

Model structure conditions ecological inference in food web reconstruction

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Abstract: Aim

Ecological networks are widely used to compare community structure, stability, and responses to disturbance across environmental gradients. However, many networks—particularly those assembled from incomplete interaction data—require model-based reconstruction. We test how alternative reconstruction frameworks condition ecological inference by quantifying their effects on network structure and disturbance dynamics.

Location

Cleveland Basin, United Kingdom.

Time period

Early Jurassic (upper Pliensbachian–upper Toarcian, ~183 Ma).

Major taxa studied

Marine invertebrate communities.

Methods

We reconstructed four successive communities from an identical species pool using six contrasting food-web models spanning feasible (trait-based), realised (allometric and energetic), and structural (topological) network representations. For each community and model, 100 replicate networks were generated. We quantified macro-, meso-, and micro-scale network properties and assessed differences among models using multivariate analyses. Pairwise interaction turnover was measured using link-based beta diversity. We then simulated species loss under multiple disturbance scenarios, allowing secondary extinctions, and compared predicted community states using mean absolute differences and rank concordance metrics.

Results

Reconstruction framework strongly influenced inferred network topology (MANOVA, $p < 0.001$), generating distinct structural signatures independent of species composition. Models that were similar in global metrics often diverged in species-level interactions, with high -turnover among inferred link sets. During disturbance simulations, species-level vulnerability rankings were broadly consistent across models, but interaction-level outcomes and cascade dynamics varied substantially. Concordance in extinction-scenario rankings was scale dependent, with higher agreement at the species level than at the interaction level.

Main conclusions

Network reconstruction functions as a structural prior that conditions ecological inference. While some aggregate patterns are robust across modelling frameworks, detailed interaction-level dynamics are highly model contingent. Comparative network studies across spatial or environmental gradients should therefore align reconstruction framework with inferential goals and explicitly evaluate sensitivity to modelling assumptions.

Keywords: Ecological networks, Biotic interactions, Community assembly, Environmental gradients, Interaction turnover, Trophic organisation, Ecosystem resilience, Macroecology

¹ 1 Introduction

² Ecological networks provide a powerful framework for understanding how communities are structured across
³ space and time. By representing species and their interactions explicitly, food webs allow ecologists to quantify
⁴ complexity, trophic organization, vulnerability, and the propagation of disturbance through ecosystems
⁵ (Delmas et al., 2018). Network approaches have therefore become central to comparative ecology, from
⁶ evaluating latitudinal gradients in interaction structure to assessing how communities reorganize following
⁷ environmental change (Gravel et al., 2019; Hao et al., 2025; Poisot et al., 2015; Tylianakis & Morris, 2017).
⁸ However, ecological networks are rarely fully observed (even in modern systems), and interaction data are
⁹ incomplete, biased, and scale dependent (Catchen et al., 2023; Poisot et al., 2021; Sandra et al., 2025). In
¹⁰ most contexts (including historical, biogeographic, and deep-time systems) interactions must be inferred
¹¹ indirectly from traits, co-occurrence, phylogeny, or ecological theory (Morales-Castilla et al., 2015; Strydom
¹² et al., 2021). As a result, network construction is not simply a descriptive exercise but an inferential one
¹³ where models are used to predict links that are plausible, probable, or theoretically consistent with ecological
¹⁴ constraints (Strydom et al., 2026). Despite rapid methodological development in interaction inference, few
¹⁵ studies have systematically compared alternative reconstruction frameworks within the same empirical system
¹⁶ to evaluate how model choice propagates into ecological inference.

¹⁷ This issue is particularly important for comparative studies. While inference from ecological networks
¹⁸ regarding structure and complexity is a mathematical task and is therefore relatively independent of biological
¹⁹ assumptions (Delmas et al., 2019), their implications for stability and dynamics depend critically on assumptions
²⁰ about the distribution and strength of interaction (Allesina & Tang, 2012; Poisot et al., 2015). Network
²¹ properties such as connectance, trophic organization, motif frequency, and robustness are often compared
²² across communities to infer ecological differences attributable to environmental gradients, disturbance regimes,
²³ or evolutionary history (Dunhill et al., 2024; Michalska-Smith & Allesina, 2019; Poisot & Gravel, 2014;
²⁴ Roopnarine, 2006). However, if network structure depends strongly on the reconstruction model employed,
²⁵ then methodological variation may be conflated with biological signal. Understanding which ecological
²⁶ conclusions are robust to reconstruction assumptions (and which are model-dependent) is therefore essential
²⁷ for reliable cross-system inference. Recent work in network ecology has clarified that reconstruction approaches
²⁸ differ fundamentally in the type of network that they represent (Gauzens et al., 2025; Strydom et al., 2026).
²⁹ Broadly, these include: feasible networks, which map the set of interactions that are biologically possible given
³⁰ trait or phylogenetic compatibility; realised networks, which incorporate energetic or foraging constraints
³¹ to approximate the subset of interactions likely to occur; and structural networks, which reproduce general
³² topological properties without assigning biologically explicit species identities (Allesina et al., 2008). Each

33 representation encodes distinct ecological assumptions about how interactions arise and persist. Yet these
34 classes are rarely evaluated comparatively within the same empirical system.

35 Although modern ecological networks often incorporate direct observations, analyses across historical or
36 biogeographic gradients rely on inferred interactions. In these cases, reconstruction becomes structural
37 hypothesis testing rather than data recovery. Yet most studies adopt a single reconstruction framework
38 without assessing how alternative models might alter inferred ecological patterns, leaving it unclear whether
39 signals such as extinction cascades or stability metrics reflect ecological reality or modelling artefacts. Deep-
40 time ecosystems provide a stringent test of this issue, because interactions are not observed directly (Dunhill
41 et al., 2024; Dunne et al., 2008; Dunne et al., 2014; Roopnarine, 2006), reconstruction assumptions must be
42 explicit, allowing model effects on ecological inference to be isolated.

43 Here we assess how alternative network reconstruction frameworks influence inferred food web structure
44 and extinction dynamics through a re-evaluation of primary and secondary, trait-based extinction dynamics
45 during the early Toarcian extinction event, a volcanic-driven hyperthermal and marine crisis in the Early
46 Jurassic (~183 Ma) (Dunhill et al., 2024). We reconstruct four successive communities from an identical
47 taxon pool using six contrasting models spanning feasible, realised, and structural network representations.

48 For each community, we compare macro-, meso-, and micro-scale network properties, quantify turnover in
49 inferred interactions, and evaluate extinction dynamics under replicated disturbance simulations. In holding
50 species composition constant while varying reconstruction framework, we isolate the contribution of model
51 structure to ecological inference. This design allows us to distinguish signals that are consistent across models
52 (indicating robust ecological patterns) from those that vary strongly with reconstruction assumptions. In
53 doing so, we provide a general framework for evaluating uncertainty in reconstructed ecological networks and
54 for improving the reliability of comparative network analyses across spatial and temporal scales.

55 2 Materials and Methods

56 2.1 Study system and fossil data

57 We used fossil occurrence data from the Cleveland Basin spanning the upper Pliensbachian to the upper
58 Toarcian, following Dunhill et al. (2024). Four paleo-communities were defined: pre-extinction, post-extinction,
59 early recovery, and late recovery. Each assemblage was treated as a community of potentially interacting taxa.
60 Modes of life were assigned following Dunhill et al. (2024) using the Bambach ecospace framework (Bambach
61 et al., 2007). Traits included motility, tiering, feeding mode, and size class, with size defined categorically
62 based on maximum linear dimensions.

63 **2.2 Network reconstruction approaches**

64 **2.2.1 Conceptual classification of network types**

65 Most paleo-specific approaches currently operate within the feasibility space (*e.g.*, Shaw et al., 2024; Fricke et
66 al., 2022; Roopnarine, 2006). Although well suited for reconstructing feasible interactions, these methods
67 represent only a subset of the broader spectrum of network construction approaches. Here, we present a suite
68 of models (Table 1) that enable the construction of a wider range of ecological networks and the exploration
69 of a broader set of ecological questions, provided that their underlying assumptions are compatible with
70 the constraints of fossil data. For example, some tools require quantitative estimates of body size, which
71 must often be inferred from size classes or functional morphology in the fossil record. Structural models,
72 such as the niche model, rely only on species richness and estimates/specification of connectance, but their
73 species-agnostic nature limits their applicability to trait-based or diet-specific questions, although they do still
74 accurately recover network structure (Stouffer et al., 2005) . Mechanistic approaches, by contrast, depend on
75 accurate assignment of feeding traits or robust phylogenetic support. Recognizing how these methodological
76 requirements intersect with the limits of fossil evidence is essential for selecting an appropriate modelling
77 framework.

Table 1: Six different models that can be used to construct food webs for both this specific community but are also broadly suited to paleo network prediction. These models span all facets of the network representation space (feasibility, realised, and structural network) and are suitable for an array of different paleo communities as the data requirements fall within the limitations set by the fossil record.

Model family	Assumptions	Data needs	Limitation	Network type	Key reference	Usage examples
Random	Links assigned randomly	Species richness, number of links	Parameter assumptions, species agnostic	Structural	Erdős & Rényi (1959)	Null-model comparisons; testing whether observed network structure (connectance, motifs) deviates from random expectations
Niche	Species ordered along a ‘niche axis’; interactions interval-constrained	Species richness, connectance	Parameter assumptions, species agnostic	Structural	Williams & Martinez (2008)	Evaluating trophic hierarchy and motif structure; baseline structural predictions
Allometric diet breadth model (ADBM)	Energy-maximizing predator diets	Body mass, abundance/dance/biomass	Assumes optimal foraging; does not account for forbidden links	Realised	Petchey et al. (2008)	Predicting realized predator diets; exploring secondary extinctions

Model family	Assumptions	Data needs	Limitation	Network type	Key reference	Usage examples
Allometric trophic network (ATN)	Links constrained by body-size ratios and functional response	Body mass, number of basal species	Assumes only mechanico/energetic constraints	Realised	Brose et al. (2006); Gauzens et al. (2023)	Simulating species loss; evaluating network collapse dynamics
Paleo food web inference model (PFIM)	Interactions inferred using trait-based mechanistic rules	Feeding traits	Assumes feeding mechanisms; trait resolution required	Feasibility	Shaw et al. (2024)	Mapping feasible trophic interactions; assessing secondary extinctions
Body-size ratio model	Probabilistic assignment of links based on predator-prey size ratios	Body mass	Does not account for forbidden links	Realised	Rohr et al. (2010)	Estimating likely interactions; simulating cascading effects.

78 The three body mass-based models (ADBM, ATN, Body-size ratio) differ primarily in their underlying
 79 ecological assumptions. Although all three models use body mass to infer food web structure, they differ in
 80 their ecological assumptions. The ADBM is based on energy maximization under optimal foraging theory,
 81 the ATN constrains interactions via mechanically optimal consumer-resource size ratios, and the Body-size
 82 ratio model defines links probabilistically within a fixed allometric niche. Together, these approaches span
 83 bioenergetic, mechanical, and statistical interpretations of size-structured interactions.

84 **2.2.2 Network generation and replication**

85 We evaluated six models spanning this space Table 1: random and niche models (structural network); allometric
86 diet breadth (ADBM), allometric trophic network (ATN), and Body-size ratio models (realised network);
87 and a paleo food web inference model (PFIM; feasibility web). Expanded descriptions of model assumptions,
88 parameterisation, and link-generation rules are provided in Supplementary Material S1. For each community,
89 100 networks were generated per model ($n = 2400$) to capture stochastic variation in link assignment. Where
90 models required species body mass or trait values, these were sampled within biologically reasonable ranges
91 to preserve relative differences among species. We adopted uniform sampling by default, as alternative
92 distributions (lognormal, truncated lognormal) have negligible impact on topology (Supplementary Material
93 S2; Figure S1). Structural models were parameterized using connectance values drawn from an empirically
94 realistic range (0.07–0.34), with species richness held constant. Identical parameter draws were applied across
95 comparable models within each replicate to ensure comparability. For the Body-size ratio model, we followed
96 the approach of Yeakel et al. (2014) and excluded latent trait terms as opposed fitting the full model, which
97 introduces additional inference and assumptions.

98 **2.3 Network metrics and structural analyses**

99 We quantified network structure using a suite of macro-, meso-, and micro-scale metrics Table 2, capturing
100 global properties, motif structure, and species-level variability. Differences among reconstruction approaches
101 were assessed using a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), with model identity as a fixed factor
102 and the full set of network metrics as response variables. Pairwise interaction turnover was quantified using
103 link-based beta diversity, which measures dissimilarity in the identity of trophic links between networks,
104 capturing differences due to species turnover or changes in interactions among shared species (Poisot et al.,
105 2012).

Table 2: Network properties used for analysis.

Metric	Definition	Scale	Reference (for maths), can make footnotes probs
Richness	Number of nodes in the network	Macro	

Metric	Definition	Scale	Reference (for maths), can make footnotes probs
Links	Normalized standard deviation of links (number of consumers plus resources per taxon)	Micro	
Connectance	L/S^2 , where S is the number of species and L the number of links	Macro	
Max trophic level	Prey-weighted trophic level averaged across taxa	Macro	Williams & Martinez (2004)
S1	Number of linear chains, normalised	Meso	Milo et al. (2002); Stouffer et al. (2007)
S2	Number of omnivory motifs, normalised	Meso	Milo et al. (2002); Stouffer et al. (2007)
S4	Number of apparent competition motifs, normalised	Meso	Milo et al. (2002); Stouffer et al. (2007)
S5	Number of direct competition motifs, normalised	Meso	Milo et al. (2002); Stouffer et al. (2007)
Generality	Normalized standard deviation of generality of a species, standardised by L/S	Micro	Williams & Martinez (2000)
Vulnerability	Normalized standard deviation of vulnerability of a species, standardised by L/S	Micro	Williams & Martinez (2000)

106 **2.4 Extinction simulations and model evaluation**

107 Following Dunhill et al. (2024) and using the pre-extinction and post-extinction networks, we simulated
108 species loss under multiple extinction scenarios. We simulated species loss under multiple scenarios, including
109 trait-based, network-position-based, and random removals, allowing cascading extinctions to propagate.
110 Simulated outcomes were compared to observed or expected community states using mean absolute differences
111 (MAD) and modified true skill statistics (TSS) at node and link levels. Kendall's rank correlation coefficient
112 was used to evaluate concordance in scenario rankings across reconstruction models, providing a measure of
113 robustness in inferred community responses.

114 **3 Results**

115 Across six network reconstruction approaches, inferred food web structure, species interactions, and extinction
116 dynamics differed consistently. Multivariate analyses showed pronounced separation among models in
117 network metric space. Reconstruction approach explained most of the variance in structural properties,
118 leaving a distinct signature independent of community composition. Notably, agreement among models
119 depended on scale - approaches that were statistically similar in multivariate structural space often diverged in
120 inferred interactions or extinction dynamics. This demonstrates that structural similarity does not guarantee
121 concordance in species-level diets or trophic roles. Model choice also substantially influenced inferred extinction
122 dynamics. Temporal trajectories of network collapse, interaction loss, and motif reorganization differed among
123 approaches. Although species-level extinction rankings were often broadly consistent, link-level outcomes
124 and extinction inferences were highly sensitive to reconstruction assumptions. Together, these results show
125 that ecological inferences drawn from paleo networks depend critically on the reconstruction framework
126 employed. Importantly, agreement among models was not consistent across analytical scales - models that
127 were statistically indistinguishable in multivariate structural space often diverged in inferred interactions
128 or extinction dynamics. Together these results show that reconstruction approaches that appear similar
129 when evaluated using global network metrics can yield fundamentally different ecological narratives when
130 interrogated at the level of interactions and extinction dynamics.

131 **3.1 Network structure differs among reconstruction approaches**

132 Across six reconstruction approaches, network structure differed significantly (MANOVA, Pillai's trace =
133 3.84, approximate $F_{40,11955} = 987.35$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that model choice systematically alters inferred
134 food web topology. Canonical discriminant analysis identified two dominant axes of variation, explaining 86%

135 of between-model variance. LD1 correlated with vulnerability, direct competition motifs, and connectance.
136 LD2 correlated with maximum trophic level and apparent competition motifs, reflecting vertical trophic
137 structure (Figure 1; Table S1, Figure S1). All higher-order canonical variates each explained less than 9% of
138 the remaining variance.

139 [Figure 1 about here.]

140 3.1.1 Inferred pairwise interactions vary widely among models

141 Despite some models showing similar global metrics, specific pairwise interactions often differed. Pairwise
142 -turnover revealed that certain model pairs shared very few links Figure 2. Size-based models (ADBM, ATN)
143 were broadly similar due to shared reliance on body-size constraints, whereas the Body-size ratio model
144 exhibited consistently higher differences to other models. PFIM showed intermediate overlap with theoretical
145 models. These results demonstrate that agreement in global network structure does not guarantee concordance
146 in species-level interactions.

147 [Figure 2 about here.]

148 3.2 Model choice influences inferred extinction dynamics

149 To quantify how network structure changed over time during extinction simulations and whether these
150 dynamics differed among reconstruction models, we fit generalized additive models (GAMs) to time series
151 of network-level metrics. GAMs capture non-linear temporal trajectories, allowing formal tests of whether
152 the shape of these trajectories differs among models. These model-specific temporal trajectories are shown
153 in Figure 3. For all metrics examined, the inclusion of model-specific smooth terms significantly improved
154 model fit (ANOVA model comparison: $p < 0.001$ for all metrics). Model-specific smooths differed not only
155 in magnitude but also in the timing and abruptness of change, indicating distinct modes of collapse across
156 reconstruction approaches (Tables S3–S4). Deterministic, data-driven approaches (PFIM) and allometric
157 models (ADBM, ATN) exhibited highly non-linear trajectories, showing structural shifts in connectivity
158 and motif frequency. In contrast, the Niche model produced the most consistent and gradual trajectories,
159 effectively smoothing the perceived magnitude of structural change during community collapse. These results
160 demonstrate that inferred pathways of collapse, trophic bottlenecks, and secondary extinctions are highly
161 sensitive to model choice. Corresponding raw temporal trajectories are shown in Figure S2.

162 [Figure 3 about here.]

163 To evaluate how model choice affects inferred extinction dynamics, we compared simulated post-extinction

networks to observed networks using mean absolute differences (MAD) for network-level metrics and total sum-of-squares (TSS) for node- and link-level outcomes Figure 4. Across models, MAD-based rankings were generally positively correlated (Kendall's $\tau = 0.13$ across structural metrics), indicating broad agreement on the relative importance of extinction drivers despite substantial differences in reconstructed network structure. However, agreement within the allometric models differed from patterns observed for reconstructed network structure. Whereas earlier multivariate analyses showed strongest structural similarity between the ADBM and Body-size ratio models, extinction-driven network responses aligned most closely between the ADBM and ATN models (mean $\tau = 0.67$ across structural metrics), with little correspondence between ADBM and Body-size ratio model outcomes (mean $\tau = 0.05$). This reversal relative to structural similarity analyses demonstrates that model concordance is context dependent, with emergent topology and extinction dynamics emphasizing different aspects of model assumptions. Node-level TSS rankings were similarly consistent across models ($\tau = 0.26\text{--}0.90$), reflecting broadly comparable species removal sequences. In contrast, link-level outcomes were far more variable ($\tau = -0.48\text{--}0.29$), highlighting that inferences about which interactions are lost, retained, or re-established during collapse and recovery are highly model contingent. Together, these results suggest that while alternative models converge on similar species-level extinction patterns, the inferred pathways of interaction loss and cascading dynamics depend strongly on both reconstruction approach.

[Figure 4 about here.]

4 Discussion

4.1 Model choice as a component of ecological inference

Reconstructing ecological networks from incomplete interaction data (whether in contemporary, historical, or deep-time systems) is fundamentally an exercise in inference under uncertainty. Even in modern ecosystems, interaction networks are rarely fully observed (Poisot et al., 2021), and link prediction often relies on traits, phylogeny, co-occurrence, or mechanistic assumptions (Delmas et al., 2019; Morales-Castilla et al., 2015; Strydom et al., 2026). Theoretical work has long demonstrated that network structure strongly conditions ecological dynamics, including robustness to species loss and the propagation of disturbance (Allesina & Tang, 2012; Dunne et al., 2002; Solé & Montoya, 2001). Our results extend this insight by showing that the reconstruction framework itself functions as a structural prior - in shaping interaction topology, it directly influences inferred food web organisation and community responses to disturbance.

Differences among models arise not from the species pool alone, but from assumptions embedded in each model family (Pichler & Hartig, 2023; Strydom et al., 2021; Strydom et al., 2026). These include how trophic links

194 are defined (trait compatibility versus energetic optimisation), how interaction probabilities are parameterised,
195 and whether topology is constrained by macroecological regularities (*e.g.*, niche structure) or mechanistic
196 rules (*e.g.*, body-size scaling). Consequently, network reconstruction is not a neutral technical step; it encodes
197 ecological hypotheses that shape both emergent structure and dynamical predictions. This sensitivity parallels
198 challenges in contemporary network ecology, where model and metric selection influence interpretations of
199 connectance, modularity, motif frequencies, and stability (Michalska-Smith & Allesina, 2019; Poisot & Gravel,
200 2014).

201 Multivariate analyses revealed that reconstruction approaches differ along a small number of dominant
202 axes corresponding to horizontal interaction density and vertical trophic organisation. These axes capture
203 systematic, model-specific signatures independent of species composition, indicating that reconstruction
204 framework acts as a major determinant of inferred ecological structure. Although some models converged on
205 global metrics (*e.g.*, ADBM and ATN models), pairwise -turnover revealed disagreements in inferred species-
206 level interactions. Structural similarity therefore does not guarantee concordance in trophic roles. Importantly,
207 extinction scenario inference was scale dependent. Species-level extinction rankings were relatively consistent
208 across models, whereas interaction-level outcomes were highly sensitive to reconstruction assumptions. This
209 asymmetry reflects the dependence of cascade dynamics on link configuration and interaction distribution
210 (Allesina & Tang, 2012; Curtsdotter et al., 2011; Dunne et al., 2002). Thus, while certain aggregate patterns
211 may be robust to modelling choices, fine-grained interaction-level inference remains intrinsically model
212 contingent.

213 Taken together, these results underscore that network reconstruction is a hypothesis-generating process
214 where each model encodes a distinct set of ecological assumptions, and the inferred structure and dynamics
215 reflect these assumptions. Accordingly, researchers should carefully align reconstruction approaches with the
216 specific ecological signals of interest, whether potential interactions, realised diets, or macro scale structural
217 properties. Disagreement among models does not imply that any single approach is ‘wrong’, but rather
218 that different models capture different facets of ecological reality (Stouffer, 2019). Viewed through the lens
219 of accuracy (here referring to model convergence/robustness) and precision, our results suggest that some
220 paleoecological inferences are robust across reconstruction assumptions, while others remain intrinsically
221 uncertain. Models consistently recover similar high-level extinction patterns, implying relative accuracy, but
222 disagree on interaction-level details and temporal dynamics, indicating limited precision in reconstructing the
223 fine structure of collapse. Recognizing and explicitly accounting for these differences is essential for advancing
224 paleoecology beyond descriptive reconstruction toward rigorous comparative inference.

225 **4.2 Matching ecological questions to network representations**

226 A central implication is that network representations are question specific. Different ecological questions
227 require different classes of network models, a distinction increasingly recognised in contemporary ecology
228 (Gauzens et al., 2025; Gravel et al., 2013; Tylianakis & Morris, 2017).

229 **Feasibility networks:** (trait- or phylogeny-based metaweb approaches) delineate the set of biologically
230 plausible interactions. These are well suited for investigating potential dietary breadth, interaction diversity,
231 or assembly constraints across spatial or environmental gradients (Gravel et al., 2019). However, because they
232 maximise compatibility rather than realised foraging dynamics, they may overestimate interaction density
233 when used to infer cascade processes.

234 **Realised networks:** (allometric or energetic models such as ADBM and ATN) embed foraging and metabolic
235 rules to approximate likely trophic interactions (Brose et al., 2006; Gauzens et al., 2023; Petchey et al.,
236 2008). In our analyses, these models produced more nonlinear and abrupt disturbance trajectories, consistent
237 with energetic bottlenecks and constraint propagation. They are therefore more appropriate for questions
238 concerning energy flow, trophic stability, and secondary extinction dynamics.

239 **Structural networks:** (such as the niche or cascade models) prioritise topological regularities over species
240 identity (Allesina et al., 2008; Williams & Martinez, 2008). These approaches are particularly useful when
241 evaluating macroecological scaling relationships, connectance patterns, motif distributions, or theoretical
242 expectations for network structure. However, because species identity is decoupled from interaction assignment,
243 they are less suitable for species-specific ecological inference.

244 Rather than asking which model is ‘correct’, the more productive question is which representation best
245 aligns with the inferential goal. Network reconstruction should therefore be treated as part of hypothesis
246 specification, not merely data preparation.

247 **4.3 Implications for ecological network analysis**

248 Although the present analyses were conducted within a single regional species pool, the implications extend
249 broadly to comparative ecology and biogeography. Networks assembled across environmental gradients,
250 latitudinal bands, disturbance regimes, or temporal intervals often differ in sampling intensity, trait resolution,
251 and reconstruction methodology (Delmas et al., 2018; Poisot et al., 2021; Tylianakis & Morris, 2017). Without
252 explicitly accounting for reconstruction framework, methodological variation may be conflated with ecological
253 signal.

254 Three general implications follow.

255 First, reconstruction assumptions should be treated as explicit components of study design. Because
256 network models encode hypotheses about how interactions arise, observed differences in connectance, trophic
257 organisation, or robustness may reflect structural priors rather than ecological processes.

258 Second, cross-system comparisons should standardise reconstruction framework wherever possible. Comparing
259 networks generated using different model families risks attributing differences in structure or stability to
260 environmental gradients when they may instead arise from modelling choices.

261 Third, ensemble or sensitivity-based approaches provide a pathway to more robust inference. Evaluating
262 ecological patterns across multiple plausible reconstructions allows identification of signals that are consistent
263 across models and those that are assumption dependent. In this study, species-level vulnerability patterns
264 were comparatively robust, whereas interaction-level cascades were highly variable. Such scale-dependent
265 robustness clarifies where ecological inference is reliable and where it remains uncertain.

266 These considerations are particularly relevant for global change research. As ecological communities reorganise
267 under climate change, habitat loss, and species invasions, reconstructed or partially observed networks
268 are increasingly used to infer vulnerability, tipping points, and resilience (Michalska-Smith & Allesina,
269 2019; Tylianakis & Morris, 2017). Recognising reconstruction framework as a structural prior strengthens
270 interpretation of such comparative analyses.

271 **4.4 Toward probabilistic and ensemble reconstruction frameworks**

272 Advances in modern network ecology offer promising directions for explicitly incorporating uncertainty into
273 reconstruction. Probabilistic and Bayesian link-prediction approaches allow interaction probabilities to be
274 estimated rather than assumed deterministic (Baskerville et al., 2011; Elmasri et al., 2020; Poisot et al., 2016).
275 Maximum entropy methods can infer network structure under incomplete information while constraining
276 macroecological properties (Banville et al., 2023). Trait-based and joint species distribution approaches
277 integrate environmental, phylogenetic, and functional information to improve link inference across gradients
278 (Bartomeus et al., 2016; Ovaskainen et al., 2017). Adopting such approaches would allow reconstructed
279 networks to be treated as probabilistic ensembles rather than fixed topologies, improving both transparency
280 and robustness (Banville et al., 2025; Perez-Lamarque et al., 2026; Poisot et al., 2016). In this framework,
281 variation among reconstruction models becomes a quantifiable component of uncertainty rather than a hidden
282 source of bias.

₂₈₃ **5 Conclusions**

₂₈₄ Ecological network reconstruction is not merely a technical step but a fundamental component of ecological
₂₈₅ inference. By comparing six contrasting reconstruction frameworks applied to an identical species pool,
₂₈₆ we demonstrate that model choice strongly shapes inferred food-web structure, interaction identity, and
₂₈₇ disturbance dynamics. Broad species-level patterns may be robust across reconstruction approaches, but
₂₈₈ interaction-level outcomes and cascade pathways are highly contingent on model assumptions. These findings
₂₈₉ highlight that network reconstruction is inherently hypothesis-driven. Each model encodes distinct ecological
₂₉₀ assumptions that influence both emergent topology and dynamical predictions. No single representation
₂₉₁ captures all aspects of ecological reality. However, aligning reconstruction framework with inferential goals,
₂₉₂ standardising methods across comparisons, and adopting ensemble or sensitivity approaches can distinguish
₂₉₃ robust ecological signals from model-dependent artefacts. As ecological network analyses continue to expand
₂₉₄ across spatial, temporal, and environmental gradients, recognising reconstruction framework as a structural
₂₉₅ prior will be essential for strengthening the reliability and interpretability of comparative ecological research.

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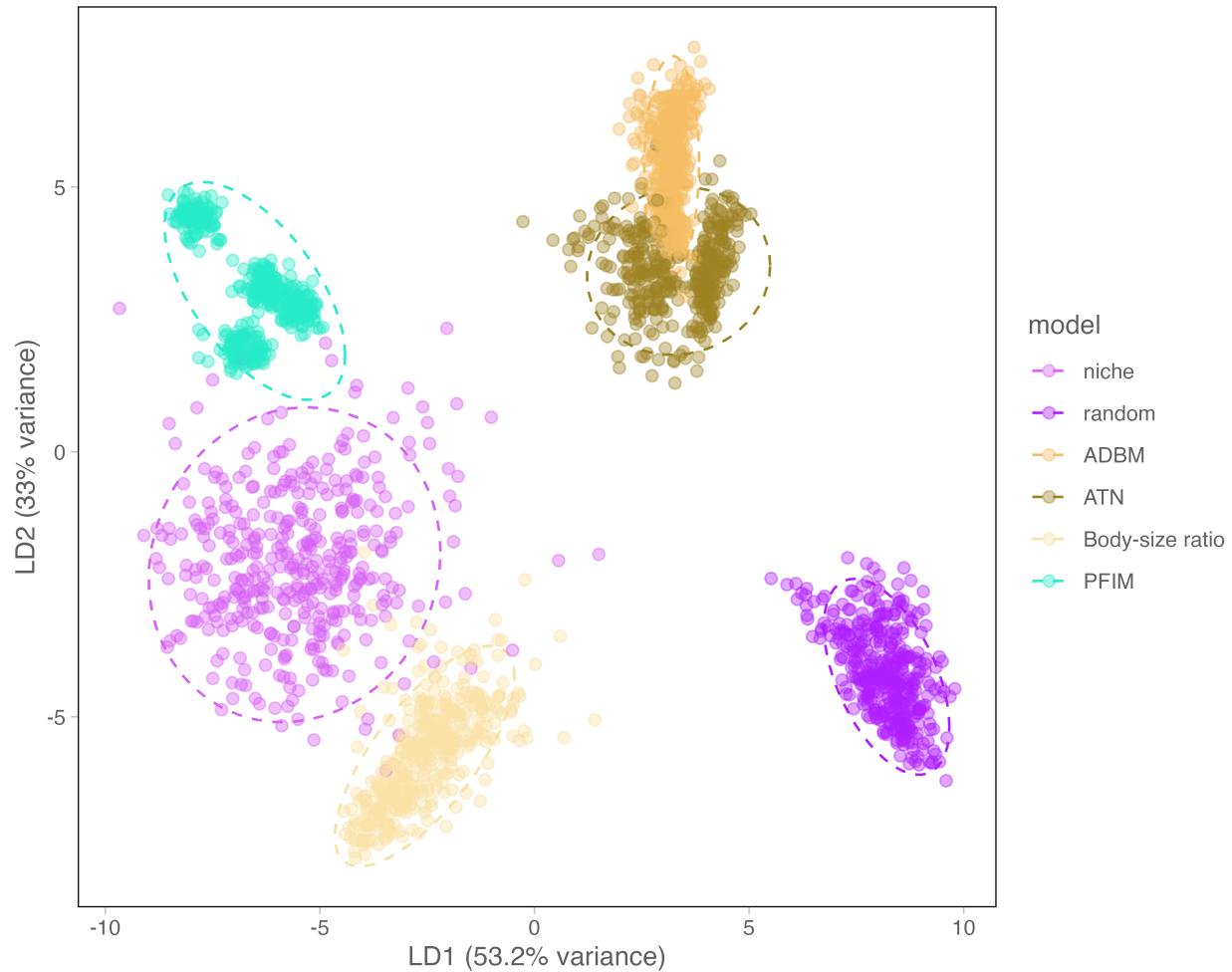


Figure 1: Linear discriminant analysis (LDA) of ecological network metrics for six model types. Each point represents a replicate, and ellipses indicate 95% confidence regions for each model. The second column represents the correlation of the various network metrics with the respective LDA axes.

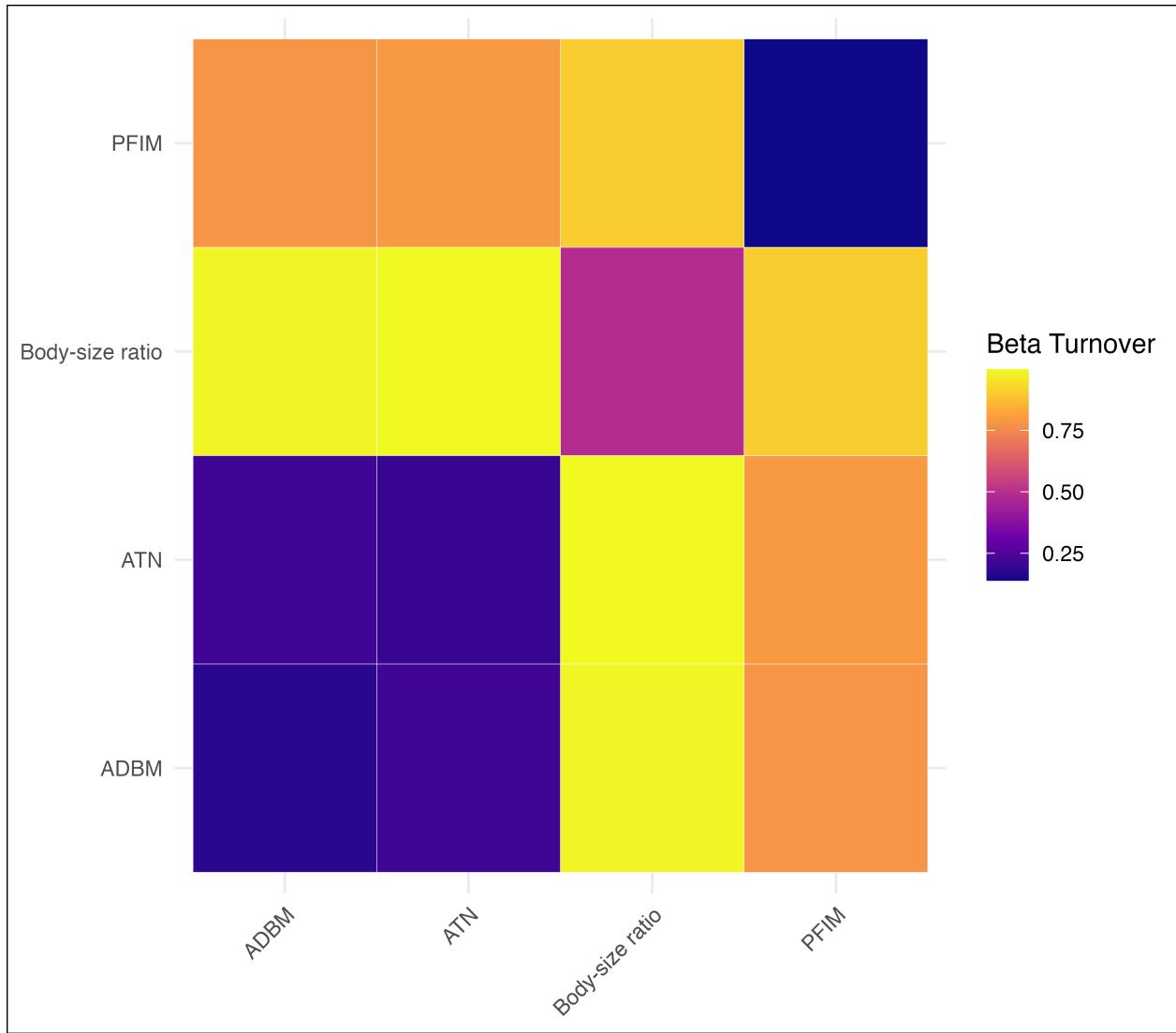


Figure 2: Pairwise β -turnover in species interactions among four ecological network models (ADBM, ATN, Body-size ratio, and pfim). Each cell represents the mean turnover value between a pair of models, with warmer colours indicating greater dissimilarity in inferred interactions. The diagonal is omitted. High turnover values (yellow) indicate strong disagreement in network structure between models, whereas lower values (blue–purple) indicate greater similarity.

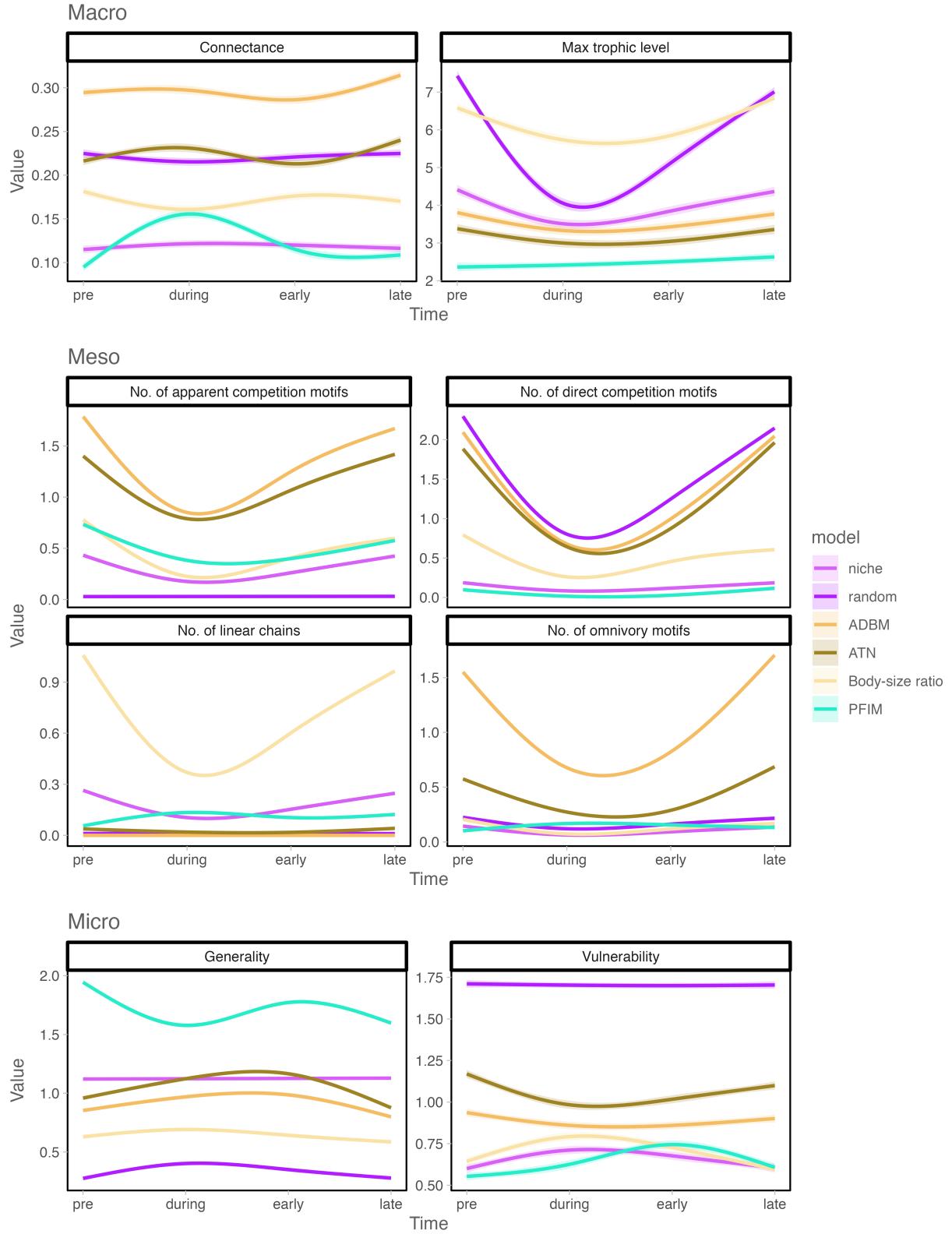


Figure 3: GAM-predicted trajectories of network structure during extinction simulations reveal pronounced differences in the timing and magnitude of change across reconstruction models. Lines show model-specific smooths and shaded areas indicate 95% confidence intervals. Deterministic approaches produce smoother, more consistent dynamics, whereas stochastic models exhibit greater variability, underscoring the sensitivity of inferred collapse pathways to reconstruction assumptions.

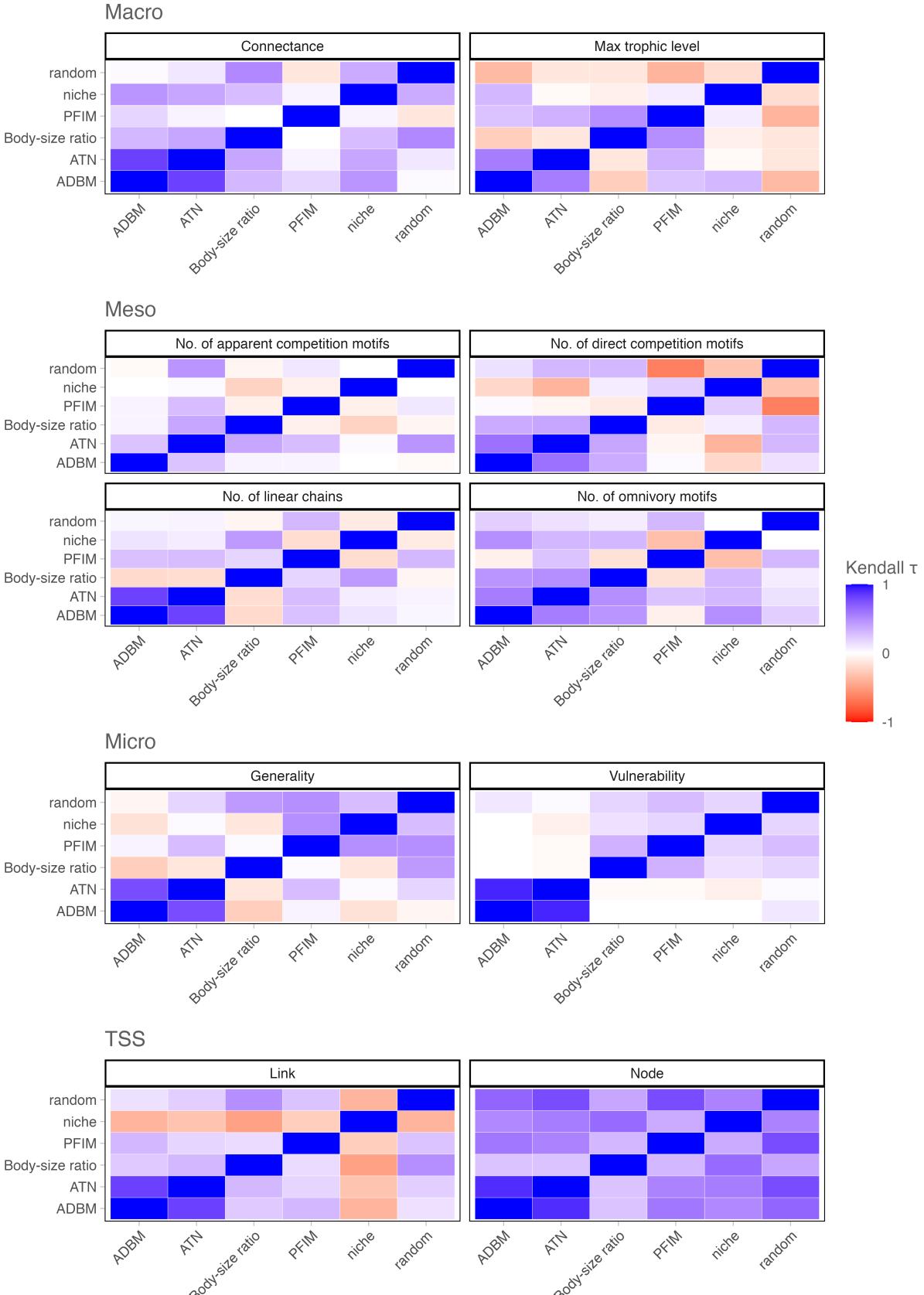


Figure 4: Heatmaps showing pairwise Kendall rank correlation coefficients (τ) between models for each network metric. Each panel corresponds to a different metric and displays the degree of agreement in extinction-scenario rankings across models based on mean absolute differences (MAD) between observed and predicted network values. Positive τ values (blue) indicate concordant rankings between models, whereas negative τ values (red) indicate opposing rankings. Warmer colours approaching zero represent little or no agreement. Panels