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# 1 **What is Macroecology?**

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26 ABSTRACT

27 **The symposium '*What is Macroecology?*' was held in London on 20 June 2012. The event**  
28 **was the inaugural meeting of the Macroecology Special Interest Group of the British**  
29 **Ecological Society, and was attended by nearly 100 scientists from 11 countries. The**  
30 **meeting reviewed the recent development of the macroecological agenda. The key**  
31 **themes that emerged were a shift towards more explicit modelling of ecological**  
32 **processes, a growing synthesis across systems and scales and new opportunities to apply**  
33 **macroecological concepts in other research fields.**

34

35 1. INTRODUCTION

36 The idea of macroecology as a distinct field of research has been around for more than two  
37 decades [1], and was conceived as a response to the realization that small scale local  
38 processes alone were not able to fully explain the abundance and distribution of species.  
39 This led to a broader perspective that searched for generalized patterns at large spatial and  
40 temporal scales [2], characterised by the search for statistical relationships to explain the  
41 distribution of biodiversity from a historical and geographical perspective [2,3]. Ten years  
42 ago, a symposium of the British Ecological Society (BES) was convened with the aim of  
43 reconciling divergent perspectives on large-scale ecological patterns. This '*Causes and*  
44 *Consequences*' symposium set the tone for a decade of research in macroecology [4].

45 Recently, a macroecology special interest group of the BES was formed. The inaugural  
46 meeting brought together a diverse group of researchers to review the evolution of  
47 macroecology as a research discipline, highlight recent notable developments and explore  
48 new applications. Nick Isaac described the aims of BES macroecology group, which include  
49 providing a forum to share ideas and concepts, promoting data access and standards,  
50 showcasing methodological advances and setting the agenda for future research. This was  
51 followed by a keynote address from Ian Owens, who presented a personal perspective on  
52 the development of macroecology throughout the past decade. Owens argued that  
53 macroecology has been revolutionised by a combination of the availability of large  
54 molecular phylogenies, high resolution datasets on geographic distribution, extensive  
55 computational power, and new analytical approaches. As a result, rapid advances have been  
56 made towards answering many of the questions that originally occupied macroecologists,  
57 such as variation in body size, geographic range dynamics and the role of neutral processes.

58 These advances have brought with them a new set of opportunities and challenges [5],  
59 many of which were recurrent themes during the day. These themes are summarised below.

## 60 2. FROM PATTERN TO PROCESS

61 The strongest theme that percolated all of the talks was the increased emphasis on the  
62 processes that drive biodiversity patterns [see also 5]. This theme was introduced by Owens,  
63 who described a shift from describing patterns to a search for mechanistic understanding. In  
64 other words, the way we address key research questions has changed, notably by the  
65 increased use of process-based conceptual models of biodiversity [6]. This theme was  
66 further developed by Sean Connolly, who identified a mismatch between the biological  
67 reasoning that underpins hypotheses about the drivers of macroecological patterns and the  
68 statistical models that are actually fitted to data. Connolly illustrated how this has hindered  
69 progress in our understanding of large-scale species richness gradients, and demonstrated  
70 how models based on biological processes can be used to derive testable hypotheses [8].  
71 Although macroecology is relatively advanced in its use of statistical methods, the  
72 theoretical basis of the predictions involved is sometimes poorly developed. Connolly  
73 argued that the explicit formulation of theoretical models, and the robust derivation of  
74 statistical expectations from those models, is one of macroecology's most significant  
75 challenges.

76 Katrin Böhning-Gaese provided a clear demonstration of how incorporating local  
77 processes can influence large-scale patterns of species distributions. For example,  
78 projections of the impact of climate change on bird species richness yielded very different  
79 results when biotic interactions with tree species were taken into account [8]. Similarly,  
80 Trevor Price emphasised that both biotic and abiotic factors can explain large-scale diversity

81 gradients. He showed how niche conservatism is not enough to explain diversity gradients  
82 of Himalayan birds, unless competitive interactions were incorporated. Kate Jones and  
83 David Redding showed how the spread of a zoonotic disease (Lassa fever) can only be  
84 understood with reference to the distribution of the host (a rat). Moreover, Nicholas Dulvy  
85 described how the thermal tolerance of individual organisms underpins the distribution of  
86 poikilothermic animals in the oceans, and their responses to recent climate change, but that  
87 this was not the case on land [9]. Dulvy speculated that gross differences between marine  
88 and terrestrial environments can be attributed to the importance of behavioural  
89 thermoregulation and interspecific competition on land, contrasting with the dominance of  
90 size-based competition in marine systems.

91         The increasing focus on mechanistic understanding in macroecology is not confined  
92 to this meeting [5,10], and many of the recent attempts to build unified theories in ecology  
93 have been process-based [11–14]. A key challenge now is to derive general and testable  
94 predictions via robust theoretical modelling, underpinned by biologically reasonable  
95 assumptions. Recent progress in this area has been substantial [6], although many current  
96 theories may not be testable even for data-rich taxa such as mammals [15]. Thus, further  
97 research to bridge the gap between theory, predictions and data is a priority for the  
98 development of macroecology in the future.

### 99         3. BREAKING DOWN BARRIERS

100 Traditionally, macroecology focused on processes operating at large (e.g. climatic and  
101 phylogenetic) scales, largely ignoring the potential for small-scale processes to generate a  
102 coherent signal in macroecological patterns [16]. One reason is the deficit of fine-grained  
103 (e.g. population-level) datasets that are replicated over large spatial extent [5]: national

104 monitoring schemes have great potential in this regard [e.g. 17]. A growing body of  
105 evidence, both theoretical and empirical, suggests such signals can be detected (see above).  
106 Conversely, Böhning-Gaese showed large-scale abiotic gradients can influence community  
107 assembly. One striking example is that the degree of specialisation, identified using  
108 interaction networks among pollinator and frugivore species, is greater in temperate than in  
109 tropical communities, contrary to expectation [18,19]. Böhning-Gaese argued that advances  
110 in understanding how ecological patterns are generated at multiple spatial scales, and how  
111 they are interrelated, are important steps towards a multi-scale synthesis across ecology.

112         An additional barrier to progress within ecology in general is the lack of synthesis  
113 across taxonomic groups and biomes. Historically, macroecology was no exception, being  
114 predominantly focussed on terrestrial vertebrates [5], although marine macroecology was  
115 well-represented at this meeting. A feature of the presentations by marine ecologists was  
116 that the concepts and analyses they use are not exclusive to the marine environment.  
117 Connolly's process-based models of species richness are wholly transferrable to terrestrial  
118 cases. Dulvy went further, arguing that contrasts between realms can discriminate amongst  
119 hypotheses. For instance, equator-ward range limits on land were previously explained as  
120 an artefact of under-sampling in the tropics, but the contrast with changing marine range  
121 limits in the tropics, where scientific capacity is also low, suggested that stagnant terrestrial  
122 ranges are real [9]. More generally, inter-realm comparative analyses provide many novel  
123 opportunities to test mechanistic macroecological hypotheses [20].

#### 124         4. NEW APPLICATIONS

125 The meeting demonstrated well how macroecology has influenced diverse research  
126 agendas, further reinforcing its application to public policy on biodiversity [21,22]. Owens



127 argued that the influence of macroecology has been unusually broad and deep at the  
128 interface of science and policy, especially around land-use, climate change and biodiversity  
129 loss. Thus, a significant opportunity exists for macroecology to remain influential and adapt  
130 to changing priorities of stakeholders and funding bodies. Two talks focussed specifically on  
131 the extent to which macroecological ideas are gaining traction in mapping ecosystem  
132 services and epidemiology.

133 Mapping ecosystem services (MES), and the potential tradeoffs among them, is ripe  
134 for the application of macroecological approaches. Like macroecology, MES examines  
135 correlations in space over large scales, for example calculating the degree of spatial overlap  
136 of multiple services. Felix Eigenbrod argued MES should adopt macroecological tools to  
137 identify the mechanisms underpinning the distributions of ecosystem services. A further  
138 challenge for MES lies in the necessity to consider linkages between the distribution of  
139 biophysical stocks and their potential beneficiaries, which is somewhat analogous to  
140 modelling overlapping geographic ranges of interacting species. For example, Böhning-  
141 Gaese incorporated species richness of fig trees (the stock) into predictive models for  
142 frugivorous birds (the beneficiaries) [23]. Therefore, the incorporation of co-occurrence and  
143 subsequent interactions within both research agendas may be an area that would benefit  
144 from collaboration.

145 A further case study was presented by Jones and Redding, who argued that  
146 biodiversity may provide an ecosystem service of disease regulation, thereby contributing to  
147 human health. They contrasted traditional epidemiology, which is highly mechanistic and  
148 often treats diseases in isolation, with the emerging field of 'disease macroecology', which  
149 searches for general patterns in the emergence of novel diseases [24,25]. Jones described

150 how this approach can address policy-relevant questions about emerging infectious diseases  
151 and provide a context for mechanistic models of epidemiology at large spatial scales.

## 152 5. CONCLUSIONS

153 Macroecology has clearly matured from its descriptive, pattern-based, roots and now strives  
154 for explicit mechanistic ecological understanding. Key questions about the distribution of  
155 organisms in space and time remain central to the research agenda, but the conceptual and  
156 analytical approaches have changed markedly [5]. The growth of macroecology as both  
157 applied science and theoretical endeavour is also remarkable. In conclusion, we identify  
158 three key ways in which macroecology could progress: (1) close the conceptual gap between  
159 data and theory; (2) enhance integration of replicated field (i.e. fine-grained) studies across  
160 the macroecological scale; (3) deepen and extend collaboration across realms, biomes and  
161 taxonomic groups (including microbes [26]), in order to determine the extent to which  
162 patterns and processes are truly general across all biodiversity.

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