

# Past states of continuous-time Markov models for ecological communities

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## Abstract

Discrete-time Markov chains are often used to model communities of sessile organisms. The community is described by a set of discrete states, which may represent species or groups of species. Transitions between states are modelled using a stochastic matrix. A recent study showed how the time-reversal of such a Markov chain can be used to estimate the distribution of time since the last occurrence of some state of interest (such as empty space) at a point, given the current state of the point. However, if the underlying process operates in continuous time but is observed at regular intervals, this distribution describes the time since the last possible observation of the state of interest, rather than the time since its last occurrence. We show how to obtain the distribution of time since the last occurrence of a state of interest for a continuous-time homogeneous Markov chain. The expected time since the last occurrence of an initial state can be interpreted as a measure of the successional rank of a state. We show how to distinguish between different ways in which a state can have high successional rank. We apply our results to a marine subtidal community.

*Key words:* Continuous time Markov chains, community ecology, first passage time, marine subtidal, time reversal

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## 1 Introduction

Markov chains are often used to model the dynamics of communities of sessile organisms [1–4]. It is assumed that a point in space can be in one of a finite number of states  $1 \dots s$ , such as different species or groups of species, and free space. In most cases, the dynamics of the system are assumed to be described by a temporally homogeneous, ergodic discrete-time Markov chain. Temporally homogeneous means that the conditional probability of each state one unit of time in the future, given the current state, does not depend on time. Ergodic means that any state is eventually reachable from any other state, the expected return time to any state is finite, and the probability of returning to any state  $i$  in  $n$  time steps is non-zero for all sufficiently large  $n$ . Let  $\mathbf{P}(t)$  be an  $s$ -by- $s$  matrix of transition probabilities, whose entries  $p_{ij}(t)$  are the conditional probabilities that a point in state  $i$  at time  $\tau$  will be in state  $j$  at time  $\tau + t$  (note that in much of the ecological literature, the transition probability matrix is transposed relative to this definition). We will sometimes refer simply to the transition probability matrix  $\mathbf{P}$ , when the time step  $t$  is fixed. If  $\mathbf{x}(\tau)$  is an  $s$ -by-1 vector of state probabilities at time  $\tau$ , then

$$\mathbf{x}^T(\tau + t) = \mathbf{x}^T(\tau)\mathbf{P}(t) \tag{1}$$

where  $\mathbf{x}^T$  denotes the transpose of  $\mathbf{x}$ .  $\mathbf{P}(t)$  is a stochastic matrix, with rows summing to 1. Under the above assumptions, there is a unique vector of stationary probabilities  $\boldsymbol{\pi}$  such that  $\boldsymbol{\pi}^T = \boldsymbol{\pi}^T\mathbf{P}(t)$ , to which the state probabili-

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5 ties will converge [5, Theorem 1.8.3].

6 Applications of Markov chains in community ecology have mainly addressed  
7 questions such as quantifying the effects of species removals [4,6,7], compar-  
8 isons of transition probabilities across communities [3,4], turnover rates and  
9 recurrence times [4], effects of hypothetical modifications of transition proba-  
10 bilities [3,8], and identification of keystone species [2]. [9] is an excellent review  
11 of both discrete- and continuous-time Markov models in ecology. Recently, [10]  
12 showed how Markov chains can be used to make inferences about past states.  
13 Specifically, they calculated the distribution of times  $T_j$  since the last obser-  
14 vation of some state  $j$  at a point, given the present state of that point. In  
15 this paper, we briefly review the results presented in [10]. We show how the  
16 distribution of times since the last observation of some state at a point in a  
17 discrete-time chain, conditional on the present state, depends on the observa-  
18 tion interval, and therefore may not tell us about the most recent occurrence  
19 of a given state in the past. We then describe analogous results for a time-  
20 homogeneous continuous-time Markov chain. If this is an appropriate model,  
21 then the resulting distribution of first passage times in the time-reversed chain  
22 can be interpreted as the distribution of times since the last occurrence of a  
23 given state at a point in space, conditional on the current state. This distri-  
24 bution is independent of the intervals between observations of the chain. We  
25 suggest that the expected first passage time to an initial state (such as empty  
26 space) in the time-reversed version of a Markov model for an ecological com-  
27 munity provides a way to rank states by successional level. We show how the  
28 jump chain corresponding to a continuous-time Markov model can be used  
29 to calculate the expected number of events at a point since the last occur-  
30 rence of a given state  $j$ , given the current state of the point. This allows us

31 to distinguish between states which have high successional rank because they  
32 persist for a long time, and states which have high successional rank because  
33 they are likely to be separated from an initial state by a long series of tran-  
34 sitions between intermediate states. All our results are based on well-known  
35 theory concerning the transient behaviour of Markov chains, for which [11] is  
36 excellent source.

## 37 **2 Biological background**

38 Throughout this paper, we use a model of a subtidal community from the Gulf  
39 of Maine [4] as an example. Permanent quadrats were located on a rock wall at  
40 30-35 m depth, and photographed annually. A rectangular grid of points was  
41 superimposed on each photograph, ensuring that the points represented corre-  
42 sponding spatial locations each year. The organism present at each point each  
43 year was identified. The community consists of 14 species/groups of species  
44 of sponges, sea anemones, ascidians, bryozoans and polychaetes. [4] counted  
45 the frequencies of transitions among states (species/groups of species and bare  
46 rock), and estimated transition probabilities from the time-aggregated counts.  
47 Markov models are often used to gain quantitative insight into successional  
48 processes [4]. [10] suggested that knowing the expected time since the last  
49 occurrence of an initial state, given the current state at a point, is potentially  
50 useful in estimating the time since the establishment of suitable habitat, for  
51 example the appearance of a hydrothermal vent or the death of a corpse sup-  
52 porting an insect community. Here, we focus on the ways in which inferences  
53 about past states can be used to refine our understanding of the successional  
54 process. Specifically, we show that time since the last occurrence of an initial

55 state, conditional on the current state, can be used to distinguish between  
 56 states that are usually associated with early stages of succession, and states  
 57 that are usually associated with later stages.

### 58 3 First passage times in time-reversed discrete-time Markov chains

To obtain the distribution of time since the last occurrence of some given state  $j$  at a point in space with a known current state, [10] first obtained a time-reversed transition probability matrix  $\mathbf{P}^R$  under the assumption that state probabilities are stationary:

$$\mathbf{P}^R = \mathbf{\Pi}^{-1} \mathbf{P}^T \mathbf{\Pi} \quad (2)$$

[11, Definition 2.7], where  $\mathbf{\Pi}$  is a diagonal matrix of stationary probabilities. [10] then obtained the distribution of first passage times to state  $j$  in the time-reversed chain. Without loss of generality, we will assume that the state of interest in the past is  $j = 0$ . We write

$$\mathbf{P}^R = \begin{bmatrix} p_{00}^R & (\mathbf{p}_0^R)^T \\ \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{T} \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

We define an absorbing state as a state from which no other state can be reached. We construct a chain in which state 0 is absorbing, with transition probability matrix

$$\mathbf{P}_0^R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{0}^T \\ \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{T} \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

Then the cumulative distribution function for  $T_0$  given current state  $i$  is

$$F_{i0}^d(t) = P_i(T_0 \leq t) = [\mathbf{P}_0^R]_{i0}^t \quad t = 1, 2, \dots \quad (5)$$

[11, p. 80], where the superscript  $d$  in  $F_{i0}^d(t)$  indicates that this is the cumulative distribution for the discrete-time chain, and the subscript  $i$  in  $P_i(T_0 \leq t)$  indicates that the distribution is conditional on the current state being  $i$ . Equation 5 gives us the cumulative distribution for  $T_0$  in the original chain because we have not changed the probability of entering state 0 from any other state, but once we have entered state 0 we never leave it. [10] applied this method to the Markov model of a rocky subtidal community in the Gulf of Maine developed by [4].

#### 4 Interpretation of the first passage time in the time-reversed discrete-time chain

If  $\mathbf{P}(t)$  is the transition probability matrix for a discrete-time Markov chain with time step  $t$ , then the transition probability matrix for a chain observed at time intervals of length  $nt$ , where  $n$  is a positive integer, is  $[\mathbf{P}(t)]^n$  [11, p. 16]. We can apply the method described in the previous section to calculate  $F_{ij}^d(t)$  for chains with different intervals between observations. For example, in the system studied by [4], state 14 is the polychaete *Spirorbis spirorbis*, and state 15 is bare rock. Figure 1 shows the cumulative distributions  $F_{14,15}^d(t)$ , with time steps of one, two and five years. Even though the system is undergoing the same dynamics in each case, as the interval between observations increases, the value of  $F_{14,15}^d(t)$  for any fixed, finite integer time  $t$  decreases. In other words, as the interval between observations increases, so does the apparent

80 time since the last occurrence of some given state  $j$  at a point. If there may  
 81 be multiple events at a point in space between two observation times, then we  
 82 should interpret  $F_{ij}^d(t)$  as giving us the cumulative distribution of time since  
 83 the last possible observation of state  $j$  given the current state  $i$ , not necessarily  
 84 the last occurrence of state  $j$ .

## 85 **5 First passage times in time-reversed continuous-time Markov** 86 **chains**

We would like to know the distribution of time since the last occurrence of  
 state  $j$ , given that a point is currently in state  $i$ . If we suppose that events  
 can occur at any time, and that the rate of events is constant, then we may  
 be able to find a matrix  $\mathbf{Q}$  such that

$$\mathbf{P}(t) = e^{\mathbf{Q}t} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\mathbf{Q}t)^k}{k!} \quad (6)$$

87 for any non-negative real time  $t$  [5, Theorem 2.1.1]. We assume here that such a  
 88 matrix exists, and that it is unique. The conditions under which this is true are  
 89 given in [12]. More details of estimating a suitable  $\mathbf{Q}$  matrix for real data are  
 90 given in the Appendix. We refer to  $\mathbf{Q}$  as the generator or rate matrix for a time-  
 91 homogeneous continuous-time Markov chain. The off-diagonal elements  $q_{ij}$  of  
 92  $\mathbf{Q}$  are the rates (non-negative, real, with dimensions  $\text{time}^{-1}$ ) of transitions  
 93 from state  $i$  to state  $j$ . The diagonal elements  $q_{ii}$  are defined as  $-\sum_{j \neq i} q_{ij}$ , so  
 94  $-q_{ii}$  is the rate of leaving state  $i$ .

Using the homogeneous continuous-time model, we can calculate the distribu-  
 tion of times since the last observation of some state  $j$  given current state  $i$  as  
 the interval between observations becomes arbitrarily small. The methods are

similar to the discrete-time case. Let  $q_{ij}$  be the instantaneous rate of transitions from state  $i$  to state  $j$  in a stationary finite-state ergodic continuous-time homogeneous Markov chain, and let  $\pi_i$  be the stationary probability of state  $i$ . Then the instantaneous rate of transitions from  $j$  to  $i$  in the corresponding stationary time-reversed chain is  $q_{ji}^R = (q_{ij}\pi_i)/\pi_j$  [5, Theorem 3.7.1]. Thus we can find a time-reversed generator matrix  $\mathbf{Q}^R$ :

$$\mathbf{Q}^R = \mathbf{\Pi}^{-1}\mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{\Pi} \quad (7)$$

Assuming without loss of generality that  $j = 0$ , and writing  $\mathbf{Q}^R = \begin{bmatrix} -q_0^R & (\mathbf{q}_0^R)^T \\ \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{T} \end{bmatrix}$ ,

we construct a chain in which state 0 is absorbing,

$$\mathbf{Q}_0^R = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{0}^T \\ \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{T} \end{bmatrix} \quad (8)$$

Now the cumulative distribution of first passage times to state 0 in the time-reversed chain is given by

$$F_{i0}(t) = [e^{\mathbf{Q}_0^R t}]_{i0} \quad t \geq 0 \quad (9)$$

Let  $T_j$  be the first passage time to state  $j$ . Without loss of generality we assume  $j = 0$ . Then the probability density of the first passage time to state 0 from initial state  $i$  is given by

$$f_{i0}(t) = \mathbf{e}_i e^{\mathbf{T}t} \mathbf{r} \quad (10)$$

95 for  $t \geq 0$ , where  $\mathbf{e}_i$  is a vector with 1 in position  $i$  and 0 elsewhere [11, p. 213].

96 The first passage time  $T_0$  to state 0 from initial state  $i$  in a stationary finite-



97 state ergodic continuous-time homogeneous Markov chain has mean  $E_i[T_0] =$   
 98  $\mathbf{e}_i(-\mathbf{T})^{-1}\mathbf{1}$  [9,11, p. 212] and variance  $V_i[T_0] = 2\mathbf{e}_i(-\mathbf{T})^{-2}\mathbf{1} - (\mathbf{e}_i(-\mathbf{T})^{-1}\mathbf{1})^2$   
 99 [13], where the subscripts  $i$  in  $E_i[T_0]$  and  $V_i[T_0]$  indicate that they are con-  
 100 ditional on initial state  $i$ . We estimated the generator matrix (Table 1) for  
 101 the system studied by [4] as described in the Appendix. Figure 2 shows the  
 102 cumulative distributions of first passage times to state 15 (bare rock) from  
 103 each other state, calculated from the discrete-time model with observation  
 104 interval one year (solid lines) and the continuous-time model (broken lines).  
 105 It is easy to show that the cumulative distributions from the continuous-time  
 106 model will always lie above those for the discrete-time model. This is because  
 107 if we observe the system continuously, we will see all occurrences of state  $j$   
 108 that occurred at observation times in the discrete-time chain, in addition to  
 109 the occurrences between observation times. Then, using the result that for a  
 110 random variable  $X$  with density  $f(x) = 0$  for  $x < 0$  and distribution function  
 111  $F$ ,  $E[X] = \int_0^\infty (1 - F(x))dx$  [14, Lemma 4.3.4], we can show that the expected  
 112 first passage time for the continuous-time chain will be less than that for  
 113 the discrete-time chain. The difference between the continuous- and discrete-  
 114 time distributions may be large. For example, with current state 14 (*Spirorbis*  
 115 *spirorbis*), the probability that the last occurrence of state 15 (bare rock) was  
 116 no more than 10 years ago is 0.81 (from the continuous-time model). However,  
 117 the probability that an occurrence of bare rock would have been observed in  
 118 the last 10 years if we made observations at one-year intervals is only 0.55.

119 **6 Expected first passage time in the time-reversed chain as a mea-**  
120 **sure of successional rank**

121 Table 2 gives the mean ( $E_i[T_{15}]$ ) and variance ( $V_i[T_{15}]$ ) of first passage time to  
122 bare rock (state 15) in the time-reversed continuous-time chain based on data  
123 in [4], conditional on each other current state  $i$ . Points currently in states for  
124 which  $E_i[T_{15}]$  is small are likely to have been bare rock more recently than  
125 points currently in states for which  $E_i[T_{15}]$  is large. Since bare rock is the initial  
126 stage of a successional process,  $E_i[T_{15}]$  tells us how far from this initial stage a  
127 point in space is likely to be, given its current state. This information is difficult  
128 to obtain in other ways when succession is stochastic and many alternative  
129 pathways are possible. However, Table 2 also shows that the variance of time  
130 since the last occurrence of bare rock is large for all states. The difference  
131 between the smallest and largest values of  $E_i[T_{15}]$  among current states is  
132 7.93 years, but for any given current state  $V_i[T_{15}]$  is at least 70. We are quite  
133 uncertain about the past states of a point in space, given its present state.

134 For the continuous-time model based on data in [4], there is little relationship  
135 between the stationary probability of a state and the expected time since  
136 the last occurrence of bare rock (Figure 3a, Pearson correlation 0.21: we do  
137 not test the statistical significance of this and other correlations, because we  
138 have sampled the entire population of states). However, there is quite a strong  
139 negative relationship between the rate of leaving a state and the expected time  
140 since the last occurrence of bare rock (Figure 3b, Pearson correlation  $-0.74$ ).  
141 In other words, if we observe a highly persistent species (as measured by low  
142 leaving rate:  $-1$  times the diagonal element of the  $\mathbf{Q}$  matrix) such as the sea  
143 anemone *Urticina crassicornis* (other species in this genus are known to live

144 at least 20 years [15]) or the sponge *Mycale lingua*, it is unlikely that the point  
145 was bare rock recently (95th percentiles of  $T_{15}$ : 35 years for *Urticina*, 34 years  
146 for *Mycale*). If we observe a species such as *Spirorbis spirorbis* that is less  
147 likely to persist at a point for a long time, the point is likely to have been bare  
148 rock more recently (95th percentile of  $T_{15}$ : 23 years). The relationship between  
149 the stationary probability and rate of leaving a state is negative but relatively  
150 weak (Figure 3c, Pearson correlation  $-0.37$ ). Species that are relatively poor at  
151 persisting may be able to maintain moderately high abundance by colonizing  
152 bare rock.

## 153 **7 The number of events since the last occurrence of a given state**

154 The negative relationship between the rate of leaving a state and the expected  
155 time since the last occurrence of bare rock (Figure 3b) suggested that states  
156 with high successional rank tend to be highly persistent. This could mean  
157 that states with different successional rank differ mainly in the length of time  
158 it takes for them to colonize bare rock (Figure 4a). However, it is also possible  
159 for a state to have high successional rank if it is likely to be separated from the  
160 initial state by a long series of transitions among intermediate states (Figure  
161 4b). In order to see which of these patterns occurs in a continuous-time Markov  
162 chain, we need to calculate the expected number of events (changes of state)  
163 since the last occurrence of the initial state for each current state at a point  
164 in space.

The jump matrix  $\mathbf{S}$  associated with a continuous-time Markov chain is a stochastic matrix whose entries  $s_{ij}$  are the probabilities of each state  $j$  being the new state when a transition occurs, given that the current state is

$i$ :

$$s_{ij} = \begin{cases} -q_{ij}/q_{ii} & j \neq i, q_{ii} \neq 0 \\ 0 & j \neq i, q_{ii} = 0 \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

$$s_{ii} = \begin{cases} 0 & q_{ii} \neq 0 \\ 1 & q_{ii} = 0 \end{cases}$$

[5, p. 87]. We can calculate  $\mathbf{S}$  for the time-reversed chain  $\mathbf{Q}^R$ . As before, we assume without loss of generality that the state of interest in the past is  $j = 0$ , and define the absorbing jump matrix

$$\mathbf{S}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{0}^T \\ \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{T} \end{bmatrix} \quad (12)$$

165 Let  $J_0$  be the number of jumps from state  $i$  to state 0 in the absorbing jump  
 166 chain for  $\mathbf{Q}^R$ .  $J_0$  has expectation  $E_i[J_0] = \mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{N} \mathbf{1}$  [9] and variance  $V_i[J_0] =$   
 167  $2\mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{N}^2 (\mathbf{N} - \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{r} + E_i[J_0] - (E_i[J_0])^2$ , where  $\mathbf{N} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{T})^{-1}$  and  $\mathbf{e}_i$  is a vector  
 168 with a 1 in position  $i$  and 0 elsewhere [11, pp. 80-81].

169 Table 3 gives the mean ( $E_i[J_{15}]$ ) and variance ( $V_i[J_{15}]$ ) of the number of jumps  
 170 since the last occurrence of bare rock (state 15) given the current state, for the  
 171 continuous-time chain based on data in [4]. The Pearson correlation between  
 172 the time since the last occurrence of bare rock ( $E_i[T_{15}]$ ) and the number of  
 173 jumps since the last occurrence of bare rock ( $E_i[J_{15}]$ ) is 0.87 (Figure 5). In  
 174 other words, states for which the expected time since the last occurrence of  
 175 bare rock is longer are also expected to be separated from bare rock by a larger  
 176 number of intermediate states. However, the differences among states in the  
 177 expected number of jumps since the last occurrence of bare rock are small  
 178 relative to the variance in number of jumps for any given state. From Table 3,

179 the difference between the largest and smallest values of  $E_i[J_{15}]$  is 1.48, while  
180  $V_i[J_{15}]$  is at least 16.54 for all states.

## 181 **8 Conclusions**

182 Markov models for communities are usually formulated in discrete time. In  
183 many ecological communities, it is reasonable to assume that some events  
184 such as mortality can occur at any time, and many other events such as re-  
185 production may occur over quite long time periods. If this is the case, then a  
186 continuous-time model might be more appropriate for inferences about some  
187 kinds of properties than a discrete-time model, which predicts the state of  
188 the system only at discrete observation points. If the underlying dynamics  
189 of the system are in continuous time, a discrete-time model will miss many  
190 events that occur between observation intervals. Here, we showed that the  
191 expected time since the last occurrence of some past state (estimated from  
192 a continuous-time model) will be less than the expected time since the last  
193 observation of this state (estimated from a discrete-time model of the same  
194 system). Elsewhere, we showed that inferences about the complexity of inter-  
195 action networks [16] and the consequences of changing interspecific interaction  
196 parameters [17] from discrete-time models may also be misleading if the true  
197 dynamics are in continuous time.

198 One important caveat is that we assumed homogeneity in time. This may  
199 not be true, especially in temperate habitats such as the one we studied,  
200 where it is likely that survival, reproduction and interspecific interactions will  
201 vary seasonally. There is also statistically significant interannual variability in  
202 transition probabilities in this system, although the biological consequences

203 of this variability may not be major [18]. We did not consider models with  
204 temporal variability here because such models cannot be identified from time-  
205 averaged data such as those presented in [4]. However, temporal variability  
206 could potentially have large effects on inferences about past states. If the  
207 sequences of states at points in space are available, these effects could be  
208 checked by direct comparison of the calculated and observed distributions of  
209 first passage times. Both time-averaged discrete-time models and homogeneous  
210 continuous-time models are potentially useful caricatures of the dynamics of  
211 a community, but it is important to remember their limitations.

212 A central idea in the concept of ecological succession is that some states in  
213 a community tend to appear soon after an initial state such as empty space,  
214 while others do not occur until much later. However, when the sequence in  
215 which states occur is not deterministic, it is not immediately obvious how we  
216 should identify early- and late-succession states. The approach we describe  
217 here is one way to do this. We refer to states for which the expected time  
218 since the last occurrence of an initial state (such as bare rock) is long as  
219 having high successional rank. We can also learn something about why a state  
220 has high or low successional rank. For the Gulf of Maine subtidal data set we  
221 analyzed, states with high successional rank tended to be good at persisting  
222 at a point, and to be separated from bare rock by longer sequences of events  
223 than states with low successional rank. However, other relationships might  
224 occur in other communities. Comparative studies of Markov models from a  
225 range of communities [3,4] will be the best way to address this.

226 Inferences about past states could also be useful for estimating the age of a  
227 habitat [10]. However, for the community we analyzed, the variance in time  
228 since the last occurrence of bare rock given the current state was large relative

229 to the differences in expected time since the last occurrence of bare rock among  
230 current states. In other words, for this community, knowing the current state  
231 does not give us much information about the past. We did not consider the  
232 consequences of uncertainty in transition probabilities [10], but such uncer-  
233 tainty would be likely to further reduce the amount of information available  
234 about the past.

235 Several other studies have examined related problems, such as first passage  
236 times in flow-balanced ecological networks describing food webs and hydrody-  
237 namic compartments [19], and the estimation of event times in chain-of-events  
238 models for the progression of HIV, where data are observed at discrete inter-  
239 vals [20]. In the latter case, the problem differs from ours in that the sequence  
240 of events is known but their timings are unknown, and that a semi-Markov  
241 model was used. There are other potential applications to disease modelling.  
242 For example, hidden Markov models can be used to describe the occurrence of  
243 drug-resistance mutations in HIV. Given parameter estimates for these models  
244 [21], it might be of interest to estimate the probability distribution of mutation  
245 times given the current mutational state.

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## 310 **Appendix: estimating the continuous-time model**

311 Assume that each of a set of independent fixed points in space has a state  
312 determined by the same finite-state homogeneous Markov chain. If the interval  
313 between observations is  $t$  for all points, the maximum likelihood estimate of a  
314 transition probability  $p_{ij}$  is  $\hat{p}_{ij} = n_{ij}/n_i$ , where  $n_{ij}$  is the number of points in  
315 state  $j$  at time  $\tau + t$  that were in state  $i$  at time  $\tau$ , and  $n_i$  is the number of  
316 points in state  $i$  at time  $\tau$  [22, p. 135].

We used data from Table 2 in [4], derived from annual photographic obser-  
vations of a rocky subtidal community over nine years. Including bare rock,  
there were  $s = 15$  distinguishable states, labelled 1 to 15. Note that in [4], the  
transition probability matrix is transposed with respect to our notation. The  
rows of the matrix in Table 2 of [4], which we refer to as  $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}(t)$ , did not exactly

sum to 1, presumably because of rounding errors. We therefore rescaled all elements by the row sums to obtain the estimate  $\hat{\mathbf{P}}(t)$ :

$$\hat{p}_{ij} = \tilde{p}_{ij} / \sum_{k=1}^s \tilde{p}_{ik} \quad (13)$$

If  $\mathbf{P}(t) = e^{\mathbf{Q}t}$ , an obvious estimate of the continuous-time rate matrix  $\mathbf{Q}$  is  $\tilde{\mathbf{Q}} = 1/t \log \hat{\mathbf{P}}(t)$ , where  $\log$  is the matrix logarithm. This is the maximum likelihood estimate if  $\mathbf{P}(t)$  was generated by a homogeneous continuous-time Markov chain [23]. However, this estimate often has negative off-diagonal entries, either because of sampling error or because the transition probabilities were not generated by a homogeneous continuous-time Markov chain. If  $\tilde{\mathbf{Q}}$  has negative off-diagonals, there will be some time intervals for which  $e^{\tilde{\mathbf{Q}}t}$  also has negative entries, so this cannot be a valid rate matrix. If the original data are available, constrained maximum likelihood [24,16] or Markov Chain Monte Carlo [23] methods can be used. However, if only  $\hat{\mathbf{P}}(t)$  is available, as in this case, we could set any negative off-diagonal entries in  $\tilde{\mathbf{Q}}$  to zero and adjust the diagonal elements to maintain zero row sums, giving the estimate  $\hat{\mathbf{Q}}$ :

$$\hat{q}_{ij} = \begin{cases} \max(\tilde{q}_{ij}, 0) & i \neq j \\ \tilde{q}_{ii} + \sum_{k \neq i} \min(\tilde{q}_{ik}, 0) & i = j \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

317 [25]. Other approaches are possible when only  $\hat{\mathbf{P}}(t)$  is available, such as finding  
 318 a rate matrix whose eigenspectrum matches that of the transition probability  
 319 matrix as closely as possible [26]. However, for the data we used,  $e^{\hat{\mathbf{Q}}t}$  was very  
 320 close to  $\hat{\mathbf{P}}(t)$ , and gave almost indistinguishable results for the distribution of  
 321 first passage times to bare rock.  $\hat{\mathbf{Q}}$  is therefore a satisfactory estimate of the  
 322 continuous-time rate matrix for our purposes. All the discrete-time results we  
 323 report are based on  $e^{\hat{\mathbf{Q}}t}$ , so that differences between discrete- and continuous-

324 time results are not artefacts of the estimation method for the continuous-time  
325 model. Table 1 shows the estimate  $\hat{Q}$ .

Table 1

Generator matrix  $\mathbf{Q}$  for a continuous-time Markov chain estimated from the data in [4], as described in the Appendix. States are (1) *Hymedesmia* sp. 1, (2) *Crisia eburnea*, (3) *Myxilla fimbriata*, (4) *Mycale lingua*, (5) *Filograna implexa*, (6) *Urticina crassicornis*, (7) *Ascidia callosa*, (8) *Aplidium pallidum*, (9) *Hymedesmia* sp. 2, (10) *Idmidronea atlantica*, (11) coralline algae, (12) *Metridium senile*, (13) *Parasmittina jeffreysi*, (14) *Spirorbis spirorbis*, (15) bare rock. All rates are years<sup>-1</sup>.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	-0.2925	0.1206	0.0170	0.0030	0.0137	0	0.0423	0.0193	1.54e-04	0.0279	0.0012	0.0011	0.0081	0.0069	0.0312
2	0.1821	-0.5889	0.0391	0.0128	0.0332	0.0052	0.0479	0.0599	0.0147	0.0275	0.0172	0.0103	0.0071	0.0062	0.1260
3	0.0537	0.0216	-0.3553	0.0032	0.0202	0.0043	2.52e-06	0.0078	0.0361	0	0.0051	0.0081	0.0016	0.0281	0.1655
4	0.0098	0.0510	0.0049	-0.1776	0.0010	0	7.61e-04	0.0084	0.0100	0.0042	0.0076	0.0148	0	0.0086	0.0565
5	0.1290	0.3239	0.0455	2.59e-04	-0.9734	0.0093	0.0941	0.0834	0.0177	0	9.51e-04	0.0017	0.0083	0.0031	0.2561
6	0.0039	0.0105	0.0131	0	0.0219	-0.1595	0	0.0117	0.0212	0.0032	0.0048	0.0088	0	0	0.0603
7	0.5416	0.3596	0.1207	0.0326	0.2628	0.0645	-2.5204	0.2331	0.0263	0.1729	0.0804	0	0.0644	0.1467	0.4147
8	0.3483	0.4066	0.0609	0.0327	0.2681	0.0075	0.2215	-2.0042	0.0278	0.0966	0.0317	0.0530	0.0218	0.0522	0.3754
9	0.0346	0.1750	0.0305	0.0122	0.0169	0.0068	5.70e-04	0.0612	-0.5435	0.0472	0.0053	0.0036	0	0.0133	0.1364
10	0.6604	0.4312	0.0428	0.0123	0.0049	0.0065	0.2063	0.1055	0.0149	-1.8940	0.0205	0.0111	0.0370	0.0090	0.3316
11	0.0245	0.3324	0.0315	0.0077	0.0500	0	0.0601	0.0349	0.0060	0	-0.6977	0	0.0068	0	0.1438
12	0.0201	0	0.0213	0.0420	0	0	0	0.0169	5.94e-04	0	0	-0.8073	0	0	0.7063
13	0.6096	0.2839	0.0230	0	0.1546	0	0.0936	0.0347	0	0.0540	0.0342	0	-1.4746	0	0.1870
14	0.2815	1.9948	0	0.0488	0.4633	0.0075	0.0938	0	0.0547	0.2226	0	0	0	-3.9231	0.7561
15	0.0281	0.6355	0.0191	0.0060	0.1204	0.0015	0.2224	0.0980	0.0177	0.1023	0.0285	0.0365	0.0298	0.0962	-1.4418

Table 2

Mean ( $E_i[T_{15}]$ ) and variance ( $V_i[T_{15}]$ ) of first passage time in years to state 15 (bare rock) from each other current state  $i$  in the time-reversed stationary continuous-time Markov chain based on the data in [4].

Current state $i$	$E_i[T_{15}]$	$V_i[T_{15}]$
1 ( <i>Hymedesmia</i> sp. 1)	10.60	90.33
2 ( <i>Crisia eburnea</i> )	7.49	78.09
3 ( <i>Myxilla fimbriata</i> )	10.54	91.08
4 ( <i>Mycale lingua</i> )	13.00	112.38
5 ( <i>Filograna implexa</i> )	7.04	76.04
6 ( <i>Urticina crassicornis</i> )	13.34	117.97
7 ( <i>Ascidia callosa</i> )	6.32	74.63
8 ( <i>Aplidium pallidum</i> )	7.13	78.49
9 ( <i>Hymedesmia</i> sp. 2)	9.48	89.84
10 ( <i>Idmidronea atlantica</i> )	6.98	78.89
11 (coralline algae)	7.67	78.40
12 ( <i>Metridium senile</i> )	7.18	79.47
13 ( <i>Parasmittina jeffreysi</i> )	7.09	78.28
14 ( <i>Spirorbis spirorbis</i> )	5.41	70.31

Table 3

Mean ( $E_i[J_{15}]$ ) and variance ( $V_i[J_{15}]$ ) of number of state changes (dimensionless) separating each other current state  $i$  from state 15 (bare rock) in the time-reversed stationary continuous-time Markov chain based on the data in [4].

Current state $i$	$E_i[J_{15}]$	$V_i[J_{15}]$
1 ( <i>Hymedesmia</i> sp. 1)	5.42	17.64
2 ( <i>Crisia eburnea</i> )	4.35	17.38
3 ( <i>Myxilla fimbriata</i> )	5.45	17.91
4 ( <i>Mycale lingua</i> )	5.35	17.80
5 ( <i>Filograna implexa</i> )	4.63	17.54
6 ( <i>Urticina crassicornis</i> )	5.42	17.68
7 ( <i>Ascidia callosa</i> )	4.41	17.41
8 ( <i>Aplidium pallidum</i> )	4.86	17.76
9 ( <i>Hymedesmia</i> sp. 2)	5.23	18.13
10 ( <i>Idmidronea atlantica</i> )	4.68	17.79
11 (coralline algae)	4.68	17.50
12 ( <i>Metridium senile</i> )	4.26	17.12
13 ( <i>Parasmittina jeffreysi</i> )	4.73	17.83
14 ( <i>Spirorbis spirorbis</i> )	3.97	16.54

Fig. 1. Cumulative distributions of first passage time ( $T_{15}$ , years) to state 15 (bare rock) from state 14 (*Spirorbis spirorbis*) in the time-reversed stationary discrete-time Markov chains based on the data in [4], with observation intervals 1 (solid line), 2 (broken line) and 5 (dash-dot line) years.

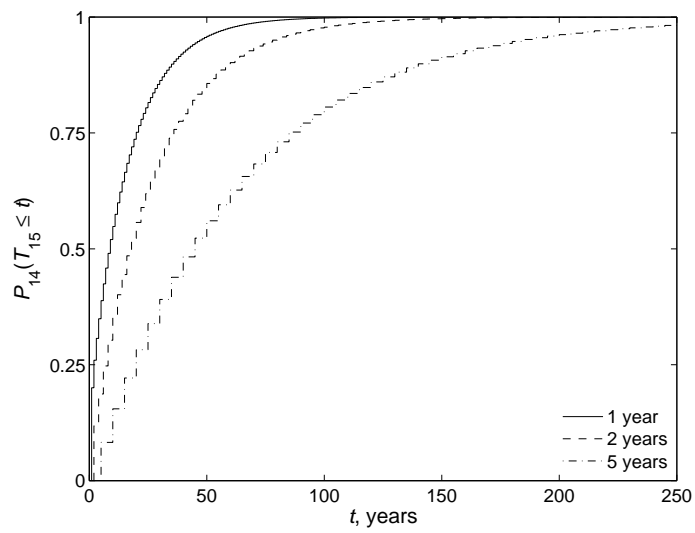




Fig. 2. Cumulative distributions of first passage time ( $T_{15}$ , years) to state 15 (bare rock) from each current state  $i$  (panel numbers) in the time-reversed stationary continuous-time (broken lines) and discrete-time (solid lines) Markov chains based on the data in [4]. See Table 2 for state names.

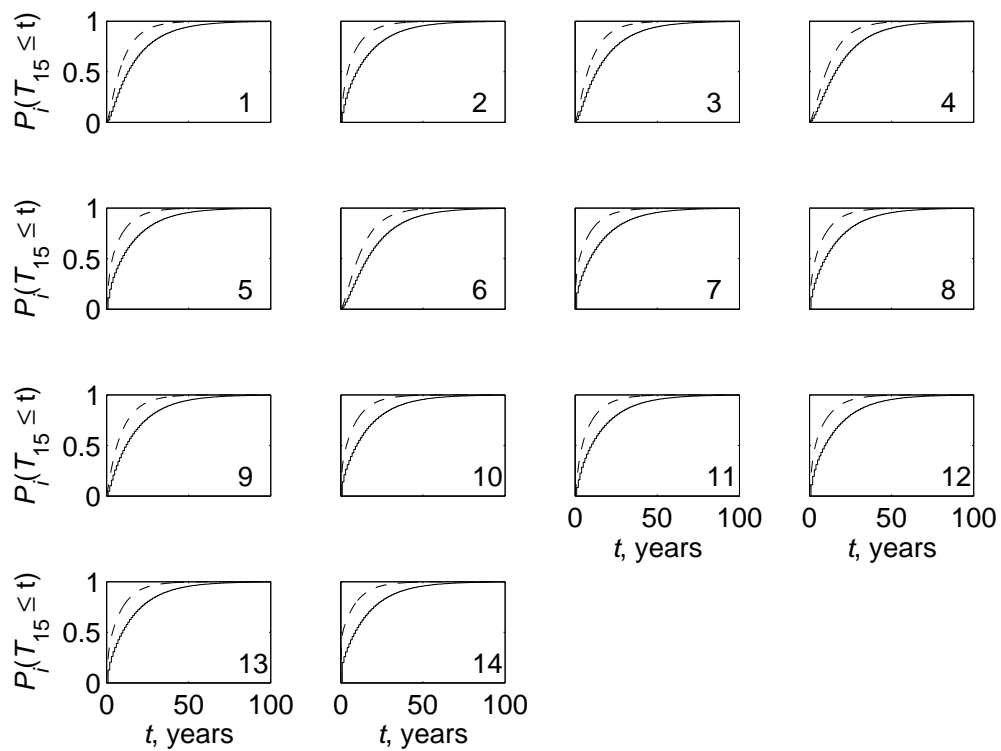


Fig. 3. Relationships between (a) stationary probability ( $\pi_i$ , dimensionless) and expected first passage time ( $E_i[T_{15}]$ , years) to state 15 (bare rock), (b) rate of leaving ( $-q_{ii}$ , years $^{-1}$ ) and expected first passage time to state 15, (c) stationary probability and rate of leaving, for all states  $i$  other than bare rock in the time-reversed stationary continuous-time Markov chain based on the data in [4].

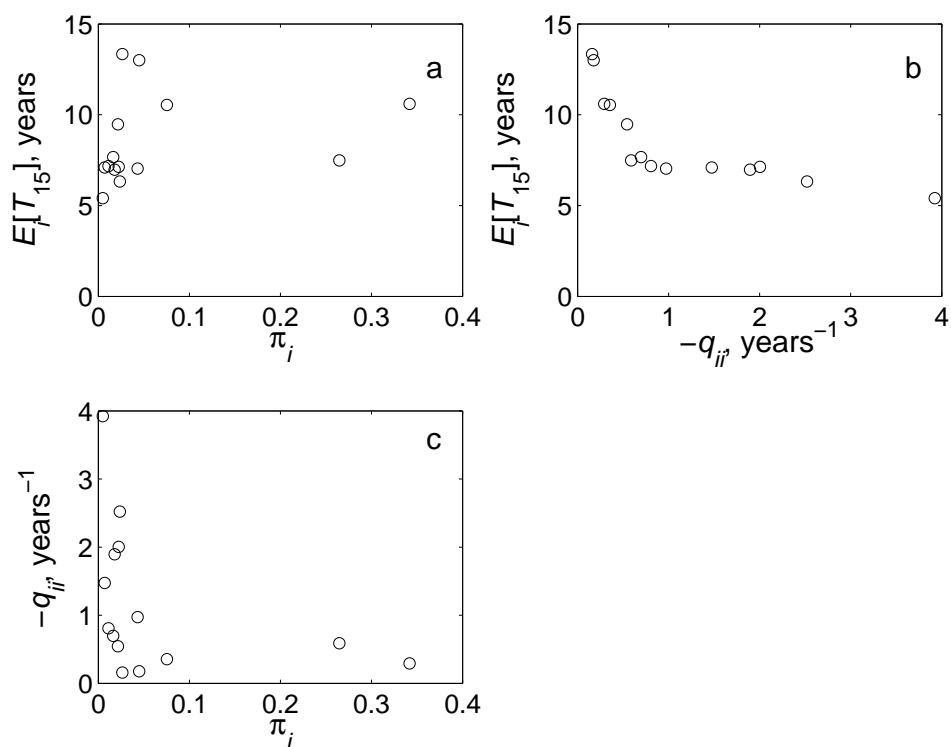


Fig. 4. Successional patterns where: (a) differences in successional rank result only from differences in the rate of colonization of bare rock (state  $j$ ); and (b) differences in successional rank result from differences in the number of events separating a state from bare rock.

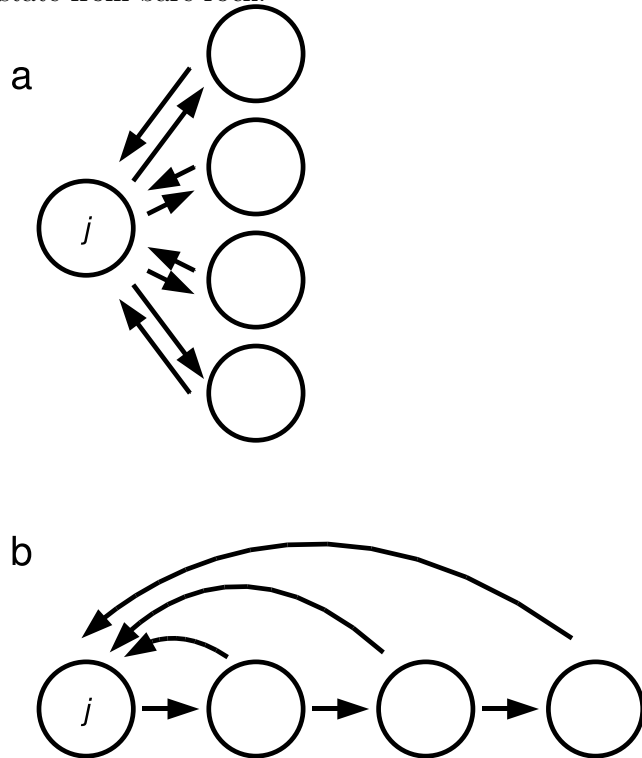


Fig. 5. Relationship between expected number of jumps ( $E_i[J_{15}]$ , dimensionless) and expected time ( $E_i[T_{15}]$ , years) to state 15 (bare rock), for all states  $i$  other than bare rock, in the time-reversed continuous-time Markov chain based on data in [4].

