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 wel 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 species richness, stability,
- and function (Loreau & de Mazancourt, 2013). These relate to the abundance, distribution, functions, and
- 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
- 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
- o (Blüthgen, 2010; Dormann, 2023). Against this, it is important to evaluate the value and the limitations of
- the various network conceptualisations of biodiversity (Blüthgen & Staab, 2024). In this perspective we aim
- to provide an overview of different food web representations, particularly how each representation embeds
- assumptions about the processes that determine interactions (Section 2) about the levels of organization
- at which this occurs (i.e. the biological, ecological, spatial/temporal scale) and and the way in which we
- 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).
- Fundamentally, we are talking about an intersection of the type of data used to construct a network and
- the underlying theory as to what drives the resolution and occurrence of interactions between species in
- 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.
- In their recent work, Gauzens et al. (2025) showcased a 2+2 decomposition of networks around aggregated
- 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
- 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
- driven breakdown in Gauzens et al. (2025) (e.g. their Tables 1 and 2). Our approach delivers a hierarchical

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

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

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

Networks in ecology have multiple uses, representing an 'object' from which inferences can be made. For example, a network is needed to make inference specifically about the structure of communities. The structure of networks - their topology - have a long history reflecting core theory about energy flow [Lindeman etc], function [REF] and even stability [REF]. Networks are thus required as the response variable in evaluating ecological theory and statistical models of 'generative processes' giving rise to such structure [REF]. Such structure is now commonly used to compare communities along environmental gradients [REF]. Networks and 51 their topology are also used as a platform for evaluating 'downstream' responses to stressors such as evaluating patterns of secondary extinction [REF]. Finally, they are commonly used as a platform for implementing mathematical models of community dynamics [REF]; delivering inference about stability, function, invasive species, climate change, contaminants, and secondary extinction, to name a few applications [REF]. Against this backdrop of multiple research agendas, the definition of 'edges' and 'nodes', and the levels of organisation at which they are defined, take many forms (Moulatlet et al., 2024; Poisot, Stouffer, et al., 2016), each of 57 which encode a series of assumptions within a network. Here we introduce a perspective on these baseline assumptions.

1.1 How do we define a node?

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

$_{73}$ 1.2 What is captured by an edge?

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

88 1.3 Network representations

Against these definitions of nodes and edges, networks fall into two major 'types': metawebs, traditionally defined as all 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 and temporal scale at which they are constructed, and the associated processes that are assumed to drive pattern at these scales. A metaweb is, at its core, a list of *feasible* interactions between pairs of species. The feasibility for a given pair is derived from the complementarity (phylogenetic relationships) of their traits, typically aligned with feeding. Feasibility can be further refined by co-occurrence leading to the transition from a global to regional metaweb. Metawebs thus provide a means to identify evolutionarily plausible links, regionally plausible interactions, the set of ecologically possible, i.e., forbidden, links (Jordano, 2016b), and ultimately a definition of the plausible complete diet of a species (Strydom et al., 2023). In contrast, realised networks are typically more localised in space and time, and the links between species 100 are contingent on 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 102 and even when the realised network is presented as a binary matrix, the edges imply a function is available 103 to define the strength of an interaction. A realised network is therefore not simply the downscaling of a 104 metaweb to a smaller scale (e.g., moving from the country to the 1x1 km² scale based on fine-scale species 105 co-occurrence). Instead, realised webs capture processes that determine the realisation of an interaction and flows of energy in a community. Specifically, in realised webs, the definition of an edge shifts from being 107 determined by feasibility to that of choices and consequences that centre around energy. If one were to take the same community of species and constructed both a metaweb and realised network the two networks might 109 have the same species but would be structurally different, owing to the differences in the 'rules' constraining the presence of links. This distinction between metawebs and realised webs leads to a further insight. Links 111 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 as truly absent but rather 113

2 From Nodes and Edges to Process and Constraints

as absent due to the broader environmental/community context.

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

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

[Figure 1 about here.]

2.1 Processes that determine the feasibility of an interaction

Evolutionary compatibility and co-occurrence are the two principle processes that 'act' at the species pair of interest and define feasibility. The scale of inference and set of processes embodied in these two constraints typically combine to define a 'list' of interactions that are viable/feasible and defined strictly as present/absent.

Reflecting on the previous section, nodes are typically species and rules defining edges are defined by trait complementarity (phylogenetic) and/or co-occurrence. Here we provide more insight into each process.

131 Evolutionary compatibility

124

125

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

Networks do not properly arise from models based on this constraint. Instead, interacting species pairs are defined and these are represented as binary (possible vs forbidden) or probabilistic (Banville et al., 2025). For example, in the metaweb constructed by Strydom et al. (2022) probabilities are quantified as the confidence of a specific being *possible* 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 global feasibility of links between species pairs despite the fact that they do not co-occur (see Figure 1).

144 (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. Knowledge on the co-occurrence of species allows us to spatially constrain a global metaweb to reflect regional metawebs (Dansereau, Barros, et al., 2024). In the context of Figure 1 this would be the metawebs for regions one and two.

We reinforce that these two constraints don't deliver a network *per se*, but a list of feasible species pairs.

Although it is possible to build a network from the list of interactions generated by these constraints, it is
important to be aware that the structure of this network is not constrained by any community context: just
because species are able to interact does not mean that they will (Caron et al., 2024; Poisot et al., 2015).

2.2 Processes that realise networks

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

163 Abundance

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

Diet choice

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

178 al., 2019).

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

86 Non-trophic interactions

We include non-trophic interactions (see Miele et al., 2019) here not as a determinant of links, but a modifier 187 of them - they are the community context above and beyond co-occurrence and abundance. Non-trophic 188 interactions include competition for space, predator interference, refuge provisioning, recruitment facilitation as well as non-trophic effects that increase or decrease mortality. These interactions (Ings et al., 2009) specifically 190 modify either the realisation or strength of trophic interactions (Golubski & Abrams, 2011; Kamaru et al., 191 2024; Pilosof et al., 2017; Staniczenko et al., 2010) and represent direct (e.g., predator a outcompetes predator 192 b) and indirect (e.g., mutualistic/facilitative interactions) mechanisms. They operate on the realisation of a 193 network by altering the fine-scale distribution and abundance of species and relative contributions of direct 194 and indirect effects to biomass, persistence, stability and the functioning of the communities (Buche et al., 195 2024; Kéfi et al., 2012, 2015; Miele et al., 2019). 196

are these strictly modifiers of realised networks? - because we class them as community context with co-occurrence, a modifier of feasible networks....

99 3 Network construction

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

$_{205}$ 3.1 Why construct networks?

Networks are a representation of biodiversity. In a perfect world, we might know about all interactions. However, the empirical collection of interaction data is both costly and challenging to execute (Jordano, 207 2016a, 2016b; Poisot et al., 2021). In the absence of robust empirical data, we construct models that facilitate interpolation and gap-filling of existing empirical datasets (e.g., Biton et al., 2024; Dallas et al., 2017; Poisot 209 et al., 2023; Stock et al., 2017), predict the feasibility of interaction among pairs of species, or directly predict network structure (see Strydom, Catchen, et al., 2021 for a broader discussion). 211 They are unique in delivering more than just estimates of species richness. As note in the introduction, a 212 network embodies the organising structure of biodiversity and allows numerous opportunities for 'downstream' analysis, including the comparison of structures, estimation of energy flux or extinction dynamics and 214 ultimately form the structural inputs to dynamical systems models that facilitate ecological and conservation 215 relevant inference about productivity-diversity-stability-function relationships (Danet et al., 2024) in space 216 and time. But making such inferences requires careful attention to one or more of the processes discussed in 217

219 3.2 Construction through induction

Section 2.

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

5 3.2.1 Species specific networks: construction through node level induction

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

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

in data poor regions and 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 (Van der Putten et al., 2010). Furthermore, they have the capacity to evaluate a role of interactions among species relative to their distribution by accounting for the role of the environment and the role of species interactions (Gravel et al., 2019; Higino et al., 2023; Pollock et al., 2014). There are substantial data requirements for these approaches including expert knowledge, species traits and phylogenetic relationships and/or interaction data on related species or communities.

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

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

Finally, graph embedding uses the structural features of a known network to infer the position of species in an unknown network through the decomposition of the interaction onto the embedding space. This decomposition relies on a combination of ecological proxies (e.g. ???) in conjunction with known interactions to infer the latent values of species What is a latent value of a species with respect to inferring interactions?

See Strydom et al. (2023) for a detailed review of methods and Strydom et al. (2022) for a specific example.

3.2.2 Species agnostic networks: construction through structure induction

Networks in this category are generated rules that create non-random (note that this is irritated by the
Random models paragraph below; do we need that? The stochastic models are the 'real' version
of this type of network?) networks that reflect empirical knowledge of ecological network structures and
evaluated by matching predictions to this *expected* structure of the network(s). The determination of links
between species is only implicitly linked to properties of the nodes (see ADBM 5 rules). This means these

networks are usually not species specific. Although these models are data input light, often requiring only species richness and an estimate of the number of expected links, they make clear assumptions regarding what 267 the expectations are for network structure. These are some of the most commonly used network generation tools (e.g. the Niche model REF). There are two sub-categories of these species agnostic networks: 269 Random network models (Bascompte et al., 2003; e.g., Erdős & Rényi, 1959; Fortuna & Bascompte, 2006) 270 represent a 'process free' model. These models are not explicitly tied to a process discussed in Section 2, rather links are randomly distributed among nodes. Although these models lack real world tractability (Bascompte, 272 2007) they are often used as a 'null hypothesis' to ask questions about network structure (e.g., Banville et al., 2023; Strydom, Dalla Riva, et al., 2021). 274 Stochastic network models use a probabilistic rule-set about diet choice and niche breadth to reflect fundamental 275 ideas of foraging biology. RATHER THAN ALLESINA, I'D SUGGEST PRESENTING THE 5 RULES IN THE ADBM EXPLANATION OF THE NICHE MODEL These models that are based 277 on the compartmentation and acquisition of energy for species at different trophic levels (Allesina & Pascual, 2009; Krause et al., 2003) and that network structure can be determined by distributing interactions along 279 single dimension [the 'niche axis'; Allesina et al. (2008)]. Typically these models parametrise some aspect of 280 the network structure (although see Allesina & Pascual, 2009 for a parameter-free model). These models include the most commonly used network generator, the Niche model (Williams & Martinez, 2000), as well as 282 the original Cascade model (Cohen et al., 1990) and the derived Nested hierarchy model (Cattin et al., 2004). These models often form the basis for dynamic models e.g., the allometric trophic network (Brose et al., 2006; 284 Schneider et al., 2016) and bioenergetic food web models (Delmas et al., 2017).

$_{86}$ 3.3 Construction through deduction

In contrast to the above approaches centred on feasibility, relised networks via methods reflecting abundance 287 and diet choice typically rely on deductive reasoning and have a unique agenda to those above. In contrast to 288 the inductive methods, inference about a realise network follows from a set of premises defining generative processes, often referred to as mechanisms. Typically, models that embed abundance and diet choice constraints 290 reference theory that allows inference about the distribution and strength of interactions. Such models are 291 'network topology generators' and have a strong representation in research comparing network structures along environmental gradients and delivering inference about extinctions and energy flux. They also provide 293 the structural backbone for dynamical systems modelling to address questions about stability-structureproductivity-function relationships, secondary extinction dynamics, species invasion and climate change. 295 There are two broad group of models in this deductive category.

97 3.3.1 Species-specific networks

These models capture the behaviour of the nodes by explicitly taking into account the properties of the
different species in the community. Which means that there is a degree of variance in which links are predicted
between species unlike the more 'static' predictions made by inductive models. However, these networks are
'costly' to construct in real world settings (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.

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

There is a broader group of models that focus on determining interactions in terms of energetic constraints 309 on diet breadth, often using the ratio of consumer-resource bodysize as a proxy for capturing the energetic constraints of feeding. Models such as those developed by Portalier et al. (2019) and Wootton et al. (2023) 311 are similar to the mechanistic approaches discussed in Section 3.2, however instead of determining interactions 312 based on mechanistic feasibility it is rather constrained by the energetic cost of predation. Note that although 313 these models do not place any explicit constraints on the expected structure of the network, the links should 314 still be considered as 'realised' owing to the energetic constraint placed on links. A different subset of diet models (e.g., Beckerman et al., 2006; Petchey et al., 2008) use a diet choice approach, however similar to the 316 stochastic network models they also embed assumptions on network structure. Thus these models predict both interactions and network structure simultaneously, although they would benefit in being refined by more 318 explicitly accounting for trait-based (i.e., feasibility) paramterisation (Curtsdotter et al., 2019).

4 Making Progress with Networks

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

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

In order to effectively use networks to aid us in answering questions about conservation/risk assessment/management and core ecological theory, we need to be mindful that we are mapping the *correct* network representation to the question of interest (Gauzens et al., 2025). Notably, there are certain questions that cannot be answered using specific network representations as the scale of the question of interest is fundamentally misaligned with either the process captured by a specific network representation Section 2.1, the underlying data that is used to construct it Section 3 or both of these factors.

Here we discuss and map the different network representations shown in Figure 1 to 'appropriate' research questions and agendas [see also Table 1]. We also highlight some of the key methodological challenges that currently limit our conceptualisation of a 'network' and thus impact their effective practical application in real world settings.

Table 1: Table Caption

Network Representation	Example Research Question
Global Metaweb	How will novel communities respond to $e.g.$
	extinction, turnover, invasion and rewilding
	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 $e.g.$, a
	protected area
	Refinement/Extension of species distribution models
Realised webs	How do we allocate multiple stressors across networks
	Temperature threshold to community collapse

Network Representation	Example Research Question
	Extinction and persistence after
	harvesting/invasion/extinction
	Stability-diversity-productivity-function
	Ecosystem level processes
	Meta communitites and the idea of
	meta-network-communities

4.1 Key Eco-Evo-Conservation Questions

4.1.1 Global Metawebs

The interactions in global metawebs are not constrained by the realisation of specific community assemblages (or species co-occurrence). These networks provide a platform for answering questions that assume interactions 347 could occur between species (feasibility) or where the potential diet breadth of species is required. Examples of appropriate research questions at this scale includes those about hypothetical or novel communities and 349 interactions under future climate change scenarios, or the potential 'position' of an invasive (or re-introduced) species within a network (Hui & Richardson, 2019). This scale is also appropriate for a particularly class 351 of questions related to the potential (eco-evolutionary) rewiring capacity of species, and how this may help inform on the opportunities for persistence of species within new community assemblages (Marjakangas et al., 2025). The implicit focus on feasibility in these examples highlights that global metawebs are linked to strong proxies for targets and mechanisms of evolutionary change. This offers a network scale for modelling 355 ecological-evolutionary dynamics and the role that both the evolutionary history, natural selection and 356 phenotypic plasticity shapes the diet breadth of species.

358 4.1.2 Regional Metawebs

Regional metawebs are conceptually a spatially constrained global metaweb. The make explicit co-occurence.

Against this backdrop, they are conceptually aligned with similar questions to those posed above, with the

added focus on a community facing real challenge. Additionally, regional metawebs can and have been used to

refine and constrain species distribution model predictions, giving us more refined range maps (García-Callejas

et al., 2023) or community composition under climate change scenarios, even at global scales (Hao et al.,

2025).

However we must exercise a high degree of caution when comparing structures among regional metwebs,

wither discrete collections or along environmental gradients. At this scale, where the network embeds the
assumptions of feasibility, it is vital to disentangle structural change per se from multiple processes that might
determine species turnover (e.g. - diversity) because link distributions can be driven by both environmental
filtering and this turnover [NOT SURE THIS IS CORRECT; needs refinement and references].

4.1.3 Realised networks [not totally convinced we've done 'justice' here. This was the type that has the most questions in our brainstorm.... i feel like it needs to take that list and create three groups of example questions]

370

371

372

Realised network are the most representative of what comes to mind when people think of networks, and more specifically how we can use them to help inform on larger biogeographic processes (Thuiller et al., 2024). This is partially because of the popularity and profile of generative network models like the Cascade and Niche model which produce realised network representations, and because they represent a shift in the 'currency' which determine interactions and that is constrained by a broader community and environmental context. This change in currency and context allows us the opportunity to ask questions that revolve around major ecological theory - e.g. community stability and resilience, biodiversity dynamics, ecosystem function, structure-function relationships - and around major conservation and climate change global challenges - e.g. temperature change, extinction dynamics, invasion impacts and reintroductions/rewilding.

These network representations embody an explicit focus on the link between network structure to ecosystem function. [DON'T LOVE THIS -> dynamic is the wrong word as we are still talking topologies; is it that turnover processes are isolated from structure?] The dynamic nature of realised webs mean that they allow us to think about the propagation of change (across both time and space) which allow us to ask questions about the persistence of communities and how they respond to perturbations or stressors (at both the level of the node as well as modification of links).

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

4.2 Key methodological challenges

- As noted above, the three types of networks help highlight longstanding methodological challenges that affect
- our abiloty to increase both precision and accuracy of inference derived from the questions we highlight above.
- 399 Here we review some of these challenges and opportunities that are arising to mitigate them.
- 400 Transitioning between metawebs and realised webs: Currently most approaches to modelling realised
- 401 networks fail to explicitly account for any form of evolutionary constraint (although Van De Walle et al.
- 402 (2023) and Wootton et al. (2023) have added traits to more) 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).
- $_{405}$ Importantly we need to think critically how the creation of either an 'ensemble network' or downsampled
- metaweb might change the underlying 'currency' of a nework and thus the underling defintiion of the edge e.g.
- the downsampling approach developed by Roopnarine (2006) structually constrains the network to structurally
- look like a realised web, but the links to not represent prey choice per se.
- 409 What about the eco-evolutionary space? What does Louille and Loreau's model represent?
- 410 The validation of network structure: 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). This makes it challenging to
- assess if models are capturing network structure accurately, especially if we are interested developing ways in
- which we can begin to downsample metawebs.
- 415 Is this a problem for meta and realised? I think it is? Expand to include two aspects: getting the network
- 416 properties right and getting the links correct.... two problems?
- 417 Making networks more tractible in applied spaces: There is a disconnect when it comes to effectively
- using networks in applied spaces (Dansereau, Braga, et al., 2024). WHY need three reasons...
- We need to make an effort to more efficiently map the from (structure) of a network to its function as well as
- 420 identify how this can effectively be integrated into policy to make it meaningful and actionable. Additionally
- we also need a firmer grasp as to what defines a 'network' as a unit, are the logical (environmental) boundaries
- between networks and how do these relate to 'management' units and scales (Fortin et al., 2021).
- 423 Understanding what emperical data represents: Ultimately, knowing what is right/precise/correct in an
- ecological network requires robust data. What does it mean when we 'observe' an interaction be that directly
- (predator actively feeding on prey) or indirectly via e.q., gut or isotope analysis. A network constructued with

- emperical data will most liekley still represents an 'accumulation' of feeding data and this is conceptually more closely aligned with idea of a metaweb. Something about how this is a challenge if we want to use empirical networks to test or ask questions in the realised space.
- more on how we increase precision and accuracy (TSS speak) to get benchmark for link and structure correct

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.

440 References

- Allesina, S., Alonso, D., & Pascual, M. (2008). A General Model for Food Web Structure. Science, 320(5876),
- 442 658–661. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1156269
- 443 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. S. A., Brimacombe, C., Catchen, M. D., Dansereau, G., Higino, G.,
- Malpas, T., Mayall, H., Norman, K., Gravel, D., & Poisot, T. (2025). Deciphering Probabilistic Species
- Interaction Networks. *Ecology Letters*, 28(6), e70161. https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.70161
- Bascompte, J. (2007). Networks in ecology. Basic and Applied Ecology, 8(6), 485–490. https://doi.org/10.
- 452 1016/j.baae.2007.06.003
- 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
- 460 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.
- 462 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,
- 465 199(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. EcoEvoRxiv.
- ⁴⁷² Blanchet, F. G., Cazelles, K., & Gravel, D. (2020). Co-occurrence is not evidence of ecological interactions.
- 473 Ecology Letters, 23(7), 1050–1063. https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.13525
- ⁴⁷⁴ 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
- ⁴⁷⁶ 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.
- 478 1146/annurev-ecolsys-102722-021904
- 479 Bramon Mora, B., Gravel, D., Gilarranz, L. J., Poisot, T., & Stouffer, D. B. (2018). Identifying a common
- backbone of interactions underlying food webs from different ecosystems. Nature Communications, 9(1),
- 481 2603. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-05056-0
- 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

- Brose, U., Williams, R. J., & Martinez, N. D. (2006). Allometric scaling enhances stability in complex food
- webs. Ecology Letters, 9(11), 1228–1236. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2006.00978.x
- 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
- ⁴⁹² Buche, L., Bartomeus, I., & Godoy, O. (2024). Multitrophic Higher-Order Interactions Modulate Species
- 493 Persistence. The American Naturalist, 203(4), 458–472. https://doi.org/10.1086/729222
- 494 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
- 497 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/
- ⁴⁹⁹ journal.pone.0038295
- ⁵⁰⁰ 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,
- 502 33(4), e13807. https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.13807
- ⁵⁰³ 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
- ⁵⁰⁵ Cattin, M.-F., Bersier, L.-F., Banašek-Richter, C., Baltensperger, R., & Gabriel, J.-P. (2004). Phylogenetic
- constraints and adaptation explain food-web structure. Nature, 427(6977), 835–839. https://doi.org/10.
- 507 1038/nature02327
- ⁵⁰⁸ 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
- 512 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
- ⁵¹⁵ 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
- ⁵¹⁷ Cohen, J. E., Briand, F., & Newman, C. (1990). Community Food Webs: Data and Theory. Springer-Verlag.
- ⁵¹⁸ 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*
- 524 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
- Dansereau, G., Braga, J., Ficetola, G. F., Galiana, N., Gravel, D., Maiorano, L., Montoya, J. M., O'Connor,
- L., Pollock, L. J., Thuiller, W., Poisot, T., & Barros, C. (2024). Overcoming the disconnect between
- interaction networks and biodiversity conservation and management.
- 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-
- 535 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 Tscharntke (pp. 143–159.). Tredition.
- Dunhill, A. M., Zarzyczny, 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
- 543 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.
- Eklöf, A., Tang, S., & Allesina, S. (2013). Secondary extinctions in food webs: A Bayesian network approach.
- 546 Methods in Ecology and Evolution, 4(8), 760–770. https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12062
- 547 Erdős, P., & Rényi, A. (1959). On Random Graphs I. Publicationes Mathematicae. https://doi.org/10.5486/
- PMD.1959.6.3-4.12
- Fortin, M.-J., Dale, M. R. T., & Brimacombe, C. (2021). Network ecology in dynamic landscapes. *Proceedings*
- of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 288(1949), rspb.2020.1889, 20201889. https://doi.org/10.1098/
- rspb.2020.1889
- 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-

- 554 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
- Gauzens, B., Thouvenot, L., Srivastava, D. S., Kratina, P., Romero, G. Q., Berti, E., O'Gorman, E. J.,
- González, A. L., Dézerald, O., Eisenhauer, N., Pires, M., Ryser, R., Farjalla, V. F., Rogy, P., Brose, U.,
- Petermann, J. S., Geslin, B., & Hines, J. (2025). Tailoring interaction network types to answer different
- ecological questions. Nature Reviews Biodiversity, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1038/s44358-025-00056-7
- 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.
- 572 https://doi.org/10.1111/ecog.04006
- ⁵⁷³ Gravel, D., Poisot, T., Albouy, C., Velez, L., & Mouillot, D. (2013). Inferring food web structure from
- predator-prey body size relationships. Methods in Ecology and Evolution, 4(11), 1083–1090. https:
- //doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12103
- Hao, X., Holyoak, M., Zhang, Z., & Yan, C. (2025). Global Projection of Terrestrial Vertebrate Food
- Webs Under Future Climate and Land-Use Changes. Global Change Biology, 31(2), e70061. https:
- //doi.org/10.1111/gcb.70061
- 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
- Hui, C., & Richardson, D. M. (2019). How to Invade an Ecological Network. Trends in Ecology & Evolution,
- 583 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,
- 594 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),
- 596 433-438. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.adg1464
- ⁵⁹⁷ 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
- 660 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. Ecology Letters, 15(4),
- 603 291–300. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2011.01732.x
- 604 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
- 606 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
- Lindeman, R. L. (1942). The Trophic-Dynamic Aspect of Ecology. Ecology, 23(4), 399–417. https://doi.org/
- 10.2307/1930126
- Llewelyn, 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
- 613 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
- Marjakangas, E.-L., Dalsgaard, B., & Ordonez, A. (2025). Fundamental Interaction Niches: Towards a
- Functional Understanding of Ecological Networks' Resilience. Ecology Letters, 28(6), e70146. https:
- //doi.org/10.1111/ele.70146
- ⁶¹⁸ Miele, V., Guill, C., Ramos-Jiliberto, R., & Kéfi, S. (2019). Non-trophic interactions strengthen the diversity—
- functioning relationship in an ecological bioenergetic network model. PLOS Computational Biology, 15(8),

- e1007269. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1007269
- 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-
- 623 210X.13380
- 624 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
- 626 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
- 650 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.
- 632 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
- 640 Poisot, T., Bergeron, G., Cazelles, K., Dallas, T., Gravel, D., MacDonald, A., Mercier, B., Violet, C., &
- Vissault, S. (2021). Global knowledge gaps in species interaction networks data. Journal of Biogeography,
- 48(7), 1552–1563. https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.14127
- Poisot, T., Cirtwill, A., Cazelles, K., Gravel, D., Fortin, M.-J., & Stouffer, D. (2016). The structure of
- probabilistic networks. Methods in Ecology and Evolution, 7(3), 303–312. https://doi.org/10
- Poisot, T., Ouellet, M.-A., Mollentze, N., Farrell, M. J., Becker, D. J., Brierley, L., Albery, G. F., Gibb, R.
- J., Seifert, S. N., & Carlson, C. J. (2023). Network embedding unveils the hidden interactions in the
- mammalian virome. Patterns, 4(6), 100738. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.patter.2023.100738
- 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://www.jstor.org/stable/2462536
- 654 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
- 660 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
- ⁶⁶⁵ 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-
- 667 024908
- Proulx, S. R., Promislow, D. E. L., & Phillips, P. C. (2005). Network thinking in ecology and evolution.
- 669 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
- 571 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
- Rohr, R. P., Scherer, H., Kehrli, P., Mazza, C., & Bersier, L.-F. (2010). Modeling Food Webs: Exploring
- Unexplained Structure Using Latent Traits. The American Naturalist, 176(2), 170–177. https://doi.org/
- 10.1086/653667
- 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.
- Rossberg, A. G., Matsuda, H., Amemiya, T., & Itoh, K. (2006). Food webs: Experts consuming families of
- experts. Journal of Theoretical Biology, 241(3), 552–563. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtbi.2005.12.021
- 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
- 667 Schneider, F. D., Brose, U., Rall, B. C., & Guill, C. (2016). Animal diversity and ecosystem functioning in
- dynamic food webs. Nature Communications, 7(1), 12718. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms12718
- 669 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
- 695 Simmons, B. I., Blyth, P. S. A., Blanchard, J. L., Clegg, T., Delmas, E., Garnier, A., Griffiths, C. A., Jacob,
- U., Pennekamp, F., Petchey, O. L., Poisot, T., Webb, T. J., & Beckerman, A. P. (2021). Refocusing
- multiple stressor research around the targets and scales of ecological impacts. Nature Ecology & Evolution,
- 5(11), 1478-1489. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-021-01547-4
- ⁶⁹⁹ Smith, J. G., Tomoleoni, J., Staedler, M., Lyon, S., Fujii, J., & Tinker, M. T. (2021). Behavioral responses
- across a mosaic of ecosystem states restructure a sea otter-urchin trophic cascade. Proceedings of the
- National Academy of Sciences, 118(11), e2012493118. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2012493118
- 502 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
- 5tephens, D. W., & Krebs, J. R. (1986). Foraging Theory (Vol. 1). Princeton University Press. https:
- 705 //doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvs32s6b
- 500 Stock, M., Poisot, T., Waegeman, W., & Baets, B. D. (2017). Linear filtering reveals false negatives in species
- interaction data. Scientific Reports, 7, 45908. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep45908
- ⁷⁰⁸ 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,
- 711 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
- 516 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

- 719 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
- Thuiller, W., Calderón-Sanou, I., Chalmandrier, L., Gaüzère, P., O'Connor, L. M. J., Ohlmann, M., Poggiato,
- G., & Münkemüller, T. (2024). Navigating the integration of biotic interactions in biogeography. Journal
- of Biogeography, 51(4), 550-559. https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.14734
- 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
- Van der Putten, W. H., Macel, M., & Visser, M. E. (2010). Predicting species distribution and abundance
- responses to climate change: Why it is essential to include biotic interactions across trophic levels.
- Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences, 365(1549), 2025–2034. https:
- //doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2010.0037
- 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
- Williams, R. J., & Martinez, N. D. (2000). Simple rules yield complex food webs. Nature, 404(6774), 180–183.
- https://doi.org/10.1038/35004572
- 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:
- 741 //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.,
- Schowanek, 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.
- 746 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
- 749 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:
- 751 //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

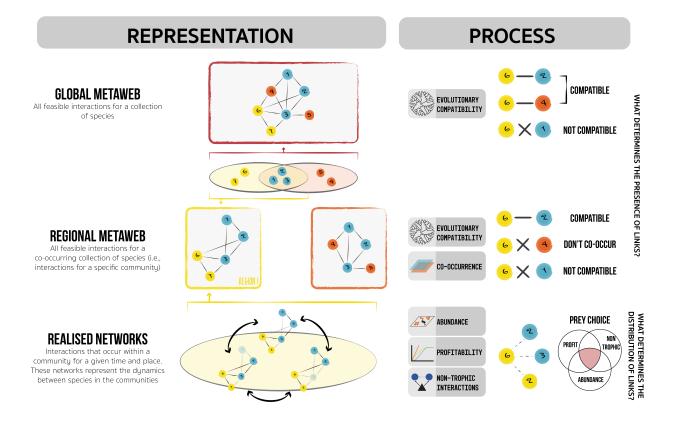


Figure 1: Aligning the various processes that determine interactions (right column) with the different network representations (left column). First, we start with a **global metaweb** this network captures all possible interactions for a collection of species in the global context. However, within the 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 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.