

From Metawebs to Realised Webs: A Framework for Ecological Network Representation under Global Change

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Abstract: Ecological networks are increasingly used to understand biodiversity and predict ecosystem responses to environmental change, yet their application is often limited by uncertainty about the assumptions embedded in different network representations. Here, we present a theory-driven framework that views network construction as a hierarchical transition from metawebs, which represent the feasibility of interactions, to realised webs, which represent interactions expressed in specific spatiotemporal contexts. We identify five key processes underlying this transition: evolutionary compatibility and co-occurrence, which define interaction feasibility, and abundance, diet choice, and non-trophic interactions, which determine interaction realisation. We further position these processes along a continuum of network construction methods, from inductive approaches that infer structure from observations to deductive approaches that generate structure from mechanistic principles. By explicitly linking network representations to their underlying assumptions and scale-dependent processes, our framework clarifies the questions that different networks can address, highlights key challenges in moving between potential and realised interactions, and provides a roadmap for developing predictive network ecology. We argue that greater conceptual clarity is essential for advancing biodiversity science and for the effective application of networks in conservation, environmental management, and forecasting ecological change in the Anthropocene.

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

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). 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 (Cohen et al., 1990; Dunne et al., 2002; Martinez & Dunne, 1998; Simmons et al., 2021). Documenting interactions is thus one of the fundamental building blocks of community ecology and provides a powerful abstraction for mathematical and statistical modelling of biodiversity to make predictions, and to mitigate and manage threats (Galiana & Araújo, 2026; Windsor et al., 2023).

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

Network construction reflects both the data used and the theories governing species interactions. We still lack a clear explanation of the different assumptions and scale dependent processes that underpin network construction alongside extensive discussions about the challenges relating to data collection and observation (Blüthgen & Staab, 2024; Brimacombe et al., 2023; Brimacombe et al., 2024; Martinez & Dunne, 1998; Moulatlet et al., 2024; Pimm, 1984; Polis, 1991; Pringle & Hutchinson, 2020; Saberski et al., 2024). Such an understanding should deliver an acceleration in capacity to more effectively predict the impact of multiple stressors on biodiverse communities and their functions.

In their recent work, Gauzens et al. (2025) synthesised ecological network representations according to node resolution and link type, highlighting the advantages, limitations,

34 and methodological considerations associated with different approaches. Here, we take a
35 complementary theory-driven perspective by framing network construction as a hierarchical
36 transition from the feasibility to the realisation of interactions. Rather than classifying
37 networks according to their structural characteristics alone, we focus on how assumptions
38 about ecological entities, interactions, and processes give rise to different representations
39 and the inferences they support. In the following sections, we review how nodes, edges,
40 and interaction processes shape ecological networks, highlighting how these assumptions
41 determine ecological scale, node and link resolution, the relative importance of evolutionary
42 versus ecological processes, and the approaches used to construct networks. We conclude
43 by linking alternative network representations to key questions in biodiversity science in
44 the Anthropocene.

45 **2 Setting the Scene: The Not So Basics of Nodes and** 46 **Edges**

47 Ecological networks represent an ‘object’ from which inferences can be made and thus
48 serve multiple purposes. While many aspects of community structure can be analysed
49 without networks (*e.g.*, trait distributions or abundance patterns) networks provide a
50 formal framework for capturing the organisation of interactions among species. The
51 study of network structure and topology has a long history in ecology, rooted in early
52 theory on energy flow (Lindeman, 1942; Odum, 1968), and later extended to questions
53 of robustness, stability, and complexity (*e.g.*, (Brose et al., 2006; Dunne et al., 2002;
54 May, 1972; Montoya et al., 2006; Pimm, 1984)). More recent work has built on this
55 foundation to link network structure to ecosystem functioning, persistence, and dynamical
56 behaviour (*e.g.*, (Danet et al., 2024; Piloosof et al., 2017; Schneider et al., 2016)). Networks
57 are therefore commonly treated as response variables in tests of ecological theory and
58 statistical models of the generative processes that give rise to observed structure and
59 are widely used to compare communities across environmental gradients or through time
60 (*e.g.*, Hao et al., 2025; Pecuchet et al., 2020). They also provide a platform for evaluating
61 downstream responses to perturbations, including secondary extinctions and robustness to
62 species loss (*e.g.*, (Dunne et al., 2002; Keyes et al., 2021; Keyes et al., 2024; Staniczenko
63 et al., 2010)), as well as inference about stability, ecosystem function, invasions, climate
64 change, contaminants, and extinction cascades (*e.g.*, (Curtsdotter et al., 2019; Delmas et
65 al., 2017; Terry et al., 2025)). Against this backdrop of multiple research agendas, the

66 definition of ‘edges’ and ‘nodes’, and the levels of organisation at which they are defined,
67 take many forms (Moulatlet et al., 2024; Poisot, Stouffer, et al., 2016), each of which
68 encode a series of assumptions within a network. Here we introduce an alignment between
69 these questions and baseline assumptions about nodes and edges.

70 **2.1 How do we define a node?**

71 While nodes are conventionally described as representing species, in practice they may
72 correspond to a range of taxonomic and non-taxonomic units, including sub-species,
73 genera, or families, as well as trophic species (*e.g.*, (Williams & Martinez, 2000; Yodzis,
74 1982)), feeding guilds (*e.g.*, (García-Callejas et al., 2023)), or life-stage-specific subsets of
75 species (*e.g.*, (Clegg et al., 2018)). These choices reflect differences in the level, type, and
76 consistency of resolution at which networks are constructed, rather than aggregation *per se*.
77 Representing nodes at coarser or mixed resolutions can limit taxon-specific inference (*e.g.*,
78 whether species *a* consumes species *b*), bias estimates of degree distributions (particularly
79 generality and vulnerability) and complicate downstream analyses such as extinction or
80 invasion dynamics, where species identity and the consequences of loss may be obscured
81 (Beckerman et al., 2006; Clegg et al., 2018). At the same time, there are clear justifications
82 for using aggregated representations when the distribution of interactions among functional
83 or trophic units is more informative than species-level detail, for example when analysing
84 extinction patterns across feeding guilds or other functional units (Dunhill et al., 2024).
85 Issues of resolution, scale, and sampling have long been recognised as central to the
86 construction and interpretation of food webs (*e.g.*, (Dunne, 2006; Martinez & Dunne,
87 1998)). Consequently, node definition is not merely a methodological choice but an
88 assumption about the ecological entities represented in a network, with direct implications
89 for the processes that can be represented and the questions that can be addressed (Gauzens
90 et al., 2025).

91 **2.2 What is captured by an edge?**

92 Understanding how edge assumptions impact ecological process representation requires
93 distinguishing between *potential* and *realised* links. Potential links reflect interaction
94 feasibility, whereas realised links reflect ecological fluxes such as energy transfer. Links
95 within food webs may therefore represent either potential interactions between species
96 (Dunne, 2006; Pringle, 2020) or realised fluxes within a system, such as the transfer of
97 energy or materials resulting from feeding interactions (Lindeman, 1942; Proulx et al.,

2005). Edges can thus correspond to different ecological ‘currencies’ (Gauzens et al., 2025). Moreover, links can be specified in multiple ways: they may be treated as present or absent (*i.e.*, binary), defined probabilistically (Banville et al., 2025; Poisot, Cirtwill, et al., 2016), or represented by continuous functions that quantify interaction strength (Berlow et al., 2004). Link definition therefore depends on both the ecological currency and how interactions are represented. Because different edge definitions encode different ecological processes, they also support different forms of inference. For example, networks composed of feasible interactions can characterise potential trophic structure but are generally insufficient for inferring the magnitude or distribution of energy flow because their links are not environmentally or energetically constrained.

2.3 Network representations

These definitions of nodes and edges and associated assumptions give rise to two well established types of ecological networks: **metawebs**, which represent all *potential* interactions within a species pool (Dunne, 2006), and **realised networks**, which represent the subset of interactions expressed within a particular community at a given place and time. Because of the assumptions made about nodes and edges in these networks, they differ in the scales they represent and the processes assumed to generate their structure.

A metaweb is fundamentally a list of *feasible* interactions between species. Metawebs identify evolutionarily and regionally plausible interactions, ecologically impossible (*i.e.*, forbidden) links (Jordano, 2016b), and the potential diet breadth of species (Strydom et al., 2023). Feasibility is thus determined by trait complementarity, typically related to feeding, and can be further constrained by species co-occurrence, producing a transition from *global* to *regional* metawebs.

In contrast, realised networks are localised in space and time, with links shaped by co-occurrence, environmental conditions, and diet choice. Even when represented as binary matrices, their links implicitly reflect interaction strength and energy transfer. Realised networks are therefore not simply spatial or temporal subsets of metawebs; they emerge from ecological processes that govern the occurrence and strength of interactions among species. Consequently, a metaweb and realised network containing the same species may differ substantially in structure because link presence is governed by different constraints. Critically, links absent from a metaweb represent infeasible interactions, whereas links absent from a realised network reflect context-dependent ecological constraints. At its most

130 general, a realised network must represent more than the potential for species interactions;
131 it must reflect the processes governing the distribution or strength of interactions within a
132 particular community.

133 **3 From Nodes and Edges to Process and Constraints**

134 In the previous section we discussed how the definition of nodes and edges, representing
135 different scales and processes, lead to the concept of a metaweb and a realised web. The
136 fundamental take-homes are that nodes vary in their resolution, edges vary in what kind
137 of process they represent and the intersection of these, defined by meta- vs. realised webs,
138 underpins distinct lines of inquiry and constraints on the type of inference we can make
139 with networks.

140 Following this, we here reveal five core constraints across evolutionary and ecological scales
141 that further delineate the transition from meta- to realised webs, exposing processes that
142 determine the nature of links among nodes: evolutionary compatibility, co-occurrence,
143 abundance, diet choice, and non-trophic interactions Figure 1.

144 [Figure 1 about here.]

145 **3.1 Processes that determine the feasibility of an interaction**

146 Evolutionary compatibility and co-occurrence are the two principal processes that define
147 the feasibility of an interaction between two species. The scale of inference and set
148 of processes embodied in these two constraints typically combine to define a ‘list’ of
149 interactions that are viable/feasible and defined strictly as present/absent. Reflecting on
150 the previous section, nodes are typically species and rules defining edges are defined by
151 trait complementarity (phylogenetic) and/or co-occurrence. Here we provide more insight
152 into each process.

153 **Evolutionary compatibility**

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

160 absent within a network.

161 Networks do not explicitly arise from models based on this constraint. Instead, interacting
162 species pairs are defined and these are represented as binary (possible vs forbidden) or
163 probabilistic (Banville et al., 2025). For example, in the metaweb constructed by Strydom
164 et al. (2022) probabilities are quantified as the confidence of a specific interaction being
165 *possible* between two species. A network constructed based on evolutionary compatibility
166 is conceptually aligned with a ‘global metaweb’, and gives us information as to the global
167 feasibility of links between species pairs even though they do not co-occur (see Figure 1).

168 **(Co)occurrence**

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

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

182 **3.2 Processes that realise networks**

183 In contrast to the above, here we highlight three processes that influence the *realisation* of
184 an interaction between species and thus form the conceptual basis for realised networks.
185 As we show in Figure 1, a ‘truly realised’ network is the product of properties of the
186 community (**abundance** and **non-trophic interactions**) and the individual (**diet**
187 **choice**). This represents a conceptual shift from considering the feasibility for species
188 pairwise interactions to considering the edge as a representation of energy flow. Such
189 a transition requires information about how the community, the environment and the
190 individual *constrains* network topology as defined by consumer choice (Quintero et al.
191 (2024), Section 2.3)

192 **Abundance**

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

202 **Diet choice**

203 It is well established that consumers make more active decisions than eating items in
204 proportion to their abundance (Stephens & Krebs, 1986). Ultimately, consumer choice
205 is underpinned by an energetic cost-benefit framework centred around profitability and
206 defined by traits associated with acquisition and consumption of a resource (Smith et al.,
207 2021; Wootton et al., 2023). Energetic constraints are invoked to construct networks in
208 a myriad of ways (*e.g.*, Beckerman et al., 2006; Cherif et al., 2024; Pawar et al., 2012;
209 Portalier et al., 2019).

210 Unlike metaweb approaches, these models generate realised webs as emergent outcomes
211 of consumer behaviour. We also here make a distinction, developed below, with models
212 like the Niche Model (Williams & Martinez, 2000), where diet choice is implicit in its
213 probabilistic network generating function, but it is working to replicate the *expected*
214 structure of the network, and this structure does not emerge from node-based rules. Note
215 that we select diet choice as a term to capture rules linked to optimal foraging (Pyke,
216 1984) and metabolic theory (Brown et al., 2004) for capturing the energetic constraints on
217 the distribution and strength of interactions.

218 **Non-trophic interactions**

219 We include non-trophic interactions (see Miele et al., 2019) here not as a determinant
220 of links, but a modifier of them - they are the community context above and beyond
221 co-occurrence and abundance. Non-trophic interactions include competition for space,
222 predator interference, refuge provisioning, recruitment facilitation as well as non-trophic
223 effects that increase or decrease mortality. These interactions specifically modify either

224 the realisation or strength of trophic interactions (Golubski & Abrams, 2011; Ings et al.,
225 2009; Kamaru et al., 2024; Pilosof et al., 2017; Staniczenko et al., 2010) and represent
226 direct (*e.g.*, predator *a* outcompetes predator *b*) and indirect (*e.g.*, mutualistic/facilitative
227 interactions) mechanisms.

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

236 4 Network construction

237 The above five processes are central to understanding the assumptions inherent in building
238 different types of networks. Each of the processes, or combinations thereof, deliver
239 a unique set of boundary conditions on what a network represents and can be used
240 for. Here we build on the introduction of these five processes to further categorise
241 the approaches to constructing networks ultimately moving to showcase how different
242 construction approaches, encoding different assumptions about how interactions arise, can
243 support different ecological questions.

244 4.1 Why construct networks?

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

252 Networks are unique in delivering more than just estimates of species richness. As noted
253 in the introduction, a network embodies the organising structure of biodiversity and
254 allows numerous opportunities for ‘downstream’ analysis, including the comparison of

255 structures, estimation of energy flux or extinction dynamics and ultimately form the
256 structural inputs to dynamical systems models that facilitate ecological and conservation
257 relevant inference about productivity-diversity-stability-function relationships (Danet et
258 al., 2024) in space and time. But making such inferences requires careful attention to one
259 or more of the processes discussed in Section 3. While these network representations may
260 be simplifications of the truth (Stouffer, 2019), they remain critically useful tools as they
261 allow us to move beyond simple descriptions of species richness to test hypotheses about
262 community architecture and ecosystem functioning that would be otherwise impossible to
263 assess.

264 **4.2 Construction through induction**

265 Constructing feasible or realised networks can be framed as an ‘inductive reasoning’ process
266 where insight and generalisation arise from a set of observations and relationships around
267 feeding. Inductive reasoning as a foundation for network construction is implemented at
268 node and network levels.

269 **4.2.1 Species specific induction**

270 Species-specific approaches construct networks from the expected feeding interactions
271 between species pairs and are therefore fundamentally creating metawebs. All methods
272 in this inference space rest on a set of three assumptions: there are a set of ‘feeding
273 rules’ that underpin interaction feasibility (Morales-Castilla et al., 2015); these rules are
274 phylogenetically conserved (Bramon Mora et al., 2018; Dalla Riva & Stouffer, 2016); and
275 they can be specified by matching the traits between consumer and resource.

276 Evolutionary compatibility and co-occurrence constraints have been critical to the con-
277 struction of ‘first draft’ networks for communities for which we have no interaction data
278 (Strydom et al., 2022). They are also central to interpolation in data poor regions and
279 predicting interactions for ‘unobservable’ communities *e.g.*, prehistoric networks (Dunhill
280 et al., 2024; Fricke et al., 2022; Yeakel et al., 2014) or future, novel community assemblages
281 (Van der Putten et al., 2010). Furthermore, they have the capacity to evaluate a role of
282 interactions among species relative to their distribution by accounting for the role of the
283 environment and the role of species interactions (Albouy et al., 2014; Gravel et al., 2019;
284 Higinio et al., 2023; Pollock et al., 2014).

285 Feeding rules can be specified in several ways. Expert-based approaches define feasible

286 interactions using trait matching (Roopnarine, 2017; Shaw et al., 2024), while mechanistic
287 approaches often rely on trait-based relationships between consumers and resources (Gravel
288 et al., 2013; Rohr et al., 2010). Alternatively, statistical and machine-learning methods
289 infer interaction probabilities from observed networks using ecological predictors such as
290 traits and phylogeny (Pichler et al., 2020).

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

297 Finally, graph embedding uses the structural features of a known network to infer the
298 position of species in an unknown network through the decomposition of the interaction
299 onto the embedding space (see Strydom et al. (2023)). This decomposition relies on a
300 combination of ecological proxies (*e.g.*, phylogenetic relatedness Strydom et al. (2022)) in
301 conjunction with known interactions to infer the latent values of species, which can then
302 be mapped onto decomposition of a known network.

303 **4.2.2 Structure-based induction**

304 These models generate ecologically realistic network structures using simple probabilistic
305 rules. They are commonly used as null expectations, for comparative analyses, and as
306 inputs to dynamical models. The determination of links between species is not directly
307 linked to properties of the nodes. This means these networks are usually not species specific.
308 Although they require little empirical information, they encode explicit assumptions about
309 expected network structure.

310 Stochastic network models use a probabilistic ruleset about diet choice and niche breadth
311 to reflect fundamental ideas of foraging biology. These models that are based on the
312 compartmentalisation and acquisition of energy for species at different trophic levels
313 (Allesina & Pascual, 2009; Krause et al., 2003) and that network structure can be
314 determined by distributing interactions along single dimension (the ‘niche axis’; Allesina
315 et al. (2008)). Typically, these models parametrise some aspect of the network structure
316 (although see Allesina & Pascual (2009) for a parameter-free model). These models include
317 the most used network generator, the Niche model (Williams & Martinez, 2000), as well as

318 the original Cascade model (Cohen et al., 1990) and the derived Nested hierarchy model
319 (Cattin et al., 2004). Even though these networks are derived without any real-world data
320 they are still able to recover the structure of empirical networks (Stouffer et al., 2005).
321 These models often form the basis for dynamic models *e.g.*, the allometric trophic network
322 (Brose et al., 2006; Schneider et al., 2016) and bioenergetic food web models (Delmas et
323 al., 2017).

324 **4.3 Construction through deduction**

325 In contrast to metaweb construction, realised networks require assumptions about the
326 ecological processes that determine whether feasible interactions are expressed. These
327 approaches are deductive because interactions emerge from explicit assumptions about
328 encounters, foraging behaviour, energetic constraints, or interaction modification. These
329 approaches operationalise the abundance, diet-choice, and non-trophic processes introduced
330 in Section 3.1. The resulting networks are widely used to study energy flux, extinction
331 dynamics, and ecosystem functioning. They also provide the structural backbone for
332 dynamical systems modelling to address questions about stability-structure-productivity-
333 function relationships, secondary extinction dynamics, species invasion and climate change.
334 There are two broad groups of models in this deductive category.

335 These models capture the *behaviour* of the nodes by explicitly considering the properties
336 of the different species in the community. Which means that there is a degree of variance
337 in which links are predicted between species unlike the more ‘static’ predictions made by
338 inductive models. However, these networks are costly to construct in real world settings
339 (requiring data about the entire community, as it is the behaviour of the system that
340 determines the behaviour of the part) and lack the larger diet niche context afforded by
341 metawebs.

342 **4.3.1 Abundance-based models**

343 Neutral networks are built on the assumption that foraging decisions are tied *only* to the
344 abundance of species within the community (E. F. Canard et al., 2014; Krishna et al.,
345 2008). Here links are solely determined by the relative abundance of the different species
346 in the community. Although unrealistic as a complete explanation, neutral models can be
347 combined with inductive approaches to generate more localised predictions (Pomeranz et
348 al., 2019).

349 **4.3.2 Energetics-constrained models**

350 There is a broader group of models that focus on determining interactions in terms of
351 energetic constraints on diet breadth, often using the ratio of consumer-resource body
352 size as a proxy for capturing the energetic constraints of feeding. Models such as those
353 developed by Portalier et al. (2019) and Wootton et al. (2023) are similar to the mechanistic
354 approaches discussed in Section 4.2, however instead of determining interactions based on
355 mechanistic feasibility it is rather constrained by the energetic cost of predation. Note
356 that although these models do not place any explicit constraints on the expected structure
357 of the network, the links should still be considered as ‘realised’ owing to the energetic
358 constraint placed on links. A different subset of diet models (*e.g.*, Beckerman et al., 2006;
359 Petchey et al., 2008) use a diet choice approach, however like the stochastic network models
360 they also embed assumptions on network structure. Thus, these models predict both
361 interactions and network structure simultaneously, although they may benefit in being
362 refined by more explicitly accounting for trait-based (*i.e.*, feasibility) parameterisation
363 (Curtsdotter et al., 2019).

364 **5 Making Progress with Networks**

365 The motivation to leverage network ecology in conservation ecology, environmental risk
366 assessment and natural resource management stems from a shift away from species/popu-
367 lation specific measures of the effects of stress and disturbance to community level metrics
368 of these impacts. These metrics, such as resilience and more generally stability, ecosystem
369 function and biodiversity, are natural properties of networks. This suggests that modern
370 conservation, risk assessment and resource management would benefit from robust network
371 tools to support decision making.

372 This is also true in the disciplines of ecology and environmental science and their focus
373 on abundance, distribution, functions and services that biodiversity provides (Loreau &
374 de Mazancourt, 2013). Major questions remain unresolved, for example, about stability-
375 diversity-productivity relationships, the drivers and consequences of extinctions and
376 invasions, and the impacts of multiple stressors operating at multiple ecological scales
377 (Simmons et al., 2021). A network approach to answering these types of questions
378 specifically allows us to evaluate how environmental gradients and anthropogenic stress
379 map through direct and indirect effects among species in a complex community and reveal
380 fundamental patterns and understanding of processes in the natural world.

381 To effectively use networks to aid us in answering questions about conservation/risk
 382 assessment/management and core ecological theory, we need to be mindful that we are
 383 mapping the *correct* network representation to the question of interest (Gauzens et al.,
 384 2025). Notably, there are certain questions that cannot be answered using specific network
 385 representations as the scale of the question of interest is fundamentally misaligned with
 386 the process captured by a specific network representation (Section 3.1), the underlying
 387 data that is used to construct it (Section 4), or both.

388 Here we discuss and map the different network representations shown in Figure 1 to
 389 ‘appropriate’ research questions and agendas (see also Table 1). We also highlight some of
 390 the key methodological challenges that currently limit our conceptualisation of a ‘network’
 391 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: ✓ indicates area with strong foundational research, Δ partial/emerging areas of research, and × areas where research is weak/largely absent

Network		
Representation	Example Research Question	Representative Studies
Global Metaweb	How will novel communities respond to <i>e.g.</i> , extinction, turnover, invasion and rewilding ✓	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); McDonald-Madden et al. (2016)
	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)

Network		
Representation	Example Research Question	Representative Studies
	Eco-Evolutionary dynamics and how they relate to the conservation and origination of feeding strategies [×]	Poisot et al. (2015); Baskerville et al. (2011)
Regional 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); Estrada & Bodin (2008)
	Refinement/extension of species distribution models by incorporating co-occurrence and species associations <i>e.g.</i> , predator and prey [✓]	Araújo & Luoto (2007); Kissling et al. (2012)
Realised Webs	The allocation of multiple stressors across networks ^Δ	Crain et al. (2008); Beauchesne et al. (2021)
	Temperature threshold to community collapse ^Δ	O’Gorman et al. (2019); Petchey et al. (2010)
	Extinction and persistence after harvesting/invasion/extinction [✓]	Allesina & Tang (2012); Yodzis (2001)
	Stability-diversity-productivity-function [✓]	Thébault & Fontaine (2010); Rooney & McCann (2012)
	Explicitly tying ecosystem level processes and nutrient flows to networks [×]	Moore et al. (2004)
	Meta communities and the idea of meta-network-communities ^Δ	Gravel, Massol, et al. (2016); Gilarranz et al. (2017)

5.1 Key Eco-Evo-Conservation Questions

5.1.1 Global Metawebs

Global metawebs are most appropriate for questions centred on interaction feasibility and potential diet breadth. They provide a platform for exploring hypothetical or novel communities under climate change (Hui & Richardson, 2019), species invasions, reintroductions, and rewilding, and the potential rewiring capacity (Marjakangas et al., 2025). Because they focus on feasible rather than realised interactions, global metawebs are also well suited to studying eco-evolutionary dynamics and how evolutionary history, natural selection, and phenotypic plasticity shape interaction niches.

5.1.2 Regional Metawebs

Regional metawebs extend these questions by explicitly incorporating species co-occurrence and therefore provide a more management-relevant perspective. They can be used to refine species distribution models and projections of future community composition (García-Callejas et al., 2023; Hao et al., 2025). However, caution is required when comparing regional metaweb structure across space or environmental gradients, as observed differences may reflect species turnover (*e.g.*, β -diversity) rather than changes in interaction processes.

5.1.3 Realised networks

Realised networks are best suited to questions concerning how community and environmental context shape interaction structure and ecosystem functioning (Thuiller et al., 2024). They provide the appropriate framework for studying stability, resilience, biodiversity dynamics, ecosystem functioning, extinction cascades, invasions, climate change impacts, and network rewiring through time. By capturing interactions that are actually occurring, realised networks allow investigation of how perturbations propagate through communities and influence persistence.

The increasing availability of long-term interaction datasets is expanding opportunities to address these questions (Danet et al., 2024; Wooster et al., 2024). However, empirical datasets often accumulate interactions across extended periods, potentially obscuring temporal variation in realised interactions (Polis, 1991). Developing approaches that better reconcile empirical networks with realised community dynamics therefore remains an important challenge.

5.2 Key methodological challenges

As noted above, the three network types highlight longstanding methodological challenges that limit both the precision and accuracy of ecological inference. Here we briefly review these challenges and emerging opportunities to address them.

Understanding what empirical data represents: Robust inference requires understanding what constitutes an observed interaction, whether recorded directly (predation events) or indirectly (*e.g.*, gut contents or stable isotopes). Because empirical networks often accumulate observations across space and time, they may be conceptually closer to metawebs than realised networks.

The validation of network structure: Considerable progress has been made in assessing how well models recover pairwise interactions (Poisot, 2023; Strydom et al., 2021), yet there remains no clear framework for evaluating their ability to recover network structure (Allesina et al., 2008; Tylianakis et al., 2010). This raises two related questions: what constitutes an appropriate benchmark, and which aspects of network recovery matter most? For metawebs, accurately identifying both present and forbidden links may be essential, whereas for realised webs it remains unclear whether recovering pairwise interactions, aggregate properties (*e.g.*, connectance), or both should be the primary objective.

Transitioning between metawebs and realised webs: Most approaches for modelling realised networks do not explicitly incorporate evolutionary constraints (although see Van De Walle et al. (2023); Wootton et al. (2023)). Progress will likely require either ensemble approaches (Becker et al., 2022; Terry & Lewis, 2020) or methods for downscaling metawebs into realised networks (*e.g.*, Roopnarine, 2006). However, any such transition must retain clarity about the meaning of links - structurally realistic networks do not necessarily represent realised prey choice or energy flow.

Developing frameworks that allow transitioning between metawebs and realised representations will also facilitate integration with metacommunity, metaecosystem, and ecosystem-level theory (Liu et al., 2025; Massol et al., 2011). Doing so requires that we develop an understanding of what the appropriate spatial and temporal scales of networks are (Fortin et al., 2021), and specifically how these relate to network type and the question of interest.

Making networks more tractable in applied spaces: The application of networks to conservation and management remains limited by difficulties in defining network

454 boundaries, aligning them with management units, and interpreting network metrics
455 in policy-relevant ways (Dansereau, Braga, et al., 2024). Addressing these challenges
456 will require stronger links between network structure and ecosystem function, alongside
457 careful matching of analytical tools and network representations to management objectives
458 (O'Connor et al., 2025; Pellissier et al., 2018).

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

466 **6 Concluding Remarks**

467 Ecological network representations provide alternative abstractions of biodiversity, each
468 defined by specific assumptions regarding ecological entities, interactions, and processes.
469 Consequently, the suitability of a given representation depends on the ecological questions
470 being addressed and the processes that the available data can meaningfully capture. Recognising these differences is essential for interpreting network structure, evaluating the scope
471 of inference, and avoiding implicit assumptions associated with conventional approaches.
472 By linking network representations to their underlying ecological processes and data
473 requirements, the framework developed here provides a basis for systematically comparing
474 alternative network constructions and identifying the contexts in which they are most
475 informative. Establishing this standard is essential for preventing the misinterpretation of
476 network data and for addressing foundational questions in biodiversity science.
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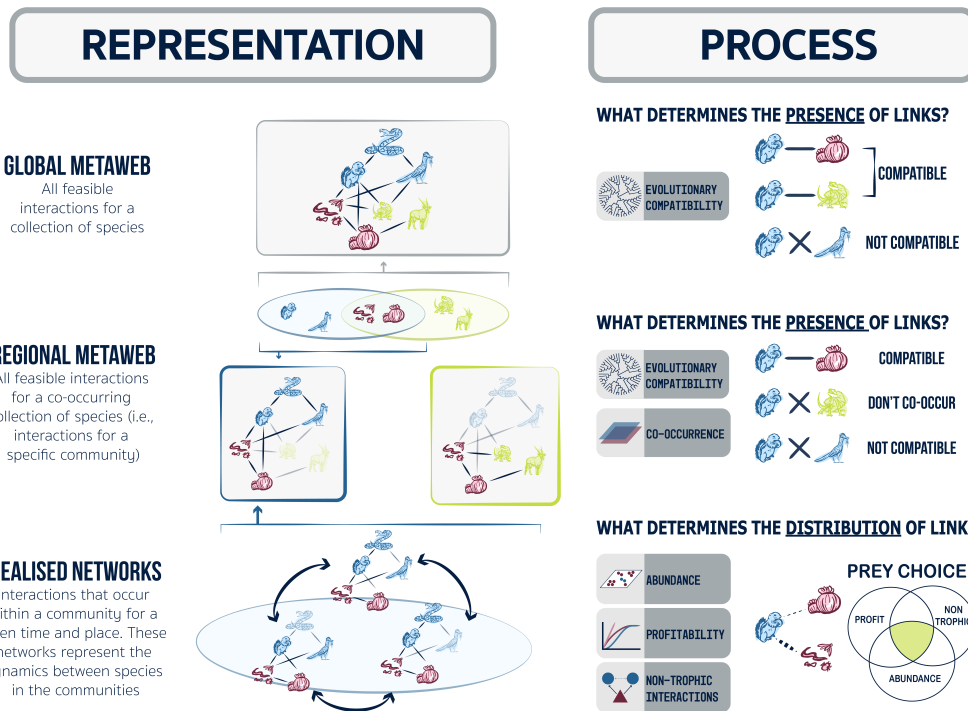


Figure 1: Aligning the processes that determine interactions (right) with different network representations (left). A **global metaweb** captures all feasible interactions among a species pool. Restricting this network by species co-occurrence yields **regional metawebs**, which differ in species composition. Species occurring in both regions are shown in red, whereas region-specific species are shown in blue and yellow. **Realised networks** represent subsets of regional metawebs expressed in specific spatial and temporal contexts. Their structure is shaped not only by co-occurrence, but also by community-level processes such as abundance, diet choice, and non-trophic interactions.