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▶ To cite this version:

Paul Savary, Jean-Christophe Foltête, Hervé Moal, Gilles Vuidel, Stéphane Garnier. graph4lg: a package for constructing and analysing graphs for landscape genetics in R. Methods in Ecology and Evolution, 2021, 12, pp.539-547. 10.1111/2041-210X.13530. hal-03030410

HAL Id: hal-03030410

https://hal.science/hal-03030410

Submitted on 30 Nov 2020

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Methods in Ecology and Evolution



graph41g: a package for constructing and analysing graphs for landscape genetics in R

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This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi:

10.1111/2041-210X.13321

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Abstract

- 1 In landscape genetics, habitat connectivity and population genetic structure have been analysed using graph-theoretic approaches to understand how landscape features influence demography (i.e. dispersal and population size).
- 2 Despite substantial advances in enhancing both genetic and landscape graph use, a software tool bringing together a large range of construction and analysis parameters for these two types of graphs was lacking in the landscape genetic toolbox. Moreover, although these two types of graphs appear complementary for answering landscape genetic questions, methods for comparing them have not been forthcoming.
- 3 We have developed an R package to improve and encourage the use of these graphs. It includes functions for converting and importing genetic data and for genetic distance computing. It also implements time-efficient geodesic and cost-distance calculations from spatial data. A large range of parameters can be used to create genetic and landscape graphs from these data, including several graph pruning methods. We made available to R users the command-line facilitaties of Graphab software to easily model landscape graphs in R. The package functions perform preliminary analysis to adapt methodological choices to research questions. Landscape and genetic graphs created can be analysed with node-level metrics as well as link-level and modularity analyses. Users can compare and visualise these graphs and export them to shapefiles to facilitate interpretation and subsequent analyses.
- 4 graph41g contributes to expanding landscape and genetic graph potential for analysing ecological connectivity while encouraging further investigations on methodological implications related to these tools.
- 1 En génétique du paysage, la connectivité des habitats et la structure génétique des populations ont été analysées à l'aide d'approches basées sur la théorie des graphes pour comprendre comment les éléments du paysage influencent la démographie (i.e. la taille des populations et la dispersion).
- 2 Bien que des progrès conséquents aient amélioré l'utilisation des graphes génétiques et paysagers, un outil informatique réunissant une large gamme de paramètres de construction et d'analyse de ces deux types de graphes faisait défaut parmi les outils de la génétique du paysage. Par ailleurs, malgré l'intérêt potentiel de la complémentarité de ces deux types de graphes pour répondre aux questions de génétique du paysage, des méthodes permettant de les comparer n'ont pas encore été proposées.
- 3 Nous avons développé un package R pour améliorer et encourager l'utilisation de ces graphes. Il intègre des fonctions de conversion et d'import de données génétiques et de calcul de distances génétiques. Il permet aussi de calculer des distances géodésiques et des distances-coût à partir de données spatiales. Une importante gamme de paramètres peut être utilisée pour créer des graphes génétiques et paysagers à partir de ces données, parmi laquelle on trouve plusieurs méthodes d'élagage. Nous avons rendu accessible l'utilisation du logiciel Graphab en lignes de commande aux utilisateurs du logiciel R pour faciliter la modélisation de graphes paysagers dans cet environnement. Les fonctions du package permettent des analyses préliminaires ayant pour but d'adapter les choix méthodologiques aux questions de recherche. Les graphes génétiques et paysagers créés peuvent être analysés avec des métriques calculées au niveau des nœuds ou avec des analyses des liens ou des modules de ces graphes. Les utilisateurs peuvent comparer et visualiser les graphes et les exporter sous forme de couches shapefile pour faciliter l'interprétation et les analyses ultérieures.
- 4 graph41g contribue à étendre le potentiel des graphes génétiques et paysagers pour l'analyse de la connectivité écologique tout en encourageant de futures recherches sur les aspects méthodologiques relatifs à ces outils.

Keywords: ecological connectivity, dispersal, graph theory, landscape genetics, R

1 Introduction

Landscape genetic studies aim at understanding how landscape characteristics such as habitat spatial distribution and matrix quality shape population genetic structure (Balkenhol et al., 2016; Manel et al., 2003). In this recent field, new methods have been developing at a sustained pace to describe landscape structure (e.g. Galpern et al. (2012)), population genetic structure (e.g. Al-Asadi et al. (2019); Prunier et al. (2017); Shirk and Cushman (2011)) and to bring landscape and genetic data together in multi-level analyses (Hall and Beissinger, 2014; Wagner and Fortin, 2013). Among these methods, graph-theoretic approaches were identified as particularly relevant (Manel and Holderegger, 2013) because they grasp interactions between sets of habitat patches or populations in a comprehensive way (Dale and Fortin, 2010; Dale, 2017; Fortin et al., 2012).

A graph is basically a set of nodes connected by a set of links. In landscape ecology, the use of landscape graphs dates back to the 2000s (Galpern et al., 2011; Urban and Keitt, 2001) and has developed through the availability of free software tools such as Graphab (Foltête et al., 2012) or Conefor (Saura and Torne, 2009). The nodes of landscape graphs are habitat patches and their links correspond to potential dispersal paths, e.g. identified by computing least-cost paths across resistance surfaces. From these graphs, a large range of connectivity metrics can be computed (Rayfield et al., 2011) and used for inference (Pereira et al., 2011) or conservation-oriented decision making (Foltête et al., 2014). Besides, landscape graph nodes can be partitioned through modularity analyses to identify management units or perform analyses at a coarser grain (Fletcher Jr et al., 2013; Foltête and Vuidel, 2017).

Although landscape graphs enable close investigation of habitat connectivity, their construction often relies upon expert-based opinion and combining them with biological data can improve this approach (Foltête et al., 2020). Landscape graph modelling software tools already make possible the import of biological data (Foltête et al., 2012) and genetic data are a relevant candidate for such a combination (Luque et al., 2012). Thus, this approach would benefit from being performed in a statistical software where genetic data processing and complex statistical analyses can both be done.

Similarly, migration models theorised in population genetics (Kimura and Weiss, 1964; Wright, 1931) often rely upon topological network representations and even if these models rarely reflect real situations (Greenbaum and Fefferman, 2017; Milligan et al., 2018), population geneticists have developed a large range of genetic graph construction methods that can potentially fit all the observed migration networks (Greenbaum and Fefferman, 2017). Thus, population genetic structure has been frequently represented as genetic graphs in which nodes correspond to sampled populations and links to substantial gene exchanges between them (Arnaud, 2003; Excoffier et al., 1992).

When building a genetic graph, the construction method should always be guided by the specific research question (Miele et al., 2019). For example, an important step in this process is graph pruning, which consists in removing some links and should be performed differently if the aim of the analysis is (i) to identify single generation (direct) dispersal paths (Boulanger et al., 2020; Dyer, 2015) or (ii) to infer landscape effects on dispersal from the genetic differentiation measurements between populations connected on the graph (Savary, P. et al., in correction; Van Strien (2017)). Indeed, in the first case, paths that are not within reach of individuals given their dispersal capacities should be removed in order to represent the dispersal network topology.

In the second case, links corresponding to multi-generational indirect dispersal can be conserved given that they reflect the genetic connectivity emerging over generations due to stepping-stone dispersal (Boulanger et al., 2020; Saura et al., 2014). In both cases, several graph pruning methods can be used and must be chosen accordingly (Greenbaum and Fefferman, 2017; Van Strien, 2017). Apart from these link-level analyses, once genetic graphs have been constructed, they can be analysed at the node- and boundary-levels (Wagner and Fortin, 2013), according to the research question. For example, node-level metric calculations and module partitions are possible to assess genetic diversity and relative genetic differentiation at the population level (e.g. Koen et al. (2016)) and to identify population clustering patterns (e.g. Fortuna et al. (2009)), respectively.

Then, comparing genetic graph characteristics such as node-level indices, graph topology, link weights and module partitions to the exact same characteristics derived from a landscape graph could contribute to a better understanding of the effect of habitat spatial patterns on population genetic structure. It has therefore been claimed that genetic graphs and landscape graphs should complement each other (Foltête and Vuidel, 2017; Galpern et al., 2011; Manel and Holderegger, 2013; Murphy et al., 2015). However, a practical tool for building, analysing and comparing these graphs was still lacking. Accordingly, we have developed the R package graph41g to bridge all these gaps in the implementation of landscape and genetic graphs. It provides graph users with a software tool facilitating their choice and implementation of graph construction and analysis methods and builds on previous developments of R packages for landscape genetic and graph-theoretical analyses such as igraph (Csardi and Nepusz, 2006), gstudio (Dyer, 2014) or adegenet (Jombart, 2008).

2 Workflow

graph41g package functions can be divided into four categories following the steps of landscape genetic analyses:

- 1. The package allows for genetic and spatial input data processing in preparation for graph construction, calculating intra-population genetic indices and inter-population genetic and landscape distances and performing preliminary analyses through diagnostic plots.
- 2. It provides users with functions for building genetic graphs and analysis tools for these graphs.
- 3. In parallel, some 'wrapper functions' run command-line functionalities of Graphab software (Foltête et al., 2012) directly from R to construct and analyse landscape graphs.
- 4. Finally, genetic and landscape graphs can be compared, plotted and exported to other formats.

This workflow is described in the following sections and depicted in Figure 1. All the package functions are also listed in Table S1 with their dependencies on other R packages.

2.1 Input data processing

2.1.1 Genetic data

Studies of gene flow pattern and/or intensity and of landscape influence on it rely upon neutral genetic markers which reflect genetic variation due to demographic changes and are supposedly independent from adaptive processes (Holderegger et al., 2006). Microsatellite loci assumed or identified as being neutral are the most frequent type of markers used in landscape

genetics (Storfer et al., 2010). Besides, SNP markers are now becoming widespread and can also be used to perform these analyses provided that loci under selective pressures (identified as outliers) have been discarded (Cushman et al., 2018; Foll and Gaggiotti, 2008). Accordingly, graph41g functions use genetic data with 2- or 3-digit allele coding to fit the common microsatellite coding. SNP data can also be used when loaded as genind object in R, because R objects with the genind class attribute from the adegenet package (Jombart, 2008) are the input of genetic data processing functions from graph41g. Landscape genetic analyses performed with graph41g are population-based and like most applications in this field rely on the a priori delineation of populations (Milligan et al., 2018; Waits and Storfer, 2015). Populations are identified by the pop strata of genind objects and usually correspond to sampling units.

We included conversion functions (gstud_to_genind, loci_to_genind, structure_to_genind, genepop_to_genind) to easily get genind objects from formats used in other software tools such as gstudio (Dyer, 2014), pegas (Paradis, 2010), STRUCTURE (Pritchard et al., 2000) or GENEPOP (Raymond, 1995). We also made possible the creation of external text files in GENEPOP format from genind objects (genind_to_genepop) for users willing to perform analyses with this commonly used R package and executable software.

The mat_gen_dist function computes eight different inter-population genetic distances from genind objects (Table 1). However, 'external' genetic distance matrices or dist objects imported by users can be the input of the functions described in the next sections.

2.1.2 Spatial data

Two kinds of pairwise landscape distance matrices can be computed from point spatial coordinates and resistance surface raster layers:

- mat_geo_dist function computes geodesic distances from point sets with either projected
 or polar coordinate reference systems using Euclidean distance or great circle distance
 formulas, respectively.
- mat_cost_dist function computes pairwise cost-distance matrices from a point set, a categorical resistance surface raster layer and a data.frame indicating the cost associated with each cell value. This function depends on gdistance package (Van Etten, 2012), but can also use an external .jar file which substantially reduces computation times for large rasters (Table S2), providing R users with a time-efficient alternative to gdistance for cost-distance computing.

2.1.3 Preliminary analyses

When the study objective is to infer landscape effects on dispersal from the relationship between genetic and landscape distances associated with graph links, visualising a scatterplot using complete distance matrices (scatter_dist) can be a first step before graph construction. Isolation by distance patterns due to limited dispersal are common in population genetics (Wright, 1943). However, if the studied species has low dispersal capacities or after a decrease in landscape connectivity, the increase of genetic differentiation with distance is only observed at a small scale, which tends to expand over time (Slatkin, 1993). In that case, drift will be more important than migration as a driver of genetic differentiation between populations separated by large distances. This results in a non-linear relationship between landscape and genetic distances exhibiting a plateau beyond a given landscape distance threshold (Hänfling and Weetman, 2006; Hutchison and Templeton, 1999). Conversely, a linear relationship is expected when equilibrium is established at the scale of the study area. Because migration-drift equilibrium is a pre-requisite for genetic differentiation to reflect landscape effects on dispersal, inference ignoring it may be

biased (Bradbury and Bentzen, 2007; Van Strien et al., 2015). Genetic graph pruning method determines population pairs included in the inference and should therefore be chosen after consideration of the scale at which populations verify this equilibrium. Similarly, genetic distances based on fixation indices require equilibrium assumptions to be confirmed so that derived inferences are reliable (Neigel, 2002; Whitlock and Mccauley, 1999).

Van Strien et al. (2015) estimated the threshold distance between population pairs maximizing the correlation between genetic differentiation and landscape distance. This distance of maximum correlation (DMC) can be viewed as an estimate of the scale at which populations verify migration-drift equilibrium, i.e. their neighborhood size (Addicott et al., 1987; Kierepka et al., 2020). It is computed by the dist_max_corr function (Figure 2A), which can help choosing among pruning methods (cf. section 2.2.1).

When the objective is to recover direct dispersal paths by taking into account landscape resistance and maximum dispersal capacities of the study species, it is important to know how species dispersal distances expressed in geodesic distance units convert into cost-distance values, especially if geodesic distance thresholds are used to prune the graphs. To that purpose, the convert_cd function performs a linear or log-log linear regression of cost-distance values against geodesic distance values (Tournant et al., 2013).

2.2 Genetic graph construction and analysis

2.2.1 Genetic graph construction

The graph41g package implements a wide range of pruning methods for constructing genetic graphs. Some of these methods can equally apply to landscape graphs. First, graphs can be pruned by removing the links between populations separated by genetic or landscape distances above or below a specified threshold value (gen_graph_thr). Such an approach can be efficient for identifying direct dispersal paths provided maximum dispersal distance is known. It has also been used to select population pairs to include in the inference of landscape effects on dispersal (Angelone et al., 2011; Keller et al., 2013). In that case, the distance threshold can be the DMC if a clear plateau is identified in the IBD pattern.

Second, when the study species is assumed to have stepping stone dispersal or when migration-drift equilibrium establishes at short distance, graphs can be pruned depending on topological constraints (gen_graph_topo), thereby constructing minimum spanning trees, planar graphs, k-nearest-neighbour graphs and Gabriel graphs (Arnaud, 2003; Bunn et al., 2000; Keller et al., 2013; Naujokaitis-Lewis et al., 2013). The topological constraints can be applied to matrices of landscape distances as well as genetic distances. Similarly, the edge-thinning method, linked to percolation theory, identifies the distance threshold above which graph thresholding breaks the graph into more than one connected component (Urban and Keitt, 2001; Rozenfeld et al., 2008) and creates a thresholded graph using this threshold.

Finally, the gen_graph_indep function creates genetic graphs directly from genetic data stored in genind objects, in the same way as the popgraph function from the popgraph package. This approach prunes graphs by conserving links between populations that are dependent on each other based on the covariance of their allelic frequencies, after having looked at the covariance with allelic frequencies from all the other populations. This use of the conditional independence principle (Whittaker, 2009) is supposed to conserve links between populations directly exchanging migrants through single generation dispersal events (Dyer and Nason, 2004). This function expands the original popgraph function by implementing p-value adjustments

(Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995; Holm, 1979), among other options compared by Savary et al. (in correction).

2.2.2 Genetic graph analyses

Once genetic graphs have been created, the compute_node_metric function computes graph-theoretic metrics such as the degree, closeness and betweenness centrality indices, which identify keystone hubs of genetic connectivity (Cross et al., 2018). It also computes the average and sum of the inverse genetic distance weighting the links. Koen et al. (2016) showed that these relative genetic differentiation indices can be good proxies of connectivity. Apart from these metrics depending on graph topology, population-level genetic diversity indices such as allelic richness and heterozygosity rates can be computed with the pop_gen_index function from genind objects. All these metrics can be added as node attributes with the add_nodes_attr function.

Link weights are used to partition nodes into modules (compute_graph_modul) and identify population clusters possibly delineated by sharp dispersal limitations (Fortuna et al., 2009; Garroway et al., 2008). We implement several modularity algorithms: fast greedy (Clauset et al., 2004), louvain (Blondel et al., 2008), optimal (Brandes et al., 2008) and walktrap (Pons and Latapy, 2006) from the igraph package. Link weights can also be exported into data frames for subsequent link-level analyses using the graph_to_df function.

2.3 Landscape graph construction and analysis

The graph41g package integrates the graph construction and analysis options of Graphab software (Foltête et al., 2012) by implementing its command-line functionalities. Thus, both the package documentation and Graphab software manual can be of substantial help for users.

First, the graphab_project function creates a Graphab project from a categorical raster layer. It defines habitat patches as contiguous cells with a given cell value and creates a directory containing this project in the user's machine. Then, the least cost paths between these habitat patches are computed (graphab_link). Once the Graphab project and link set have been created, users can create complete, thresholded or planar graphs (graphab_graph). A large range of connectivity metrics can be computed at the graph or node levels (graphab_metric). Delta-metrics can also be computed, e.g. for prioritisation analyses. These metrics have been extensively tested and compared in the literature (Baranyi et al., 2011; Rayfield et al., 2011).

Users can either import planar graphs created in Graphab as <code>igraph</code> objects (<code>graphab_to_igraph</code>) in order to compute metrics in R, or only import link weights or node-level metrics computed with Graphab (<code>get_graphab_metric</code>, <code>get_graphab_linkset</code>). In cases when users want to relate punctual field observations to connectivity metrics, they can get the metrics of the nearest habitat patches from a set of points (<code>graphab_pointset</code>). Finally, users can partition habitat patches through modularity analyses in Graphab (<code>graphab_modul</code>).

2.4 Landscape and genetic graph comparisons

Although landscape and genetic graphs have each been repeatedly used, their direct comparison has rarely been performed (Draheim et al., 2016; Schoville et al., 2018). To facilitate the interpretation of their respective topology and the formulation and test of hypotheses regarding their similarities, the plot_graph_lg function allows users to visualise the topology and connectivity of the created graphs (Figure 2D). It maps graphs in a spatially-explicit way or implements an attraction-repulsion algorithm based on link weights (Fruchterman and Reingold, 1991) to assess whether nodes cluster together independently from their spatial locations. Node metrics,

link weights and module partitioning can also be visualised with this function. Moreover, the link weight distribution can be plotted as a histogram (plot_hist_w)(Fig. 2C) and the pruning intensity can be visualised by representing population pairs in a different color on the scatter plot relating genetic distance with landscape distance (scatter_dist_g).

To test the formulated hypotheses, when landscape and genetic graphs share the same nodes, the correlation between population- or patch-based indices can be assessed (graph_node_compar) in order to understand the relationship between i) landscape attributes (habitat surface area or connectivity) and ii) genetic attributes (genetic differentiation or local diversity).

Similarly, the graph_topo_compar function compares the topologies of two graphs (link-based analysis) by creating a contingency table (based on the presence/absence of corresponding links in both graphs) and computing indices commonly used to assess classifications (e.g. Matthews' correlation coefficient, false discovery rate, accuracy). The congruence of two graph topologies can be visualised by plotting them on the same map while colouring their links to indicate whether they occur in both graphs or just one of them (graph_plot_compar). Mismatches between genetic and landscape graph topology can provide insights regarding the realised connectivity in the study area or the modelisation method itself.

Finally, quantifying how many node pairs classified in the same module in one graph are also classified together in the modules created from another graph indicates us how far these graphs reflect the same real-world situation. This boundary-based analysis is made possible by the graph_modul_compar function which computes the Adjusted Rand Index (Hubert and Arabie, 1985) to compare partitions.

3 Export facilities and included data

The graphs can be exported to shapefile layers for integration into a GIS (graph_to_shp) and analyses involving other types of geographical data. Included genetic and spatial data can be used to discover the functionalities of the package. We included a data set created from simulations with CDPOP(Landguth and Cushman, 2010) on a simulated landscape (data_simul_genind). It consists of 1500 individuals from 50 populations genotyped at 20 microsatellite loci. This dataset exhibits a typical type-IV pattern of IBD and was used to create Figure 2 and the tutorial presenting the package.

4 Limits and conclusion

Landscape and genetic graphs have great potential for analysing ecological connectivity and we do not claim to have compiled an exhaustive set of graph construction and analysis methods. Other pruning methods have been developing (Brooks, 2006; Greenbaum et al., 2016; Kininmonth et al., 2010; Milligan, prep; Peterson et al., 2018) and could be expanded to directed graphs for example. Besides, a large range of local metrics inspired from the metapopulation theory have been developed for landscape graphs and could similarly inspire genetic graph local metrics. Graph-based analyses could also benefit from significance testing approaches through permutations to enhance their robustness. Finally, although Graphab software can efficiently handle very large spatial data sets (Foltête et al., 2012), genetic graph modelling can involve higher computational costs, thereby limiting this approach to smaller spatial and genetic datasets. Further development of the package could introduce improvements.

Our first goal in developing graph41g is to bring together and make accessible a large range of methods currently used in landscape genetics for constructing and analysing graphs. We hope this package will foster the use of genetic and landscape graphs as well as further investigation regarding theoretical as well as methodological aspects.

5 Acknowledgements

We thank the editor and referees, as well as the CRAN volunteers for their constructive comments. This study is part of a PhD project supported by the ARP-Astrance company under a CIFRE contract supervised and partly funded by the ANRT (Association Nationale de la Recherche et de la Technologie). We are particularly grateful to ARP-Astrance teams for their support throughout the project. We thank Ahmed Jebrane, Catherine Labruere and Catherine Laredo for their help with mathematical aspects.

6 Data availability

No empirical data were used in this article. The graph41g package, all the R source codes, documentation files and vignettes can be downloaded by users under the GPL-2 license from the CRAN repository (https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/graph4lg/index.html).

7 Authors' contributions

J.C.F., S.G. and H.M. obtained the funding for the project. P.S. and G.V. designed the package and developed the codes. P.S, J.C.F. and S.G. wrote the manuscript with significant contributions and remarks from all co-authors.

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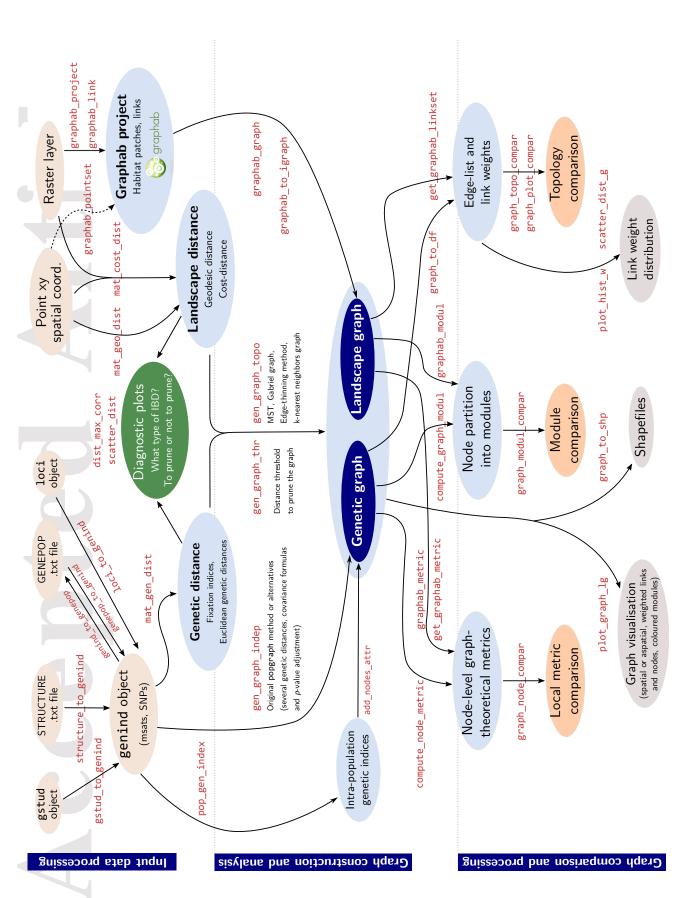
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8 Tables and figures

Genetic distance	Description	Eq.	Depend.	Ref.
F_{ST}	Fixation index	Yes	diveRsity	Weir and Cockerham (1984)
Linearised F_{ST}	Linearised fixation index	Yes	diveRsity	Rousset (1997)
G'_{ST}	Standardised fixation index	Yes	diveRsity	Hedrick (2005)
$\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{Jost}}$	Standardised fixation index	Yes	diveRsity	Jost (2008)
D_{PS}	1 - proportion of shared alleles	No	None	Bowcock et al. (1994), implementation of MSA software formula (Dieringer and Schlötter 2003)
Euclidean genetic distance	Computed from allelic frequencies differences	No	None	Excoffier et al. (1992)
Weighted Euclidean genetic distance	Computed from allelic frequencies differences giving more weights to rare alleles	No	None	Fortuna et al. (2009); Greenbaum et al. (2016)
PCA-derived Euclidean genetic distance	Inter-population distance in the space defined by the principal components obtained from a PCA of the allelic frequencies table	No	None	Inspired by the distances computed by Paschou et al. (2014) and Shirk et al. (2017)
popgraph-derived genetic distance	Inter-population distance in the space created after a PCA of the allelic frequencies table	No	None	Dyer and Nason (2004)

Table 1: Inter-population genetic distances computed with the mat_gen_dist function. The 'Eq.' column indicates whether the genetic distance implies that migration-drift equilibrium assumptions are made. The 'Depend.' column indicates the R packages on which the function depends for each genetic distance.



correspond to input data whereas grey boxes correspond to final output that can be exported to figures or files. Light blue boxes indicate analysis output that are used to construct graphs or derived from them. Dark blue boxes correspond to the two types of graphs that can be constructed with the package. The green box corresponds to diagnostic plots that can be assessed to help choose among the construction methods. Orange boxes indicate the analyses that can be carried out at several levels using both landscape and genetic graphs. Figure 1: graph41g workflow. Functions are represented by arrows linking their arguments to their output. Their names are written in red. Light beige boxes

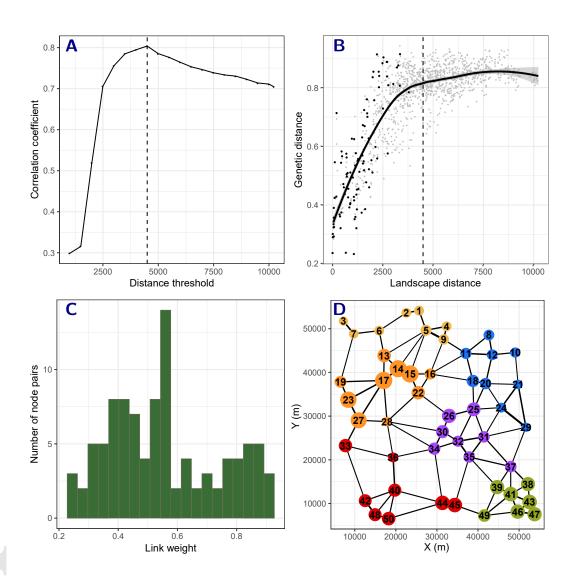


Figure 2: Diagnosis plots (A, B) and genetic graph analysis plots (C, D) produced with the datasets data_simul_genind and pts_pop_simul obtained after a simulation on CDPOP(Landguth and Cushman, 2010).

A) Identification of the distance of maximum correlation (DMC) (Van Strien et al., 2015) with the dist_max_corr function. Here, the DMC corresponds to the dashed vertical line on plots A and B. B) Scatter plot produced with the scatter_dist_g function representing the relationship between genetic distance (D_{PS}) and cost-distance. The grey shaded region around the smoothed line corresponds to the 95 % confidence interval of the smoothing function. The black dots represent population pairs connected in the Gabriel graph. C) Histogram of the genetic distances separating the population pairs connected in the Gabriel graph produced with the plot_w_hist function. D) Gabriel graph mapped with the plot_graph_lg function. Link width is inversely proportional to the genetic distances weighting the links. Node size is proportional to the connectivity metric Flux derived from the corresponding landscape graph. Node color indicates the module to which pertains every node after a modularity analysis using compute_graph_modul.