

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

Tanya Strydom ¹; Jennifer A. Dunne ²; Timothée Poisot ^{3,4}; Andrew P. Beckerman ¹

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

At the heart of modern biodiversity science are a set of concepts and theories about biodiversity, stability, and function (Loreau & de Mazancourt, 2013). These relate to the abundance, distribution, and services that biodiversity provides, and how biodiversity – as an interconnected set of species – responds to multiple stressors. Documenting interactions between and among species is thus one of the fundamental building blocks of community ecology, providing a powerful abstraction and platform for mathematical and statistical modelling of biodiversity in order to make predictions, mitigate threats, and manage services (Windsor et al., 2023). Such network representations of biodiversity are increasingly argued to be an asset to understanding and predicting the abundance, distribution, dynamics, and services provided by multiple species facing multiple stressors. However, there is a growing discourse around limitations to the interpretation and applied use of networks (Blüthgen, 2010; Dormann, 2023), primarily as the result of shortcomings regarding their conceptualisation (Blüthgen & Staab, 2024).

Because an ‘interaction network’ can be defined and conceptualised in many ways, each method will be embed different assumptions about the determinants of interactions, and characterise patterns and process at different scales, which will ultimately influence the nature and scope of inference (Proulx et al., 2005). The different ways in which a network can be represented is the result of *how* the network is constructed, which represents an intersection of the data used to construct the network and the underlying theory as to what drives the occurrence of interactions between species. Although there have been extensive discussions as to the the challenges relating to the scale and nature of data collection/observation (*e.g.*, Blüthgen & Staab, 2024; Brimacombe et al., 2023, 2024; Moulatlet et al., 2024; Polis, 1991; Pringle & Hutchinson, 2020; Saberski et al., 2024) we still lack a clear framework as to how different data sources result in networks that are fundamentally different Section 1.3.

In this perspective we aim to provide an overview of the different **food web** representations, particularly how these relate to the terminology used to define a food web, and how this is influenced by both the processes that determine interactions Section 2, as well as how this relates to the way in which we construct the resulting networks Section 3. This allows us to deliver an overview of fundamental questions in ecology that we think can benefit from network thinking and a proposal that such thinking can accelerate our capacity to predict the impact of multiple stressors on biodiverse communities. Specifically, we finish this perspective with an overview of fundamental questions in ecology that we think can benefit from network thinking and a proposal that such thinking can accelerate our capacity to predict the impact of change on biodiverse communities.

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

Defining a food web seems simple; it is the representation of feeding interactions (edges) between species (nodes) in the form of a network. However, the definition of ‘edges’ and ‘nodes’, as well as the levels of organization at which they are combined, can take many forms Moulatlet et al. (2024), ultimately encoding a series of assumptions and criteria within a network. An awareness of variance in the way a food web can be defined is critical as a network (or its adjacency matrix) is both the ‘object’ from which inferences are made (*e.g.*, the interactions between species, or how the structure influences ecosystem level processes) as well as the ‘product’ of either the data collection (Brimacombe et al., 2023) a prediction process (Banville et al., 2024), or both, and is an object form which downstream (*e.g.*, responses to stressors, dynamics or mapping structure to ecosystem level processes). One thus needs to be aware of both the criteria that define nodes and edges and the scale of the processes or mechanisms that define the collecting of species together.

1.1 How do we define a node?

Although this may seem an elementary question in the context of food webs — a node *should* represent a (taxonomic) species, the reality is that nodes can often represent non-taxonomic units such as trophic species (Williams & Martinez, 2000; *e.g.*, Yodzis, 1982), feeding guild (*e.g.*, García-Callejas et al., 2023), or segregation of species by life stages (*e.g.*, Clegg et al., 2018). Practical implications of how we are aggregating the nodes is that the resolution may not always be ‘pixel perfect’, and may even vary within a single network. Such granularity and variation can limit the ability to make (taxonomic) species specific inferences (*e.g.*, does species *a* eat species *b*?), and affect downstream inference made from networks, including estimates of complexity and structure (Beckerman et al., 2006; Clegg et al., 2018). There may also be value in having nodes that represent an aggregation of species, as the distribution of the links between them may be more meaningful in terms of understanding energy flow and distribution within the system.

1.2 What is captured by an edge?

At its core, links within food webs can be thought of as a representation of either feeding links between species (be that realised or potential (Dunne, 2006; Pringle, 2020)), or fluxes within a system *e.g.*, energy transfer or material flow as the result of the feeding links between species (Lindeman, 1942). These correspond with different ‘currencies’ (the feasibility of links, or the energy that is moving between nodes). There is also a myriad of ways in which the links themselves can be specified. Links between species can be treated present or absent (*i.e.*, binary), may be defined a, or by continuous functions which further quantify the strength of an interaction (Berlow et al., 2004). How these links are specified will influence the resulting structure of the

network. For example, taking a food web that consists of links representing all *potential* feeding links for a community will be meaningless if one is interested in understanding the flow of energy through the network as the links are not environmentally/energetically constrained.

1.3 Network representations

Networks can be thought of to fall into two different ‘types’: namely metawebs; traditionally defined as all of the *potential* interactions for a specific species pool (Dunne, 2006), and realised networks; which is the subset of interactions in a metaweb that are *realised* for a specific community at a given time and place. The fundamental differences between these two network representations are the spatial scale at which they are constructed, and the associated processes that are assumed to drive pattern at these scales.

A metaweb provides insight as to the viability (feasibility) of an interaction between two species occurring, and captures some measure of the viability/feasibility of an interaction occurring between two species based on 1) the complementarity of their traits (a *global metaweb*) and 2) can be further refined by their co-occurrence (a *regional metaweb*). Metawebs thus provide a means to identify links that are not ecologically plausible, *i.e.*, forbidden links (Jordano, 2016b), or provide an idea of the *complete* diet of a species (Strydom et al., 2023).

In contrast realised networks are relatively localised in space and time, and the links between species are contingent on both the co-occurrence of species, the role of the environment, and mechanisms of diet choice. Fundamentally this means that the presence/absence of a link is the result of the ‘behaviour’ of the species.

Ultimately this means that a metaweb and a realised network are different; links that are absent in a metaweb can (conceptually although not always practically) be treated as being truly absent, however links that are absent in a realised network cannot be considered to be truly absent but rather as absent due to the broader environmental/community context. Importantly, a realised network is *not* simply the downscaling of a metaweb to a smaller scale (*e.g.*, moving from the country to the 1x1 km² scale based on fine-scale species co-occurrence) but rather represents a shift towards capturing the dynamic, higher level, processes that determine the *realisation* of an interaction, *i.e.*, the definition of an edges shifts from being determined by interaction feasibility to that of energetic choices/consequences. Thus, different network representations are determined and constrained by different sets of assumptions as to what the processes are that determine the presence/absence of an interaction between two species and will result in networks that are structurally different even if they contain the same species (Caron et al., 2024).

2 From Nodes and Edges to Process and Constraints

In the previous section we discussed how the nuances in defining a network (in terms of nodes, edges, and representation as a network) are broadly capturing different processes. Here we expand this discussion, introducing five core constraints that determine the links among species Figure 1. The scale at which they operate leads to clear articulation of global metawebs as networks of all possible interactions for a collection of species, regional metawebs as networks representing all possible interactions of co-occurring species and realised networks representing interactions that occur and are framed by some kind of energetic constraint. We further develop these concepts in Section 3, where we will contextualise these process within the different bodies of theory as well as the set of tools and data required to construct the appropriate network, which will ultimately determine the context in which the resulting network is used Section 4.

The five core constraints we propose are evolutionary compatibility, co-occurrence, abundance, diet choice, and non-trophic interactions. In the following sections, we present details about how the constraints are defined, the scale at which they operate and how they deliver a network.

[Figure 1 about here.]

2.1 Processes that determine the feasibility of an interaction

Here we will look at processes that ‘act’ at the species pair of interest, that is the *possibility* of an interaction being present/absent is assessed at the pairwise level and one is left with a ‘list’ of interactions that are present/absent. Although it is possible to build a network (*i.e.*, metaweb) from this information it is important to be aware that the structure of this network is not constrained by real-world dynamics or conditions (*i.e.*, the community context), and so just because species are able to interact does not mean that they will (Poisot et al., 2015).

Evolutionary compatibility

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

Networks arising from this constraint can be binary (possible vs forbidden) or probabilistic (Banville et al.,

2024), *e.g.*, the metaweb constructed by Strydom et al. (2022) uses probabilities to quantify their confidence with regards to the possibility of a specific interaction existing between two species. A network constructed on the basis of evolutionary compatibility is conceptually aligned with a ‘global metaweb’, and gives us information as to the feasibility of links between species despite the fact that they do not co-occur as shown in 1.

(Co)occurrence

The co-occurrence of species in both time and space is a fundamental requirement for an interaction between two species to occur (at least in terms of feeding links). Although co-occurrence data alone is insufficient for building an accurate and ecologically meaningful representation of *feeding links* (Blanchet et al., 2020), it is still a critical process that determines the realisation of a feeding link and allows us to spatially constrain a global metaweb based on local communities (Dansereau et al., 2024), in the context of Figure 1 this would be the metawebs for regions one and two.

2.2 Processes that modify the behaviour (preference) of species

Here we will showcase three processes that will ultimately influence the realisation of an interaction between species and form the conceptual basis for realised networks. As we show in Figure 1 a ‘truly realised’ network is the product of different facets of both the properties of the community (**abundance** and **non-trophic interactions**) as well as the individual (**profitability**). This represents a contextual shift where the presence (realisation) of an interaction is no longer constrained to evaluating the viability between a *pair* of species but rather takes into consideration information about the community and the individual (Quintero et al., 2024), and as discussed in Section 1.3, links are now *constrained* by consumer choice.

Abundance

The most basic abundance constraint linked to foraging biology is the principle that organisms feeding randomly will consume resources in proportion to their abundance (Stephens & Krebs, 1986), and interactions are not necessarily contingent on there being any **compatibility** between them (E. Canard et al., 2012; Momal et al., 2020; Pomeranz et al., 2019). However, a more ecologically sound assumption would be that the abundance of different prey species will influence the distribution of links in a network (Vázquez et al., 2009), by influencing which prey are targeted or preferred by the predator, as abundance influences factors such as the likelihood of two species (individuals) meeting (Banville et al., 2024; Poisot et al., 2015). Thus, if abundance data are combined with a derived metaweb, there is a rule-set that defines the distribution and potentially strength (preference via abundance) of links and thus delivers structure.

Profitability

Ultimately, consumer choice is underpinned by the energetic cost-benefit (profitability) of trying to find, catch, kill, and consume a resource (where a consumer will optimise energy intake while minimising handling and search time (energy cost)). Although energetic constraints can be invoked in a myriad of ways (Cherif et al., 2024; *e.g.*, Pawar et al., 2012; Portalier et al., 2019) profitability represents a well described within both optimal foraging (Pyke, 1984) and metabolic theory (Brown et al., 2004), making it a good ‘umbrella concept’ for capturing the energetic cost of interactions.

Non-trophic interactions

Perhaps not as intuitive when thinking about the processes that determine feeding links is non-trophic interactions (Ings et al., 2009), specifically accounting for their ability to modify either the realisation or strength of trophic interactions (Golubski & Abrams, 2011; Kamaru et al., 2024; Pilosof et al., 2017; Staniczenko et al., 2010). Non-trophic interactions can modify interactions either ‘directly’ *e.g.*, predator *a* outcompetes predator *b* or ‘indirectly’ *e.g.*, mutualistic/facilitative interactions will alter the fine-scale distribution and abundance of species as well as their persistence (Buche et al., 2024; Kéfi et al., 2012, 2015).

3 Linking theory to network construction: a case for models

The suite of different network representations Section 1.3 that we have at our disposal allow us to isolate and operate within one (or a few) of the constraints discussed in Section 2, and have an influence on the way we construct networks, specifically in terms of the development of different models. The act of constructing a ‘real world’ network through the empirical collection of interaction data is both costly and challenging to execute (Jordano, 2016a, 2016b), thus we often turn to models to either predict networks (be that the interaction between two species, or network structure (Strydom, Catchen, et al., 2021)), identify missing interactions (gap fill) within an existing empirical dataset (*e.g.*, Biton et al., 2024; Dallas et al., 2017; Stock, 2021). In the context of this discussion food web models are also a valuable to that will allow us to better understand the different constraints determining interactions (Song & Levine, 2024; Stouffer, 2019), allowing us to interrogate, generate, and reflect upon different ecological theories.

i Box 1 - Why we need to aggregate networks at different scales: A hypothetical case study

Although it might seem most prudent to be predicting, constructing, and defining networks that are the closest representation of reality there are pros and cons of constructing both realised networks as well as metawebs. Let us take for example a community that experiences a degree of species turnover

between seasons. In this community we expect species to be either present or absent depending on the season (*i.e.*, changes in co-occurrence) as well as some species exhibiting seasonal shifts in their diets (be that due to changes in species occurrence or predator choice). If one were to construct a metaweb that disregards these season shifts (*i.e.*, a global metaweb) it is clear that these finer nuances would be lost. It is of course possible to construct either smaller metawebs for the different seasonal communities (thereby capturing the changes in community diversity), or realised networks for each season (to capture diet or ecosystem process shifts *e.g.*, Schwarz et al. (2020)). However, these small-scale networks lack the context of the bigger picture that is available at the metaweb - that is it gives us a more holistic idea of the entire diet range of a specific species, which is important when one needs to make conservation-based/applied decisions (*e.g.*, conserving the entire diet of a species and not just seasonal prey items) as well as providing information on interactions that may be possible regardless of the environmental/community context (species may have the capacity to consume certain prey items but do not do so due to local conditions). With this in mind let us see how the different network aggregations can be used:

1. **A ‘global’ metaweb:** Knowledge of the entire diet breadth of a species is valuable especially in terms of understanding how a species will respond to changes in the community - *e.g.* invasions/rewilding scenarios (where does the new species ‘fit’ within the network?) as well as potential capacity to shift its diet. There is also the argument that a metaweb will allow us to identify species that act as links across the landscape.

2. **A seasonal metaweb:** Knowledge at the finer scale is also valuable to understand and provide insight on the differences in diets between seasons (and identify key species within the network in different environments).

3. **A realised network:** Provide insight as to the different network configurations for a given time and place, which is a better approximation of the energy flows/ecosystem processes as they are occurring (that is the *structure* of the network is also meaningful). A realised network will also allow one to detect more nuanced shifts diet - *i.e.*, not only changes in links due to species turnover between seasons.

173

174 3.1 Stochastic networks

175 Within stochastic networks the assumption is that the interactions between species occurs irrespective of
 176 the identity of the species (*i.e.*, species have no agency) and links are *randomly* distributed throughout the
 177 network. Alternatively it can be assumed that interactions are still independent of a species’ trait but are
 178 rather driven by its abundance, *sensu* neutral theory (Hubbell, 2001).

Practically there is little support that networks are truly stochastic, however null models (Bascompte et al., 2003; *e.g.*, Fortuna & Bascompte, 2006) are often used as a ‘null hypothesis’ that can be used to ask questions about deviations in observed network structure (*e.g.*, Banville et al., 2023; Strydom, Dalla Riva, et al., 2021). Conversely, neutral models (E. F. Canard et al., 2014; Krishna et al., 2008), and by extension processes, are most likely relevant at local scales (Pomeranz et al., 2019), *i.e.*, should be considered to play a role when constructing realised networks but are superseded by trait-based processes at a metaweb scale.

3.2 Feasibility networks (metawebs)

Metawebs (depending on the aggregation) can help us develop our understanding of the intersection of species interactions and their co-occurrence (Gravel et al., 2019; Soberón, 2007). Whereby a *global metaweb* presents an approximation of the fundamental Eltonian niche of a species (*i.e.*, its relation to its food source), whereas as *regional metawebs* represent an intersection of Elton and Grinnell. As discussed in Section 2.1 the feasibility of an interaction is typically assessed on a pairwise basis, and is often assessed based on the idea that interactions are governed by a set of ‘feeding rules’ (Morales-Castilla et al., 2015), and are broadly elucidated in two different ways; *mechanistic models*, (Dunne et al., 2008; Roopnarine, 2017; *e.g.*, Shaw et al., 2024) and *pattern finding models* (Caron et al., 2022; Cirtwill et al., 2019; Desjardins-Proulx et al., 2017; Eklöf et al., 2013; Llewelyn et al., 2023; Pichler et al., 2020; Strydom et al., 2022; *e.g.*, Strydom et al., 2023). The fundamental difference between these two model groups is that *mechanistic models* rely on expert knowledge and make explicit assumptions on trait-feeding relationships, whereas the *pattern finding models* are dependent on existing interaction datasets from feeding rules can be elucidated. It perhaps also bears repeating that these models are often only presenting a list of feasible interactions and that the resulting network is ‘unstructured’, as it is unconstrained by any processes or conditions that generate structure. While these networks can be imprinted with external definitions of trophic position and guild identity to deliver hypothetical structure, this structure is not an emergent property of the links and species pairs (Caron et al., 2024).

Feasibility networks are useful for determining all feasible interactions for a specific community, and the models that have been developed in this context have the potential to allow us to construct first draft networks for communities for which we have no interaction data (Strydom et al., 2022), and are valuable not only in data poor regions but also for predicting interactions for ‘unobservable’ communities *e.g.*, prehistoric networks (Dunhill et al., 2024; Fricke et al., 2022; Yeakel et al., 2014) or future, novel community assemblages. Conceptually this is particularly valuable if we want to understand interactions between novel communities, as well as the rewiring capacity of species. Additionally, an understanding of the role of interactions between

species has allowed us to better determine the distribution of a species by accounting not only for the role of the environment but also the role of species interactions (Higino et al., 2023; Pollock et al., 2014).

3.3 ‘Behavioural’ networks

Ultimately realised networks and capture some aspect of how the behavior of a species determines if a link is realised or not and can be modelled in two ways; models that predict realised interactions (whereby the behaviour of a species is modelled *i.e.*, its diet choice), and models that predict the structure of realised networks (whereby the behaviour of the system is modelled and assumptions are made with regards to the structure of a network). In terms predicting interactions current models are rooted in feeding theory and allocate the links between species based on energy *e.g.*, diet models (Beckerman et al., 2006; Petchey et al., 2008) have been used construct networks based on both profitability (as determined by the handling time, energy content, and predator attack rate) as well as abundance (prey density). (Wootton et al., 2023). At a ‘coarser’, functional level there are models that are based on the compartmentation and acquisition of energy for species at different trophic levels (Allesina & Pascual, 2009; Krause et al., 2003). Models that determine structure are based on the idea that networks follow a trophic hierarchy and that network structure can be determined by distributing interactions along single dimension [the “niche axis”; Allesina et al. (2008)], while parametrising an aspect of the network structure (although see Allesina & Pascual, 2009 for a parameter-free model).

As behavioural networks are built on the concept of dynamic processes (*e.g.*, the abundance of species will always be in flux) these networks are valuable for understanding the behaviour of networks over time, or their response to change (Curtsdotter et al., 2019; Delmas et al., 2017; Lajaaity et al., 2024). However, they are ‘costly’ to construct (requiring data about the entire community, as it is the behaviour of the system that determines the behaviour of the part) and also lack the larger diet niche context afforded by metawebs. Structural models provide a data-light (the models often only require species richness) but assumption heavy (the resulting network structure is determined by an assumption of network structure) alternative, however they do not make species specific predictions and so cannot be used to determine if an interaction is either possible *or* realised between two species (*i.e.*, one cannot use these models to determine if species *a* eats species *b*). Although this means this suite of models are unsuitable as tools for predicting species-specific interactions, they have been shown to be sufficient tools to predict the structure of networks (Williams & Martinez, 2008), and are useful in synthetic simulations.

4 Making Progress with Networks

It is probably both this nuance as well as a lack of clear boundaries and guidelines as to the links between network form and function (although see Delmas et al., 2019) that has stifled the ‘productive use’ of networks beyond the inventorying the interactions between species. Although progress with using networks as a means to address questions within larger bodies of ecological theory *e.g.*, invasion biology (Hui & Richardson, 2019) and co-existence theory (García-Callejas et al., 2023) has been made we still lack explicit guidelines as to what the appropriate network representation for the task at hand would be, and as highlighted in Box 1, underscores the need to evaluate exactly what process a specific network representation captures as well as its suitability for the question of interest. Below we present a mapping of what we believe are some of the key questions for which interaction networks can be used to the different networks representations that are most suitable, as well as highlight some of the methodological challenges that still need to be improved upon.

4.1 Making use of the different network representations

Methodological challenges

1. Tools that allow us to estimate both the feasibility as well as realisation of links: Currently most approaches to modelling realised networks fail to explicitly account for any form of evolutionary constraint Wootton et al. (2023) and we need to develop either an ensemble modelling approach (Becker et al., 2022; Terry & Lewis, 2020) or tools that will allow for the downsampling of metawebs into realised networks (*e.g.*, Roopnarine, 2006).
2. Is there something in generalisable models that ‘combine’ different processes/aspects (*e.g.*, using body size as a catch all) versus limited models that allow you to unpack things bit-by-bit (*i.e.*, process by process). So Wootton et al. (2023) *may* (TBD) span the gamut but it lacks the ability to unpack... Although maybe the terms do?
3. Modelling interaction strength: Although realised networks are more closely aligned with *explicitly* capturing interaction strength we lack models that allow us to quantify this (Strydom, Catchen, et al., 2021; Wells & O’Hara, 2013).
4. How do we validate our predictions?: Progress has been made to assess how well a model recovers pairwise interactions (Poisot, 2023; Strydom, Catchen, et al., 2021), but we still lack clear set of guidelines for benchmarking the ability of models to recover structure (Allesina et al., 2008)

Theory challenges

1. Core Theory Advancement: Do the decades of insights arrived at for stability-diversity-productivity

relationships with tri-trophic or diamond shaped models hold for complex communities (10's-100s) (Danet et al., 2024); How will spatial and temporal variation in climate and productivity drive change in complex ecosystems. Necessary to move to predicting changes in biodiversity per se, ecosystem functions and identifying sensitive and robust species and portions of communities.

2. How will novel communities interact? How will range shifts and invasions result in new/novel community assemblages. And then also the intentional changes of species compositions through rewilding.
3. Does rewiring happen and does it deliver robustness? Specific sub points to consider here is persistence, especially persistence to perturbation. Again, dynamic networks and network/community assembly and finally extinctions (Dunhill et al., 2024).
4. When do invasive species enhance or decimate communities? When do reintroductions work? (Wooster et al., 2024)
5. Are there temperature threshold to community collapse
6. Can socioeconomic networks combined with biological networks drive understanding of externalities?
7. Can paleoecological data from deep time hyperthermal events provide sufficient insight into the targets, pace and recovery times from rapid climate events?

[Figure 2 about here.]

5 Concluding remarks

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

References

- Allesina, S., Alonso, D., & Pascual, M. (2008). A General Model for Food Web Structure. *Science*, 320(5876), 658–661. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1156269>

- Allesina, S., & Pascual, M. (2009). Food web models: A plea for groups. *Ecology Letters*, 12(7), 652–662. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2009.01321.x>
- Banville, F., Gravel, D., & Poisot, T. (2023). What constrains food webs? A maximum entropy framework for predicting their structure with minimal biases. *PLOS Computational Biology*, 19(9), e1011458. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1011458>
- Banville, F., Strydom, T., Blyth, P., Brimacombe, C., Catchen, M. D., Dansereau, G., Higino, G., Malpas, T., Mayall, H., Norman, K., Gravel, D., & Poisot, T. (2024). *Deciphering probabilistic species interaction networks*. EcoEvoRxiv. <https://doi.org/10.32942/X28G8Z>
- Bascompte, J., Jordano, P., Melian, C. J., & Olesen, J. M. (2003). The nested assembly of plant-animal mutualistic networks. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 100(16), 9383–9387. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1633576100>
- Becker, D. J., Albery, G. F., Sjodin, A. R., Poisot, T., Bergner, L. M., Chen, B., Cohen, L. E., Dallas, T. A., Eskew, E. A., Fagre, A. C., Farrell, M. J., Guth, S., Han, B. A., Simmons, N. B., Stock, M., Teeling, E. C., & Carlson, C. J. (2022). Optimising predictive models to prioritise viral discovery in zoonotic reservoirs. *The Lancet Microbe*, 3(8), e625–e637. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2666-5247\(21\)00245-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2666-5247(21)00245-7)
- Beckerman, A. P., Petchey, O. L., & Warren, P. H. (2006). Foraging biology predicts food web complexity. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 103(37), 13745–13749. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0603039103>
- Benadi, G., Dormann, C. F., Fründ, J., Stephan, R., & Vázquez, D. P. (2022). Quantitative Prediction of Interactions in Bipartite Networks Based on Traits, Abundances, and Phylogeny. *The American Naturalist*, 199(6), 841–854. <https://doi.org/10.1086/714420>
- Berlow, E. L., Neutel, A.-M., Cohen, J. E., de Ruiter, P. C., Ebenman, B., Emmerson, M., Fox, J. W., Jansen, V. A. A., Iwan Jones, J., Kokkoris, G. D., Logofet, D. O., McKane, A. J., Montoya, J. M., & Petchey, O. (2004). Interaction strengths in food webs: Issues and opportunities. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 73(3), 585–598. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0021-8790.2004.00833.x>
- Biton, B., Puzis, R., & Pilosof, S. (2024). *Inductive link prediction boosts data availability and enables cross-community link prediction in ecological networks*.
- Blanchet, F. G., Cazelles, K., & Gravel, D. (2020). Co-occurrence is not evidence of ecological interactions. *Ecology Letters*, 23(7), 1050–1063. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.13525>
- Blüthgen, N. (2010). Why network analysis is often disconnected from community ecology: A critique and an ecologist’s guide. *Basic and Applied Ecology*, 11(3), 185–195. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.baae.2010.01.001>
- Blüthgen, N., & Staab, M. (2024). A Critical Evaluation of Network Approaches for Studying Species Interactions. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics*, 55(1), 65–88. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-010723-010001>

- Brimacombe, C., Bodner, K., Gravel, D., Leroux, S. J., Poisot, T., & Fortin, M.-J. (2024). Publication-driven consistency in food web structures: Implications for comparative ecology. *Ecology*, *n/a*(*n/a*), e4467. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecy.4467>
- Brimacombe, C., Bodner, K., Michalska-Smith, M., Poisot, T., & Fortin, M.-J. (2023). Shortcomings of reusing species interaction networks created by different sets of researchers. *PLOS Biology*, *21*(4), e3002068. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.3002068>
- Brown, J. H., Gillooly, J. F., Allen, A. P., Savage, V. M., & West, G. B. (2004). Toward a Metabolic Theory of Ecology. *Ecology*, *85*(7), 1771–1789. <https://doi.org/10.1890/03-9000>
- Buche, L., Bartomeus, I., & Godoy, O. (2024). Multitrophic Higher-Order Interactions Modulate Species Persistence. *The American Naturalist*, *203*(4), 458–472. <https://doi.org/10.1086/729222>
- Canard, E. F., Mouquet, N., Mouillot, D., Stanko, M., Miklisova, D., & Gravel, D. (2014). Empirical Evaluation of Neutral Interactions in Host-Parasite Networks. *The American Naturalist*, *183*(4), 468–479. <https://doi.org/10.1086/675363>
- Canard, E., Mouquet, N., Marescot, L., Gaston, K. J., Gravel, D., & Mouillot, D. (2012). Emergence of Structural Patterns in Neutral Trophic Networks. *PLOS ONE*, *7*(8), e38295. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0038295>
- Caron, D., Brose, U., Lurgi, M., Blanchet, F. G., Gravel, D., & Pollock, L. J. (2024). Trait-matching models predict pairwise interactions across regions, not food web properties. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, *33*(4), e13807. <https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.13807>
- Caron, D., Maiorano, L., Thuiller, W., & Pollock, L. J. (2022). Addressing the Eltonian shortfall with trait-based interaction models. *Ecology Letters*, *25*(4), 889–899. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.13966>
- Cherif, M., Brose, U., Hirt, M. R., Ryser, R., Silve, V., Albert, G., Arnott, R., Berti, E., Cirtwill, A., Dyer, A., Gauzens, B., Gupta, A., Ho, H.-C., Portalier, S. M. J., Wain, D., & Wootton, K. (2024). The environment to the rescue: Can physics help predict predator–prey interactions? *Biological Reviews*, *138*(1). <https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.13105>
- Cirtwill, A. R., Eklf, A., Roslin, T., Wootton, K., & Gravel, D. (2019). A quantitative framework for investigating the reliability of empirical network construction. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, *10*(6), 902–911. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13180>
- Clegg, T., Ali, M., & Beckerman, A. P. (2018). The impact of intraspecific variation on food web structure. *Ecology*, *99*(12), 2712–2720. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecy.2523>
- Curtsdotter, A., Banks, H. T., Banks, J. E., Jonsson, M., Jonsson, T., Laubmeier, A. N., Traugott, M., & Bommarco, R. (2019). Ecosystem function in predator–prey food webs—confronting dynamic models with

- empirical data. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 88(2), 196–210. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2656.12892>
- Dalla Riva, G. V., & Stouffer, D. B. (2016). Exploring the evolutionary signature of food webs’ backbones using functional traits. *Oikos*, 125(4), 446–456. <https://doi.org/10.1111/oik.02305>
- Dallas, T., Park, A. W., & Drake, J. M. (2017). Predicting cryptic links in host-parasite networks. *PLOS Computational Biology*, 13(5), e1005557. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1005557>
- Danet, A., Kéfi, S., Johnson, T. F., & Beckerman, A. P. (2024). *Response diversity is a major driver of temporal stability in complex food webs* (p. 2024.08.29.610288). bioRxiv. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.08.29.610288>
- Dansereau, G., Barros, C., & Poisot, T. (2024). Spatially explicit predictions of food web structure from regional-level data. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 379(1909). <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2023.0166>
- Delmas, E., Besson, M., Brice, M.-H., Burkle, L. A., Riva, G. V. D., Fortin, M.-J., Gravel, D., Guimarães, P. R., Hembry, D. H., Newman, E. A., Olesen, J. M., Pires, M. M., Yeakel, J. D., & Poisot, T. (2019). Analysing ecological networks of species interactions. *Biological Reviews*, 94(1), 16–36. <https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12433>
- Delmas, E., Brose, U., Gravel, D., Stouffer, D. B., & Poisot, T. (2017). Simulations of biomass dynamics in community food webs. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 8(7), 881–886. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12713>
- Desjardins-Proulx, P., Laigle, I., Poisot, T., & Gravel, D. (2017). Ecological interactions and the Netflix problem. *PeerJ*, 5, e3644. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.3644>
- Dormann, C. F. (2023). The rise, and possible fall, of network ecology. In *Defining Agroecology – A Festschrift for Teja Tscharnke* (pp. 143–159.). Tredition.
- Dunhill, A. M., Zarzychny, K., Shaw, J. O., Atkinson, J. W., Little, C. T. S., & Beckerman, A. P. (2024). Extinction cascades, community collapse, and recovery across a Mesozoic hyperthermal event. *Nature Communications*, 15(1), 8599. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-024-53000-2>
- Dunne, J. A. (2006). The Network Structure of Food Webs. In J. A. Dunne & M. Pascual (Eds.), *Ecological networks: Linking structure and dynamics* (pp. 27–86). Oxford University Press.
- Dunne, J. A., Williams, R. J., Martinez, N. D., Wood, R. A., & Erwin, D. H. (2008). Compilation and Network Analyses of Cambrian Food Webs. *PLOS Biology*, 6(4), e102. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.0060102>
- Eklöf, A., Tang, S., & Allesina, S. (2013). Secondary extinctions in food webs: A Bayesian network approach. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 4(8), 760–770. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12062>
- Fortuna, M. A., & Bascompte, J. (2006). Habitat loss and the structure of plant-animal mutualistic networks:

Mutualistic networks and habitat loss. *Ecology Letters*, 9(3), 281–286. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2005.00868.x>

Fricke, E. C., Hsieh, C., Middleton, O., Gorczynski, D., Cappello, C. D., Sanisidro, O., Rowan, J., Svenning, J.-C., & Beaudrot, L. (2022). Collapse of terrestrial mammal food webs since the Late Pleistocene. *Science*, 377(6609), 1008–1011. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abn4012>

García-Callejas, D., Godoy, O., Buche, L., Hurtado, M., Lanuza, J. B., Allen-Perkins, A., & Bartomeus, I. (2023). Non-random interactions within and across guilds shape the potential to coexist in multi-trophic ecological communities. *Ecology Letters*, 26(6), 831–842. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.14206>

Golubski, A. J., & Abrams, P. A. (2011). Modifying modifiers: What happens when interspecific interactions interact? *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 80(5), 1097–1108. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2656.2011.01852.x>

Gómez, J. M., Verdú, M., & Perfectti, F. (2010). Ecological interactions are evolutionarily conserved across the entire tree of life. *Nature*, 465(7300), 918–921. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature09113>

Gravel, D., Baiser, B., Dunne, J. A., Kopelke, J.-P., Martinez, N. D., Nyman, T., Poisot, T., Stouffer, D. B., Tylianakis, J. M., Wood, S. A., & Roslin, T. (2019). Bringing Elton and Grinnell together: A quantitative framework to represent the biogeography of ecological interaction networks. *Ecography*, 42(3), 401–415. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ecog.04006>

Higino, G. T., Banville, F., Dansereau, G., Muñoz, N. R. F., Windsor, F., & Poisot, T. (2023). Mismatch between IUCN range maps and species interactions data illustrated using the Serengeti food web. *PeerJ*, 11, e14620. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.14620>

Hubbell, S. P. (2001). *The Unified Neutral Theory of Biodiversity and Biogeography (MPB-32)*. Princeton University Press. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt7rj8w>

Hui, C., & Richardson, D. M. (2019). How to Invade an Ecological Network. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 34(2), 121–131. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2018.11.003>

Ings, T. C., Montoya, J. M., Bascompte, J., Blüthgen, N., Brown, L., Dormann, C. F., Edwards, F., Figueroa, D., Jacob, U., Jones, J. I., Lauridsen, R. B., Ledger, M. E., Lewis, H. M., Olesen, J. M., van Veen, F. J. F., Warren, P. H., & Woodward, G. (2009). Ecological networks—beyond food webs. *The Journal of Animal Ecology*, 78(1), 253–269. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2656.2008.01460.x>

Jordano, P. (2016a). Chasing Ecological Interactions. *PLOS Biology*, 14(9), e1002559. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1002559>

Jordano, P. (2016b). Sampling networks of ecological interactions. *Functional Ecology*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.12763>

Kamaru, D. N., Palmer, T. M., Riginos, C., Ford, A. T., Belnap, J., Chira, R. M., Githaiga, J. M., Gituku,

- B. C., Hays, B. R., Kavwele, C. M., Kibungei, A. K., Lamb, C. T., Maiyo, N. J., Milligan, P. D., Mutisya, S., Ng'weno, C. C., Ogutu, M., Pietrek, A. G., Wildt, B. T., & Goheen, J. R. (2024). Disruption of an ant-plant mutualism shapes interactions between lions and their primary prey. *Science*, *383*(6681), 433–438. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.adg1464>
- Kéfi, S., Berlow, E. L., Wieters, E. A., Joppa, L. N., Wood, S. A., Brose, U., & Navarrete, S. A. (2015). Network structure beyond food webs: Mapping non-trophic and trophic interactions on Chilean rocky shores. *Ecology*, *96*(1), 291–303. <https://doi.org/10.1890/13-1424.1>
- Kéfi, S., Berlow, E. L., Wieters, E. A., Navarrete, S. A., Petchey, O. L., Wood, S. A., Boit, A., Joppa, L. N., Lafferty, K. D., Williams, R. J., Martinez, N. D., Menge, B. A., Blanchette, C. A., Iles, A. C., & Brose, U. (2012). More than a meal... integrating non-feeding interactions into food webs: More than a meal *Ecology Letters*, *15*(4), 291–300. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2011.01732.x>
- Krause, A. E., Frank, K. A., Mason, D. M., Ulanowicz, R. E., & Taylor, W. W. (2003). Compartments revealed in food-web structure. *Nature*, *426*(6964), 282–285. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature02115>
- Krishna, A., Guimarães Jr, P. R., Jordano, P., & Bascompte, J. (2008). A neutral-niche theory of nestedness in mutualistic networks. *Oikos*, *117*(11), 1609–1618. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0706.2008.16540.x>
- Lajaaity, I., Bonnici, I., Kéfi, S., Mayall, H., Danet, A., Beckerman, A. P., Malpas, T., & Delmas, E. (2024). *EcologicalNetworksDynamics.jl A Julia package to simulate the temporal dynamics of complex ecological networks* (p. 2024.03.20.585899). bioRxiv. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.03.20.585899>
- Lindeman, R. L. (1942). The Trophic-Dynamic Aspect of Ecology. *Ecology*, *23*(4), 399–417. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1930126>
- Llewellyn, J., Strona, G., Dickman, C. R., Greenville, A. C., Wardle, G. M., Lee, M. S. Y., Doherty, S., Shabani, F., Saltré, F., & Bradshaw, C. J. A. (2023). Predicting predator–prey interactions in terrestrial endotherms using random forest. *Ecography*, *2023*(9), e06619. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ecog.06619>
- Loreau, M., & de Mazancourt, C. (2013). Biodiversity and ecosystem stability: A synthesis of underlying mechanisms. *Ecology Letters*, *16*(s1), 106–115. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12073>
- Momal, R., Robin, S., & Ambroise, C. (2020). Tree-based inference of species interaction networks from abundance data. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, *11*(5), 621–632. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13380>
- Morales-Castilla, I., Matias, M. G., Gravel, D., & Araújo, M. B. (2015). Inferring biotic interactions from proxies. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, *30*(6), 347–356. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2015.03.014>
- Moulatlet, G., Luna, P., Dattilo, W., & Villalobos, F. (2024). *The scaling of trophic specialization in interaction networks across levels of organization*. Authorea. <https://doi.org/10.22541/au.172977303.33335171/v1>

- Pawar, S., Dell, A. I., & Savage, V. M. (2012). Dimensionality of consumer search space drives trophic interaction strengths. *Nature*, 486(7404), 485–489. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature11131>
- Petchey, O. L., Beckerman, A. P., Riede, J. O., & Warren, P. H. (2008). Size, foraging, and food web structure. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 105(11), 4191–4196. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0710672105>
- Pichler, M., Boreux, V., Klein, A.-M., Schleuning, M., & Hartig, F. (2020). Machine learning algorithms to infer trait-matching and predict species interactions in ecological networks. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 11(2), 281–293. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13329>
- Pilosof, S., Porter, M. A., Pascual, M., & Kéfi, S. (2017). The multilayer nature of ecological networks. *Nature Ecology & Evolution*, 1(4), 101. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-017-0101>
- Poisot, T. (2023). Guidelines for the prediction of species interactions through binary classification. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 14(5), 1333–1345. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.14071>
- Poisot, T., Stouffer, D. B., & Gravel, D. (2015). Beyond species: Why ecological interaction networks vary through space and time. *Oikos*, 124(3), 243–251. <https://doi.org/10.1111/oik.01719>
- Poisot, T., Stouffer, D. B., & Kéfi, S. (2016). Describe, understand and predict: Why do we need networks in ecology? *Functional Ecology*, 30(12), 1878–1882. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/48582345>
- Polis, G. A. (1991). Complex Trophic Interactions in Deserts: An Empirical Critique of Food-Web Theory. *The American Naturalist*, 138(1), 123–155. <https://doi.org/10.1086/285208>
- Pollock, L. J., Tingley, R., Morris, W. K., Golding, N., O’Hara, R. B., Parris, K. M., Vesk, P. A., & McCarthy, M. A. (2014). Understanding co-occurrence by modelling species simultaneously with a Joint Species Distribution Model (JSDM). *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 5(5), 397–406. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12180>
- Pomeranz, J. P. F., Thompson, R. M., Poisot, T., & Harding, J. S. (2019). Inferring predator–prey interactions in food webs. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 10(3), 356–367. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13125>
- Portalier, S. M. J., Fussmann, G. F., Loreau, M., & Cherif, M. (2019). The mechanics of predator–prey interactions: First principles of physics predict predator–prey size ratios. *Functional Ecology*, 33(2), 323–334. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.13254>
- Pringle, R. M. (2020). Untangling Food Webs. In *Unsolved Problems in Ecology* (pp. 225–238). Princeton University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9780691195322-020>
- Pringle, R. M., & Hutchinson, M. C. (2020). Resolving Food-Web Structure. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution and Systematics*, 51(Volume 51, 2020), 55–80. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-110218-024908>

- Proulx, S. R., Promislow, D. E. L., & Phillips, P. C. (2005). Network thinking in ecology and evolution. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 20(6), 345–353. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2005.04.004>
- Pyke, G. (1984). Optimal Foraging Theory: A Critical Review. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution and Systematic*, 15, 523–575. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.15.1.523>
- Quintero, E., Arroyo-Correa, B., Isla, J., Rodríguez-Sánchez, F., & Jordano, P. (2024). *Downscaling mutualistic networks from species to individuals reveals consistent interaction niches and roles within plant populations* (p. 2024.02.02.578595). bioRxiv. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.02.02.578595>
- Roopnarine, P. D. (2006). Extinction Cascades and Catastrophe in Ancient Food Webs. *Paleobiology*, 32(1), 1–19. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/4096814>
- Roopnarine, P. D. (2017). Ecological Modelling of Paleocommunity Food Webs. In *Conservation Paleobiology: Using the Past to Manage for the Future* (pp. 201–226). University of Chicago Press.
- Saberski, E., Lorimer, T., Carpenter, D., Deyle, E., Merz, E., Park, J., Pao, G. M., & Sugihara, G. (2024). The impact of data resolution on dynamic causal inference in multiscale ecological networks. *Communications Biology*, 7(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s42003-024-07054-z>
- Schwarz, B., Vázquez, D. P., CaraDonna, P. J., Knight, T. M., Benadi, G., Dormann, C. F., Gauzens, B., Motivans, E., Resasco, J., Blüthgen, N., Burkle, L. A., Fang, Q., Kaiser-Bunbury, C. N., Alarcón, R., Bain, J. A., Chacoff, N. P., Huang, S.-Q., LeBuhn, G., MacLeod, M., ... Fründ, J. (2020). Temporal scale-dependence of plant–pollinator networks. *Oikos*, 129(9), 1289–1302. <https://doi.org/10.1111/oik.07303>
- Segar, S. T., Fayle, T. M., Srivastava, D. S., Lewinsohn, T. M., Lewis, O. T., Novotny, V., Kitching, R. L., & Maunsell, S. C. (2020). The Role of Evolution in Shaping Ecological Networks. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 35(5), 454–466. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2020.01.004>
- Shaw, J. O., Dunhill, A. M., Beckerman, A. P., Dunne, J. A., & Hull, P. M. (2024). *A framework for reconstructing ancient food webs using functional trait data* (p. 2024.01.30.578036). bioRxiv. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.01.30.578036>
- Soberón, J. (2007). Grinnellian and Eltonian niches and geographic distributions of species. *Ecology Letters*, 10(12), 1115–1123. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2007.01107.x>
- Song, C., & Levine, J. M. (2024). *Rigorous (in)validation of ecological models* (p. 2024.09.19.613075). bioRxiv. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.09.19.613075>
- Staniczenko, P. P. A., Lewis, O. T., Jones, N. S., & Reed-Tsochas, F. (2010). Structural dynamics and robustness of food webs. *Ecology Letters*, 13(7), 891–899. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2010.01485.x>
- Stephens, D. W., & Krebs, J. R. (1986). *Foraging Theory* (Vol. 1). Princeton University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvs32s6b>

- Stock, M. (2021). Pairwise learning for predicting pollination interactions based on traits and phylogeny. *Ecological Modelling*, 14.
- Stouffer, D. B. (2019). All ecological models are wrong, but some are useful. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 88(2), 192–195. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2656.12949>
- Strydom, T., Bouskila, S., Banville, F., Barros, C., Caron, D., Farrell, M. J., Fortin, M.-J., Hemming, V., Mercier, B., Pollock, L. J., Runghen, R., Dalla Riva, G. V., & Poisot, T. (2022). Food web reconstruction through phylogenetic transfer of low-rank network representation. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 13(12), 2838–2849. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13835>
- Strydom, T., Bouskila, S., Banville, F., Barros, C., Caron, D., Farrell, M. J., Fortin, M.-J., Mercier, B., Pollock, L. J., Runghen, R., Dalla Riva, G. V., & Poisot, T. (2023). Graph embedding and transfer learning can help predict potential species interaction networks despite data limitations. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 14(12), 2917–2930. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.14228>
- Strydom, T., Catchen, M. D., Banville, F., Caron, D., Dansereau, G., Desjardins-Proulx, P., Forero-Muñoz, N. R., Higino, G., Mercier, B., Gonzalez, A., Gravel, D., Pollock, L., & Poisot, T. (2021). A roadmap towards predicting species interaction networks (across space and time). *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 376(1837), 20210063. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2021.0063>
- Strydom, T., Dalla Riva, G. V., & Poisot, T. (2021). SVD Entropy Reveals the High Complexity of Ecological Networks. *Frontiers in Ecology and Evolution*, 9. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fevo.2021.623141>
- Terry, J. C. D., & Lewis, O. T. (2020). Finding missing links in interaction networks. *Ecology*, 101(7), e03047. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecy.3047>
- Van De Walle, R., Logghe, G., Haas, N., Massol, F., Vandegehuchte, M. L., & Bonte, D. (2023). Arthropod food webs predicted from body size ratios are improved by incorporating prey defensive properties. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 92(4), 913–924. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2656.13905>
- Vázquez, D. P., Blüthgen, N., Cagnolo, L., & Chacoff, N. P. (2009). Uniting pattern and process in plant–animal mutualistic networks: A review. *Annals of Botany*, 103(9), 1445–1457. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcp057>
- Wells, K., & O’Hara, R. B. (2013). Species interactions: Estimating per-individual interaction strength and covariates before simplifying data into per-species ecological networks. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 4(1), 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2041-210x.2012.00249.x>
- Williams, R. J., & Martinez, N. D. (2000). Simple rules yield complex food webs. *Nature*, 404(6774), 180–183. <https://doi.org/10.1038/35004572>
- Williams, R. J., & Martinez, N. D. (2008). Success and its limits among structural models of complex food webs. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 77(3), 512–519. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2656.2008.01362.x>

- Windsor, F. M., van den Hoogen, J., Crowther, T. W., & Evans, D. M. (2023). Using ecological networks to answer questions in global biogeography and ecology. *Journal of Biogeography*, 50(1), 57–69. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.14447>
- Wooster, E. I. F., Middleton, O. S., Wallach, A. D., Ramp, D., Sanisidro, O., Harris, V. K., Rowan, J., Schowaneck, S. D., Gordon, C. E., Svenning, J.-C., Davis, M., Scharlemann, J. P. W., Nimmo, D. G., Lundgren, E. J., & Sandom, C. J. (2024). Australia’s recently established predators restore complexity to food webs simplified by extinction. *Current Biology*, 34(22), 5164–5172.e2. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2024.09.049>
- Wootton, K. L., Curtsdotter, A., Roslin, T., Bommarco, R., & Jonsson, T. (2023). Towards a modular theory of trophic interactions. *Functional Ecology*, 37(1), 26–43. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.13954>
- Yeakel, J. D., Pires, M. M., Rudolf, L., Dominy, N. J., Koch, P. L., Guimarães, P. R., & Gross, T. (2014). Collapse of an ecological network in Ancient Egypt. *PNAS*, 111(40), 14472–14477. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1408471111>
- Yodzis, P. (1982). The Compartmentation of Real and Assembled Ecosystems. *The American Naturalist*, 120(5), 551–570. <https://doi.org/10.1086/284013>

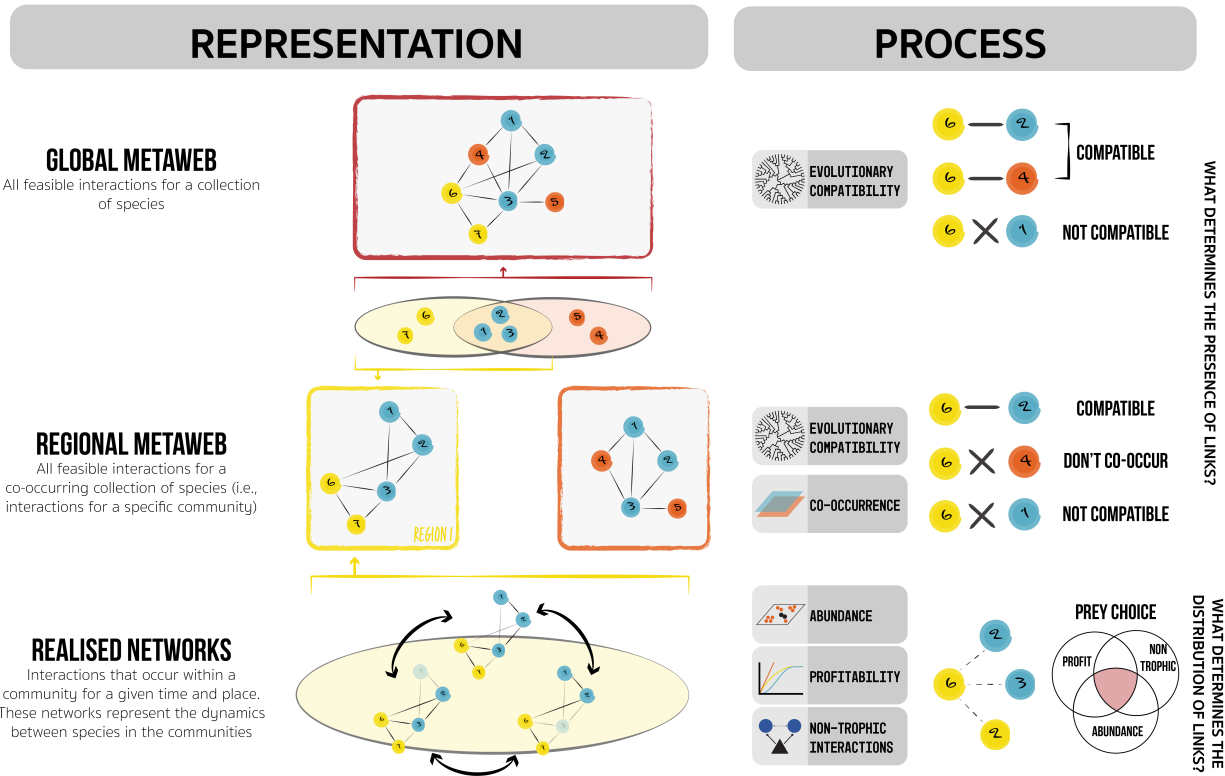


Figure 1: Aligning the various processes that determine interactions (right column) with the different network representations (left column). First, we start with a **global metaweb** this network captures all possible interactions for a collection of species in the global context. However, within the 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 patterns of the difference species - as shown here we have two regions with some species (blue) that are found in both regions and others endemic to either region one (yellow) or region two (orange). However even within a region we do not expect that 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.

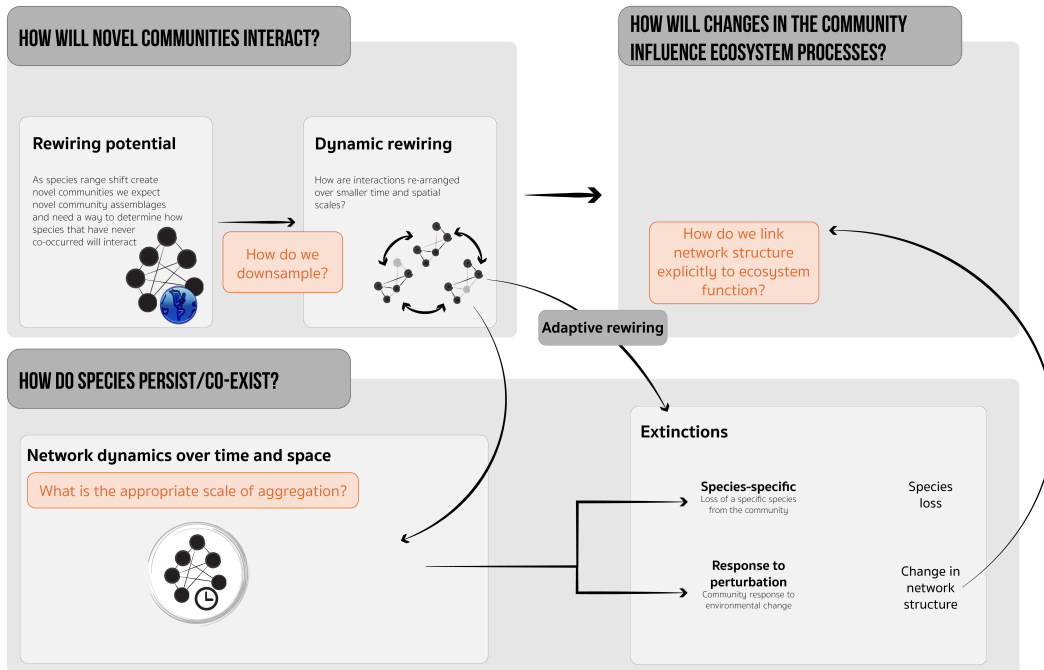


Figure 2: Here we highlight some of the outstanding questions in both network as well as general ecology, as well as some of the outstanding methodological challenges with regards to constructing food webs (shown in orange) that we are faced with.