# The biological interpretation of probabilistic food webs

Francis Banville  $^{1,2,3,\ddagger}$  Tanya Strydom  $^{1,3,\ddagger}$  Timothée Poisot  $^{1,3}$ 

### **Correspondance to:**

Francis Banville — francis.banville@umontreal.ca

This work is released by its authors under a CC-BY 4.0 license

Last revision: February 12, 2023

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Université de Montréal <sup>2</sup> Université de Sherbrooke <sup>3</sup> Quebec Centre for Biodiversity Science

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>‡</sup> These authors contributed equally to the work

Community ecologists are increasingly thinking probabilistically when it comes to food webs and other ecological networks. Assuredly, the benefits of representing ecological interactions as probabilistic events (e.g., how likely are species to interact?) instead of binary objects (e.g., do species interact?) are numerous, from a better assessment of the spatiotemporal variation of trophic interactions to an increase capacity to reconstruct networks from sparse data. However, probabilities need to be used with caution when working with species interactions. Indeed, depending on the system at hand and the method used to build probabilistic networks, probabilities can have different interpretations that imply different ways to manipulate them. At the core of these differences lie the distinction between assessing the likelihood that two groups of individuals *can* interact and the likelihood that they *will* interact. This impacts the spatial, temporal, and taxonomic scaling of interaction probabilities, thus enlightening the need to properly define them in their ecological context. Published data on probabilistic species interactions are poorly documented in the literature, which impedes our ability to use them appropriately. With these challenges in mind, we propose a general approach to thinking about probabilities in regards to ecological interactions, with a strong focus on food webs, and call for better definitions and conceptualizations of probabilistic ecological networks, both at the local and regional scales.

### **Introduction**

Cataloging species interactions across space is a gargantuan task. At the core of this challenge lies the spatiotemporal variability of ecological networks (Poisot et al. 2012, 2015), which makes documenting the location and timing of interactions difficult. Indeed, it is not sufficient to know that two species have the biological capacity to interact to infer the realization of their interaction at a specific time and space (Dunne 2006). Taking food webs as an example, a predator species and its potential prey must first 6 co-occur in order for a trophic interaction to take place (Blanchet et al. 2020). They must then encounter, which is conditional on their relative abundances in the ecosystem and the matching of their phenology (Poisot et al. 2015). Finally, the interaction occurs only if the predators have a desire to consume their prey and are able to capture and ingest them (Pulliam 1974). Environmental (e.g. temperature and presence of 10 shelters) and biological (e.g. physiological state of both species and availability of other prey species) 11 factors contribute to this variability by impacting species co-occurrence (Araujo et al. 2011) and the 12 realization of their interactions (Poisot et al. 2015). In this context, the development of computational 13 methods in ecology can help alleviate the colossal sampling efforts required to document species interactions across time and space (Strydom et al. 2021). Having a better portrait of species interactions and the emerging structure of their food webs is important since it lays the groundwork for understanding 16 the functioning, dynamics, and resilience of ecosystems worldwide (e.g., Proulx et al. 2005; Pascual et al. 17 2006; Delmas et al. 2019). The recognition of the intrinsic variability of species interactions and the emergence of numerical 19 methods have led ecologists to rethink their representation of ecological networks, slowly moving from a binary to a probabilistic view of species interactions (Poisot et al. 2016). This has several benefits. For example, probabilities represent the limit of our knowledge about species interactions and can inform us 22 about the expected number of interactions and emerging network properties despite this limited 23 knowledge (Poisot et al. 2016). They are also very helpful in predicting the spatial distribution of species within networks (Cazelles et al. 2016) and the temporal variability of interactions (Poisot et al. 2015), 25 generating new ecological data (e.g., Strydom et al. 2022), and identifying priority sampling locations of 26 species interactions (see Andrade-Pacheco et al. 2020 for an ecological example of a sampling optimization problem). Moreover, the high rate of false negatives in ecological network data, resulting from the 28

difficulty of witnessing interactions between rare species, makes it hard to interpret non-observations of

- species interactions ecologically (Catchen et al. 2023). Using probabilities instead of yes-no interactions
- accounts for these observation errors; in that case, only forbidden interactions (Jordano et al. 2003; Olesen
- et al. 2010) would have a probability value of zero (but see Gonzalez-Varo & Traveset 2016). Many
- measures have been developed to describe the structure (Poisot et al. 2016) and diversity (Ohlmann et al.
- <sup>34</sup> 2019; Godsoe et al. 2022) of probabilistic interactions, which shows the potential of this framework in the
- 35 study of a variety of ecological phenomena.
- 36 However, representing species interactions probabilistically can also be challenging. Beyond
- methodological difficulties in estimating these numbers, there are important conceptual challenges in
- defining what we mean by "probability of interactions." To the best of our knowledge, because the
- building blocks of this mathematical representation of food webs are still being laid, there is no clear
- 40 definition found in the literature. This is worrisome, since working with probabilistic species interactions
- 41 without clear guidelines could be misleading as much for field ecologists as for computational ecologists
- who use and generate these data. In this contribution, we outline different ways to define and interpret
- interactions probabilities in network ecology and propose an approach to thinking about them. These
- definitions mostly depend on the study system (e.g. local network or metaweb) and on the method used to
- generate them. We show that different definitions can have different ecological implications, especially
- regarding spatial, temporal, and taxonomic scaling. Although we will focus on food webs, our
- observations and advice can be applied to all types of ecological networks, from plant-pollinator to
- 48 host-parasite networks. Specifically, we argue that probabilities should be better documented, defined
- 49 mathematically, and used with caution when describing species interactions.

# 50 Definitions and interpretations

#### 51 Food-web representations

- 52 The basic unit of food webs and other ecological networks are individuals that interact with each others
- 653 (e.g., by predation; Elton 2001), forming individual-based networks. The aggregation of these individuals
- into more or less homogeneous groups (e.g., populations, species, trophic species, families) allows us to
- represent networks at broader scales, which impacts the properties and behaviour of these systems
- <sup>56</sup> (Guimarães 2020). A network's nodes can thus designate distinct levels of organization, whereas the edges
- 57 linking these nodes can describe a variety of interaction measures. When using a Boolean (yes-no)

```
representation of biotic interactions, the observation that one individual from group (or node) i interacts
   with another individual from group j is enough to set the interaction A_{i,j} to 1. This simplified
59
   representation of food webs is a highly valuable source of ecological information (Pascual et al. 2006) even
60
   though it overlooks important factors regarding interaction strengths. These, in turn, can be represented
   using weighted interactions, which better describe the energy flows, demographic impacts or frequencies
62
   of interactions between nodes (Berlow et al. 2004; Borrett & Scharler 2019), with A_{i,j} \in \mathbb{N} or \mathbb{R} depending
63
   on the measure. For example, they can be used to estimate the average number of prey individuals
   consumed by the predators in a given time period. This extra amount of ecological information typically
65
   comes at a cost of greater sampling effort or data requirement in predictive models (Strydom et al. 2021),
66
   which can lead to high uncertainties when building these types of networks. Therefore, important
67
   methodological and conceptual decisions must be made when sampling and building food webs.
   The uncertainty and spatiotemporal variability of both types of trophic interactions (Boolean and
69
   weighted) can be represented probabilistically. On one hand, Boolean interactions follow a Bernoulli
   distribution A_{i,j} \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p), with p being the probability of interactions. The only two possible
71
   outcomes are the presence (A_{i,j} = 1) or absence (A_{i,j} = 0) of an interaction between the two nodes.
72
   Weighted interactions, on the other hand, can follow various probability distributions depending on the
   measure used. In this case, the event's outcome is the value of interaction strength. For instance, weights
   can follow a Poisson distribution A_{i,j} \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda) when predicting frequencies of interactions between
75
   pairs of nodes, with \lambda being the expected rate of interaction. The definition and interpretation of
76
   parameters like p and \lambda are inextricably linked to environmental and biological factors such as species
77
   relative abundance, traits, area, and time, depending on the type of interaction. Because Boolean species
   interactions are much more documented in the literature, our primary focus in this contribution will be on
79
   addressing the challenges in defining and interpretating p for pairwise species interactions.
   The first aspect to take into consideration when estimating or interpreting probabilities of interactions is
   knowing if they describe the likelihood of potential or realized interactions. A potential interaction is
   defined as the biological capacity of two species to interact (i.e., the probability that they can interact)
83
   whereas a realized interaction refers to the materialization or observation of this interaction in a delineated
84
   space and time period (i.e., the probability that they interact). Here, we will use the terms metaweb to
85
   designate networks of potential interactions and local networks for those of realized interactions. Frequent
   confusion arises among ecologists over the use of these two terms, especially in a probabilistic context.
```

- 88 Indeed, in many studies of probabilistic ecological networks, it remains unclear when authors describe
- potential or realized interactions, or when so-called probabilities are actually *interaction scores*. Likewise,
- 90 probabilistic potential interactions are often used as realized interactions (and conversely), even when the
- 91 type of interaction is clearly indicated. We believe that a better understanding of these differences and
- 92 concepts would alleviate interpretation errors and help ecologists use these numbers more appropriately.

### 93 Probabilistic metawebs

- 94 Metawebs are networks of potential interactions, representing the probability that two taxa can interact
- regardless of biological plasticity, environmental variability or co-occurrence. They are the network
- analogue to the species pool, where local networks originate from a subset of both species (nodes) and
- 97 interactions (edges). For this reason, they have been initially designed for broad spatial, temporal, and
- taxonomic scales (e.g, species food webs at the continental scale). However, in the next section, we argue
- 99 that this concept can also be used at smaller scales, with similar ecological meaning.
- We can express the probability that two taxa i and j can interact in a metaweb M as

$$P_M(i \to j),$$
 (1)

which is context independent. In other words, the probability that two species can interact is not
contingent on location, time, and environmental factors. Nevertheless, one aspect of a metaweb that could
be conditional on these factors is the list of species (or taxa) it is built from when assembled for a specific
region.

Starting from a selected set of species, metawebs can be built using different data sources, including
literature review, field work, and predictive models (e.g., the metaweb of Canadian mammals inferred by
Strydom *et al.* 2022). Every pair of species that has been observed to interact at least once can be given a
probability of interaction of 1; we know that they *can* interact. This means that rare interactions can
technically be given high probabilities in the metaweb. Unobserved interactions, on the other hand, are
given lower probabilities, going as low as 0 for forbidden links. Two important nuances must however be
made here. Because of observation errors due to taxonomic misidentifications and ecological
misinterpretations (e.g., due to cryptic species and interactions; Pringle & Hutchinson 2020), many

observations of interactions are actually false positives. Similarly, forbidden interactions can be false
negatives if e.g. they have been assessed for specific phenotypes, locations or time. Implementing a
Bayesian framework, which updates prior probabilities of interactions with empirical data, could lessen
these errors.

#### 17 Probabilistic local networks

As opposed to metawebs, probabilistic local food webs represent the likelihood that two species will 118 interact at a specific location and within a given time period; in other words, they are context dependant. 119 To be specific, space is defined here as the geographic coordinates (x, y) of the spatial boundaries delineating the system, whereas time is the time interval t during which interactions were sampled or for 121 which they were predicted. We want to point out that they are not single values, but rather continued 122 dimensions that could be outlined differently depending on the study system. Regardless of how they were defined, they always delineate a specific area A and duration t. These could refer to the sampled area and 124 duration or to the targeted location and time period. 125 Many factors could be taken into consideration when estimating the probability that a predator species i interacts with a given prey species j locally. One of the most important is species co-occurrence C, which is 127 a Boolean describing if both species can be found at location and time (x, y, t). Surely, the probability that 128 the interaction is realized must be 0 when species do not co-occur (C=0). Interaction probabilities can also be conditional on other biological and environmental variables, such as temperature, precipitation, 130 presence of shelters, phenotypic plasticity, phenology, and presence of other interacting species in the 131 network. These conditions can affect species traits, which greatly impact the capacity of species to interact 132 (Poisot et al. 2015). Similarly, species relative abundance is another important predictor of the probability 133 of interaction, because it impacts the probability that species will randomly encounter (Canard et al. 2012; 134 Canard et al. 2014; Poisot et al. 2015). Here, we will use the variable  $\Omega$  as a substitute for the biological and 135 ecological context in which interaction probabilities were estimated. This gives us the following equation for the probability of realized interaction between species (or taxa) i and j in a local network N:

$$P_N(i \to j|A, t, C, \Omega),$$
 (2)

 $^{38}$  which can be read as the probability of local interaction between the two species in an area A and time

interval t, given their co-occurrence C and specific environmental and biological conditions  $\Omega$ .

Multiple difficulties of interpretation arise when the conditions are not clearly specified, which we found 140 is often the case in the literature. For example, if  $P_N(i \to j | C = 1)$  represents the probability that two 141 co-occurring species interact (i.e., the edge's probability value),  $P_N(i \rightarrow j)$  denotes instead the probability 142 of interaction without knowing if they co-occur (i.e., the product of the nodes and edge's probability 143 values). For practical reasons, probabilistic ecological networks are generally represented as matrices of probabilities (i.e., matrices of edges without node values), whose elements are thus hard to interpret without clear indications about C. Overall, when probabilities of interactions are estimated using specific 146 values of A, t, C, and  $\Omega$ , ecologists should make them explicit in their metadata, preferably using mathematical equations to avoid any ambiguity. Below, we will see examples of why this matters when it comes to spatial, temporal, and taxonomic scaling of biotic interactions. 149

[Table 1 about here]. Articles using probabilistic interactions and the definitions and variables they considered.

### From potential to realized interactions

Even though the spatiotemporal variability of interactions is not considered in metawebs, they can still be 153 useful to reconstruct local networks of realized interactions. Indeed, local networks are formed from 154 subsets of their metaweb (called subnetworks), which are obtained by selecting a subset of both species 155 and interactions (Dunne 2006). Because a community's composition is arguably easier to sample (or 156 predict) than its interactions, the biggest challenge is to sample links from the metaweb. This becomes a 157 conceptual issue when we consider how potential and realized interactions differ. Despite these concerns, 158 metawebs remain an important source of ecological information that can be leveraged for realistically 159 predicting spatially explicit networks. First, metawebs set the upper limit of species interactions (McLeod et al. 2021), i.e. the probability that two species interact at a specific location is always lower or equal to 161 the probability of their potential interaction: 162

$$P_N(i \to j | A, t, C, \Omega) \le P_M(i \to j). \tag{3}$$

Therefore, inferring local networks from their metaweb keeping the same values of interaction probability

would generate systematic biases in the prediction. In that case, these networks would instead be called spatially explicit or local metawebs (i.e., smaller-scale networks of potential interactions). Second, the 165 structure of local networks is constrained by the one of their metaweb (Saravia et al. 2022). This suggests 166 that a metaweb not only constrains the pairwise interactions of its corresponding local networks, but also their emerging properties. Inferring the structure of local networks from the metaweb could thus help 168 estimate more realistically the likelihood that potential interactions are realized and observed locally 169 (Strydom et al. 2021). 170 [Figure 1 about here]. Empirical example of the association between the number of interactions in realized local food webs and the number of interactions in the corresponding subnetworks of their 172 regional metaweb. We should expect the association to be linear below the 1:1 line, illustrating eq. 3. 173

## 174 Scaling

### 175 Spatial and temporal scales

Metawebs and local networks intrinsically differ in their relation to scale. On one hand, as mentioned above, probabilistic metawebs are context independent, i.e., probabilistic pairwise interactions do not scale 177 with space and time because they depend solely on the biological capacity of the two taxa to interact. This implies that the estimated likelihood that two species can potentially interact should be the same among all metawebs in which they are present. In practice, this is rarely the case because ecologists use different 180 methods and data to estimate these probabilities of interactions. However, in the case where local 181 metawebs  $M_{x,y}$  are subsampled from their regional counterpart  $M_0$ , we should expect edge values to be identical among all networks, regardless of their spatial scale, i.e.  $P_{M_{x,y}}(i \to j) = P_{M_0}(i \to j)$ . On the other 183 hand, local probabilistic networks are indissociable from their spatial and temporal contexts because there 184 are more opportunities of interactions (e.g., more individuals, more trait variations, more chance of 185 encounter) in a larger area and longer time period (McLeod  $et\ al.\ 2020$ ). Let  $N_0$  be a local probabilistic 186 food web delineated in an area  $A_0$  and  $N_1$  a network of area  $A_1 < A_0$  within  $A_0$ . We should expect the 187 probability that i and j interacts to scale spatially, i.e.  $P_{N_1}(i \to j | A < A_0) \le P_{N_0}(i \to j | A = A_0)$ . Similarly, 188 the temporal scaling of probabilistic local food webs could be manifested through the effect of sampling effort on the observation of interactions (Jordano 2016; McLeod et al. 2021) or of time itself on their 190 realization (Poisot et al. 2012). There are many network-area relationships (e.g., Wood et al. 2015; Galiana

et al. 2018) and interaction accumulation curves (e.g., Jordano 2016) explored in the literature. These could inspire the development and testing of different equations describing the spatiotemporal scaling of 193 probabilistic pairwise interactions in local networks, which are over the scope of this manuscript. 194 Another conceptual challenge encountered when using probabilistic food webs is the prediction of 195 Boolean networks across space. Lets take  $n \times n$  grid cells each representing a probabilistic food web. If 196 they contain potential interactions, a single random trial must be conducted for each pairwise interaction 197 across the region (i.e., we should have only one random realization of the regional metaweb). On the contrary, if they represent probabilities of realized interactions, each food web must be independently 199 sampled (i.e.,  $n^2$  independent random draws). This has direct implications on the spatial scaling of 200 interactions. For example, let  $N_2$  be another network of area  $A_2 < A_0$  within  $A_0$  and disjoint from  $N_1$ , 201 such as  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  form  $N_0$  (think of two contiguous cells that together delineate  $N_0$ ). All other things 202 being equal, we should expect the probability that i and j interacts in  $A_0$  to be 203  $P_{N_0}(i \to j) = 1 - (1 - P_{N_1}(i \to j)) \times (1 - P_{N_2}(i \to j))$  if  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  are independently sampled. This also implies that we should expect interactions to be realized in a certain number of local networks depending on the probability value, which is not the case with metawebs. Note that spatial auto-correlation and the 206 concept of meta-network (i.e., networks of networks) could invalidate the statistical assumption of 207 independence. Nevertheless, the fundamental difference in sampling metawebs and local networks stands 208 even when considering these factors. This difference in sampling further sheds light on the importance of 209 clearly defining interaction probabilities. What we consider as a Bernoulli trial, when randomly drawing 210 deterministic networks from probabilistic food webs, depends on our biological interpretation of these probabilities. 212

Making interaction probabilities spatiotemporally explicit

<sup>214</sup> [Figure 2 about here]. Conceptual figure showing (1) the spatiotemporal scaling of probabilistic metawebs and local food webs and (2) the spatial sampling of metawebs and local food webs into Boolean networks.

#### 16 Taxonomic scale

213

217 How do interaction probabilities scale taxonomically?

- There are different biological interpretations of probabilities in food webs at the individual level and at higher taxonomic levels.
- How does the scaling up of the nodes from an individual to population to any higher taxonomic
  group change our interpretation of interaction probabilities? How does the aggregation change our
  interpretation?
- How is it similar and different to spatial and temporal scaling? Basically, all kinds of scaling are just
   different ways to aggregate individuals or nodes.

[Figure 3 about here]. Conceptual figure of how a scale up of the nodes from an individual to a population to any higher taxonomic group change our interpretation of the probability of interaction.

### 27 Conclusion

The emergence of probabilistic thinking in network ecology has paved the way to a better assessment of 228 the spatiotemporal variability and uncertainty of biotic interactions. However, we showed that network 229 metadata are perhaps as important as interaction data themselves when it comes to interpreting probabilistic food webs in ecological terms. First, the type of probabilistic interaction (potential or 231 realized) impacts the importance of scale, with interactions in metawebs being scale independent, both 232 spatially and temporally. Second, the conditions in which local networks were estimated (e.g., area, time, 233 biological and environmental factors) and the attributes of the interacting species that were considered 234 (e.g., species co-occurrence) are essential contextual factors that impact the mathematical representation 235 of probabilities and their resulting behaviour. Third, the biological interpretation of probabilities changes 236 with the level of organization of the network due to the aggregation of individuals into broader groups. All 237 these information should be available as clear metadata so that ecologists can use probabilistic network 238 data appropriately. 239 Moreover, many statistical models in ecology that yield accurate predictions of biotic interactions are black 240 boxes difficult to interpret. Ecologists should be careful before using the output of these models as 241 probabilistic objects, since there is often a thin line between a real probability and a non-probabilistic predictive number (or score). Probabilities are numbers between 0 and 1 that sum to 1 and either represent 243 the expected frequency of a phenomenon or the degree of belief that it will be realized. Non-probabilistic

scores, which are more akin to interaction weights, have different mathematical properties, which impacts how we should handle these numbers in a spatially or temporally explicit context. Therefore, researchers 246 should use their expertise to assess if their interaction data are actually probabilities or scores. This should 247 also be added to the metadata before sharing them, as well as the methods used to build the networks. Better metadata documentation would allow researchers to use and manipulate probabilistic ecological 249 interactions according to how they were actually defined and obtained. This would support better 250 scientific practices, in particular when these data are used for ecological prediction and forecasting. For instance, we showed that building a rigorous workflow to predict local networks from a probabilistic 252 metaweb requires a good understanding of the data at hand. Similarly, explicitly stating the context in 253 which probabilistic data were estimated would help using forecasting food-web models more rigorously under specific climate change and habitat use scenarios. Regardless of the method and application, 255 fostering a better foundation for probabilistic reasonings in network ecology, from the very nature of 256 probabilities and biotic interactions, is essential. 257

## 258 Acknowledgement

We acknowledge that this study was conducted on land within the traditional unceded territory of the
Saint Lawrence Iroquoian, Anishinabewaki, Mohawk, Huron-Wendat, and Omàmiwininiwak nations.
This work was supported by the Institute for Data Valorisation (IVADO) and the Natural Sciences and
Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC) Collaborative Research and Training Experience
(CREATE) program, through the Computational Biodiversity Science and Services (BIOS<sup>2</sup>) program. A
special thank to all members of the Black Holes and Revelations working group (organized by BIOS<sup>2</sup>) for
their insightful discussions and valuable feedbacks on this manuscript.

### 6 References

270

Andrade-Pacheco, R., Rerolle, F., Lemoine, J., Hernandez, L., Meïté, A., Juziwelo, L., *et al.* (2020). Finding
hotspots: Development of an adaptive spatial sampling approach. *Scientific Reports*, 10, 10939.

Araujo, M.B., Rozenfeld, A., Rahbek, C. & Marquet, P.A. (2011). Using species co-occurrence networks to

assess the impacts of climate change. Ecography, 34, 897–908.

- Berlow, E.L., Neutel, A.-M., Cohen, J.E., De Ruiter, P.C., Ebenman, B., Emmerson, M., et al. (2004).
- Interaction strengths in food webs: Issues and opportunities. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 73, 585–598.
- <sup>273</sup> Blanchet, F.G., Cazelles, K. & Gravel, D. (2020). Co-occurrence is not evidence of ecological interactions.
- *Ecology Letters*, 23, 1050–1063.
- Borrett, S.R. & Scharler, U.M. (2019). Walk partitions of flow in Ecological Network Analysis: Review and synthesis of methods and indicators. *Ecological Indicators*, 106, 105451.
- 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, 468–479.
- 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, e38295.
- Catchen, M.D., Poisot, T., Pollock, L.J. & Gonzalez, A. (2023). The missing link: Discerning true from false negatives when sampling species interaction networks.
- Cazelles, K., Araujo, M.B., Mouquet, N. & Gravel, D. (2016). A theory for species co-occurrence in interaction networks. *Theoretical Ecology*, 9, 39–48.
- Delmas, E., Besson, M., Brice, M.-H., Burkle, L.A., Dalla Riva, G.V., Fortin, M.-J., *et al.* (2019). Analysing ecological networks of species interactions. *Biological Reviews*, 94, 16–36.
- Dunne, J.A. (2006). The Network Structure of Food Webs. In: *Ecological networks: Linking structure and dynamics* (eds. Dunne, J.A. & Pascual, M.). Oxford University Press, pp. 27–86.
- Elton, C.S. (2001). Animal Ecology. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, IL.
- Galiana, N., Lurgi, M., Claramunt-López, B., Fortin, M.-J., Leroux, S., Cazelles, K., *et al.* (2018). The spatial scaling of species interaction networks. *Nature Ecology & Evolution*, 2, 782–790.
- Godsoe, W., Murray, R. & Iritani, R. (2022). Species interactions and diversity: A unified framework using
  Hill numbers. *Oikos*, n/a, e09282.
- Gonzalez-Varo, J.P. & Traveset, A. (2016). The Labile Limits of Forbidden Interactions. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 31, 700–710.
- Guimarães, P.R. (2020). The Structure of Ecological Networks Across Levels of Organization. *Annual* Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics, 51, 433–460.

- <sup>298</sup> Jordano, P. (2016). Sampling networks of ecological interactions. Functional Ecology, 30, 1883–1893.
- Jordano, P., Bascompte, J. & Olesen, J.M. (2003). Invariant properties in coevolutionary networks of plantanimal interactions. *Ecology Letters*, 6, 69–81.
- McLeod, A., Leroux, S.J., Gravel, D., Chu, C., Cirtwill, A.R., Fortin, M.-J., *et al.* (2021). Sampling and asymptotic network properties of spatial multi-trophic networks. *Oikos*, n/a.
- McLeod, A.M., Leroux, S.J. & Chu, C. (2020). Effects of species traits, motif profiles, and environment on spatial variation in multi-trophic antagonistic networks. *Ecosphere*, 11, e03018.
- Ohlmann, M., Miele, V., Dray, S., Chalmandrier, L., O'Connor, L. & Thuiller, W. (2019). Diversity indices for ecological networks: A unifying framework using Hill numbers. *Ecology Letters*, 22, 737–747.
- Olesen, J.M., Bascompte, J., Dupont, Y.L., Elberling, H., Rasmussen, C. & Jordano, P. (2010). Missing and forbidden links in mutualistic networks. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 278, 725–732.
- Pascual, M., Dunne, J.A. & Dunne, J.A. (2006). *Ecological Networks: Linking Structure to Dynamics in Food*Webs. Oxford University Press, USA.
- Poisot, T., Canard, E., Mouillot, D., Mouquet, N. & Gravel, D. (2012). The dissimilarity of species interaction networks. *Ecology Letters*, 15, 1353–1361.
- Poisot, T., Cirtwill, A.R., Cazelles, K., Gravel, D., Fortin, M.-J. & Stouffer, D.B. (2016). The structure of probabilistic networks. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 7, 303–312.
- Poisot, T., Stouffer, D.B. & Gravel, D. (2015). Beyond species: Why ecological interaction networks vary through space and time. *Oikos*, 124, 243–251.
- Pringle, R.M. & Hutchinson, M.C. (2020). Resolving Food-Web Structure. *Annual Review of Ecology,*Evolution, and Systematics, 51, 55–80.
- Proulx, S.R., Promislow, D.E.L. & Phillips, P.C. (2005). Network thinking in ecology and evolution. *Trends* in Ecology & Evolution, SPECIAL issue: BUMPER book REVIEW, 20, 345–353.
- Pulliam, H.R. (1974). On the Theory of Optimal Diets. *The American Naturalist*, 108, 59–74.
- Saravia, L.A., Marina, T.I., Kristensen, N.P., De Troch, M. & Momo, F.R. (2022). Ecological network assembly: How the regional metaweb influences local food webs. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 91,

- 325 630-642.
- Strydom, T., Bouskila, S., Banville, F., Barros, C., Caron, D., Farrell, M.J., *et al.* (2022). Food web reconstruction through phylogenetic transfer of low-rank network representation. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 13.
- Strydom, T., Catchen, M.D., Banville, F., Caron, D., Dansereau, G., Desjardins-Proulx, P., et al. (2021). A roadmap towards predicting species interaction networks (across space and time). *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B-Biological Sciences*, 376, 20210063.
- Wood, S.A., Russell, R., Hanson, D., Williams, R.J. & Dunne, J.A. (2015). Effects of spatial scale of sampling on food web structure. *Ecology and Evolution*, 5, 3769–3782.