

1 **The return of the trophic chain: fundamental vs realized interactions in a simple arthropod**  
2 **food web**

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4 Inmaculada Torres-Campos<sup>1,4</sup>, Sara Magalhães<sup>2</sup>, Jordi Moya-Laraño<sup>3</sup>, Marta Montserrat<sup>1</sup>

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6 <sup>1</sup>Instituto de Hortofruticultura Subtropical y Mediterránea "La Mayora", Universidad  
7 de Málaga, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas (IHSM-UMA-CSIC),  
8 Avda Dr. Weinberg s/n, Algarrobo-Costa, 29750 Málaga, Spain.

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10 <sup>2</sup>cE3c: Centre for Ecology, Evolution and Environmental Changes, Faculdade de Ciências,  
11 Universidade de Lisboa, Campo Grande, Edifício C2, 1749-016 Lisboa, Portugal.

12

13 <sup>3</sup>Estación Experimental de Zonas Áridas – CSIC, Carretera de Sacramento s/n, La Cañada de  
14 San Urbano, 04120 Almería, Spain.

15

16 <sup>4</sup>Current address: Institute for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Dynamics, University of  
17 Amsterdam, P.O. Box 94240, 1090 GE Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

18

## 19 Abstract

20 The mathematical theory describing small assemblages of interacting species (community  
21 modules or motifs) has proved to be essential in understanding the emergent properties of  
22 ecological communities. These models use differential equations to study pairwise  
23 interactions between species. However, as community modules become more complex, it is  
24 not certain that all potential interactions will be effectively realized. Here, we use  
25 community modules to experimentally explore whether the number of trophic links among  
26 species scales with community complexity (i.e., by adding species known to feed on each  
27 other from pair-wise trials). To investigate this question, we used a simple mite community  
28 present in avocado orchards (*Persea americana*), composed of two predators (*Euseius*  
29 *stipulatus* and *Neoseiulus californicus*), one herbivore as shared prey (*Oligonychus perseae*),  
30 and pollen of *Carpobrotus edulis* as an alternative food resource. These configurations  
31 enabled the potential for (intraguild) predation and (apparent) competition to be expressed.  
32 Using a series of controls, we assessed whether the presence of one species affected the  
33 survival of another, or its conversion of food into offspring. We found that increasing the  
34 number of potential interactions did not result in more complex realized community  
35 modules. Instead, all communities were reduced to one or two linear trophic chains. Our  
36 results show that trophic links assumed to occur when species are assembled in pairs do not  
37 necessarily occur when other components of the community are present. Consequently,  
38 food-web structure may be unrealistic in theoretical community modules that are  
39 parameterized based on pair-wise interactions observed when alternative prey is absent.  
40 This further suggests the need for empirical research to work in concert with theoretical  
41 approaches to develop more realistic and predictive food-web models.

42

## 43 Introduction

44 Community ecology [initially conceptualized](#) trophic interactions as linear chains ([Elton](#)  
45 [1927](#)), with an upper level [potentially](#) controlling the densities of the level immediately  
46 below, [thus](#) generating a trophic cascade ([Hairston et al. 1960](#); [Oksanen et al. 1981](#);  
47 [Carpenter et al. 1985](#)). However, it is now accepted that most communities do not follow  
48 this pattern as organisms are imbedded in complex food webs, blurring the notion of a  
49 trophic guild ([sensu trophic coherence, Johnson et al. 2014](#)) and the notion that widespread  
50 omnivory destabilize food webs ([Polis & Holt 1992](#); [Polis & Strong 1996](#)).

51 Food webs can be decomposed into “community modules” (i.e. “small number of  
52 species (e.g. three to six) linked in a specified structure of interactions, [Holt 1997](#)).  
53 [Community modules are similar to motifs, used in network studies \(e.g., Bascompte &](#)  
54 [Melián 2005, Prill et al 2005\)](#). Among those, intraguild predation (IGP), in which two  
55 consumers (the intraguild predator and the intraguild prey, hereafter IG-predator and IG-  
56 prey) not only compete for a shared resource but also engage in predator-prey interactions  
57 ([Polis et al. 1989](#)), and apparent competition, in which two non-competing prey share a  
58 common predator ([Holt 1977; 1997](#)), are the most common ([Bascompte & Melián 2005](#)).

59 Whether and how often species engage in intraguild predation or apparent  
60 competition strongly affects the long-term persistence (i.e. [“temporal stability in community](#)  
61 [composition”, Pimm 1984](#)) of communities. Theory predicts that intraguild predation  
62 destabilizes communities because it reduces the parameter space where coexistence of IG-  
63 predator, IG-prey and shared prey is possible ([Holt & Polis 1997](#)), compared to that of  
64 trophic chain models ([Oksanen et al. 1981](#)). In most models with intraguild predation the  
65 possibility of 3-species persistence requires the IG-prey to be superior to IG-predators at  
66 [exploitation](#) competition for the shared resource ([Holt 1997](#); [Mylius et al. 2001](#); [Kondoh](#)  
67 [2008](#), among others). Furthermore, the occurrence of intraguild predation leads to a less  
68 efficient control of the shared prey populations because the IG-prey’s equilibrium  
69 abundance is expected to decline towards extinction with increasing productivity ([Mylius et](#)  
70 [al. 2001](#)). This is especially important in agricultural systems, inherently highly productive, in  
71 which the introduction of several biocontrol agents may in fact reduce pest control.  
72 Curiously, empirical studies, mostly stemming from such systems, show that variable effects  
73 of intraguild predation on populations of the shared prey (e.g., [Rosenheim et al. 1995](#);  
74 [Janssen et al. 2006](#); [Vance-Chalcraft et al. 2007](#); [Messelink & Janssen 2014](#)).

75           Some factors may, however, reduce such instability by promoting species  
76 coexistence, which generally occurs when conditions under which predator-predator  
77 interactions occur are constrained (reviewed in Novak 2013, appendix S1). For example, 3-  
78 species coexistence is enhanced if predators engage in IGP only when competition for the  
79 shared prey is high (Křivan 2000), or the shared prey is less profitable than the intraguild  
80 prey (Křivan & Diehl 2005). Other studies suggest that the inclusion of habitat structure  
81 (Janssen *et al.* 2007), inducible defences (Kratina *et al.* 2010; Nakazawa *et al.* 2010) or  
82 temporal refuges (Amarasekare 2008) increases the persistence of IGP communities,  
83 although this may depend on which species use refuges (Liu & Zhang 2013). Moreover,  
84 stage structure in the intraguild prey promotes 3-species coexistence, either by providing a  
85 stage refuge (Mylius *et al.* 2001; Rudolf & Armstrong 2008) or by inducing ontogenetic niche  
86 shifts in the predator (Hin *et al.* 2011). However, in all cases, the models still predict that  
87 overall community persistence is lower than that of a simple trophic chain. This lack of  
88 temporal stability is corroborated by empirical laboratory studies (Diehl & Feiße 2000;  
89 Montserrat *et al.* 2008b), but runs counter the ubiquity of intraguild predation and trophic  
90 level omnivory in natural systems (Bascompte & Melián 2005; Gagnon *et al.* 2011).

91           Discrepancies between IGP theory and empirical data suggest that some  
92 assumptions of theoretical models are not met in natural systems. In an effort to bring IGP  
93 models closer to real systems, while maintaining mathematical tractability, researchers have  
94 tested how the incorporation of an alternative food source affects the persistence of IGP  
95 communities (Heithaus 2001; Daugherty *et al.* 2007; Holt & Huxel 2007; Rudolf 2007). The  
96 general prediction is that providing alternative food to the intraguild prey leads to wider  
97 parameter regions of species coexistence (Daugherty *et al.* 2007; Holt & Huxel 2007), even if  
98 competitive superiority of IG-prey is precluded (Faria & Costa 2010). Instead, alternative  
99 food for the intraguild predator destabilizes the community (Daugherty *et al.* 2007; Holt &  
100 Huxel 2007). However, in the latter case, if the alternative food quality is high, then the  
101 intraguild predator may switch to feeding on the alternative resource, whereas the  
102 intraguild prey feeds on the shared prey (Ibid.). This again promotes coexistence by bringing  
103 the community structure closer to two linear food chains. Thus, a prevailing outcome of the  
104 ecological theory is that domains for persistence of communities with IGP increase when the  
105 strength of intraguild predation decreases. Indeed, weak interactions have long been  
106 recognized to stabilize ecosystems by dampening oscillations between consumers and

107 resources, thereby decreasing the probability of species extinctions (McCann *et al.* 1998),  
108 and thus promoting community persistence (May 1972; Pimm & Lawton 1978; Paine 1992;  
109 McCann *et al.* 1998; Emmerson & Yearsley 2004; Neutel *et al.* 2007; Gellner & McCann  
110 2012; 2016). However, it is as yet unclear how the introduction of a species into a  
111 community affects the interaction among all species in that community.

112 Here, we explore how pairwise trophic interactions between species are modified by  
113 the inclusion of other species in a simple community. We focus on *predation rate* (in here,  
114 number of individuals consumed per day) as it is an excellent proxy for trophic interaction  
115 strength, and is used both in ecological modelling (e.g. the equivalent to the “catching  
116 efficiencies” in Kuijper *et al.* 2003) and in empirical research (Wootton & Emmerson 2005;  
117 Novak & Wootton 2010; Novak 2013). Measurements of other relevant non-trophic  
118 interactions, such as *competition*, would require experiments at the population and  
119 community level that are beyond the scope of this manuscript.

120 Our core hypothesis was that increasing the number of species that are known to  
121 interact when no alternative food is available will increase the number of realized links in  
122 the more complex community (Box 1A). We mimicked different community modules (Sensu  
123 Holt 1997) of increasing complexity using a community composed of two predatory mite  
124 species as intraguild predators (*Euseius stipulatus* and *Neoseiulus californicus*, Acari:  
125 Phytoseiidae), one species of herbivore mite as the shared prey (*Oligonychus perseae*, Acari:  
126 Tetranychidae), and pollen (of several anemophilous species) as alternative food (González-  
127 Fernández *et al.* 2009), all of which occur in the leaves of crops of avocado plants (*Persea*  
128 *americana*) in Southeastern Spain. Previous pairwise experimental designs have shown that  
129 the interaction between *N. californicus* and *O. perseae* is stronger (i.e., predation rates are  
130 higher) than that between *E. stipulatus* and this same prey (González-Fernández *et al.* 2009).  
131 Moreover, pollen is an optimal food source for *E. stipulatus* but not for *N. californicus*  
132 (Ferragut *et al.* 1987; González-Fernández *et al.* 2009). Finally, *E. stipulatus* and *N.*  
133 *californicus* engage in size-dependent predator-prey interactions (Abad-Moyano *et al.*  
134 2010). This knowledge was used to build predictions on realized trophic links occurring in  
135 this system across community modules of increasing complexity (Box 1B). Specifically, we  
136 predicted that: *i*) in “trophic chain” community configurations, both predator species will  
137 interact with the herbivore (Box 1B, a.1.1. and a.1.2.); *ii*) in “apparent competition”  
138 community configurations, only *E. stipulatus* will interact with both the herbivore and pollen

139 (Box 1B, b.1.1. and b.1.2.); *iii*) in “intraguild predation” community configurations, both IG-  
140 predator species will interact with the IG-prey and the herbivore (Box 1B, c.1.1. and c.1.2.);  
141 and *iv*) in “Intraguild predation and apparent competition” community configurations, only  
142 adults and juveniles of *E. stipulatus* will establish trophic links with pollen (Box 1B, d.1.1. and  
143 d.1.2.). These predictions were then tested through a series of experimental treatments to  
144 assess which interactions were realized within each community module, by measuring IG-  
145 prey/herbivore mortality and how [consumption of prey](#) translates into predator fecundity as  
146 a result of these interactions. Specifically, we examined a) whether (IG-)predators feed on  
147 each prey type; b) whether predation of (IG-)predators on one prey type is affected by the  
148 presence of the other; c) whether predation of (IG-)predators on both prey, and of IG-prey  
149 on the herbivore, is affected by the presence of alternative food; d) whether the presence of  
150 alternative food affects predation of (IG-)predators on the two types of prey when they are  
151 together; e) number of eggs produced by (IG-)predators when feeding on each prey type;  
152 and f) whether egg-production is additive when (IG-)predators have more than one food  
153 type available.

154

155

## 156 **Material and Methods**

157 All cultures and experiments were done in a climate chamber at 25±1°C, 65±5% RH and  
158 16:8h L:D (Light:Dark).

### 159 *Mite cultures*

160 Cultures of the predatory mite *E. stipulatus* were started in 2007 from ca. 300 individuals  
161 collected from avocado trees located in the experimental station of “La Mayora”. Rearing  
162 units consisted of three bean plants (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) with 6-10 leaves, positioned  
163 vertically, with the stems in contact with sponges (ca. 30 x 20 x 5 cm) covered with cotton  
164 wool and a plastic sheet (27 x 17 cm), and placed inside water-containing trays (8 L, 42.5 x  
165 26 x 7.5 cm). The plant roots were in contact with the water, and the aerial parts were  
166 touching each other, forming a tent-like three-dimensional structure, where individuals  
167 could easily walk from one plant to the other. Cotton threads were placed on the leaves, to  
168 serve as oviposition sites for the females. Mites were fed *ad libitum* twice a week with  
169 pollen of *Carpobrotus edulis* (cat’s claw) spread on leaves with a fine brush. *Euseius*  
170 *stipulatus* is able to develop and reproduce on this food source (Ferragut *et al.* 1987). Every

171 three weeks, new rearings were made by transferring, leaves with mites and the cotton  
172 threads filled with eggs to a new unit. The culture was found to be contaminated a few  
173 times with *Tyrophagus* spp., a detritivorous mite species. In such instances, instead of  
174 moving entire leaves, adult *E. stipulatus* females (ca. 300) were collected individually and  
175 transferred to the new rearing unit.

176 The *N. californicus* population was obtained from Koppert Biological Systems S.L. in  
177 bottles of 1000 individuals (Spical®). Colonies were kept on detached bean leaves infested  
178 with *Tetranychus urticae* that were placed on top of inverted flower-pots (20 cm Ø) inside  
179 water-containing trays.

180 The herbivore *Oligonychus perseae* was not maintained in a laboratory culture due  
181 to technical difficulties in preserving detached avocado leaves. They were thus collected  
182 from the field on a regular basis from avocado orchards located in the experimental station  
183 of “La Mayora”.

184 Pollen of *C. edulis* was obtained from flowers collected in the experimental station.  
185 Stamens dried in a stove at 37°C for 48h, then sieved (350 µm).

186

### 187 *Community modules*

188 Experimental arenas to test the outcome of community modules have been described in  
189 detail in Guzmán *et al.* (2016a). Briefly, a hole (6.5 cm Ø) was cut in a petri dish (9 cm Ø),  
190 turned upside down, and then filled with an avocado leaf disc (7.5 cm Ø). The borders were  
191 glued to a clay ring. Inside the petri dish, wet cotton wool ensured enough humidity to keep  
192 leaves turgid. Petri dishes were then sealed with parafilm®. To prevent individuals from  
193 escaping, a ring of Tanglefoot® was applied along the outer margin of the leaf disc. Cohorts  
194 of *E. stipulatus* were made by transferring with a fine brush 400 eggs from the rearings to 2-  
195 3 bean leaves placed on top of sponges (30 x 20 x 5 cm, approx.) covered with cotton wool,  
196 inside water-containing trays (3.5 L), and with pollen of *C. edulis* as food. Cohorts of *N.*  
197 *californicus* were made by placing 100 females during 48 h on 2-3 bean leaves infested with  
198 *Tetranychus urticae* in containers similar to those used for the cultures. 10-14 days after egg  
199 hatching, gravid predator females were randomly taken from these cohorts, and starved for  
200 16 h in experimental containers similar to those above. Starvation was done to standardize  
201 hunger among individuals, and to ensure that egg production in tested females was not  
202 obtained from food ingested prior to the experiment. Predator juveniles (2-3 days old since

203 hatching) were taken from the cohorts when needed. Arenas containing the herbivore were  
204 done as follows: Ten females of *O. perseae* were let to build nests and lay eggs on  
205 experimental arenas during 4 days. The number of nests and eggs per nest on each arena  
206 was counted at the onset of the experiment. Pollen in arenas assigned to treatments with  
207 alternative food was supplied *ad libitum*, using a fine brush.

208 We performed experiments using two 'community blocks', depending on the identity  
209 of the top predator (*N. californicus* or *E. stipulatus*). Throughout the text, the identity of  
210 (IG)-predator and (IG)-prey will be indicated using the subscripts "ES" for *E. stipulatus* and  
211 "NC" for *N. californicus*. Increased complexity in each of the two community blocks was  
212 mimicked through the combination of the presence / absence of 4 factors: predator/IG-  
213 predator, IG-prey, herbivore and alternative food. This resulted in the community modules  
214 | (Sensu Holt 1997) depicted in the X-axis of figures 1 and 2. These modules were: 1. Trophic  
215 | chain: either one *E. stipulatus* or *N. californicus* female was introduced in arenas containing  
216 | 10 females of *O. perseae* (treatment # 1 in Figs 1 and 2). Arenas containing either one *E.*  
217 | *stipulatus* or one *N. californicus* female without herbivores (treatment # 2), and containing  
218 | 10 *O. perseae* females without predators (treatment # 3) were done as controls for predator  
219 | oviposition rate and prey natural mortality, respectively. 2. Apparent competition: arenas  
220 | consisted of one female of either *E. stipulatus* or *N. californicus*, 10 females of *O. perseae*,  
221 | and pollen of *C. edulis* supplied *ad libitum* (treatment # 4). Similar arenas but without the  
222 | herbivores (treatment # 5) were made as controls for oviposition rates of predators on  
223 | pollen only, and without the IG-predator (treatment # 6) to assess potential effects of pollen  
224 | on the survival of the herbivore. 3. Intraguild predation: Because IGP is usually associated  
225 | with size differences between contestants, IG-predators and IG-prey consisted of adult  
226 | females and heterospecific juveniles, respectively. Arenas consisted of 10 *O. perseae*  
227 | females, either one *E. stipulatus* or *N. californicus* female, acting as the IG-predators, and 10  
228 | heterospecific juveniles, acting as the IG-prey (treatment # 7). Additionally, control  
229 | treatments were done to evaluate: the predation/mortality rate of *O. perseae* in the  
230 | presence of IG-prey but not of IG-predator (treatment # 8); the mortality rate of IG-prey in  
231 | the absence of both IG-predator and prey (treatment # 9), and in the presence of IG-  
232 | predator but not of herbivores (treatment # 10). 4. Intraguild predation - Apparent  
233 | competition: Arenas consisted of 10 *O. perseae* females, either one *E. stipulatus* or *N.*  
234 | *californicus* female, acting as the IG-predators, 10 heterospecific juveniles, acting as the IG-



235 prey, and pollen of *C. edulis* as alternative food, supplied *ad libitum* (treatment # 11). Similar  
236 arenas to those above but i) without IG-predators (treatment # 12), ii) without herbivores  
237 (treatment # 13), and iii) without IG-predators and herbivores (treatment # 14), were done  
238 to evaluate predation of IG-prey on the herbivore in the presence of pollen, predation of IG-  
239 predators on IG-prey in the presence of pollen, and mortality of IG-prey in the presence of  
240 pollen, respectively.

241 Twenty-four hours later, the number of dead herbivores/IG-prey  
242 (predation/mortality rate), and the number of eggs laid by predators/IG-predators  
243 (oviposition rate) were recorded. Each treatment was replicated between 10 to 18 times.

244

#### 245 *Data analyses*

246 Analyses were done separately for communities where either *E. stipulatus* or *N. californicus*  
247 acted as the top-predator. Predation rates on herbivores and on IG-prey, and rates of  
248 oviposition of IG-predators, were analysed using Generalized Lineal Models (GLM) assuming  
249 a Poisson distribution as the distribution of data is expected to be skewed towards low  
250 rather than high numbers, and a Log-link function as no overdispersion of the data was  
251 detected. All the analyses were 3 full-factorial designs; the main factors that were included  
252 in each analysis are explained below. We followed a backward elimination procedure as  
253 follows: when the interaction among the three explanatory variables was not significant  
254 (and the model had higher AIC), this interaction was removed from the model.  
255 Subsequently, the same procedure was followed for second-order interactions. GLM  
256 analyses were performed using the computer environment R (R Core Team 2017). After  
257 significance of general models, additional software (package “contrast”) was used to  
258 perform planned comparisons to address specific questions (see Results). When specific sets  
259 of data were used in multiple comparisons, their significance was corrected using the  
260 sequential Bonferroni method.

261 Mortality of *O. perseae* females was analysed using data from treatments containing  
262 this species. The model included the presence/absence of IG-predators, IG-prey and  
263 alternative food as explanatory variables, as well as their interactions.

264 IG-prey mortality was analysed using data from treatments containing IG-prey (i.e.  
265 predator juveniles). The full model included the presence/absence of the IG-predator, the  
266 herbivore and alternative food as explanatory variables, as well as their interactions.

267 Oviposition rates were analysed using data from treatments containing IG-predators  
268 (i.e., adult predators). The full model included the presence/absence of the herbivore, the  
269 IG prey and alternative food as explanatory variables, as well as their interactions.

270

## 271 Results

### 272 Communities with *E. stipulatus* as the (IG-)predator

273 Mortality rates of the herbivore were significantly affected by the interaction between the  
274 presence of IG-predator<sub>ES</sub> and IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> and between the presence of IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> and pollen  
275 (Table 1a). Indeed, more prey died when IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> were together with the IG-predator<sub>ES</sub>  
276 than when the IG-predator<sub>ES</sub> was alone (Fig 1a, compare bar 1 to 7), but not more than  
277 when the IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> was alone (Fig 1a, compare bar 8 to bar 7). Also, the presence of pollen  
278 reduced herbivore mortality rates, but only in the absence of IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> (Fig 1a, compare  
279 bars 4 and 6 to bars 11 and 12).

280 Mortality rates of the IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> were affected by all the double interactions except  
281 that between the herbivore and pollen (Table 1b). Indeed, the presence of the IG-predator<sub>ES</sub>  
282 increased the mortality of IG-prey<sub>NC</sub>, but only in the absence of pollen (Fig 1b, compare bars  
283 7 and 10 to bars 11 and 13). Similarly, the presence of herbivores reduced mortality rates of  
284 IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> when IG-predators<sub>ES</sub> were absent (Fig1b, compare bar 8 to 9), but not when they  
285 were present (Fig1b, compare bar 7 to 10).

286 Planned comparisons revealed a) that IG-predators<sub>ES</sub> preyed on *O. perseae* ( $t_{81} =$   
287 2.74,  $P = 0.0076$ ; Fig 1a, compare bars 1 and 3) and marginally on the IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> ( $t_{80} = -2.01,$   
288  $P = 0.048$ , not significant after Bonferroni correction; Fig 1b, compare bar 9 to 10) when  
289 each prey was offered alone; b) that adding IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> increased mortality of *O. perseae* ( $t_{81}$   
290  $= -2.26, P = 0.026$ ; Fig 1a, compare bar 1 to 7), but adding *O. perseae* did not influence  
291 mortality of the IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> ( $t_{80} = -0.31, P = 0.755$ ; Fig 1b, compare bar 10 to 7); c) that the  
292 presence of pollen yielded a drastic reduction in predation of IG-predators<sub>ES</sub> on both the  
293 herbivore ( $t_{81} = 2.99, P = 0.0037$ ; Fig 1a, compare bar 1 to 4) and the IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> ( $t_{80} = 3.91, P$   
294  $\ll 0.001$ ; Fig 1b, compare bar 10 to 13); d) that when both prey were available, the  
295 presence of pollen did not affect herbivore mortality ( $t_{81} = 0.88, P = 0.379$ ; Fig 1a, compare  
296 bar 7 to 11), but did lead to lower IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> mortality ( $t_{80} = 3.58, P \ll 0.001$ ; Fig 1b,  
297 compare bar 7 to 11).

298 Oviposition rates of IG-predators<sub>ES</sub> were only affected by the presence of pollen  
299 (main factor Pollen, Table 1c). However, further planned comparisons revealed that while  
300 feeding on the herbivore **stimulated** egg production ( $t_{96} = 2.19$ ,  $P = 0.021$ ; Fig 1c, compare  
301 bar 1 to 2), feeding on IG-prey<sub>NC</sub> did not ( $t_{96} = -1.13$ ,  $P = 0.259$ ; Fig 1c, compare bar 10 to 2).

302

### 303 | *Communities with N. californicus as the (IG-)predator*

304 Herbivore mortality was affected only by the interaction between IG-predator<sub>NC</sub> and IG-  
305 prey<sub>ES</sub> (Table 2a). Indeed, mortality of herbivores was drastically affected by the presence of  
306 IG-predator<sub>NC</sub> (Fig 2a, compare bar 1 to 3), but this effect was lesser in the presence of IG-  
307 prey<sub>ES</sub> (Fig 2a, compare bar 1 to 7). Mortality of IG-prey<sub>ES</sub> was only affected by the presence  
308 of pollen (Table 2b).

309 Paired comparisons revealed that a) IG-predator<sub>NC</sub> preyed on *O. perseae* ( $t_{90} = 3.32$ ,  
310  $P = 0.013$ ; Fig 2a, compare bar 3 to 1) but not on IG-prey<sub>ES</sub> ( $t_{86} = -1.35$ ,  $P = 0.182$ ; Fig 2b,  
311 compare bar 9 to 10), when each prey was offered alone; b) adding IG-prey<sub>ES</sub> reduced  
312 mortality of *O. perseae* ( $t_{90} = 2.56$ ,  $P = 0.012$ ; Fig 2a, compare bar 1 to 7), but adding *O.*  
313 *perseae* did not change mortality of the IG-prey<sub>ES</sub> ( $t_{86} = -0.93$ ,  $P = 0.353$ ; Fig 2b, compare bar  
314 10 to 7); c) the presence of pollen did not affect mortality of either *O. perseae* ( $t_{90} = -0.43$ ,  $P$   
315  $= 0.669$ ; Fig 2a, compare bar 1 to 4) or the IG-prey<sub>ES</sub> ( $t_{86} = 1.80$ ,  $P = 0.075$ ; Fig 2b, compare  
316 bar 10 to 13); d) when both types of prey were available, the presence of pollen led to a  
317 significant increase in mortality of *O. perseae* ( $t_{90} = -3.65$ ,  $P \ll 0.001$ ; Fig 2a, compare bar 7  
318 to 11), but a significant decrease of mortality in IG-prey<sub>ES</sub> ( $t_{86} = 2.04$ ,  $P = 0.044$ ; Fig 2b,  
319 compare bar 7 to 11).

320 Oviposition rates of IG-predator<sub>NC</sub> were affected by the main factor Herbivore and  
321 the interaction between the IG-prey<sub>ES</sub> and pollen (Table 2c). Indeed, paired comparisons  
322 revealed that e) eggs were produced when IG-predator<sub>NC</sub> were offered the herbivore alone  
323 ( $t_{104} = 2.45$ ,  $P = 0.016$ ; Fig 2c, compare bar 1 to 2), but not when they were on arenas with  
324 either the IG-prey<sub>ES</sub> ( $t_{104} = 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.992$ ; Fig 2c, compare bar 10 to 2) or pollen ( $t_{104} = -0.15$ ,  
325  $P = 0.884$ ; Fig 2c, compare bar 5 to 2) alone. Moreover, in the presence of the herbivore,  
326 rates of oviposition were not influenced by the presence of pollen ( $t_{104} = -0.93$ ,  $P = 0.352$ ; Fig  
327 2c, compare bar 1 to 4), but dramatically decreased in the presence of the IG-prey<sub>ES</sub> ( $t_{104} =$   
328  $2.39$ ,  $P = 0.019$ ; Fig 2c, compare bar 1 to 7). However, when pollen was added to the system

329 with both prey types, IG-predators<sub>NC</sub> resumed oviposition to its maximum ( $t_{104} = -2.36$ ,  $P =$   
330 0.020; Fig 2c, compare bar 7 to 11).

331

## 332 **Discussion**

333 In this study, we tested the effect of community structure on the realized interactions  
334 within a community of predatory and herbivorous mites. Because in our system the  
335 intraguild predator is the largest individual within a pair (as in most systems), we created  
336 communities in which adults (IG-predators) belonged to one species and juveniles (IG-prey)  
337 to the other, then inverted the species-stage identity in another set of communities. We  
338 then measured predation and oviposition in communities with all possible combinations of  
339 the presence of shared prey, the IG-prey, the IG-predator and [an alternative food resource](#).  
340 We show that adding species to a community increases the number of potential trophic  
341 interactions, but not necessarily their occurrence. Indeed, despite the potential for module  
342 configurations of communities with apparent competition and intraguild predation, all  
343 modules could be described by linear food chains [in our system](#) (Box 1C).

344

### 345 **[Basic properties of the system and implications for biocontrol](#)**

346 In [the](#) trophic chain configurations, although *N. californicus* killed more *O. perseae*  
347 females per day than *E. stipulatus*, oviposition rates were similar between predators. This is  
348 in line with the finding that *E. stipulatus* can only forage on mobile *O. perseae* mites when  
349 they wander outside nests, whereas *N. californicus* can penetrate inside nests and forage on  
350 all the individuals residing within (González-Fernández *et al.* 2009). This suggests that *E.*  
351 *stipulatus* is the most efficient predator converting [food](#) into eggs, but that *N. californicus* is  
352 more efficient at reducing herbivore populations. Which of these strategies is best for  
353 biological control will depend on the ecological condition: if [outbreaks](#) of prey are confined  
354 in time, it may be more efficient to select a biocontrol agent that feeds more, as in  
355 “inundative” biocontrol strategies, whereas controlling and keeping resident populations at  
356 low levels may be best achieved with a predator with a strong numerical response, as in  
357 “innoculative” biocontrol strategies (Van Driesche *et al.* 2007). Moreover, unlike *N.*  
358 *californicus*, *E. stipulatus* fed and oviposited on pollen. This may allow the latter to remain in  
359 the field for longer periods, as actually observed in field surveys (González-Fernández *et al.*

360 | 2009). Such temporal [niche partitioning](#) may facilitate the presence of the two predators in  
361 | the same fields (Otto *et al.* 2008).

362 | Our results also revealed asymmetry in the intraguild predation between *E.*  
363 | *stipulatus* and *N. californicus*, with adults of the former preying upon juveniles of the latter,  
364 | but not the reverse. Because *N. californicus* is likely the best competitor for the shared prey  
365 | (González-Fernández *et al.* 2009), coexistence between predators is thus possible in this  
366 | system (Holt & Polis 1997). Yet, the simultaneous presence of the two predators is likely to  
367 | have little effect upon the densities of the shared prey. Indeed, whereas adding  
368 | *N. californicus* adult intraguild predators to an arena with *E. stipulatus* juveniles results in  
369 | higher shared prey densities as compared to the presence of *N. californicus* adults alone  
370 | with the shared prey, the reverse is not true when adding adult *E. stipulatus* to an arena  
371 | with juveniles *N. californicus*. Thus, the net effect of these interactions upon prey density is  
372 | probably negligible. This is corroborated by field studies (Montserrat *et al.* 2013). However,  
373 | the presence of alternative food (i.e. pollen) contributed to reduce trophic interactions  
374 | between predator species resulting in community configurations that could enhance pest  
375 | control. Thus, supplying alternative and preferred food to the IG-predator is probably  
376 | detrimental to populations of *O. perseae*. Again, this finding is in line with field observations  
377 | (Montserrat *et al.* 2013).

378 | [Optimal foraging theory](#) predicts that species engage in trophic interactions on more  
379 | than one food source when these are available ([Pulliam 1974](#)). Here, we show that *E.*  
380 | *stipulatus* acting as intraguild predators feeds on the herbivore, *O. perseae*, on the intraguild  
381 | prey, *N. californicus*, and on the alternative food, pollen, when each of these are presented  
382 | alone. However, in the presence of pollen *E. stipulatus* reduces predation rates on both prey  
383 | species. This may be explained by the fact that pollen is the most profitable food for this  
384 | species, as found here and in other studies (Ferragut *et al.* 1987; McMurtry & Croft 1997;  
385 | Bouras & Papadoulis 2005; González-Fernández *et al.* 2009). Similarly, *N. californicus* adults  
386 | and juveniles ceased foraging on other food sources in presence of the herbivores. These  
387 | results suggest that realized interactions hinge on the presence of the most profitable food  
388 | source. In presence of the optimal food source for each of the two secondary consumers,  
389 | communities tended to [be reduced](#) to two simple trophic chains. Indeed, in the most  
390 | complex communities studied here, with all 5 species present, the presence of the optimal  
391 | food originated the split of the community into two trophic chains, one with *E. stipulatus*

392 feeding on pollen and the other with *N. californicus* feeding on the herbivore (Box 1 d),  
393 compare d.1.1. and d.1.2. with d.2.1. and d.2.2.).

394 Another factor that contributed to the linearization of the food web was that, when  
395 both the IG-prey and the shared prey were together, IG-predators<sub>ES</sub> preyed mainly on the  
396 IG-prey. Indeed, mortality of *O. perseae* in presence of the IG-prey, *N. californicus*, was not  
397 affected by the presence of the IG-predator *E. stipulatus*. Furthermore, mortality of IG-  
398 prey<sub>NC</sub> was significantly higher in treatments with presence of the IG-predator, compared to  
399 the control without them. This suggests that mortality in the herbivore was mainly inflicted  
400 by the IG-prey, *N. californicus*, and that the IG-predator *E. stipulatus* preyed preferentially  
401 on the IG-prey *N. californicus*. This could be explained by *E. stipulatus* having no access to *O.*  
402 *perseae* eggs or females located inside the nests (Montserrat *et al.* 2008a; González-  
403 Fernández *et al.* 2009), which leads to higher encounter rates between *E. stipulatus* and *N.*  
404 *californicus* than between *E. stipulatus* and *O. perseae*. Indeed, *E. stipulatus* forages only on  
405 mobile stages that wander outside nests (Montserrat *et al.* 2008a; González-Fernández *et al.*  
406 2009). *Neoseiulus californicus*, however, can penetrate *O. perseae* nests, and thus may feed  
407 on them. Therefore, the realized community was that of a 4-level trophic chain (Box 1,  
408 c.2.1.). In the other community block, when *N. californicus* acted as the IG-predator,  
409 mortality of *O. perseae* females was similar in all communities with the IG-prey *E. stipulatus*  
410 present, irrespective of the presence of IG-predators<sub>NC</sub>. Furthermore, mortality of IG-prey<sub>ES</sub>  
411 did not differ between treatments with and without the IG-predator<sub>NC</sub>, indicating that *N.*  
412 *californicus* females did not forage on *E. stipulatus* juveniles. These results suggest that, in  
413 presence of IG-prey (juveniles of *E. stipulatus*), the IG-predator<sub>NC</sub> ceased to forage on either  
414 herbivore or IG-prey, likely because IG-prey<sub>ES</sub> interferes with the foraging activities of IG-  
415 predator<sub>NC</sub>. Thus, the realized community was that of a trophic chain composed of the IG-  
416 prey, the herbivore and the plant, with the IG-predator not interacting at all (Box 1, c.2.2.).  
417 This can be explained by IG-predators<sub>NC</sub> avoiding foraging on a patch where its offspring  
418 (future) IG-predator is also there. In line with this, Abad-Moyano *et al.* (2010) reported that  
419 the presence of *E. stipulatus* immatures exerted non-lethal IG-effects on *N. californicus*  
420 females, causing daily oviposition to decrease over time despite the availability of the  
421 shared prey was kept constant. In any case, here, the trophic links are again linear, with *N.*  
422 *californicus* being excluded from the realized community (Box 1, c.2.2.). Together, our

423 results show that none of the complex communities was actually realized, they were all  
424 trophic chains.

425

### 426 The return of the trophic chain: Fundamental vs realized trophic interactions

427 \_\_\_\_\_ By combining data of mortality and oviposition at different community structures,  
428 we could determine who eats whom in a simple food web. Although this approach is  
429 powerful, it does have its limitations. Indeed, it assumes additive effects of conversion  
430 efficiencies of pairwise interactions. For example, if feeding on a prey item allows predators  
431 to better convert the food provided by another prey, this cannot be detected in our  
432 approach (i.e., indirect effects on conversion efficiency). Furthermore, it may be largely  
433 unfeasible to extend this approach to more complex food webs, although it is becoming  
434 clear that we need to know how food is transformed into predator offspring in order to fully  
435 understand food webs in nature (Neutel & Thorne 2014). Indeed, such full-factorial studies  
436 are extremely rare in the literature (but see Schmitz & Sokol-Hessner 2002; Otto *et al.*  
437 2008).

438 Connectance is a fundamental measure of food-web complexity that describes the  
439 proportion of realized interactions amongst all possible ones (May 1972). It is becoming  
440 increasingly evident that connectance is generally much lower than the number of potential  
441 interactions (Beckerman *et al.* 2006). Identifying trophic links in food webs, however, is not  
442 a simple task. Molecular methods are useful to process field data and they deliver reliable  
443 information on who eats whom, but such tools currently only provide semi-quantitative  
444 estimates of predation, and they are expensive (Birkhofer *et al.* 2017). Another possible  
445 approach to measure connectance is by observations in the field (Dunne *et al.* 2002;  
446 Tylianakis *et al.* 2007; Carnicer *et al.* 2009; Lazzaro *et al.* 2009; Plein *et al.* 2013; Baiser *et al.*  
447 2016; Lemos-Costa *et al.* 2016). Although this approach allows including a high number of  
448 species in the observations, it suffers from two main shortfalls: (a) it is generally only  
449 possible to undertake it in systems with two trophic levels in which one are primary  
450 producers, for example in plant pollinator networks (but see Bukovinszky *et al.* 2008; Neutel  
451 & Thorne 2014), or in systems where trophic interactions are detectable long after the  
452 actual events, as in parasitoid/host interactions or via the analysis of gut contents; and (b) it  
453 does not account for how foraging on a given resource translates into consumer offspring  
454 (but see Bukovinszky *et al.* 2008; Vázquez *et al.* 2015). Observations in controlled

455 experimental settings, in contrast, deliver quantitative estimates of predation rates and  
456 concomitant offspring production, especially when trophic links, and their strength, are  
457 estimated by confronting pairs of species. Alternatively, modelling complex systems provide  
458 relative estimates on interaction strengths that go beyond pair-wise interactions (Moya-  
459 Laraño *et al.* 2012; Moya-Laraño *et al.* 2014). Yet, one-on-one approaches may ignore  
460 emergent indirect effects of having several species together (Wootton 1994; Dambacher &  
461 Ramos-Jiliberto 2007). For instance, *Cancer productus*, a crab native to the Northwest  
462 Pacific, consumes equal amounts of native oysters and of invasive drill oysters when each  
463 type of prey is offered alone, but when they are offered together crabs interact with the  
464 native oyster species only (Grason & Miner 2012). Therefore, if trophic links are not  
465 evaluated in presence of all species in the community, one may reach erroneous conclusions  
466 on the strength of the interaction (Guzmán *et al.* 2016b; Fonseca *et al.* 2017) and  
467 overestimate connectance in food webs. We show that all communities ended up becoming  
468 a sum of one or more trophic chains (Box 1C). Thus, the fundamental trophic niche of  
469 species in this system (i.e., the food items that the species is able to feed on) is larger than  
470 the realized one (i.e., the food items that the species feeds on when they are all present  
471 simultaneously – (Hutchinson 1961)). Therefore, our results suggest that some food webs  
472 | may be less complex than previously thought in terms of the frequency and strength of IGP.

473         Theoretical models exploring persistence in three-species communities with IGP find  
474 a limited parameter space for coexistence of IG-predator and IG-prey (e.g. Mylius *et al.*  
475 2001), but field observations show that IGP is actually widespread (Polis 1991). Our results  
476 suggest that IGP in some systems might actually be occasional, as predators will tend to  
477 forage on the most profitable food, which generally is not the IG prey (Polis *et al.* 1989). In  
478 line with this, some natural systems have shown that communities with IGP actually show  
479 dynamics that are compatible with linear food chains, rather than with IGP (Borer *et al.*  
480 2003). Therefore, predators may coexist because they rarely engage in IGP, and complexity  
481 may be over-estimated (Magalhães *et al.* 2005). This agrees with food web theory stating  
482 | that weak trophic interactions promote the persistence of communities (May 1972; Paine  
483 1992; McCann *et al.* 1998, among others). For example, Hiltunen *et al.* (2014) found long-  
484 term cycling dynamics when modelling a three-species planktonic food web with IGP, with  
485 interaction strength between IG-predator and IG-prey set to be much weaker to that  
486 | between IG-predator and the shared resource. Our results suggest that increasing the



487 | number of potentially interacting species results in most species interactions becoming  
488 | weaker. Indeed, the structure of interactions among species in natural communities is  
489 | characterized by many weak and few strong interactions (Paine 1992; McCann *et al.* 1998),  
490 | and such skewedness towards weak interactions is crucial to food web persistence (Neutel  
491 | *et al.* 2002; 2007; Montoya *et al.* 2009; Neutel & Thorne 2014). Because a species'  
492 | fundamental niche (all of its potential interactions) is unlikely to be realized at a particular  
493 | place or time, it is crucial to determine the resources which species in a community actually  
494 | feed upon, and under what circumstances. Therefore, unravelling realized food webs, (i.e.,  
495 | interaction strengths across different nodes and trophic levels, including indirect effects)  
496 | may be key to understanding these ecological networks and their persistence.

497

498

499

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509

510

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712

713 Table 1. Results of Generalized Linear Models applied to a) herbivore mortality rates, b) IG-  
 714 prey (juveniles of *N. californicus*) mortality rates, and c) (IG-)predator (females of *E.*  
 715 *stipulatus*) oviposition rates. All the analyses were 3 full-factorial designs. When interactions  
 716 among the three explanatory variables were not significant, and if the new model yielded a  
 717 lower AIC, they were removed from the model. Subsequently, the same procedure was  
 718 followed for double interactions. These cases are shown in the table as NS\*.

719	a) Herbivore mortality rates	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
720	Intercept	-1.755	0.712	-2.466	0.014
721	IG-predator (1)	2.212	0.732	3.021	0.002
722	IG-prey (2)	2.932	0.729	4.023	<0.001
723	Pollen (3)	-1.851	0.609	-3.040	<0.001
724	IG-predator * IG-prey	-2.302	0.756	-3.047	0.002
725	IG-predator * Pollen	NS			
726	IG-prey * Pollen	1.573	0.639	2.466	.014
727	(1) * (2) * (3)	NS			
728	b) IG-prey mortality rates	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
729	Intercept	0.513	0.238	2.156	0.031
730	IG-predator (1)	0.591	0.273	2.163	0.030
731	Herbivore (2)	-1.624	0.496	-3.276	0.001
732	Pollen (3)	-0.392	0.359	-1.091	0.275
733	IG-predator * Herbivore	1.552	0.511	3.037	0.002
734	IG-predator * Pollen	-1.705	0.517	-3.300	<0.001
735	Herbivore * Pollen	0.749	0.520	1.439	0.150
736	(1) * (2) * (3)	NS			
737	c) IG-predator oviposition rates	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
738	Intercept	-0.843	0.245	-3.443	<0.001
739	IG-prey (1)	-0.194	0.220	-0.882	0.378
740	Herbivore (2)	0.220	0.216	1.018	0.308
741	Pollen (3)	1.104	0.235	4.703	<0.001
742	IG-prey * Herbivore	NS			
743	IG-prey * Pollen	NS			
744	Herbivore * Pollen	NS			
	(1) * (2) * (3)	NS*			



745 Table 2. Results of Generalized Linear Models applied to a) herbivore mortality rates, b) IG-  
 746 prey (juveniles of *E. stipulatus*) mortality rates, and c) (IG-)predator (females of *N.*  
 747 *californicus*) oviposition rates. All the analyses were 3 full-factorial designs. When  
 748 interactions among the three explanatory variables were not significant, and if the new  
 749 model yielded a lower AIC, they were removed from the model. Subsequently, the same  
 750 procedure was followed for double interactions. These cases are shown in the table as NS\*.  
 751

a)	Herbivore mortality rates	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
	Intercept	-1.954	0.722	-2.707	0.007
	IG-predator (1)	2.997	0.729	4.109	<0.001
	IG-prey (2)	2.184	0.746	2.927	0.003
	Pollen (3)	-0.888	0.499	-1.782	0.075
	IG-predator * IG-prey	-2.825	0.764	-3.699	<0.001
	IG-predator * Pollen	0.999	0.460	2.175	0.030
	IG-prey * Pollen	0.791	0.325	2.436	0.015
	(1) * (2) * (3)	NS*			

b)	IG-prey mortality rates	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
	Intercept	-0.4855	0.3035	-1.600	0.110
	IG-predator (1)	0.6150	0.3152	1.951	0.051
	Herbivore (2)	-0.3174	0.2851	-1.114	0.265
	Pollen (3)	-1.1505	0.3416	-3.368	<0.001
	IG-predator * Herbivore	NS*			
	IG-predator * Pollen	NS*			
	Herbivore * Pollen	NS*			
	(1) * (2) * (3)	NS*			

c)	IG-predator oviposition rates	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	Pr(> z )
	Intercept	-2.7430	0.6172	-4.444	<0.001
	IG-prey (1)	-2.5550	1.0378	-2.462	0.014
	Herbivore (2)	2.5174	0.5989	4.204	<0.001
	Pollen (3)	0.3476	0.3685	0.943	0.346
	IG-prey * Herbivore	NS*			
	IG-prey * Pollen	2.2175	1.1041	2.008	0.045
	Herbivore * Pollen	NS*			
	(1) * (2) * (3)	NS*			

778 Box 1. **A: Fundamental community modules** included in this study. a) trophic chain, b)  
779 apparent competition, c) intraguild predation, and d) intraguild predation and apparent  
780 competition. From a) to d) the complexity of the community is increased via increasing the  
781 number of species and the number of interactions among them. **B: Predicted trophic links**  
782 that have been observed using pairwise experimental settings. **C: Realized trophic links**  
783 occurring across community modules of increasing complexity, obtained from the  
784 experiments presented here, where interactions are measured in the presence of other  
785 components of the community. SC stands for secondary consumer, PC for primary  
786 consumer, PP for primary producer, and AF for alternative food. SC1 and SC2 are phytoseiid  
787 predatory mites, i.e. *Euseius stipulatus* and *Neoseiulus californicus*, respectively, PC is the  
788 tetranychid herbivore mite *Oligonychus perseae*, AF is pollen of *Carpobrotus edulis*, and PP  
789 is the avocado *Persea americana*. Solid arrows indicate negative direct interactions (who  
790 eats whom), whereas dotted and dashed arrows in Box 1A indicate negative indirect  
791 interactions (apparent competition and competition).

792

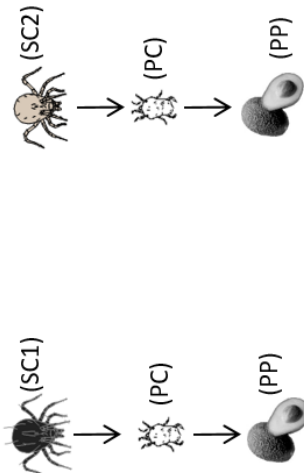
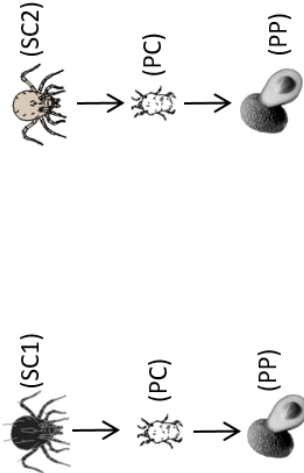
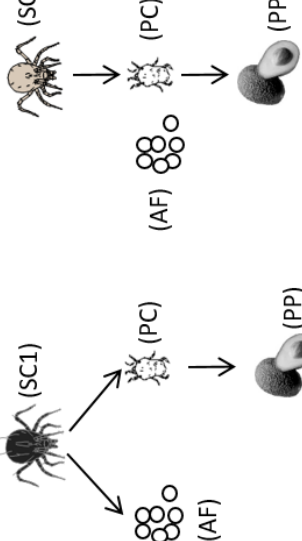
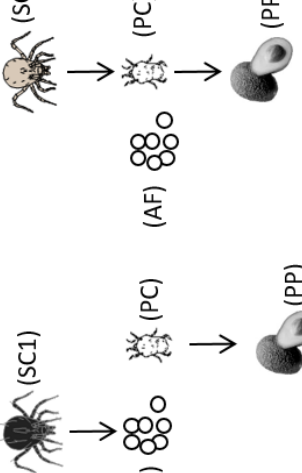
793 Figure 1. Mortality rates (average  $\pm$  S.E.) of a) herbivore prey (*Oligonychus perseae* females)  
794 and b) IG-prey (*Neoseiulus californicus* juveniles), and c) oviposition rates (average  $\pm$  S.E.) of  
795 IG-predators (*Euseius stipulatus* females), in 14 different treatments defined by presence or  
796 absence of either IG-predators, IG-prey, herbivores or alternative food (pollen), depicted in  
797 the lower part of the figure, that mimicked four different community configurations and  
798 their respective controls.

799

800 Figure 2. Mortality rates (average  $\pm$  S.E.) of a) herbivore prey (*Oligonychus perseae* females)  
801 and b) IG-prey (*Euseius stipulatus* juveniles), and c) oviposition rates (average  $\pm$  S.E.) of IG-  
802 predators (*Neoseiulus californicus* females), in 14 different treatments defined by presence  
803 or absence of either IG-predators, IG-prey, herbivores or alternative food (pollen), depicted  
804 in the lower part of the figure, that mimicked four different community configurations and  
805 their respective controls.

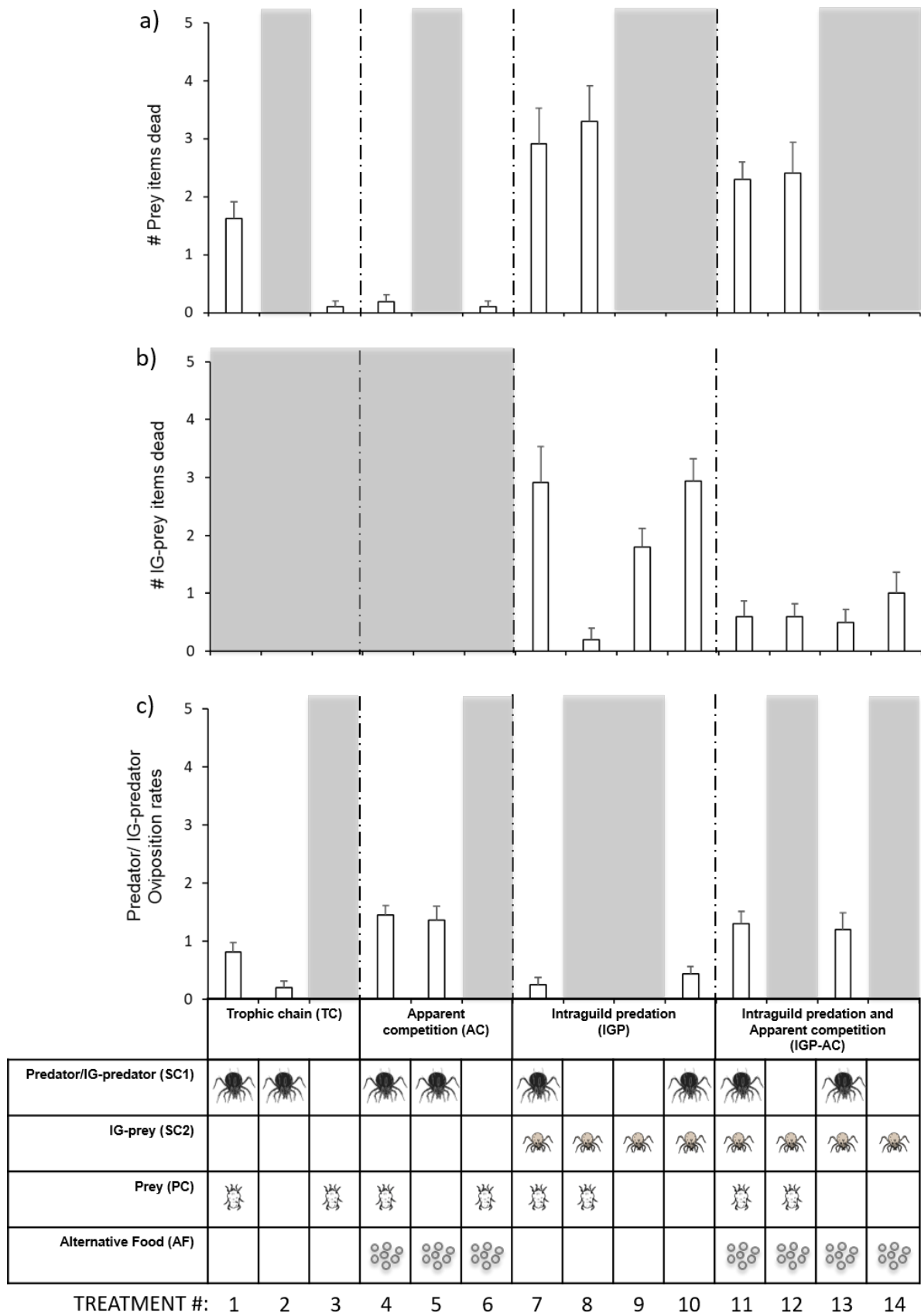
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<p><b>A:</b> <b>FUNDAMENTAL COMMUNITY</b></p>	<p><b>B:</b> <b>PREDICTED TROPHIC LINKS</b></p>	<p><b>C:</b> <b>REALIZED TROPHIC LINKS</b></p>
<p><b>a) Trophic chain</b></p> <pre> graph TD     SC[Secondary Consumer (SC<sub>i,j</sub>)] --&gt; PC[Primary Consumer (PC)]     PC --&gt; PP[Primary Producer (PP)]                     </pre>	<p>a.1.1) <i>E. stipulatus</i> (SC1) → (PC) → (PP)</p> <p>a.1.2) <i>N. californicus</i> (SC2) → (PC) → (PP)</p> 	<p>a.2.1) <i>E. stipulatus</i> (SC1) → (PC) → (PP)</p> <p>a.2.2) <i>N. californicus</i> (SC2) → (PC) → (PP)</p> 
<p><b>b) Apparent competition</b></p> <pre> graph TD     SC[Secondary Consumer (SC<sub>i,j</sub>)] --&gt; PC[Primary Consumer (PC)]     SC --&gt; AF[Alternative Food (AF)]     PC --&gt; PP[Primary Producer (PP)]                     </pre>	<p>b.1.1) <i>E. stipulatus</i> (SC1) → (PC) → (PP)</p> <p>b.1.2) <i>N. californicus</i> (SC2) → (PC) → (PP)</p> 	<p>b.2.1) <i>E. stipulatus</i> (SC1) → (AF) → (PC) → (PP)</p> <p>b.2.2) <i>N. californicus</i> (SC2) → (PC) → (PP)</p> 

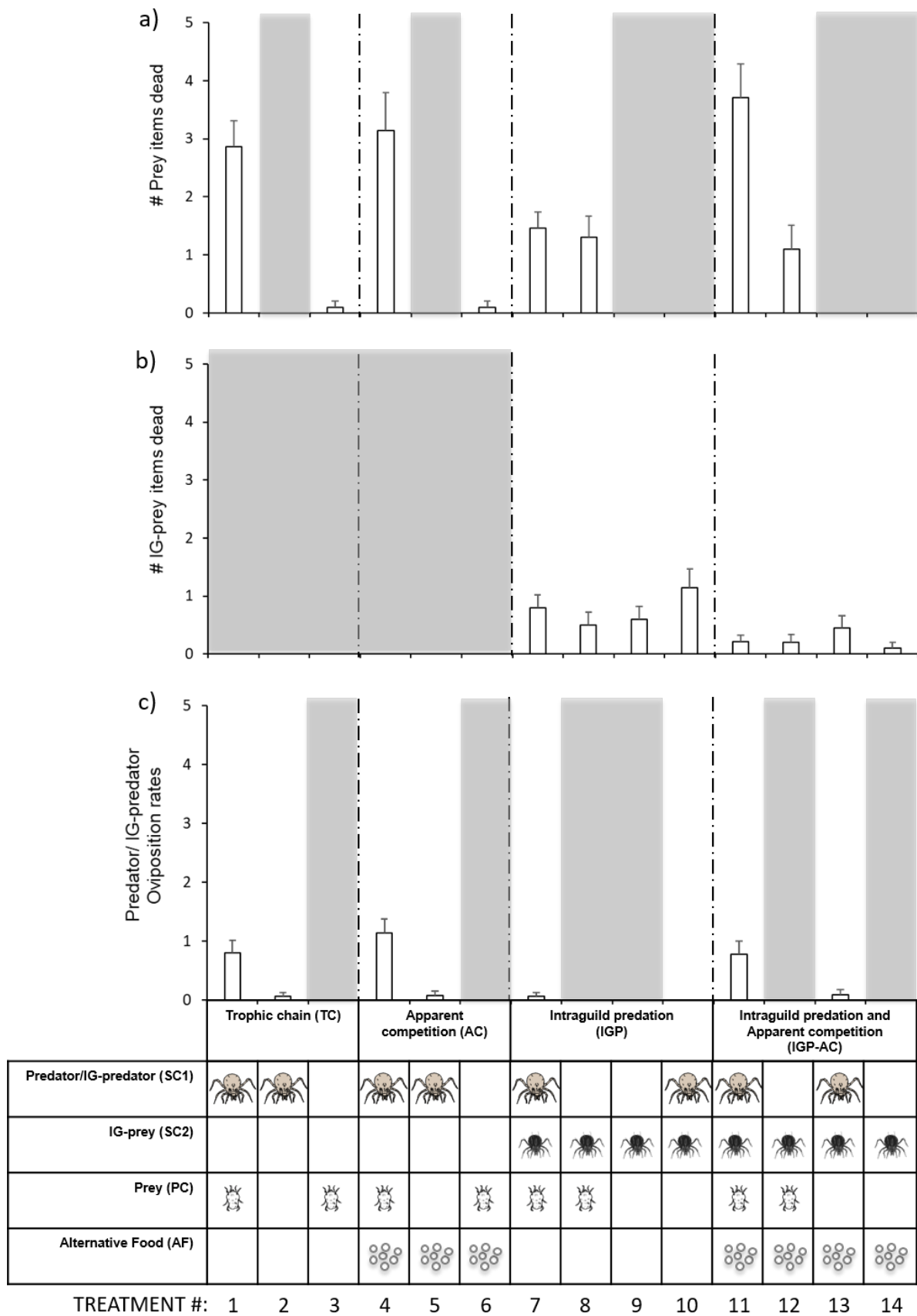
<b>A:</b> <b>FUNDAMENTAL COMMUNITY</b>	<b>B:</b> <b>PREDICTED TROPHIC LINKS</b>	<b>C:</b> <b>REALIZED TROPHIC LINKS</b>
<p><b>c) Intraguild predation</b></p> <pre> graph TD     SCi[Secondary Consumer 1 (SCi)] --&gt; PP[Primary Producer (PP)]     SCi --&gt; PC[Primary Consumer (PC)]     SCj[Secondary Consumer 2 (SCj)] --&gt; PC     SCj --&gt; SCi     </pre>	<p>c.1.1) <i>E. stipulatus</i> (SC1) → (SC2) → (PC) → (PP)</p> <p>c.1.2) <i>N. californicus</i> (SC2) → (SC1) → (PC) → (PP)</p>	<p>c.2.1) <i>E. stipulatus</i> (SC1) → (SC2) → (PC) → (PP)</p> <p>c.2.2) <i>N. californicus</i> (SC2) → (PC) → (PP)</p>
<p><b>d) Intraguild predation and apparent competition</b></p> <pre> graph TD     SCi[Secondary Consumer 1 (SCi)] --&gt; PP[Primary Producer (PP)]     SCi --&gt; PC[Primary Consumer (PC)]     SCj[Secondary Consumer 2 (SCj)] --&gt; PC     SCj --&gt; SCi     AF[Alternative Food (AF)] -.-&gt; PC     </pre>	<p>d.1.1) <i>E. stipulatus</i> (SC1) → (SC2) → (PC) → (PP)</p> <p>d.1.2) <i>N. californicus</i> (SC2) → (SC1) → (PC) → (PP)</p>	<p>d.2.1) <i>E. stipulatus</i> (SC1) → (SC2) → (PC) → (PP)</p> <p>d.2.2) <i>N. californicus</i> (SC2) → (PC) → (PP)</p>

810 Figure 1.



811

812 Figure 2.



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