

Structural controlability of pollination networks

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Abstract

Si sabemos que el disfrute exige lentitud, y que—mas en general—la felicidad se asocia con el ir despacio, por que corremos tanto? El arte de comer estriba en saborear cada bocado sin pensar en el siguiente, sin apresurar el siguiente. El arte de leer, en demorarse en cada palabra como si el sentido del escrito entero estuviera contenido en ella. El arte de amar, en vivir cada momento de la relacion con la persona amada como si fuese el destino de toda la historia del mundo, desde la aparicion del primer organismo unicelular hasta hoy. Y asi podemos generalizar a las demas actividades, creo, hasta obtener un arte de vivir. Para mi se resume en la palabra ahi. — Jorge Riechmann

Keywords— Control theory

1 Introduction

This intro was written when I thought that the paper was mainly gonna be about the relative importance of species and how invasives fit there. Read with caution as I don't think that's the case anymore

Ecological communities are formed by the interconnection of several species. Therefore, changes in the abundances of one species can potentially alter the abundances of the species they interact with. For instance, in a classic example of ecosystem cascades, a reduction on the abundance of sea otters, an important predator or sea urchins, can drive a dramatic reduction on kelp abundances because the sea urchins that consume kelp are released from predation. It has been long established that some species, like the sea otter, have a disproportionate large effect in their environment relative to their abundance.

11 In several ecosystems the relative importance of species have been identified
12 based on empirical observations of long term dynamics. However, in less stud-
13 ied, highly diverse, or where the "keystone" role is shared by several species, it
14 can be challenging to determine which is the set of species that influence the
15 most the ecosystem dynamics. Alternative approaches that recognize a contin-
16 uum of importance and that are less dependent on empirical observations have
17 also been developed. Some of them are based on metrics that evaluate their
18 position in the food web or on mass balance models of functional groups. Nev-
19 ertheless, these approaches are conceptually limited to trophic interactions and
20 in general ignore the structural mechanisms that allow or prevent the spread of
21 perturbations in the ecosystem.

22 From a systems perspective, perturbations like over-exploitation, eutroph-
23 ication or global warming are equivalent to management actions like culling,
24 no-take areas or captive rearing in the sense that they have the potential to
25 modify the abundances of one or several species in the ecosystem. Therefore
26 identifying these key species is crucial not only to predict how these perturba-
27 tions will spread through the community but also to guide effective conservation
28 efforts.

29 Recent work on the control of complex systems suggest that in principle it
30 is possible to alter any ecological community's composition, by modifying the
31 abundances of just some key species. Here, we apply these theories to estimate
32 the controllability of different ecological communities and to find the species,
33 that due to the structural characteristics of their interactions are more likely to
34 drive the dynamics of the community.

35 **Methods & Results**

36 Using six paired plant pollinator communities we explored the concepts of con-
37 trol theory. This is the initial data set things will be tested. If more data is
38 considered necessary we'll see that later.

39 **Controllability of ecological communities**

40 **Minimum set of species**

41 Using maximum matching to control all species in the network. We found that
42 depending on the scheme around of the species are needed to have a grasp at
43 the whole community (Figure 1). However, the relative ranking of networks

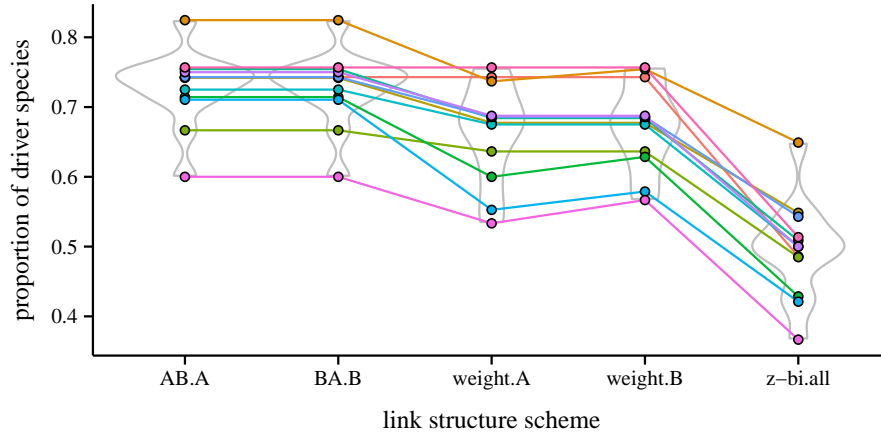


Figure 1: Proportion of species that needs to be controlled for all twelve networks under different link assumptions. AB indicates that the links go from plants to pollinators; BA that the links go from pollinator to plants; “weight” that the direction of control is chosen by dependency (ties are resolved by giving priority to plants in weight.A and to pollinators in weight.B); z-bi indicates that the links go in both directions

44 remains relatively unchanged across schemes. So rather than focusing on the
 45 differences across schemes perhaps it would be interesting to see what charac-
 46 teristics make a network to require more or less driver nodes to be completely
 47 controlled. Alternatively it would be interesting to see if there are systemic dif-
 48 ferences between different types of networks. An initial step would be to stay
 49 with bipartite networks of the mutualistic type (plant/frugivores) or the the
 50 consumer-resource type (host/parasite or predator/prey). Perhaps some model
 51 networks of varying parameters?

52 There was no significant difference between the number of species needed to
 53 control the system in an invaded and an uninvaded ecosystem.

54 When comparing the number of control nodes of the observed networks to
 55 their random counterparts an interesting pattern emerges (Figure 2). The
 56 number of control nodes is significantly larger than randomisations that maintain
 57 the degree distribution of the plants. However there is no significant difference
 58 when the randomisations maintain the degree of pollinators (or both plants and
 59 pollinators). This pattern is consistent across all schemes of link directional-
 60 ity. This suggests that the patterns of pollinator visitations are the structural
 61 characteristic that determines the controllability of the network. We probably
 62 should analyse other pollination networks to see if this pattern holds. We also
 63 should think about the implications of this finding.

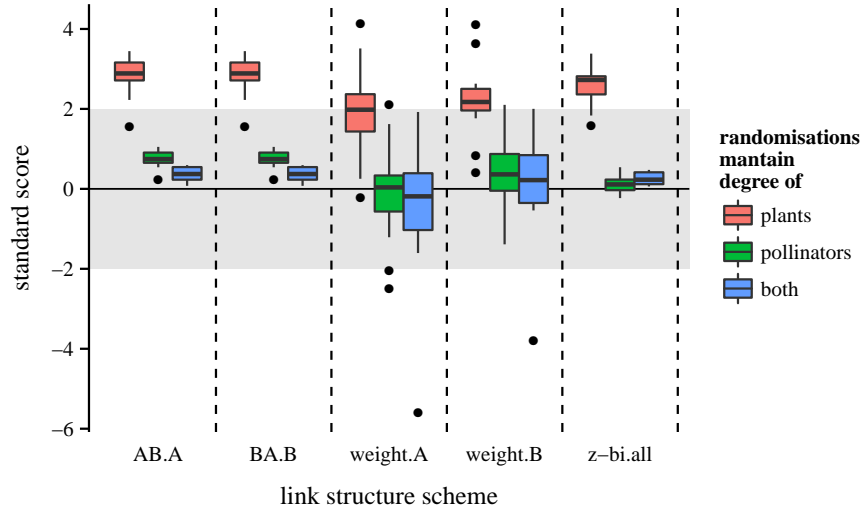


Figure 2: Difference between the number of control nodes in the analysed networks versus randomisations of the same networks. Unshaded areas suggest a significant difference. Schemes same as in Figure 1

64 It occurred to me that it is possible that the patterns (and perhaps others
65 observed like more phylogenetic signal in pollinators than in plants) are a con-
66 sequence of a greater diversity of pollinators in the interaction networks. More
67 pollinators relative to plants imply that randomisations that maintain the degree
68 distribution of pollinators are more constrained than those that only maintain
69 the degree distribution of plants. It also means that statistical tests on that
70 group have a more observations and therefore rendering significant results for
71 smaller effect sizes. I checked that with the 12 pollination networks of the study
72 and there seems to be some evidence for that (Figure 3). Perhaps it would be
73 good to check with other networks to see if it holds.

74 To understand the effects of the directionality imposed by the dependen-
75 cies (only for the weighted method), I randomised the direction of the links. I
76 compared the number on control species in the weighted scheme with a ran-
77 domisation that maintain the interacting species but randomise the direction of
78 dependency (Figure 4). In pretty much all cases, the number of control nodes
79 is significantly larger in the observed networks.

80 Profiles of critical and redundant species

81 Dividing the nodes and links among critical, ordinary and redundant we can
82 have an idea of “control profiles” of the networks. Both species and interactions

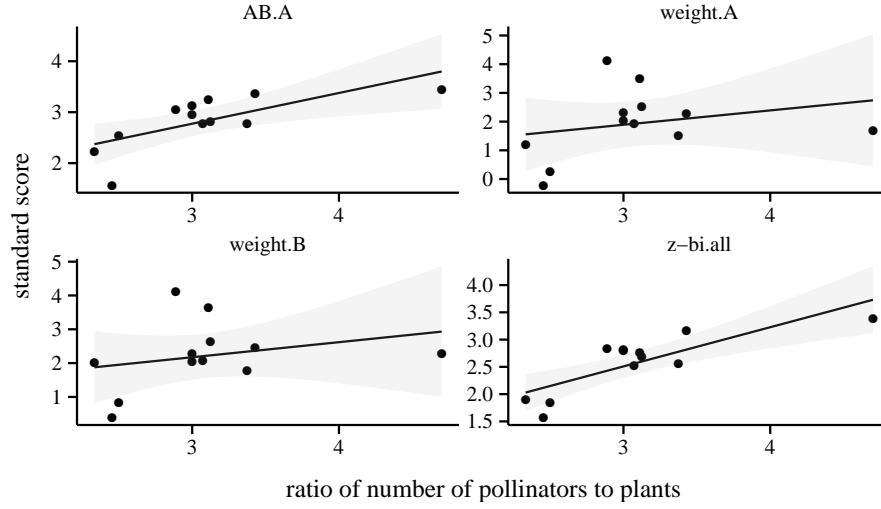


Figure 3: When considering only randomisations that maintain the degree distribution of plants, there seems to be a positive relationship between the ratio of pollinators to plants and the Z-score of randomisations. The pattern is, however, not significant for the weighted schemes. The z-scores are identical for the AB.A and the BA.B schemes. Schemes same as in [Figure 1](#)

83 can be classified as redundant, ordinary and critical depending on the number
 84 of species that need to be controlled to gain full control over the network once
 85 the species has been removed ([Figure 5](#) and [6](#)).

86 On the species redundancy profile ([Figure 5](#)), the profiles are also highly
 87 dependent on the chosen directionality scheme. For instance, in the case in
 88 which species have links in both directions there are not ordinary species and the
 89 number of critical species is relatively high, this is not surprising because under
 90 this scheme, there is a much smaller set of species that needs to be controlled
 91 and therefore removing one of these can increase the minimum set of species
 92 needed to control the network.

93 However, there appears to be a relatively small variability between networks
 94 analysed using this approach. Again, as in the previous section, I think there is
 95 little that can be understood by using just this data-set. Again I think it would
 96 be most interesting to see if there are systemic differences between different
 97 types of networks where a larger variation in the profiles is expected.

98 On the interaction redundancy profile ([Figure 6](#)) things seem a bit more
 99 interesting because the variation across networks and across link directionality
 100 schemes is pretty small. For instance for the bidirectional scheme, although the
 101 total number of links is doubled, the relative proportion of links that are critical

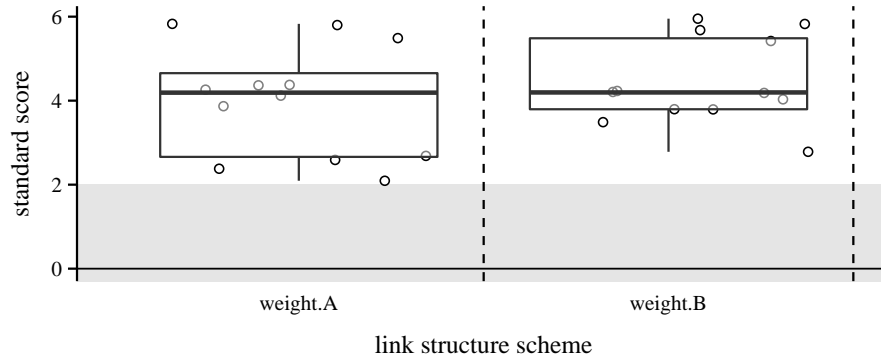


Figure 4: In the weighted case, we compared randomisations that maintain the network structure but shuffle the directionality of the dependency. Observed networks need a significantly larger number of control nodes than randomisations. The difference is more marked when there is a preference to assign dependency from plants to pollinators when dependency is equal in both directions. Z scores are based on 999 network randomisations.

and redundant is maintained.

Profiles of internal/external dilation

J. Ruths and D. Ruths (2014) proposed another clever way to characterise the control profile of a network by charactering the number of nodes that need to be controled among the “mechanism” that originates it. Similar as the maximum matching algorithm, the idea comes from the concept that in the absense of cycles one node can at most control another one. Then the origin of control nodes can be splitted between nodes that need to be controled because they are a “source node” those that have only out links, control nodes associated to “external dilations” and those associated to “internal dilations”.

It could be interesting to compare different networks using this framework. They argue that source dominated networks should be relatively easy to control in a top-down fashion. On the other hand internal dilation dominated networks represent the signature of a network that self-regulates and is not meant to be controled in that it’s not designed to visit every possible state.

However as we can see here this framework is pretty useless when the direction of control is not perfectly known (as in most real wolrd networks really...). For instance when applying it to the data-set (Figure 7), we see that when the control flows from pollinators to plants (AB.A) the network is source dominated simply because the pollinator diversity is greater than the plant’s. When we asume that each guild can control each other (z-bi.all) the networks are in-

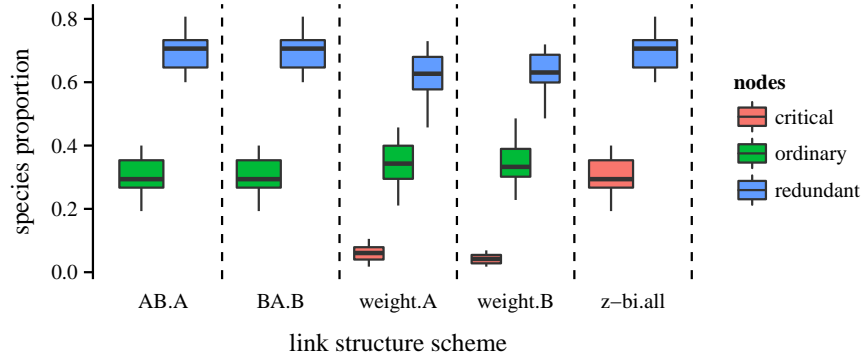


Figure 5: Proportion of species that are ordinary (when removed the number of species needed to control the network doesn't change), redundant (when removed less species are needed) and critical (when removed the number of species needed to control the network increases). Schemes same as in Figure 1

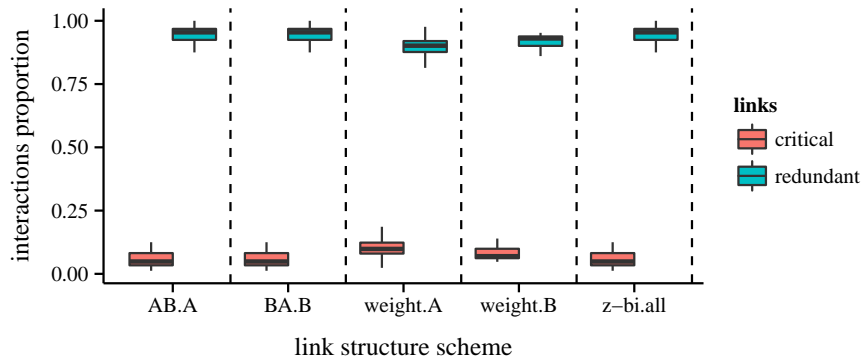


Figure 6: Proportion of interactions that are ordinary (when removed the number of species needed to control is reduced), redundant (when removed the number of species needed to control doesn't change) and critical (when removed the number of species needed to control the network increases). Schemes same as in Figure 1

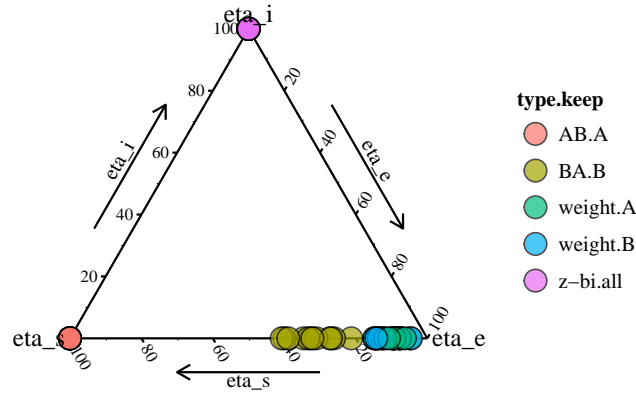


Figure 7: Control profiles of pollination networks. Control nodes are split among nodes that need to be controlled because they are a source node, some that are control nodes because they respond to internal dilations (cycles) and some that are control nodes because they respond to external dilations (sink nodes not matched)

123 ternal dilation dominated because it's purely composed of cycles. However the
124 weighted version might offer a meaningful possibility to develop the analysis.

125 Ranking species

126 By frequency in control sets

127 There are multiple sets of species with which is structurally possible to control
128 network dynamics. An initial possibility is to relate the importance of a species
129 for network dynamics to the frequency at which a species is present in the control
130 sets.

131 Turns out unsurprisingly that the importance of particular species and its
132 distribution over a network depends on the scheme chosen for the direc-
133 tionality of the links (Figure 8). When pollinators control plants (AB) no plant
134 must be controlled and most pollinators have an importance close to one. On the
135 other hand when plants control pollinators (BA) presumably because the pol-
136 linator diversity is larger than the plant diversity, the pattern is less "bimodal"
137 and intermediate levels of importance are allowed.

138 Among the weighted versions there was little difference if dependency ties
139 were resolved for plants or for pollinators (Figure S1), again there are more
140 species with intermediate levels of importance. Even more spread out are things

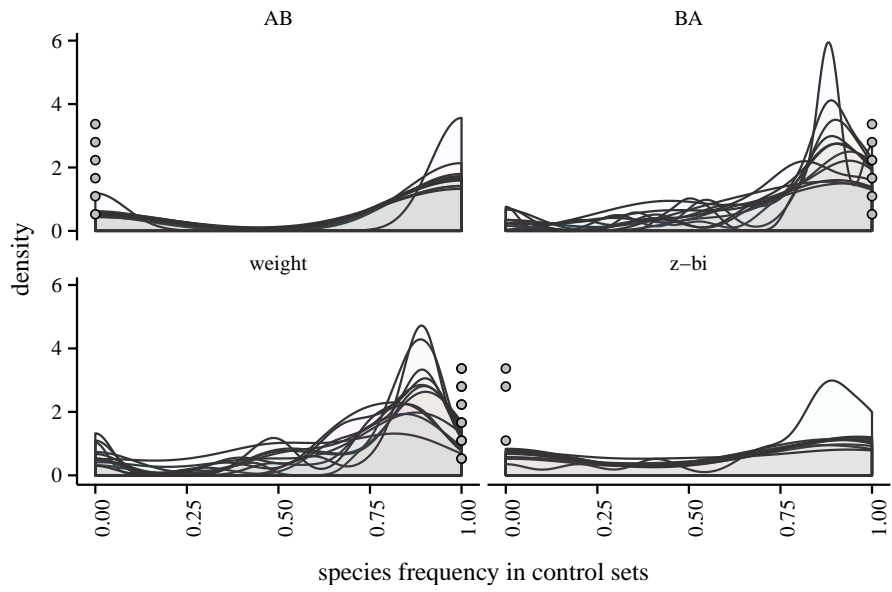


Figure 8: Distribution of the relative frequency a species is present in the set of control species among the networks. The frequency of invasive species in each of the six invaded networks is denoted with a circle. Results for the bidirectional links (z-bi) were obtained only for the nine smallest networks, which included 3 invaded ecosystems

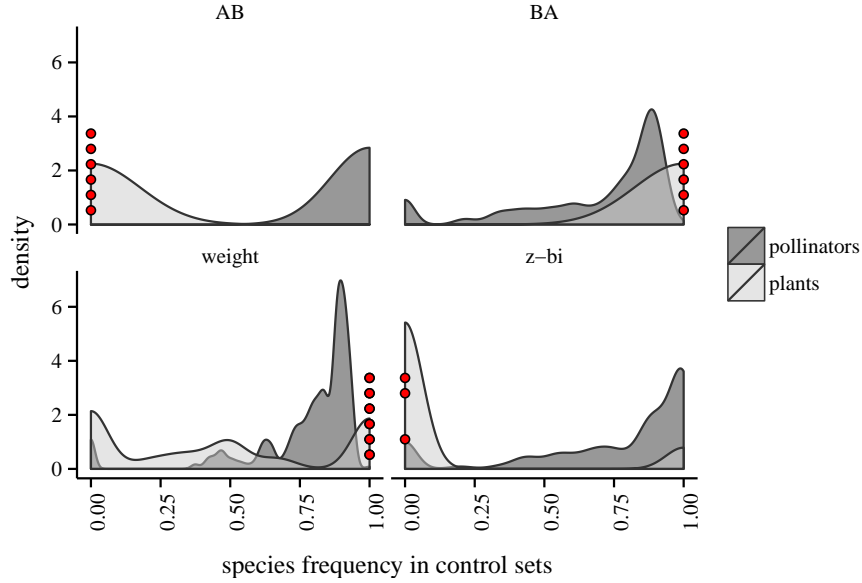


Figure 9: Distribution of the relative frequency a species is present in the set of control species by guild.

141 when we consider bidirectional links. I imagine that this pattern is partly be-
 142 cause there are many many more ways to control the network in the bidirectional
 143 scheme than in the others.

144 In both AB and BA the relative importance of different species is almost fully
 145 constrained by the scheme. In the weighted scheme, invasive species are in all
 146 cases among the most important ones. Interestingly the pattern is opposite for
 147 when the direction can go both ways. It would be good to see then whether these
 148 patterns are a reflection of the fact that invasive species are actually dominant
 149 or an artifact arising from the fact that all invasive species are plants and that all
 150 networks are dominated by pollinators. An initial inspection on the distributrion
 151 of plants and pollinators per network for these schemes suggest that that might
 152 be the case for the bidirectional scheme but not for the weighted one (Figure 9
 153 and S2).

154 We explored that option by comparing the relationship between the ratio
 155 of pollinator to plant diversity and the difference between mean importance of
 156 pollinators and the mean importance of plants (Figure 10). Although there was a
 157 positive relationship it doesn't seem to be significant. However when removing
 158 one of the uninvaded networks in which plants were in average more important
 159 than the pollinators for the bidirectional scheme (MED4CA, Figure S2) the
 160 relationship between the ratio an the relative importance of pollinators and

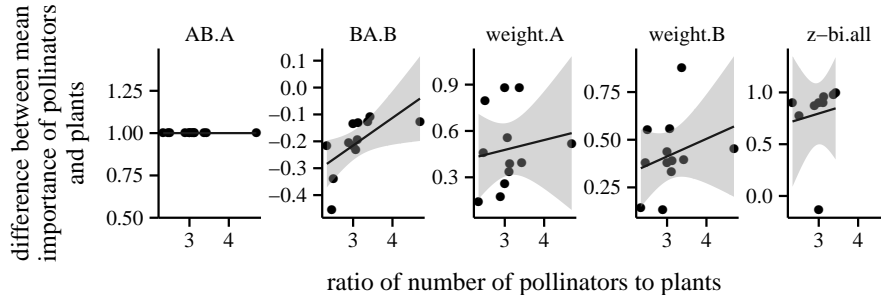


Figure 10: Distribution of the relative frequency a species is present in the set of control species by guild.

plants becomes significant in the bidirectional scheme.

By redundancy

To understand what the redundancy characterisation (splitting nodes and links between critical, ordinary and redundant) means an initial step would be to relate it to the importance given by their frequency on the control sets. However this comparison can only be done among nodes, not links.

Because I think there is enough indication that the unidirectional schemes are crap, we'll focus on the weighted and the bidirectional schemes. There doesn't seem to be a direct relationship between the frequency of a species as a control node and it's characterisation as critical, ordinary or redundant for the weighted scheme (Figure S3). However critical species in the bidirectional scheme tend to cluster towards the bottom of the frequency (Figure S4).

Given that as we saw in Figure 10 plants tend to cluster as well in the bottom of the frequency scale, it's conceivable to think that there is a difference between the profiles of plants and pollinators. We explored that difference (Figure 11) and indeed there are marked differences between plants and pollinators.

In the bidirectional scheme, most pollinators are redundant, which means that removing that species from the system reduces the number of control nodes. Which could be explained if we take into account that there are more pollinators than plants. In the weighted scheme things are a bit more interesting, most plants are ordinary in the sense that removing them doesn't change the number of nodes that has to be controlled. While some are critical in the sense that removing them means that one needs one more node to control the network. All invasive species were categorised as ordinary.

The redundancy is capturing different variability than the frequency in the

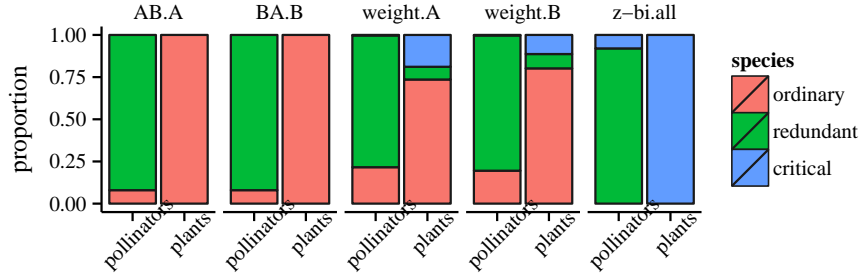


Figure 11: Proportion of pollinators and plants that are ordinary, redundant or critical among different schemes. See Figure 5 for details about this characterisation.

control sets. However they also show a clear distinction between the role of plants and pollinators.

Interaction heterogeneity

Liu, Slotine, and Barabási (2011) suggest that the controllability of a network and specifically the number of control nodes is strongly correlated to the degree distribution of the network, it is not unreasonable to think then that species with a high degree would play a special role. More recently Gibson et al. (2015) showed that what really matters is the interaction strength of the species and that strongly interacting species (those that influence other the most), and not necessarily the most abundant, are the ones that can drive the community from one state into another. Here we explore the relationship between the two metrics of species controllability, the degree and the mean interaction strength of species.

First we start by recognising that mean interaction strength is correlated with the degree of a species in a network (Figure 12). The effect is not terribly strong, particularly for pollinators, but suggest that species that interact with lots of species also tend to visit them a lot. Sadly there is no data on relative abundances to investigate if both degree but particularly interaction strength (as inferred from visitation frequency) is a consequence of mass action.

Here we only look at the effect on the weighted scheme. We can see in Figure 13 that the patterns are different for plants and polinators. For plants importancy in controlling the network is positively related to both the mean interaction strengt and the degree of the species. However for pollinators that's

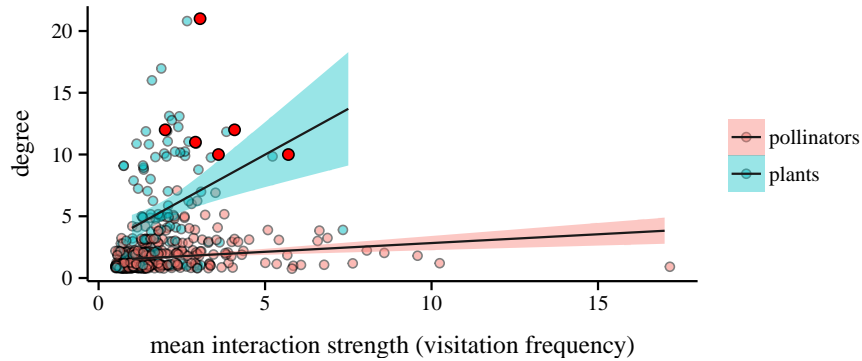


Figure 12: Relationship between the mean visitation frequency per species (as a surrogate of interaction strength) and its degree in a particular network. Invasive plants are depicted with a red circle.

not the case: the relationship between importance and mean interaction strengt
is pretty weak, but there is a significant negative relationship between the degree
and the importancy.

As expected plants tend to have a larger degree than polinators. But re-
gardless of the guild one would expect that as the degree of a species increases
so does the likelihood of it being less dependent than its counterpart and hence
have more outer links, which in theory should increase its importance as driver
node. The fact that this happens with plants but doesn't happen with pol-
linators is another part of how plants and pollinators play a distinct role in
teh controlability of the networks. This might happen in part because of the
nested structure of the mutualistic networks. A generalist polinator will still be
"nested" within a set of generalist plants, in other words a generalist plant will
have more partners than a generalist polinator which drives the arrows from
plants to polinators anyways. (yeah fer this doesn't make sense...)

We therefore explored the posibility that the importance is related to the
contribution to nestedness. Voila! In this case both plants and polinators have
a clear positive relationship (Figure 13c)! That's pretty cool but I don't know
how to interpret this. Daniel help please!

Because the profiling of nodes proposed by Guimera and Amaral (2005)
captures a lot of the connectivity of nodes we explore the relationship with the
roles as well.

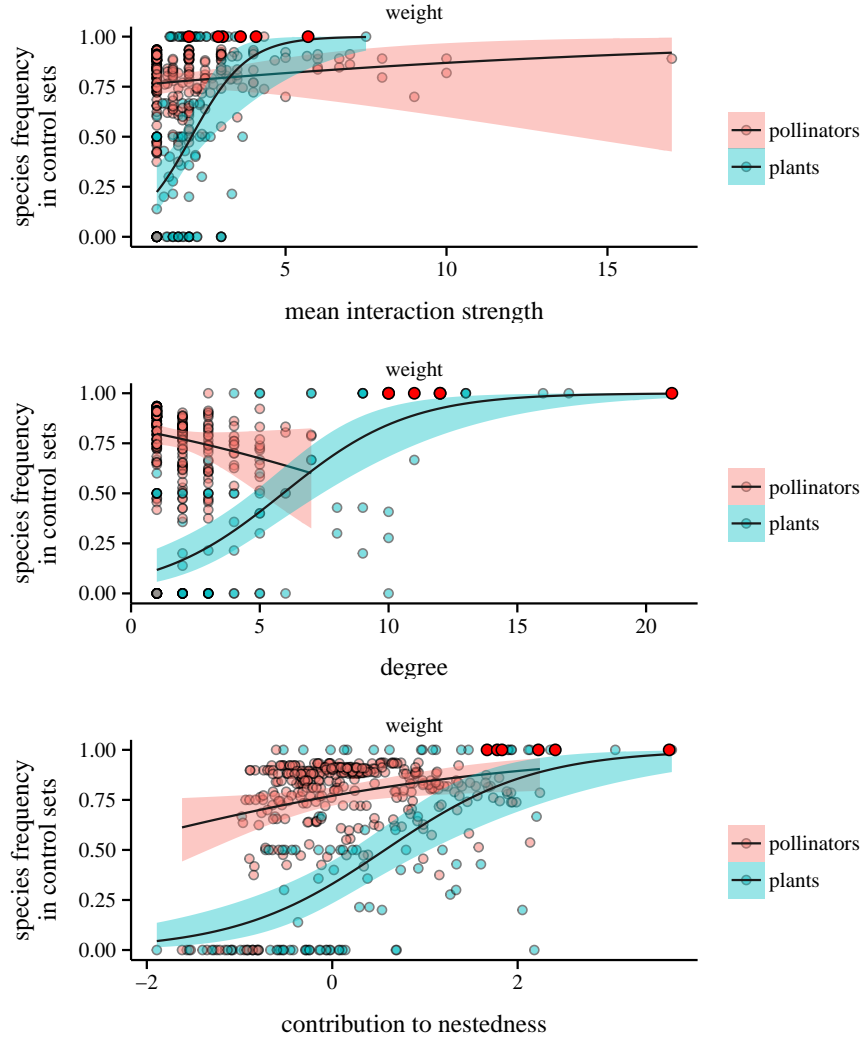


Figure 13: Relationship between the mean visitation frequency per species (as a surrogate of interaction strength) and its degree in a particular network with its presence in the control sets. Invasive plants are depicted with a red circle. Contribution to nestedness were calculated using 99 network randomisations.

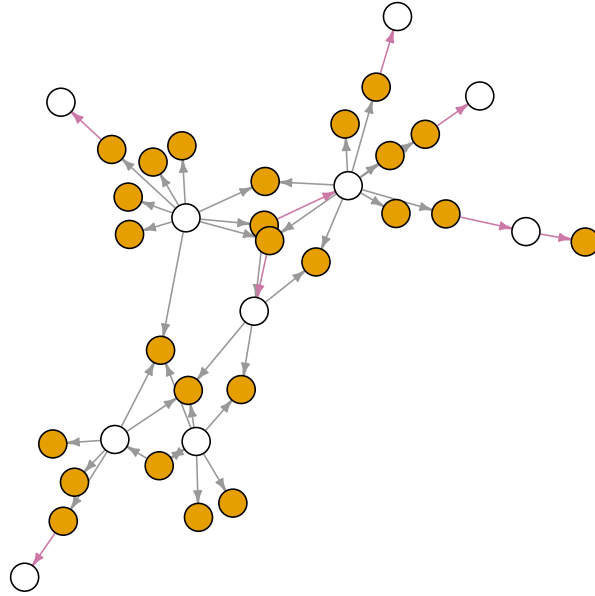


Figure 14: Example network. Plants and pollinators are shown as white and yellow circles respectively. Redundant links are shown on grey and critical links are shown on purple.

230 Link redundancy and species

231 We got some links that are redundant and other that are critical from the control
 232 point of view. I wanted to have a look at what drives that. I haven't done the
 233 formal analysis yet but a visual inspection of the network is reveals a pretty
 234 strong pattern.

235 Critical links tend to occur predominantly when control direction goes from
 236 pollinators to plants, this is when the plant is more dependent in the pollinator
 237 than the pollinator is on the plant (which is much less common than the other
 238 way around), and generally involve specialist plants (Figure 14).

239 Discussion

240 For instance, restoration projects that aim to drive an invasive species out of the
241 community, to reestablish a particular ecosystem service or in general modify
242 the ecosystem state have had a limited amount of success. We argue that
243 quantifying the relative dynamic importance of species the set of key species
244 is the first step to evaluate current management efforts as well as to design
245 targeted and informed

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Supplementary Information

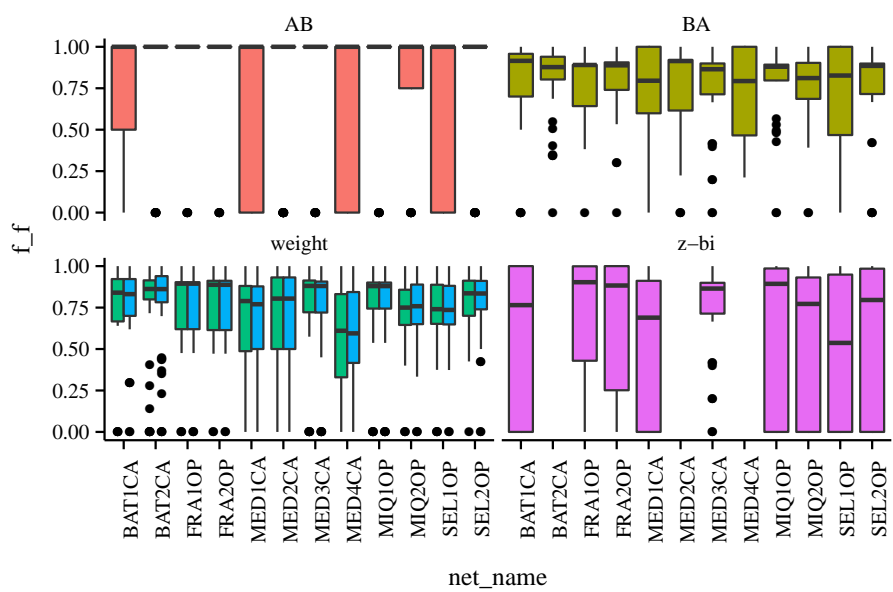


Figure S1: Distribution of the relative frequency a species is present in the set of control species among by network

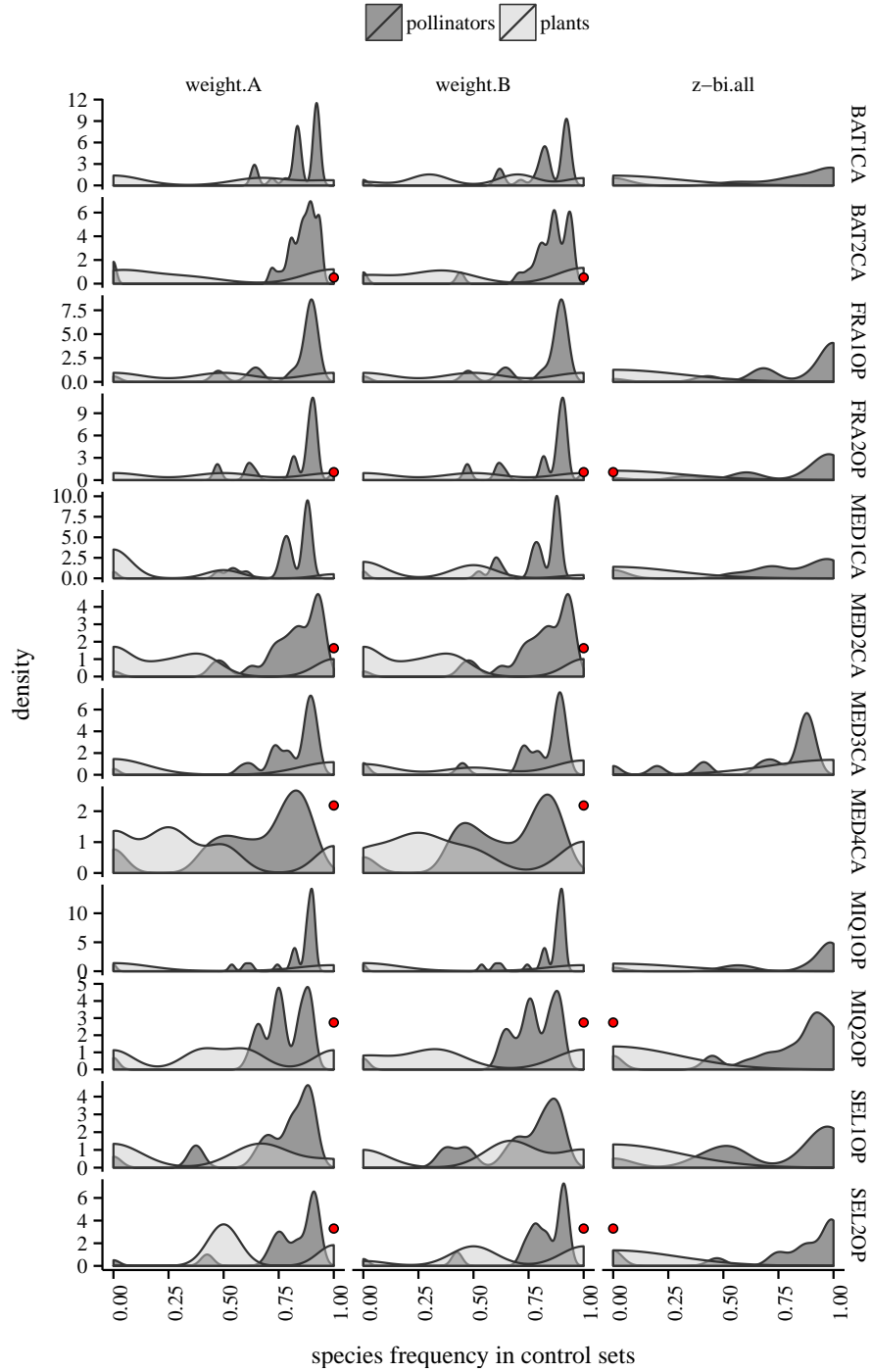


Figure S2: Distribution of the relative frequency a species is present in the set of control species among by network partitioned by plant or pollinators. Invasive species is depicted with a red dot.

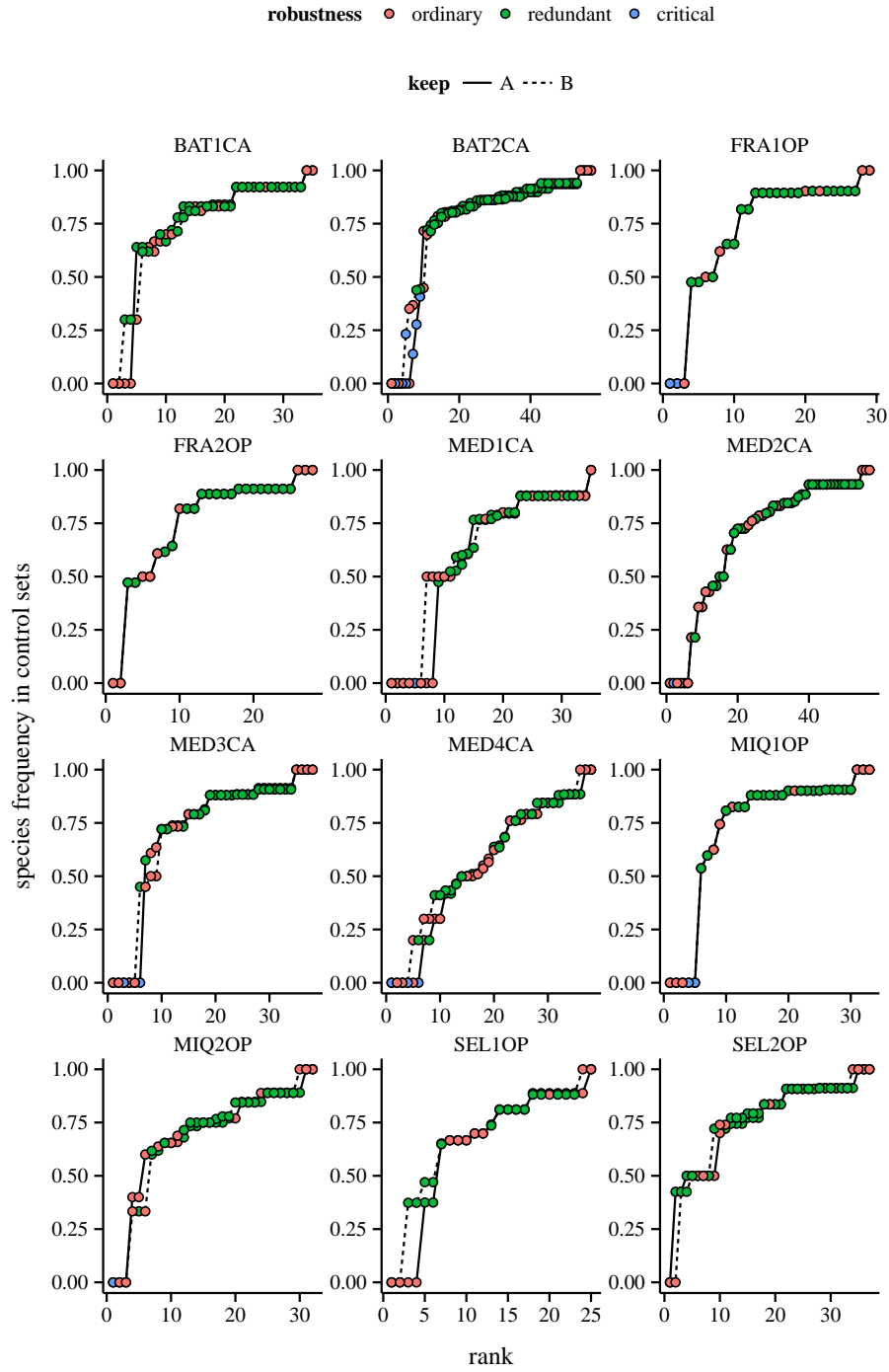


Figure S3: Relationship between species' frequency in the control sets and the redundancy categories for the weighted scheme.

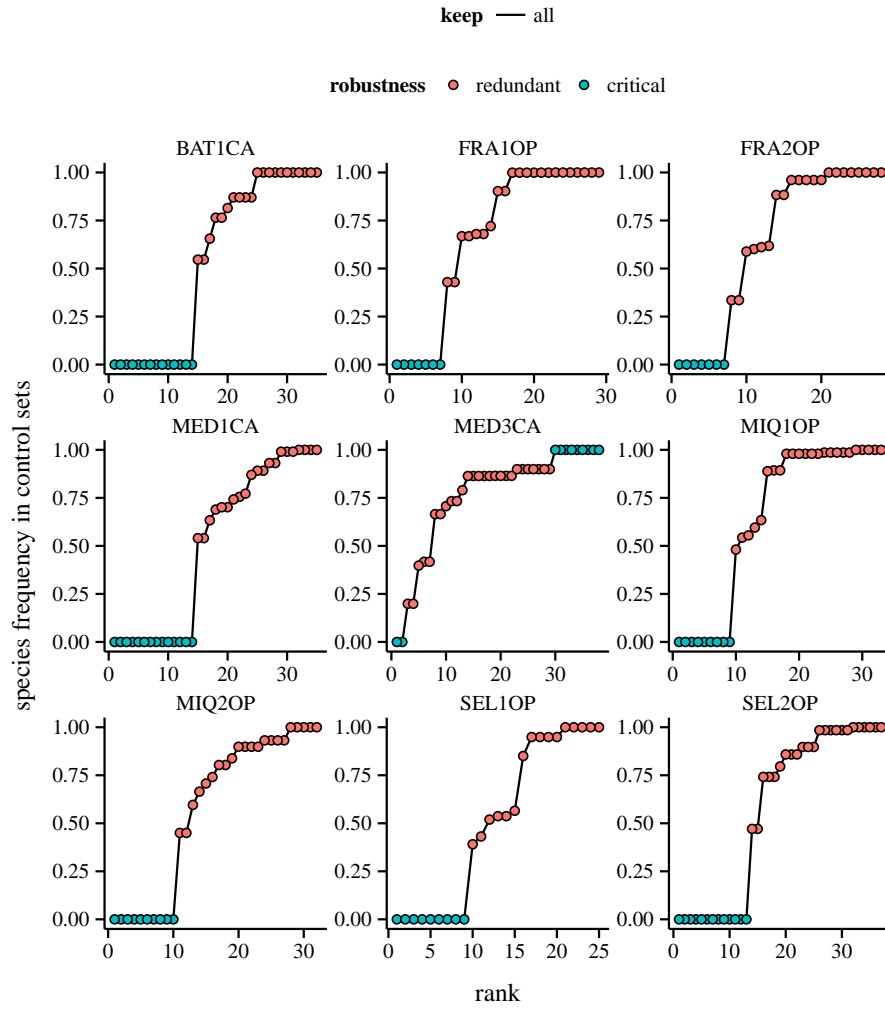


Figure S4: Relationship between species' frequency in the control sets and the redundancy categories for the bidirectional scheme.