Population ecology - exec

Pavel Fibich

Matrices

Matrices summary

Basics for equations

Differentia equation

Difference equation

Equations summary

Population ecology - exec Matrices and difference/differential equations

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Why?

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Recapitulation of basic math covering matrices, differential (δR) and difference (ΔR) equations for mathematical modelling used in Population Ecology.

- Matrix models are often used to describe transitions between years, between size stages.
- δR and ΔR are usefull for describing relationships and evolution in time in continuous and discrete time steps.

Solutions can be stable size/stage distributions in the population (how will population look like after some time).

Example – Matrix



Matrices

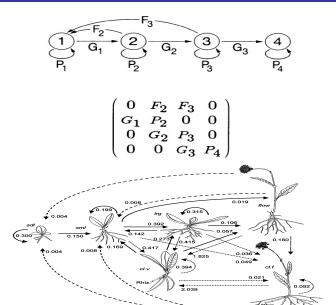
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Example – Differential equation

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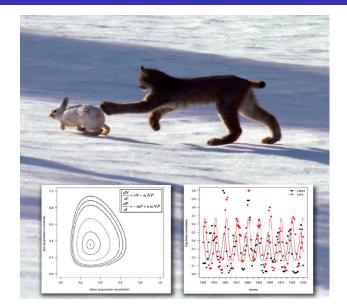
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Vector and Matrix

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Vector is a quantity characterized by size and direction, denoted as \vec{x} . It is order an object of *n* numbers x_i . Eg.: $\vec{x}^{31}, \vec{y}^{21}, \vec{z}^{14}$

$$\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 3\\ a*b\\ i \end{pmatrix}, \vec{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \vec{z} = (5\ 3\ 9\ 1)$$

Matrix is characterized by the number of rows and columns, contains vectors. Eg. A^{32} , E^{33}

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 8 \end{pmatrix}, E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Elements can be indexed, a_{ij} *i*-th row and *j*-th column. Are usefull to describe linear transition, solving ordinary δR , for describing set of linear equations, . . .

Operations

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Vectors can be

- $\vec{a}^{21} + \vec{b}^{21} = \vec{x}^{21}$ summed,
- $\vec{a}^{31} * c = \vec{x}^{31}$ multiplied by one value,
- $\vec{x}^{m1} * \vec{y}^{1n} = A^{mn}, \vec{x}^{1n} * \vec{y}^{n1} = c$ multiplied between themselves, ...

Matrices can be

- $A^{mn} + B^{mn} = C^{mn}$ summed,
- $A^{mn} * c = C^{mn}$ multiplied by one value,
- $A^{mn} * \vec{b}^{n1} = \vec{c}^{m1}$ multiplied by vector,
- $A^{mn} * B^{nk} = C^{mk}$ multiplied between themselves,
- $(A^{mn})^T = A^{nm}$ transposed,
- A^{-1} inverted, ...

Matrix operations

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Sum is cumutative. $A^{mn} + B^{mn} = C^{mn}$

$$\left(egin{array}{cccc} 3 & -1 & 1 \ -1 & 0 & 1 \ 1 & 8 & 2 \end{array}
ight) + \left(egin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array}
ight) = \left(egin{array}{ccccc} 4 & -1 & 1 \ -1 & 1 & 1 \ 1 & 8 & 3 \end{array}
ight)$$

Multiplying by vector is cumutative. $A^{mn} * c = C^{mn}$

$$\left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 3 & -2 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 3 & 1 \end{array}\right) * 3 = \left(\begin{array}{rrrr} 9 & -6 & 0 \\ 6 & 3 & 15 \\ 9 & 9 & 3 \end{array}\right)$$

Matrix operations

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Matrix multiplication is not cumutative. For $A^{mn} * \vec{b}^{n1} = \vec{c}^{m1}$ it is defined as $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} * b_{kj}$

$$\left(\begin{array}{c}2\\-1\end{array}\right)*\left(\begin{array}{c}5&-2\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{c}10&-4\\-5&2\end{array}\right)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} * \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 8 \end{pmatrix} * \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ -2 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

The same equation applies for matrices multiplication. In R, you can easily use % * % operator for matrix multiplication.

Matrix operations in R



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In R

> v1<-c(2,-1)		
> v2<-c(5,-2)		
> v1 %*% t(v2)		
[,1] [,2]		
[1,] 10 -4		
[2,] -5 2		
> m1<-matrix(c(3,-1, -1,0, 1,1),nrow=2)		
> m1<-matrix(c(3,-1, -1,0, 1,1),nrow=2) > v3<-c(2,1,0)		
> v3<-c(2,1,0)		
> v3<-c(2,1,0) > m1 %*% v3		

Simplify information from matrix

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Looking for a characteristic of matrix by one or few numbers. **Determinant** noted det A, |A|

- matrix n x n got one number,
- absolutely it is scaling of volume of linear transformation given by the matrix
- Sarrus algorithm (only for sizes 2x2 and 3x3), else Leibniz equation

Characteristic equation given by $|A - \lambda * E| = 0$, eg.

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 3 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

$$\mathbf{0} = |\mathbf{A} - \lambda * \mathbf{E}| = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{3} - \lambda & -\mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{2} & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 - \mathbf{3} * \lambda + \mathbf{2}$$

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

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Eigenvalues are solutions of characteristic equation, denoted λ_i . **Eigenvector** is vector \vec{u} satisfying equation

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda * \mathbf{E}) * \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$$

Eigennumber belongs to eigenvector. Or

$$A * \vec{u} = \lambda * \vec{u}$$

 $\vec{u} \neq 0$ is the eigenvector and λ is the eigenvalue.

Eigenvectors are used as characteristics of stable (age, ...) structure for transitional matrix in ecology.

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

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$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$0 = |A - \lambda * E| = \begin{vmatrix} 3 - \lambda & -1 \\ 2 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 - 3 * \lambda + 2$$

 $\langle \mathbf{n} \rangle$

Solutions of equation are $\lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = 1$, and corresponding eigen vectors

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3-\lambda_1 & -1\\ 2 & -\lambda_1 \end{pmatrix} * u_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1\\ 2 & -2 \end{pmatrix} * u_1$$

solution is the vector $u_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$. Similarly one can find eigenvector for eigenvalue λ_2 .

Power iteration

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Fast method for finding eigenvalue and eigenvector without analytical solving determinant. This method will find only dominant (biggest) eigenvalue and corresponding eigenvector. Iterative approach

$$b_{k+1} = \frac{Ab_k}{||Ab_k||}$$

Starts with nonzero b_0 (initial population structure) that is multiplied by transitional matrix *A* in time steps $k = 0... \parallel$ denotes normalization.

Useful for big matrices, although it can converge slowely. Google (PageRanks), Twitter (recommendations) and Šuspa are using it.

Power iteration

In R

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> A < -matrix(c(3, 2, -1, 0), nrow=2)> x0<-rnorm(2); thresh<-1e-22 > pit<-function(A, x0) { + m0<-x0[which.max(abs(x0))] + x1<-A %*% (x0 / m0) + m1<-x1[which.max(abs(x1))] + $if(abs(m1 - m0) < thresh) {$ return(m1) } else { pit(A, x1) } } + > ev1<-pit(A, x0); > A1 < -A - diag(2) * ev1> ev2 < -ev1 + pit(A1, x0)> c(ev1, ev2)[1] 2 1

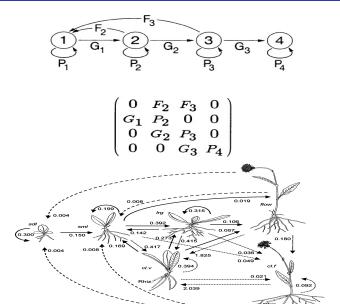
Example



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Matrices summary

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- Matrices contains rows and columns
- Several basic operations can be made with them
 - comutativity is not always satisfied
 - sizes of elements must correspond
- Math software allows easy work with matrices
- Eigenvector and eigenvalues of matrix are often used in ecology to describe stable (age, size, ...) structure.

Q?

Equations

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Slope k of a line x = k * t + q

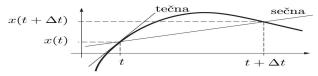
- describes ratio of change of x during change of t
- k defines if (x) is in-(de)creasing or non independent on t

Derivative of function x(t) describes change of x(t) according the change of parameter t

denoted as $\frac{dx}{dt}$ or more commonly just by x' (if we know argument for sure)

$$\mathbf{x}'(t) = \frac{dx}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{x(t + \Delta t) - x(t)}{\Delta t}$$

- it is also slope of tangent (tecna in Czech)
- for example, speed is derivative of distance by time



Differential equation (δR)

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 δR is equation having form

$$\mathbf{y}'(t) = f(t, \mathbf{y})$$

where the solution is a function *y*. Derivative (y') and function alone are in the equation. **Solution** (integral) of δR is any function *y* that satisfies δR . Examples of differential equations:

•
$$y' = r * y$$
, with solution $y(t) = y_0 * e^{r * t}$

•
$$dy/dt = r * y(1 - y/K)$$
, with solution
 $y(t) = \frac{K * y_0}{y_0 + (K - y_0) * e^{-r * t}}$

These δR have infinitive number of solutions, therefore we should specify **initial conditions** $y(t_0) = y_0$ (eg. y(0) = 5). **Right side of** δR **describes change of** y **(change of population size** y**)**.

To solve δR

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How to solve $y' = f(t, y), y(t_0) = y_0$?

- analytically by integration (can be complex or unresolvable)
- numerically to get proximative solution by several methods:
 - Euler,
 - Runge-Kutta,
 - Predictor-Corrector, ...

To solve δR analytically

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 $\frac{dy}{dt} = r * y$, where r = b - d (birth - death). r growth of population and y size of population. Solving by separation of variables in $\frac{dy}{r*y} = dt$ and integration

$$\int \frac{dy}{r * y} = \int dt$$
$$\frac{1}{r} \ln y = t + C$$

then y

$$ln y = r * (t + C)$$
$$y = e^{r*(t+C)} = e^{r*c} * e^{r*t} = K * e^{r*t}$$

Now we can apply initial conditions $y(t_0) = y_0$ a t = 0

$$y_0 = K * e^0 = K$$

Finally, we have a solution δR in form $y = y_0 * e^{r*t}$.

Analytical solution $\frac{dy}{dt} = r * y$ is $y = y_0 * e^{r*t}$

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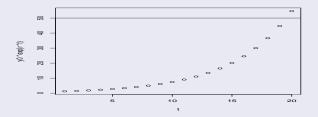
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In R, r=0.2

> t<-1:20;y0<-1;r<-0.2
> plot(y0*exp(r*t)~t); abline(h=50)



Analytical solution $\frac{dy}{dt} = r * y$ is $y = y_0 * e^{r*t}$

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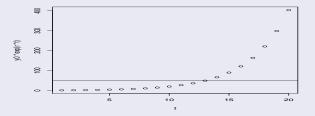
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In R, r=0.3



Euler's method – numerical solution δR

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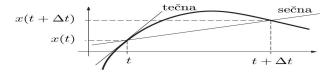
Difference equation

Equations summary

y' = f(t, y) is approximated by a **tangent**.

Go in discrite steps Δt . In point (t_0, y_0) , integral curve have tangent having slope $f(t_0, y_0)$. By changing integral curve by tangent, *y* is changed by $\Delta y = f(t_0, x_0) * \Delta t$.

For short steps Δt is this approximation mostly acceptable.



Euler's method - numerical solution

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For $(t_0 + \Delta t)$ we get

$$y(t_0 + \Delta t) = y_0 + f(t_0, y_0) * \Delta t$$

And generally

$$\mathbf{y}_{t+1} = \mathbf{y}_t + f(t_n, \mathbf{y}_n) * \Delta t$$

It is the easy, but not so accurate method. By decreasing Δt one can improve precision, but then it requires more steps.

Euler's method – example

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Euler's method on y' = f(t, y) = r * y * (1 - y/K) with initial concitions $t_0 = 1, y_0 = 1, r = 0.1, K = 10, \Delta t = 1$

	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,) -) -
t	У	Δy
t ₀	<i>y</i> ₀	$\Delta y_0 = f(t_0, y_0) * \Delta t$
$t_1 = t_0 + \Delta t$	$y_1 = y_0 + \Delta y_0$	$\Delta y_1 = f(t_1, y_1) * \Delta t$
$t_2 = t_1 + \Delta t$	$y_2 = y_1 + \Delta y_1$	$\Delta y_1 = f(t_1, y_1) * \Delta t$ $\Delta y_2 = f(t_2, y_2) * \Delta t$

Euler's method – example

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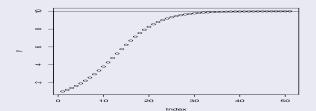
Difference equation

Equations summary

Euler's method on
$$y' = f(t, y) = r * y * (1 - y/K)$$

In R, r=0.2

> plot (y); abline (h=K)



Euler's method – example

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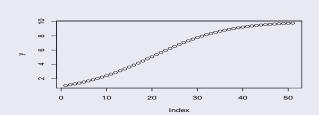
Difference equation

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Euler's method on
$$y' = f(t, y) = r * y * (1 - y/K)$$

In R, r=0.12

> plot(y);abline(h=K)



Other methods for numerical solution DR

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Eg. Runge-Kutta and Predictor-Corrector are much more precise and available in mathematical software.

- Commercial Matlab, Maple, Mathematica
- Free R, Maxima, SciLab, Octave,...

Symbolic solver – example

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In R, symbolic solution of the logistic growth

Difference equation (ΔR)

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Equations summary

 ΔR are discrete form of differential equations (δR). Changes are **discrete** not continuous as in δR (eg. like in Euler's method). ΔR has form

$$y_{n+1}=f(y_n),$$

where the **solution** is any a sequence $y = \{y_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, satisfying the equation ΔR . **Fixed point** (FP) of *f* is number y^* that satisfies $f(y^*) = y^*$.

Difference equation - example

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Arithmetic sequence is defined by a recursive equation

$$a_{n+1} = a_n + \Delta$$

Difference is $a_{n+1} - a_n = \Delta$. Solution is

$$a_n = a_0 + n * \Delta$$

Transformation of δR to ΔR

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By setting change of differential equation as a discrete, we can approximate DR by ΔR .

$$dy/dt pprox rac{y_{t+\Delta t}-y_t}{\Delta t}$$

For example for y' = r * y * (1 - y/K) a $\Delta t = 1$

$$y_{n+1} = y_n + r * y_n * (1 - y_n/K)$$

like in the Euler's method.

Examples



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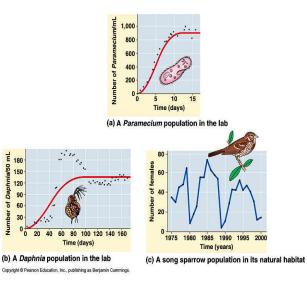
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Lynx follows snowshoe

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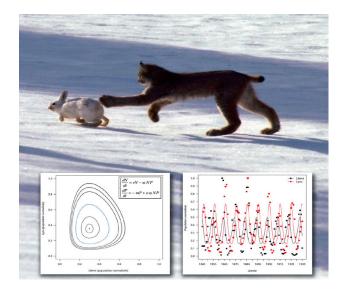
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Summary of equations

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Equations summary

- δR describes continuous change (eg. in time) and solution is a function.
- δR can be solved analytically or numerically, defines discrete dependence, solution is sequence.
- With the solution can help mathematical software (it is not necessary to do math on paper).

• y' = r * y exponential growth (unlimited).

• y' = r * y * (1 - y/K) logistic growth (limited by carrying capacity of environment K).

Any questions or comments?

References and Questions

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