BIOL 410 Population and Community Ecology

Density-dependent growth 2

Objectives

- Time lags
- Amplitude, period
- Equilibrium
- Damped oscillations
- Stable limit cycles
- Discrete logistic growth model
- Chaos vs. stochasticity

Logistic population growth



N <- seq(0,100,1)
t <- seq(1,20,0.1)
N0 <- 1
K <- 60
r <- 0.6</pre>

- In a continuously growing population, adding new individuals into the population causes a continuous decrease in the per capita rate of population growth [(1/N)(dN/dt)]
- However, in many populations there are <u>time lags</u>
 (τ) in response to changes in population size

What could cause these time lags?



What could produce time lags in density dependence?



$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right) \qquad \tau = \text{time lag}$$

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$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right)$$

- Two things will affect this equation.
- 1. The length of the time lag (τ)
- 2.The response time of the population this is inversely related to the intrinsic rate of increase (i.e. 1/*r*).

- The ratio of the time lag to the response time $\frac{\tau}{1/r}$, (which is simply $r\tau$) controls population growth.
- If *r*τ is small (between 0 to 0.368)
 - the population increases smoothly to a carrying capacity
- If *r*τ is moderate (0.368 to 1.570)
 - the population first overshoots then undershoots carrying capacity, followed by dampening oscillation to reach carrying capacity over time.
- If *rτ* is large (>1.570)
 - the population goes into a stable limit cycle of oscillations above and below carrying capacity that go on indefinitely.

Cyclic Populations



Time (t)

Logistic population growth

Α

в



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$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right)$$

```
t <- seq(1,100,1)
N0 <- 100
r <- 0.4
K <- 1000
tau <- 0
rtau <- r*tau
N <- seq(0,length(t),1)
N[1]<-N0
lambda <- exp(r)
for(ts in t){
etau <- tau
if(ts <= tau) etau <- 0
N[ts+1] <- lambda*N[ts]/(1+((N[ts-
etau]*(lambda-1))/K))
}
```

0



$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right)$$
$$\frac{\tau}{1/r'} = r\tau$$

< $r\tau < 0.368 < r\tau < 1.57$
r <- 0.4
K <- 1000
 $\tau <- 0, r\tau = 0$
 $\tau <- 2, r\tau = 0.8$



$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right)$$

$$\frac{\tau}{1/r}$$
, = $r\tau$

0 < rt < 0.368 < rt < 1.57

r <- 0.4K <- 1000 $\tau <- 0, r\tau = 0$ $\tau <- 2, r\tau = 0.8$ $\tau <- 3, r\tau = 1.2$



$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right)$$

$$\frac{\tau}{1/r}$$
, = $r\tau$

0 < rt < 0.368 < rt < 1.57

r <- 0.4 K <- 1000

$$\tau <-0, r\tau = 0$$

 $\tau <-2, r\tau = 0.8$
 $\tau <-3, r\tau = 1.2$
 $\tau <-4, r\tau = 1.6$



$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right)$$

$$\frac{\tau}{1/r}$$
, = $r\tau$

0 < rt < 0.368 < rt < 1.57

r <- 0.4K <- 1000 $\tau <- 0, r\tau = 0$ $\tau <- 4, r\tau = 1.6$ $\tau <- 5, r\tau = 2.0$



$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right)$$

$$\frac{\tau}{1/r}$$
, = $r\tau$

0.368 < rt < 1.57 < rt

r <- 0.4K <- 1000 $\tau <- 0, r\tau = 0$ $\tau <- 5, r\tau = 2.0$ $\tau <- 6, r\tau = 2.4$ $\tau <- 7, r\tau = 2.8$



$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right)$$

- What will happen if these populations exhibiting limit cycles are disturbed?
- Land slip, fire?



$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right)$$

r	<- 0.4
Κ	<- 1000
τ	<- 0, $r\tau = 0$
	•
	What is the
	impact of
	т <- 0?



$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right)$$

$$\frac{\tau}{1/r}$$
, = $r\tau$

0.368 < rt < 1.57 < rt

K <- 1000

Cycles in ecological populations



Canadian lynx data — the number of lynx trapped each year in the McKenzie river district of northwest Canada (1821–1934).



Daphnia pulex





E McCauley et al. Nature 455, 1240-1243 (2008) doi:10.1038/nature07220

St Kilda, Scotland Soay Sheep









http://soaysheep.biology.ed.ac.uk/





- Approximately 3 years between population crashes
- What drives this cycle?

Grenfell, B. T., O. F. Price, S. D. Albon, and T. H. Clutton-Brock. 1992. Overcompensation and population-cycles in an ungulate. Nature 355:823-826.





- Grenfell et al. 1992
 - Competition for food, highly overcompensating density-dependent mortality
- Grenfell et al. 1998
 - Weather and density dependence
- Coulson et al. 2001
 - Population age-strucure, sex-structure, weather, density-dependence
- Ozgul et al.2009
 - Size of sheep (as well as other factors)

http://soaysheep.biology.ed.ac.uk/

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN\left(1 - \frac{N_{t-\tau}}{K}\right)$$

Discrete logistic models

$$N_{t+1} = N_t + r_d N_t \left(1 - \frac{N_t}{K} \right)$$

- The discrete population growth model has a built in time lag of 1.0 (i.e. intergeneration time)
 - In continuous growing population, lag effects are influenced by the product of rate of increase and time $lag(r\tau)$.
 - In discrete population, time lag is 1, so dynamics of pop growth are essentially a function of discrete growth factor (r_d)

Discrete Population Growth – Logistic Models $N_{t+1} = N_t + r_d N_t \left(1 - \frac{N_t}{\kappa}\right)$



- Dynamics of Discrete Population
- If the Discrete Growth Factor is small (r_d<2.0), then you get dampened oscillations to a stable population at K



- Dynamics of Discrete Population
- 2. If the Discrete Growth Factor is a bit larger (r_d >2.0 but less than 2.449), then you get stable two-point limit cycles.



- Dynamics of Discrete Population
- When the Discreet Growth Factor is between 2.449 to 2.570 (2.449<*r_d*>2.57), you get growth with complex limit cycles, with varying number of "points".



- Dynamics of Discrete Population
- When the Discreet Growth Factor is above 2.570, the limit cycles break down and the population grows in a nonrepeating pattern (*chaos*)



Chaos vs Stochasticity

r_d = 2.7

N_o = 100 *N_o* = 101



- Environmental Variation may cause carrying capacity to change over time
- Variation could be:
 - 1. Random
 - 2. Cyclic

- Random Variation in Carrying Capacity (K)
- If *r* is not variable, but carrying capacity changes over time, result is complex growth patterns
- When a population is above the carrying capacity, it declines at a faster rate than it will increase if it is at a corresponding similar point *below* the carrying capacity.
- If the carrying capacity is described by a mean (\overline{K}) with an associated variance (σ_K^2), a rough approximation of the mean population size will be:

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$$\overline{N} = \overline{K} - \frac{\sigma_K^2}{2}$$

- Random Variation in Carrying Capacity (K)
- The more variable the environment, the smaller the average population size.
- If the intrinsic rate of increase (r) is large, the population closely tracks changes in carrying capacity.



 if the small intrinsic rate of increase (r) is small, the population do not fluctuate much in size as carrying capacity varies, but the population size (N) will tend to be overall somewhat smaller than a population that has a rapid intrinsic growth rate.

- Periodic (cyclic) variation in Carrying Capacity
- e.g. seasonal variation in resources

•
$$K_t = k_0 + k_1 \cos(\frac{2\pi t}{c})$$

- K_t = carrying capacity at time t
- k_0 = is mean carrying capacity
- k_1 = the amplitude of the cycle
- *c* = the length of the cycle

- Periodic (cyclic) variation in Carrying Capacity
- length of the cycle acts as a time lag, so the behavior of the model depends on the factor *rc* (as it did previously with *rτ*)

- if rc is large (>>1.0), then the population tends to track the fluctuations in the environment:
- $N_t \approx k_0 + k_1 \cos(\frac{2\pi t}{c})$

 If rc is very small (<<1.0), then the population tends to average out the fluctuations and persist at a level slightly below carrying capacity

•
$$\overline{N} \approx \sqrt{k_0^2 - k_t^2}$$

