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**Indirectly connected: simple social differences can explain
the causes and apparent consequences of complex social
network positions**

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1 Indirectly connected: simple social differences can explain the causes
2 and apparent consequences of complex social network positions

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12

13 **ABSTRACT**

14 Animal societies are often structurally complex. How individuals are positioned
15 within the wider social network (i.e. their indirect social connections) has been
16 shown to be repeatable, heritable, and related to key life history variables. Yet,
17 there remains a general lack of understanding surrounding how complex
18 network positions arise, whether they indicate active multifaceted social
19 decisions by individuals, and how natural selection could act on this variation.
20 We use simulations to assess how variation in simple social association rules
21 between individuals can determine their positions within emerging social
22 networks. Our results show that metrics of individuals' indirect connections can
23 be more strongly related to underlying simple social differences than metrics of
24 their dyadic connections. External influences causing network noise (typical of
25 animal social networks) generally inflated these differences. The findings
26 demonstrate that relationships between complex network positions and other
27 behaviours or fitness components do not provide sufficient evidence for the
28 presence, or importance, of complex social behaviours, even if direct network
29 metrics provide less explanatory power than indirect ones. Interestingly
30 however, a plausible and straightforward heritable basis for complex network
31 positions can arise from simple social differences, which in turn creates potential
32 for selection to act on indirect connections.

33

34

35 INTRODUCTION

36

37 Societies across the animal kingdom, ranging from humans to insects, are often
38 characterized by complex organisation [1, 2]. It is the social behaviour of
39 individuals within the population that gives rise to the intricate structure of
40 social systems [3-5]. Indeed, within such systems, individuals differ in the
41 manners in which they interact with others and in the strength and extent of
42 social relationships [6-9]. Much of the study of animal social behaviour aims to
43 understand these differences between individuals, including the selective
44 pressures that have shaped and maintained them, their implications for our
45 understanding of divergent social strategies, and their physiological and genetic
46 underpinnings [5, 10, 11].

47

48 One of the major complexities in the study of individual variation in social
49 behaviour results from the fact that the social environment almost always
50 consists of a polyadic network of non-independent social ties [12, 13]. Animals
51 are connected to the individuals with whom they associate with directly (direct
52 connections), but are also tied indirectly to the partners of their social partners
53 (indirect connections) [8, 13-15]. Social network analysis has become a popular
54 tool for animal social behaviour research [14, 16] as it allows researchers to look
55 beyond how individuals differ at the level of direct, dyadic, associations and to
56 explore how animals are positioned in the wider social environment [13]. The
57 many different measures of individuals' general social centrality or integration
58 within a social network allows their indirect connections and network positions
59 to be quantified in various ways. For example, commonly considered metrics
60 include: 'eigenvector centrality', which sums their associates' associations;
61 'betweenness', which calculates how many of the shortest social paths between
62 others in the network pass through them; and 'closeness' which measures their
63 social distance to every other individual [13].

64

65 Currently, many questions remain surrounding the importance of indirect
66 network connections to our understanding of animal social behaviour [13, 48].
67 Indirect connections are, by definition, an emergent feature of associations
68 between pairs of individuals. Yet the extent of information regarding polyadic
69 connections that individuals possess, and whether they can use this to influence
70 their social environment, is largely unknown. Whether the relationships between
71 indirect network positions and wider traits (e.g. fitness) are evidence of the
72 importance of indirect connections, or whether simpler, and perhaps more
73 parsimonious, explanations underpin such findings also needs to be established.
74 Further, how complex network positions, which intrinsically depend upon the
75 direct social associations among pairs of others, can be repeatable, heritable or
76 the target of selection at the individual-level remains uncertain.

77

78 Despite the lack of clarity surrounding these fundamental issues regarding
79 indirect connections, recent findings have shown that an individual's tendency to
80 be indirectly connected to others can be consistent [9, 17, 18], even following
81 disturbance [19-21], heritable [9, 22, 23], and strongly related to other variables
82 of interest, including the likelihood of contracting disease [24-27], obtaining new
83 information [28, 29], or of leading group movements [30]. Indirect connections

84 have even been associated with proxies of fitness, with studies reporting positive
85 associations between indirect network metrics and an individual's future social
86 status [31-33], survival [34] and reproductive output [9, 33, 35-37]. Within this
87 body of research, a growing number of studies have found effects of indirect
88 connections even after controlling for dyadic associations, and an even greater
89 relative importance of these complex metrics than direct dyadic ones (reviewed
90 in Brent (2015) [13] and more recent studies thereafter [36, 37]), leading to
91 various conclusions regarding the importance of indirect connections within
92 societies.

93
94 Extended interpretations surrounding complex network positions have
95 suggested that the consequences of indirect connections stem from individuals
96 actively undertaking complex social manoeuvres and making decisions based on
97 their understanding of the wider network structure and relationships between
98 third parties [36, 37]. These suggestions certainly fit well with evidence
99 suggesting that some species have the ability to obtain social information in an
100 indirect manner. For example, cichlids may infer the relative dominance status of
101 pairs of males using information on the pairs' relative status with other fish [38];
102 primates and corvids appear to eavesdrop on the relationships between pairs of
103 third parties [39, 40], and to shape their behaviour around others' social bonds
104 [41-44]. Further, it has recently been reported that the human brain may be
105 capable of spontaneously encoding the indirect network positions of others [45-
106 47]. These results, combined with the fitness correlates of indirect metrics
107 described above, may even suggest that selection is acting directly to shape not
108 just the dyadic, but also the polyadic social world.

109
110 Identifying how simple differences between individuals generate differences in
111 their complex indirect network positions not only helps avoid misleading
112 conclusions about social structure, but is also important for understanding how
113 both simple social behaviours and complex social network structure can evolve.
114 In this study, we use a simulation approach to assess how direct social network
115 metrics (quantified using social associations at a dyadic-level) and indirect
116 network metrics (intended for quantifying higher-level structure) emerge from
117 simple differences in individuals' association patterns. By creating different
118 social scenarios, we determine how basic sources of individual variation in terms
119 of social associations can actually be more strongly predictive of indirect
120 network metrics than direct network metrics. Further, we examine how external
121 processes that shape the network itself (or how we measure it), can affect the
122 relationship between simple social differences and variation in social network
123 metrics. We highlight the importance of understanding the relationships
124 between simple association patterns and network positions for drawing
125 conclusions in relation to the causes of variation, and how such relationships
126 allow the repeatability, heritability, and the selection of complex social positions
127 to result from relatively simple mechanisms.

128

129

130 **METHODS**

131

132 ***General framework***

133 In research on empirical social networks, the data are based upon the social
134 association patterns observed within the inferred social network. Therefore,
135 underlying social differences between individuals are deduced from their
136 positions within the social network ('social network metrics'). These measures of
137 individuals' social network positions are then often used in analyses relating to
138 various other traits/processes, from which conclusions are drawn about the
139 causes and consequences of individuals' social behaviour [1, 14]

140
141 For example, if a metric measuring the sum of individuals' indirect social
142 associations (i.e. their associates' social associations - 'eigenvector centrality')
143 held a stronger relationship to their fitness than a metric measuring the sum of
144 their direct social associations (i.e. how often they associate with others -
145 'weighted degree' or 'strength'), it might be concluded that individuals'
146 propensity to indirectly associate with others (e.g. by associating with others
147 who themselves have lots of associations) is more important to fitness than
148 simply their propensity to associate with others [36, 37]. Therefore, drawing
149 conclusions related to underlying differences in social behaviour often relies on
150 the assumption that the network metric used as a proxy of the underlying social
151 differences is accurate, and more related to this social behaviour than the other
152 network metrics it is been compared to. However, within the field of animal
153 social networks, it has been notoriously difficult to assess how social network
154 metrics actually effectively relate to underlying social differences, and the
155 consequences of this. Therefore, we use a computational approach that allows us
156 to vary individuals' underlying social association patterns, simulate the arising
157 social network, and subsequently assess how the initially specified variation can
158 be recovered using social network metrics. In particular, we aim to determine
159 how direct social network metrics and indirect social network metrics (see
160 below) are generated from simple social differences between individuals.

161
162 We separately considered three simple scenarios, each with its own specified
163 process underlying social differences between individuals (see above, and see
164 *Supplementary Methods* for details). For each of these three scenarios, we carried
165 out simulations where social associations occurred at random apart from the
166 specified scenario to generate the arising social networks. Within the
167 simulations, each individual was randomly assigned a trait value from a standard
168 uniform distribution on which their social differences were conditioned (see
169 *Supplementary Methods* for details). Each simulation consisted of 1000
170 individuals with, on average, 100 associations assigned to each individual (but
171 see *supplementary information* for variations of this).

172
173 First, we considered individuals' general sociability' ('GS') as the number of
174 individuals that a focal individual generally associates with (which is also
175 analogous to gregariousness or average group size). In this simulation scenario,
176 we assigned individuals to 'grouping events' based on their trait value, whereby
177 those with high GS had a higher probability of occurring in larger grouping
178 events than those with a low GS. Grouping events ranged in size from 1-10
179 individuals (but see *supplementary information* for variations). All individuals
180 within a grouping event were classed as holding an association to one another.
181 This is similar to the commonly-used 'gambit of the group' approach whereby

182 spatio-temporally clustered individuals are considered associated [49, 50]. This
183 process was carried out until, on average, each individual had engaged in 100
184 associations (see *supplementary methods*).

185

186 In a second scenario, individuals were set to vary in their ‘reassociation
187 tendency’ (‘RT’), which was defined as their propensity to reassociate with
188 individuals they had associated with before. Each association was assigned one-
189 by-one by selecting an individual within a random step-wise process (see
190 *supplementary methods*). The probability that the association was then directed
191 towards either a random previous associate of the selected individual, or to a
192 random new associate of the selected individual, was directly proportional to the
193 selected individual’s trait value. Therefore, those with lower RT had a lower
194 social stability and were more likely to associate with others they hadn’t
195 associated with previously.

196

197 Finally, we varied individuals’ ‘within-group association’ (‘WGA’) i.e. their
198 likelihood of associating with their own group members over non-group
199 members. The ‘groups’ defined here could be analogous to any predetermined
200 social groups, such as cliques, animals who share the same home-range, or even
201 a shared phenotype. Individuals were randomly assigned to equally sized
202 ‘groups’ at the beginning of each simulation (100 separate groups of 10
203 individuals in the primary analysis, but see *supplementary information* for
204 variations). Associations were then assigned between dyads on the basis of both
205 of the individual’s trait values and whether or not they were in the same preset
206 ‘group’ (see *supplementary methods*). In this way, higher WGA values increased
207 an individual’s propensity to direct more of their associations towards those
208 categorized as being in the same ‘group’ as themselves, whilst lower WGA
209 increased the likelihood of engaging in associations with different individuals.

210

211 ***Variation in social network positions***

212 Upon generating the social networks under the three scenarios, we then
213 examined how the initially specified social differences (i.e. trait values) related to
214 variation in social network metrics (or ‘social network positions’). Therefore, for
215 each of the scenarios, we first calculated the relationship between the trait value
216 and the relevant simple metric usually used for measuring such differences
217 directly (see below). Then we calculated the relationship between the trait value
218 and a relevant complex metric that incorporates information on indirect
219 connections [13, 37]. Such metrics are usually used to infer more complex
220 processes than single-dimension variation in dyadic social associations.
221 However, by incorporating information on the wider social structure as well as
222 the individual’s own associations, this may provide a better description of simple
223 social behaviours in emerging networks (see *Network error and noise* and
224 *Discussion: Individual variation and network structure* for further details).

225

226 Specifically, when simulating General Sociability (GS) variation, we used
227 ‘weighted degree’ as the simple direct metric. This measure represents the sum
228 of an individual’s dyadic associations to others and is thus often used with the
229 intention that it is a direct measure of the general sociability of an individual. We
230 used ‘eigenvector centrality’ as the indirect metric, which is derived from the

231 sum of each individual's associates' associations (i.e. their 'second-order
232 associations'). This complex metric is usually used with the intention to describe
233 individuals' propensity to form connections with highly connected individuals.
234 However, eigenvector centrality may relate to initial GS due to incorporating
235 information on individuals' associates' associations when assortment by degree
236 can arise due to passive processes [51, 52].

237
238 In the Reassociation Tendency (RT) variation simulations we used 'average edge
239 weight' (or 'mean non-zero edge weight') as the intuitive direct metric, which is
240 an individual's mean dyadic association strength to each of their associates.
241 Thus, this may be viewed as a direct measure of reassociation tendency (or social
242 stability), with those possessing the strongest bonds (i.e. high average edge
243 weights) having the highest reassociation tendency. As a relevant, but more
244 complicated metric, we used 'betweenness centrality', calculated as the number
245 of shortest paths between all individuals in the network that pass through the
246 focal individual. This is commonly used to infer the extent to which individuals
247 act as a 'bridge' within the network, and therefore those that may be particularly
248 important to information and disease spread [14]. In this case, betweenness may
249 be expected to correlate with RT as differences in stability of associations could
250 give rise to variation in the amount of mixing individuals engage in within the
251 resultant network.

252
253 Finally, when simulating variation in Within-Group Association ('WGA'), we
254 calculated individuals' 'EI index' that is used as a direct measure of within-group
255 associations in relation to out-group associations (ranging from -1 to +1, where -
256 1 = all associations directed to non-group members and +1 = all associations held
257 are with group members, and 0 = equal number of associations with group and
258 non-group members). As the indirect complex metric, we used 'closeness', which
259 assesses the path length of the focal individual to every other individual within
260 the network. As segregation arises when distinct classes/groups exist, those
261 which are most likely to focus their associations towards their own class/group
262 may be expected to be relatively distant from the majority of others within the
263 wider network, whilst those with more equal mixing will experience higher
264 general 'closeness' within the network.

265 266 **Network noise**

267 Together with consistent social differences between individuals, the structure of
268 empirically derived social networks are likely to be subject to noise, such as due
269 to external processes or imperfect observation and inference due to the wide
270 variety of sampling intensities and accuracies across studies [53, 54]. It is
271 therefore important to gain insight into how such noise may influence the
272 strength of, and our quantification of, the relationship that specified sources of
273 individual variation holds with direct dyadic network metrics and complex
274 indirect metrics.

275
276 We examined four types of noise processes separately: (i) Link removal is the
277 deletion of social associations between dyads (Figure 1a) and (ii) node removal
278 is the deletion of individuals and their social associations to others (Figure 1b).
279 Either of these deletion processes may arise from incomplete observation or

280 limited sampling of a population. Therefore, carrying out these removal
281 processes at different intensities on generated networks mimic the effect of
282 different levels of sampling intensities of individuals or associations between
283 individuals. Alternatively, the deletion processes could also be viewed as similar
284 to external factors that put limitations on which individuals can interact or are
285 consistently present in the system. (iii) Link rewiring refers to reassignment of
286 social associations between random triads, whereby the value of the social
287 association between individual 'A' and individual 'B' would be swapped with the
288 social association between individual 'A' and individual 'C', thus the strengths of
289 the social associations between dyads are randomised (even if was previously
290 zero) (Figure 1c). (iv) Node rewiring is randomising the identity (and all
291 associated information) of a subset of individuals (Figure 1d). Either of these
292 rewiring processes may arise from imperfect inference of associations or
293 individual identification (which again may be related to sampling intensities), or
294 external influences and other factors determining which interactions actually
295 take place. We generated each noise processes (i.e. removal and rewiring of links
296 or nodes) ranging from 10% to 90% of links or nodes selected for removal or
297 rewiring. This was carried out in intervals of 10% on final versions of the
298 simulated networks arising from each scenario. We carried out 1000 simulations
299 of each noise process (n=4) for networks generated from each scenario
300 described above (n=3) at each different level (0% to 90%) resulting in 120
301 different types of simulated network (360 including *supplementary information*
302 variations) and a total of 1,200,000 networks (3,600,000 including
303 *supplementary information*). In each case, we examined the relationship between
304 the initially specified simple trait values of individuals and their relevant direct
305 and indirect metrics calculated from the simulated network.

306

307 RESULTS

308

309 As expected, the simulations gave rise to fully connected networks of different
310 structures (Figure 2). The differences in structures were maintained when
311 various types of noise/error (Figure 1) were inputted even at relatively high
312 levels (Figure S1).

313

314 The ranked correlation of the simple initial trait with the direct metrics and with
315 the indirect metrics provides an intuitive measure of which type of metric is
316 most related to the social differences between individuals. First, when
317 considering simulation scenario (1) individuals' general sociability ('GS')
318 correlated more with their complex indirect social network position
319 (eigenvector centrality) than the simple direct measure (weighted degree), even
320 before any simulated noise (i.e. the start point in Figure 3a). With increasing
321 levels of link removal (randomly deleting associations), the strength of the
322 relationship between the initially specified social differences and both direct and
323 indirect social network metrics decreased (particularly for >50% noise) but
324 eigenvector centrality always remained the stronger predictor of GS.

325

326 A similar pattern was also found for the second simulation scenario, as
327 individuals' reassociation tendency ('RT') was more strongly related to their
328 betweenness centrality (the indirect metric) than their average bond strength

329 (direct metric). In this scenario, this difference was exaggerated with increasing
330 link removal, as the correlation between re-association tendency and average
331 bond strength declined more than its correlation with the indirect network
332 metric of betweenness (Figure 3b).

333
334 Finally, the direct measure of in-group out-group ties (the EI index) was a
335 slightly better predictor of variation in individuals' within-group association
336 ('WGA') before any noise was introduced. But, increasing the proportion of
337 nodes removed rapidly resulted in the indirect metric (closeness) being more
338 strongly correlated to WGA than the direct metric. This was due to the EI index
339 suffering a greater reduction in prediction ability with increased error (Figure
340 3c). For all three scenarios, removing nodes appeared to differ slightly from
341 removing links in how it affected overall network structure (Figure S1).
342 However, the extent to which indirect metrics were more strongly related than
343 direct metrics to the underlying social differences under increased node removal
344 generally mimicked that of increased link removal (as described above) over all
345 three scenarios (Figure 3d-f).

346
347 We also considered how rewiring aspects of the network (links and nodes),
348 rather than removing them, influenced the relationship between the specified
349 social differences and the direct and indirect metrics across the three different
350 scenarios (Figure 4). Increased link rewiring reduced the difference between the
351 indirect metric and the direct metric, as eigenvector centrality and weighted
352 degree were similarly correlated to GS when >50% of links were rewired (Figure
353 4a). Under the RT and WGA scenarios however, link rewiring increased the
354 difference between the direct (average edge weight and EI-index respectively)
355 and the indirect metrics' (betweenness and closeness respectively) correlations
356 to the initial social differences (RT and WGA respectively) (Figure 4b-c). This
357 resulted in the indirect metrics being even more strongly related to the initial
358 social differences than the direct metrics. In both cases, although the correlation
359 remained highest for the indirect metrics across all levels of rewiring, the raw
360 differences (but not proportional differences) in predictive ability decreased as
361 >60% of links were randomized (Figure 4b-c).

362
363 Rewiring nodes (i.e. randomly swapping individuals' positions) caused a similar
364 linear decrease in the correlations between social differences in the GS and RT
365 scenarios and both direct and indirect metrics (Figure 4d-e). Although the raw
366 difference in the correlations decreased slightly (Figure 4d-e), it should be noted
367 that the proportional difference between these correlations remained the same
368 with increasing node rewiring, thus the initial slight advantage of the indirect
369 metrics was maintained. Although the correlation between WGA and the indirect
370 metric (closeness) again decreased linearly, the direct metric (EI-index) suffered
371 a larger decrease in predictive power under increased node rewiring (Figure 4f).
372 Intuitively, the decreasing relationship between WGA and the EI-index under
373 node rewiring is driven by assigning individuals to positions unrelated to their
374 actual group.

375
376 Overall, indirect metrics generally provided a much more robust representation
377 of the specified source of individual variation – even within these rather simple

378 scenarios (Figure 3;4). However, to further verify the conclusions from these
379 simulations, we carried out supplementary analyses considering networks of
380 different sizes and variations (see *Supplementary Methods*). We found that all the
381 same patterns as described above were replicated when considering smaller
382 networks (Figure S2-3), larger networks (Figure S4-5) as well as when altering
383 the core aspects of the scenario specifications (Figure S6-7) i.e. varying co-
384 occurrence sizes in scenario 1 (GS), stability level in scenario 2 (RT) and number
385 of pre-set groups for scenario 3 (WGA). Thus, the results found within the
386 primary setting were generalizable to the different circumstances and variations
387 of the analysis.

388

389 DISCUSSION

390

391 We use simulations to show that individual variation based on simple, dyadic-
392 based, social rules can be more strongly related to indirect metrics of social
393 network position than direct measures. We show that this difference can be
394 further exaggerated under random noise that frequently characterises social
395 network data in animal populations. These findings echo previous research
396 showing that complex collective and group-level patterns can be explained by
397 simple rules [30, 55, 56]. In this case, our results show how simple social
398 differences can explain the causes of variation in complex network metrics. The
399 results have direct implications for: (i) interpreting social network positions, (ii)
400 understanding how selection may act on social systems through simple means,
401 and (iii) considering how individual variation gives rise to overall network
402 structure.

403

404 *Interpreting social network positions*

405 Our findings contribute to the debate regarding the complexity of individual-
406 level behaviour needed to generate complex patterns within a system [13, 55, 57,
407 58]. For example, we show that simple differences in the number of associates
408 with which individuals occur can ultimately govern whether they associate with
409 highly central individuals or with peripheral individuals (i.e. variation in
410 eigenvector centrality). Importantly, the initial source of variation holds a
411 stronger relationship to a complex network metric than it does to a measure that
412 directly considers associations with others (weighted degree). Individuals need
413 not, therefore, actively shape this complex network position - for instance by
414 preferentially engaging in associations with high centrality individuals - for a
415 correlation between eigenvector centrality and individual-level traits to arise. In
416 the same sense, any trait of interest with a stronger relationship to a complex
417 measure need not necessarily be linked to an individuals' innate propensity to
418 engage in complex social behaviour, but rather could be generated by a simpler
419 mechanism.

420

421 Along with the clear implications for interpreting results within animal systems,
422 our findings have some relevance for understanding human behaviour. For
423 instance, recent studies monitoring brain activity suggested that humans are
424 able to spontaneously identify the complex (indirect) network positions of
425 others [46, 47, 59]. However, if unmeasured simple behaviours or traits hold
426 relatively strong relationships to indirect metrics, humans may simply use these

427 traits as a general cue of indirect social connections. Indeed, modeling and
428 empirical research has demonstrated that individuals can infer the complex
429 network position of others in terms of their propensity to spread information
430 using simple dyadic-level cues with no knowledge of overall structure [29, 60].
431 Thus, even if humans within networks have little knowledge of its structure [61,
432 62], the relationship between simple traits and complex metrics may produce
433 patterns which imply the opposite. Nevertheless, across all systems, even if
434 indirect social metrics do not provide evidence of complex social mechanics at
435 the individual level, we also point out that the demonstrated resilience to noise
436 (Figure 3;4; S2-S7) may mean that they do offer a robust indication of social
437 differences between individuals (whether or not this is complex).

438
439 Although previous research reporting relationships between indirect metrics
440 and other processes does not necessarily imply complex behavioural processes,
441 equally, we do not suggest that such phenomena can be ruled out. Future work
442 using novel approaches to clearly assess whether, and how, certain animals
443 (including humans) infer the network positions of others and shape their
444 indirect associations would be of great interest. For such conclusions to be
445 drawn, methodological approaches which allow the separation of simple dyadic
446 level behaviour and complex social behaviour from observed social network data
447 would be valuable. For instance, future work trying to separate the effects of
448 indirect network positions over and above simple behaviours on other variables
449 (such as fitness) will likely require appropriate null models that are conditioned
450 on the simple behaviours themselves, rather than on the network i.e.
451 permutations of the raw behavioural data [53, 63] or simulation models
452 parameterized on the system itself. Simply controlling for other network
453 properties (i.e. direct metrics) will not adequately rule out the influence of
454 simple social differences on arising indirect metrics. Further, novel experiments
455 that manipulate simple behaviours and examine the resultant consequences for
456 social networks [20, 64], and the consequences of this for social processes [65],
457 would be particularly useful in elucidating the relationship between simple
458 behaviours and arising network metrics, and their causal relationships with
459 other variables.

460
461 In light of our findings, we advise that studies demonstrating a relationship
462 between an aspect of interest (e.g. a particular trait, process, or measure) and
463 indirect social network metrics do not necessarily indicate that indirect, or
464 complex, social behavioural differences are present or hold any particular
465 importance (even if direct metrics provide less explanation). This is particularly
466 relevant to animal social networks, when the factors driving underlying
467 behavioural differences usually are unknown and social network metrics are
468 instead used as a proxy for those factors [14].

469
470 *Selection on social network positions*

471 Our findings also have implications for understanding how selection may act on
472 social network positions of individuals. Although previous research has reported
473 links between individual fitness and complex social network positions [9, 31-37],
474 the mechanisms driving such relationships, as well as the heritable basis of such
475 complex differences, remains less intuitive. Indeed, how complex indirect

476 network positions, which essentially rely upon the connections between third
477 parties, could be heritable (or even repeatable) appears puzzling – particularly
478 when it is to a greater extent than direct network measures [9]. The strong
479 causal relationship between simple underlying social differences and indirect
480 connections within arising networks demonstrated here allows the heritability
481 of these complex traits through much simpler mechanisms. For example, if
482 disease spread caused those with highest betweenness to suffer fitness costs,
483 then a strong link between a simple trait which could intuitively have a heritable
484 basis (e.g. tendency to reassociate) and betweenness could allow selection to act
485 on individuals with the highest betweenness to an even greater extent than on
486 simpler association metrics. These phenomena would then result in higher
487 apparent heritability of the complex metrics than simple dyadic network metrics
488 [9]. Secondly, the relationship between simple behaviours and indirect metrics
489 could also allow selection to act on complex network positions indirectly (i.e. as a
490 by-product of selection on a simple correlated trait). Again, this could be to an
491 even greater extent than the indirect selection on more simple association
492 metrics. For example, our simulations suggest if variation in individuals'
493 propensity to occur in larger groups was linked to fitness (whereby the most
494 sociable individuals have higher fitness), this would concurrently cause strong
495 indirect selection on eigenvector centrality, and this would be stronger than the
496 selection on individuals' number of associates.

497
498 Thus, the relationship between individual social differences and indirect metrics
499 creates the potential for selection to act even more strongly on complex network
500 positions than simple network metrics, through allowing the heritability of
501 complex positions subject directly to selection (as in the first example) or by
502 indirectly selecting for complex positions through their association with simple
503 underlying traits (as in the second example). Both explanations offer convincing
504 and plausible explanations for how selection can sculpt the entire network
505 structure more so than would be expected under selection on simple dyadic
506 network positions. Further work using selection and quantitative genetic models
507 to intricately assess this, along with examining how changes in overall network
508 architecture across generations that result, may interact with this, would be of
509 great interest to understanding how wider social structure evolves.

510 511 *Individual variation and network structure*

512 The complexity of actual animal societies [53] is likely to be much greater than
513 considered within the simulations within this work. Within our study, we only
514 consider social systems arising from simple social differences, and each are only
515 subjected to one type of random noise process. Natural networks are likely to be
516 shaped by various processes simultaneously, and contain combinations of noise
517 processes dependent on sampling protocol and intensity, and such error may
518 even be non-random [53, 66]. Our findings suggest that increased levels and
519 types of external network-shaping processes may cause simple social differences
520 to be relatively more strongly related to indirect network positions compared to
521 more direct measures. Thus, the simulations employed here represent a
522 conservative test of how indirect metrics may be strongly correlated to simple
523 underlying variation, even in the absence of complex social behaviour. However,
524 we caution that we do not suggest that indirect metrics will always universally

525 be better measures of underlying social variation than direct metrics. Rather, we
526 aim to emphasize that consideration should be given to the potential factors
527 shaping network structure, and that appropriate metrics should be chosen and
528 conclusions should be drawn carefully.

529
530 Mathematical, simulation-based, or empirical data that address precisely how
531 social differences give rise to variation in complex indirect network positions
532 would now also be of interest. For instance, positive assortativity is a common
533 feature of many social networks [51], particularly when networks are created
534 using the gambit-of-the-group approach [49, 50, 52]. Our simulations show that
535 simple differences in general sociability (or group size preference), cause this
536 positive assortativity (scenario 1 – assortativity generally ranging from $r=0.15$ -
537 0.40 depending on noise/error type) which results in individuals having
538 associates with similar numbers of associates as themselves. Therefore, as
539 eigenvector centrality also includes information about an individual's associates'
540 associates, this then provides an even more robust measure of an individual's
541 underlying behaviour than simply considering their own associations i.e.
542 considering an individual's wider position within the network enables more
543 accurate estimation of their dyadic-level behaviour than just considering their
544 dyadic associations due to the complex patterns that arise even within simple
545 scenarios. In the same sense, differences in the stability of individuals' social ties
546 (i.e. their reassociation tendency) causes those engaging in higher levels of
547 mixing to act as bridges within the network and experience higher betweenness.
548 Additionally, when distinct classes/groups exist (WGS scenario), segregation
549 within the network arises and individuals who are most likely to focus their
550 associations towards their own class/group will be removed from the other
551 classes, whilst those with more equal mixing will experience higher 'social
552 closeness' within the network. Gaining a broader and more general
553 understanding of how social positions arise from generative sources of
554 individual behavioural variation, and the correlation between these metrics, will
555 further advance our knowledge of how overall network structure arises [67-69].

556

557 *Conclusion*

558 We show that simple social differences can be more related to individuals'
559 indirect connections than to their direct connections within social networks.
560 Therefore, while indirect network metrics need not illustrate the presence of
561 complex social decisions, or their importance for apparent social or biological
562 processes, the relationship that indirect social positions hold with simple
563 underlying individual variation allows for their heritability and for selection to
564 act on them (and therefore wider network structure) through this. We suggest
565 that future research should now focus on assessing how natural selection acts on
566 complex network positions, and on developing new analytical and experimental
567 methods to assess whether certain species actively shape their indirect
568 connections and how social structure develops from underlying individual
569 variation.

570

571 *Data accessibility*

572 The code required for generating the simulated data is provided in the
573 supplementary material

574

575 Authors' contributions

576 J.A.F. conceived the study, carried out the analysis and wrote the initial draft. All

577 authors contributed towards designing the study, interpreting the results and

578 revising the manuscript.

579

580 Competing interests

581 We declare we have no competing interests.

582

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591

592

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- 803
- 804

805 Figure Legends

806

807 Figure 1. Illustrative examples of the different kinds of network noise input. In
808 this example, the initial network contains 15 individuals with 50 random
809 associations between them (central network). The surrounding networks show
810 (a) link removal, (b) node removal, (c) link rewiring and (d) node rewiring. Each
811 of the noise/error processes is carried out at the 50% level. The size of nodes
812 shows the sum of their associations, the thickness of the lines indicates the
813 strength of each dyadic association, and nodes are positioned using a spring
814 layout of the initial (central) network.

815

816 Figure 2. Example networks from each of the three simple scenarios of individual
817 variation in (a) general sociability, (b) reassociation tendency, and (c) within-
818 group association. All three panels show the networks using the baseline
819 specifications (1000 individuals, an average of 100 associations per individual)
820 before any noise/error. (a) Points show individuals and colour denotes their
821 initial trait value (blue = low, red = high). Lines show social links between
822 individuals, and line thickness shows strength of the social link (number of
823 associations). Points are laid out in a circular format that minimizes overlap
824 between links. See Figure S1 for example networks with noise.

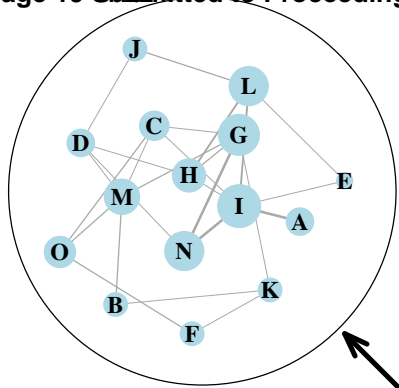
825

826 Figure 3. The relationship between simple social differences and direct (red
827 lines) and indirect metrics (blue lines) in three simulation scenarios (rows) over
828 different levels of missing links (a-c; left hand panels) and nodes (d-f; right hand
829 panels). Each row shows the different social scenarios as denoted by y-axis
830 whereby GS = 'General Sociability' (a & d; top row; scenario 1), 'RT' =
831 'Reassociation Tendency' (b & e; mid row; scenario 2), and 'WGA' = 'Within-
832 Group Association'. The value of the y-axis denotes the correlation between
833 individuals' initial traits and the direct/indirect metric of interest (scenario 1:
834 direct = weighted degree, indirect = eigenvector centrality; scenario 2: direct =
835 average edge weight, indirect = betweenness, scenario 3: direct = EI-index,
836 indirect = closeness). 1000 simulations of each level of the considered
837 proportion of nodes/links removed (x axis) were carried out: mid-lines report
838 the mean r and shaded surrounding area denotes 1 standard deviation around
839 this.

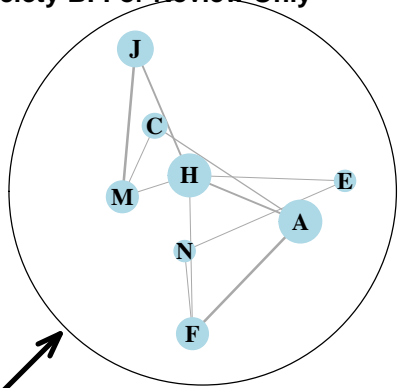
840

841 Figure 4. The relationship between simple social differences and direct (red
842 lines) and indirect metrics (blue lines) in three simulation scenarios (rows) over
843 different levels of rewiring of links (a-c; left hand panels) and nodes (d-f; right
844 hand panels). Each row shows the different social scenarios as denoted by y-axis
845 whereby GS = 'General Sociability' (a & d; top row; scenario 1), 'RT' =
846 'Reassociation Tendency' (b & e; mid row; scenario 2), and 'WGA' = 'Within-
847 Group Association'. The value of the y-axis denotes the correlation between
848 individuals' initial traits and the direct/indirect metric of interest (scenario 1:
849 direct = weighted degree, indirect = eigenvector centrality; scenario 2: direct =
850 average edge weight, indirect = betweenness, scenario 3: direct = EI-index,
851 indirect = closeness). 1000 simulations of each level of the considered
852 proportion of nodes/links rewired (x axis) were carried out: mid-lines report the
853 mean r and shaded surrounding area denotes 1 standard deviation around this.

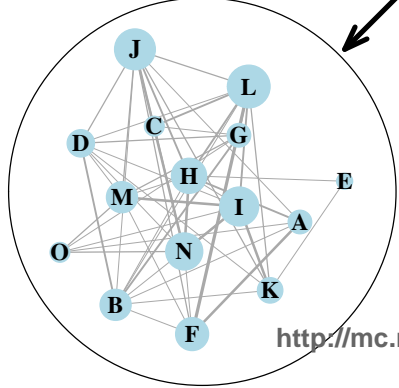
(a) Link Removal



(b) Node Removal



(c) Link Rewiring



(d) Node Rewiring

