

Overcoming the disconnect between interaction networks and biodiversity conservation and management

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Decision-makers need to act now to halt biodiversity loss, and ecologists must provide them with relevant species interaction indicators to inform on community- and ecosystem-level changes. Yet, the integration of ecological networks into conservation is still virtually nonexistent. Here, we discuss challenges and opportunities related to uncertainty, interpretability and relevance of network metrics applied to conservation. We argue that existing data and methodologies are sufficient to generate network information usable for conservation, and to overcome existing challenges. Interaction network indicators must meet criteria important to decision-makers and be tied to specific conservation goals, which requires academics to better engage with

practitioners. We suggest network robustness as an indicator for biodiversity management and showcase it in a workflow to inform decision-making.

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1 Highlights

- 2 • Practitioners and scientists increasingly need multi-species and whole-ecosystem indicators that allow
3 integrating species interaction networks into biodiversity conservation and management.
- 4 • Explicit and quantitative integration of ecological network indicators into conservation is still lacking due
5 to challenges with network uncertainty and accessibility to practitioners.
- 6 • The resulting gap between network science and management leads to decisions being made without
7 considering available scientific knowledge.
- 8 • We identify opportunities in closing this gap. Despite uncertainty, the field of network ecology is mature
9 enough to offer quantitative insights into ecosystem responses to environmental changes.
- 10 • Simple network metrics that fit criteria important to decision-makers and can be used with current data
11 and models, are promising starting indicators to inform conservation and management.

12 Can interaction network knowledge be quantitatively used for biodiversity 13 conservation and management?

14 The need to shift from single-species conservation approaches to multi-species and whole ecosystem
15 approaches has long been recognized [1,2]. Network information can provide a new perspective for whole
16 ecosystem assessments in biodiversity conservation and management. Preserving species interactions can
17 ensure long-term population persistence and maintain ecosystem functions and services [3,4]. Focusing on
18 ecological networks as conservation targets promotes the stability of populations and ecosystem functions and
19 minimises negative outcomes regarding species extinctions [5–7]. Recent reviews list specific interaction
20 network metrics that decision-makers can use [8]. Implicit network information has already been integrated into
21 conservation planning, for example through consideration of keystone species with disproportionate effects on
22 their communities, which should facilitate the uptake of network-based biodiversity indicators in
23 decision-making [2,9,10, see Box 1].

24 Despite the potential benefits, conservation practices rarely explicitly consider information derived from
25 measures of the structure of ecological networks. Conservation policy and practice still heavily focus on single
26 species and habitats. Uncertainty about network structure and responses to human disturbances mirrors
27 concerns in macro-ecological and ecosystem models [11,12]. Additionally, identifying which interaction

28 network metrics are suitable biodiversity indicators with clear interpretation for conservation remains
29 challenging.

30 Decision- and policy-makers must act now to bend the curve of extinction and accelerate ecosystem recovery
31 [13,14]. Ecologists need to provide them with useful network and ecosystem-wide information. For instance,
32 protected area planning could prioritise regions where mutualistic interaction partners or prey and predators
33 overlap [15], or where there is high trophic diversity and redundancy, enhancing robustness to extinctions [16].
34 Moreover, since interaction network structure is linked to ecosystem functioning and ecosystem service
35 provision, focusing on network metrics changes for conservation targets should ensure ecosystem stability and
36 service delivery [e.g., pollination, pest control, food production, 5,7,17]. Given the global goals to maintain
37 ecosystem services [Goal B of the Kunming-Montreal Global Biodiversity Framework, 18], assessing network
38 structure stability changes should help managers and decision-makers prioritise areas to maintain ecosystem
39 functioning and resilience [5,19].

40 Here, we identify the major challenges and opportunities in incorporating interaction network information into
41 biodiversity conservation and ecosystem management. We demonstrate how simple approaches and indicators
42 can provide relevant information for managers. Our focus is on probabilistic and binary species interaction
43 networks, where nodes represent species and links represent the probability or presence of an interaction [20],
44 rather than energy flow networks already covered by Fath et al. [8]. Additionally, we present a perspective
45 where networks are used as biodiversity indicators and, in a forecasting context, to evaluate network responses
46 to future environmental change scenarios and management strategies. Despite challenges relating to
47 uncertainty, interpretability and relevance, we argue that we have sufficient scientific evidence and tools to apply
48 network concepts to management and conservation in the face of global change. In particular, testing and
49 exploring network indicators can accelerate the establishment of operational monitoring frameworks.

50 **Box 1 - Trophic role of keystone species**

51 Explicitly considering networks in conservation and decision-making (i.e. by monitoring and managing for
52 network-derived properties) is not a drastic shift, as networks are often implicitly included in conservation
53 decisions and recovery plans. The keystone species concept, frequently mentioned in conservation literature
54 [e.g., 2,21] and highlighted by initiatives focused on rewilding and ecological restoration [22,23], is linked to
55 the disproportionate effects some species have on their (trophic) networks [24, also see 25 for the diverse roles

of species identified as keystones]. Similarly, several large carnivores have been associated with trophic cascades, where effects of predator declines propagated across food webs to herbivores, mesopredators, and beyond [26]. This reflects network consideration through species' effects on others, even if network-specific properties are not explicitly quantified – i.e. metrics like connectance, species trophic level, or centrality do not explicitly enter planning or decision-making.

Importantly, keystone species are often tied to quantified conservation targets. For example, prairie dogs (*Cynomys spp.*) are considered keystone species due to their important ecosystem functions and large impact compared to other herbivores, which are not replicated by other species [27,28]. The Recovery Strategy and Action Plan for the Black-tailed Prairie Dog (*Cynomys ludovicianus*) in Canada identifies it as a conservation priority due to its keystone status, crucial for the recovery of the Black-footed Ferret (*Mustela nigripes*) and serving as a vital food source for several other at-risk species [29]. Conservation targets for Black-tailed Prairie Dogs in Canada include maintaining a minimum area of occupancy of 1,400 ha across 20 colonies and a minimum average population density of 7.5 individuals/ha by 2040, ensuring at least an 80% probability of population persistence over 50 years [29].

The implicit consideration of network structure in conservation targets can facilitate the uptake of new network-based indicators by practitioners and decision-makers. Indeed, knowing this structure provides additional ways to identify which species are potential keystones, beyond their emblematic nature [30]. Other forms of network-thinking are similarly part of management considerations, such as spatial ecological networks planning [31] and ecosystem-based management [11]. Explicitly considering network-based indicators will complement these forms of network-thinking and enhance conservation assessments to include ecosystem-wide components.

Challenges & opportunities

The explicit integration of network information into management and conservation faces several challenges linked to uncertainties and lack of interpretability and relevance of network metrics for practitioners. These challenges will hinder making effective decisions, for example on what biodiversity and network-related properties need to be measured and monitored, what conservation targets and management actions should be applied, how often to re-evaluate decisions, etc. Hence, we can expect challenges at different stages of management planning and decision-making [e.g. 32], such as the evaluation of current conditions or upon

84 decisions on possible actions (e.g. responsive, preventative, etc.).

85 **Uncertainty**

86 **Network Structure and Composition:**

87 There is uncertainty in network structure, composition, and variation across space and time, which affects
88 conservation assessments and actions [33,34]. Empirical studies on networks are often spatially disjointed,
89 biased geographically and depending on interaction types, and rarely replicated [35–37]. Sampling biases can
90 distort reported network patterns [38,39]. Terrestrial and freshwater food webs are less studied than marine
91 ones, often with different research objectives [e.g., determining the effect of environmental factors, rather than
92 investigating management-related elements such as sustainability, 35,40]. Such deficits of information may
93 prove problematic when conservation decisions need to be made.

94 Despite these challenges, existing methodologies can help integrate network information into conservation,
95 while empirical data continue to be gathered. Networks can be constructed from extensive, long-term
96 monitoring datasets to analyse food web structure and temporal stability [41,42]. Building metawebs of all
97 potential interactions in a region or species pool, like the pan-European terrestrial tetrapod metaweb
98 [TETRA-EU, 43], provides an “upper ceiling” for possible interactions [44,45]. Metawebs can inform
99 broad-scale assessments and have already been used to derive spatially explicit network properties and generate
100 conservation-relevant information [46–48]. For instance, Albouy et al. [46] used a metaweb to examine
101 robustness to extinction scenarios for marine food webs, showing higher robustness in coastal waters compared
102 to open waters and highlighting some potential to absorb perturbations. Moreover, metaweb inference
103 approaches allow us to circumvent the lack of available local interaction data [45] and, when used with
104 probabilistic networks, to integrate uncertainty and variation in network structure across space [49]. Network
105 properties and their uncertainties can therefore be measured for broad-scale assessments of variation in network
106 structure, and to derive network indicators that can be used to inform decisions and planning (Boxes 2-3). As
107 new empirical data becomes available, these predictions can be evaluated, refined, and become more
108 informative [50]. We discuss the challenges surrounding their validation in our Concluding Remarks.

Network Responses to Environmental Change:

Uncertainty exists in how networks will respond to environmental changes and disturbances, particularly for interaction rewiring and changes in interaction strength. Questions remain on the extent of rewiring due to species turnover versus prey switching and behavioural adaptation, and how these changes will propagate across trophic levels.

While data gaps exist, modelling and inference can explore the limits of network rewiring under current or future conditions (Box 3). Rewiring potential is likely captured in existing and inferred metawebs [51], which can be combined with simulations to anticipate network changes. For instance, Dansereau et al.'s [49] approach can be extended to explore climate change impacts on network structure, given the dual uncertainty in species interactions and future species ranges. Moreover, network models (and information) do not need well-constrained or low uncertainty predictions before they can inform management decisions on interventions like species eradication, especially if they tend to correctly identify whether effects on other species will be positive or negative [52]. Model uncertainty can also be high despite high quality data [52]. Regardless of its generality, this result suggests that the performance of a model should be monitored whenever new data are added. Similar trends of model change in performance with additional data have been reported in the study of species distributions [53].

Approaches to include specific types of network response uncertainty in conservation and management have also been proposed. Van Kleunen et al. [54] suggested a multi-step framework for decision-making under uncertainty for species introduction into ecological networks, based on conservation decision theory. This framework includes: the identification of management objectives, the evaluation of outcomes for management (including multiple outcomes, evaluation of trade-offs, and assessment of uncertainty), and the improvement of future predictions through an adaptive management framework. Van Kleunen et al.'s [54] decision-making approach can be applied now, despite uncertainties, to guide management of species introductions.

Compounding Uncertainty in Change Types:

There is compounding uncertainty in the type and strength of change applied to a network. Climate uncertainty, for instance, results from uncertainty in future greenhouse gases emissions (i.e. emission scenario uncertainty), in climate processes (general circulation model uncertainty) and their stochasticity (model run uncertainty). For networks, we add uncertainty in changes resulting from disturbance regimes (e.g. fire, drought, pests) and in

species distribution predictions [which can result from direct impacts of abiotic change, of disturbance regimes and of biotic changes that may be linked to network structure itself, 55,56]. If accounted for simultaneously, these uncertainties will inevitably lead to high variance in predicted network responses.

We can estimate some uncertainty through backcasting: past environmental changes are used to predict changes in network metrics that are cross-validated against observed past networks. Fisheries data, for instance, allow reconstructing well-resolved networks over time, which can be related to known environmental changes [57–59] and be used to calibrate predictive network models, like bayesian networks [60]. Backcasting models, used as ex-ante scenarios of change, have been successfully used to simulate and assess the effectiveness of conservation actions on ecosystem services [61].

Simulating scenarios of change can also help delimit the possible changes in network structure [Box 3, 62].

When combined with metrics of network change and sensitivity to disturbance, these projections can be used to identify target areas that show fragility to an array of scenarios and are of special concern, or that show less fragility and could be considered refugia. They can also highlight problematic or incomplete sampling.

Projections will also serve to perform validation and assess indicator behaviour in an empirical setting, whether through existing data or backcasting exercises, which could lead to network-specific monitoring programs.

Interpretability and relevance

Network metrics are often not intuitive or deemed relevant for practitioners and decision-makers. Many metrics are complex and may not clearly correlate with ecosystem- and species-level responses, particularly in applied contexts. For instance, omnivory and network motifs are tied to food web persistence and extinction risks [63,64], highlighting their ecological relevance. On the other hand, while network nestedness indicates a buffer against extinctions and fluctuations in mutualistic networks, this is less clear in antagonistic networks [7].

Connectance has also been tied in contrasting ways to network stability [e.g., higher connectance leading to increases or decreases of invasion success rates given invader trophic levels, 65; higher connectance linked to higher robustness to extinction, but larger extinction cascades, 66].

Not all network metrics are suitable as conservation indicators, nor do they need to be. Several have been reviewed for their relevance and limitations in achieving conservation goals (Louise O'Connor, PhD thesis, Université Grenoble Alpes, 2022i; see Table 1 therein). For example, prioritising trophic networks with stabilising motifs when selecting protected areas can help achieve ecological resilience goals. This information

165 can already be used towards conservation planning but it needs to be both accepted by and available to
166 decision-makers and managers.

167 First, metrics must meet decision-makers' criteria. The ROARS (being Relevant, Objective, Available,
168 Realistic, Specific) and SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Replicable, Time-bound) criteria [8; see
169 Table 3 therein] focus on the decision-makers' receptiveness to suggested indicators during the selection, paving
170 a way to communicate network information with stakeholders and embed network indicators in ecological
171 monitoring and ecosystem health assessments. Network indicators will then need to be evaluated in terms of
172 usefulness to achieve conservation goals [as in O'Connor, 2022i] and decision-maker receptiveness [as in 8], as
173 we move towards developing ecosystem management and monitoring frameworks that quantitatively and
174 explicitly embed network indicators (see example in Box 2).

175 Second, network ecologists have the opportunity to expand their focus from the development of mathematical
176 tools, theory and theoretical validation to involving decision-makers and meeting their needs [67]. Consensus
177 for conservation goals can be achieved through mixed methodology such as iterative and anonymous Delphi
178 panels [see 68 for applications in ecology]. Engaging stakeholders in this way would ultimately provide
179 valuable guidance to prioritise new fundamental research questions and methodological development. Although
180 they do not ultimately make the decisions, network ecologists must be proactive in this process, especially given
181 the limited time and staffing resources across many institutions where decisions are made. This process takes
182 time and co-production effort, and needs to be initiated by academics who can guide and support practitioners
183 in designing management strategies and making conservation decisions using network information. Academics
184 place a strong focus on the development of tools and knowledge, but ensuring their adoption (particularly for
185 non-academics) will require delivering them in a form that can instantly be used with minimal additional work
186 [69].

187 Finally, network ecologists can take concrete steps to ensure that network-based measures are perceived as
188 relevant by decision-makers. Workshops and stakeholder involvement are essential to bridge the gap between
189 science and practice [69] and can facilitate choosing appropriate metrics [8]. Involving a wide-range of
190 ecosystem-management players, and creating new opportunities to actively involve stakeholders in deciding
191 how network information can be applied, will be key to ensure receptiveness and a speedy uptake of indicators
192 for management planning and actions. Forecasting changes in network structure under environmental and
193 management scenarios (Box 3) and linking network indicators to ecosystem services [17] can enhance
194 receptiveness. This will provide essential information on risks, on boundaries of change given environmental

195 conditions, and on the effectiveness of certain management actions in achieving conservation targets [70].

196 **Box 2 - Assessing the relevance of a potential network indicator for** 197 **decision-making**

198 Network metrics should be evaluated using criteria important to decision-makers to ensure their relevance as
199 indicators and encourage adoption. In addition to the ROARS and SMART criteria, Fath et al. [8] suggest that
200 effective indicators should also “*describ[e] directional change [of ecosystems], [be] easily communicable to*
201 *managers and policy makers, [be] integrative and indicative to a known response to a disturbance*” [as per 71],
202 and provide insight to ecosystem functioning and services.

203 As an example, trophic network robustness to targeted extinctions meets these criteria (Table 1) and can be a
204 useful indicator of ecosystem integrity and stability to environmental change. The structural stability of trophic
205 networks is closely linked to the stability of ecosystem functioning [see review by 72], with trophic interactions
206 considered as ecosystem functions and services (e.g., top-down pest control by predators). Here we show a
207 formulation of robustness derived from earlier works [73–75] that reflects the capacity of a network (or the
208 ecosystem it represents) to withstand cascading extinctions:

$$Robustness = 1 - \frac{no.secondaryextinctions}{initialno.secondaryconsumers}$$

209 where secondary extinctions are extinctions due to the loss of other species and secondary consumers are
210 consumers of basal species (measured as network species richness minus the number of basal species).

211 Robustness is easy to interpret (see Specific in Table 1) and to calculate using binary trophic networks, which
212 are more commonly available and can be derived from existing trophic metawebs – this allows us to derive
213 initial (even if coarse) estimates of robustness at large, regional and local scales (see references in Table 1). It
214 also relates to ecological issues that have a firm place in ecosystem management and conservation, and resonate
215 with decision-makers – numerous directives, policies and management frameworks focus on avoiding species
216 extinctions (see examples in Table 1).

217 Table 1 illustrates the potential of robustness as a network indicator and the process of detailing how it meets the
218 criteria mentioned previously. Evaluating network metrics in this way is crucial for making them more relevant

219 and acceptable to decision-makers, as it demonstrates why and how the indicator can be used effectively.

220 **Table 1. Relevance of robustness as an indicator.** Dale & Beyler's [71], ROARS and SMART criteria for
221 good ecological network indicators, as described by Fath et al. [8], and how they apply to robustness of trophic
222 (non-energy flow) networks.

223 **Box 3 - An accessible workflow applying robustness to inform decision-making**

224 Effective decision-making requires indicators based on accessible and reproducible analysis workflows that
225 evaluate a range of scenarios. We demonstrate the potential of robustness with a workflow that uses different
226 network disturbance scenarios and open-access data (Fig. 1). By using extreme scenarios, we can explore the
227 boundaries of robustness to forecasted environmental change. The framework can be applied spatially to
228 identify target areas for management and conservation action (Fig. 2) or to single networks.

229 Workflow steps: - 1) Build local 'reference networks' by combining a regional metaweb of interactions with
230 'reference' local species presence/absence information ('baseline' referring to any reference period) – species
231 that interact in the metaweb and are locally present, will appear and interact in the local network; - 2) For each
232 reference network, calculate the number of secondary consumers (consumers of basal species) and other
233 relevant network metrics (e.g., species and average trophic level, connectance, etc.) - 3) Build local 'disturbed
234 networks', by combining the regional metaweb with species ranges projected under different scenarios; - 4)
235 Calculate and map robustness and other network metrics (Fig. 2).

236 [Figure 1 about here.]

237 Our example explores the lower boundaries of pan-European trophic network robustness by submitting
238 vertebrate networks to two extreme scenarios: worst-case climate change (CMIP5 RCP 8.5, equivalent to
239 CMIP6 SSP5-8.5), and failure to protect endangered species (IUCN levels: critically endangered, CR,
240 endangered, EN, and vulnerable, VU; Fig. 2). Further analyses could be focused on investigating which species
241 are forecasted to be lost, their roles in the networks and best strategies to protect these networks from a
242 multispecies perspective. For instance, inspecting initial species richness and trophic positions of extinct
243 species can help identify network- and species-level attributes that may be related to robustness (Fig. 2, lower
244 panels). Antunes et al. [17] proposed a similar workflow to calculate network-provided Nature's contributions to
245 people. Ours differs from theirs in that it requires less sophisticated and less data-hungry methodological

246 approaches. Together with the accessible automated pipeline [81], this should facilitate and accelerate uptake by
247 practitioners, managers and decision-makers.

248 [Figure 2 about here.]

249 **Concluding remarks**

250 Ecological networks already can and should be used as indicators in biodiversity conservation and ecosystem
251 management. Sufficient data is available for initial assessments of network structures and responses to change.
252 Additionally, we have relevant network indicators for ecosystem management and conservation that can be
253 weaved into management frameworks and monitoring programs. Starting now ensures that future data will be
254 useful to detect network changes and to address current knowledge gaps.

255 We recognize that the lack of empirical support for theory and scenarios of network responses (including
256 robustness) to environmental change can refrain academics from providing guidance to practitioners.
257 Robustness and extinction studies usually rely on simulations to investigate effects of species losses (rather than
258 observations or experimental removals) and predictions remain mostly untested in the field [82; see Table 1
259 therein for some empirical validation examples]. Overcoming this barrier will require setting up empirical
260 programs that go beyond documenting networks, and towards field and lab studies of network responses to
261 realistic disturbances. Yet, despite this and other limitations (i.e., data, uncertainty, and interpretability
262 challenges), we believe the field is sufficiently mature to make recommendations for ecosystem management
263 and conservation as these programs are implemented.

264 We envision five important aspects for future directions (see also Outstanding Questions). First, there should be
265 developments addressing evaluation, propagation, and communication of uncertainty in network structure and
266 metrics. It will be key to a) integrate uncertainty robustly into management frameworks and move towards more
267 transparent and informed decisions, but also to b) use existing tools and data to compare known network and
268 ecosystem changes with predictions (e.g. backcasting), estimate boundaries of future network changes
269 (e.g. forecasting), and assess the usefulness of network metrics as indicators of future change. Second, network
270 considerations will need to be explicit in future sampling and monitoring designs, and in ecosystem conservation
271 regulations and decisions. Third, current data, network models and indicators need to be more widely assessed
272 for their usefulness for ecosystem management, which should actively involve stakeholders. Fourth, empirical

273 programs focused on testing and measuring network (metrics') responses to change will need to be set up.
274 Finally, incorporating network information explicitly into conservation will require developing network-based
275 targets—specific, quantified metrics to obtain and thresholds to respect based on whole network characteristics.

276 **Outstanding questions**

- 277 • How variable is network structure across space and time and does it influence the usefulness of network
278 metrics as indicators of ecosystem functioning and stability?
- 279 • What network metrics are ubiquitous, reliable and applicable indicators of ecosystem functioning and
280 stability?
- 281 • How much can we expect networks to change given uncertainty in future environmental conditions?
- 282 • How can current and future monitoring programs be improved to sample network information relevant for
283 management?
- 284 • How can we put in place a strong empirical program to validate network indicators, which for now
285 heavily rely on simulations?

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294 **Resources**

295 i <https://theses.hal.science/tel-04077711> ii <https://www.iucnredlist.org/resources/spatial-data-download> iii
296 <https://www.gbif.org/what-is-gbif> iv <https://theses.hal.science/tel-01685584>

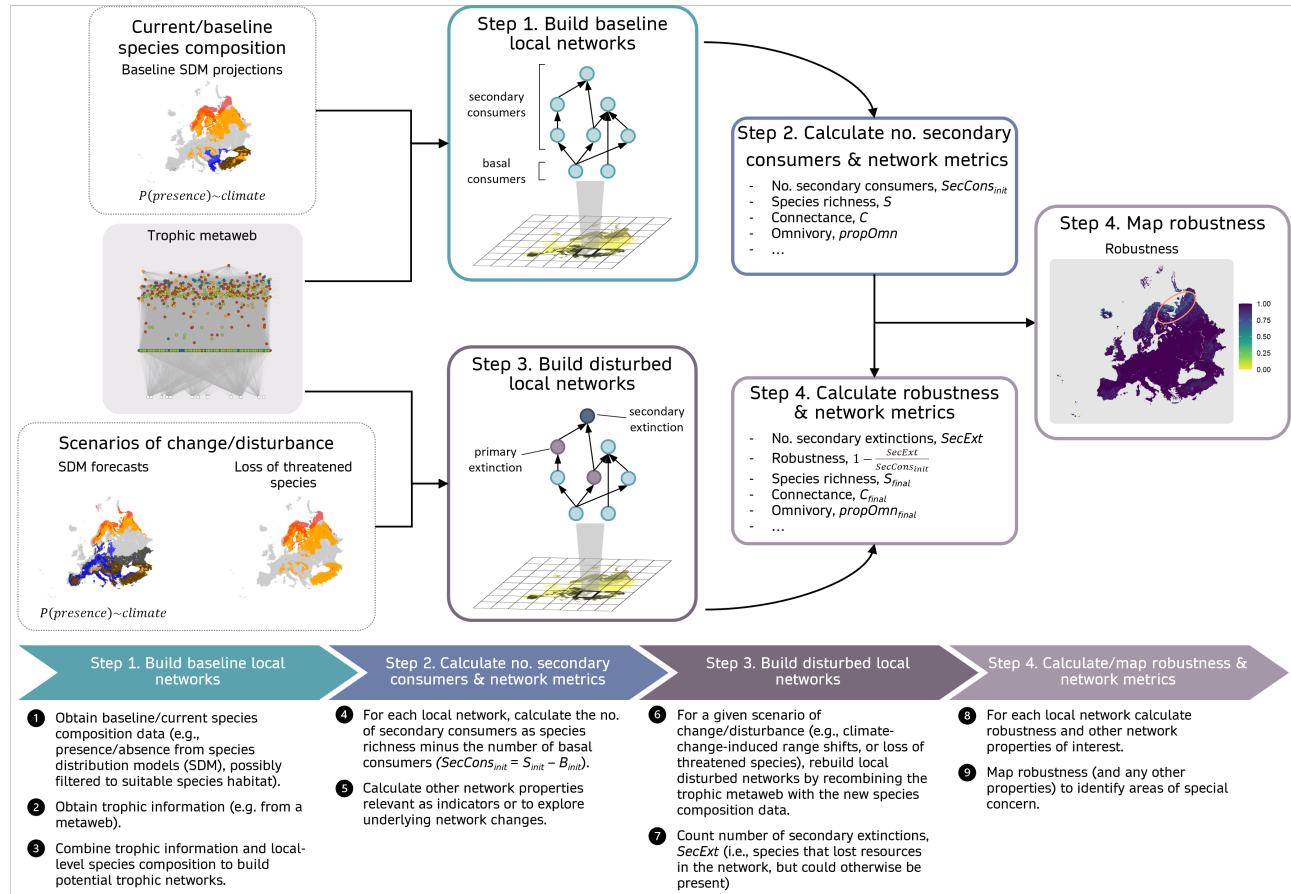


Figure 1: Workflow to calculate robustness. Simple network metrics like robustness can be incorporated into workflows to assess potential ecosystem fragility to scenarios of disturbance and inform management and decision-making at large scales. See supplemental information online for full workflow details.

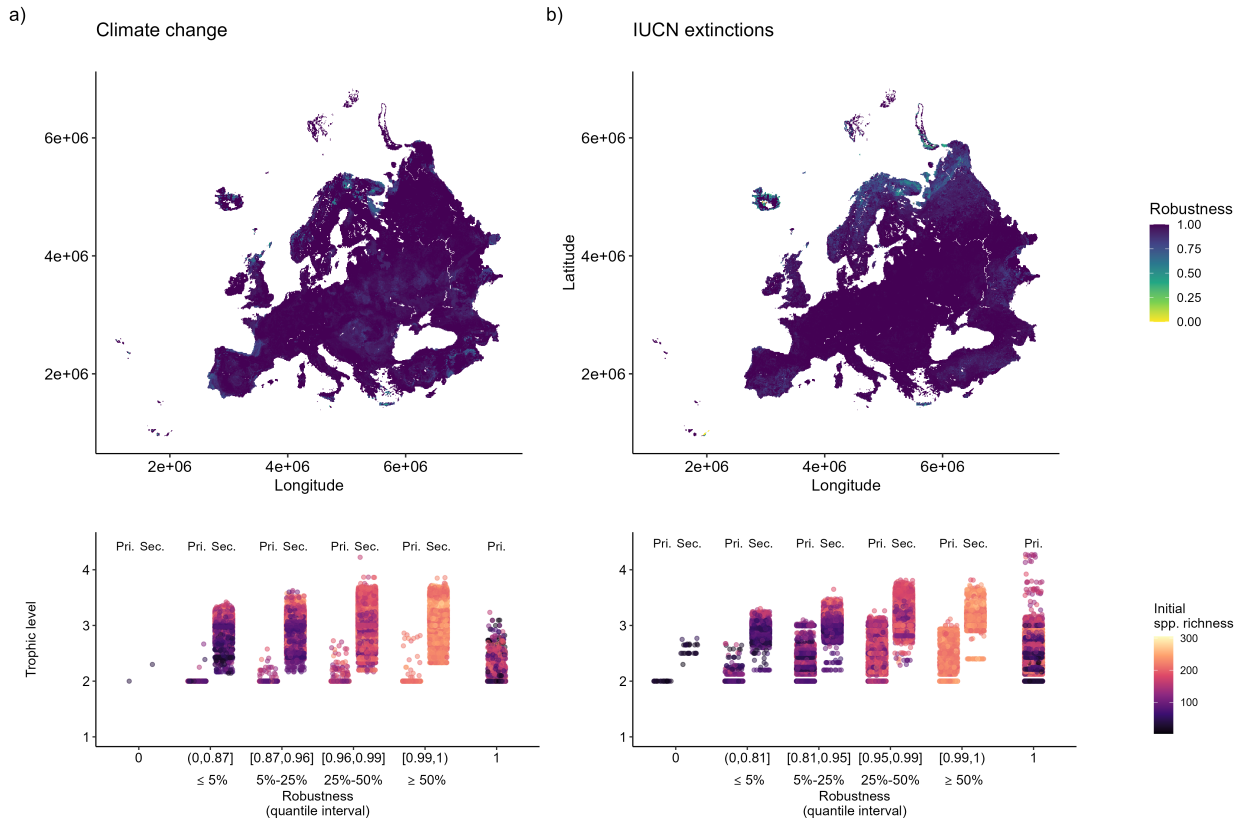


Figure 2: Robustness of European vertebrate networks to disturbance scenarios. Extreme scenarios of climate change and of species extinctions can be used to explore (lower) boundaries of network robustness and identify areas where we may expect a high number of cascading (secondary) extinctions and, consequently, larger disruptions to ecosystem functioning and services (upper panels). Further analyses of initial network metrics allow a deeper look into what may drive network robustness by comparing trophic information between primary and secondary extinctions (lower panels, here grouped by quantiles of robustness values). In this example, most networks are very robust to extinctions driven by a) climate change or b) the removal of endangered species listed in IUCN, but several networks in Northern Europe show lower robustness to targeted IUCN extinctions (upper panels). For networks that suffered secondary extinctions (where Robustness < 1; ‘Sec.’ bands on lower panels), larger networks (higher initial species richness) were more robust and, as expected, secondarily extinct species occupied higher trophic positions than primarily extinct species (‘Pri.’ bands). See supplemental information online for more detail. Data and analyses for this figure were adapted from Ceres Barros, PhD thesis, Université Grenoble Alpes, 2017iv.