

1	Meeting Report
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3	Ecological networks: Delving into the architecture of biodiversity
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25	Summary

26	In recent years, the analysis of interaction networks has grown popular as a framework to explore
27	ecological processes and the relationships between community structure and its functioning. The field
28	has rapidly moved from its infancy to a vibrant youth, as reflected in the variety and quality of the
29	discussions held at the 1st international symposium on Ecological Networks in Coimbra – Portugal (23-
30	25 October). The meeting gathered 170 scientists from 22 countries, who presented data from a broad
31	geographical range, and covering all stages of network analyses, from sampling strategies, to effective
32	ways of communicating results, presenting new analytical tools, incorporation of temporal and spatial
33	dynamics, new applications and visualization tools $^{[1]}$. The meeting revealed that while many of the
34	caveats diagnosed in early ecological networks are successively being tackled, new challenges arise,
35	attesting to the health of the discipline.
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37	Keywords: Community ecology, Food-webs, Interaction matrix, Interactome, Spatio-temporal network
38	dynamics
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39 40	1. Introduction
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- 52 dynamic viewpoint from where scientists can simultaneously "see the forest and the trees", *i.e.* evaluate
- 53 emergent network-level properties and at the same time consider the behavior and functional role of

nodes. In other words, the "network thinking" in ecology not only offers an expanded way to look at
biodiversity but also a mechanistic approach to assess the processes that underpin the complex patterns
we observe in nature.

57 Since the 70s, when networks were imported from physics and social sciences into ecology, they 58 have grown increasingly popular among ecologists (Fig. 1). During the construction of the status quo of 59 complex network analysis, promising avenues of research have been frequently listed as ways to 60 advance the field^[4, 5]. It has been encouraging to see in this meeting that we are now making very 61 significant progress into exploring many of these "dark corners", such as: moving from static to 62 temporally dynamic networks, building networks of networks, mapping individual-based networks, 63 identifying drivers of general link patterns such as modularity, framing coevolution on a network 64 context, and increasingly using network science as a practical conservation tool.

65

66 **2. Improving ecological networks**

67 Regardless of the proclaimed potential of networks to advance ecological theory and practice, broader 68 generalizations and practical applications of this approach are still relatively modest. During the 69 symposium, we identified some general challenges that networks need to overcome in order to meet 70 their full potential. We grouped these challenges into three broad categories, which we discuss here:

71

72 <u>a. Increasingly realistic</u>

73 The accuracy of the insights gained from analyzing interaction networks is primarily limited by the 74 quality of the data. Networks are simplified representations of reality, which is necessary in order to 75 extract the overall patterns from what seems an "infinitely wonderful and complex World^[6]. However, 76 the lower limits for this simplification have to be based on solid scientific criteria, such as taxa 77 resolution, natural habitat borders, and clearly delimited processes, and not by researchers' "comfort 78 zones". Similarly, this "simplification" cannot be a justification for poor sampling. In this regard, it has 79 become evident that in the same way that ecologists have built a solid body of theory for sampling 80 individuals and species, a theory for sampling interactions still needs to be developed, e.g. guidelines for 81 defining minimum acceptable effort, or better ways to deal with incomplete datasets. Such a step will 82 be important for addressing one of the most persistent problems in the field: the *a posteriori*

comparison of networks assembled by different researchers for different ends and which vary greatly in
 their sampling protocols and effort^[7].

85 The difficulty in quantifying the effectiveness of the processes being studied, e.g. pollination or seed-

86 dispersal, often leads researchers to focus on related processes and use these as proxies, e.g. flower-

87 visitation and frugivory as surrogates for pollination and seed-dispersal networks. While these proxies

- 88 hold valuable information, it is important to be clear about what is the actual ecological process
- 89 expressed by the data, i.e. what kind of "information" flows through the links of the network and what
- 90 is its ecological meaning. A correct quantification of the outcome and effectiveness of the real ecological
- 91 process of interest will be invaluable in leading to relevant conclusions.

92 Ultimately, the realism of a network, i.e. how close it mirrors real phenomena, depends on the layers 93 of information that it holds. For example, all nodes within a trophic level are frequently considered to be 94 equal and each of these nodes, formed by an assemblage of "replicated" individuals (regardless of their 95 age, sex, size, social status, etc.). An interesting avenue in order to explore the importance of the nature

96 of the network building blocks is to explore if species-based and individual-based networks offer

97 complementary or diverging information.

98

99 b) Increasingly informative

The first generation of ecological networks mapped observed links between nodes without trying to estimate their relative importance. These qualitative network studies are the foundation of a second generation of quantitative/weighted networks in which the weight of all observed links are scored in a common currency, e.g. interaction frequency or biomass. The incorporation of link weight into interaction matrices represents an enormous increase in informative value. Other much less frequent sources of information are independent estimates of species abundance, node traits (discussed above), and spatially and temporally resolved network data.

107 As networks continue incorporating more detailed information (*e.g.* time and space data, type of

108 interaction), classic graphical representations will most likely become less efficient at visualizing such

- 109 information. The possibility of depicting the complexity of interactions into relatively simple and
- 110 attractive diagrams has been one of the biggest advancements of network ecology. Therefore, we
- 111 envisage that new visualization tools that incorporate new layers of information, such as detailed

characterization of nodes and links may require the development of new graphing routines, such as
interactive interfaces, improved zooming capabilities, and interaction with geo-referenced visual tools
(e.g. Google Earth, GIS).

115 As network ecology is pushed forward and increasingly used to explore community dynamics and 116 mechanistic processes driving ecosystem functions, the choice of the most appropriate descriptors and 117 indices of the behaviour of systems needs to be made carefully. Rather than using the myriad of metrics 118 produced by specific software, it is important to carefully decide which network variables have most 119 heuristic value to a given study. While non-biological network literature will continue to have a great 120 guidance potential for our choice of metrics, it is important to keep in mind the specificities of ecological 121 data/problems. For example, null models are important tools to deal with incomplete datasets, 122 however, there are no completely "fool-proof" null models (e.g. for nestedness or modularity), and 123 accepting certain assumptions will likely inflate either type-I or type-II error rates. And as useful as 124 network analysis is, it will not always, of course, be the best approach to a specific ecological question.

125

126 <u>c. Increasingly useful</u>

127 The advantages of a network approach for conservation planning and as a monitoring tool are 128 frequently listed but much less often translated into a significant contribution for conservation 129 managers. This can be partly explained by the deficit of complete datasets that can provide a solid basis 130 for conservation planning, and also by the frequent lack of communication between scientists and 131 practitioners and the difficulty in establishing good and long-term mutualistic collaborations. Yet, such 132 cooperation between scientists, practitioners and politicians, is invaluable, in order to make the analysis 133 of network complexity useful for in situ conservation. In this regard, a most desirable output is the 134 formulation of rules of thumb that can be easily communicated to broad audiences. Positive signs of a 135 more applied role for networks were presented at the Coimbra meeting and include the implementation 136 of network analysis as a priori planning tool in biological control, urban planning, control of invasive 137 species, and identification of priority areas for conservation. 138

139 **3.** Conclusions

140 During this meeting it became evident that "webbers" still have much to gain from continuously 141 scanning for advances on partially overlapping fields, such as evolutionary biology, landscape genetics, 142 behavioral ecology and phylogeography, and also from other formal disciplines, including physics, social 143 sciences and mathematics (particularly graph theory). For example, recent analyses and developments 144 in the fields of statistical mechanics (physics) and socioeconomics may provide new tools to approach 145 problems related to highly dynamic networks in time, or the fractal structure of "networks of networks". 146 Thus we envision that cross disciplinary insights will continue to be extremely beneficial to the 147 application of complex network tools in ecology. 148 Experimental studies are crucial to increase the predictive power of ecological networks, particularly

149 for assessing community robustness and resilience. Given the logistic and ethical limitations of 150 manipulating whole communities, this can be done either using a mesocosm approach or by taking 151 advantage of large-scale ecological changes, e.g. intense fires, emergence of new islands, massive 152 changes in land use. These data will be highly valuable to construct more realistic models that 153 incorporate the rewiring potential of generalized interactions. 154 Network theory provides ecologists with an important tool to explore nature's complex web of 155 interactions; however, the network tool-kit still needs to be much improved in order to extract the most 156 out of this promising approach. While it is not always easy to distinguish patterns from noise when

157 comparing community data, we have renewed confidence that network analysis is a valuable tool when

158 trying to understand the complexity of natures' entangled bank^[3]. The first meeting nurtured the

159 general feeling that we soon should get together again, and therefore a second symposium is planned to

160 be hosted at the University of Bristol, UK in 2015.

161

162 "Although many fads have come and gone in complexity, one thing is increasingly clear:

interconnectivity is so fundamental to the behavior of complex systems that networks are here to
 stay."^[8]

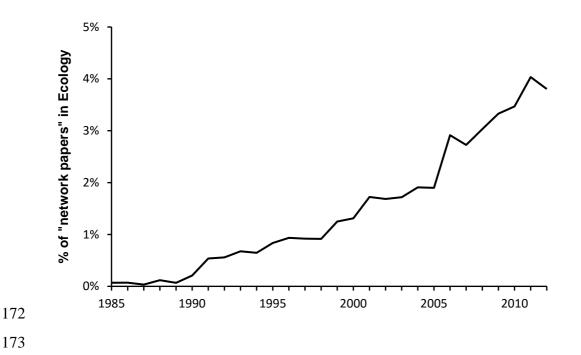
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- 171



- 174 **Figure 1.** Proportion of the bulk of ecological papers published since 1985 that include the term
- 175 "network(s)" in their title, keywords or abstract. Data extracted from the Web of Science[®], accessed in

176 October 2013. Search terms: Topic=(network*) and Year Published=(1985-2012) and

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- 178

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