



UvA-DARE (Digital Academic Repository)

A modeling exercise to show why population models should incorporate distinct life histories of dispersers

Deere, J.A.; van den Berg, I.; Roth, G.; Smallegange, I.M.

DOI

[10.1002/1438-390X.12074](https://doi.org/10.1002/1438-390X.12074)

Publication date

2021

Document Version

Final published version

Published in

Population Ecology

License

CC BY-NC

[Link to publication](#)

Citation for published version (APA):

Deere, J. A., van den Berg, I., Roth, G., & Smallegange, I. M. (2021). A modeling exercise to show why population models should incorporate distinct life histories of dispersers. *Population Ecology*, 63(2), 134-144. <https://doi.org/10.1002/1438-390X.12074>

General rights

It is not permitted to download or to forward/distribute the text or part of it without the consent of the author(s) and/or copyright holder(s), other than for strictly personal, individual use, unless the work is under an open content license (like Creative Commons).

Disclaimer/Complaints regulations

If you believe that digital publication of certain material infringes any of your rights or (privacy) interests, please let the Library know, stating your reasons. In case of a legitimate complaint, the Library will make the material inaccessible and/or remove it from the website. Please Ask the Library: <https://uba.uva.nl/en/contact>, or a letter to: Library of the University of Amsterdam, Secretariat, Singel 425, 1012 WP Amsterdam, The Netherlands. You will be contacted as soon as possible.

UvA-DARE is a service provided by the library of the University of Amsterdam (<https://dare.uva.nl>)

A modeling exercise to show why population models should incorporate distinct life histories of dispersers

Jacques A. Deere^{1,2}  | Ilona van den Berg³ | Gregory Roth^{2,4} | Isabel M. Smallegange²

¹Department of Zoology, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK

²Institute for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Dynamics (IBED), University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

³Department of Animal Ecology, Vrije Universiteit, Faculty of Earth and Life Sciences, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

⁴Friedrich Miescher Institute for Biomedical Research, Basel, Switzerland

Correspondence

Jacques A. Deere, Institute for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Dynamics (IBED), University of Amsterdam, 1090 GE Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
Email: j.a.deere@uva.nl

Funding information

Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research, Grant/Award Numbers: MEERVOUD grant no. 836.13.001, VIDI grant no. 864.13.005

Abstract

Dispersal is an important form of movement influencing population dynamics, species distribution and gene flow between populations. In population models, dispersal is often included in a simplified manner by removing a random proportion of the population. Many ecologists now argue that models should be formulated at the level of individuals instead of the population level. To fully understand the effects of dispersal on natural systems, it is therefore necessary to incorporate individual-level differences in dispersal behavior in population models. Here, we parameterized an integral projection model, which allows for studying how individual life histories determine population-level processes, using bulb mites, *Rhizoglyphus robini*, to assess to what extent dispersal expression (frequency of individuals in the dispersal stage) and dispersal probability affect the proportion of successful dispersers and natal population growth rate. We find that allowing for life-history differences between resident phenotypes and disperser phenotypes shows that multiple combinations of dispersal probability and dispersal expression can produce the same proportion of leaving individuals. Additionally, a given proportion of successful dispersing individuals result in different natal population growth rates. The results highlight that dispersal life histories, and the frequency with which disperser phenotypes occur in the natal population, significantly affect population-level processes. Thus, biological realism of dispersal population models can be increased by incorporating the typically observed life-history differences between resident phenotypes and disperser phenotypes, and we here present a methodology to do so.

KEYWORDS

bulb mite, dispersal, integral projection model, natal population, unsuccessful dispersal

1 | INTRODUCTION

The movement of individuals is one of the key mechanisms shaping biodiversity (Jeltsch et al., 2013; Travis &

Dytham, 1999). An important form of movement is dispersal, which is any movement of individuals or propagules with potential for gene flow across space (Bonte et al., 2012; Ronce, 2007). Dispersal influences the

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited and is not used for commercial purposes.

© 2020 The Authors. *Population Ecology* published by John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd on behalf of The Society of Population Ecology

dynamics and persistence of populations, the distribution and abundance of species, the community structure and the level of gene flow between populations (Bowler & Benton, 2005; Brown & Kodric-Brown, 1977; Dieckmann, O'Hara, & Weisser, 1999; Hanski, 1999). In so doing, dispersal can fuel evolutionary processes such as local adaptation and speciation (Dieckmann et al., 1999). Currently, understanding dispersal behavior is important to be able to predict how populations will respond to some of the most important threats to biodiversity, such as climate change, habitat loss and fragmentation and the invasion of alien species (Bowler & Benton, 2005; Clobert, Le Galliard, Cote, Meylan, & Massot, 2009).

In the last decades, the drivers of dispersal have been the center of many theoretical studies (Clobert, Ims, & Rousset, 2004; Hamilton & May, 1977; Hanski, 1999; Johnson & Gaines, 1990). However, the dispersal process itself has gained less attention. Due to practical problems associated with the study of dispersal in the field, much of dispersal research has taken a theoretical approach (Bélitchon, Clobert, & Massot, 1996; Bowler & Benton, 2005). In population models, dispersal is often considered as a population-level process, in which a proportion of the population leaves (Bowler & Benton, 2005; Clobert et al., 2004). In such models, individual-level differences are often ignored, which means that any individual within the population has the same probability of dispersing successfully. However, recently it has been argued that population ecology should shift its focus from formulating models at the population level to the level of individual organisms (Clark et al., 2011; Soudijn & Roos, 2017; Topping, Alrøe, Farrell, & Grimm, 2015); an argument echoed in the field of dispersal (Bonte et al., 2012). Although ecological patterns can be observed at the population level, it is the behavior and demographic changes of individuals that shape the dynamics of the population (Clark et al., 2011; Soudijn & Roos, 2017). So, in order to fully understand the effects of dispersal on natural systems, it is necessary to incorporate individual-level differences in dispersal behavior in population models.

Empirical studies have shown that dispersing individuals typically have different demographic properties compared with residents (individuals that remain in the population) (Bélitchon et al., 1996; Deere, Coulson, & Smallegange, 2015; Harrison, 1980; O'Riain, Jarvis, & Faulkes, 1996; Zera & Denno, 1997). Dispersers and residents can differ in their morphology, physiology or in their behavior (Bélitchon et al., 1996; Bonte et al., 2012; Clobert et al., 2009). In many species, an individual property, for example, locomotory movement, which potentially serves many important functions, is enhanced for dispersal (Bonte et al., 2012; Phillips, Brown, Webb, & Shine, 2006). In other species, dispersers develop a morphology primarily as an

adaptation for dispersal, for example, the development of wings or structures which facilitate attachment to mobile vectors (Bonte et al., 2012; Diaz, Okabe, Eckenrode, Villani, & Oconnor, 2000; Harrison, 1980; Zera & Denno, 1997). Species with a distinct dispersal morphology are ideal study systems to investigate the individual-level effects and adaptive significance of dispersal in natural populations. For many of these species, each genotype has the potential to develop into a disperser or a resident (Clobert et al., 2004; Harrison, 1980). The investment in dispersal morphology is costly if it requires resource investment, likely at the expense of investment into body condition or fecundity (Bonte et al., 2012; Deere et al., 2015; Lemel, Belichon, Clobert, & Hochberg, 1997). Such investment costs, defined as "predeparture costs," arise during development prior to the actual dispersal event, although they may be deferred to later in the life history as well (Bonte et al., 2012). However, not all individuals that invest in dispersal morphology leave their natal population, for example, due to a behavior or physiological component affecting dispersal propensity (Roff & Fairbairn, 2001), reduced patch accessibility (Clobert, Danchin, Dhondt, & Nichols, 2001) or environmental conditions (Johnson, 1969). In order to make the dispersal process in population models more realistic and its results more biologically relevant, an individual-based method that takes distinct dispersal life histories and (un)successful dispersal into account is necessary. Here, we do so using an approach that incorporates these distinct dispersal life histories into a population model structured by life stage. As a first step toward such an approach, we focus on the natal population, where the dispersal process is initiated and how dispersing individuals impact its dynamics. We apply the model to the invasive bulb mite (*Rhizoglyphus robini* Claparède), which is an ideal model system to study dispersal as it has a distinct dispersal stage within its life history.

We model the system using integral projection models (IPMs) as they comprise individual-level functions that describe demographic rates (thereby tracking fluctuations in population size and structure), they can be applied to species with complex demography, require relatively straightforward mathematical techniques from matrix calculus and are closely and easily linked to field and experimental data (Easterling, Ellner, & Dixon, 2000; Ellner & Rees, 2006). To test our approach, we parameterize an IPM that incorporates a distinct dispersal life history, where a dispersal stage is included in the life cycle, and that incorporates an emigration component (where dispersers are able to leave the population). Within the IPM, each individual has the potential to develop into a *disperser phenotype* (i.e., develop into the dispersal stage) or a *resident phenotype* (i.e., do not develop into a dispersal stage), and each disperser phenotype has the option to

leave the natal population (*disperser*) or remain in the natal population (*unsuccessful disperser*) (Figure 1). The natal population will thus consist of resident phenotypes and unsuccessful dispersers. In this model, the individual-level costs of dispersal are then expressed by unsuccessful dispersers. It is important to note that unsuccessful dispersers in the context of this study refers to disperser phenotypes that do not emigrate from the population; not to disperser individuals that do not survive the transfer phase or fail to establish in a new habitat. To address our aim of understanding how distinct dispersal life histories play a role in natal population-level processes during a dispersal event requires knowing not only the proportion of resident phenotypes and disperser phenotypes in the natal population, but also the proportion of disperser phenotypes that emigrate (successful dispersers). We will thus assess (a) the effects of the expression of a distinct disperser phenotype (probability of individuals developing into disperser phenotypes) as well as the dispersal probability (probability that disperser phenotypes emigrate) on the proportion of successful dispersers (i.e., the disperser phenotypes that emigrate), which will allow us to tease apart the relative effects of the latter two dispersal components, and (b) assess the resulting consequences of disperser phenotype expression and actual dispersal on the growth rate of the natal population (Figure 1).

2 | METHODS

2.1 | Study system and life-history data

Bulb mites go through five life stages, but develop into an additional, sixth dispersal stage during development (called the deutonymph stage) under unfavorable

environmental conditions (e.g., low temperature, humidity and food quality) (Diaz et al., 2000) (Figure 2). The (juvenile) dispersal stage is nonfeeding and occurs in both sexes. We use the same life-history data on female bulb mites as used in Deere, Coulson, Cubaynes, and Smallegange (2017) to parameterize the IPM; these data provide information on individuals that do and do not develop into the deutonymph stage as life histories differ between individuals that went through the deutonymph stage and those that did not (for detailed data collection, see Deere et al. (2015); data can be found in the figshare repository <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.1312875.v1>).

2.2 | Disperser phenotype model (DPM)

Our model, henceforth DPM, has a distinct dispersal stage, the deutonymph stage, which allows for emigration. Dispersal is a two-step process that consists of development into a disperser (deutonymph) and dispersal out of the population (Figure 2). Deutonymph probability, β , describes the transition probability of developing from a protonymph to a deutonymph. Dispersal probability, δ , describes the probability of a deutonymph leaving the population (Figure 2). Together, they determine the proportion of individuals dispersing from a population (i.e., successful dispersers). Whereas most models of dispersal assume $\delta = 1$, our framework allows for the exploration of how variation in both affect populations.

We use the size- and stage-structured IPM developed by Deere et al. (2017) and we include an emigration component to the model. Briefly, an IPM tracks fluctuations in population size and structure based on individual-level processes. The IPM projects a new stage-size joint

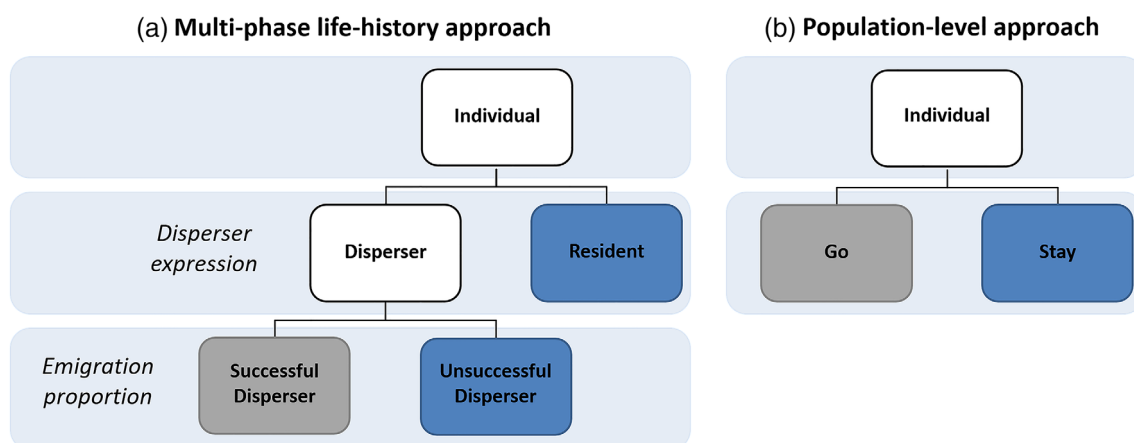
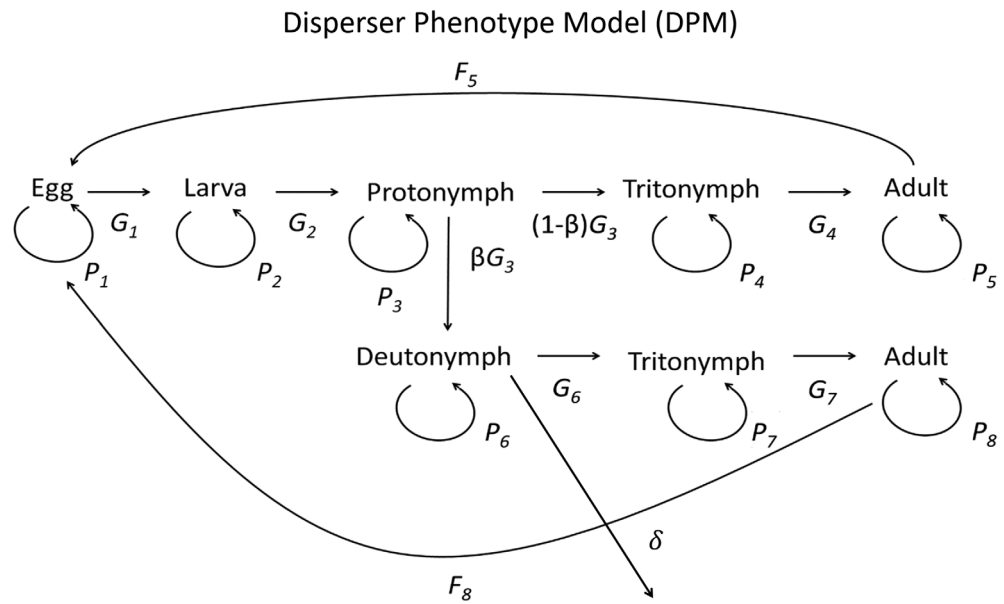


FIGURE 1 Schematic indicating how a population-level approach (a) and an individual-level approach (b) differ in terms of the individuals that emigrate from a population. The blue blocks indicate individuals that stay in the natal population while gray blocks indicate individuals that leave the population [Color figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

FIGURE 2 Life cycle of the bulb mite in the disperser phenotype model (DPM), indicating the life stages and the vital rates. From the life cycle we calculated the survival (P) and fecundity (F) rates and the probability of growing and transitioning into the next stage (G). Dispersal consists of development into a disperser phenotype (deutonymph) (β) and dispersal out of the population (δ); β describes the transition probability of developing from a protonymph to a deutonymph, δ describes the probability of a deutonymph leaving the population



distribution based on the stage-size joint distribution in the previous time step (Coulson, 2012; Deere et al., 2017; Easterling et al., 2000). For the DPM, in each time step individuals may survive, disperse, grow and produce new individuals. These processes are captured in a kernel, K , that projects joint distribution $n_t(z, s)$ of body size z , and stage s , at time t , to the new joint distribution at time $t + 1$:

$$n_{t+1}(z', s') = \sum_{s=1}^8 \int_{\Omega} K(z', s', z, s) n_t(z, s) dz, \quad (1)$$

where Ω designates the range of individual sizes. The kernel, K , is composed of two parts,

$$K = S(z, s)D(z, s)T(s', z, s)G(z', z, s) + R(z, s)O(z', z, s). \quad (2)$$

The first part describes how individuals grow, survive and move: $S(z, s)$ is the survival probability to the next time step of an individual in size z and stage s ; $D(z, s)$ is the probability that an individual of size z in stage s stays in the population in the next time step; $T(s', z, s)$ is the probability that an individual in size z and stage s develops into the new stage s' and $G(z', z, s)$ is the probability that an individual in size z and stage s grows to size z' . The second part describes adult reproduction: $R(z, s)$ is the number of offspring produced by an adult individual of size z in stage s and $O(z', z, s)$ is the probability that offspring produced by adults of size z are of size z' (i.e., the parent-offspring association). DPM equations (Table S1 equations 3.1–3.12), and parameter values used, can be found in the Supporting Information.

The order of the functions in the kernel K represents the sequence of events in each time step, and the point at which the population is censused. This order is crucial for the outcome of the IPM (Rees, Childs, & Ellner, 2014). The order of events in the DPM is first survival, then dispersal, then transition of the individuals that do not disperse, followed by their growth. Dispersal is applied prior to transition in order to track all individuals that develop into the deutonymph stage and emigrate (the dispersers). Since dispersal is only possible for individuals in the deutonymph stage (i.e., dispersal stage), the probability to stay in the population is equal to 1 for all individuals in all stages other than the deutonymph stage. For all individuals in the deutonymph stage, the probability to stay in the population is $1 - \delta$.

2.3 | Model parameterization and analysis

The DPM was parameterized from life-history data of female bulb mites (see 2.1 *Study system and life-history data*). Once parameterized, each function is then discretized into a matrix form by dividing the full-size domain into very small-width discrete bins (“mesh points”; see Supporting Information for details). These discretized matrices describe the predicted transition rates and are used to build a projection matrix that approximates the DPM, so standard methods for analyzing matrix population models can be used (Caswell, 2001; Coulson, 2012). Details on how the functions were parameterized can be found in the Supporting Information. All analyses and simulations

were performed in R version 3.0.2 (R Development Core Team, 2013).

2.4 | Combination of disperser expression and dispersal probability

For the DPM, we wanted to assess how an increase in deutonymph probability (β) (i.e., disperser phenotype expression) and dispersal probability (δ) would affect population-level processes. Within the DPM, β and δ were increased from 0 to 1 (at 0.01 increments) and for every combination of β and δ the proportion of individuals that disperse (successful dispersers), proportion of failed adult dispersers, proportion of adult residents and population growth rate, λ_0 , were calculated. The proportion of successful dispersers was calculated by integrating the stable stage distribution over the range of all sizes in the deutonymph stage and multiplying it with the dispersal probability δ . The proportion of failed adult dispersers was calculated by integrating the stable stage distribution over the range of all sizes in the adult stage of failed dispersers (i.e., deutonymphs that did not disperse and survived to the adult stage). Similarly, the proportion of adult residents was calculated by integrating the stable stage distribution over the range of all sizes in the adult stage of residents (i.e., individuals that did not develop into a deutonymph stage before becoming an adult). The stable stage distribution was calculated as the

dominant right eigenvector of the projection matrix associated with each DPM (Easterling et al., 2000), λ_0 was calculated as the dominant eigenvalue of the projection matrix associated to each DPM (Easterling et al., 2000).

3 | RESULTS

When varying β and δ in the DPM, there is a nonlinear, joint effect of dispersal phenotype expression and dispersal probability on the proportion of successful dispersers (Figure 3a) and population growth rate (λ_0) (Figure 3b). If both β and δ increase then, in general, the proportion of individuals that successfully disperse increases (Figure 3a) and λ_0 decreases (Figure 3b). Reciprocally, if both β and δ decrease then, in general, the proportion of successful dispersers decreases (Figure 3a) and λ_0 increases (Figure 3b). When the changes in β and δ are opposed, any scenario (increase/decrease) in the proportion of successful dispersers and λ_0 can occur (Table 1).

The joint effect of β and δ on the proportion of successful dispersers does not predict the joint effect of β and δ on λ_0 . Indeed, the contour lines of the proportion of successful dispersers intersect the contour lines of the λ_0 (Figure 3). As a consequence, for a fixed proportion of individuals that successfully disperse, multiple λ_0 values can occur (fixed proportion of successful dispersers: 0.04 [yellow line], 0.08 [red line], 0.12 [blue line]; Figure 3). Furthermore, with increasing proportions of successful

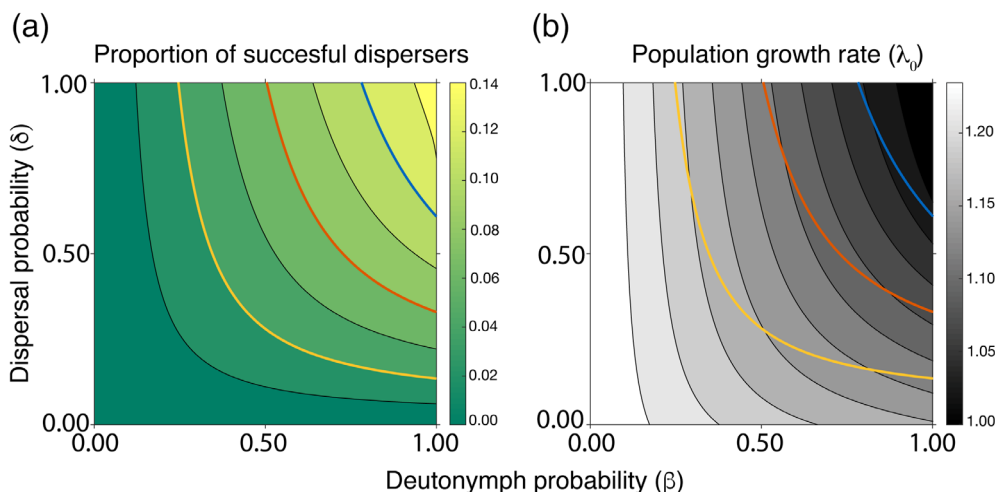


FIGURE 3 (a) Joint effect of increasing deutonymph probability (β) and increasing dispersal probability (δ) on the proportion of successful dispersers. Side bar indicates proportion of successful dispersers with proportion increasing from dark to light green. Colored contour lines highlight a fixed proportion of successful dispersers, each proportion can be attained by a number of different δ and β values: 0.04 (yellow line), 0.08 (red line), 0.12 (blue line). (b) Joint effect of increasing deutonymph probability (β) and increasing dispersal probability (δ) on population growth rate (λ_0). Side bar indicates λ_0 , with λ_0 increasing from black to white. Colored contour lines indicate fixed proportion of successful dispersers from panel (a) (0.04, yellow line; 0.08, red line; 0.12, blue line), each proportion can result in a number of different λ_0 values. In both panels, dispersal probability and deutonymph probability increase from 0 to 1 at 0.01 increments [Color figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

dispersers (yellow line < red line < blue line), the range of values of λ_0 encompassed by each proportion of successful dispersers, decreases (Figure 3b). Another consequence of the joint effect of β and δ is counterintuitive scenarios in the proportion of individuals that successfully disperse and λ_0 (Table 1). For example, if β increases from 0.35 to 0.45 and δ decreases from 0.25 to 0.15, then the proportion of successful dispersers decreases from 0.025 to 0.021 and λ_0 decreases from 1.195 to 1.187 (Figure 3). Vice versa, if β decreases and δ increases (in some specific proportion), then both the proportion of successful dispersers and λ_0 can increase. The impact of changes in the proportion of successful dispersers on λ_0 is driven by the change in the population structure. To

TABLE 1 Response of population parameters to changes in dispersal parameters. Dots represent population parameter outcomes (expected and counterintuitive scenarios) given various dispersal parameter scenarios (see main text for details)

	Population parameters			
	Expected		Counterintuitive	
Dispersal parameters	PD \uparrow $\lambda_0\downarrow$	PD \downarrow $\lambda_0\uparrow$	PD \downarrow $\lambda_0\downarrow$	PD \uparrow $\lambda_0\uparrow$
$\beta\uparrow, \delta\uparrow$	•			
$\beta\downarrow, \delta\downarrow$		•		
$\beta\uparrow, \delta\downarrow$	•	•	•	
$\beta\downarrow, \delta\uparrow$	•	•		•

Abbreviations: PD, proportion of successful dispersers; β , disperser expression (deutonymph probability); δ , dispersal probability; λ_0 , population growth rate.

assess this change, we examined how the proportion of adult residents and failed adult dispersers varied across values of β and δ . When varying β and δ , as with the proportion of successful dispersers, there is a nonlinear effect on the proportion of adult residents and failed adult dispersers (Figure 4a, b). Unsurprisingly, the proportion of failed adult dispersers increases when β increases and δ decreases (Figure 4a). Oppositely, the proportion of adult residents decreases when β increases and δ decreases (Figure 4b). For each fixed proportion of successful dispersers described previously (0.04 [yellow line], 0.08 [red line], 0.12 [blue line]; Figure 3a), and for a given λ_0 value, we expressed the distribution of adults over the two phenotypes (failed adult dispersers and adult residents). We found that, as λ_0 increases the fraction of failed adult dispersers decreases and the fraction of adult residents increases (Figure 4c). This outcome is consistent for the three fixed proportions of successful dispersers (yellow, blue, red; Figure 4c).

The joint increase of β and δ can lead the population to extinction (i.e., $\lambda_0 < 1$). Indeed, although the population growth rate is larger than 1 for almost all the parameter values, it is slightly smaller than 1 ($\lambda_0 = 0.99$) when both the deutonymph probability and the dispersal probability are equal to 1 ($\delta = \beta = 1$). This high value of the population growth rate, even though all newborn individuals leave the population before reproducing, is a consequence of the high adult survival rate which maintains the population for a long time before it eventually goes extinct. When the adult survival rate is reduced, the population growth rate becomes smaller than 0.99 for larger values of β and δ (see Figure S1).

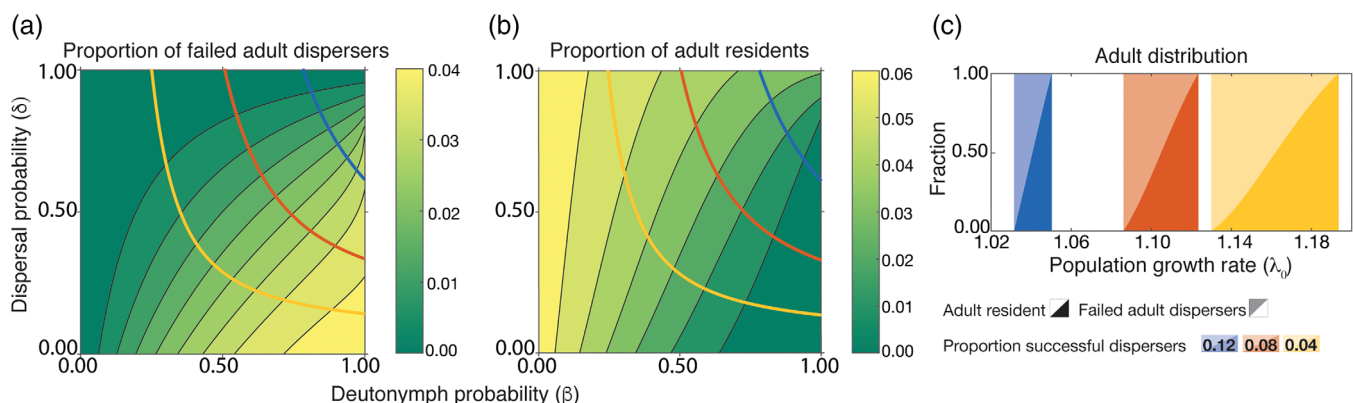


FIGURE 4 Joint effect of increasing deutonymph probability (β) and increasing dispersal probability (δ) on (a) proportion of failed adult dispersers and (b) proportion of adult residents. Side bar in panel (a) indicates proportion of failed adult dispersers and in panel (b) proportion of adult residents, with proportion increasing from dark to light green in both. Colored contour lines highlight a fixed proportion of successful dispersers from Figure 3a (0.04, yellow line; 0.08, red line; 0.12, blue line). Dispersal probability and deutonymph probability increase from 0 to 1 at 0.01 increments. (c) Distribution of adults over the two phenotypes (failed adult dispersers and adult residents) indicating the change in the fraction of failed adult dispersers and adult residents with population growth rate (λ_0). Colored shading indicates a fixed proportion of successful dispersers: yellow = 0.04, red = 0.08, blue = 0.12 (as from Figure 3a: yellow line = 0.04; red line = 0.08; blue line = 0.12) [Color figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

4 | DISCUSSION

The need to incorporate complexity and realism in modeling dispersal (Bonte et al., 2012; Travis et al., 2012, 2013) has prompted a move to integrate more individual heterogeneity and individual-level costs when modeling dispersal (Bonte et al., 2012). Here, we incorporated individual heterogeneity, in terms of distinct life histories for disperser phenotypes and resident phenotypes, as well as the probability of disperser phenotypes to emigrate using an individual-based method. We applied our method to a system that has a distinct dispersal stage and assessed the effects of these distinct life histories and emigration probability on population-level processes.

When modeling dispersal, dispersal rates are often applied to the whole population and the potential effect of dispersal to the natal population is in terms of the proportion of the individuals that leave. Given that the proportion of individuals that leave the population during a dispersal event is partly dependent on the number of individuals capable of dispersing within the population, we wanted to investigate the effect on the population of jointly manipulating the proportion of the disperser phenotypes in the population (β) and the dispersal probability (δ). Although we found a general trend for the proportion of successful dispersers to increase (or decrease) and population growth rate to decrease (or increase) when both dispersal parameters increase (or decrease), when the two parameters increase or decrease in opposite directions, a number of different outcomes of the population parameters can occur (Table 1). The outcomes include scenarios which one would largely expect; an increase in the proportion of successful dispersers and a decrease in population growth (or vice versa). For example, when the proportion of successful dispersers increase, population growth rate will decrease as these individuals leave the population and so do not contribute to the population growth. However, there are also outcomes that we did not expect; scenarios where both the proportion of successful dispersers and population growth rate decrease or increase together. The scenario where the proportion of successful dispersers and population growth rate both decrease occurs when β increases and δ decreases. An increase in the expression of deutonymphs results in more disperser phenotypes within the population, however, with lower dispersal probabilities, this would mean a reduced proportion of dispersers that emigrate resulting in a higher proportion of failed adult dispersers. In the context of our system, disperser phenotypes are reliant on other insect species to disperse with disperser phenotypes attaching to their host via a sucker plate on the dorsal part of their body (Diaz et al., 2000). As such, when fewer

or no insect species are present, for example under colder or windier environment conditions across seasons, or even within the same day, will result in a reduced proportion of dispersers that emigrate. With fewer disperser phenotypes leaving the population, the individual-level costs of investing in dispersal (i.e., reduced size at maturity, reduced lifetime egg production, increased development time; Deere et al., 2015) are then borne out at the population level by the remaining failed adult dispersers, thereby reducing population growth rate (Deere et al., 2017). The scenario where both the proportion of successful dispersers and population growth rate increase, occurs when β decreases and δ increases. Here, reducing β reduces the expression of deutonymphs within the population, whereas increasing δ results in a larger proportion of the disperser phenotypes leaving the population (i.e., an increase in the proportion of successful dispersers). Population growth rate will increase as fewer failed adult disperser phenotypes, with their associated individual-level costs of investing in dispersal, are left in the population and have a reduced effect on population growth rate. In all scenarios, expected and counter-intuitive, the response is largely dependent on the ratio of the two dispersal parameters, highlighting that the population parameters are very responsive to the joint effect of the two dispersal parameters.

The biological implications of the joint effect of the two dispersal parameters are important. It shows how dispersal is more than just a probability of dispersing from a population: dispersal depends not only on the probability of phoresy (being able to disperse from the population) but also on the probability of developing into a disperser phenotype. What is more, the demographic consequences depend on both the probability of dispersing, as well as on the proportion of disperser phenotypes within the population that remain (i.e., failed adult dispersers), as these disperser phenotypes carry a demographic cost of lower fecundity compared to those that have not invested in disperser morphology (i.e., adult residents) as a juvenile. The individual-level cost of investing in dispersal can be seen in the case where $\delta < 1$ is compared to $\delta = 1$, which is equivalent to comparing a scenario with and without individual-level differences, respectively. For example, if we consider a population with a proportion of successful dispersers equal to 0.04 (yellow contour line, Figure 3b), $\beta = 0.86$ and $\delta = 0.15$ then the population growth rate (λ_0) equals 1.14. A model that does not account for individual-level differences but has an equal proportion of successful dispersers (i.e., $\delta = 1$ and $\beta = 0.25$, yellow contour line), overestimates population growth rate ($\lambda_0 = 1.20$). The demographic consequence of the frequency of disperser phenotypes (β) in the population and the probability of dispersing (δ) is

not restricted to species that invest in a distinct disperser phenotype. When individuals of a species disperse, there is a cost to the individual (Bonte et al., 2012) and several environmental factors can impact individuals dispersing, such as reduced patch accessibility (Clobert et al., 2001) or environmental conditions (Cormont et al., 2011; Johnson, 1969; Kuussaari, Rytteri, Heikkinen, Heliölä, & von Bagh, 2016). For example, in the green-veined white butterfly (*Pieris napi*) increased flight ability, through investment in larger thoraces, is traded off against fecundity (Karlsson & Johansson, 2008). However, given this investment in dispersal, there is no guarantee that these individuals will disperse as butterfly dispersal is impacted by different weather variables. Increased temperatures increase butterfly dispersal propensity, but dispersal propensity decreases with increased cloud cover, rainfall and wind speed (Cormont et al., 2011; Kuussaari et al., 2016). It follows that a full understanding of the influence of dispersing individuals on natal population processes, requires detailed knowledge of disperser life histories, of how the cost of investing in a disperser strategy is borne out at the population level, and to what extent disperser phenotypes are present in the population.

Another key finding is that different population structures (multiple combinations of β and δ) can yield the same proportion of successful dispersers (Figure 3a); this is significant because population structure can have a large effect on population growth (Cameron et al., 2016; Smallegange, Fernandes, & Croll, 2018). In addition to the proportion of individuals that successfully disperse, the change in structure of the population can also be seen in the response of the proportion of adult residents and failed adult dispersers with varying β and δ values. Previously, we have shown that, in the absence of emigration, distinct disperser phenotypes within the natal population have different life histories to resident phenotypes (individuals unable to disperse) and so do not contribute to population processes in the same way (Deere et al., 2017). We can see this in our study. For a given proportion of dispersers, which can be attained by various β and δ values, the structure of the population varies in terms of the proportion of adult residents and failed adult dispersers. The adult residents and failed adult dispersers vary in their vital rates (i.e., survival and reproduction), and thus their contribution to the population, which impacts the population growth rate (Figure 4c). Additionally, juveniles and adults do not always respond the same way to changing environmental and population conditions and so differ in their contribution to populations dynamics (Coulson et al., 2001; Ozgul, Coulson, Reynolds, Cameron, & Benton, 2012). Furthermore, the influence that the frequency of disperser phenotypes (as determined by the deutonymph probability)

within the natal population and dispersal probability has on the proportion of successful dispersers can be seen as a proxy of a natal habitat-induced effect. In our study, the effects of the natal habitat on disperser phenotypes are clear. The expression of disperser phenotypes is dependent on the quality of the natal habitat with the expression of disperser phenotypes increasing as habitat quality decreases; however, in other instances the effects may often be more subtle (e.g., maternal effects; Benard & McCauley, 2008). This effect on the proportion of successful dispersers can then further influence other processes such as genetic differentiation between populations (i.e., altering magnitude and/or symmetry of gene flow) (Benard & McCauley, 2008). Indeed, Benard and McCauley (2008) highlight that environmentally induced asymmetries in the number or quality of dispersing individuals can lead to asymmetry in patterns of local adaptation. While our model is largely applicable to phoretic species, our findings are also relevant to actively dispersing species. In species showing active dispersal, where individuals move from one location to another without assistance, dispersal is often dictated by a combination of dispersal ability (e.g., structural formation such as wings) and dispersal propensity (e.g., behavior or physiological component), which would influence the proportion of successful dispersers. Moreover, it has been suggested that interactions between these traits can generate nonlinear relationships between habitat condition and net dispersal rates (Benard & McCauley, 2008). All in all, it is the combination of natal habitat induced effects on disperser phenotypes and the population structure that will determine the proportion of individuals that successfully disperse.

Local population dynamics and dispersal rates between populations determine the ecological dynamics of metapopulations. Indeed, dispersal rate has a large effect on metapopulation dynamics and has shown to be influential in the propensity for dispersal-induced stability and synchrony within metapopulation models (Abbott, 2011) and patch-level asymmetry (Benard & McCauley, 2008). Our results are limited to a natal population perspective; however, this may ultimately affect metapopulation dynamics. A study by Altermatt and Ebert (2010) has shown that, when considering the origin and number of migrants, metapopulation functioning may differ to the patterns of the generally considered view of colonization–extinction dynamics of metapopulations (e.g., Hanski & Gaggiotti, 2004). Altermatt and Ebert (2010) show that migrating stages occur in small and ephemeral habitat patches, contrary to colonization–extinction dynamics, and that these populations drive the metapopulation dynamics. In essence, they suggest that the focus should also be on where migrants colonizing a new habitat come from

and in what numbers. Therefore, there is a need to accurately predict the proportion of successful dispersers that disperse from specific populations. We would further argue that the state of the natal population, given the presence of disperser phenotypes (e.g., population growth rate; see Deere et al., 2017), would then also become important in the context of a metapopulation. Furthermore, models inform conservation management decisions. Many metapopulation models are used to make predictions that drive conservation management decisions and potentially highlight areas of data paucity (Calabrese & Fagan, 2004; Clobert et al., 2001; Hanski, 1999; Morin, Fuller, Royle, & Sutherland, 2017; Peterson & Freeman, 2016). Modeling the dynamics of populations is by its very nature a simplified version of reality. However, as more complexity is added to models in a manner that improves the biological realism of how dispersal rates are implemented, then not only can model performance be improved in terms of their realism, but also in terms of the accuracy of their predictions, which ultimately is more informative when used in management decisions (Clobert et al., 2001; Peterson & Freeman, 2016).

The importance of the joint effect of dispersal probability and the frequency of disperser phenotypes within the population that we show indicates the potential importance of accounting for the frequency of disperser phenotypes within a population. We appreciate that our focus is on a specific study system, and do not suggest that our models are completely general in terms of their outcome. Rather, we illustrate that the effects of dispersing individuals on natal populations are more than just a turnover of numbers. Given the importance of dispersal rates in (meta)populations, and that natural dispersal rates are being altered by human activities, how they are applied to populations then becomes vital. Only by identifying and including the individual-level costs of disperser phenotypes in a population, and applying dispersal rates to those individuals, can the full extent of the effects of dispersal to natal populations, and potentially metapopulations, start to be realized.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank two anonymous reviewers for helpful comments on a previous version of the manuscript. The work was funded by a MEERVOUD grant no. 836.13.001 and VIDJ grant no. 864.13.005 from the Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research to Isabel Smallegange.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Jacques A. Deere and Ilona van den Berg: Conceptualized the study. Jacques A. Deere, Ilona van den Berg and Gregory Roth: Developed the models with input from Isabel M. Smallegange. Jacques A. Deere, Ilona van den Berg, Gregory Roth and Isabel M. Smallegange: Wrote and commented on the manuscript.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Dataset used for model parametrisation can be found in the figshare repository <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.1312875.v1>.

ORCID

Jacques A. Deere  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6736-2223>

REFERENCES

- Abbott, K. C. (2011). A dispersal-induced paradox: Synchrony and stability in stochastic metapopulations. *Ecology Letters*, *14*, 1158–1169.
- Altermatt, F., & Ebert, D. (2010). Populations in small, ephemeral habitat patches may drive dynamics in a *Daphnia magna* metapopulation. *Ecology*, *91*, 2975–2982.
- Bélíchon, S., Clobert, J., & Massot, M. (1996). Are there differences in fitness components between philopatric and dispersing individuals? *Acta Oecologia*, *17*, 503–517.
- Benard, M. F., & McCauley, S. J. (2008). Integrating across life-history stages: Consequences of natal habitat effects on dispersal. *The American Naturalist*, *171*, 553–567.
- Bonte, D., Van Dyck, H., Bullock, J. M., Coulon, A., Delgado, M., Gibbs, M., ... Travis, J. M. J. (2012). Costs of dispersal. *Biological Reviews*, *87*, 290–312.
- Bowler, D. E., & Benton, T. G. (2005). Causes and consequences of animal dispersal strategies: Relating individual behaviour to spatial dynamics. *Biological Reviews*, *80*, 205–225.
- Brown, J. H., & Kodric-Brown, A. (1977). Turnover rates in insular biogeography: Effect of immigration on extinction. *Ecology*, *58*, 445–449.
- Calabrese, J. M., & Fagan, W. F. (2004). A comparison-shopper's guide to connectivity metrics. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, *2*, 529–536.
- Cameron, T. C., O'Sullivan, D., Reynolds, A., Hicks, J. P., Pierny, S. B., & Benton, T. G. (2016). Harvested populations are more variable only in more variable environments. *Ecology and Evolution*, *6*, 4179–4191.
- Caswell, H. (2001). *Matrix population models: Construction, analysis, and interpretation* (2nd ed.). Sunderland, MA: Sinauer Associates.
- Clark, J. S., Bell, D. M., Hersh, M. H., Kwit, M. C., Moran, E., Salk, C., ... Zhu, K. (2011). Individual-scale variation, species-scale differences: Inference needed to understand diversity. *Ecology Letters*, *14*, 1273–1287.
- Clobert, J., Danchin, E., Dhondt, A. A., & Nichols, J. D. (Eds.). (2001). *Dispersal*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Clobert, J., Ims, R. A., & Rousset, F. (2004). Causes, mechanisms and consequences of dispersal. In I. Hanski & O. E. Gaggiotti (Eds.),

- Ecology, genetics and evolution of metapopulations* (pp. 307–335). Amsterdam, the Netherlands: Elsevier Academic Press.
- Clobert, J., Le Galliard, J. F., Cote, J., Meylan, S., & Massot, M. (2009). Informed dispersal, heterogeneity in animal dispersal syndromes and the dynamics of spatially structured populations. *Ecology Letters*, *12*, 197–209.
- Coulson, T. (2012). Integral projections models, their construction and use in posing hypotheses in ecology. *Oikos*, *121*, 1337–1350.
- Coulson, T., Catchpole, E. A., Albon, S. D., Morgan, B. J. T., Pemberton, J. M., Clutton-Brock, T. H., ... Grenfell, B. T. (2001). Age, sex, density, winter weather, and population crashes in Soay sheep. *Science*, *292*, 1528–1531.
- Cormont, A., Malinowska, A. H., Kostenko, O., Radchuk, V., Hemerik, L., WallisDeVries, M. F., & Verboom, J. (2011). Effect of local weather on butterfly flight behaviour, movement, and colonization: Significance for dispersal under climate change. *Biodiversity and Conservation*, *20*, 483–503.
- Deere, J. A., Coulson, T., Cubaynes, S., & Smallegange, I. M. (2017). Unsuccessful dispersal affects life history characteristics of natal populations: The role of dispersal related variation in vital rates. *Ecological Modelling*, *366*, 37–47.
- Deere, J. A., Coulson, T., & Smallegange, I. M. (2015). Life history consequences of the facultative expression of a dispersal life stage in the phoretic bulb mite (*Rhizoglyphus robini*). *PLoS One*, *10*, e0136872.
- Diaz, A., Okabe, K., Eckenrode, C. J., Villani, M. G., & Oconnor, B. M. (2000). Biology, ecology, and management of the bulb mites of the genus *Rhizoglyphus* (Acari: Acaridae). *Experimental & Applied Acarology*, *24*, 85–113.
- Dieckmann, U., O'Hara, B., & Weisser, W. (1999). The evolutionary ecology of dispersal. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, *14*, 88–90.
- Easterling, M. R., Ellner, S. P., & Dixon, P. M. (2000). Size-specific sensitivity: Applying a new structured population model. *Ecology*, *81*, 694–708.
- Ellner, S. P., & Rees, M. (2006). Integral projection models for species with complex demography. *The American Naturalist*, *167*, 410–428.
- Hamilton, W. D., & May, R. M. (1977). Dispersal in stable habitats. *Nature*, *269*, 578–581.
- Hanski, I. (1999). *Metapopulation ecology*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Hanski, I., & Gaggiotti, O. E. (Eds.). (2004). *Ecology, genetics and evolution of Metapopulations*. Amsterdam, the Netherlands: Elsevier Academic Press.
- Harrison, R. G. (1980). Dispersal polymorphisms in insects. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, *11*, 95–118.
- Jeltsch, F., Bonte, D., Pe'er, G., Reineking, B., Leimgruber, P., Balkenhol, N., ... Bauer, S. (2013). Integrating movement ecology with biodiversity research - Exploring new avenues to address spatiotemporal biodiversity dynamics. *Movement Ecology*, *1*, 6.
- Johnson, C. G. (1969). *Insect migration and dispersal by flight*. London, UK: Methuen.
- Johnson, M. L., & Gaines, M. S. (1990). Evolution of dispersal: Theoretical models and empirical tests using birds and mammals. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, *21*, 449–480.
- Karlsson, B., & Johansson, A. (2008). Seasonal polyphenism and developmental trade-offs between flight ability and egg laying in a pierid butterfly. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, *275*, 2131–2136.
- Kuussaari, M., Rytteri, S., Heikkinen, R. K., Heliölä, J., & von Bagh, P. (2016). Weather explains high annual variation in butterfly dispersal. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, *283*, 20160413.
- Lemel, J.-Y., Belichon, S., Clobert, J., & Hochberg, M. E. (1997). The evolution of dispersal in a two-patch system: Some consequences of differences between migrants and residents. *Evolutionary Ecology*, *11*, 613–629.
- Morin, D. J., Fuller, A. K., Royle, A., & Sutherland, C. (2017). Model-based estimators of density and connectivity to inform conservation of spatially structured populations. *Ecosphere*, *8*, e01623.
- O'Riain, M. J., Jarvis, J. U. M., & Faulkes, C. G. (1996). A dispersive morph in the naked mole-rat. *Nature*, *380*, 619–621.
- Ozgul, A., Coulson, T., Reynolds, A., Cameron, T. C., & Benton, T. G. (2012). Population responses to perturbations: The importance of trait-based analysis illustrated through a microcosm experiment. *American Naturalist*, *179*, 582–594.
- Peterson, J. T., & Freeman, M. C. (2016). Integrating modelling, monitoring, and management to reduce critical uncertainties in water resource decision making. *Journal of Environmental Management*, *183*, 361–370.
- Phillips, B. L., Brown, G. P., Webb, J. K., & Shine, R. (2006). Invasion and the evolution of speed in toads. *Nature*, *439*, 803.
- R Core Team. (2013). *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing. <http://www.R-project.org/>
- Rees, M., Childs, D. Z., & Ellner, S. P. (2014). Building integral projection models: A user's guide. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, *83*, 528–545.
- Roff, D. A., & Fairbairn, D. J. (2001). The genetic basis of dispersal and migration, and its consequences for the evolution of correlated traits. In J. Clobert, E. Danchin, A. A. Dhondt, & J. D. Nichols (Eds.), *Dispersal* (pp. 191–202). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Ronce, O. (2007). How does it feel to be like a rolling stone? Ten questions about dispersal evolution. *Annual Review of Ecology Evolution and Systematics*, *38*, 231–253.
- Smallegange, I. M., Fernandes, R. E., & Croll, J. C. (2018). Population consequences of individual heterogeneity in life histories: Overcompensation in response to harvesting of alternative reproductive tactics. *Oikos*, *127*, 738–749.
- Soudijn, F. H., & Roos, A. M. (2017). Approximation of a physiologically structured population model with seasonal reproduction by a stage-structured biomass model. *Theoretical Ecology*, *10*, 73–90.
- Topping, C. J., Alrøe, H. F., Farrell, K. N., & Grimm, V. (2015). Per Aspera ad Astra: Through complex population modeling to predictive theory. *The American Naturalist*, *186*, 669–674.
- Travis, J. M. J., Delgado, M., Bocedi, G., Baguette, M., Barton, K., Bonte, D., ... Bullock, J. M. (2013). Dispersal and species' responses to climate change. *Oikos*, *122*, 1532–1540.
- Travis, J. M. J., & Dytham, C. (1999). Habitat persistence, habitat availability and the evolution of dispersal. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences*, *266*, 723–728.
- Travis, J. M. J., Mustin, K., Bartoń, K. A., Benton, T. G., Clobert, J., Delgado, M. M., ... Bonte, D. (2012). Modelling dispersal: An eco-evolutionary framework incorporating emigration, movement, settlement behaviour and the multiple costs involved. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, *3*, 628–641.

Zera, A. J., & Denno, R. F. (1997). Physiology and ecology of dispersal polymorphism in insects. *Annual Review of Entomology*, 42, 207–230.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

How to cite this article: Deere JA, van den Berg I, Roth G, Smallegange IM. A modeling exercise to show why population models should incorporate distinct life histories of dispersers. *Population Ecology*. 2021;63:134–144. <https://doi.org/10.1002/1438-390X.12074>