

Scaling from Metawebs to Realised Webs: A Hierarchical Approach to Network Ecology

Tanya Strydom ^{1*}, Alexander M. Dunhill ², Jennifer A. Dunne ³, Timothée Poisot ^{4,5}, Andrew P. Beckerman ¹

¹ School of Biosciences, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, UK

² School of Earth, Environment and Sustainability, University of Leeds, Leeds, UK

³ Santa Fe Institute, 1399 Hyde Park Road, Santa Fe, NM 87501, USA

⁴ Université de Montréal, Département de Sciences Biologiques, Montréal, QC, Canada

⁵ Québec Centre for Biodiversity Sciences, Montréal, QC, Canada

*Correspondence: t.strydom@sheffield.ac.uk

Abstract: Ecological networks provide a critical framework for understanding the architecture of biodiversity and predicting ecosystem responses to environmental change. However, the application of network ecology is often hindered by a lack of clarity regarding the assumptions inherent in different network representations. Here, we present a hierarchical framework that distinguishes between ‘metawebs’ (representing the fundamental feasibility of interactions) and ‘realised webs’ (representing interactions expressed in specific spatiotemporal contexts). We contrast our conceptual approach with recent data-centric reviews, focusing instead on the theoretical gradients that govern network construction. We identify five core processes that drive the transition from potential to realised interactions: evolutionary compatibility and co-occurrence, which define the feasibility of links; and abundance, diet choice, and non-trophic interactions, which determine their realisation. Furthermore, we map these processes onto a methodological spectrum of network construction, distinguishing between inductive approaches (*e.g.*, trait-matching and stochastic models) that infer structure from observation, and deductive approaches (*e.g.*, neutral and optimal foraging models) that generate structure from mechanistic first principles. By making explicit the assumptions and scale-dependent processes underpinning these different representations, this framework clarifies the scope of inference possible with each approach, ultimately facilitating more robust predictions of biodiversity dynamics in the anthropocene.

Keywords: food web, network construction, biodiversity, scale and process, interaction modelling

Table of contents

1	Introduction	2
2	Setting the Scene: The Not So Basics of Nodes and Edges	4
2.1	How do we define a node?	5
2.2	What is captured by an edge?	5
2.3	Network representations	6
3	From Nodes and Edges to Process and Constraints	7
3.1	Processes that determine the feasibility of an interaction	7
3.2	Processes that realise networks	8
4	Network construction	10
4.1	Why construct networks?	10
4.2	Construction through induction	11
4.2.1	Species specific networks: construction through node level induction	11
4.2.2	Species agnostic networks: construction through structure induction	12
4.3	Construction through deduction	13
4.3.1	Species-specific networks	14
5	Making Progress with Networks	15
5.1	Key Eco-Evo-Conservation Questions	17
5.1.1	Global Metawebs	17
5.1.2	Regional Metawebs	18
5.1.3	Realised networks	18
5.2	Key methodological challenges	19
6	Conclusion	21
	References	22

1 Introduction

At the heart of modern biodiversity science are a set of concepts and theories about species richness, stability, and function, which have been discussed since the foundational work of Elton (2001), Lindeman (1942), and MacArthur (1955) and more recently Loreau & de Mazancourt (2013). These relate to the abundance, distribution, functions, and services that biodiversity provides. Network representations of interactions among organisms are increasingly argued to be an asset to understanding and predicting the impacts of multiple, simultaneous stress on biodiversity (*e.g.*, foundational studies on food web structure and robustness: Cohen et al. (1990); Martinez & Dunne (1998); Dunne et al. (2002); Simmons et al. (2021)). Documenting interactions between and among taxa is thus one of the fundamental building blocks of community ecology and provides a powerful abstraction and platform for mathematical and statistical modelling of biodiversity to make predictions, and to mitigate and manage threats (Windsor et al., 2023).

However, there is a growing discourse around limitations to the interpretation and applied

15 use of networks, which have been recognised since early discussions of sampling effort
 16 and aggregation in food webs (Cohen et al. (1990); Polis (1991); Martinez (1991); recent
 17 discussions: Dormann (2023); Blüthgen (2010)). Against this, it is important to evaluate
 18 the value and the limitations of the various network conceptualisations and how these relate
 19 to biodiversity concepts, such as community structure or ecosystem function (Blüthgen
 20 & Staab, 2024). In this perspective we aim to provide an overview of different **food**
 21 **web** representations, particularly how each representation embeds assumptions about the
 22 processes that determine interactions (Section 3) about the levels of organization at which
 23 this occurs (*i.e.* the biological, ecological, spatial/temporal scales) and the way in which
 24 we construct the resulting networks (Section 4).

25 Fundamentally, we are talking about an intersection of the type of data used to construct
 26 a network and the underlying theory as to what drives the resolution and occurrence of
 27 interactions among species in those data. We still lack a clear explanation of the different
 28 assumptions and scale dependent processes that underpin network construction alongside
 29 extensive discussions about the challenges relating to data collection and observation
 30 (Blüthgen & Staab, 2024; Brimacombe et al., 2023, 2024; Dunne, 2006; Martinez &
 31 Dunne, 1998; Moulatlet et al., 2024; Pimm, 1984; Polis, 1991; Pringle & Hutchinson, 2020;
 32 Saberski et al., 2024). Such an understanding should deliver an acceleration in capacity
 33 to more effectively predict the impact of multiple stressors on biodiverse communities.

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

40 Here we provide a complementary perspective focused on concepts, models, and theory,
 41 in contrast to the data driven breakdown in Gauzens et al. (2025) (*e.g.*, their Tables 1
 42 and 2). Our approach delivers a hierarchical perspective on network construction based
 43 on a gradient from feasibility, capturing the concept of metawebs and Gauzen et al’s
 44 ‘potential’ webs, through to realised webs as in Gauzens’ et al. In contrast to their 2
 45 + 2 decomposition (their Fig 1), our perspective showcases nested ecological scales and
 46 processes that derive from shifts in the assumptions and theories embedded along this
 47 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 biodiversity science in the anthropocene.

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

Ecological networks serve multiple uses, representing an ‘object’ from which inferences can be made. While many aspects of community structure can be analysed without networks (*e.g.*, through trait distributions or abundance patterns) networks provide a formal framework for capturing the organisation of interactions among species. The study of network structure and topology has a long history in ecology, rooted in early theory on energy flow (Lindeman, 1942; Odum, 1968), and later extended to questions of robustness, stability, and complexity (Brose et al., 2006; Dunne et al., 2002; May, 1972; Montoya et al., 2006; *e.g.*, Pimm, 1984). More recent work has built on this foundation to link network structure to ecosystem functioning, persistence, and dynamical behaviour (Danet et al., 2024; Pilosof et al., 2017; *e.g.*, Schneider et al., 2016). Networks are therefore commonly treated as response variables in tests of ecological theory and statistical models of the generative processes that give rise to observed structure, and are widely used to compare communities across environmental gradients or through time (*e.g.*, Hao et al., 2025; Pecuchet et al., 2020). They also provide a platform for evaluating downstream responses to perturbations, including secondary extinctions and robustness to species loss (*e.g.*, Dunne et al., 2002; Keyes et al., 2021, 2024; Staniczenko et al., 2010), as well as for implementing dynamical process that inference about stability, ecosystem function, invasions, climate change, contaminants, and extinction cascades (Curtsdotter et al., 2019; *e.g.*, Delmas et al., 2017; Terry et al., 2025). 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 which encode a series of assumptions within a network. Here we introduce a perspective on these baseline assumptions.

2.1 How do we define a node?

While nodes are conventionally described as representing species, in practice they may correspond to a range of taxonomic and non-taxonomic units, including sub-species, genera, or families, as well as trophic species (*e.g.*, Yodzis (1982); Williams & Martinez (2000)), feeding guilds (*e.g.*, García-Callejas et al., 2023), or life-stage-specific subsets of species (*e.g.*, Clegg et al., 2018). These choices reflect differences in the level, type, and consistency of resolution at which networks are constructed, rather than aggregation *per se*. In many cases, aggregation is applied explicitly on top of more highly resolved—or unevenly resolved—data to address particular questions, as in the construction of trophic species, and the underlying data may remain available for alternative analyses. Nevertheless, representing nodes at coarser or mixed resolutions can limit taxon-specific inference (*e.g.*, whether species *a* consumes species *b*), bias estimates of degree distributions—particularly generality and vulnerability—and complicate downstream analyses such as extinction or invasion dynamics, where species identity and the consequences of loss may be obscured (Beckerman et al., 2006; Clegg et al., 2018). At the same time, there are clear justifications for using aggregated representations when the distribution of interactions among functional or trophic units is more informative than species-level detail, for example when analysing extinction patterns across feeding guilds (Dunhill et al., 2024). More broadly, issues of resolution, scale, and sampling have long been recognised as central to the construction and interpretation of food webs (Dunne, 2006; *e.g.*, Martinez & Dunne, 1998).

2.2 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 Pringle (2020) or fluxes within a system *e.g.*, energy transfer or material flow as the result of the feeding links between species (Lindeman, 1942; Proulx et al., 2005). Edges can thus correspond to different ‘currencies’ (Gauzens et al., 2025). There are 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.

2.3 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 patterns 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 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 evolutionary plausible links, regionally plausible interactions, the set of ecologically impossible, *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 localised in space and time, with links contingent on species co-occurrence, environmental conditions, and mechanisms of diet choice. As a result, the presence or absence of a link reflects species behaviour, such that even when a realised network is represented as a binary matrix, each edge implies an underlying function describing interaction strength. A realised network is therefore not a simple downscaling of a metaweb based on finer spatial or temporal resolution. Rather than being obtained by filtering feasible interactions through co-occurrence alone, realised webs capture the processes that govern whether interactions are expressed and how energy flows through a community. In this sense, the definition of an edge shifts from one of

144 feasibility to one of realised choice and consequence, centred on energy acquisition and
145 transfer. Consequently, a metaweb and a realised network constructed from the same set
146 of species may share node composition yet differ structurally, because they are constrained
147 by fundamentally different rules governing link presence. This distinction has important
148 implications for interpretation: links absent from a metaweb can be treated as truly absent
149 in terms of feasibility, whereas links absent from a realised network should instead be
150 interpreted as context-dependent absences arising from environmental, behavioural, or
151 community-level constraints.

152 **3 From Nodes and Edges to Process and Constraints**

153 In the previous section we discussed how the definition of nodes and edges, representing
154 different scales and processes, lead to the concept of a metaweb and a realised web. The
155 fundamental take-homes are that nodes vary in their resolution, edges vary in what kind
156 of process they represent and the intersection of these, defined by meta- vs. realised webs,
157 underpins distinct lines of inquiry and constraints on the type of inference we can make
158 with networks. Here we reveal five core constraints across evolutionary and ecological
159 scales that further delineate the transition from meta- to realised webs, exposing processes
160 that determine the nature of links among nodes: evolutionary compatibility, co-occurrence,
161 abundance, diet choice, and non-trophic interactions Figure 1.

162 [Figure 1 about here.]

163 **3.1 Processes that determine the feasibility of an interaction**

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

170 **Evolutionary compatibility**

171 This constraint is defined by shared (co)evolutionary history between consumers and
172 resources (Dalla Riva & Stouffer, 2016; Gómez et al., 2010; Rossberg et al., 2006; Segar et
173 al., 2020) which is manifested as ‘trait complementarity’ between two species (Benadi et

174 al., 2022). In this body of theory, the consumer has the ‘correct’ set of traits that allow it
175 to acquire and consume the resource. Interactions that are not compatible are defined as
176 forbidden links (Jordano, 2016b); *i.e.*, they are not physically possible and will *always* be
177 absent within a network.

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

186 (Co)occurrence

187 The co-occurrence of species in both time and space is a fundamental requirement for an
188 interaction between two species to occur (at least in terms of feeding links). Although
189 co-occurrence data alone is insufficient for building an accurate and ecologically meaningful
190 representation of *feeding links* (Blanchet et al., 2020), it is still a critical process that
191 determines the possible realisation of a feeding. Knowledge on the co-occurrence of species
192 allows us to spatially constrain a global metaweb to reflect regional metawebs (Dansereau,
193 Barros, et al., 2024). In the context of Figure 1 this would be the metawebs for regions
194 one and two.

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

200 3.2 Processes that realise networks

201 In contrast to the above, here we highlight three processes that influence the *realisation* of
202 an interaction between species and thus form the conceptual basis for realised networks.
203 As we show in Figure 1, a ‘truly realised’ network is the product of properties of the
204 community (**abundance** and **non-trophic interactions**) and the individual (**diet**
205 **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 2.3)

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 centered around profitability and defined by traits associated with acquisition and consumption of 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 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 (Williams & Martinez, 2000), where diet choice is implicit in its 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.

Non-trophic interactions

238 We include non-trophic interactions (see Miele et al., 2019) here not as a determinant
239 of links, but a modifier of them - they are the community context above and beyond
240 co-occurrence and abundance. Non-trophic interactions include competition for space,
241 predator interference, refuge provisioning, recruitment facilitation as well as non-trophic
242 effects that increase or decrease mortality. These interactions specifically modify either
243 the realisation or strength of trophic interactions (Golubski & Abrams, 2011; Ings et al.,
244 2009; Kamaru et al., 2024; Pilosof et al., 2017; Staniczenko et al., 2010) and represent
245 direct (e.g., predator *a* outcompetes predator *b*) and indirect (e.g., mutualistic/facilitative
246 interactions) mechanisms.

247 Some interactions, such as pollination, occupy an intermediate position in this framework,
248 as they combine trophic components (e.g. resource consumption) with non-trophic effects
249 that influence reproduction, recruitment, and population persistence (Bascompte &
250 Jordano, 2007; Holland et al., 2002; Sauve et al., 2016). They operate on the realisation
251 of a network by altering the fine-scale distribution and abundance of species and relative
252 contributions of direct and indirect effects to biomass, persistence, stability and the
253 functioning of the communities (Buche et al., 2024; Kéfi et al., 2012, 2015; Miele et al.,
254 2019).

255 4 Network construction

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

262 4.1 Why construct networks?

263 Networks are a representation of biodiversity. In a perfect world, we might know about
264 all interactions. However, the empirical collection of interaction data is both costly and
265 challenging to execute (Jordano, 2016a, 2016b; Poisot et al., 2021). In the absence of
266 robust empirical data, we construct models that facilitate interpolation and gap-filling of
267 existing empirical datasets (*e.g.*, Biton et al., 2024; Dallas et al., 2017; Poisot et al., 2023;
268 Stock et al., 2017), predict the feasibility of interaction among pairs of species, or directly

269 predict network structure (see Strydom et al., 2021 for a broader discussion).

270 They are unique in delivering more than just estimates of species richness. As noted in
271 the introduction, a network embodies the organising structure of biodiversity and allows
272 numerous opportunities for ‘downstream’ analysis, including the comparison of structures,
273 estimation of energy flux or extinction dynamics and ultimately form the structural inputs
274 to dynamical systems models that facilitate ecological and conservation relevant inference
275 about productivity-diversity-stability-function relationships (Danet et al., 2024) in space
276 and time. But making such inferences requires careful attention to one or more of the
277 processes discussed in Section 3.

278 4.2 Construction through induction

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

285 4.2.1 Species specific networks: construction through node level induction

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

294 Evolutionary compatibility and co-occurrence constraints have been critical to the con-
295 struction of ‘first draft’ networks for communities for which we have no interaction data
296 (Strydom et al., 2022). They are also central to interpolation in data poor regions and
297 predicting interactions for ‘unobservable’ communities *e.g.*, prehistoric networks (Dunhill
298 et al., 2024; Fricke et al., 2022; Yeakel et al., 2014) or future, novel community assemblages
299 (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 (Albouy et al., 2014; Gravel et al., 2019; Higinio 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 on 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 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 (Brose et al., 2019; Yodzis & Innes, 1992), although it is broadly acknowledged that many herbivores (such as insects) violate these assumptions (Valdovinos et al., 2023). 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.*, traits) in conjunction with known interactions to infer the latent values of species, which can then be mapped onto decomposition of a known network. See Strydom et al. (2023) for a detailed review of methods and Strydom et al. (2022) for a specific example.

4.2.2 Species agnostic networks: construction through structure induction

Networks in this category are generated using rules that create non-random networks that reflect some minimal empirical knowledge of ecological networks. These can be used in a variety of ways, for example comparing the structure of realised networks to

quantify relative deviations from the model structure. They are also used as a way to generate ‘realistic’ food web structures that are used for dynamical or other analyses. The determination of links between species is only implicitly linked to properties of the nodes. 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 the expectations are for network structure. These are some of the most commonly used network generation tools (*e.g.*, the Niche model; Williams & Martinez (2000)). There are two sub-categories of these species agnostic networks.

Stochastic network models use a probabilistic rule-set about diet choice and niche breadth to reflect fundamental ideas of foraging biology. These models that are based on the compartmentalisation 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 single dimension [the ‘niche axis’; Allesina et al. (2008)]. Typically these models parametrise some aspect of 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 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; Schneider et al., 2016) and bioenergetic food web models (Delmas et al., 2017).

4.3 Construction through deduction

In contrast to the above approaches centred on feasibility, realised networks via methods reflecting abundance and diet choice typically rely on deductive reasoning and have a unique agenda to those above. In contrast to the inductive methods, inference about a realised network follows from a set of premises defining generative processes, often referred to as mechanisms. Typically, models that embed abundance and diet choice constraints reference theory that allows inference about the distribution and strength of interactions. Such models are ‘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 the structural backbone for dynamical systems modelling to address questions about stability-structure-productivity-function relationships, secondary extinction dynamics, species invasion and climate change. There

are two broad groups of models in this deductive category.

4.3.1 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 solely determined by the relative abundance of the different species in the community. Although it is highly unlikely that abundance is the only determinant 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 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) are similar to the mechanistic approaches discussed in Section 4.2, however instead of determining interactions based on mechanistic feasibility it is rather constrained by the energetic cost of predation. Note that although these models do not place any explicit constraints on the expected structure of the network, the links should 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 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 explicitly accounting for trait-based (*i.e.*, feasibility) parameterisation (Curtisdotter et al., 2019).

5 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 disturbance 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 extinctions 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 3.1, the underlying data that is used to construct it Section 4 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 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: Showcasing some of the broader avenues of inquiry, specifically how they map to the different network representations. Additionally we highlight some studies that address or present opening discussions around each research question. Superscripts at the research question indicate the strength of the current literature in addressing that research question: \checkmark indicates area with strong foundational research, Δ partial/emerging areas of research, and \times areas where research is weak/largely absent

Net- work Rep- resen- tation	Example Research Question	Representative Studies
Global Metawebs	How will novel communities respond <i>e.g.</i> , extinction, turnover, invasion and rewilding \checkmark	Gravel, Albouy, et al. (2016); Dunne et al. (2002)
	Diet-based conservation focusing not only on the target species but the species it might depend on for food resources Δ	Rooney & McCann (2012); Curtsdotter et al. (2011)
	Rewiring capacity/potential of species by looking at the <i>entire</i> diets of species Δ	Gilljam et al. (2015); Staniczenko et al. (2010); Su et al. (2024); Marjakangas et al. (2025)
	Eco-Evolutionary dynamics and how they relate to the conservation and origination of feeding strategies \times	Poisot et al. (2015); Baskerville et al. (2011)
Re- gional Metawebs	Applied use potential of questions highlighted for global metawebs at the management scale <i>e.g.</i> , a protected area Δ	Albouy et al. (2014); Pellissier et al. (2018)
	Refinement/extension of species distribution models by incorporating co-occurrence and species associations <i>e.g.</i> , predator and prey \checkmark	Araújo & Luoto (2007); Kissling et al. (2012)

Net-		
work		
Rep-		
resen-		
tation	Example Research Question	Representative Studies
Re-	The allocation of multiple stressors	Crain et al. (2008);
alised	across networks Δ	Beauchesne et al. (2021)
webs		
	Temperature threshold to	O’Gorman et al. (2019); Petchey et al.
	community collapse Δ	(2010)
	Extinction and persistence after	Allesina & Tang (2012); Yodzis (2001)
	harvesting/invasion/extinction \checkmark	
	Stability-diversity-productivity-	Thébault & Fontaine (2010); Rooney &
	function \checkmark	McCann (2012)
	Explicitly tying ecosystem level	Moore et al. (2004)
	processes and nutrient flows to	
	networks \times	
	Meta communities and the idea of	Gravel, Massol, et al. (2016); Gilarranz
	meta-network-communities Δ	et al. (2017)

5.1 Key Eco-Evo-Conservation Questions

5.1.1 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 *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 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 particular class 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 ecological-evolutionary dynamics and the role that both evolutionary history, natural selection, and phenotypic plasticity shapes the diet breadth of species.

5.1.2 Regional Metawebs

Regional metawebs are conceptually a spatially constrained global metaweb. They make explicit the co-occurrence between species. Against this backdrop, they are conceptually aligned with similar questions to those posed above, with the added focus on a community facing, real-world, 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 metawebs, whether discrete collections or along environmental gradients. At this scale, where the network embeds the assumptions of feasibility, the link distribution is not meaningfully constrained by environmental factors (see Section 2.2) and it is vital to disentangle structural change *per se* from the multiple processes that might determine species turnover (*e.g.*, β - diversity).

5.1.3 Realised networks

Realised networks 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 legacy of generative network models (like the Cascade and Niche model) which produce realised network representations, and represent the ideal ‘currency’ for which to understand the constraints placed on interactions/network structure by the broader community and environmental context. This change in currency and context affords 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.

Realised networks embody an explicit focus on the link between network structure to ecosystem function. Because the structure of realised webs are isolated from turnover

processes they allow us to think about the propagation of change (across both time and space) which allows 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 the modification of links). For example in Section 5.1.1 we discuss how global metawebs can inform as to the rewiring *capacity* of a species, a realised network however would be better suited to capture the rewiring of networks over time as a response to changes in the environment or community.

Although the recent boom in the availability of long-term observation data is allowing us to unpack decades of insights 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 transient nature of the interactions between species (Polis, 1991). Thus we need to apply a degree of caution when using empirical data to construct realised networks - although 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).

5.2 Key methodological challenges

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

Understanding what empirical 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.g.*, gut or isotope analysis. A network constructed with empirical data will most likely still represent an ‘accumulation’ of feeding data making it conceptually more closely aligned with the idea of a metaweb.

The validation of network structure: Progress has been made in the development of tools and approaches of assessing how well a model recovers pairwise interactions (Poisot, 2023; Strydom et al., 2021), but we still lack a clear set of guidelines for benchmarking the ability of models to recover structure (Allesina et al., 2008; Tylianakis et al., 2010). This makes it challenging to assess if models are capturing network structure accurately,

especially if one wants to use empirical data as the ‘testing set’. Specifically, can we use a network constructed using long-term interaction observation data (*i.e.*, conceptually a metaweb) to assess the accuracy of a modelled (*I don’t know how I feel about this word*), realised network? Additionally one needs to think about *what* aspect of accurate/precise network construction is the most important - is it the structure or ability to correctly predict pairwise links? In the case of attempting to construct a metaweb it is important that one is accurately recovering both links that are truly present and absent, however in the case of realised webs it is perhaps not that clear. Is it sufficient to correctly recover structure *e.g.*, connectance or do the pairwise links also need to be correct?

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

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

Having a well developed framework as well as ‘fluidity’ to allow us to scale up between meta- and realised food webs lays the groundwork for us to actively begin the integration of food webs into the classical metacommunity-metacosystem space (Massol et al., 2011) as well as ecosystem level processes (Liu et al., 2025). That being said developments in the community-ecosystem space should be intentional about articulating a firm distinction as to what defines a ‘network’ as a unit, as well as defining the logical (spatial and temporal) boundaries between networks (Fortin et al., 2021).

Making networks more tractable in applied spaces: There is a disconnect when it comes to effectively using networks in applied spaces. This is probably at least in part related to the challenges with delineating ‘boundaries’ between networks, and how these relate to ‘management units’ and scales in addition to a limited interpretability of network metrics, specifically how this can be applied to conservation targets/indices (Dansereau, Braga, et al., 2024). In order to address these shortcomings we need to make

an effort to more efficiently map the form (structure) of a network to its function in order to identify how this can effectively be integrated into policy to make it meaningful and actionable (O'Connor et al., 2025), all while remaining mindful to ensure that we identify the appropriate analytical tools and network representation (Pellissier et al., 2018).

Taken together, these challenges highlight three overarching messages. (i) Network representations are inseparable from the data and assumptions used to construct them; (ii) validation and benchmarking must be explicitly aligned with the intended network type and question; (iii) greater conceptual clarity is needed when transitioning between metawebs and realised networks, particularly in applied contexts. Explicitly articulating these distinctions is essential if networks are to be used both rigorously and transparently across scales.

6 Conclusion

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. A central message of this synthesis is that network representations are not interchangeable, and that their utility depends explicitly on the assumptions, data, and processes they are intended to capture. As we highlight in Section 5 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. By formalising the assumptions and mechanisms underlying different network constructions, we provide a framework for evaluating when and how particular representations are appropriate. This framework aims to prevent the unintentional misuse or misinterpretation of networks. It also offers a starting point for developing improved approaches to the applied use of networks in addressing questions that are pressing both within the field and across broader biodiversity science.

Acknowledgements: TS, APB, and AMD received funding from NERC/NSF grant number NE/X015025/1.

References

- Albouy, C., Velez, L., Coll, M., Colloca, F., Le Loc'h, F., Mouillot, D., & Gravel, D. (2014). From projected species distribution to food-web structure under climate change. *Global Change Biology*, 20(3), 730–741. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12467>
- Allesina, S., Alonso, D., & Pascual, M. (2008). A General Model for Food Web Structure. *Science*, 320(5876), 658–661. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1156269>
- Allesina, S., & Pascual, M. (2009). Food web models: A plea for groups. *Ecology Letters*, 12(7), 652–662. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2009.01321.x>
- Allesina, S., & Tang, S. (2012). Stability criteria for complex ecosystems. *Nature*, 483(7388, 7388), 205–208. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature10832>
- Araújo, M. B., & Luoto, M. (2007). The importance of biotic interactions for modelling species distributions under climate change. *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, 16(6), 743–753. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1466-8238.2007.00359.x>
- 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., & Jordano, P. (2007). Plant-Animal Mutualistic Networks: The Architecture of Biodiversity. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics*, 38(1), 567–593. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.38.091206.095818>
- Baskerville, E. B., Dobson, A. P., Bedford, T., Allesina, S., Anderson, T. M., & Pascual, M. (2011). Spatial Guilds in the Serengeti Food Web Revealed by a Bayesian Group Model. *PLOS Computational Biology*, 7(12), e1002321. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1002321>
- Beauchesne, D., Cazelles, K., Archambault, P., Dee, L. E., & Gravel, D. (2021). On the sensitivity of food webs to multiple stressors. *Ecology Letters*, 24(10), 2219–2237. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.13841>
- Becker, D. J., Albery, G. F., Sjodin, A. R., Poisot, T., Bergner, L. M., Chen, B., Cohen, L. E., Dallas, T. A., Eskew, E. A., Fagre, A. C., Farrell, M. J., Guth, S., Han, B. A., Simmons, N. B., Stock, M., Teeling, E. C., & Carlson, C. J. (2022). Optimising predictive models to prioritise viral discovery in zoonotic reservoirs. *The Lancet Microbe*, 3(8), e625–e637. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2666-5247\(21\)00245-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2666-5247(21)00245-7)
- Beckerman, A. P., Petchey, O. L., & Warren, P. H. (2006). Foraging biology predicts food web complexity. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 103(37),

13745–13749. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0603039103>

Benadi, G., Dormann, C. F., Fründ, J., Stephan, R., & Vázquez, D. P. (2022). Quantitative Prediction of Interactions in Bipartite Networks Based on Traits, Abundances, and Phylogeny. *The American Naturalist*, 199(6), 841–854. <https://doi.org/10.1086/714420>

Berlow, E. L., Neutel, A.-M., Cohen, J. E., de Ruiter, P. C., Ebenman, B., Emmerson, M., Fox, J. W., Jansen, V. A. A., Iwan Jones, J., Kokkoris, G. D., Logofet, D. O., McKane, A. J., Montoya, J. M., & Petchey, O. (2004). Interaction strengths in food webs: Issues and opportunities. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 73(3), 585–598. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0021-8790.2004.00833.x>

Biton, B., Puzis, R., & Pilosof, S. (2024, August 2). *Inductive link prediction boosts data availability and enables cross-community link prediction in ecological networks*. <https://ecoevorxiv.org/repository/view/7492/>

Blanchet, F. G., Cazelles, K., & Gravel, D. (2020). Co-occurrence is not evidence of ecological interactions. *Ecology Letters*, 23(7), 1050–1063. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.13525>

Blüthgen, N. (2010). Why network analysis is often disconnected from community ecology: A critique and an ecologist’s guide. *Basic and Applied Ecology*, 11(3), 185–195. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.baae.2010.01.001>

Blüthgen, N., & Staab, M. (2024). A Critical Evaluation of Network Approaches for Studying Species Interactions. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics*, 55(1), 65–88. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-102722-021904>

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), 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., Archambault, P., Barnes, A. D., Bersier, L.-F., Boy, T., Canning-Clode, J., Conti, E., Dias, M., Digel, C., Dissanayake, A., Flores, A. A. V., Fussmann, K.,

628 Gauzens, B., Gray, C., Häussler, J., Hirt, M. R., Jacob, U., Jochum, M., Kéfi, S., ...
629 Iles, A. C. (2019). Predator traits determine food-web architecture across ecosystems.
630 *Nature Ecology & Evolution*, 3(6), 919–927. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-019-0899-x>
631 Brose, U., Williams, R. J., & Martinez, N. D. (2006). Allometric scaling enhances stability
632 in complex food webs. *Ecology Letters*, 9(11), 1228–1236. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2006.00978.x>
633
634 Brown, J. H., Gillooly, J. F., Allen, A. P., Savage, V. M., & West, G. B. (2004). Toward a
635 Metabolic Theory of Ecology. *Ecology*, 85(7), 1771–1789. <https://doi.org/10.1890/03-9000>
636
637 Buche, L., Bartomeus, I., & Godoy, O. (2024). Multitrophic Higher-Order Interactions
638 Modulate Species Persistence. *The American Naturalist*, 203(4), 458–472. <https://doi.org/10.1086/729222>
639
640 Canard, E. F., Mouquet, N., Mouillot, D., Stanko, M., Miklisova, D., & Gravel, D. (2014).
641 Empirical Evaluation of Neutral Interactions in Host-Parasite Networks. *The American*
642 *Naturalist*, 183(4), 468–479. <https://doi.org/10.1086/675363>
643 Canard, E., Mouquet, N., Marescot, L., Gaston, K. J., Gravel, D., & Mouillot, D. (2012).
644 Emergence of Structural Patterns in Neutral Trophic Networks. *PLOS ONE*, 7(8),
645 e38295. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0038295>
646 Caron, D., Brose, U., Lurgi, M., Blanchet, F. G., Gravel, D., & Pollock, L. J. (2024). Trait-
647 matching models predict pairwise interactions across regions, not food web properties.
648 *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, 33(4), e13807. <https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.13807>
649 Caron, D., Maiorano, L., Thuiller, W., & Pollock, L. J. (2022). Addressing the Eltonian
650 shortfall with trait-based interaction models. *Ecology Letters*, 25(4), 889–899. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.13966>
651
652 Cattin, M.-F., Bersier, L.-F., Banašek-Richter, C., Baltensperger, R., & Gabriel, J.-P.
653 (2004). Phylogenetic constraints and adaptation explain food-web structure. *Nature*,
654 427(6977, 6977), 835–839. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature02327>
655 Cherif, M., Brose, U., Hirt, M. R., Ryser, R., Silve, V., Albert, G., Arnott, R., Berti, E.,
656 Cirtwill, A., Dyer, A., Gauzens, B., Gupta, A., Ho, H.-C., Portalier, S. M. J., Wain,
657 D., & Wootton, K. (2024). The environment to the rescue: Can physics help predict
658 predator–prey interactions? *Biological Reviews*, 138(1). <https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.13105>
659
660 Cirtwill, A. R., Ekl f, A., Roslin, T., Wootton, K., & Gravel, D. (2019). A quantitative
661 framework for investigating the reliability of empirical network construction. *Methods*

in *Ecology and Evolution*, 10(6), 902–911. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13180>

Clegg, T., Ali, M., & Beckerman, A. P. (2018). The impact of intraspecific variation on food web structure. *Ecology*, 99(12), 2712–2720. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecy.2523>

Cohen, J. E., Briand, F., & Newman, C. (1990). *Community Food Webs: Data and Theory*. Springer-Verlag. <https://www.springer.com/gp/book/9783642837869>

Crain, C. M., Kroeker, K., & Halpern, B. S. (2008). Interactive and cumulative effects of multiple human stressors in marine systems. *Ecology Letters*, 11(12), 1304–1315. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2008.01253.x>

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>

Curtsdotter, A., Binzer, A., Brose, U., De Castro, F., Ebenman, B., Eklöf, A., Riede, J. O., Thierry, A., & Rall, B. C. (2011). Robustness to secondary extinctions: Comparing trait-based sequential deletions in static and dynamic food webs. *Basic and Applied Ecology*, 12(7), 571–580. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.baae.2011.09.008>

Dalla Riva, G. V., & Stouffer, D. B. (2016). Exploring the evolutionary signature of food webs’ backbones using functional traits. *Oikos*, 125(4), 446–456. <https://doi.org/10.1111/oik.02305>

Dallas, T., Park, A. W., & Drake, J. M. (2017). Predicting cryptic links in host-parasite networks. *PLOS Computational Biology*, 13(5), e1005557. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1005557>

Danet, A., Kéfi, S., Johnson, T. F., & Beckerman, A. P. (2024, August 30). *Response diversity is a major driver of temporal stability in complex food webs*. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.08.29.610288> (Pre-published)

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*. <https://ecoevorxiv.org/repository/view/8134/>

Delmas, E., Brose, U., Gravel, D., Stouffer, D. B., & Poisot, T. (2017). Simulations of biomass dynamics in community food webs. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 8(7),

881–886. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12713>

Desjardins-Proulx, P., Laigle, I., Poisot, T., & Gravel, D. (2017). Ecological interactions and the Netflix problem. *PeerJ*, 5, e3644. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.3644>

Dormann, C. F. (2023). The rise, and possible fall, of network ecology. In *Defining Agroecology – A Festschrift for Teja Tscharnke* (pp. 143–159.). Tredition.

Dunhill, A. M., 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>

Dunne, J. A. (2006). The Network Structure of Food Webs. In J. A. Dunne & M. Pascual (Eds.), *Ecological networks: Linking structure and dynamics* (pp. 27–86). Oxford University Press.

Dunne, J. A., Williams, R. J., & Martinez, N. D. (2002). Network structure and biodiversity loss in food webs: Robustness increases with connectance. *Ecology Letters*, 5(4), 558–567. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1461-0248.2002.00354.x>

Eklöf, A., Tang, S., & Allesina, S. (2013). Secondary extinctions in food webs: A Bayesian network approach. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 4(8), 760–770. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12062>

Elton, C. S. (2001). *Animal Ecology* (M. A. Leibold & T. J. Wootton, Eds.). University of Chicago Press. <https://press.uchicago.edu/ucp/books/book/chicago/A/bo25281897.html>

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>

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.,

730 Farjalla, V. F., Rogy, P., Brose, U., Petermann, J. S., Geslin, B., & Hines, J. (2025).
731 Tailoring interaction network types to answer different ecological questions. *Nature*
732 *Reviews Biodiversity*, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s44358-025-00056-7>

733 Gilarranz, L. J., Rayfield, B., Liñán-Cembrano, G., Bascompte, J., & Gonzalez, A. (2017).
734 Effects of network modularity on the spread of perturbation impact in experimental
735 metapopulations. *Science (New York, N.Y.)*, 357(6347), 199–201. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aal4122)
736 [1126/science.aal4122](https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aal4122)

737 Gilljam, D., Curtsdotter, A., & Ebenman, B. (2015). Adaptive rewiring aggravates the
738 effects of species loss in ecosystems. *Nature Communications*, 6(1), 8412. [https:](https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms9412)
739 [//doi.org/10.1038/ncomms9412](https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms9412)

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

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

746 Gravel, D., Albouy, C., & Thuiller, W. (2016). The meaning of functional trait composition
747 of food webs for ecosystem functioning. *Philosophical Transactions: Biological Sciences*,
748 371(1694), 1–14. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/24768743>

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

753 Gravel, D., Massol, F., & Leibold, M. A. (2016). Stability and complexity in model meta-
754 ecosystems. *Nature Communications*, 7, 12457. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms12457>

755 Gravel, D., Poisot, T., Albouy, C., Velez, L., & Mouillot, D. (2013). Inferring food
756 web structure from predator–prey body size relationships. *Methods in Ecology and*
757 *Evolution*, 4(11), 1083–1090. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12103>

758 Hao, X., Holyoak, M., Zhang, Z., & Yan, C. (2025). Global Projection of Terrestrial
759 Vertebrate Food Webs Under Future Climate and Land-Use Changes. *Global Change*
760 *Biology*, 31(2), e70061. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.70061>

761 Higino, G. T., Banville, F., Dansereau, G., Muñoz, N. R. F., Windsor, F., & Poisot, T.
762 (2023). Mismatch between IUCN range maps and species interactions data illustrated
763 using the Serengeti food web. *PeerJ*, 11, e14620. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.14620>

Holland, J. N., DeAngelis, D. L., & Bronstein, J. L. (2002). Population Dynamics and Mutualism: Functional Responses of Benefits and Costs. *The American Naturalist*, 159(3), 231–244. <https://doi.org/10.1086/338510>

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

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

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

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

Kamaru, D. N., Palmer, T. M., Riginos, C., Ford, A. T., Belnap, J., Chira, R. M., Githaiga, J. M., Gituku, B. C., Hays, B. R., Kavwele, C. M., Kibungei, A. K., Lamb, C. T., Maiyo, N. J., Milligan, P. D., Mutisya, S., Ng’weno, C. C., Ogutu, M., Pietrek, A. G., Wildt, B. T., & Goheen, J. R. (2024). Disruption of an ant-plant mutualism shapes interactions between lions and their primary prey. *Science*, 383(6681), 433–438. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.adg1464>

Kéfi, S., Berlow, E. L., Wieters, E. A., Joppa, L. N., Wood, S. A., Brose, U., & Navarrete, S. A. (2015). Network structure beyond food webs: Mapping non-trophic and trophic interactions on Chilean rocky shores. *Ecology*, 96(1), 291–303. <https://doi.org/10.1890/13-1424.1>

Kéfi, S., Berlow, E. L., Wieters, E. A., Navarrete, S. A., Petchey, O. L., Wood, S. A., Boit, A., Joppa, L. N., Lafferty, K. D., Williams, R. J., Martinez, N. D., Menge, B. A., Blanchette, C. A., Iles, A. C., & Brose, U. (2012). More than a meal... integrating non-feeding interactions into food webs. *Ecology Letters*, 15(4), 291–300. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2011.01732.x>

Keyes, A. A., Barner, A. K., & Dee, L. E. (2024). Synthesising the Relationships Between Food Web Structure and Robustness. *Ecology Letters*, 27(10), e14533. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.14533>

Keyes, A. A., McLaughlin, J. P., Barner, A. K., & Dee, L. E. (2021). An ecological network approach to predict ecosystem service vulnerability to species losses. *Nature*

798 *Communications*, 12(1), 1586. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-21824-x>

799 Kissling, W. D., Dormann, C. F., Groeneveld, J., Hickler, T., Kühn, I., McInerny, G. J.,
800 Montoya, J. M., Römermann, C., Schiffers, K., Schurr, F. M., Singer, A., Svenning,
801 J.-C., Zimmermann, N. E., & O'Hara, R. B. (2012). Towards novel approaches
802 to modelling biotic interactions in multispecies assemblages at large spatial extents.
803 *Journal of Biogeography*, 39(12), 2163–2178. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2011.](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2011.02663.x)
804 [02663.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2011.02663.x)

805 Krause, A. E., Frank, K. A., Mason, D. M., Ulanowicz, R. E., & Taylor, W. W. (2003).
806 Compartments revealed in food-web structure. *Nature*, 426(6964), 282–285. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature02115>

807 [//doi.org/10.1038/nature02115](https://doi.org/10.1038/nature02115)

808 Krishna, A., Guimarães Jr, P. R., Jordano, P., & Bascompte, J. (2008). A neutral-niche
809 theory of nestedness in mutualistic networks. *Oikos*, 117(11), 1609–1618. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0706.2008.16540.x>

810 [//doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0706.2008.16540.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0706.2008.16540.x)

811 Lindeman, R. L. (1942). The Trophic-Dynamic Aspect of Ecology. *Ecology*, 23(4), 399–417.
812 <https://doi.org/10.2307/1930126>

813 Liu, J., Liu, M., Yin, J., Zhang, Y., Guo, Y., Yu, T., Yu, H., & Ming, X. (2025).
814 Harnessing food webs as a framework for enhancing ecosystem multifunctionality.
815 *Biological Conservation*, 310, 111383. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2025.111383>

816 Llewelyn, J., Strona, G., Dickman, C. R., Greenville, A. C., Wardle, G. M., Lee, M. S.
817 Y., Doherty, S., Shabani, F., Saltr  , F., & Bradshaw, C. J. A. (2023). Predicting
818 predator–prey interactions in terrestrial endotherms using random forest. *Ecography*,
819 2023(9), e06619. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ecog.06619>

820 Loreau, M., & de Mazancourt, C. (2013). Biodiversity and ecosystem stability: A synthesis
821 of underlying mechanisms. *Ecology Letters*, 16(s1), 106–115. [https://doi.org/10.1111/](https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12073)
822 [ele.12073](https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12073)

823 MacArthur, R. (1955). Fluctuations of Animal Populations and a Measure of Community
824 Stability. *Ecology*, 36(3), 533–536. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1929601>

825 Marjakangas, E.-L., Dalsgaard, B., & Ord  nez, A. (2025). Fundamental Interaction Niches:
826 Towards a Functional Understanding of Ecological Networks' Resilience. *Ecology Letters*,
827 28(6), e70146. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.70146>

828 Martinez, N. D. (1991). Artifacts or Attributes? Effects of Resolution on the Little Rock
829 Lake Food Web. *Ecological Monographs*, 61(4), 367–392. [https://doi.org/10.2307/](https://doi.org/10.2307/2937047)
830 [2937047](https://doi.org/10.2307/2937047)

831 Martinez, N. D., & Dunne, J. A. (1998). Time, space, and beyond: Scale issues in food-web

research. In *Ecological Scale: Theory and Applications* (pp. 207–226). Columbia
University Press.

Massol, F., Gravel, D., Mouquet, N., Cadotte, M. W., Fukami, T., & Leibold, M. A.
(2011). Linking community and ecosystem dynamics through spatial ecology. *Ecology
Letters*, 14(3), 313–323. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2011.01588.x>

May, R. M. (1972). Will a large complex system be stable? *Nature*, 238(5364), 413–414.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/238413a0>

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](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/10.1111/2041-210X.13380>

Montoya, J. M., Pimm, S. L., & Solé, R. V. (2006). Ecological networks and their fragility.
Nature, 442(7100, 7100), 259–264. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature04927>

Moore, J. C., Berlow, E. L., Coleman, D. C., de Ruiter, P. C., Dong, Q., Hastings,
A., Johnson, N. C., McCann, K. S., Melville, K., Morin, P. J., Nadelhoffer, K.,
Rosemond, A. D., Post, D. M., Sabo, J. L., Scow, K. M., Vanni, M. J., & Wall, D. H.
(2004). Detritus, trophic dynamics and biodiversity. *Ecology Letters*, 7(7), 584–600.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2004.00606.x>

Morales-Castilla, I., Matias, M. G., Gravel, D., & Araújo, M. B. (2015). Inferring
biotic interactions from proxies. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 30(6), 347–356.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2015.03.014>

Moulatlet, G., Luna, P., Dattilo, W., & Villalobos, F. (2024). *The scaling of trophic
specialization in interaction networks across levels of organization*. [https://doi.org/10.
22541/au.172977303.33335171/v1](https://doi.org/10.22541/au.172977303.33335171/v1)

O'Connor, L. M. J., Thuiller, W., Brose, U., Chenevois, É., Freund, C., Gauzens, B.,
Gäüzere, P., Graham, C., Harfoot, M., Hirt, M. R., Lavergne, S., Maiorano, L.,
Moilanen, A., Verburg, P. H., Visconti, P., & Pollock, L. J. (2025). *The untapped
potential of food webs in systematic conservation planning*. [https://hal.science/hal-
05331872](https://hal.science/hal-05331872)

O’Gorman, E. J., Petchey, O. L., Faulkner, K. J., Gallo, B., Gordon, T. A. C., Neto-
Cerejeira, J., Ólafsson, J. S., Pichler, D. E., Thompson, M. S. A., & Woodward, G.

(2019). A simple model predicts how warming simplifies wild food webs. *Nature Climate Change*, 9(8, 8), 611–616. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-019-0513-x>

Odum, E. P. (1968). Energy Flow in Ecosystems: A Historical Review. *American Zoologist*, 8(1), 11–18. <https://doi.org/10.1093/icb/8.1.11>

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>

Pecuchet, L., Blanchet, M.-A., Frainer, A., Husson, B., Jørgensen, L. L., Kortsch, S., & Primicerio, R. (2020). Novel feeding interactions amplify the impact of species redistribution on an Arctic food web. *Global Change Biology*, 26(9), 4894–4906. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.15196>

Pellissier, L., Albouy, C., Bascompte, J., Farwig, N., Graham, C., Loreau, M., Maglianesi, M. A., Melián, C. J., Pitteloud, C., Roslin, T., Rohr, R., Saavedra, S., Thuiller, W., Woodward, G., Zimmermann, N. E., & Gravel, D. (2018). Comparing species interaction networks along environmental gradients. *Biological Reviews*, 93(2), 785–800. <https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12366>

Petchey, O. L., Beckerman, A. P., Riede, J. O., & Warren, P. H. (2008). Size, foraging, and food web structure. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 105(11), 4191–4196. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0710672105>

Petchey, O. L., Brose, U., & Rall, B. C. (2010). Predicting the effects of temperature on food web connectance. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 365(1549), 2081–2091. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2010.0011>

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>

Pimm, S. L. (1984). The complexity and stability of ecosystems. *Nature*, 307(5949), 321–326. <https://doi.org/10.1038/307321a0>

Poisot, T. (2023). Guidelines for the prediction of species interactions through binary classification. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 14(5), 1333–1345. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.14071>

Poisot, T., 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/10.1111/1365-2435.12180>

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>

Pollock, L. J., Tingley, R., Morris, W. K., Golding, N., O'Hara, R. B., Parris, K. M., Vesk, P. A., & McCarthy, M. A. (2014). Understanding co-occurrence by modelling species simultaneously with a Joint Species Distribution Model (JSDM). *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 5(5), 397–406. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.12180>

Pomeranz, J. P. F., Thompson, R. M., Poisot, T., & Harding, J. S. (2019). Inferring predator–prey interactions in food webs. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 10(3), 356–367. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13125>

Portalier, S. M. J., Fussmann, G. F., Loreau, M., & Cherif, M. (2019). The mechanics of predator–prey interactions: First principles of physics predict predator–prey size ratios. *Functional Ecology*, 33(2), 323–334. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.13254>

Pringle, R. M. (2020). Untangling Food Webs. In *Unsolved Problems in Ecology* (pp. 225–238). Princeton University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9780691195322-020>

Pringle, R. M., & Hutchinson, M. C. (2020). Resolving Food-Web Structure. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution and Systematics*, 51, 55–80. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-110218-024908>

- Proulx, S. R., Promislow, D. E. L., & Phillips, P. C. (2005). Network thinking in ecology and evolution. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 20(6), 345–353. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2005.04.004>
- Pyke, G. (1984). Optimal Foraging Theory: A Critical Review. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution and Systematic*, 15, 523–575. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.15.1.523>
- Quintero, E., Arroyo-Correa, B., Isla, J., Rodríguez-Sánchez, F., & Jordano, P. (2024, July 16). *Downscaling mutualistic networks from species to individuals reveals consistent interaction niches and roles within plant populations*. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.02.02.578595> (Pre-published)
- Rohr, R. P., Scherer, H., Kehrli, P., Mazza, C., & Bersier, L. (2010). Modeling Food Webs: Exploring Unexplained Structure Using Latent Traits. *The American Naturalist*, 176(2), 170–177. <https://doi.org/10.1086/653667>
- Rooney, N., & McCann, K. S. (2012). Integrating food web diversity, structure and stability. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 27(1), 40–46. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2011.09.001>
- 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>
- Sauve, A. M. C., Thébault, E., Pocock, M. J. O., & Fontaine, C. (2016). How plants connect pollination and herbivory networks and their contribution to community stability. *Ecology*, 97(4), 908–917. <https://doi.org/10.1890/15-0132.1>
- 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>

- 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.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2020.01.004)
[tree.2020.01.004](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, January
 30). *A framework for reconstructing ancient food webs using functional trait data.*
<https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.01.30.578036> (Pre-published)
- 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>
- 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>
- Staniczenko, P. P. A., Lewis, O. T., Jones, N. S., & Reed-Tsochas, F. (2010). Structural
 dynamics and robustness of food webs. *Ecology Letters*, 13(7), 891–899. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2010.01485.x>
- Stephens, D. W., & Krebs, J. R. (1986). *Foraging Theory* (Vol. 1). Princeton University
 Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvs32s6b>
- Stock, M., 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.](https://doi.org/10.1038/srep45908)
[1038/srep45908](https://doi.org/10.1038/srep45908)
- Strydom, T., Bouskila, S., Banville, F., Barros, C., Caron, D., Farrell, M. J., Fortin,
 M.-J., Hemming, V., Mercier, B., Pollock, L. J., Runghen, R., Dalla Riva, G. V.,
 & Poisot, T. (2022). Food web reconstruction through phylogenetic transfer of low-
 rank network representation. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 13(12), 2838–2849.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.13835>
- Strydom, T., Bouskila, S., Banville, F., Barros, C., Caron, D., Farrell, M. J., Fortin,
 M.-J., Mercier, B., Pollock, L. J., Runghen, R., Dalla Riva, G. V., & Poisot, T.
 (2023). Graph embedding and transfer learning can help predict potential species
 interaction networks despite data limitations. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*,
 14(12), 2917–2930. <https://doi.org/10.1111/2041-210X.14228>

1002 Strydom, T., Catchen, M. D., Banville, F., Caron, D., Dansereau, G., Desjardins-Proulx,
1003 P., Forero-Muñoz, N. R., Higino, G., Mercier, B., Gonzalez, A., Gravel, D., Pollock,
1004 L., & Poisot, T. (2021). A roadmap towards predicting species interaction networks
1005 (across space and time). *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological*
1006 *Sciences*, 376(1837), 20210063. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2021.0063>

1007 Su, M., Ma, Q., & Hui, C. (2024). Adaptive rewiring shapes structure and stability in a
1008 three-guild herbivore-plant-pollinator network. *Communications Biology*, 7(1), 103.
1009 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s42003-024-05784-8>

1010 Terry, J. C. D., Bonsall, M. B., & Morris, R. J. (2025). The impact of structured
1011 higher-order interactions on ecological network stability. *Theoretical Ecology*, 18(1), 9.
1012 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12080-025-00603-0>

1013 Terry, J. C. D., & Lewis, O. T. (2020). Finding missing links in interaction networks.
1014 *Ecology*, 101(7), e03047. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecy.3047>

1015 Thébault, E., & Fontaine, C. (2010). Stability of ecological communities and the archi-
1016 tecture of mutualistic and trophic networks. *Science (New York, N.Y.)*, 329(5993),
1017 853–856. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1188321>

1018 Thuiller, W., Calderón-Sanou, I., Chalmandrier, L., Gaüzère, P., O'Connor, L. M. J.,
1019 Ohlmann, M., Poggiato, G., & Münkemüller, T. (2024). Navigating the integration of
1020 biotic interactions in biogeography. *Journal of Biogeography*, 51(4), 550–559. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.14734>

1021

1022 Tylianakis, J. M., Laliberté, E., Nielsen, A., & Bascompte, J. (2010). Conservation of
1023 species interaction networks. *Biological Conservation*, 143(10), 2270–2279. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2009.12.004>

1024

1025 Valdovinos, F. S., Hale, K. R. S., Dritz, S., Glaum, P. R., McCann, K. S., Simon, S. M.,
1026 Thébault, E., Wetzel, W. C., Wootton, K. L., & Yeakel, J. D. (2023). A bioenergetic
1027 framework for aboveground terrestrial food webs. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*,
1028 38(3), 301–312. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2022.11.004>

1029 Van De Walle, R., Logghe, G., Haas, N., Massol, F., Vandegheuchte, M. L., & Bonte,
1030 D. (2023). Arthropod food webs predicted from body size ratios are improved by
1031 incorporating prey defensive properties. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 92(4), 913–924.
1032 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2656.13905>

1033 Van der Putten, W. H., Macel, M., & Visser, M. E. (2010). Predicting species distribution
1034 and abundance responses to climate change: Why it is essential to include biotic
1035 interactions across trophic levels. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B:*

1036 *Biological Sciences*, 365(1549), 2025–2034. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2010.0037>

1037 Vázquez, D. P., Blüthgen, N., Cagnolo, L., & Chacoff, N. P. (2009). Uniting pattern and
1038 process in plant–animal mutualistic networks: A review. *Annals of Botany*, 103(9),
1039 1445–1457. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcp057>

1040 Williams, R. J., & Martinez, N. D. (2000). Simple rules yield complex food webs. *Nature*,
1041 404(6774, 6774), 180–183. <https://doi.org/10.1038/35004572>

1042 Windsor, F. M., van den Hoogen, J., Crowther, T. W., & Evans, D. M. (2023). Using
1043 ecological networks to answer questions in global biogeography and ecology. *Journal*
1044 *of Biogeography*, 50(1), 57–69. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.14447>

1045 Wooster, E. I. F., Middleton, O. S., Wallach, A. D., Ramp, D., Sanisidro, O., Harris, V. K.,
1046 Rowan, J., Schowaneck, S. D., Gordon, C. E., Svenning, J.-C., Davis, M., Scharlemann,
1047 J. P. W., Nimmo, D. G., Lundgren, E. J., & Sandom, C. J. (2024). Australia’s recently
1048 established predators restore complexity to food webs simplified by extinction. *Current*
1049 *Biology*, 34(22), 5164–5172.e2. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2024.09.049>

1050 Wootton, K. L., Curtsdotter, A., Roslin, T., Bommarco, R., & Jonsson, T. (2023).
1051 Towards a modular theory of trophic interactions. *Functional Ecology*, 37(1), 26–43.
1052 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.13954>

1053 Yeakel, J. D., Pires, M. M., Rudolf, L., Dominy, N. J., Koch, P. L., Guimarães, P. R., &
1054 Gross, T. (2014). Collapse of an ecological network in Ancient Egypt. *PNAS*, 111(40),
1055 14472–14477. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1408471111>

1056 Yodzis, P. (1982). The Compartmentation of Real and Assembled Ecosystems. *The*
1057 *American Naturalist*, 120(5), 551–570. <https://doi.org/10.1086/284013>

1058 Yodzis, P. (2001). Must top predators be culled for the sake of fisheries? *Trends in Ecology*
1059 *& Evolution*, 16(2), 78–84. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-5347\(00\)02062-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-5347(00)02062-0)

1060 Yodzis, P., & Innes, S. (1992). Body Size and Consumer-Resource Dynamics. *The*
1061 *American Naturalist*, 139(6), 1151–1175. <https://doi.org/10.1086/285380>

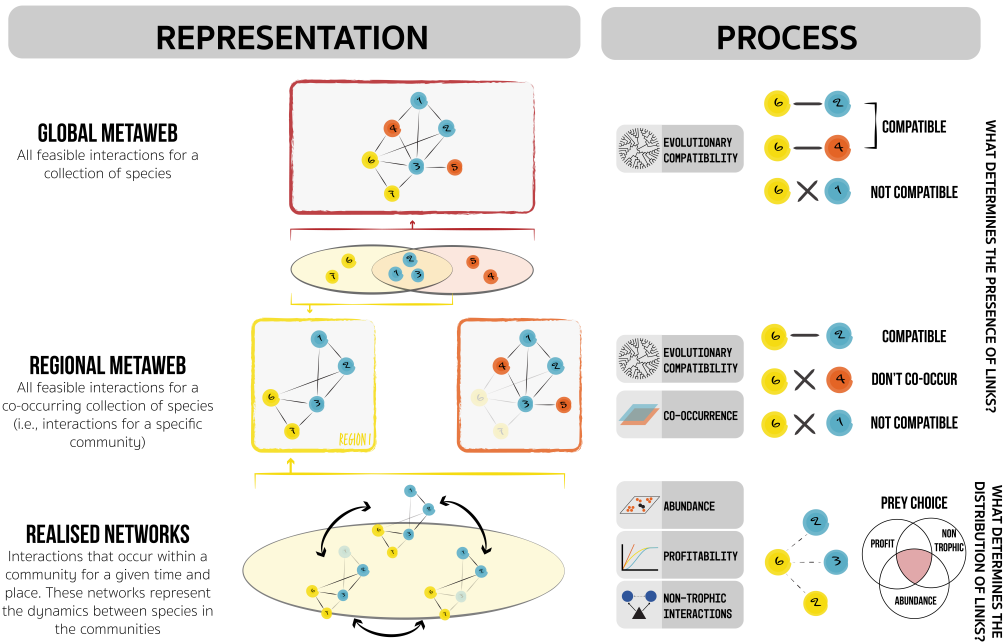


Figure 1: Aligning the various processes that determine interactions (right column) with the different network representations (left column). First, we start with a **global metaweb** this network captures all possible interactions for a collection of species in the global context. However, within the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