

3. QUESTIONING APPROACHES



3.1. Questioning approaches

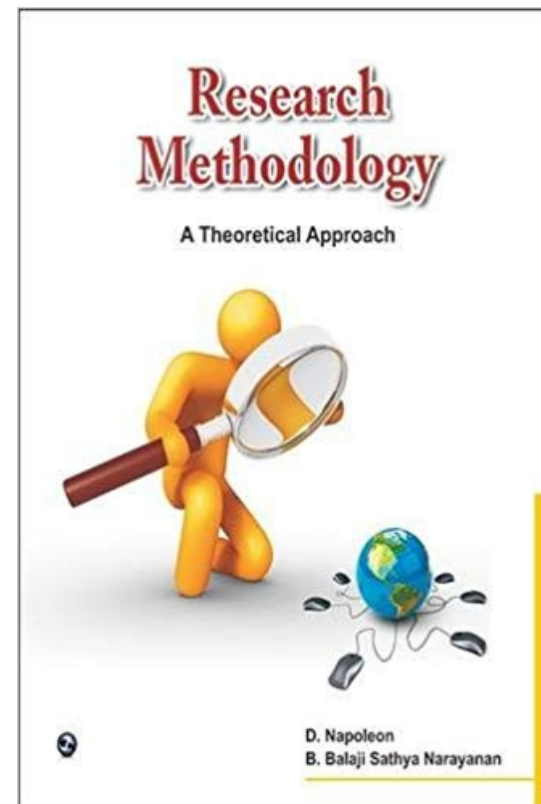
- How to determine the approaches and what you can learn?
- Answer: the questions you ask.
- Scientific investigation (activities): empirical¹ or theoretical² approaches.
- Approaches (broad) in Ecology: theoretical, empirical, and applied.

¹ based on what is experienced, on observation or seen rather than on theory;

² a hypothesis or opinion not based upon actual knowledge.

1. **Theoretical:** deals with the mathematical world ¹:

- can be inspired by real-world phenomena;
 - we do not need to gather /analyze the data from those phenomena.
- It is the physics of ecology: ².



¹ E.g. It is most useful for exploring what might be if we make certain mathematical assumptions.

It is the most prestigious part of the ecology:

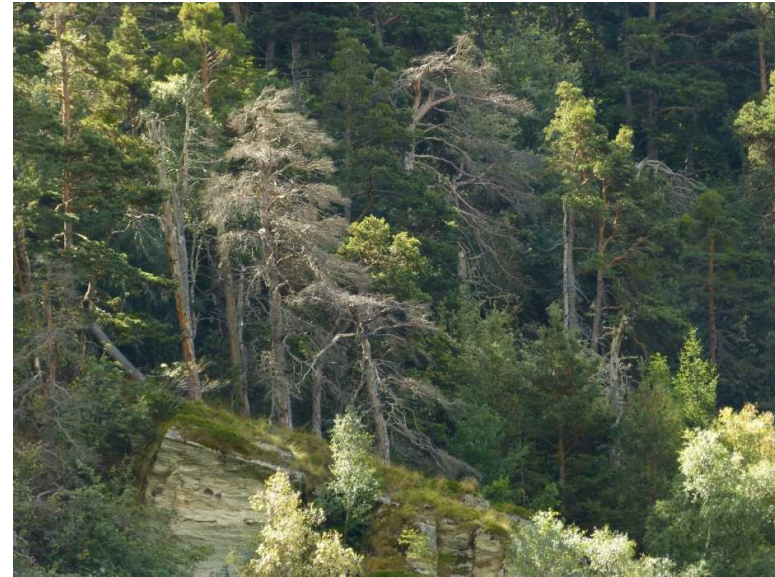
it involves elegant mathematics (1);

it does not get involved in all the complexities of real-world ecological systems (2);

² carries on in its own world and partly ignored by most of those working in the other two broad areas of ecology.

2. **Empirical**: trying to understand how the natural world works at the level of individuals, populations, communities and ecosystems ¹:

- the gathering /analysis of data from phenomena observed in the real world;
- purely observational field studies;
- hypothesis-driven lab exps., fieldwork or any other gathering of data.



Mortality in pine forests in the Valais, Switzerland (Photo: T. Thrippleton)
<http://www.fe.ethz.ch/en/research/stand-and-landscape-dynamics/>

¹ i.e. scientific method of **inquiry** and **observation** through **experiments**: it does not care about solving practical ecol. / environ. problems, but its assumed that the info. they provide will be **useful now** or in the **future**.

It **seeks** but rarely **finds** it because all individuals and species differ in how they play the ecol. game of survival.

The **details** of empirical ecology are **boring** to politicians, business people, etc.

3. **Applied:** real-world (usually management) questions.

- e.g. managing ecosystems for conservation;
- sustainable harvest;
- animal pest and weed control etc.



Applied Ecology

<https://www.mtu.edu/gradschool/programs/degrees/applied-ecology/>

➤ An applied ecologist: a conservation biologist, a forester, or an agricultural scientist ².

² It is about **solving real** world **problems**, e.g. declining **populations** and **extinctions** of plants and animals; climate **change**; the impacts of climate change on ecosystems, etc.

3.2. *Methods in Ecology: observation*

Observation of patterns;
Manipulative experiments;
Modeling (model building).

1. Observation:

- essential in natural ecosystems ¹;
- absolutely necessary ².



Plant survey:
<https://www.intechopen.com/chapters/46032>



<https://www.pitzer.edu>

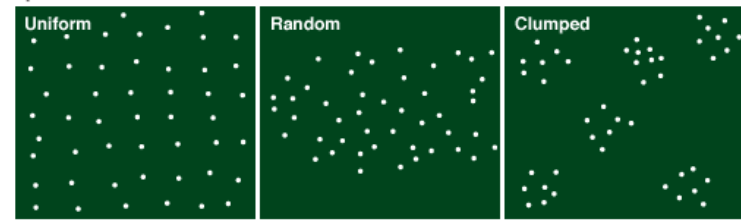
- You need thoroughly observe your system with no manipulation before exp. start.

¹ provide us with **factors** and **processes**; allow us to **generate** hypotheses and to **test** models;

² to provide the **insights** for making good **experiment** and **models**.

- Continue to monitor your system ¹, even after you have set up your manipulations.

Spatial Distribution Patterns

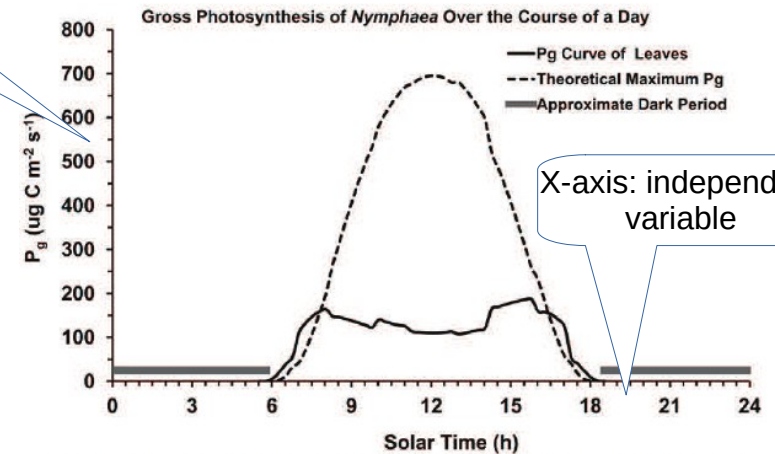


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- Keeping a field *notebook* may help you with observations ².

Y-axis: dependent variable

- To observe and quantify a **pattern** in nature is an excellent way to begin an exp. ³.



X-axis: independent variable

R. J Ritchie, Photosynthesis in the Blue Water Lily (*Nymphaea caerulea* Saligny) using PAM fluorometry, 2012, Int. J. of Plant Sci., 173(2):124-136

¹ the natural variation;

² it is difficult to remember the details you observe, even those if they do not seem relevant, often later on some of them may be unexpectedly valuable;

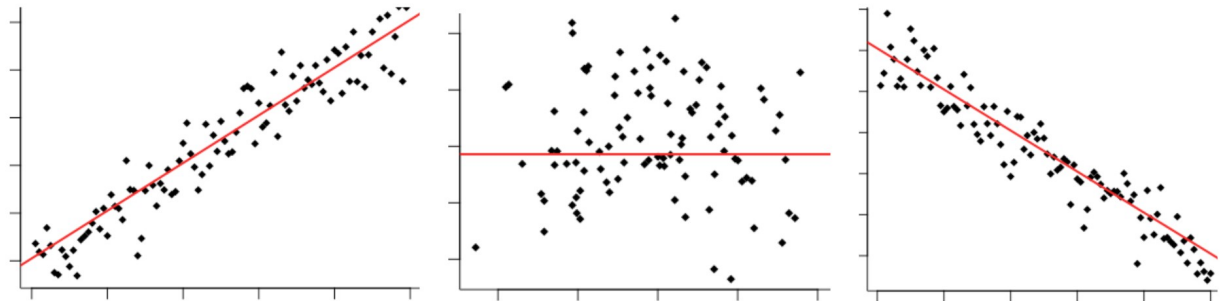
³ e.g. it is often helpful to represent the **pattern** as a **figure** with one variable on the x-axis and the other on the y-axis.

If, e.g., the relationship appeared linear /'lɪniə/, an experiment with two levels of independent variable may be appropriate.

e.g. if the number of pollinators and seed set is linear; an exp. with and without pollinators is relevant.

If, e.g., the relationship is nonlinear, an experiment with two levels of e.g. of pollinators will be not so informative as an exp. with many levels, i.e. level 1, 2, etc.

- Observation (in some cases) may even replace exps. to gain ecol. understanding due to:
 - many processes are difficult to manipulate;
 - important ecol. processes often occur at large scales;
 - some ecol. processes are simply hard to manipulate in any realistic way;
 - in some cases an exp. is problematic;
 - extrapolation of results from small-, to larger-scale is difficult to justify.
- Limitations: observation can be applied to test hypotheses, but not enough to establish causality /kɔ:'zali:ti/.¹



Positive correlation, zero correlation, negative correlation. <https://medium.freecodecamp.org>

¹ In fact correlation implies causation, but we cannot infer the direction of **causation** kô 'zāSHən without some scientific “spy, or track”.

e.g. a correlation between **SOM** and tree cover could be due to trees preferring organic soils, or leaf litter contributing to **SOM**, or another variable simultaneously affecting tree distributions and **OM**.

3.3. *Methods in Ecology: manipulative experiments*

- ME: vary only one thing (factor, or at most a few) ¹.
- The experimenter controls that variable ²;
- The effect ³ can be done by statistical tests.



Setting up controlled study on a rocky shore

<https://www.biosch.hku.hk/ecology/porcupine>

¹ the word “experiment” refers not only to manipulative **experiments**; an experiment is a series of observations **intentionally** planned to address a scientific question;

² i.e. any **responses** can be contributed to the **manipulation** (if an exp. has been set up properly, i.e. treatments assigned **randomly** to each replicate);

³ whether caused by **chance** or by the **manipulation**.

Examples of Manipulative Experiments on Forest Trees.

Left: Whole-tree warming experiment to measure carbon uptake and release in eastern Australia.

Right: Experimental branch warming experiment to measure phenological responses at the Tomakomai canopy crane site, Japan



<https://www.researchgate.net>

Trends in Ecology & Evolution

ME can help to establish *causality*.

- ME take *time*¹ and are not always *possible*³.

¹ often we need ecol. info. *now* (or yesterday);

³ e.g. *ethical* concern keep us from conducting exp. on *rare* species.

3.4. *Methods in Ecology: model building*

- *Modeling*: attempts to generalize (to distill) the cogent /kəʊdʒ(ə)nt/ factors/processes that produce the community pattern ¹ we observe.

Why model?

- Abstractions of real world system or process;
- Help to define problems more precisely and concepts more clearly;
- Provide approach for analyzing observation data, providing statistical inference, communicating results;
- Allow for predictions.

¹ e.g. the behaviors, population dynamics.

- Models: general or specific.
- GM helps us to formulate the logical links between variables ¹.
- SM uses measured parameters and allows us to make prediction ².

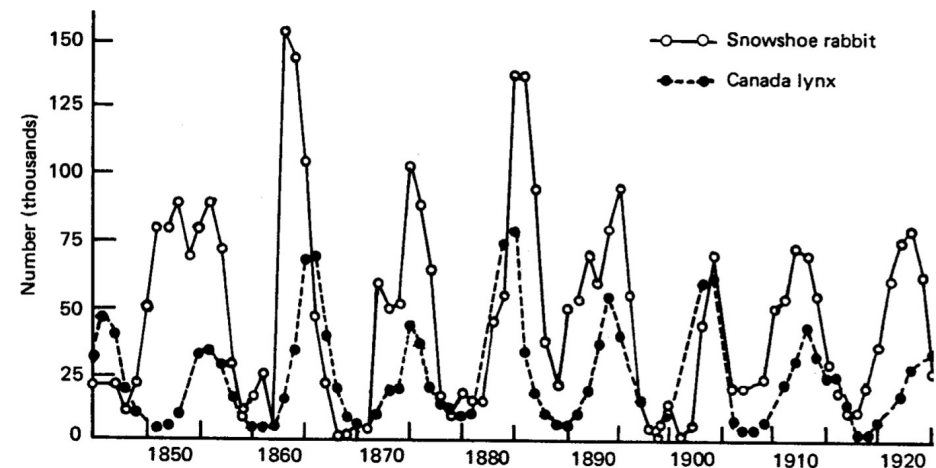


A. Lotka



V. Volterra

Numbers of snowshoe hare and Canada lynx furs sold to the Hudson's Bay Company. Canada lynxes eat snowshoe hares (From E.P. Odum, Fundamentals of Ecology, 1953) <https://math.libretexts.org>. The Lotka-Volterra Predator-Prey Model



¹ simulation or process-based models, i.e. can simulate the process or dynamics over time: model's conclusions can be applied to a wide range of real-life systems (it captures some basic essence that applies to many possible systems);

² analytic (correlative) models, relatively simple (often linear) systems, can be described by a set of equations. Due to limited data availability may be possible only for a limited number of subjects (ecosystems, communities, or species).

- Good SM can allow develop new hypotheses about how nature works (and how to manage ecosystem) ¹.
- Often, the consequences /results are well known and very visible, while the processes that caused those results are more difficult to asses.



¹ E.g. white-tailed deer (північний олень, right) colonized Atlantic Canada and replaced caribou (олень білохвостий, left). Efforts to reestablish caribou have failed. The hypothesis for caribou decline was competition for food resources.

This, however, was not supported by data and it is appeared that mortality to caribou was caused by a sheared parasite, a meningeal worm.

Deer are the usual host for the worm, they are much more tolerant of infection than caribou.

The both deer and caribou ingest snails, which are intermediate host for the worms.

More deer, more shared parasites and less caribou (Bergerud & Mercer, 1989).

3.5. *Noninvasive and nondestructive observations in ecology*

- NIN and NDS observations of entire system may help to understand who the players are and how they interact with one other ¹.
- Ecologist like to manipulate their system. Why?
- The investigator disturbs the system and can observe **effect** and **cause**.
- Understanding **cause** and **effect** is critical, powerful and difficult.

¹ In other words who's doing what?
Nothing more can be obtained.

- Observations only allow us to make conclusion based on correlations.
- Correlations almost always *implies* **causation**, but by itself, cannot *resolve which* of the two correlated variables might have *caused* the other ¹.
- MEs are very powerful tool to establish cause and effect.
- It is easier to get exp. work published than if you doing studies relying on observations and correlations.

¹ e.g. homeless population and crime rate might be correlated. You can say that homeless population is correlated with crime rate, or crime rate is correlated with homeless population, which are different statements, and correlation does not imply that either is true.

For instance, the underlying cause could be a 3rd variable such as drug abuse, or unemployment.

- Exps. are limited by initial intuition and by scale and realism.
- Observations can provide the intuition to design exp. and provide info. over larger areas and longer time than an exp..

3.6. *Independent and dependent variable in an experiment*

- Independent (manipulated): represents a quantity that is being manipulated in an exp.¹.
- We choose an independent variable based on the hypothesis /idea we want to test. Why?
- We believe it may have some effect on (be a cause of) the process we are studying.
- **x** is often the variable used to represent the independent variable in an equation.

¹ the one that we vary in an exp., and we have control over; a variable is something you're trying to measure, it can be anything: objects, amounts of time, events etc,

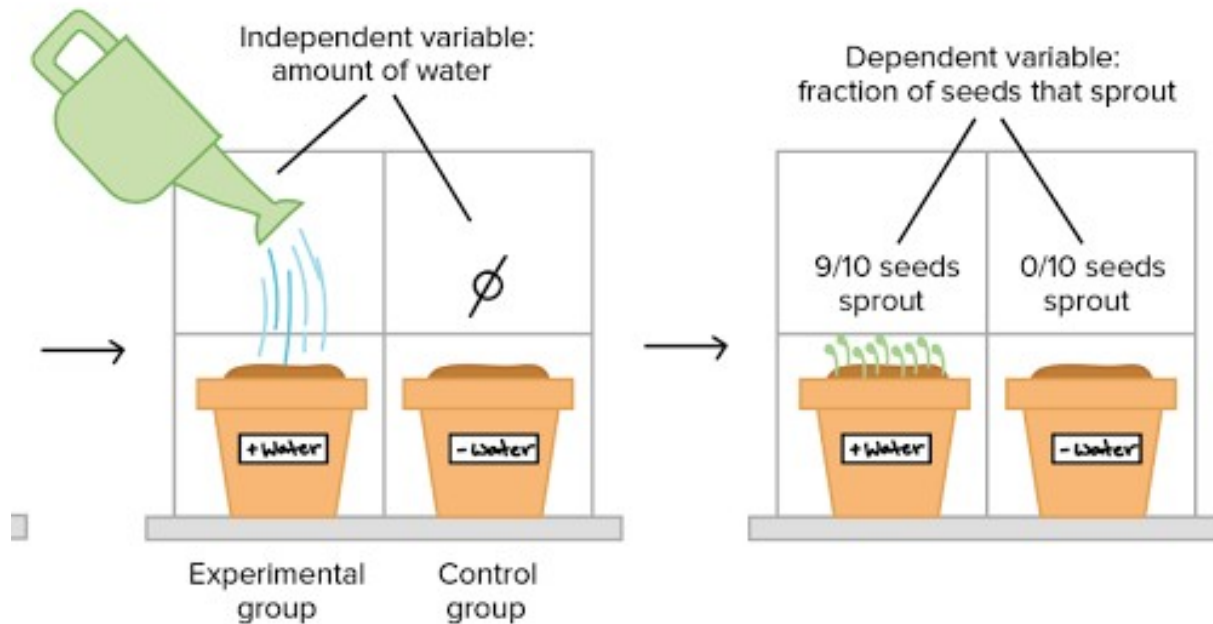
the independent variable has just two values: one for the experimental condition (treatment) and one for the control condition. (a baseline against which we compare the effects of the treatment).

- Dependent (responding): a quantity whose value depends on how the independent variable is manipulated ¹.
- It is a response / responses that the subject makes ².
- We chose it to measure. Why?
- We believed that it reflects the process the independent variable is supposed to affect.
- **y** is often the variable used to represent the dependent variable in an equation.

¹ e.g. in the case of a poor performance of a student in an examination, the independent variables can be the factors like the student not attending classes regularly, poor memory, etc., and these will reflect the grade of the student i.e. the dependent variable is the test score of the student;

² response - the outcome being measured.

- All other variables must be kept the same throughout the investigation; they should be controlled.
- Those are called controlled variables.



Adapted from: <https://www.khanacademy.org/>