

# **Unveiling the Complexity of Food Webs: A Comprehensive Overview of Definitions, Scales, and Mechanisms**

Tanya Strydom <sup>1</sup>; Jennifer A. Dunne <sup>2</sup>; Timothée Poisot <sup>3,4</sup>; Andrew P. Beckerman <sup>1</sup>

**Abstract:** Food webs are a useful abstraction and representation of the feeding links between species in a community and are used to infer many ecosystem level processes. However, the different theories, mechanisms, and criteria that underpin how a food web is defined, and ultimately, constructed means that not all food webs are representing the same ecological process at the same scale. Here we present a synthesis of the different assumptions, scales, and mechanisms that are used to define the different ecological networks , leading to a revision of definitions for different types of networks. Additionally we explicitly link the different network representations to the broader methodological approaches (models) that are used to construct them. In explicitly outlining the assumptions, scales, and mechanisms of network inference allows for a formal categorisation of how to use networks to answer key ecological and conservation questions as well as defining clear guidelines to prevent unintentional misuse or misinterpretation.

**Keywords:** food web, network construction, scientific ignorance

1 At the heart of modern biodiversity science are a set of concepts and theories about species richness, stability,  
2 and function (Loreau & de Mazancourt, 2013). These relate to the abundance, distribution, functions, and  
3 services that biodiversity provides. Network representations of biodiversity are increasingly argued to be an  
4 asset to understanding and predicting the impacts of multiple, simultaneous stress on these core components  
5 of biodiversity (Simmons et al., 2021). Documenting interactions between and among species is thus one  
6 of the fundamental building blocks of community ecology and provide a powerful abstraction and platform  
7 for mathematical and statistical modelling of biodiversity to make predictions, and to mitigate and manage  
8 threats (Windsor et al., 2023).

9 However, there is a growing discourse around limitations to the interpretation and applied use of networks  
10 (Blüthgen, 2010; Dormann, 2023). Against this, it is important to evaluate the value and the limitations of  
11 the various network conceptualisations of biodiversity (Blüthgen & Staab, 2024). In this perspective we aim  
12 to provide an overview of different **food web** representations, particularly how each representation embeds  
13 assumptions about the processes that determine interactions (Section 2) about the levels of organization  
14 at which this occurs (*i.e.* the biological, ecological, spatial/temporal scale) and the way in which we  
15 construct the resulting networks (Section 3). The differences among this tri-partite set of assumptions  
16 ultimately influence the nature and scope of inference that can be made from a given network (Proulx et al.,  
17 2005).

18 Fundamentally, we are talking about an intersection of the type of data used to construct a network and  
19 the underlying theory as to what drives the resolution and occurrence of interactions between species in  
20 those data. We still lack a clear explanation of the different assumptions and scale dependent processes that  
21 underpin network construction alongside extensive discussions about the challenges relating to data collection  
22 and observation (*e.g.*, Blüthgen & Staab, 2024; Brimacombe et al., 2023, 2024; Moulatlet et al., 2024; Polis,  
23 1991; Pringle & Hutchinson, 2020; Saberski et al., 2024). Such an understanding should deliver an acceleration  
24 in capacity to more effectively predict the impact of multiple stressors on biodiverse communities.

25 In their recent work, Gauzens et al. (2025) showcased a 2+2 decomposition of networks around aggregated  
26 versus species level resolution of nodes and around potential and realised links among the nodes. Their review  
27 delivers valuable insight into the methodologies used to collect and manage data among the node and link  
28 differentiation. It also delivers an overview of the scale and types of questions that are associated with each  
29 category of differentiation.

30 Here we provide a complementary perspective focused on concepts, models, and theory, in contrast to the data  
31 driven breakdown in Gauzens et al. (2025) (*e.g.* their Tables 1 and 2). Our approach delivers a hierarchical

32 perspective on network construction based on a gradient from feasibility, capturing the concept of metawebs  
33 and Gauzen et al's 'potential' webs, through to realised webs as in Gauzens' et al. In contrast to their 2 +  
34 2 decomposition (their Fig 1), our perspective showcases nested ecological scales and processes that derive  
35 from shifts in the assumptions and theories embedded along this gradient. This includes classic ecological  
36 'aggregations' such as functional/phylogenetic groups through to species, populations and individuals, unique  
37 perspective on how space and time intersect with node and link resolution, refined insight into which networks  
38 are derived by induction vs. deduction and a revealing of a core transition between assumptions about how  
39 links are derived based on evolutionary vs. ecological theories.

40 In the following sections we provide a scene-setting review of nodes and edges (links) in networks before  
41 aligning various processes that determine interactions with the different network representations. Ultimately,  
42 we provide a unique perspective on the nested hierarchy of processes that govern transitions from meta-webs  
43 to realised webs. We finish with a refined and nuanced alignment of models/representations and key questions  
44 in biodiversity science in the anthropocene.

## 45 1 Setting the Scene: The Not So Basics of Nodes and Edges

46 Networks in ecology have multiple uses, representing an 'object' from which inferences can be made. For  
47 example, a network is needed to make inference specifically about the structure of communities. The structure  
48 of networks - their topology - have a long history reflecting core theory about energy flow (Lindeman, 1942),  
49 function (Schneider et al., 2016) and even stability (Brose et al., 2006; Danet et al., 2024). Networks are  
50 thus required as the response variable in evaluating ecological theory and statistical models of 'generative  
51 processes' giving rise to such structure. Such structure is now commonly used to compare communities along  
52 environmental gradients or across time (Hao et al., 2025; Pecuchet et al., 2020). Networks and their topology  
53 are also used as a platform for evaluating 'downstream' responses to stressors such as evaluating patterns of  
54 secondary extinction (Keyes et al., 2024; Staniczenko et al., 2010). Finally, they are commonly used as a  
55 platform for implementing mathematical models of community dynamics (Delmas et al., 2017); delivering  
56 inference about stability, function, invasive species, climate change, contaminants, and secondary extinction  
57 (e.g., Curtsdotter et al., 2019), to name a few applications. Against this backdrop of multiple research agendas,  
58 the definition of 'edges' and 'nodes', and the levels of organisation at which they are defined, take many forms  
59 (Moulatlet et al., 2024; Poisot, Stouffer, et al., 2016), each of which encode a series of assumptions within a  
60 network. Here we introduce a perspective on these baseline assumptions.

61 **1.1 How do we define a node?**

62 Although this may seem elementary that a node should represent a (taxonomic) species, the reality is that  
63 nodes often represents non-taxonomic units such as a trophic species (*e.g.*, Yodzis (1982); Williams & Martinez  
64 (2000)), a feeding guild (*e.g.*, García-Callejas et al., 2023), or a segregation of species by life stages (*e.g.*, Clegg  
65 et al., 2018). Such granularity and variation is often defined as aggregation. Such aggregation can limit the  
66 ability to make species (taxonomic) specific inferences (*e.g.*, does species *a* eat species *b*?). It can also affect  
67 the estimates of degree distributions and more specifically generality and vulnerability in networks (in/out  
68 degree). These metrics are central to inference about the structure and complexity of networks(Beckerman  
69 et al., 2006; Clegg et al., 2018). Finally, aggregation makes it challenging to use networks in ‘downstream  
70 analyses’ of, for example, extinction or invasions as the identity of species and the consequences of their losses  
71 can be hidden. Despite these issues, there are justifications for representing nodes as aggregated units. Most  
72 prominent relates to when the distribution of the links between aggregated nodes may be more meaningful in  
73 terms of understanding or generalising about energy flow and distribution within the system [REF].

74 **1.2 What is captured by an edge?**

75 In order to break down the definitions of an edge, it is important to introduce the concept of *potential* versus  
76 *realised* links: potential links reflect feasibility while realised links are connected to flux of some currency  
77 (typically energy; see below for more detail). Links within food webs are thus a representation of either  
78 potential links between species or fluxes within a system *e.g.*, energy transfer or material flow as the result  
79 of the feeding links between species [Lindeman (1942); Proulx et al. (2005)]Pringle (2020). Edges can thus  
80 correspond to different ‘currencies’ (Gauzens et al., 2025). There is also a myriad of ways in which the links  
81 themselves can be specified. Links between species can be treated as present or absent (*i.e.*, binary), may be  
82 defined as probabilities (Banville et al., 2025; Poisot, Cirtwill, et al., 2016) or by continuous functions which  
83 further quantify the strength of an interaction (Berlow et al., 2004). How links are specified thus requires  
84 intersecting both the currency being modelled and their specification. For example, feasibility is unlikely to  
85 accommodate flux, but does align with binary or probability representations. Taking a food web that consists  
86 of links representing feasible interactions among a collection of species will be meaningless if one is interested  
87 in understanding the flow of energy through the network as the links are not environmentally/energetically  
88 constrained.

89 **1.3 Network representations**

90 Against these definitions of nodes and edges, networks fall into two major ‘types’: metawebs, traditionally  
91 defined as all the *potential* interactions for a specific species pool (Dunne, 2006); and realised networks, which  
92 is the subset of interactions in a metaweb that are *realised* for a specific community at a given time and place.

93 The fundamental differences between these two network representations are the spatial and temporal scale at  
94 which they are constructed, and the associated processes that are assumed to drive pattern at these scales.

95 A metaweb is, at its core, a list of *feasible* interactions between pairs of species. The feasibility for a given pair  
96 is derived from the complementarity (phylogenetic relationships) of their traits, typically aligned with feeding.

97 Feasibility can be further refined by *co-occurrence* leading to the transition from a *global* to *regional metaweb*.

98 Metawebs thus provide a means to identify evolutionarily plausible links, regionally plausible interactions,  
99 the set of ecologically impossible, *i.e.*, forbidden, links (Jordano, 2016b), and ultimately a definition of the  
100 plausible *complete* diet of a species (Strydom et al., 2023).

101 In contrast, realised networks are typically more localised in space and time, and the links between species  
102 are contingent on the co-occurrence of species, the role of the environment, and mechanisms of diet choice.

103 Fundamentally this means that the presence/absence of a link is the result of the ‘behaviour’ of the species  
104 and even when the realised network is presented as a binary matrix, the edges imply a function is available  
105 to define the strength of an interaction. A realised network is therefore not simply the downscaling of a  
106 metaweb to a smaller scale (*e.g.*, moving from the country to the 1x1 km<sup>2</sup> scale based on fine-scale species  
107 co-occurrence). Instead, realised webs capture processes that determine the realisation of an interaction and  
108 flows of energy in a community. Specifically, in realised webs, the definition of an edge shifts from being  
109 determined by feasibility to that of choices and consequences that centre around energy. If one were to take  
110 the same community of species and constructed both a metaweb and realised network the two networks might  
111 have the same species but would be structurally different, owing to the differences in the ‘rules’ constraining  
112 the presence of links. This distinction between metawebs and realised webs leads to a further insight. Links  
113 that are absent in a metaweb can conceptually (although not always practically) be treated as being truly  
114 absent. However, links that are absent in a realised network cannot be considered as truly absent but rather  
115 as absent due to the broader environmental/community context.

116 **2 From Nodes and Edges to Process and Constraints**

117 In the previous section we discussed how the definition of nodes and edges, representing different scales and  
118 processes, lead to the concept of a metaweb and a realised web. The fundamental take-homes are that nodes

119 vary in their resolution, edges vary in what kind of process they represent and the intersection of these, defined  
120 by meta- vs. realised webs, underpins distinct lines of enquiry and constraints on the type of inference we  
121 can make with networks. Here we reveal five core constraints across evolutionary and ecological scales that  
122 further delineate the transition from meta- to realised webs, exposing processes that determine the nature  
123 of links among nodes: evolutionary compatibility, co-occurrence, abundance, diet choice, and non-trophic  
124 interactions Figure 1.

125 [Figure 1 about here.]

## 126 2.1 Processes that determine the feasibility of an interaction

127 Evolutionary compatibility and co-occurrence are the two principle processes that ‘act’ at the species pair of  
128 interest and define feasibility. The scale of inference and set of processes embodied in these two constraints  
129 typically combine to define a ‘list’ of interactions that are viable/feasible and defined strictly as present/absent.  
130 Reflecting on the previous section, nodes are typically species and rules defining edges are defined by trait  
131 complementarity (phylogenetic) and/or co-occurrence. Here we provide more insight into each process.

### 132 Evolutionary compatibility

133 This constraint is defined by shared (co)evolutionary history between consumers and resources (Dalla Riva  
134 & Stouffer, 2016; Gómez et al., 2010; Rossberg et al., 2006; Segar et al., 2020) which is manifested as ‘trait  
135 complementarity’ between two species (Benadi et al., 2022). In this body of theory, the consumer has the  
136 ‘correct’ set of traits that allow it to chase, capture, and consume the resource. Interactions that are not  
137 compatible are defined as forbidden links (Jordano, 2016b); *i.e.*, they are not physically possible and will  
138 *always* be absent within a network.

139 Networks do not properly arise from models based on this constraint. Instead, interacting species pairs are  
140 defined and these are represented as binary (possible vs forbidden) or probabilistic (Banville et al., 2025). For  
141 example, in the metaweb constructed by Strydom et al. (2022) probabilities are quantified as the confidence of  
142 a specific being *possible* between two species. A network constructed on the basis of evolutionary compatibility  
143 is conceptually aligned with a ‘global metaweb’, and gives us information as to the global feasibility of links  
144 between species pairs despite the fact that they do not co-occur (see Figure 1).

### 145 (Co)occurrence

146 The co-occurrence of species in both time and space is a fundamental requirement for an interaction between  
147 two species to occur (at least in terms of feeding links). Although co-occurrence data alone is insufficient  
148 for building an accurate and ecologically meaningful representation of *feeding links* (Blanchet et al., 2020),

149 it is still a critical process that determines the realisation of a feeding. Knowledge on the co-occurrence of  
150 species allows us to spatially constrain a global metaweb to reflect regional metawebs (Dansereau, Barros, et  
151 al., 2024). In the context of Figure 1 this would be the metawebs for regions one and two.

152 We reinforce that these two constraints don't deliver a network *per se*, but a list of feasible species pairs.  
153 Although it is possible to build a network from the list of interactions generated by these constraints, it is  
154 important to be aware that the structure of this network is not constrained by any community context: just  
155 because species are able to interact does not mean that they will (Caron et al., 2024; Poisot et al., 2015).

## 156 2.2 Processes that realise networks

157 In contrast to the above, here we highlight three processes that influence the *realisation* of an interaction  
158 between species and thus form the conceptual basis for realised networks. As we show in Figure 1, a ‘truly  
159 realised’ network is the product of properties of the community (**abundance** and **non-trophic interactions**)  
160 and the individual (**diet choice**). This represents a conceptual shift from considering the feasibility for species  
161 pairwise interactions to considering the edge as a representation of energy flow. Such a transition requires  
162 information about how the community, the environment and the individual *constraints* network topology as  
163 defined by consumer choice (Quintero et al. (2024), Section 1.3)

### 164 Abundance

165 Abundance as a realising process emerges from a null model for energy acquisition: organisms feeding randomly  
166 will consume resources in proportion to their abundance (Stephens & Krebs, 1986). Here, abundance of  
167 different prey species influences the distribution of links in a network (Vázquez et al., 2009) by defining a  
168 preference linked to individuals among species meeting (Banville et al., 2025; Poisot et al., 2015). Abundance  
169 data, linked to a derived metaweb delivers a foundation ruleset that can define the distribution and strength  
170 of links. Of note, however, is that such abundance constrained interactions are not necessarily contingent on  
171 there being any compatibility between species (E. Canard et al., 2012; Momal et al., 2020; Pomeranz et al.,  
172 2019).

### 173 Diet choice

174 It is well established that consumers make more active decisions than eating items in proportion to their  
175 abundance (Stephens & Krebs, 1986). Ultimately, consumer choice is underpinned by an energetic cost-benefit  
176 framework centred around profitability and defined by traits associated with finding, catching, killing, and  
177 consuming a resource (Smith et al., 2021; Wootton et al., 2023). Energetic constraints are invoked to construct  
178 networks in a myriad of ways (*e.g.*, Beckerman et al., 2006; Cherif et al., 2024; Pawar et al., 2012; Portalier et

<sup>179</sup> al., 2019).

<sup>180</sup> In contrast to metaweb ‘construction’ from a list of pairwise interactions, these methods deliver a realised web  
<sup>181</sup> directly and as an emergent property of node behaviour. We also here make a distinction, developed below,  
<sup>182</sup> with models like the Niche Model, where diet choice is implicit in its probabilistic network generating function,  
<sup>183</sup> but it is working to replicate the *expected* structure of the network and this structure does not emerge from  
<sup>184</sup> node-based rules. Note that we select diet choice as a term to capture rules linked to optimal foraging (Pyke,  
<sup>185</sup> 1984) and metabolic theory (Brown et al., 2004); it is a sensible ‘umbrella concept’ for capturing the energetic  
<sup>186</sup> constraint on of the distribution and strength of interactions.

<sup>187</sup> **Non-trophic interactions**

<sup>188</sup> We include non-trophic interactions (see Miele et al., 2019) here not as a determinant of links, but a modifier  
<sup>189</sup> of them - they are the community context above and beyond co-occurrence and abundance. Non-trophic  
<sup>190</sup> interactions include competition for space, predator interference, refuge provisioning, recruitment facilitation as  
<sup>191</sup> well as non-trophic effects that increase or decrease mortality. These interactions (Ings et al., 2009) specifically  
<sup>192</sup> modify either the realisation or strength of trophic interactions (Golubski & Abrams, 2011; Kamaru et al.,  
<sup>193</sup> 2024; Pilosof et al., 2017; Staniczenko et al., 2010) and represent direct (e.g., predator *a* outcompetes predator  
<sup>194</sup> *b*) and indirect (e.g., mutualistic/facilitative interactions) mechanisms. They operate on the realisation of a  
<sup>195</sup> network by altering the fine-scale distribution and abundance of species and relative contributions of direct  
<sup>196</sup> and indirect effects to biomass, persistence, stability and the functioning of the communities (Buche et al.,  
<sup>197</sup> 2024; Kéfi et al., 2012, 2015; Miele et al., 2019).

<sup>198</sup> **are these strictly modifiers of realised networks? - because we class them as community context**  
<sup>199</sup> **with co-occurrence, a modifier of feasible networks....**

<sup>200</sup> **3 Network construction**

<sup>201</sup> The above five processes are central to understanding the assumptions inherent in building different types of  
<sup>202</sup> networks. Each of the processes, or combinations thereof, deliver a unique set of boundary conditions on what  
<sup>203</sup> a network represents and can be used for. Here we build on the introduction of these five processes to further  
<sup>204</sup> categorise the approaches to constructing networks. In doing so also introduce more detail on a variety of  
<sup>205</sup> methodologies used to construct networks.

206 **3.1 Why construct networks?**

207 Networks are a representation of biodiversity. In a perfect world, we might know about all interactions.  
208 However, the empirical collection of interaction data is both costly and challenging to execute (Jordano,  
209 2016a, 2016b; Poisot et al., 2021). In the absence of robust empirical data, we construct models that facilitate  
210 interpolation and gap-filling of existing empirical datasets (*e.g.*, Biton et al., 2024; Dallas et al., 2017; Poisot  
211 et al., 2023; Stock et al., 2017), predict the feasibility of interaction among pairs of species, or directly predict  
212 network structure (see Strydom et al., 2021 for a broader discussion).

213 They are unique in delivering more than just estimates of species richness. As noted in the introduction, a  
214 network embodies the organising structure of biodiversity and allows numerous opportunities for ‘downstream’  
215 analysis, including the comparison of structures, estimation of energy flux or extinction dynamics and  
216 ultimately form the structural inputs to dynamical systems models that facilitate ecological and conservation  
217 relevant inference about productivity-diversity-stability-function relationships (Danet et al., 2024) in space  
218 and time. But making such inferences requires careful attention to one or more of the processes discussed in  
219 Section 2.

220 **3.2 Construction through induction**

221 Constructing feasible or realised networks can be framed as an ‘inductive reasoning’ process where insight  
222 and generalisation arises from a set of observations and relationships. Inductive reasoning as a foundation  
223 for network construction is implemented through node- and network levels. When applied at the node level,  
224 species specific networks are created and judge by their association with expected feeding interactions. When  
225 applied at the network level, networks are judged by their structural properties per se.

226 **3.2.1 Species specific networks: construction through node level induction**

227 Constructing feasible networks and facilitating the interpolation or gap-filling of existing empirical datasets on  
228 sets of species interactions can be framed as an ‘inductive reasoning’ process where insight and generalisation  
229 arises from a set of observations and relationships about feeding. All methods in this inference space rest on a  
230 set of three assumptions: there are a set of ‘feeding rules’ that underpin interaction feasibility (Morales-Castilla  
231 et al., 2015); these rules are phylogenetically conserved (Bramon Mora et al., 2018; Dalla Riva & Stouffer,  
232 2016); they can be specified by matching the traits between consumer and resource.

233 Evolutionary compatibility and co-occurrence constraints, the foundation theory for feasible networks, and  
234 have delivered insight in many ways. They have been critical to the construction of ‘first draft’ networks for  
235 communities for which we have no interaction data (Strydom et al., 2022). They are also central to interpolation

236 in data poor regions and predicting interactions for ‘unobservable’ communities *e.g.*, prehistoric networks  
237 (Dunhill et al., 2024; Fricke et al., 2022; Yeakel et al., 2014) or future, novel community assemblages (Van der  
238 Putten et al., 2010). Furthermore, they have the capacity to evaluate a role of interactions among species  
239 relative to their distribution by accounting for the role of the environment and the role of species interactions  
240 (Gravel et al., 2019; Higino et al., 2023; Pollock et al., 2014). There are substantial data requirements for these  
241 approaches including expert knowledge, species traits and phylogenetic relationships and/or interaction data  
242 on related species or communities.

243 Feeding rules are defined in multiple ways. The determination of the feeding rules can be defined *a priori*  
244 based expert knowledge opinions. Typically this is done on a ‘trait matching’ basis. An example are the paleo  
245 food web models of Shaw et al. (2024) and Roopnarine (2017) that specify a series of rules for a set of traits  
246 and interactions are deemed feasible if all conditions are met. Alternatively the body size ratio between the  
247 consumer and resource is often used (*e.g.*, Gravel et al., 2013; Rohr et al., 2010), with the idea that consumers  
248 will only utilise a resource with a body size is less than or equal to their own. However, work from Van De  
249 Walle et al. (2023) seems to suggest that adding morphological traits in addition to body size ratio improves  
250 model performance.

251 Rules are also defined by correlating real world interaction data with suitable ecological proxies for which  
252 data is more widely available (*e.g.*, traits) using some sort of binary classifier (see Pichler et al. (2020) for an  
253 overview). These include generalised linear models (*e.g.*, Caron et al., 2022), random forest (*e.g.*, Llewelyn et  
254 al., 2023), trait-based k-NN (*e.g.*, Desjardins-Proulx et al., 2017), and Bayesian models (Cirtwill et al., 2019;  
255 *e.g.*, Eklöf et al., 2013).

256 Finally, graph embedding uses the structural features of a known network to infer the position of species in an  
257 unknown network through the decomposition of the interaction onto the embedding space. This decomposition  
258 relies on a combination of ecological proxies (**e.g. ???**) in conjunction with known interactions to infer the  
259 latent values of species **What is a latent value of a species with respect to inferring interactions?**.  
260 See Strydom et al. (2023) for a detailed review of methods and Strydom et al. (2022) for a specific example.

### 261 3.2.2 Species agnostic networks: construction through structure induction

262 Networks in this category are generated rules that create non-random networks that reflect empirical knowledge  
263 of ecological network structures and evaluated by matching predictions to this *expected* structure of the  
264 network(s). The determination of links between species is only implicitly linked to properties of the nodes.  
265 This means these networks are usually not species specific. Although these models are data input light, often  
266 requiring only species richness and an estimate of the number of expected links, they make clear assumptions

267 regarding what the expectations are for network structure. These are some of the most commonly used  
268 network generation tools (e.g. the Niche model REF). There are two sub-categories of these species agnostic  
269 networks.

270 Stochastic network models use a probabilistic rule-set about diet choice and niche breadth to reflect fundamental  
271 ideas of foraging biology. These models that are based on the compartmentation and acquisition of energy for  
272 species at different trophic levels (Allesina & Pascual, 2009; Krause et al., 2003) and that network structure  
273 can be determined by distributing interactions along single dimension [the ‘niche axis’; Allesina et al. (2008)].  
274 Typically these models parametrise some aspect of the network structure (although see Allesina & Pascual,  
275 2009 for a parameter-free model). These models include the most commonly used network generator, the  
276 Niche model (Williams & Martinez, 2000), as well as the original Cascade model (Cohen et al., 1990) and the  
277 derived Nested hierarchy model (Cattin et al., 2004). These models often form the basis for dynamic models  
278 e.g., the allometric trophic network (Brose et al., 2006; Schneider et al., 2016) and bioenergetic food web  
279 models (Delmas et al., 2017).

### 280 **3.3 Construction through deduction**

281 In contrast to the above approaches centred on feasibility, relised networks via methods reflecting abundance  
282 and diet choice typically rely on deductive reasoning and have a unique agenda to those above. In contrast to  
283 the inductive methods, inference about a realise network follows from a set of premises defining generative  
284 processes, often referred to as mechanisms. Typically, models that embed abundance and diet choice constraints  
285 reference theory that allows inference about the distribution and strength of interactions. Such models are  
286 ‘network topology generators’ and have a strong representation in research comparing network structures  
287 along environmental gradients and delivering inference about extinctions and energy flux. They also provide  
288 the structural backbone for dynamical systems modelling to address questions about stability-structure-  
289 productivity-function relationships, secondary extinction dynamics, species invasion and climate change.  
290 There are two broad group of models in this deductive category.

#### 291 **3.3.1 Species-specific networks**

292 These models capture the behaviour of the nodes by explicitly taking into account the properties of the  
293 different species in the community. Which means that there is a degree of variance in which links are predicted  
294 between species unlike the more ‘static’ predictions made by inductive models. However, these networks are  
295 ‘costly’ to construct in real world settings (requiring data about the entire community, as it is the behaviour  
296 of the system that determines the behaviour of the part) and also lack the larger diet niche context afforded

297 by metawebs.

298 Neutral networks are built on the assumption that foraging decisions are tied *only* to the abundance of species  
299 within the community (E. F. Canard et al., 2014; Krishna et al., 2008). Here links are solely determined by the  
300 relative abundance of the different species in the community. Although it is highly unlikely that abundance is  
301 the only determinant of interactions work by Pomeranz et al. (2019) showcases how these neutral processes  
302 can be used in conjunction with inductive models to construct more refined/localised networks.

303 There is a broader group of models that focus on determining interactions in terms of energetic constraints  
304 on diet breadth, often using the ratio of consumer-resource bodysize as a proxy for capturing the energetic  
305 constraints of feeding. Models such as those developed by Portalier et al. (2019) and Wootton et al. (2023)  
306 are similar to the mechanistic approaches discussed in Section 3.2, however instead of determining interactions  
307 based on mechanistic feasibility it is rather constrained by the energetic cost of predation. Note that although  
308 these models do not place any explicit constraints on the expected structure of the network, the links should  
309 still be considered as ‘realised’ owing to the energetic constraint placed on links. A different subset of diet  
310 models (*e.g.*, Beckerman et al., 2006; Petchey et al., 2008) use a diet choice approach, however similar to the  
311 stochastic network models they also embed assumptions on network structure. Thus these models predict  
312 both interactions and network structure simultaneously, although they would benefit in being refined by more  
313 explicitly accounting for trait-based (*i.e.*, feasibility) parameterisation (Curtsdotter et al., 2019).

## 314 4 Making Progress with Networks

315 The motivation to leverage network ecology in conservation ecology, environmental risk assessment and natural  
316 resource management stems from a shift away from species/population specific measures of the effects of  
317 stress and disturbance to community level metrics of these impacts. These metrics, such as resilience and  
318 more generally stability, ecosystem function and biodiversity *per se*, are natural properties of networks. This  
319 suggests that modern conservation, risk assessment and resource management requires robust network tools  
320 to support decision making.

321 This is also true in the disciplines of ecology and environmental science and their focus on abundance,  
322 distribution, functions and services that biodiversity provides (Loreau & de Mazancourt, 2013). Major  
323 questions remain, for example, about stability-diversity-productivity relationships, the impacts of extinctions  
324 and invasions and the impacts of multiple stressors operating at multiple ecological scales. A network approach  
325 to answering these types of questions specifically allows us to evaluate how environmental gradients and  
326 anthropogenic stress map through direct and indirect effects among species in a complex community and

327 reveal fundamental patterns and understanding of processes in the natural world.  
 328 In order to effectively use networks to aid us in answering questions about conservation/risk assessment/management  
 329 and core ecological theory, we need to be mindful that we are mapping the *correct* network representation  
 330 to the question of interest (Gauzens et al., 2025). Notably, there are certain questions that cannot be answered  
 331 using specific network representations as the scale of the question of interest is fundamentally misaligned with  
 332 either the process captured by a specific network representation Section 2.1, the underlying data that is used  
 333 to construct it Section 3 or both of these factors.  
 334 Here we discuss and map the different network representations shown in Figure 1 to ‘appropriate’ research  
 335 questions and agendas [see also Table 1]. We also highlight some of the key methodological challenges that  
 336 currently limit our conceptualisation of a ‘network’ and thus impact their effective practical application in  
 337 real world settings.

Table 1: Table Caption

Network Representation	Example Research Question
Global Metaweb	How will novel communities respond to <i>e.g.</i> extinction, turnover, invasion and rewilling Diet/Trait-based conservation Rewiring capacity of species Eco-Evolutionary dynamics
Regional Metawebs	Applied use potential of questions highlighted for global metawebs at the management scale <i>e.g.</i> , a protected area Refinement/Extension of species distribution models
Realised webs	How do we allocate multiple stressors across networks Temperature threshold to community collapse Extinction and persistence after harvesting/invasion/extinction Stability-diversity-productivity-function Ecosystem level processes Meta communities and the idea of meta-network-communities

338 **4.1 Key Eco-Evo-Conservation Questions**

339 **4.1.1 Global Metawebs**

340 The interactions in global metawebs are not constrained by the realisation of specific community assemblages  
341 (or species co-occurrence). These networks provide a platform for answering questions that assume interactions  
342 *could* occur between species (feasibility) or where the potential diet breadth of species is required. Examples  
343 of appropriate research questions at this scale includes those about *hypothetical* or *novel* communities and  
344 interactions under future climate change scenarios, or the potential ‘position’ of an invasive (or re-introduced)  
345 species within a network (Hui & Richardson, 2019). This scale is also appropriate for a particular class of  
346 questions related to the potential (eco-evolutionary) rewiring capacity of species, and how this may help  
347 inform on the opportunities for persistence of species within new community assemblages (Marjakangas et  
348 al., 2025). The implicit focus on feasibility in these examples highlights that global metawebs are linked to  
349 strong proxies for targets and mechanisms of evolutionary change. This offers a network scale for modelling  
350 ecological-evolutionary dynamics and the role that both the evolutionary history, natural selection, and  
351 phenotypic plasticity shapes the diet breadth of species.

352 **4.1.2 Regional Metawebs**

353 Regional metawebs are conceptually a spatially constrained global metaweb. They make explicit the co-  
354 occurrence between species. Against this backdrop, they are conceptually aligned with similar questions  
355 to those posed above, with the added focus on a community facing, real, challenge. Additionally, regional  
356 metawebs can and have been used to refine and constrain species distribution model predictions, giving us  
357 more refined range maps (García-Callejas et al., 2023) or community composition under climate change  
358 scenarios, even at global scales (Hao et al., 2025).

359 However we must exercise a high degree of caution when comparing structures among regional metwebs,  
360 whether discrete collections or along environmental gradients. At this scale, where the network embeds the  
361 assumptions of feasibility, the link distribution is not meaningfully constrained by environmental factors (see  
362 Section 1.2) and it is vital to disentangle structural change *per se* from the multiple processes that might  
363 determine species turnover (*e.g.*,  $\beta$  - diversity).

364 **4.1.3 Realised networks**

365 Realised network are the most representative of what comes to mind when people think of networks, and  
366 more specifically how we can use them to help inform on larger biogeographic processes (Thuiller et al.,  
367 2024). This is partially because of the popularity and legacy of generative network models (like the Cascade

368 and Niche model) which produce realised network representations, and represent the ideal ‘currency’ for  
369 which to understand the constraints placed on interactions/network structure by the broader community  
370 and environmental context. This change in currency and context affords us the opportunity to ask questions  
371 that revolve around major ecological theory - *e.g.*, community stability and resilience, biodiversity dynamics,  
372 ecosystem function, structure-function relationships - and around major conservation and climate change global  
373 challenges - *e.g.*, temperature change, extinction dynamics, invasion impacts and reintroductions/rewilding.

374 Realised networks embody an explicit focus on the link between network structure to ecosystem function.  
375 Because the structure of realised webs are isolated from turnover processes they allow us to think about the  
376 propagation of change (across both time and space) which allows us to ask questions about the persistence of  
377 communities and how they respond to perturbations or stressors (at both the level of the node as well as  
378 the modification of links). For example in Section 4.1.1 we discuss how global metawebs can inform us as to the  
379 rewiring *capacity* of a species, a realised network however would be better suited to capture the rewiring of  
380 networks over time as a response to changes in the environment or community.

381 Although the recent boom in the availability of long-term observation data is allowing us to unpack decades  
382 of insights for stability-diversity-productivity relationships for more complex communities (Danet et al., 2024)  
383 or to evaluate the impacts and efficacy of re-introductions (Wooster et al., 2024), we need to be mindful that  
384 empirical interaction data is typically accumulated over time and so it compresses the transient nature of the  
385 interactions between species (Polis, 1991). Thus we need to apply a degree of caution when using empirical  
386 data to construct realised networks - although there is scope to think about developing methods that will  
387 allow us to modify metawebs in such a way that their structures become more aligned with realised webs (see  
388 the next section).

## 389 4.2 Key methodological challenges

390 As noted above, the three types of networks help highlight longstanding methodological challenges that affect  
391 our ability to increase both precision and accuracy of inference derived from the questions we highlight above.  
392 Here we review some of these challenges and opportunities that are arising to mitigate them.

393 **Understanding what empirical data represents:** Ultimately, knowing what is right/precise/correct in an  
394 ecological network requires robust data. What does it mean when we ‘observe’ an interaction be that directly  
395 (predator actively feeding on prey) or indirectly via *e.g.*, gut or isotope analysis. A network constructed  
396 with empirical data will most likely still represent an ‘accumulation’ of feeding data making it conceptually  
397 more closely aligned with idea of a metaweb.

398 **The validation of network structure:** Progress has been made in the development of tools and approaches  
399 of assessing how well a model recovers pairwise interactions (Poisot, 2023; Strydom et al., 2021), but we  
400 still lack a clear set of guidelines for benchmarking the ability of models to recover structure (Allesina et al.,  
401 2008). This makes it challenging to assess if models are capturing network structure accurately, especially  
402 if one wants to use empirical data as the ‘testing set’. Specifically, can we use a network constructed using  
403 long-term interaction observation data (*i.e.*, conceptually a metaweb) to assess the accuracy of a modelled (*I*  
404 *don’t know how I feel about this word*), realised network? Additionally one needs to think about *what* aspect  
405 of accurate/precise network construction is the most important - is it the structure or ability to correctly  
406 predict pairwise links? In the case of attempting to construct a metaweb it is important that one is accurately  
407 recovering both links that are truly present and absent, however in the case of realised webs it is perhaps not  
408 that clear. Is it sufficient to correctly recover structure *e.g.*, connectance or do the pairwise links also need to  
409 be correct?

410 **Transitioning between metawebs and realised webs:** Currently most approaches to modelling realised  
411 networks fail to explicitly account for any form of evolutionary constraint (although Van De Walle et al.  
412 (2023) and Wootton et al. (2023) have added traits to more ) and we need to develop either an ensemble  
413 modelling approach (Becker et al., 2022; Terry & Lewis, 2020) or. tools that will allow for the downsampling  
414 of metawebs into realised networks, (*e.g.*, Roopnarine, 2006).

415 Importantly we need to think critically how the creation of either an ‘ensemble network’ or downsampled  
416 metaweb might change the underlying ‘currency’ of a nework and thus the underling defintiiion of the edge *e.g.*  
417 the downsampling approach developed by Roopnarine (2006) structually constrains the network to structurally  
418 look like a realised web, but the links to not represent prey choice *per se*.

419 Having a well developed framework as well as ‘fluidity’ to allow us to scale up between meta- and realised food  
420 webs lays the groundwork for us to actively begin the integration of food webs into the classical metacommunity-  
421 metaecosystem space (Massol et al., 2011). Developments in the metacommunity-metaecosystem space should  
422 be intentional about articulating a firm dixtinction as to what defines a ‘network’ as a unit, as well as defining  
423 the logical (spatial and temporal) boundaries between networks (Fortin et al., 2021).

424 **Making networks more tractible in applied spaces:** There is a disconnect when it comes to effectively  
425 using networks in applied spaces. This is probably at least in part related to the challenges with delineating  
426 ‘boundaries’ between networks, and specifically how do these relate to ‘management’ units and scales.  
427 Additionally a limted interpretability of network metrics, specifically how this can be applied to conservation  
428 targets/indeces (Dansereau, Braga, et al., 2024). In order to adress this shortcoming we not only need to

429 make an effort to more efficiently map the from (structure) of a network to its function as well as identify how  
430 this can effectively be integrated into policy to make it meaningful and actionable (O'Connor et al., 2025) but  
431 also actively identify the appropriate network representation.

## 432 5 Concluding remarks

433 Having a clear understanding of the interplay between network representations and the processes that they  
434 are capable of encoding is critical if we are to understand exactly which networks can be used to answer which  
435 questions. As we highlight in Box 1 the different network representations have different potential uses and it  
436 should be clear that there is no ‘best’ network representation but rather a network representation that is  
437 best suited to its intended purpose. In providing a formalisation regards to the assumptions and mechanisms  
438 that need to be explicitly taken into consideration when deciding to use (and construct) networks we hope to  
439 prevent the unintentional misuse or misinterpretation of networks as well as provide a starting point from  
440 which we can develop a better framework for the applied use of networks to answer questions that are not  
441 only pressing within the field but also within broader biodiversity science.

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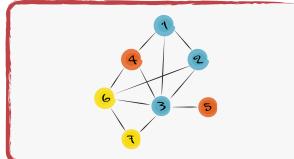
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## REPRESENTATION

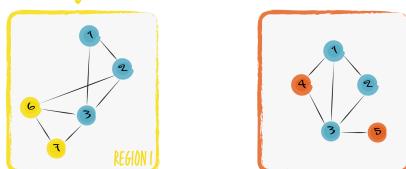
### GLOBAL METAWEB

All feasible interactions for a collection of species



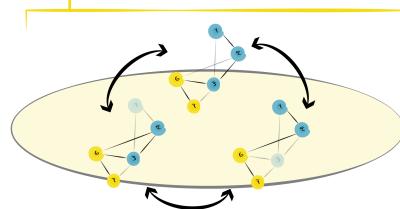
### REGIONAL METAWEB

All feasible interactions for a co-occurring collection of species (i.e., interactions for a specific community)

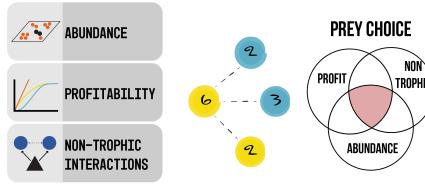
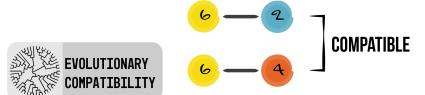


### REALISED NETWORKS

Interactions that occur within a community for a given time and place. These networks represent the dynamics between species in the communities



## PROCESS



WHAT DETERMINES THE PRESENCE OF LINKS?

WHAT DETERMINES THE DISTRIBUTION OF LINKS?

Figure 1: Aligning the various processes that determine interactions (right column) with the different network representations (left column). First, we start with a **global metaweb** this network captures all possible interactions for a collection of species in the global context. However, within the global environment different species occur in different regions (region one = yellow and region 2 = orange), and it is possible to construct two different metawebs (**regional metawebs**) for each region by taking accounting for the co-occurrence of the difference species - as shown here we have two regions with some species that are found in both regions (blue) and others endemic to either region one (yellow) or region two (orange). However even within a region we do not expect all interactions to be realised but rather that there are multiple configurations of the regional metaweb over both space and time. The ‘state’ of the different **realised networks** is ultimately influenced not just by the co-occurrence of a species pair but rather the larger community context such as the abundance of different species, maximisation of energy gain, or indirect/higher order interactions.