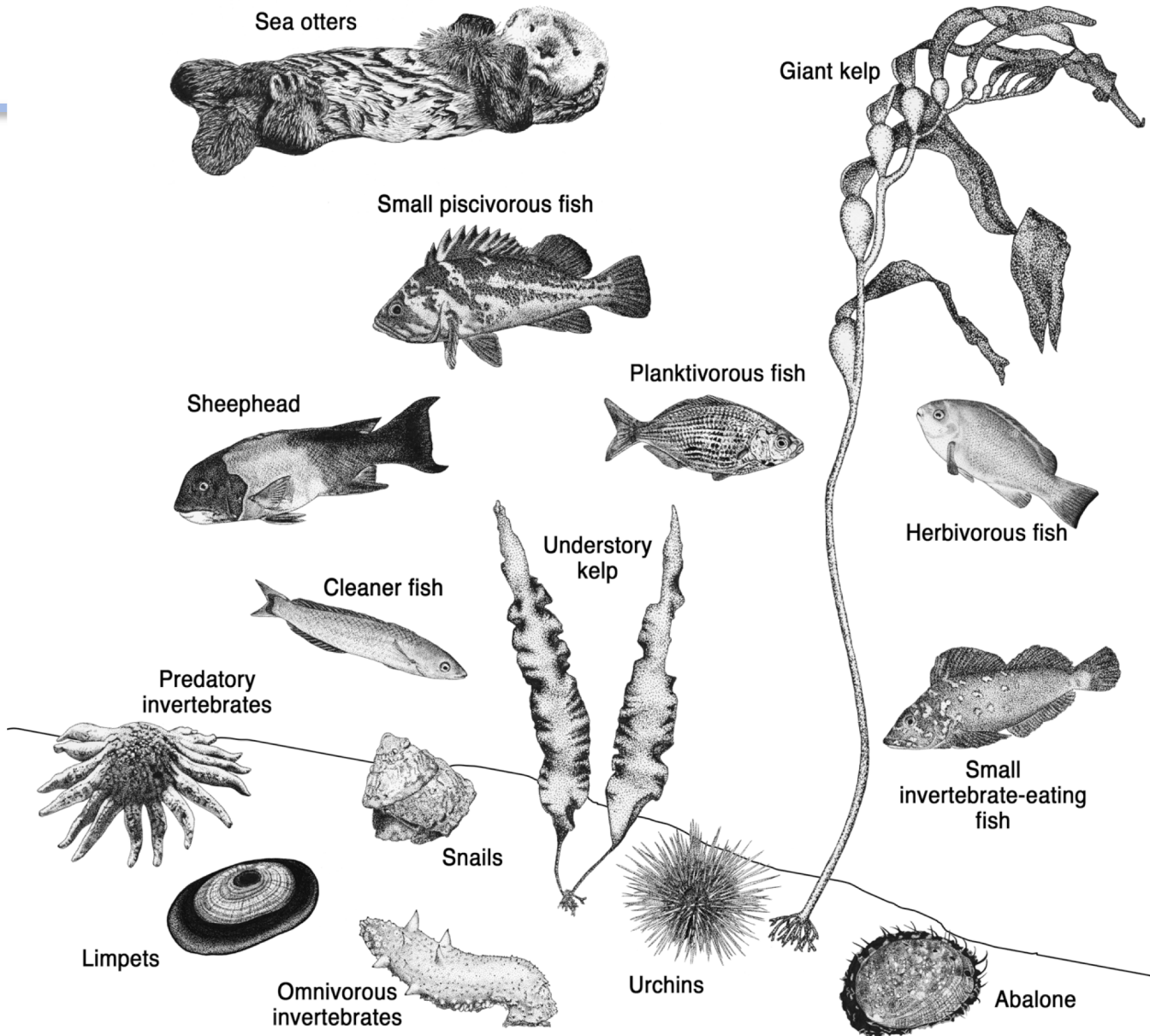
Urchins

Kelps

Urchins

Kelps





Sea otters

Giant kelp

Small piscivorous fish

Planktivorous fish

Sheephead

Herbivorous fish

Understory kelp

Cleaner fish

Predatory invertebrates

Small invertebrate-eating fish

Snails

Limpets

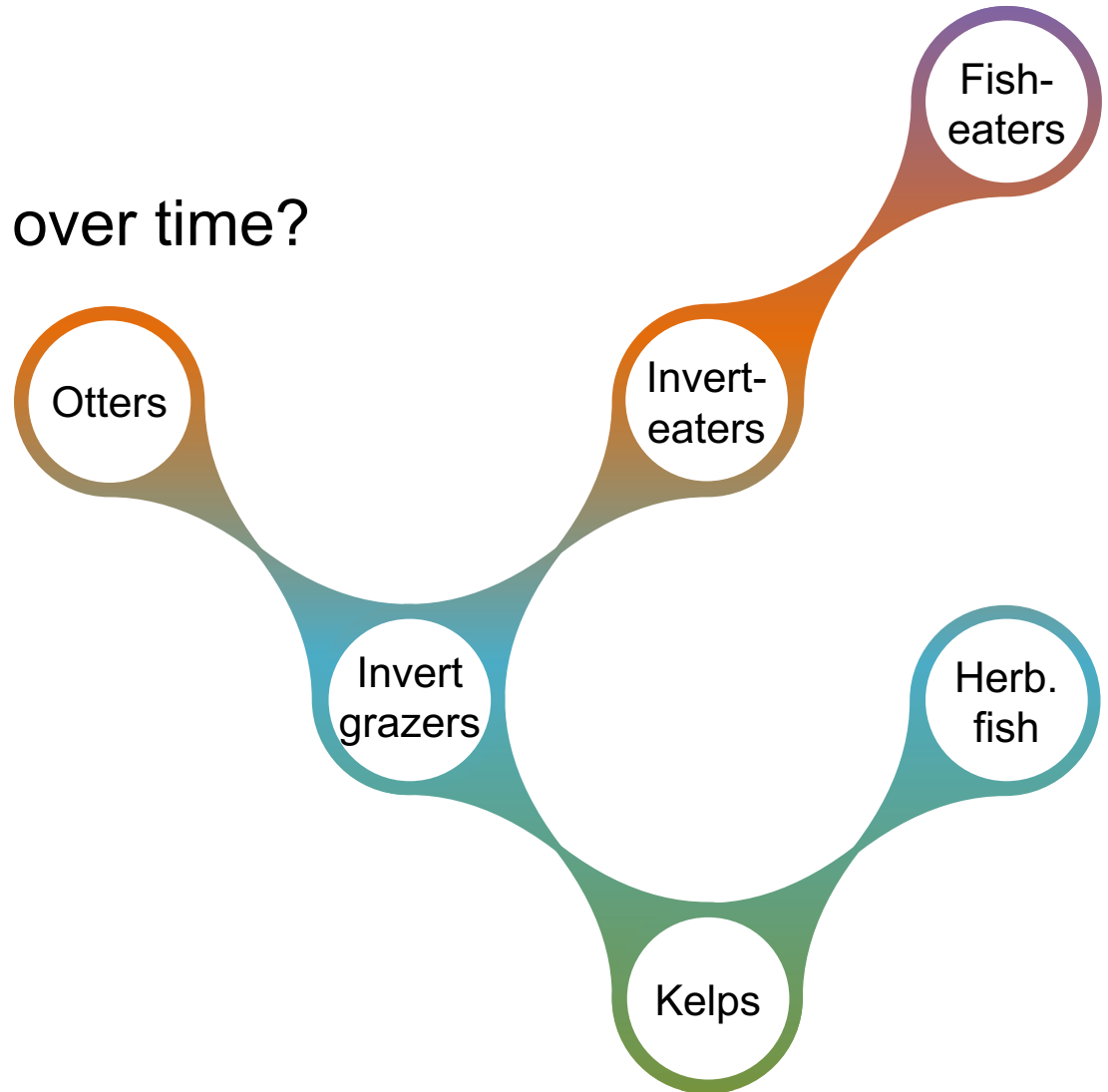
Omnivorous invertebrates

Urchins

Abalone

Questions about the larger community

1) How do community interactions change over time?



2) How do we tease out interaction changes in the face of environmental changes?

Community model in matrix form

Intrinsic growth rates

Covariate effects

log densities

→ $\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{c}_t + \mathbf{w}_t$ ← Environmental variation

Interactions strengths

Covariates

Two issues with this model

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{c}_t + \mathbf{w}_t$$

- 1) This describes a process with no sampling or observation error
- 2) The community interactions don't vary with time

State-space model

State equation

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{c}_t + \mathbf{w}_t \quad \mathbf{w}_t \sim \text{MVN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{Q})$$

Observation equation

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{x}_t + \mathbf{v}_t \quad \mathbf{v}_t \sim \text{MVN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R})$$

State-space model

State equation

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{c}_t + \mathbf{w}_t \quad \mathbf{w}_t \sim \text{MVN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{Q})$$

Observation equation

$$\mathbf{y}_t = \mathbf{x}_t + \mathbf{v}_t \quad \mathbf{v}_t \sim \text{MVN}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R})$$

Count data are
the basis for
many studies



© KQED



© NW College of Agriculture

$$\log(0) = -\text{Inf} (!)$$

Allowing for count data

Observation of guild g at location i at time t

$$y_{g,i,t} \sim \text{NegBin}(p_{g,j,t}, r_g)$$

$$p_{g,j,t} = \frac{r_g}{r_g + \mu_{g,j,t}}$$

$$\log(\mu_{g,j,t}) = x_{g,j,t}$$

State

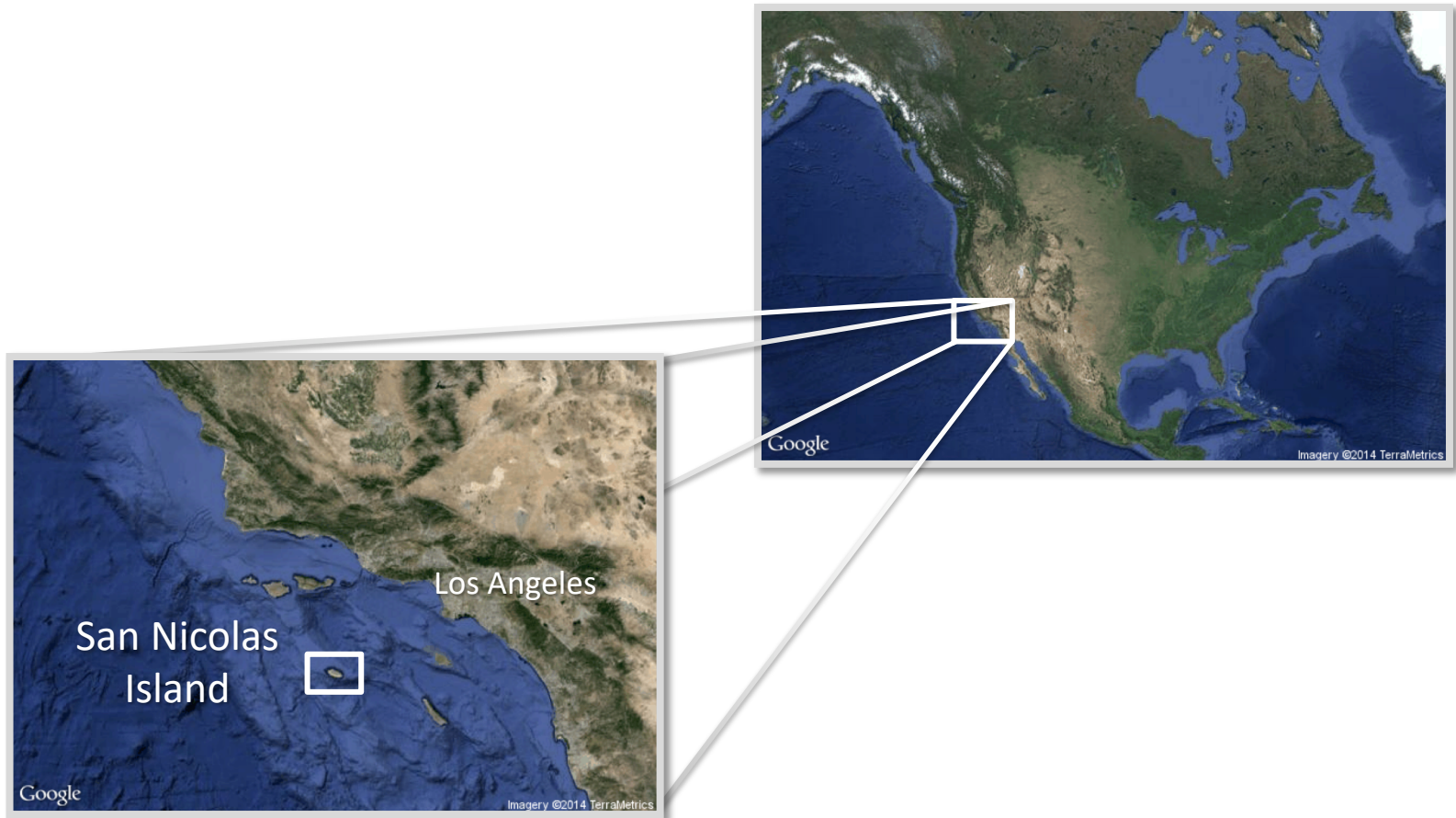
Time-varying interactions

State equation

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}_t \mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{C} \mathbf{c}_t + \mathbf{w}_t$$

$$\text{vec}(\mathbf{B}_t) \sim \text{MVN}(\text{vec}(\mathbf{B}_{t-1}), \mathbf{S})$$

Kelp forests in southern California



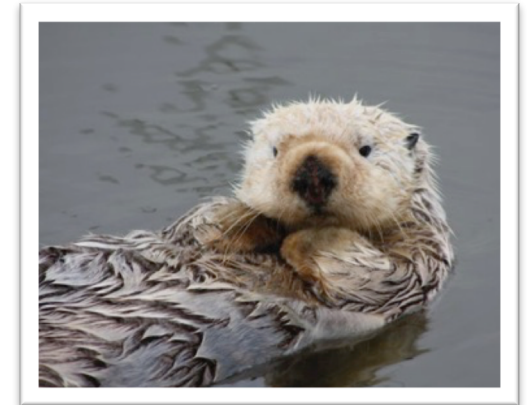
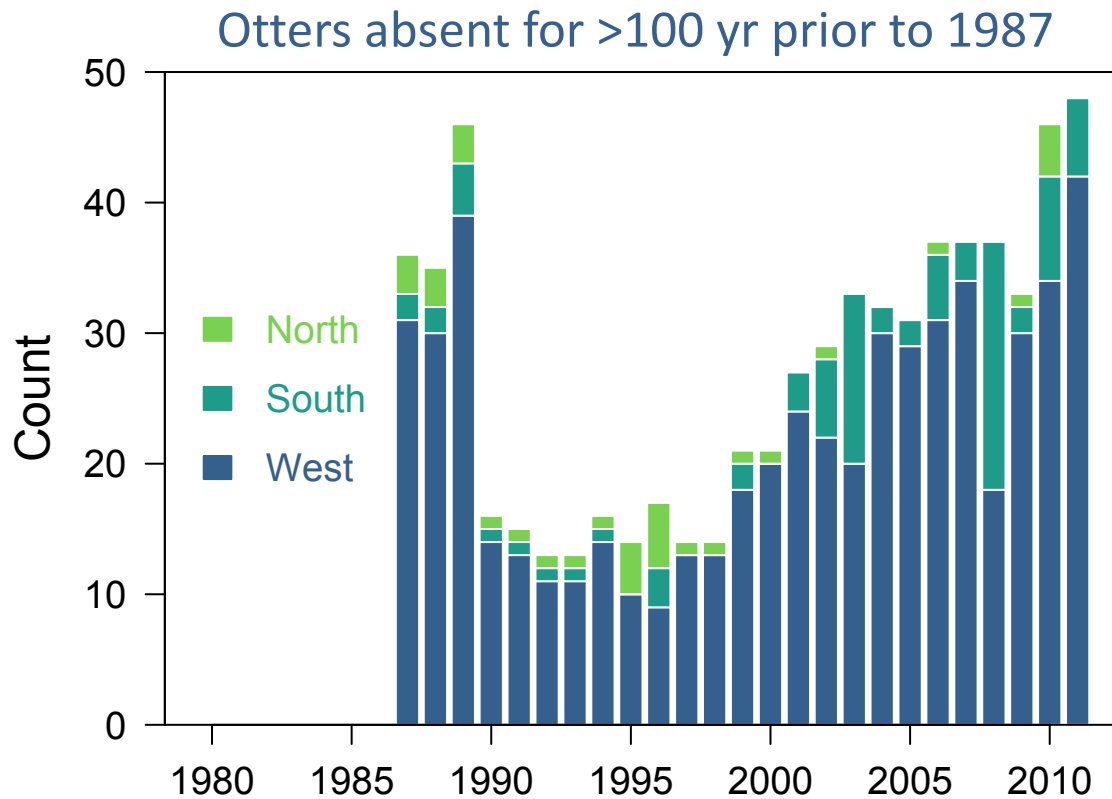
Data for San Nicolas Island

Kenner et al (2013) A multi-decade time series of kelp forest community structure at San Nicolas Island, California (USA). *Ecology* 94:2654

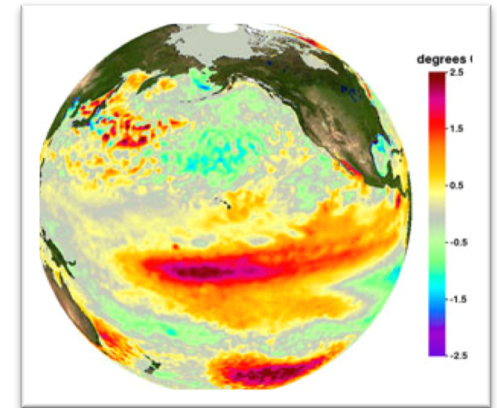
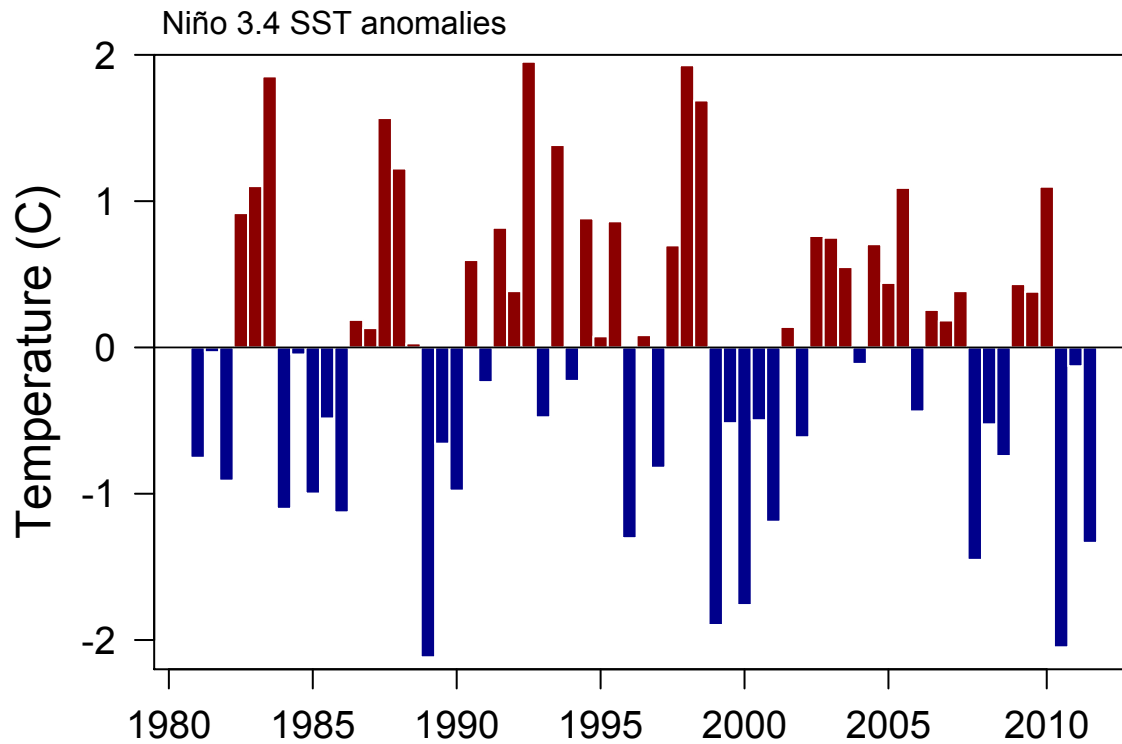


- 7 sites around the island
- Biannual surveys from 1980-2011 ($n = 63$)
- Divers collect data on:
 - Fish (59 spp)
 - Inverts (14 spp)
 - Kelps (6 spp)

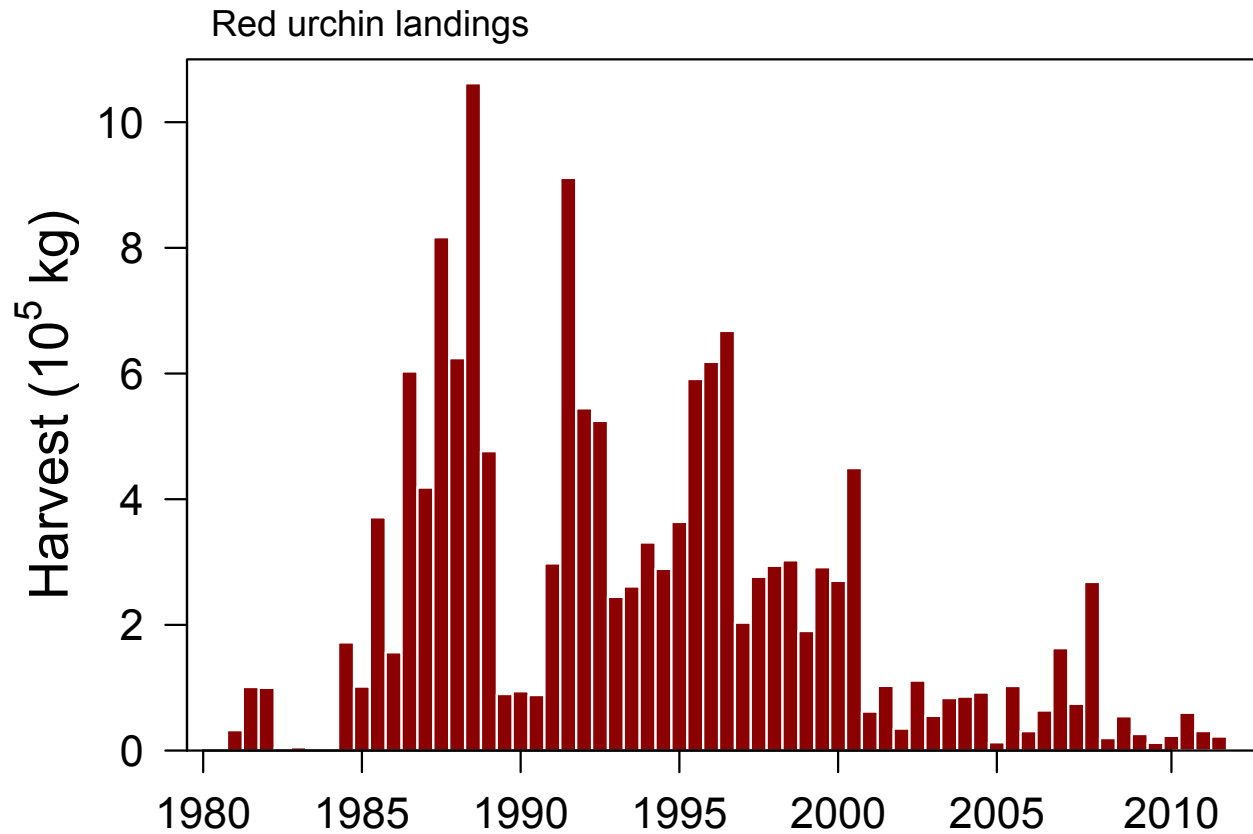
Sea otters at San Nicolas



El Niño around San Nicolas



Urchin harvest at San Nicolas



Fitting the model

- 6 observations of 4 states 1980 to 2011
- Each state has same \mathbf{B}_t
- MCMC via JAGS to allow observation errors with negative binomial error model.

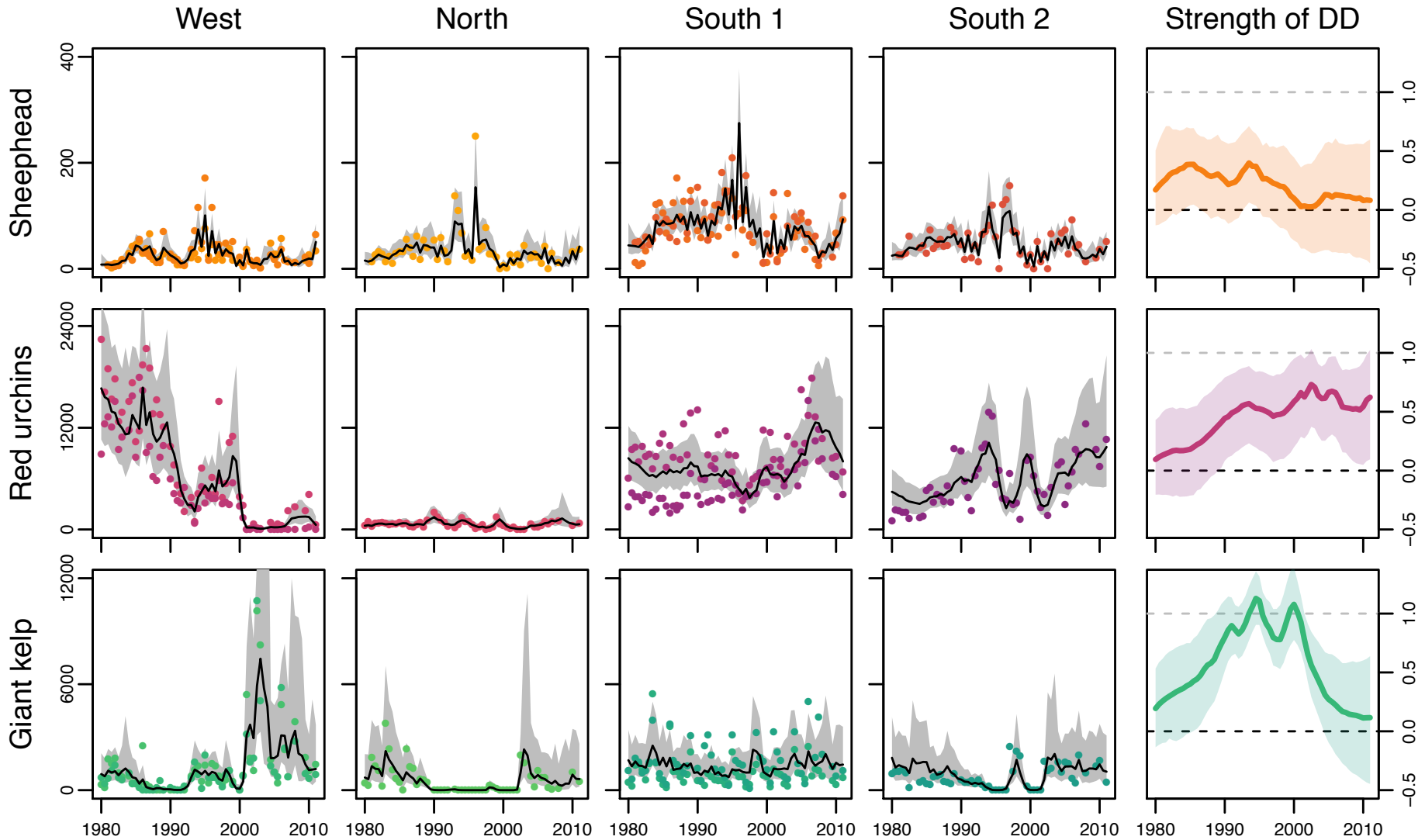
B matrix

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} & \cdots & b_{1p} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ b_{31} & \vdots & b_{33} & \cdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{p1} & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & b_{pp} \end{bmatrix}$$

Inter-specific effects

Intra-specific effects

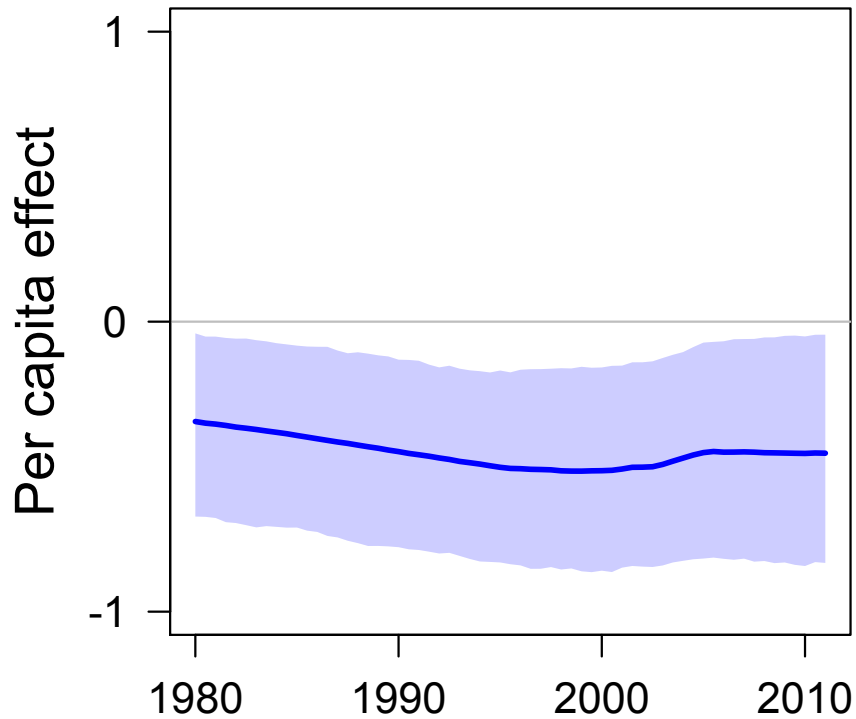
Changes in density & density-dependence



Examples of trophic effects

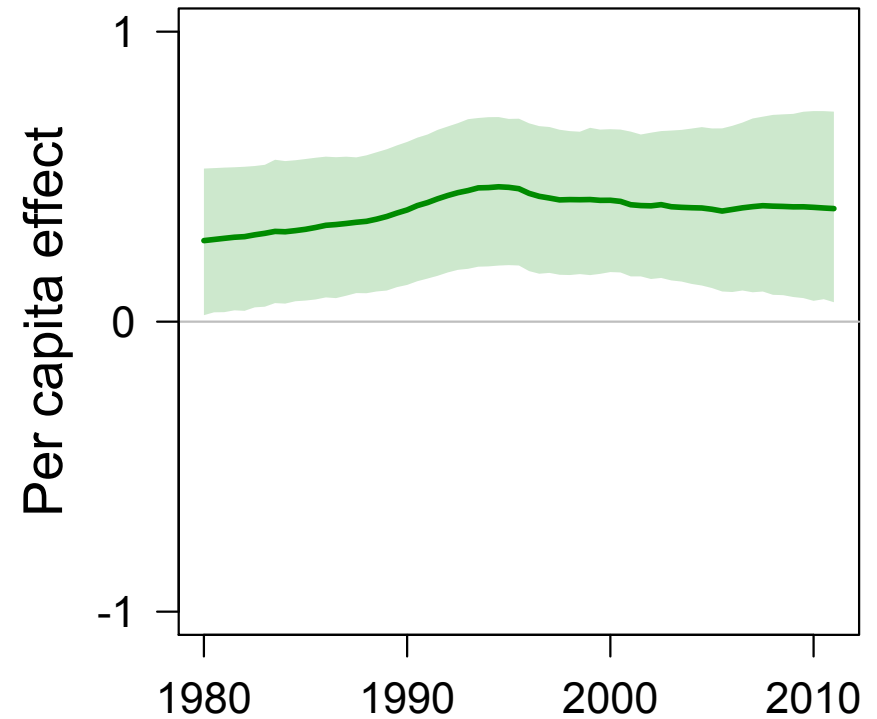
Top-down

Red urchins on giant kelp



Bottom-up

Inverts on invert-eating fish





Stability



Stationary distribution for MAR(1)

Mean vector: $\mathbf{m}_\infty = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B})^{-1} \mathbf{u}$

Covariance matrix: $\text{Vec}(\mathbf{V}_\infty) = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{B} \otimes \mathbf{B})^{-1} \text{Vec}(\mathbf{Q})$

(analogous to the univariate case)

The theory in this part of the lecture draws from

Ives AR, Dennis B, Cottingham KL, Carpenter SR. 2003. Estimating community stability and ecological interactions from time series data. *Ecological Monographs* 73: 301-330

Stability properties of MAR(1) models

- Our interest is in stable systems (i.e. all eigenvalues of \mathbf{B} lie within unit circle)
- Stability can be measured in several ways, but here are three that we will use:

Stability measure	More stable when...
Variance	variance of the stationary distribution is low relative to that for the process error
Return rate	rapid approach to the stationary distribution (i.e. high return rate)
Reactivity	fewer departures from the mean of the stationary distribution (i.e. low reactivity)

Stability properties of MAR(1) models

Return rates (ie, resilience)

- In stochastic models, equilibrium is the stationary distribution
- Rate of return to the stochastic equilibrium is the rate at which the transition distribution converges to the stationary distribution from an initial, known value
- The more rapid the convergence, the more stable the system

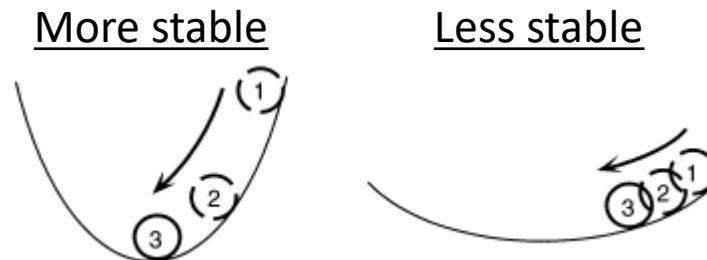


Fig. 2B - Ives et al. (2003)

Stability properties of MAR(1) models

Return rates

- Rate of return increases as $|b|$ gets smaller
- Rate of return to mean governed by dominant eigenvalue of $\mathbf{B} \equiv \max(\lambda_{\mathbf{B}})$
- Rate of return of covariance defined by dominant eigenvalue of $\mathbf{B} \otimes \mathbf{B} \equiv \max(\lambda_{\mathbf{B} \otimes \mathbf{B}})$

Take home msg: you can write the return rate as a function of \mathbf{B} . So if we can estimate \mathbf{B} , we can say something about the stability of the system as measure by return rate.

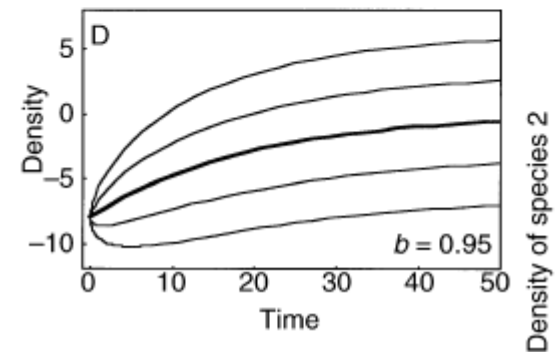
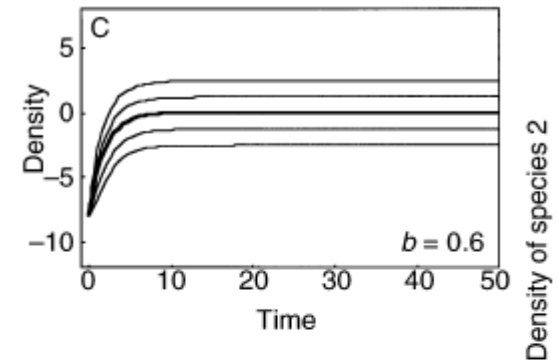


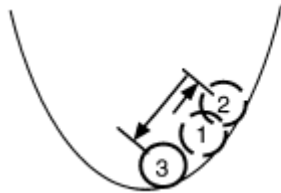
Fig. 3 - Ives et al. (2003)

Stability properties of MAR(1) models

Reactivity

A “reactive” system moves away from a stable equilibrium following a perturbation, even though the system will eventually return to equilibrium.

Low reactivity



High reactivity



Fig. 2C - Ives et al. (2003)

High reactivity occurs when species interactions greatly amplify the environmental forcing

Not how fast does it return but how far does it go?

Stability properties of MAR(1) models

Reactivity

Squared Euclidian distance for \mathbf{X}_{t-1} from μ_∞

$$= \|\mathbf{X}_{t-1} - \mu_\infty\|^2$$

Squared Euclidian distance for \mathbf{X}_t from μ_∞

$$= \|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{X}_{t-1} - \mu_\infty\|^2 = \|\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{X}_{t-1} - \mu_\infty)\|^2$$

Change in squared Euclidian distance

$$= \|\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{X}_{t-1} - \mu_\infty)\|^2 - \|\mathbf{X}_{t-1} - \mu_\infty\|^2$$

Expectation of this difference

$$= -\frac{\text{tr}[\mathbf{Q}]}{\text{tr}[\mathbf{V}_\infty]} \leq \boxed{\max(\lambda_{\mathbf{B}'\mathbf{B}})} - 1$$

“worst-case”
scenario

Another form of reactivity is given in Neubert et al. (2009)

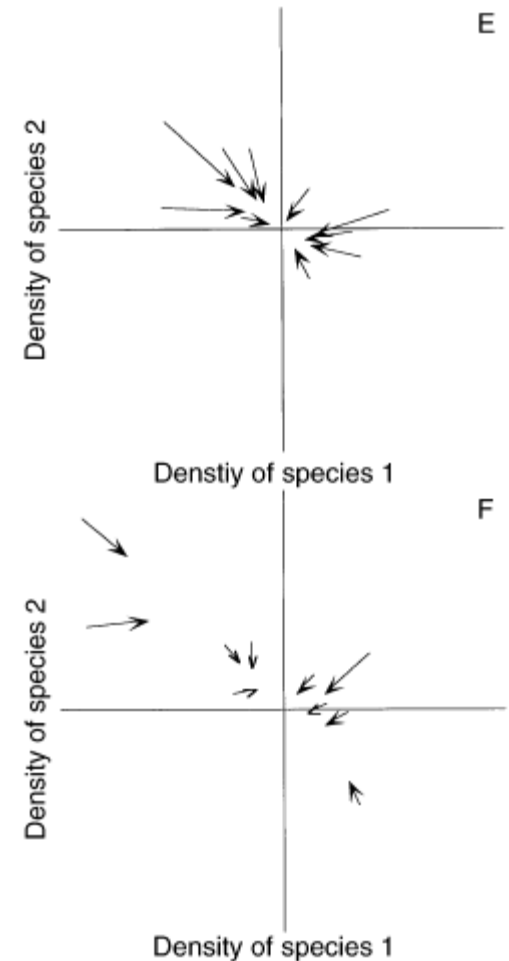


Fig. 3 - Ives et al. (2003)

Stability properties of MAR(1) models

Variance comparison

- Generally interested in the time spent away from equilibrium
- More time \rightarrow greater variance

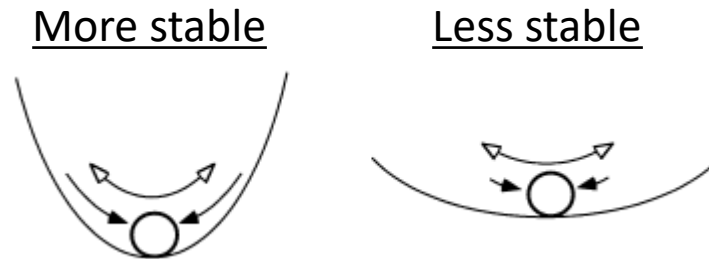


Fig. 2A - Ives et al. (2003)

Combines properties of both return rate and reactivity

Stability properties of MAR(1) models

Variance comparison

1) $\tilde{v}_\infty = \frac{\psi^2}{(1-\lambda^2)}$ Smaller $\lambda \rightarrow$ smaller $v \rightarrow$ more stable

2) $\det(\mathbf{V}_\infty - \mathbf{Q}) = \det(\mathbf{V}_\infty) \det(\mathbf{B})^2$

$$\det(\mathbf{B})^2 = \frac{\det(\mathbf{V}_\infty - \mathbf{Q})}{\det(\mathbf{V}_\infty)} = (\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3 \cdots \lambda_p)^2$$

To standardize across various systems

$$\det(\mathbf{B})^{2/p} = (\lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3 \cdots \lambda_p)^{2/p}$$

Smaller $\lambda \rightarrow$ $\det(\mathbf{B})^{2/p}$ \rightarrow more stable

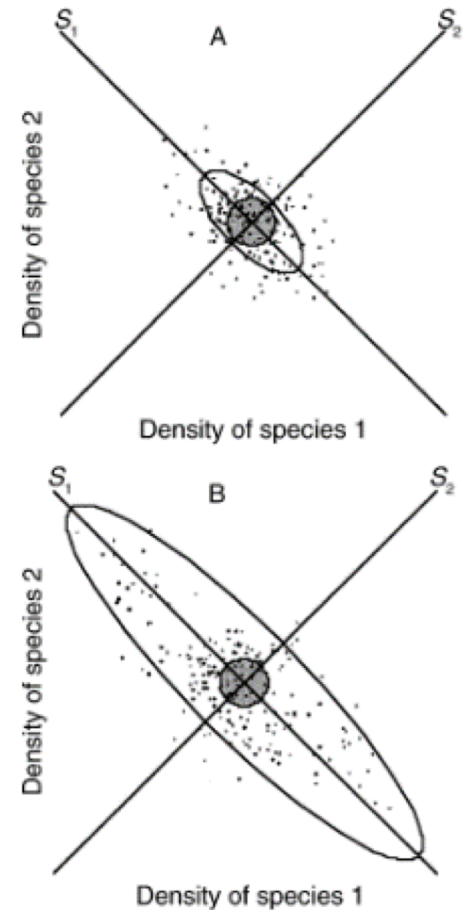



Fig. 3 - Ives et al. (2003)

Estimating changes in stability

Shifting Regimes and Changing Interactions in the Lake Washington, U.S.A., Plankton Community from 1962–1994

Tessa B. Francis , Elizabeth M. Wolkovich, Mark D. Scheuerell, Stephen L. Katz, Elizabeth E. Holmes, Stephanie E. Hampton

Published: October 22, 2014 • <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0110363>

Article

Authors

Metrics

Comments

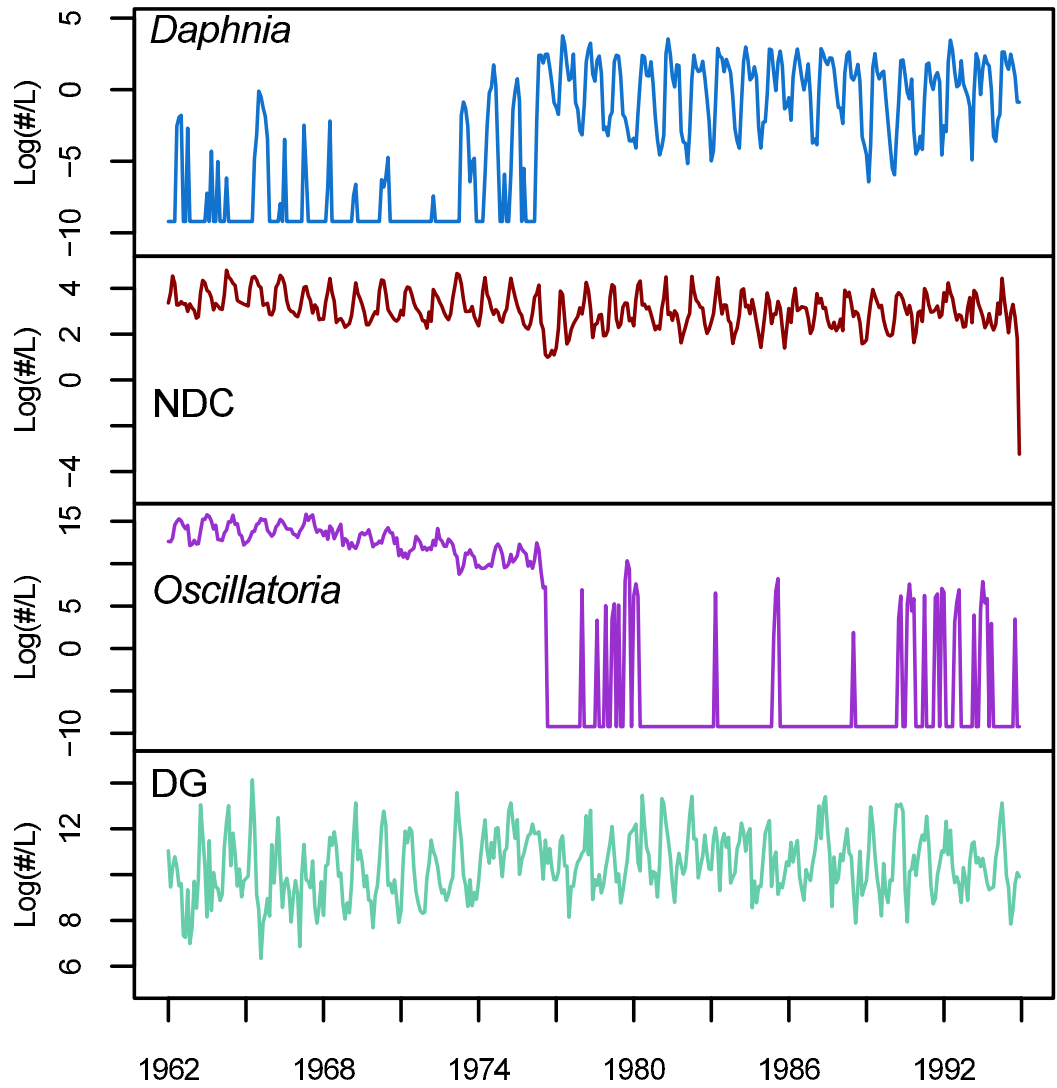
Media Coverage



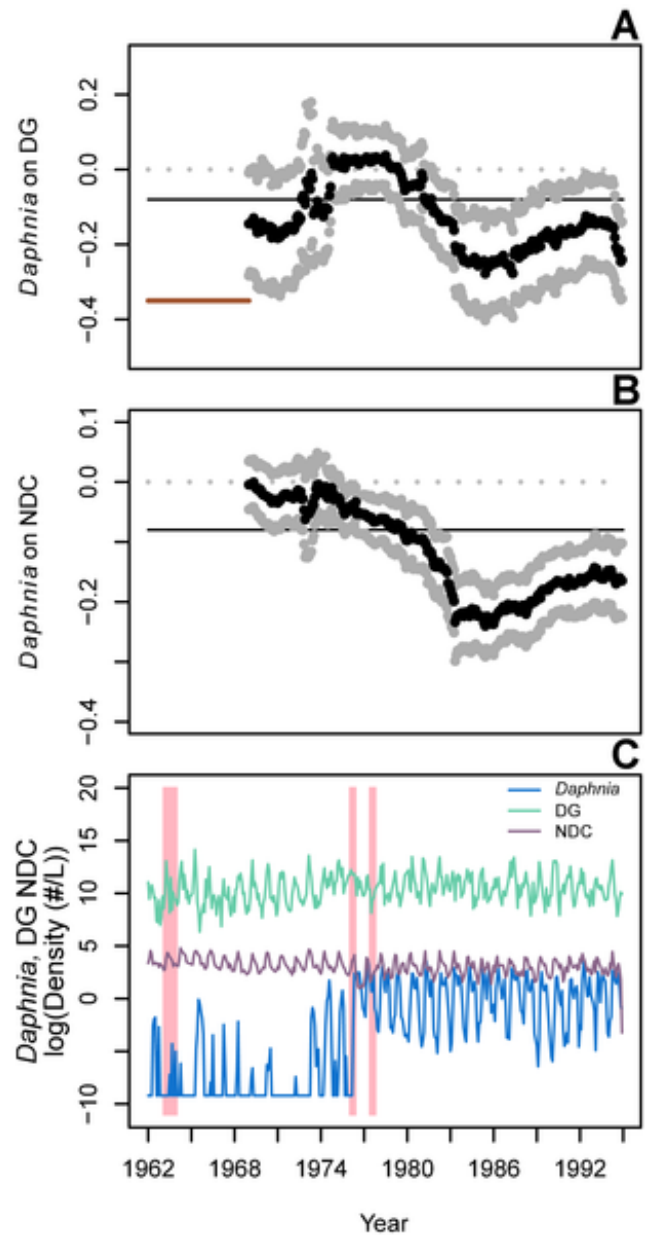
Francis TB, Wolkovich EM, Scheuerell MD, Katz SL, Holmes EE, et al. (2014) Shifting Regimes and Changing Interactions in the Lake Washington, U.S.A., Plankton Community from 1962–1994. PLOS ONE 9(10): e110363.

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0110363>

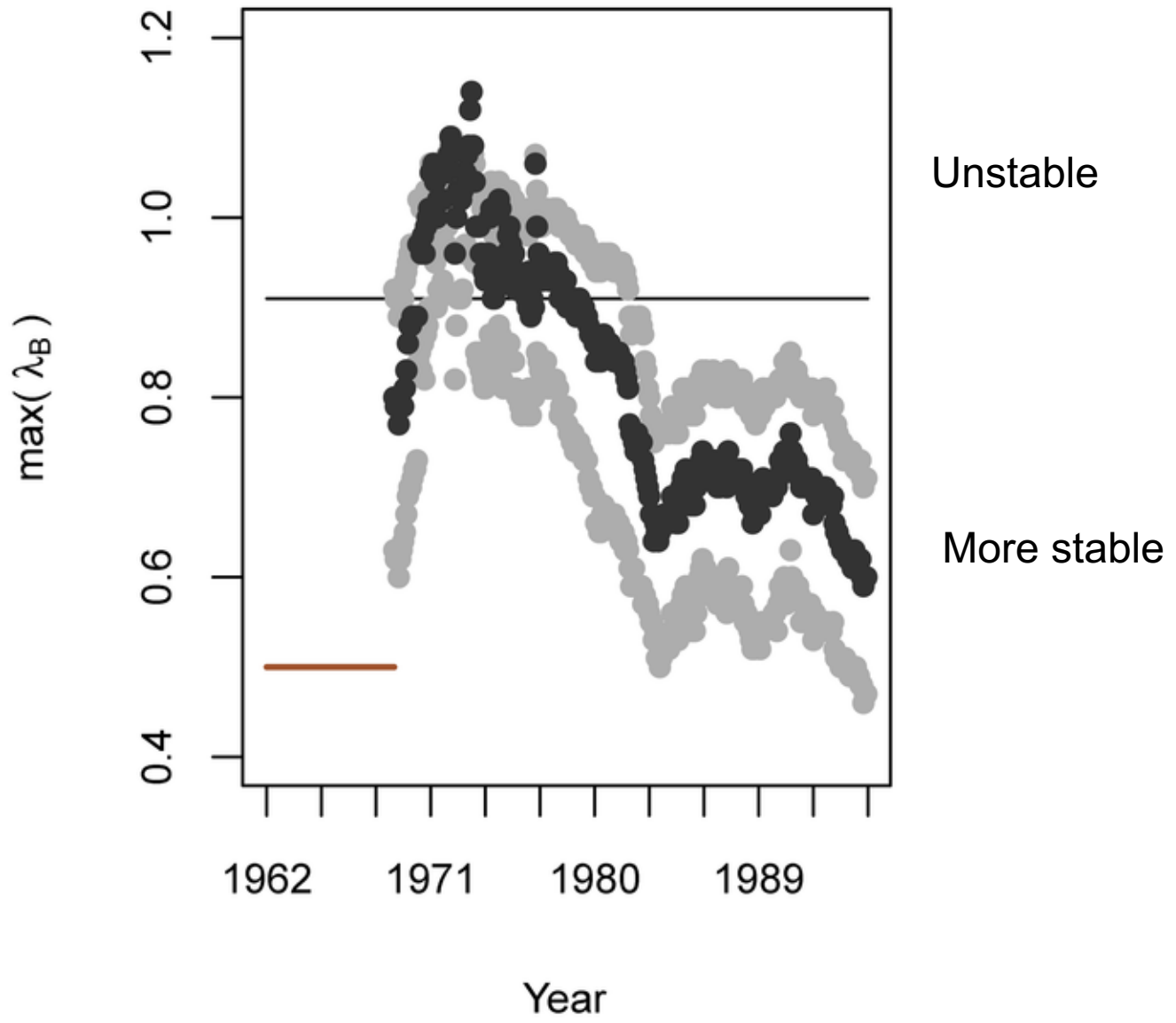
<https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0110363>



Monthly mean densities of *Daphnia*, non-*Daphnia*, *Oscillatoria*, and diatoms and green algae. Francis et al. 2014.



Shifting effects of Daphnia on other species. Francis et al. 2014.



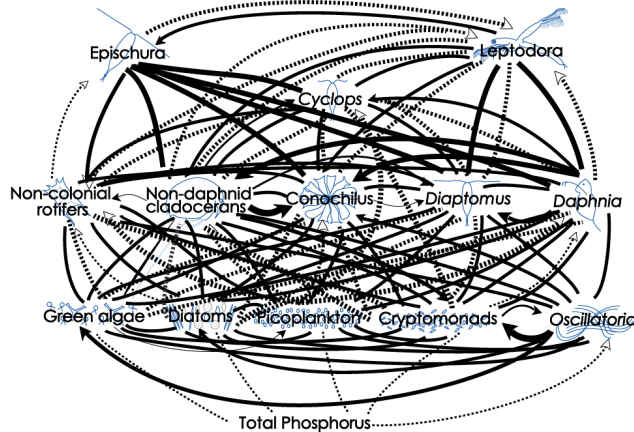
Shifting stability in the community. Francis et al. 2014.

Finding the important structure

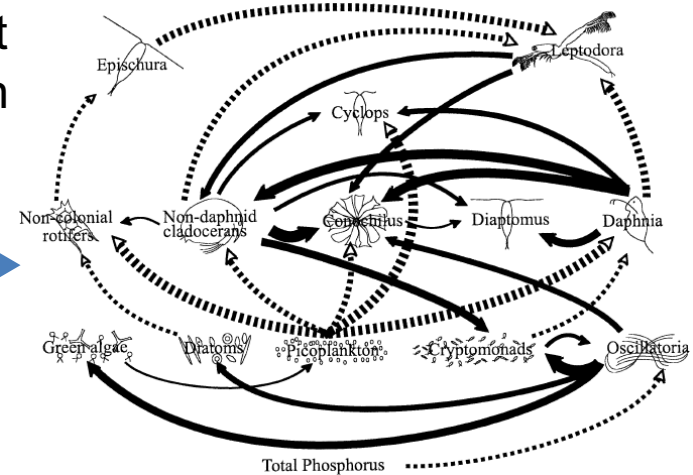


Goal is to find a simpler system to explain the observed species changes

13 x 13 B matrix



Compare model support of models with different B's set to zero



156 non-diagonal B terms. There are approximately $1e+47$ (that's 1 followed by 47 zeros) unique B matrices with different 0s.

- 1) We cannot do a brute force fitting of all models.
- 2) We should try to set some of those Bs to 0 via prior knowledge about the system
- 3) We need a fast estimation algorithm

Search strategies

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & 0 & b_{13} & b_{14} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} & 0 \\ b_{31} & 0 & b_{33} & b_{34} \\ 0 & b_{42} & 0 & b_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$

Search strategy for large model spaces

Best of 100 random search

- 1) 100 models are generated by randomly including (50/50) each element.
- 2) Best model (lowest AIC or BIC) is saved
- 3) Repeat 100 times to get a set of 100 “best” model.
- 4) Remove any variables that appears in less than 15 of the 100 best models.
- 5) Repeat the ‘Best of 100’ search (steps 1-3) with the new smaller set of variables.
- 6) Repeat steps 1-5 until number of variables in the 100 best is stable and chose best model.

Search strategy for large model spaces

Exhaustive via “leap and bound” algorithm

- 1) Algorithms to find best model over all possible variable combinations without actually doing exhaustive search.

Forward step-wise

- 1) Start with no off-diagonal b .
- 2) Add the b that most improves (reduces) model AIC
- 3) Stop at some step-AIC threshold

Backward step-wise

- 1) Same as forward but start with full model (all b 's)

Model diagnostics

Once selected, a MAR(1) model should be scrutinized

Useful diagnostics include:

- 1) Are residuals temporally autocorrelated (via ACF)?
- 2) Are mean or variance of the residuals correlated with any variates or covariates (via X-Y plots)?
- 3) Are residuals normally distributed (via normal probability plots)?
- 4) What proportion of the variance is explained by the model (via conditional R^2)?

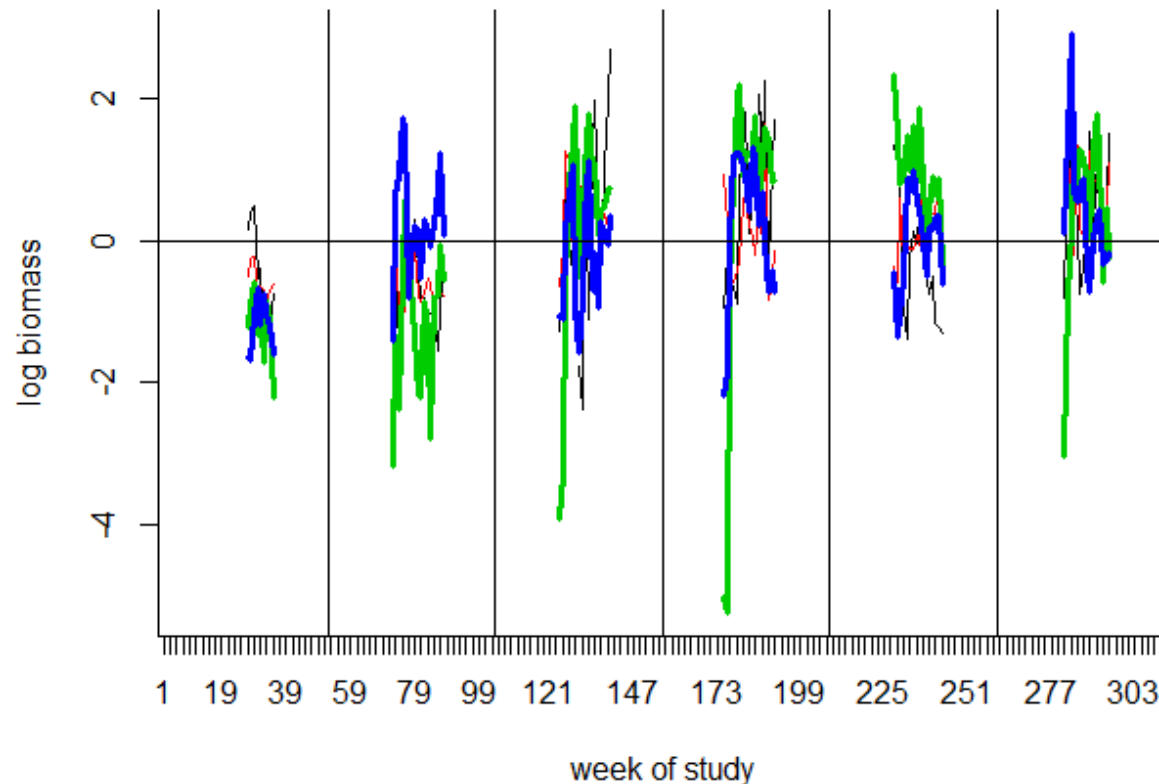
Note: conditional R^2 measures the proportion of change in log density from time $t-1$ to t

Model diagnostics example

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{x}_{t-1} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{c}_t + \mathbf{w}_t$$

Example of demeaned plankton data, 4 spp (Ives et al 2003)

- we are fitting one B matrix (and u)
- so level changes need to be explained by the covariates



Chapter 14: HWS18a Ives et al. analysis

- Fit a MAR community model to freshwater plankton data from Ives et al. (2003)
- Add covariates to the above model
- Add an additional covariate (fish) observed with error
- Compute stability metrics
- See MAR1 package on CRAN to apply the Ives et al. 2003 and other search algorithms to data sets.