

Interconnections accelerate collapse in a socio-ecological metapopulation

Zachary Dockstader¹, Chris T. Bauch¹, and Madhur Anand^{2*}

¹University of Waterloo, Department of Applied Mathematics, Waterloo, N2L 3G1, Canada

²University of Guelph, School of Environmental Sciences, Guelph, N1G 2W1, Canada

*manand@uoguelph.ca

ABSTRACT

Resource over-exploitation can have profound effects on both ecosystems and the human populations residing in them. Models of population growth based on a depletable resources have been studied previously, but relatively few consider metapopulation effects. Here we analyze a socio-ecological metapopulation model where resources grow logistically on each patch. Each population harvests resources on its own patch to support population growth, but can also harvest resources from other patches when their own patch resources become scarce. We find that allowing populations to harvest from other patches significantly accelerates collapse and also increases the parameter regime for which collapse occurs, compared to a model where populations are not able to harvest resources from other patches. As the number of patches in the metapopulation increases, collapse is more sudden, more severe, and occurs sooner. These effects also persist under scenarios of asymmetry and inequality between patches. We conclude that metapopulation effects in socio-ecological systems can be both helpful and harmful and therefore require urgent study.

Manuscript version from 19 September 2017.

1. Background

Simple population dynamic models have long been used in theoretical population biology, beginning with the logistic growth model developed by Verhulst [1]:

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = rN \left(1 - \frac{N}{K} \right),$$

where $N(t)$ is the population size at time t , r is the net growth rate, and K is the carrying capacity. This model represents resource-limited population growth reaching a carrying capacity K that is the largest population size that the resources of the environment can support. The logistic growth model and various extensions thereof are richly represented in the ecological literature and have been used as a framework to study population dynamics in a variety of species [2, 3, 4].

Other literature has extended single population models to study metapopulation dynamics. A metapopulation is a collection of spatially distributed populations all belonging to the same species [5]. Metapopulation models provide important insight into interactions of connected populations. Previous research on metapopulations has identified phenomena such as the rescue effect and extinction debt. In a rescue effect, the local extinction of a population is prevented due to immigration of a neighboring population residing in the same metapopulation [6]. In contrast, extinction debt refers to an effect whereby destruction of a natural habitat has not only immediate impacts on populations, but also creates a ‘debt’ effect whereby future extinctions will occur as well long after habitat destruction has ceased [7].

Although population growth models such as the logistic growth model have arguably found their fullest expression in ecology, Verhulst developed his model for application to human populations and he inferred the model’s parameter values using population data from Belgium and other countries. This interest in human populations may have been due to the influence of Thomas Malthus and his work ‘An Essay on the Principle of Population’, which is well known for its hypothesis that famine and poverty are mathematically inevitable [8].

Malthus continues to influence our thought in a time of severe global over-consumption and resource depletion. Resource depletion has been conceptualized and quantified in various ways. For instance, recent literature identifies seven planetary boundaries that must not be transgressed if humans are able to live

24 sustainably on the planet, and finds that three of these boundaries have already been transgressed [9].

25 More recently, researchers have introduced frameworks to describe the process by which over-
26 consumption occurs. For instance, the red/green sustainability framework describes how populations
27 become increasingly disconnected from their impacts as they urbanize [10]. In a ‘green’ phase, popula-
28 tions are highly dependent on their local environment for their subsistence, and therefore feedback from
29 environmental implications of human activity are quick to down-regulate the human activity. However, as
30 populations develop and draw their resources from a global resource pool, their economic activities cause
31 environmental impacts that are no longer felt by them but rather by geographically distant populations,
32 weakening the short-term coupling between humans and their environment. This process is captured
33 by, for instance, the linkages between local deforestation and high pressure for international agricultural
34 exports [11], and the large dependence seafood markets in Japan, the United States, and the European
35 Union on foreign sources [12].

36 Although logistic growth models and its variations are most widely used in ecology, the application of
37 population growth models to resource-limited human populations has also received attention, perhaps on
38 account of our growing awareness of the possible ramifications of resource over-exploitation, especially in
39 the face of environmental change [13]. Mathematical models have been used to study phenomena such as
40 human population collapse in a model with resource dynamics [14] and conflict among metapopulations
41 arising over common resources [15, 16]. Models have also been used to study historical human population
42 collapses such as in the people of Easter Island [17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27], the Kayenta
43 Anasazi [28], and the Andean Tiwanaku civilization [29], as well as collapse of modern populations
44 [30, 31, 32, 33].

45 With some exceptions [15, 16, 27, 34], most previous research on resource-limited population growth
46 focuses on single populations and not on multi-population interactions. However, multi-population interac-
47 tions through trade and other mechanisms are an inescapable feature of the world’s human metapopulation
48 dynamic, and can have significant impacts on ecosystems and resource levels [35]. The literature on
49 multi-population interactions has explored meta-population models involving migration of individuals
50 between patches [28], or competing populations conflicting and bargaining over a common resource
51 [15, 16]. A multi-patch model of human populations fitted to data from Easter Island has predicted

52 that coupling human populations together through exchange of resources, migration and technology can
53 stabilize the entire metapopulation [27].

54 In this paper we build on a previous single population model [18] to create a metapopulation model
55 of resource-limited growth that captures mechanisms similar to the red/green sustainability framework.
56 Populations grow logistically by exploiting a depletable resource that obeys a resource dynamic. Local
57 populations can take resources not only from their own patch but also from other patches, when resources
58 in their own patch become scarce. Our research objective was to determine whether the metapopulation
59 collapses faster or more often when patches are allowed to harvest resources from other patches. We
60 describe the model in the next section, followed by Results and a Discussion section.

61 2. Model

62 We build on a previous single-population model analyzed by Basener and Ross [18] who formulated a
63 model whereby the population grows logistically to a carrying capacity that is proportional to the resource
64 level. A second equation describes the logistic growth of resources to a separate carrying capacity, minus
65 harvesting. We develop both two-patch and ten-patch versions of our model.

66 Two-patch model

67 In the two-patch model, patch 1 has population size P_1 and resource level R_1 , and patch 2 has population
68 size P_2 and resource level R_2 :

$$\frac{dP_1}{dt} = a_1 P_1 \left(1 - \frac{P_1}{R_1 + b_1 R_2} \right) \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{dR_1}{dt} = c_1 R_1 \left(1 - \frac{R_1}{K_1} \right) - h_1 P_1 - b_2 h_2 P_2 \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{dP_2}{dt} = a_2 P_2 \left(1 - \frac{P_2}{R_2 + b_2 R_1} \right) \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{dR_2}{dt} = c_2 R_2 \left(1 - \frac{R_2}{K_2} \right) - h_2 P_2 - b_1 h_1 P_1 \quad (4)$$

69 where $a_{1,2}$ is the growth rate of patch 1 (resp. 2); $c_{1,2}$ is the resource renewal rate in patch 1 (resp. 2); $K_{1,2}$
70 is the carrying capacity of the depletable resource in patch 1 (resp. 2); $h_{1,2}$ is the baseline harvesting rate
71 at which patch 1 (resp. patch 2) harvests resources for its population's consumption; b_1 is the proportion

72 of resources that patch 1 takes from patch 2, and similarly for b_2 . In this model, the carrying capacity of
 73 the human populations is determined by how much resource is available to support them, either from their
 74 own patch or taken from the other patch. When $b_1 = b_2 = 0$ we recover the original model by Basener
 75 and Ross [18].

76 We set $b_1 = b_1(R_1, P_1)$ and assume that patch 1 will attempt to harvest more resources from patch
 77 2 when the resources from patch 1 are not enough to support the patch 1 population. Similarly, $b_2 =$
 78 $b_2(R_2, P_2)$. These functions take the form

$$b_1(R_1, P_1) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{(\beta_1 - \gamma_1 P_1/R_1)}} \quad (5)$$

$$b_2(R_2, P_2) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{(\beta_2 - \gamma_2 P_2/R_2)}} \quad (6)$$

79 These are sigmoidal functions where the rate at which patch 1 harvests from patch 2 is higher when P_1/R_1
 80 is higher, and *vice versa*, where $\beta_1 > 0$ controls the location of the mid-point of the sigmoid, and where
 81 $\gamma_1 > 0$ controls how steep the curve is. Parameters β_2 and γ_2 are similarly defined.

82 Ten-patch model

83 We also analyzed a version of the model where ten patches are interconnected and can take resources from
 84 one another. The dynamics of patch i in the ten-patch model are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dP_i}{dt} &= a_i P_i \left(1 - \frac{P_i}{R_i + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{10} b_j R_j} \right) \\ \frac{dR_i}{dt} &= c_i R_i \left(1 - \frac{R_i}{K_i} \right) - h_i P_i - \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{10} b_j h_j P_j \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

85 where parameter definitions are the same as in the two-patch case.

86 Baseline parameter values

87 The baseline values of our parameters appear in Table 1. The population growth rate $a_{1,2}$ was estimated
 88 by historical world population growth rates [36]. The resource growth rate $c_{1,2}$ was taken as the average
 89 increase in crop yield since 1961 [37]. The values of the harvesting efficiency $h_{1,2}$ and carrying capacity

| Symbol | Definition | Value | Source |
|----------------|---|-------------|------------|
| $a_{1,2}$ | Population 1,2 net growth rate | 0.0177/year | [36] |
| $c_{1,2}$ | Resource growth rate in patch 1, 2 | 0.015/year | [37] |
| $h_{1,2}$ | Harvesting efficiency of population 1, 2 | 0.008/year | calibrated |
| $K_{1,2}$ | Carrying capacity of resources in patch 1, 2 | 1,000,000 | calibrated |
| $\beta_{1,2}$ | Controls location of the mid-point of the sigmoid for population 1, 2 | 3.5 | calibrated |
| $\gamma_{1,2}$ | Controls steepness of the sigmoid for population 1, 2 | 5 | calibrated |

Table 1. Baseline model parameter values.

90 of the resources $K_{1,2}$ were calibrated so that the populations would begin with enough resources to survive
 91 for several centuries regardless of their rates of resource use, and so their harvesting efficiency was high
 92 enough that there were consequences to over-exploitation but not high enough to make resource use
 93 incredibly costly. At these parameter values, the population size of a single patch grows to 650,000 and
 94 then declines somewhat to an equilibrium population size of 480,000 over a timescale of several hundred
 95 years.

96 The parameters controlling the midpoint and steepness of the sigmoid function (β and γ) were obtained
 97 through calibration by analyzing the effect they had on how much and when the populations would take
 98 from neighboring populations. To calibrate β , our intention was that the populations did not take much
 99 from neighbors when they were not in need. In contrast, they would take more when their resources began
 100 to dwindle and neighbour's resources were needed to survive. To calibrate γ we choose a value such
 101 that the switch between these two described states was relatively gradual. In particular, we required β_i
 102 and γ_i to satisfy the property that if $P_i/R_i = 1/2$ and thus resources were abundant, then b_i was roughly
 103 25%, whereas if $P_i/R_i = 1$, indicating a situation where a shortage of resources was beginning to become
 104 worrisome, then b_i would be greater than 75%.

105 Initial conditions were $P_1(0) = 50,000$, $P_2(0) = 50,000$, $R_1(0) = 1,000,000$, and $R_2(0) = 1,000,000$.
 106 These initial conditions corresponded to two populations with relatively low starting population levels and
 107 with initially abundant resources at carrying capacity in their respective patches.

108 We solved the model equations numerically using the adaptive fourth-fifth order Runge Kutta method
 109 implemented via Matlab's ODE45 solver. The code can be found on Github [38]. We compared model
 110 dynamics for both interconnected and isolated versions of the two-patch and ten-patch models to determine

111 the impact of interconnectedness on the likelihood and timing of collapse.

112 We explored the sensitivity of model predictions to parameter variations away from the baseline
113 parameter values. In this process we considered two different scenarios for parameter variations. In most
114 figures, populations were always assumed symmetric and had identical parameter values, but some figures
115 explore the case of asymmetric populations where the two populations differ in one parameter value.

116 **3. Results**

117 **3.1. Baseline Scenario**

118 The baseline scenario was simulated for both the interconnected ($b_1, b_2 > 0$) and isolated ($b_1 = b_2 = 0$)
119 versions of the model. In the interconnected baseline scenario (Fig. 1), the populations begin a nearly
120 exponential increase in their population growth (Fig. 1a) as they quickly reduce their local resources
121 (Fig. 1b). This decrease in local resources causes the populations to begin taking resources from their
122 neighboring patch to continue supporting their population (Fig. 1d). This results in greater resource
123 availability (Fig. 1c) which stimulates further unsustainable population growth. Once the resources of
124 both patches are strongly depleted, both populations collapse.

125 In contrast to the interconnected case, both populations achieve sustainability in the isolated case
126 at baseline parameter values (Fig. 1). Much like the interconnected scenario, the population of both
127 civilizations grow very quickly, reaching a peak and then beginning to decline (Fig. 1a). However,
128 instead of complete extinction of the population, the population decline begins to slow as the system
129 reaches a steady state in which the population and resources equilibrate at an intermediate level, achieving
130 sustainability.

131 Dynamics in the 10-patch model amplify the trends in dynamics observed in the 2-patch model. The
132 initial increase in population size is much more rapid, but the following collapse happens much sooner and
133 is much more sudden than in the 2-patch model (Fig. 1a). Collapse occurs after 159 years in the 10-patch
134 model compared to the 289 years in the 2-patch model. Resources are depleted much more rapidly in the
135 10-patch model (Fig. 1b-d).

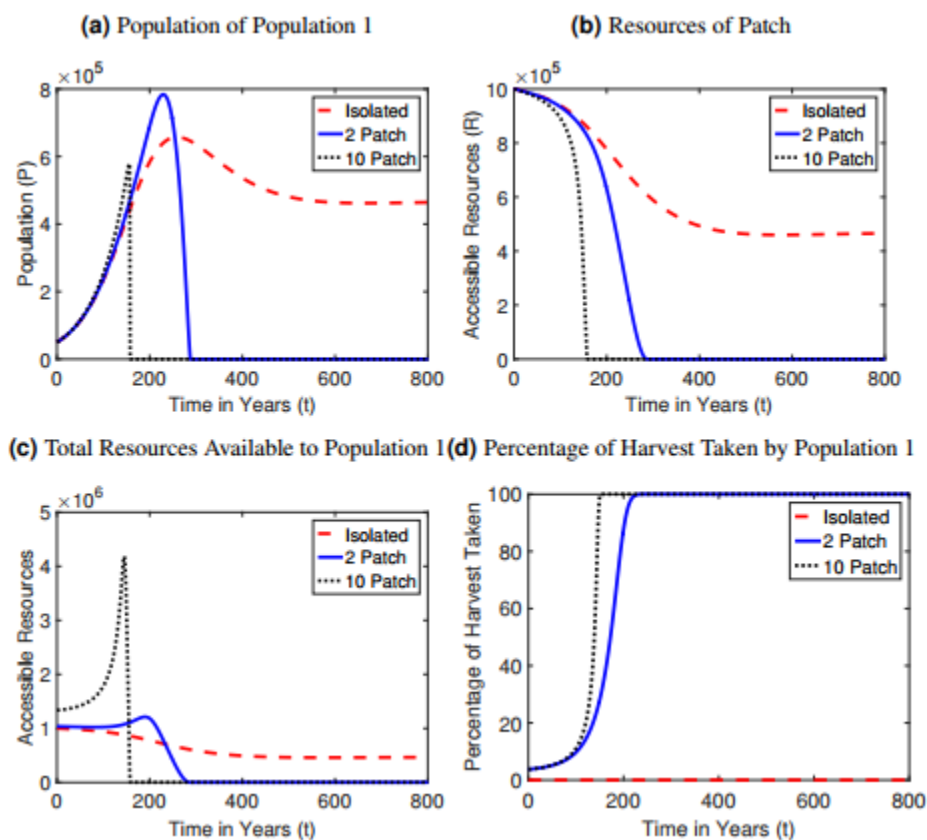


Figure 1. Model dynamics at baseline parameter values for the isolated, interconnected, and 10 population scenarios for (a) population size P_1 of patch 1, (b) resource availability R_1 in patch 1, (c) total resources available to population 1, and (d) percentage of harvest of patch 2 taken by population 1. Results for population 2 and patch 2 are symmetrical.

136 3.2. Time to collapse

137 We also studied how the time to collapse depends on parameter values for the isolated and interconnected
 138 scenarios. Time to collapse was defined as the time elapsed until the populations of both patches reaches
 139 zero ($P_{1,2} < 10^{-7}$). We generated plots showing the time to collapse versus a single parameter, with all
 140 other parameter values held constant at their baseline values (Fig. 2,3). By doing so, we obtain an idea
 141 of whether the more rapid collapse of interconnected systems compared to isolated systems is robust
 142 to changes in model parameter values, and which parameter values are most influential in determining
 143 collapse.

144 Across a broad range of parameter values, time to collapse in the interconnected case is much shorter,
 145 demonstrating that the interconnection of the two populations is detrimental to the stability of the system
 146 (Fig. 2, 3). The isolated case is more resilient to collapse, as we see that the model often survives

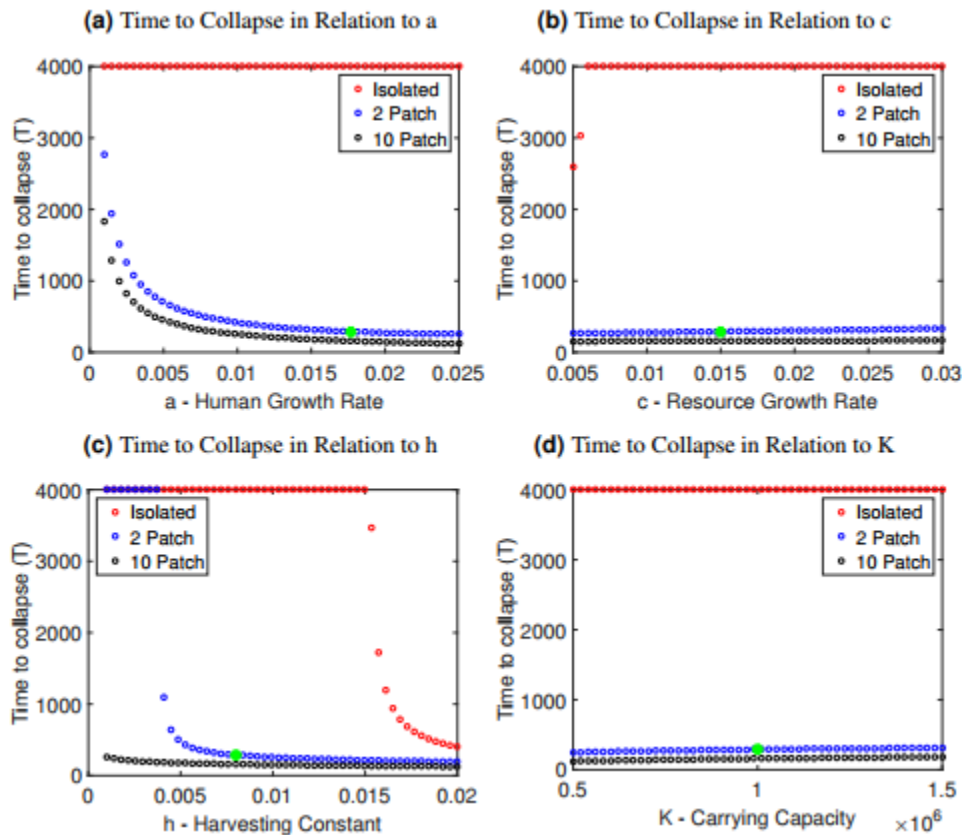


Figure 2. Time to collapse for the isolated and interconnected cases as it depends on changes in (a) the human growth rate a , (b) the resource growth rate c , (c) the harvesting constant h and (d) the carrying capacity K . The parameter along the horizontal axes was changed for both patches, thus preserving symmetry. A green star has been included in each graph to indicate the value of the parameter in the baseline scenario.

147 indefinitely in all cases except when the harvesting constant or resource growth rate are changed drastically
 148 relative to the baseline values (Fig. 2b, c). This is in contrast to the interconnected case, where nearly
 149 all parameter choices for the human growth rate a , the resource growth rate c , the harvesting constant
 150 h and the carrying capacity K lead to collapse. Collapse occurs more rapidly when the human growth
 151 rate a or the harvesting constant h are increased, since both scenarios correspond to populations growing
 152 unsustainably quickly (a) or exploiting their resources unsustainably quickly (h). Interestingly, it is
 153 relatively independent of the carrying capacity K and the resource growth rate c . Therefore in this system,
 154 increasing carrying capacity (K) by boosting yield by, or increasing the ability of the resource to replenish
 155 itself (r) has relatively little effect in delaying the collapse.

156 The more rapid collapse observed in the 10-patch model compared to the 2-patch model (Fig. 1) is

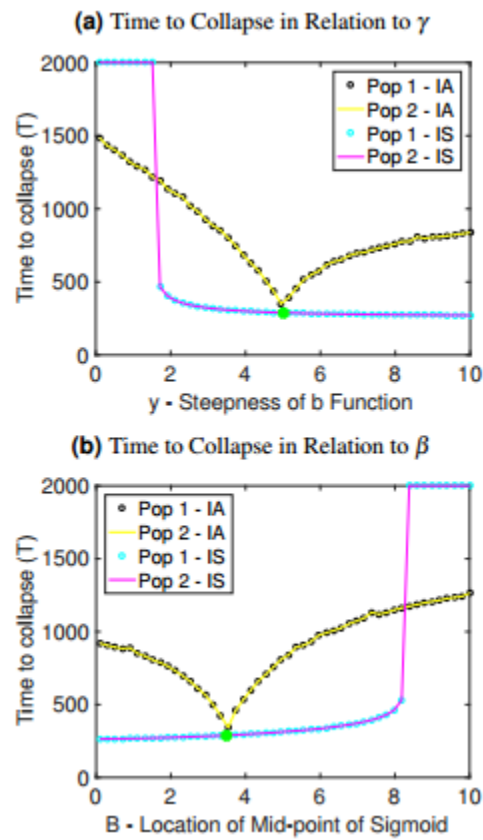


Figure 3. Time to collapse for the isolated and interconnected cases as it depends on changes in (a) the steepness of sigmoidal function γ , (b) the midpoint of sigmoidal function β . A green and yellow star have been included in each graph to indicate the value of the parameter in the baseline scenario of the interconnected case and isolated case, respectively. IS denotes interconnected symmetric, wherein the parameter along the horizontal axes was changed for both patches, thus preserving symmetry, while IA denotes interconnected asymmetric, wherein the parameter values for population 1 was changed while the parameter values for population 2 was held constant at its baseline value.

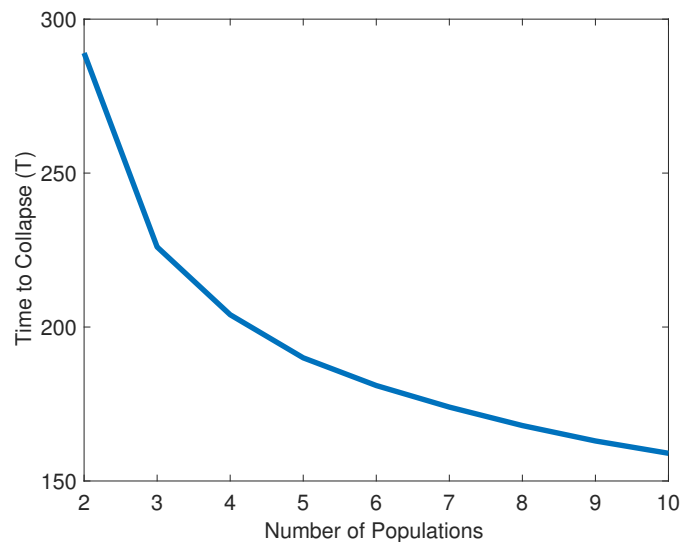


Figure 4. Time to collapse versus number of populations included in model. Baseline parameter values were used (Table 1).

157 also robust under these parameter variations (Fig. 2). As the number of populations increases from 2 to 10,
158 the time to collapse declines with the number of populations (Fig. 4).

159 The observed relationships between time to collapse and interconnectedness are also preserved under
160 variation in parameters controlling the rate at which one patch harvests resources from another patch:
161 β , which controls the midpoint location in the sigmoidal function, and γ , which controls the steepness
162 of the sigmoidal function (Fig. 3). When γ is increased, the switch to harvesting from other patches
163 happens more quickly, causing more rapid collapse (Fig. 3a). Interestingly, if γ is sufficiently low
164 (meaning the sigmoidal function transitions smoothly), then collapse does not occur. Hence, if populations
165 transition more gradually to harvesting from other patches, collapse can be avoided. When β is decreased,
166 populations begin harvesting from other patches earlier and more intensely, causing more rapid collapse
167 (Fig. 3b).

168 The case of asymmetric parameter variation is also considered in Fig. 3 to provide a contrast with our
169 baseline assumption of symmetric parameter values. As the value of γ is increased for only one of the
170 populations while the value of γ for the other population is held constant, the time to collapse decreases
171 for both populations until it reaches a minimum at the baseline value, and then starts to increase again
172 (Fig. 3a). Similarly, if β is increased for only one of the populations, time to collapse decreases until
173 it reaches the baseline value but then increases again (Fig. 3b). This suggests that heterogeneity in the

174 metapopulation may stave off collapse.

175 **3.3. Parameter planes**

176 By varying two parameters at one time and holding all others constant at their baseline values, we can
177 understand parameter combinations that lead to collapse or survival under the isolated and interconnected
178 scenarios. It is evident from these parameter planes that the isolated case of the model is far less prone to
179 collapse over the same ranges of parameter values. Collapse occurs for a much wider part of the parameter
180 plane under the interconnected symmetric case than under the isolated case (electronic supplementary
181 material, Figure S1). In contrast to the baseline parameter values, we observe parameter regimes in the
182 interconnected symmetric case where increasing the resource growth rate c can move the populations into
183 a region of sustainability. Introducing asymmetry to the parameter plans, such that the two parameter
184 values for one population are varied while the parameter values for the other population are held at baseline
185 values, we observe that sustainability is a more frequent outcome than in the symmetric case, but occurs
186 less frequently than in the isolated case (electronic supplementary material, Figure S1).

187 **3.4. Impact of Inequality**

188 To observe the effect of inequality on system dynamics, we created an additional scenario involving two
189 unequal populations. Population 1 has a higher starting population size, population growth rate, resource
190 growth rate and harvesting efficiency, but a lower carrying capacity than population 2, which has more
191 resources but a lower starting population size and growth rate. Population 1 is also more prone to take
192 resources from population 2 than *vice versa*. The inequality scenario was simulated with and without
193 interconnections. Parameter values can be found in electronic supplementary material, Table S1 and the
194 initial conditions were $P_1(0)=50,000$, $P_2(0)=25,000$, $R_1(0) = 250,000$, $R_2(0)=1,000,000$.

195 In the interconnected case (electronic supplementary material, Figure S2), population 1 grows relatively
196 quickly (Fig. S2a), reaching their maximum population size nearly 100 years before population 2. In the
197 process, they exhaust all of their resources early in the simulation (Fig. S2b). However, this causes very
198 little disturbance to population 1 since there is only a small, nearly non-existent, decrease in population
199 size at the time of resource depletion. This is due to their early dependence on population 2's resources
200 (Fig. S2g) dampening the effect that over-exploitation has on their own population. After this point, both

201 populations continue to consume population 2's resources (Fig. S2d) until the inevitable depletion, causing
202 both populations to collapse.

203 In the corresponding isolated but unequal case (electronic supplementary material, Figure S3), the
204 outcomes are very different. Population 2 begins a similar population increase as in the interconnected
205 case, but the population avoids complete collapse and instead recovers to a stable state (Figure S3c).
206 However, population 1 grows unsustainably, over-depletes their resource, and collapses (Fig. S3a,b).
207 Hence, for these parameter values, we observe that the dichotomy between outcomes in the isolated and
208 interconnected scenario persists when the two populations are unequal.

209 4. Discussion

210 In this paper we extended a simple population model where a population harvests a depletable resource to
211 a metapopulation setting where a population patch can also harvest resources from other patches when
212 their own resources run low. We showed how the populations collapse faster and for a broader range of
213 parameter values when patches are allowed to harvest resources from other patches. As the number of
214 patches increases, the effect is amplified.

215 Interconnections accelerate collapse in this model because the ability to harvest resources from other
216 patches enables populations to access a larger resource pool. Consequently, the populations are able to
217 grow at a very rapid rate, compared to the case where patches are isolated from one another. Each patch
218 population size grows beyond what is sustainable using only the resources in a single patch, and this causes
219 rapid collapse as the resources disappear and all patches are left with unsustainably high populations. This
220 mechanism operates even when the net resource growth rate $c_{1,2}$ parameter exceeds the net population
221 growth rate parameter $a_{1,2}$. Collapse remains possible in the isolated scenario, but the smaller available
222 resource pools tend to prevent it.

223 This effect was robust under a wide range of parameter variation. We also found that asymmetry in
224 parameter values between the two patches does not change the qualitative results, but does tend to stave
225 off collapse. We speculate that models with greater heterogeneity (such that each patch has a unique set of
226 parameter values) might replicate this feature, but we leave this for future work. We furthermore found
227 that collapse can occur in a scenario of inequality between the two patches, although we did not test the

228 robustness of this finding to parameter variation.

229 In some respects, our model embodies some of the ideas of “red and green loop” dynamics as
230 introduced by Cumming et al [10]. Populations in our model can depend on resources harvested non-
231 locally, such that the population is buffered from the implications of their harvesting activities in the short
232 term. Thus, in the interconnected case, populations are in a red loop regime. As the population transitions
233 to relying on the resources of other patches as its own resources are depleted, the red loop progresses to a
234 red trap corresponding to collapse of both populations in the interconnected scenario. In comparison, in
235 the isolated case, populations are much more dependent on their local resources and feel the impacts of
236 their harvesting choices immediately: a green loop regime.

237 Our model makes simplifying assumptions that may influence its predictions. For instance, due to
238 the structure of our sigmoidal function governing cross-patch harvesting and in particular the assumed
239 dependence of cross-patch harvesting on P_i/R_i , patches tend to collapse simultaneously when R_i becomes
240 small. Moreover, patches cannot prevent cross-patch harvesting. In reality, effective institutions (where
241 they exist) would be able to prevent cross-patch harvesting through legislation and this might have the
242 effect of preventing collapse from spreading to all patches. Future work could study the effects of
243 retaining a portion of local resources for the native patch’s exclusive use. Similarly, allowing migration
244 of individuals as well as cross-patch harvesting could influence dynamics, perhaps even to the point
245 of preventing collapse [27]. Non-human species migrate when local resources are depleted; humans
246 migrate but technology now allows them to import the resources they need without migrating. Allowing
247 cross-patch harvesting while preventing migration could therefore be particularly dangerous.

248 Similarly, we assumed a Malthusean world where more resources are always converted into more
249 offspring. However, it is observed that most populations go through a demographic transition to lower
250 fertility when they become sufficiently industrialized [39]. Incorporating this effect into the model may
251 help prevent unsustainable growth, although the strength of the effect depends on whether increases in per
252 capita resource consumption outstrip the benefits of slowed population growth.

253 Another possible extension of the model is to include dynamically changing parameters. At the moment,
254 all parameters in the model are static. However, technological improvements mean that parameters like the
255 harvesting efficiency h and cross-patch harvesting should change over the course of the simulation. In this

256 vein, work by Reuveny and Decker [25] explores how technological advancement affects a human-resource
257 population model. Similarly modifications to our model could be implemented, and their effects studied.

258 In our multi-population socio-ecological model where populations grow by harvesting a depletable
259 resource, the ability of one patch to support its population growth by harvesting resources from other
260 patches increases population growth in the short run, but causes population collapse in all patches in the
261 long run. This effect is robust to parameter variation, and is accelerated significantly by the inclusion of
262 more patches. Given the ubiquity of cross-patch harvesting in real populations, socio-ecological models of
263 human growth and resource consumption should consider the role of metapopulation effects.

264 **Competing Interests**

265 The authors declare no competing interests.

266 **Author Contributions**

267 M.A. and C.T.B. conceived the study; Z.D. analyzed the model and generated figures; all authors wrote
268 and reviewed the manuscript.

269 **Acknowledgements**

270 This research was supported by NSERC Discovery Grants to C.T.B. and M.A.

271 **References**

- 272 **1.** Verhulst, P.-F. Notice sur la loi que la population suit dans son accroissement. correspondance
273 mathématique et physique publiée par a. *Quetelet* **10**, 113–121 (1838).
- 274 **2.** Pearl, R. & Slobodkin, L. The growth of populations. *The Quarterly Review of Biology* **51**, 6–24
275 (1976). URL <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2823040>.
- 276 **3.** Gamito, S. Growth models and their use in ecological modelling: an application to a fish population.
277 *Ecological Modelling* **113**, 83–94 (1998).

- 278 **4.** Hanson, F. B. & Tuckwell, H. C. Logistic growth with random density independent disasters.
279 *Theoretical Population Biology* **19**, 1–18 (1981).
- 280 **5.** Hanski, I. *Metapopulation ecology* (Oxford University Press Inc., 1999).
- 281 **6.** Brown, J. H. & Kodric-Brown, A. Turnover rates in insular biogeography: effect of immigration on
282 extinction. *Ecology* **58**, 445–449 (1977).
- 283 **7.** Tilman, D., May, R. M., Lehman, C. L. & Nowak, M. A. Habitat destruction and the extinction debt.
284 *Nature* **371**, 65–66 (1994).
- 285 **8.** Malthus, T. R. *An essay on the principle of population: or, A view of its past and present effects on*
286 *human happiness* (Reeves & Turner, 1888).
- 287 **9.** Rockström, J. *et al.* Planetary boundaries: exploring the safe operating space for humanity. *Ecology*
288 *and society* **14** (2009).
- 289 **10.** Cumming, G. S. *et al.* Implications of agricultural transitions and urbanization for ecosystem services.
290 *Nature* **515**, 50–57 (2014).
- 291 **11.** DeFries, R. S., Rudel, T., Uriarte, M. & Hansen, M. Deforestation driven by urban population growth
292 and agricultural trade in the twenty-first century. *Nature Geoscience* **3**, 178–181 (2010).
- 293 **12.** Swartz, W., Sumaila, U. R., Watson, R. & Pauly, D. Sourcing seafood for the three major markets:
294 The eu, japan and the usa. *Marine Policy* **34**, 1366–1373 (2010).
- 295 **13.** Lindkvist, E., Ekeberg, Ö. & Norberg, J. Strategies for sustainable management of renewable resources
296 during environmental change. In *Proc. R. Soc. B*, vol. 284, 20162762 (The Royal Society, 2017).
- 297 **14.** Motesharrei, S., Rivas, J. & Kalnay, E. Human and nature dynamics (handy): Modeling inequality
298 and use of resources in the collapse or sustainability of societies. *Ecological Economics* **101**, 90–102
299 (2014).
- 300 **15.** De la Croix, D. & Dottori, D. Easter Island’s collapse: a tale of a population race. *Journal of*
301 *Economic Growth* **13**, 27–55 (2008).

- 302 **16.** Reuveny, R. & Maxwell, J. W. Conflict and renewable resources. *Journal of Conflict resolution* **45**,
303 719–742 (2001).
- 304 **17.** Bologna, M. & Flores, J. Mathematical model of Easter Island society collapse. *arXiv preprint*
305 *arXiv:1002.0068* (2010).
- 306 **18.** Basener, B. & Ross, D. S. Booming and crashing populations and Easter Island. *SIAM Journal on*
307 *Applied Mathematics* **65**, 684–701 (2004).
- 308 **19.** Nelson, S. *Population modeling with delay differential equations* (Rochester Institute of Technology,
309 2013).
- 310 **20.** Brander, J. A. & Taylor, M. S. The simple economics of Easter Island: A Ricardo-Malthus model of
311 renewable resource use. *American economic review* 119–138 (1998).
- 312 **21.** Dalton, T. R. & Coats, R. M. Could institutional reform have saved Easter Island? *Journal of*
313 *Evolutionary Economics* **10**, 489–505 (2000).
- 314 **22.** D’Alessandro, S. Non-linear dynamics of population and natural resources: The emergence of
315 different patterns of development. *Ecological Economics* **62**, 473–481 (2007).
- 316 **23.** Dalton, T. R., Coats, R. M. & Asrabadi, B. R. Renewable resources, property-rights regimes and
317 endogenous growth. *Ecological Economics* **52**, 31–41 (2005).
- 318 **24.** Pezzey, J. C. & Anderies, J. M. The effect of subsistence on collapse and institutional adaptation in
319 population–resource societies. *Journal of Development Economics* **72**, 299–320 (2003).
- 320 **25.** Reuveny, R. & Decker, C. S. Easter Island: historical anecdote or warning for the future? *Ecological*
321 *Economics* **35**, 271–287 (2000).
- 322 **26.** Anderies, J. M. On modeling human behavior and institutions in simple ecological economic systems.
323 *Ecological Economics* **35**, 393–412 (2000).
- 324 **27.** Roman, S., Bullock, S. & Brede, M. Coupled societies are more robust against collapse: A hypothetical
325 look at Easter Island. *Ecological Economics* **132**, 264–278 (2017).

- 326 **28.** Axtell, R. L. *et al.* Population growth and collapse in a multiagent model of the kayenta anasazi in
327 long house valley. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **99**, 7275–7279 (2002).
- 328 **29.** Flores, J., Bologna, M. & Urzagasti, D. A mathematical model for the Andean Tiwanaku civilization
329 collapse: climate variations. *Journal of theoretical biology* **291**, 29–32 (2011).
- 330 **30.** Meadows, D., Randers, J. & Meadows, D. *Limits to growth: The 30-year update* (Chelsea Green
331 Publishing, 2004).
- 332 **31.** Meadows, D. H., Meadows, D. L., Randers, J. *et al.* *Beyond the limits: global collapse or a sustainable*
333 *future*. (Earthscan Publications Ltd., 1992).
- 334 **32.** The limits to growth. Club of Rome, author=Meadows, Donella H and Meadows, Dennis L and
335 Randers, Jørgen and Behrens III, William W, journal=Crisis of Humanity Report, Diamond Inc.,
336 Tokyo, year=1972 .
- 337 **33.** Turner, G. M. A comparison of the limits to growth with 30 years of reality. *Global Environmental*
338 *Change* **18**, 397–411 (2008).
- 339 **34.** Maxwell, J. W. & Reuveny, R. Resource scarcity and conflict in developing countries. *Journal of*
340 *peace Research* **37**, 301–322 (2000).
- 341 **35.** Pagnutti, C., Bauch, C. T. & Anand, M. Outlook on a worldwide forest transition. *PLoS One* **8**,
342 e75890 (2013).
- 343 **36.** DeSA, U. World population prospects: The 2015 revision, volume I: comprehensive tables. *Population*
344 *Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, New*
345 *York* (2015).
- 346 **37.** Aizen, M. A., Garibaldi, L. A., Cunningham, S. A. & Klein, A. M. Long-term global trends in crop
347 yield and production reveal no current pollination shortage but increasing pollinator dependency. *Cur-*
348 *rent Biology* **18**, 1572 – 1575 (2008). URL [http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0960982208012402)
349 [article/pii/S0960982208012402](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0960982208012402).

- 350 **38.** Dockstader, Z. Population model. <https://github.com/zgmdocks/PopulationModel>
351 (2016).
- 352 **39.** Bauch, C. T. Wealth as a source of density dependence in human population growth. *Oikos* **117**,
353 1824–1832 (2008).