

1 **Assessing the Complementarity of**
2 **Gut-Content and Pollen-Load Metabarcoding**
3 **with Field Surveys for Inferring**
4 **Plant–Pollinator Interactions**

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8
9 **Key-words:** interaction, metabarcoding, network, pollinator

10 **Abstract**

11 Our understanding of plant-pollinator interaction networks hinges on the methods used to describe their
12 nodes and links. Currently, most networks are built from field observations that may overlook many
13 consumer–resource links. Further, interaction networks lack descriptive links that characterize inter-
14 action types and outcomes. Towards a more complete approach for building interaction networks, we
15 compare plant interactions from the wild pollinator species, *Bombus pascuorum*, observed by three
16 methodologies with different implications for interaction outcomes. We compare floral visitation inter-
17 actions obtained from field observations to plant consumption interactions revealed by metabarcoding
18 of gut contents and pollen transport interactions detected by corbiculae pollen loads. Our approach adds
19 functional context to plant–pollinator network links and reveals new interactions. We show that both
20 metabarcoding approaches increase sampling efficiency and reveal links left unobserved by field obser-
21 vations of visitation, highlighting plant taxa that are not pollinator-dependent, yet constitute important
22 dietary resources. Paired with floral diversity surveys, gut content results also reveal seasonal pat-
23 terns in the spatial extent and functional diversity included in forage, which other methodologies fail to
24 demonstrate. Metabarcoding data analyzed at the individual specimen level further reveal heterogene-
25 ity in plant resource use between pollen transport and consumption. Metabarcoding methodologies
26 capture greater spatial, temporal, and taxonomic ranges, while field observations provide validating
27 datasets with taxonomic precision. Our results show that integrating visitation, transport, and consump-
28 tion data changes network topology and the roles of plant nodes, offering a more nuanced and complete
29 map of interactions with clearer priorities for management. We advocate for defining links explicitly
30 by their functions and combining methods to account for hidden structure in ecological networks.

³¹ **Introduction**

³² Pollination is a critical ecosystem service that is currently threatened by different global changes, in-
³³ cluding habitat loss, intensifying agriculture, pathogens, and invasive species (Klein et al., 2006). Pol-
³⁴ linators critically support the reproduction of 94% of wild flowering plants and 75% of crop species
³⁵ (Vanbergen & Insect Pollinators Initiative, 2013), contributing to 35% of global food production (Klein
³⁶ et al., 2006). However, our understanding of this topic is incomplete given that, historically, the method-
³⁷ ological approach to studying plant-pollinator interactions has been biased towards the plant side of
³⁸ interactions (Bosch et al., 2009; Evans & Kitson, 2020). As a consequence, the well-established re-
³⁹ lationship between pollinator diversity and the productivity of plant communities (Artamendi et al.,
⁴⁰ 2025; Katumo et al., 2022; Woodcock et al., 2019) lacks an equally developed mirrored perspective,
⁴¹ describing the floral diversity that supports pollinator populations.

⁴² Network theory provides a useful framework to summarize patterns of plant–pollinator interaction
⁴³ (Burkle & Alarcón, 2011), but the strong influence of the interaction types that define links on the scope
⁴⁴ of networks has yet to be accounted for in most studies. Existing methodologies for reconstructing in-
⁴⁵ teraction networks tend to emphasize structural patterns, while overlooking the functional outcomes of
⁴⁶ interactions that are critical for understanding how plant communities support pollinators (Quintero et
⁴⁷ al., 2022). In eusocial bees, for example, plant interactions may have several outcomes. Bees consume
⁴⁸ plant material, including pollen, nectar, or even plant tissue (Pashalidou et al., 2020; Vaudo, 2015).
⁴⁹ They also collect pollen on their corbicula for transport to the nest for feeding drones and larvae (Leach
⁵⁰ & Drummond, 2018; Vaudo, 2015). Finally, visitation of the reproductive parts of flowers can have
⁵¹ various outcomes for both the plant and pollinator, including pollination and pathogen transfer (Lignon
⁵² et al. 2024). Interaction networks generally represent only one of these outcomes, although each is
⁵³ important to understanding how plant taxa support pollinators.

⁵⁴ The importance of different outcomes in plant-pollinator interactions becomes clear when consider-
⁵⁵ ing the biodiversity necessary to support pollinators across life stages. Because the resources needed
⁵⁶ for foraging adult pollinator nutrition can be different from those needed at the larval stage, or by other
⁵⁷ colony members (Leach & Drummond, 2018; Vaudo, 2015), transported pollen may not completely rep-
⁵⁸ resent the interactions necessary to sustain adult pollinator diets. This is especially true for bumblebees
⁵⁹ (*Bombus spp.*), which are able to evaluate pollen resource quality to make discerning forage choices
⁶⁰ (Leonhardt & Blüthgen, 2012; Timberlake, de Vere, et al., 2024). Bumblebees make trial-and-error
⁶¹ floral visits in order to find adequate forage (Selva et al., 2024), which may result in pollen transport
⁶² without consumption. Conversely, consumption, or simply visitation, may occur without resulting in
⁶³ transport (Popic et al., 2012). Accounting for different interaction outcomes, such as visitation, trans-
⁶⁴ port, and consumption, is a critical next step in representing the network of plant diversity used by
⁶⁵ pollinators.

⁶⁶ Shifting network studies to incorporate the pollinator perspective and leveraging the contributions of
⁶⁷ different methodologies can produce a more complete image of interaction networks. Research based
⁶⁸ on microscopy and molecular analyses of pollen load samples sourced from insect specimens can iden-
⁶⁹ tify greater plant species diversity within interaction networks compared to studies based solely on field
⁷⁰ observations of floral visitation (Baksay et al., 2022; Bosch et al., 2009). Additionally, studies adopt-
⁷¹ ing a pollinator-centered view have revealed greater detail in forage preference trends, such as how

⁷² pollinators use forage quality or quantity-based strategies (Selva et al., 2024; Timberlake, de Vere, et
⁷³ al., 2024), seasonal changes (Leponiemi et al., 2023), life cycle timing, and metabolic specialization
⁷⁴ (Vaudo, 2015).

⁷⁵ Genetic tools can detect plant-pollinator interactions that may be unobserved in pollen microscopy
⁷⁶ and traditional field surveys Pöron et al. (2017), and target specific interaction types. Amplicon
⁷⁷ sequence metabarcoding of pollen samples complements the visitation interactions observed by field
⁷⁸ studies (Arstingstall et al., 2021; K. L. Bell et al., 2017), increasing species detection by 9 - 144%
⁷⁹ (Baksay et al., 2022; Milla et al., 2022; Smart et al., 2017) and network sampling completeness up to
⁸⁰ 30%, while reducing exaggeration of specialization (Arstingstall et al., 2021) and revealing interactions
⁸¹ beyond the traditionally surveyed floral community (de Vere et al., 2017; Milla et al., 2022). Advances
⁸² in the reliability and accessibility of amplicon sequencing have made these approaches more feasible for
⁸³ studying plant-pollinator interactions. Field surveys of visitation can now be effectively complemented
⁸⁴ by genetic tools (Milla et al., 2022) targeting specific interaction types, enhancing our understanding
⁸⁵ of interaction diversity.

⁸⁶ Most studies applying metabarcoding to pollinator-sourced samples for constructing interaction net-
⁸⁷ works analyze the external pollen loads of bees or pollen stored in nest reserves of honey and bee bread
⁸⁸ (Baksay et al., 2022; Devriese et al., 2024; Leontidou et al., 2021; Leponiemi et al., 2023; Selva et
⁸⁹ al., 2024), despite limitations of these sampling targets. Pollen in these samples can come from the
⁹⁰ environment, even including accumulation of windborne material (Negri et al., 2015). To account for
⁹¹ this, past studies have ignored detections of wind pollinated taxa Pöron et al. (2017), although this
⁹² may introduce bias to results, given that many plant taxa have partial identities as wind or insect pollin-
⁹³ ated taxa (Saunders, 2018) A more fundamental issue with externally carried pollen and nest reserves
⁹⁴ is present in their restricted ability to represent interaction types. Studies of external pollen carried by
⁹⁵ eusocial bees, for example, have generally sequenced the DNA of pollen from the corbicula (e.g. Shi
⁹⁶ et al. (2025)). Corbiculic pollen provides an easily obtained sample, containing a mixture of pollen
⁹⁷ collected for transport to the nest for brood feeding (Leach & Drummond, 2018; Vaudo, 2015), which
⁹⁸ only directly observes interactions where pollen is transported (Arstingstall et al., 2021). Given the role
⁹⁹ of this pollen in bees' life cycles, it is easy to overstep the interpretative capacity of these sample types
¹⁰⁰ when characterizing forage networks to describe diet, or successful pollination interactions.

¹⁰¹ Pollinator intestinal tracts (hereafter: guts) represent an additional source for observing interactions,
¹⁰² specifically those related to consumption of pollen and other plant material (Haag et al., 2023; Li et al.,
¹⁰³ 2025; Mayr et al., 2021). Plant DNA detected in gut contents can reveal interactions with consumption
¹⁰⁴ as the exclusive outcome, which, aside from flower visits, can include nectar robbing (Popic et al.,
¹⁰⁵ 2012) and plant damage (Pashalidou et al., 2020). The gut content approach can also account for en-
¹⁰⁶ vironmental contamination in external pollen and nest stores by highlighting oversights resulting from
¹⁰⁷ the exclusion of interactions with the anemophilous and partially-anemophilous plant taxa in external
¹⁰⁸ pollen studies. There is an accumulating body of evidence supporting the idea that pollinators must
¹⁰⁹ regularly search across functional groups of the plant community to meet their nutritional needs (de
¹¹⁰ Vere et al., 2017; Ibiyemi et al., 2025; Milla et al., 2022; Pojar, 1973; Selva et al., 2024; Tanaka et al.,
¹¹¹ 2020; Terrell & Batra, 1984; Timberlake, de Vere, et al., 2024; Wood et al., 2022), although little atten-
¹¹² tion has been given to these observations as a potentially important part of plant-pollinator networks

¹¹³ (Saunders, 2018). This understudied component of pollinator forage together with the surprising lack
¹¹⁴ of genetic analyses of pollinator gut contents, represents a clear knowledge gap and an opportunity to
¹¹⁵ uncover finer detail in pollinator interaction networks.

¹¹⁶ Our objective is to determine whether a combined methodological approach can provide further insights
¹¹⁷ into pollinator forage ecology and plant-pollinator interaction networks by expanding interaction detec-
¹¹⁸ tions and providing context to network links. We assess how metabarcoding of pollinator gut contents
¹¹⁹ can complement or challenge the characterization of plant-pollinator interaction networks described
¹²⁰ by more common methodologies, including field surveys of plant pollinator interactions and external
¹²¹ pollen load metabarcoding. To this end, we compare interaction networks constructed from each of
¹²² these methodologies for a single model pollinator, *Bombus pascuorum*, an easily identified bumblebee
¹²³ common to most of Europe (Lecocq et al., 2015). Our focus on a single pollinator species holds pol-
¹²⁴ linator identity constant and attributes differences in network structure to methodology, rather than to
¹²⁵ variation among pollinator species. We hypothesize that the consumption interactions detected in gut
¹²⁶ metabarcoding will include a network of plant taxa distinct from those detected by other methodolo-
¹²⁷ gies. Although we expect overlap between networks constructed by different methodologies, we expect
¹²⁸ to observe previously overlooked interaction network structure, including new links and significance
¹²⁹ of network links. Ideally, the resulting combination of observations will generate a network that will
¹³⁰ elevate our capacity to detect meaningful plant-pollinator interactions, and learn more about interaction
¹³¹ types and implications for pollinator health.

¹³² **Methods**

¹³³ Our sample collection was conducted in Gorbeia Natural Park, a protected area in Spain. Within Gor-
¹³⁴ beia, we selected 16 sampling sites located within the mixed zones of meadows and shrublands found
¹³⁵ at higher elevations within the park. We conducted fieldwork from early April to the end of July 2023
¹³⁶ covering the main flowering period and peak annual pollinator activity in Gorbeia. On each sampling
¹³⁷ day during this timeframe, we visited field sites in pairs. Sampling days were organized into six periods,
¹³⁸ in which we sampled each site pair once per period. We conducted three types of surveys during daily
¹³⁹ peaks of pollinator activity, including floral diversity surveys (“flower counts”), interaction transect
¹⁴⁰ surveys, and *Bombus pascuorum* specimen collection for amplicon sequencing analyses.

¹⁴¹ *Interaction transects and floral resource availability surveys*

¹⁴² We used the one 250 m transect at each site for both interaction transect and flower count surveys,
¹⁴³ recording observations within ~2 m of the transect line. Interaction surveys were conducted three times
¹⁴⁴ per day, each lasting 1 h. All insects observed contacting the reproductive parts of herbaceous flowers
¹⁴⁵ within the transect were recorded; for this study, we retained only *Bombus pascuorum* interaction data.
¹⁴⁶ Surveys were spaced by ~2 hours (~11:00, ~13:00, ~15:00), and transects were walked at a constant
¹⁴⁷ pace to cover the full length within an hour. For each site and sampling period, one flower count was
¹⁴⁸ conducted by recording all of the flowering herbaceous species within the transects.

¹⁴⁹ *Bombus pascuorum specimens*

¹⁵⁰ For every period visit at each site, we collected up to five *B. pascuorum* specimens for molecular
¹⁵¹ analyses (N = 126). We brought specimens back from the field and froze them at -20°C until processed.

₁₅₂ In the lab, we extracted the entire gut and honey stomach of *B. pascuorum* individuals. Additionally,
₁₅₃ if present, we collected pollen pellets from the corbicula of specimens into sterile 1.5 mL centrifuge
₁₅₄ tubes. Pollen samples were stored individually by specimen sample at -20°C.

₁₅₅ Gut Content DNA extraction

₁₅₆ Genomic DNA was extracted from *B. pascuorum* guts using the NucleoSpin® 96 Soil kit (Macherey-
₁₅₇ Nagel, Düren, Germany) and amplified in duplicate using the DFD forward and ASDFAS reverse
₁₅₈ primers. To avoid site and period bias, all samples were randomized using a randomizer program be-
₁₅₉ fore the DNA extraction. We followed the kit manufacturer protocol, only adjusting centrifuge times to
₁₆₀ account for the lower maximum velocity of the large centrifuge used to process large sample numbers
₁₆₁ simultaneously (See Supporting Information). To confirm successful DNA extraction, Nanodrop tests
₁₆₂ were performed on random samples.

₁₆₃ *DNA extraction from corbicular pollen pellets*

₁₆₄ DNA was extracted from pollen pellets (N = 25) using the Machery-Nagel NucleoSpin 8 Food kit,
₁₆₅ including additional initial steps recommended by the kit's supplementary protocol for pollen DNA
₁₆₆ extraction (See Supporting Information). Qubit fluorometry tests using random samples confirmed
₁₆₇ successful DNA extractions.

₁₆₈ *Amplicon Sequencing*

₁₆₉ Our metabarcoding sequence libraries were built by amplifying and sequencing the internal transcribed
₁₇₀ spacer (ITS2) region of the ribosomal DNA in our extract samples. For all samples, we used existing
₁₇₁ primers for amplification of the ITS2 region (See Supporting Information). Libraries were sequenced
₁₇₂ on an Illumina platform to generate paired-end raw reads. We used demultiplexed raw sequence data,
₁₇₃ with primer and adapter sequences removed, in further bioinformatic analyses.

₁₇₄ *Bioinformatics: taxonomic assignment and contaminant analysis*

₁₇₅ Raw Illumina sequences were processed using the DADA2 bioinformatics pipeline (Callahan et al.,
₁₇₆ 2016). Taxonomy was added to the ASVs using an existing reference sequence database (K. Bell, 2021),
₁₇₇ which provided reference sequences at the species level for all but 21 of the species present in the study
₁₇₈ area, all of which were identifiable to the genus level in the database. We removed likely contaminants
₁₇₉ and misidentified ASVs from our bioinformatics results using a three-step screening process. First,
₁₈₀ ASVs were analyzed for contaminants using the decontam package in R (Davis et al., 2018). Second,
₁₈₁ we conducted a BLAST search using ITS2 Database (Ankenbrand et al., 2015) to verify taxa that were
₁₈₂ identified by only one ASV within our results. Finally, the remaining list of taxa was assessed by a
₁₈₃ local botanist for remaining errors.

₁₈₄ *Statistical analysis*

₁₈₅ We analyzed the results of each methodology together using statistical tools for comparing interac-
₁₈₆ tion plant communities across methodology, time, and individual specimens. As an initial broad test
₁₈₇ of whether the methodologies detected interactions with different plant communities, we used binary
₁₈₈ presence-absence matrices to compare the communities detected by each methodology on each sam-
₁₈₉ pling day. Data were aggregated by sampling day for all sets of observations. Community composition

190 was contrasted using the Raup-Crick dissimilarity index in a PERMANOVA test within the R package,
191 vegan (Oksanen et al., 2024) with methodology as the independent variable. Further pairwise comparisons
192 of these data were made by subsetting the dissimilarity matrix used in the first test by each unique
193 methodology pair and using multiple PERMANOVAs to test the pairs. We also used vegan to observe
194 beta dispersal of our data as a further means of understanding PERMANOVA results.

195 Among our *B. pascuorum* specimens, 25 provided both pollen and gut samples. Using the data from this
196 subset of samples, we compared the plant communities detected by the two metabarcoding methodologies
197 at the individual sample level without aggregation. As before, Raup-Crick dissimilarity matrices
198 were calculated using binary detection data from pollen and gut detections. PERMANOVA compared
199 both methodologies' detected communities in strata defined by specimens of sample origin.

200 *B. pascuorum - plant interaction Network Metrics*

201 We used interaction frequencies from the three methodologies to build *B. pascuorum*-plant interaction
202 networks and calculate species-level metrics for plant importance and specialization. Plant importance
203 was the proportion of all *B. pascuorum* interactions involving a given plant genus. For metabarcoding
204 and pollen-load data, interactions were counted as the number of individual bee samples in which a plant
205 taxon was detected; for observational data, interactions corresponded to recorded visits. Species-level
206 specialization (d') was calculated following Blüthgen et al. (2006), as implemented in the R package
207 bipartite (Dormann et al., 2009).

208 We created a composite interaction network for *B. pascuorum*, incorporating the data of each methodology
209 and the interaction outcome types as network metadata. Network nodes included *B. pascuorum*
210 and the list of plant genera detected across the three interaction datasets. Single plant genera were
211 assigned between one and three links corresponding to interaction type, depending on their detection
212 across methodologies.

213

214 **Results**

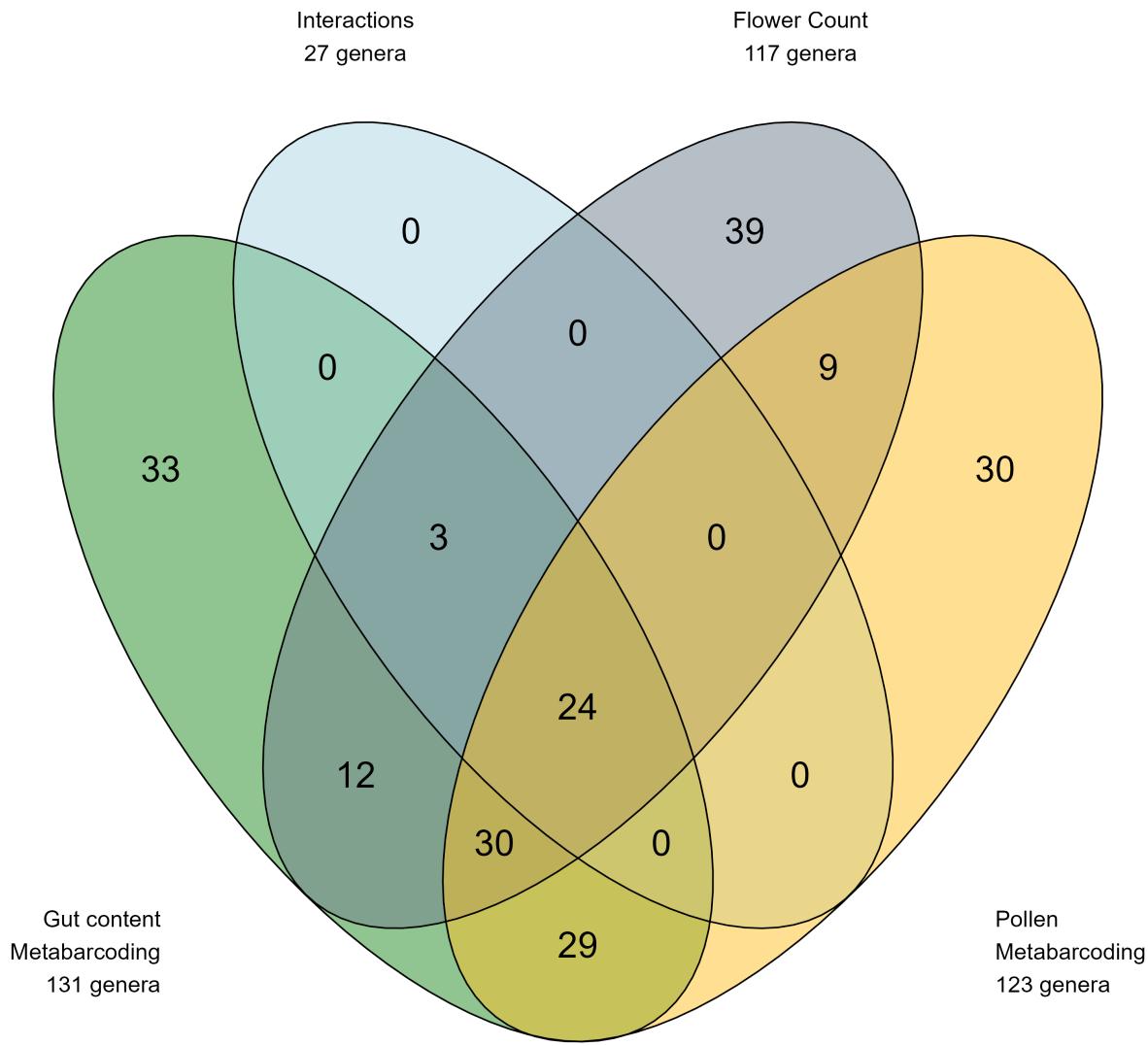
215 *Assessment of floral resource use relative to availability*

216 Within our flower count surveys we registered a total of 117 flowering herbaceous plant genera across
217 the sampling season, representing the pool of floral resources available to *B. pascuorum*, which interacted
218 with only a subset of this diversity (Fig. 1). In fact, 39 genera recorded in flower counts
219 were absent from the interaction networks generated by any of the methodologies. Interaction transects
220 revealed interactions with 27 genera (23% of total floral diversity), while gut content and corbiculare
221 pollen metabarcoding revealed interactions with 58% and 53% of available taxa, respectively.

222 *Comparison of interaction detections by methodology*

223 Both metabarcoding methodologies detected multiple unique taxa (33 taxa for gut contents and 30 for
224 corbiculare pollen), while interaction transects did not detect any unique interactions (Fig. 1). The two

²²⁵ metabarcoding methodologies shared 83 common plant genera, representing 67% of the total corbiculair
²²⁶ pollen diversity and 63% of the gut content diversity.

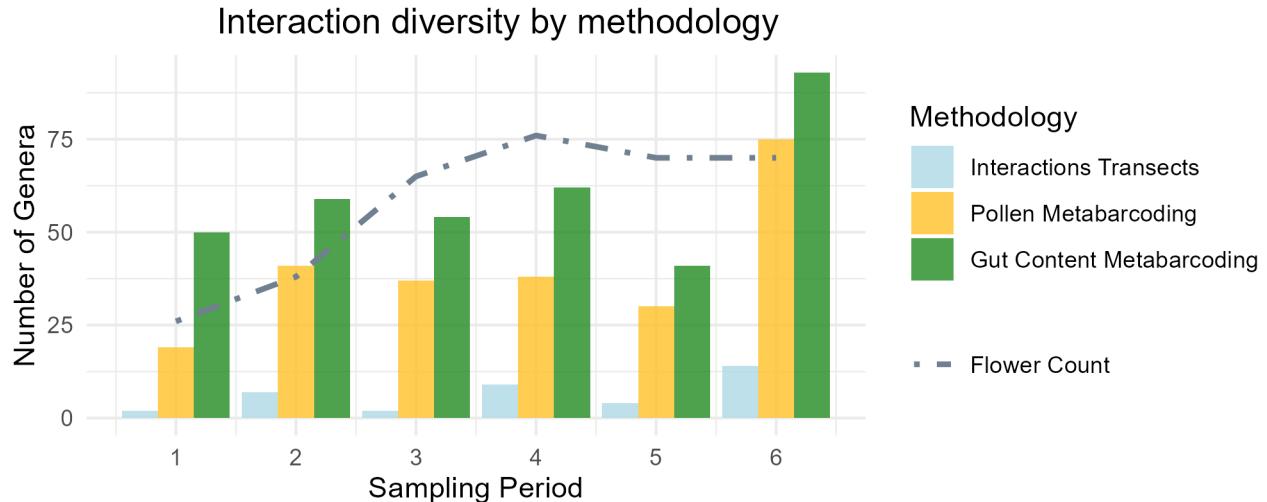


²²⁷

²²⁸ **Figure 1:** Total diversity and overlap of plant genera observed by four observation methodologies:
²²⁹ transect surveys of floral diversity ("flower counts") and *B. pascuorum* - flower interactions, and
²³⁰ metabarcoding of plant DNA in corbiculair pollen and gut contents of *B. pascuorum*. For the three
²³¹ interaction observation methodologies, the total number of taxa represents the degree of *B. pascuorum*
²³² in the interaction network constructed by the corresponding methodology.

²³³ Taxonomic diversity varied across sampling periods, revealing distinct temporal patterns in flower-
²³⁴ ing taxa and interactions (Fig. 2). Although floral and interaction diversity increased overall from
²³⁵ the first to the last period, flowering taxa peaked in period four, whereas interactions peaked in pe-

236 period six. Metabarcoding consistently detected more taxa than interaction transects, with gut-content
237 metabarcoding outperforming all other methods. In periods one, two, and six—before and after peak
238 flowering—gut metabarcoding detected 59% more taxa than were recorded in flower counts on average,
239 while in periods three to five floral diversity exceeded gut-content diversity.



240
241 **Figure 2:** Taxonomic diversity in *Bombus pascuorum* interaction networks over six sampling periods
242 (April - August, 2023) observed through floral visitation surveys and ITS2 metabarcoding of DNA ex-
243 tracted from bumblebee gut contents and corbiculate pollen loads. The results of each methodology
244 correspond to samples or surveys each taken across the same 48 sampling days. The number of plant
245 genera indicated is a cumulative raw value for each methodology and period, with no standardiza-
246 tion for sampling effort. Interaction diversity for transects is represented by the total number of taxa
247 observed over each transect and sampling day, for each period. For metabarcoding methodologies,
248 interaction diversity is the total number of plant genera observed across all samples collected during
249 the given period.

250 Functional diversity observations

251 The design of interaction transects only included taxa from the entomophilous community, while both
252 metabarcoding methodologies detected taxa from the anemophilous community as well, representing
253 28% ($N = 41$) of the total identified plant genera between the two methodologies. These genera in-
254 cluded 20 genera from *Poaceae*, nine tree/woody plant genera, and 12 other herbaceous genera (See
255 Supporting Information). During periods one, two, and six—when gut-content metabarcoding detected
256 more taxa than the entomophilous community recorded in transects—an average of 13% of those taxa
257 were anemophilous or partially anemophilous (See Supporting Information).

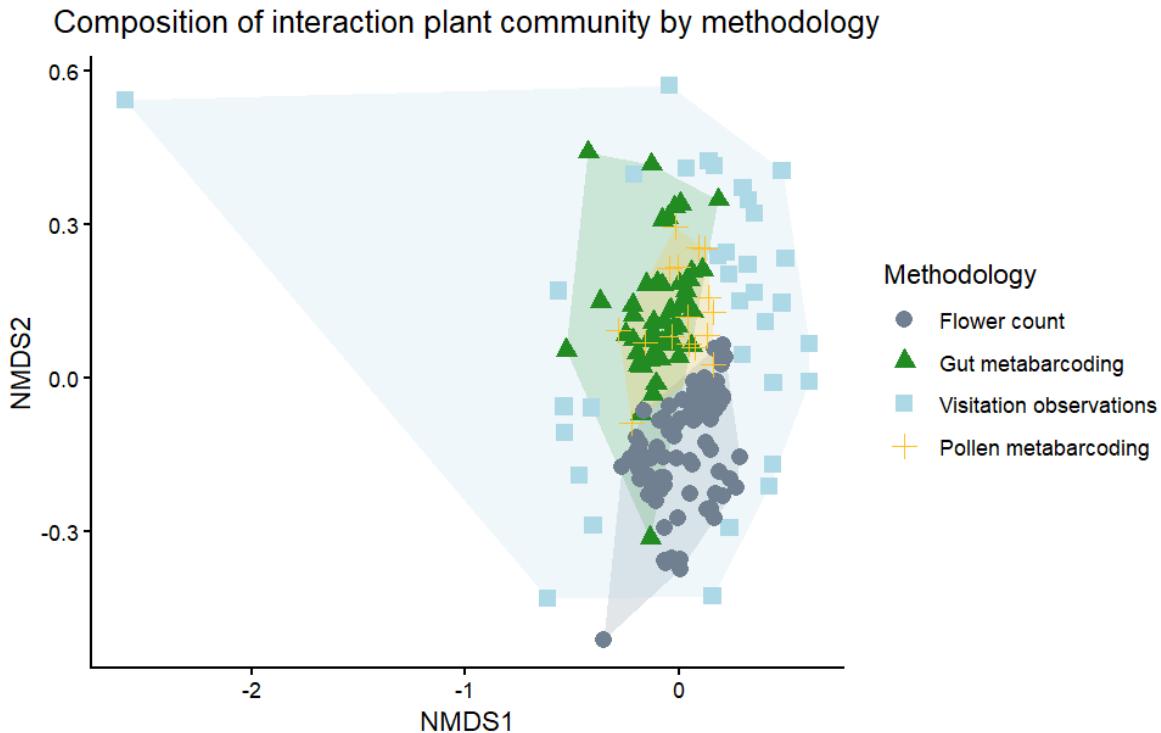
258 Plant community composition across methodologies

259 A PERMANOVA test comparing taxonomic composition of interaction plant communities between
260 methodologies indicated a significant effect of methodology on the observed community ($P < 0.001$, R
261 = 0.28). In this analysis, interaction transects showed high beta-dispersal (distance to centroid = 0.62)

compared to the more centered metabarcoding and flower count results (distance to centroid ≤ 0.10), and an ANOVA test of mean dispersal by methodology indicated different levels of dispersal ($P < 0.001$) for each methodology. The communities detected by each of the methodologies were also visualized using non-metric Multidimensional Scaling (nMDS, stress = 0.17, Fig. 3). Pairwise comparisons (Table 1) showed that the plant communities detected by flower counts were different from those of all other methodologies ($P < 0.001$, Holm-Bonferroni), although between pairs of other methodologies, no differences were observed.

Table 1. Pairwise tests comparing the community composition of plant taxa detected by four methodologies. Detected communities were compared by repeating PERMANOVA tests for each methodology pair. Tests applied the Raup-Crick dissimilarity index with 9999 permutations, and adjusted p-values were calculated using the Holm–Bonferroni method. The summarized test statistics include degrees of freedom for each methodology (DF), R^2 , test F-statistics (F) and associated p-value (p), as well as the adjusted p-value.

Methodology 1	Methodology 2	DF1	DF2	R^2	F	p	Adjusted p
flower count	gut metabarcoding	1	1	0.534	161.69	<0.001	<0.001
flower count	pollen metabarcoding	1	1	0.376	64.95	<0.001	<0.001
flower count	interaction	1	1	0.230	37.64	<0.001	<0.001
gut metabarcoding	pollen metabarcoding	1	1	0.130	9.38	0.038	0.114
gut metabarcoding	interaction	1	1	0.010	0.80	0.55	1
pollen metabarcoding	interaction	1	1	-0.024	-1.13	0.997	1



275

276 **Figure 3:** Non-metric dimensional scaled visualization of plant communities detected by three method-
 277 ologies for observing *B. pascuorum* floral interactions and a flower diversity survey. Observations from
 278 each methodology are aggregated by sampling day, reduced to binary presence/absence data, and com-
 279 pared in ordination using the Raup-Crick dissimilarity index (ordination stress = 0.17).

280 *Specimen level metabarcoding results*

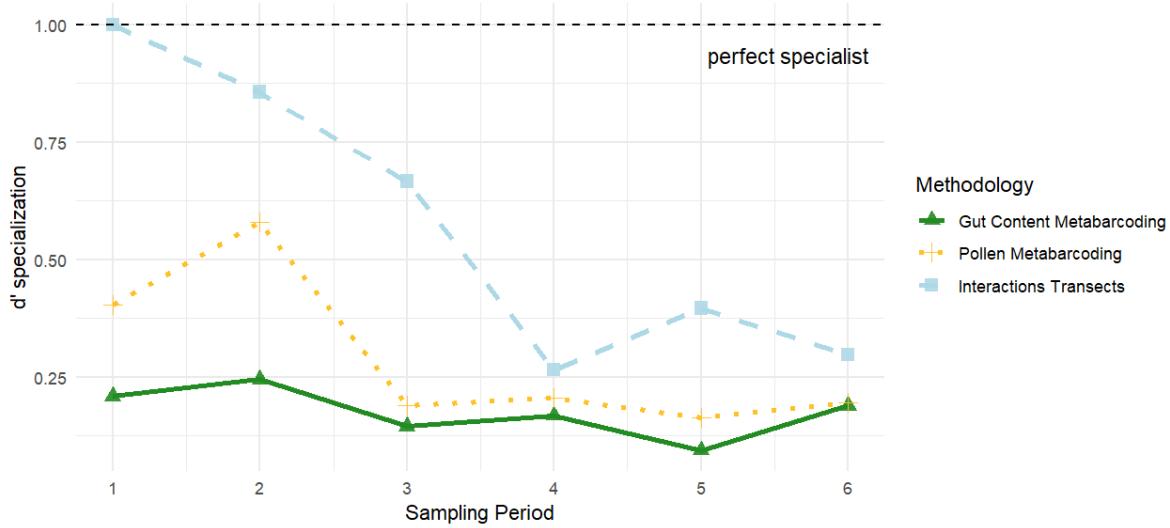
281 Comparing metabarcoding results from the same specimens, gut contents yielded fewer taxa (mean =
 282 12 genera, $sd = 9$) than pollen samples (mean = 18 genera, $sd = 7$). On average, only 20% of taxa
 283 (mean = 6 genera, $sd = 3$) were shared between the two sample types. A PERMANOVA with specimen
 284 as a blocking factor indicated a difference in the plant community observed by both sample types ($P <$
 285 0.01, See Supporting Information) explaining 17% of the variation between gut- and pollen-based de-
 286 tections (See Supporting Information). Data used in this comparison were similarly dispersed (distance
 287 to centroid = 0.08), with no difference between the two groups observed by a permute test.

288 *Species Level Interaction Network*

289 We calculated interaction specialization of *B. pascuorum* and an importance metric for the plant taxa
 290 within interaction networks. Specialization (d' ; Blüthgen et al. (2006)) declined over the season for
 291 transect and pollen-metabarcoding data but remained relatively stable for gut-content metabarcoding
 292 (Fig. 4), with transects indicating complete specialization in the first period. Across all methods, *Lo-*
tus emerged as the most important plant genus, though the structure of importance differed: the two

²⁹⁴ metabarcoding networks showed more evenly distributed importance values, whereas the transect net-
²⁹⁵ work was dominated by a few top taxa (Fig. 5).

Specialization of *B. pascuorum* over time as indicated by interaction methodology



²⁹⁶

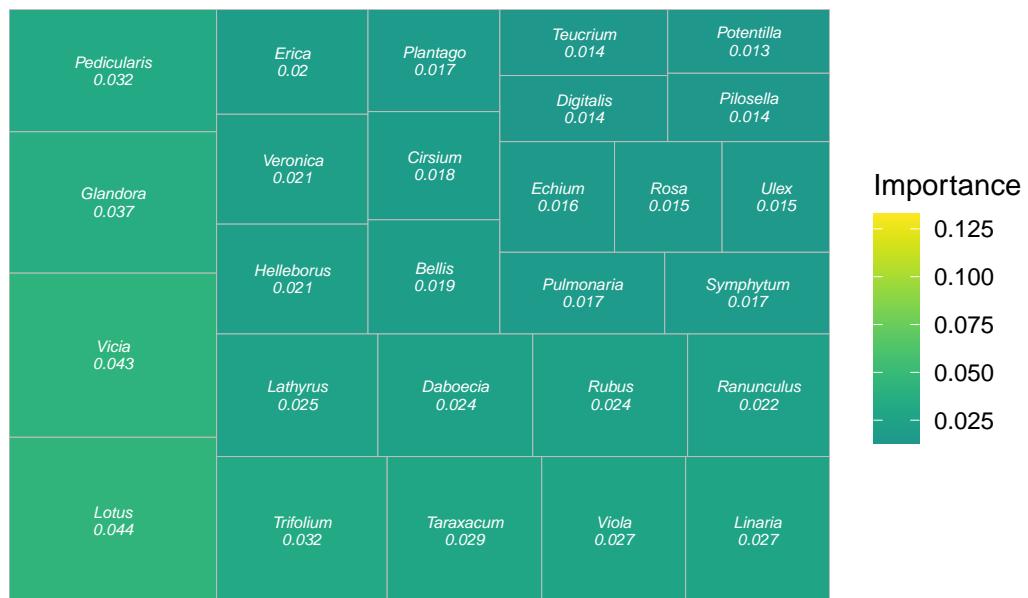
²⁹⁷ **Figure 4:** Specialization of plant interactions for *B. pascuorum* as indicated by networks constructed
²⁹⁸ from three interaction observation methodologies. Specialization was calculated as d' using the
²⁹⁹ methodology of Blüthgen et al. (2006), with $d' = 1$ representing perfect specialist behavior. Specializa-
³⁰⁰ tion of *B. pascuorum* for each period was calculated relative to interaction data from the same species
³⁰¹ in other periods, rather than other pollinator species.

A. Importance of plant taxa in interaction network



302

B. Gut Content Metabarcoding



303

C. Corbicula Pollen Metabarcoding

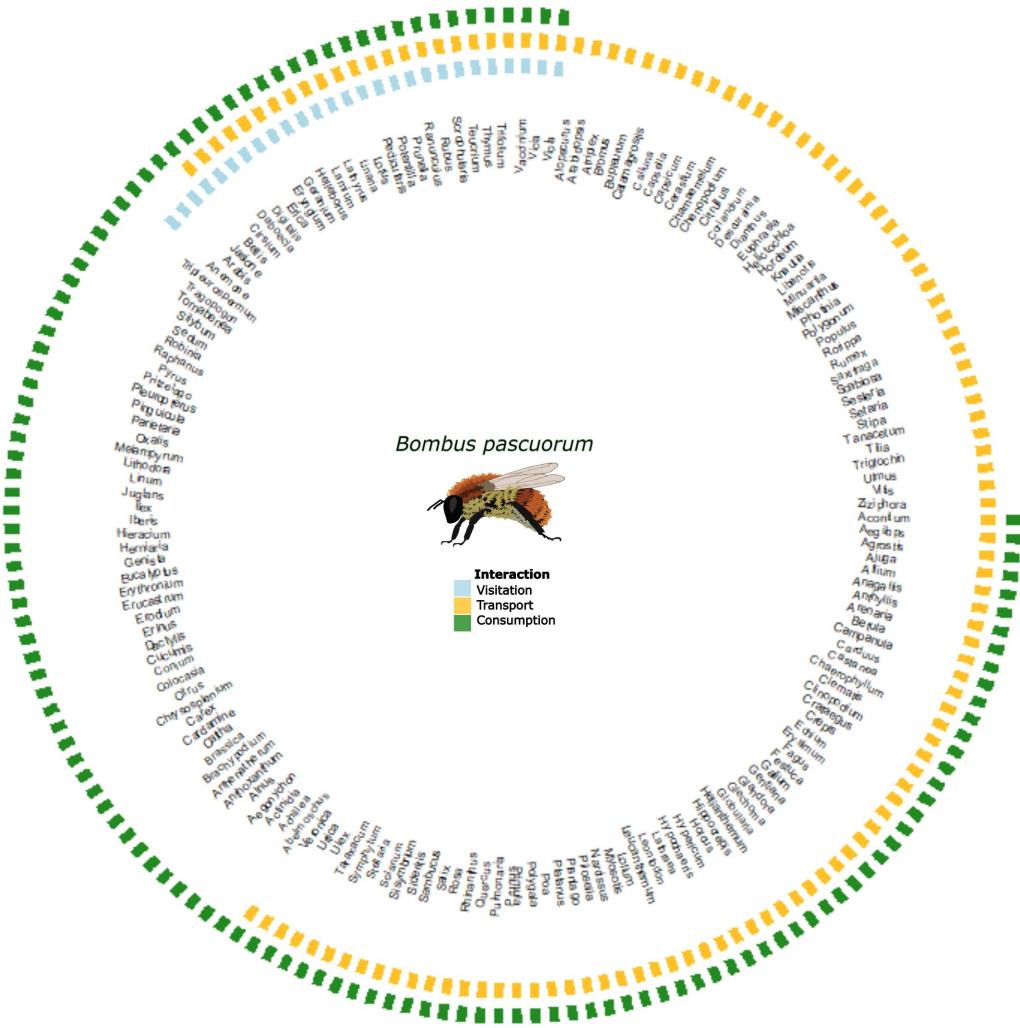


304

305 **Figure 5.** Plant “importance” within *B. pascuorum* interaction networks constructed from three in-
 306 teraction observation methodologies (A) interaction transects, (B) gut content metabarcoding, and (C)
 307 corbicula pollen metabarcoding. Importance was calculated as the proportion of total plant inter-
 308 actions observed by the given methodology represented by interactions with the specific plant genus.
 309 Importance is visualized with block size proportional to importance, and color scaled to minimum and
 310 maximum values observed by each methodology.

311 *Combined interaction network*

312 We combined the results from each interaction methodology to create an interaction network for *B.*
 313 *pascuorum* with links defined by interaction outcomes, including consumption, transport, and visitation
 314 (Fig. 6). This single species network included 169 nodes, increasing the number of taxa included in
 315 the network compared to individual methodology constructed networks. Additionally, each plant taxa
 316 received up to three links, including link metadata for interaction outcomes in the network. In total, the
 317 network contained 281 descriptive links.



318

319 **Figure 6.** Combined interaction network for *B. pascuorum* including all interaction plant taxa de-
 320 tected by three methodologies. Interaction transect observations are represented by visitation, corbic-
 321 ular pollen metabarcoding observation by transport, and gut content metabarcoding observations by
 322 consumption. 170 plant genera are included within the network, each with up to three links describing
 323 the outcomes of interactions with the single pollinator species. Interactions providing links represent
 324 the presence or absence of any interaction observation within the dataset of a given methodology.

325 **Discussion**

326 Our results show that combining methodologies yields stronger validation of plant–pollinator interac-
 327 tions and deeper insight into network structure. Notably, the two metabarcoding approaches revealed
 328 shared interactions with anemophilous and partially anemophilous plants for pollen consumption and

329 transport, highlighting the complementarity of their data. Although each interaction methodology over-
330 lapped statistically at the aggregated level, the combined network resulting from each methodology in-
331 creased the total nodes, and each methodology provided context to network links. Metabarcoding alone
332 also proved efficient at capturing a broad range of links and providing detailed, specimen-level data.
333 Important information from the function of links is missing under the current approach to characterizing
334 interaction networks, but using multiple methodologies helps to fill these gaps.

335 We compared each methodology in terms of the diversity of detected interactions, assignment of relative
336 importance of plant taxa and specialization of *B. pascuorum* within the resulting network, and observed
337 plant community composition. Consistent with previous comparisons between field and metabarcod-
338 ing observation of plant-pollinator interactions, metabarcoding increased observed interaction diversity
339 (Baksay et al., 2022; Milla et al., 2022; Smart et al., 2017), in our case by more than six-fold compared
340 to interaction transect results. Considering this, and the time dedicated to data collection for both types
341 of methodologies, metabarcoding was a more efficient approach. Interaction transects did provide the
342 advantage of greater taxonomic resolution, as we were able to detect interactions at the species-species
343 level, whereas metabarcoding provided species-genus level interactions. Beyond taxonomic detection
344 capabilities, the results from each methodology allowed for network level cross-validation.

345 Network topology and specialization patterns differed markedly across methodologies. Interaction tran-
346 sects tended to overstate both the degree of specialization and the dominance of the most frequently
347 visited plant taxa. Although *B. pascuorum* is known to form strong early-season associations with
348 certain plant species (Artamendi et al. in preparation), the metabarcoding approaches indicated much
349 lower specialization and produced more evenly distributed network structures. These results mirrored
350 previous interaction networks constructed for individual pollinator species, which also have shown a
351 tendency towards representing pollinators as specialists when using field observation data versus the
352 generalist behavior indicated by metabarcoding data (Arstingstall et al., 2021). Overall, the combina-
353 tion of our datasets across methodologies suggested a more diverse foraging niche than observational
354 data alone would have implied.

355 The three methodologies showed complementary patterns in network composition. Flower counts and
356 interaction transects overlapped as expected from the study design, yet differed statistically, likely due
357 to the much larger number of taxa detected by the former. No statistical differences were found among
358 the three interaction-focused methods, although their dispersion differed, reflecting variation in spa-
359 tial and taxonomic coverage. Interaction transects are shaped by local habitat and plant-community
360 differences, whereas metabarcoding integrates interactions across the broader landscape, producing
361 more consistent results. Metabarcoding approaches overlapped minimally with the floral community
362 detected by flower counts, indicating that interaction networks include taxa not captured within tran-
363 sects. This is unsurprising given that flower counts reflect potential, not actual, interactions and are
364 constrained by spatial and temporal limits that do not restrict metabarcoding.

365 Between the two metabarcoding approaches, gut-content metabarcoding captured greater overall tax-
366 onomic diversity and was more efficient, given that every specimen provided a gut sample, but not
367 necessarily a pollen sample. Pollen samples detected more taxa per individual, however, and hypothet-
368 ically offered an advantage as a non-lethal sampling option. The combination of both methodologies'
369 results broadened the interaction network greatly, and incorporated contextualized interaction links,

370 showing which plant genera were consumed for adult bee nutrition, and which provided pollen for
371 transport to the colony nest. In our case, gut-content metabarcoding was particularly informative for
372 revealing seasonal foraging patterns, detecting more consumed taxa than were flowering in the early
373 and late parts of the season, and showing relatively stable specialization over time. Together, these
374 results indicated that the plant community represented in consumption-based interactions differs from
375 the floral community captured by field and pollen-based surveys.

376 *Metabarcoding observes forage across functional groups*

377 The diversity of plant groups observed within our metabarcoding data, especially the temporal changes
378 in diversity observed by gut content metabarcoding, indicated that *B. pascuorum* forages on different
379 plant taxa than previously expected. Our reference database for metabarcoding allowed us to identify
380 taxa from functional groups beyond the floral community sampled in our transects (See Supporting
381 Information). Through metabarcoding, we observed interactions with a variety of taxa outside of the
382 entomophilous meadow and shrubland plant community, including trees and shrubs, grasses, and other
383 herbaceous plants.

384 Our observations of interactions with the anemophilous community are supported by previously doc-
385 umented interactions (de Vere et al., 2017; Ibiyemi et al., 2025; Milla et al., 2022; Pojar, 1973; Selva
386 et al., 2024; Tanaka et al., 2020; Terrell & Batra, 1984; Timberlake, de Vere, et al., 2024; Wood et
387 al., 2022), and have especially intriguing implications for bumblebee forage behavior. Previous stud-
388 ies using external pollen metabarcoding have removed wind-pollinated taxa from their analyses under
389 the argument that wind-borne pollen in samples may represent false positive interactions (Negri et al.,
390 2015; Porron et al., 2017; Tanaka et al., 2020). Our gut content results, however, suggest that the
391 practice of removing these taxa as contaminants could be a large oversight, especially if using external
392 pollen loads as standalone proxies for forage networks.

393 The presence of DNA from anemophilous taxa within gut samples suggests that interactions with these
394 taxa may be more than coincidental interactions with wind-borne pollen. Indeed, beyond consumption
395 for adult nutrition, there are previous indications that pollen from flowering trees supports colony estab-
396 lishment success and low larval mortality (Wood et al., 2022). Our results support the hypothesis that
397 bumblebees forage selectively for consumption and transport of high quality pollen (Ruedenauer et al.,
398 2016; Timberlake, de Vere, et al., 2024), adapting their forage to take advantage of the best available
399 resources as they change with environmental variability (Selva et al., 2024). While it is possible that
400 some plant material may be transported or consumed incidentally (Arstingstall et al., 2021), the taxa de-
401 tected within *B. pascuorum* gut contents and corbicular pollen form part of the web of biodiversity that
402 supports the species and possibly other pollinators. Our detection of DNA from anemophilous pollen
403 sources across the metabarcoding methodologies indicates the potential for intentional forage interac-
404 tions with these taxa as a means of meeting the nutritional needs for bumblebees at various lifecycle
405 stages.

406 Existing hypotheses for pollinator forage adaptations in response to environmental changes have sug-
407 gested that bees expand forage diversity beyond the flowering community and across habitats in order
408 to survive annual “hunger gaps” (Becher et al., 2024; Timberlake, Tew, et al., 2024), when blooming

⁴⁰⁹ floral species are limited (Morozumi et al., 2022; Wood et al., 2022). Our observation of high for-
⁴¹⁰ age diversity in gut contents before and after the floral peak, distinct interaction and flowering taxa
⁴¹¹ network topologies, and consumption of taxa across functional groups, all together support these hy-
⁴¹² potheses. While the community beyond the physical area of our transects likely played a large role in
⁴¹³ these observations, the detection of anemophilous taxa in gut contents during the periods where forage
⁴¹⁴ diversity was higher than flowering diversity provide evidence for a community driven component as
⁴¹⁵ well. These observations show how the broader taxonomic detection capacity of metabarcoding allows
⁴¹⁶ for detection of interactions that otherwise would go unobserved by flower visitation surveys. This
⁴¹⁷ advantage is extended when working with metabarcoding data at the individual sample level, where
⁴¹⁸ greater resolution for interactions is obtainable.

⁴¹⁹ Metabarcoding offers individual level analysis

⁴²⁰ Our comparative analyses underestimate the resolution of our metabarcoding data. We aggregated de-
⁴²¹ tections by sampling day to balance effort across methods, overlooking the individual-level detail that
⁴²² metabarcoding can provide. When we compared taxa detected from paired pollen and gut samples at the
⁴²³ individual level, overlap was low, revealing a difference between sample sources that was not apparent
⁴²⁴ in comparisons of aggregated data. This difference likely reflects the different roles of corbiculate pollen
⁴²⁵ and immediately consumed pollen in the nutrition needed for different life-cycle stages (Vaudo, 2015).
⁴²⁶ Taxa repeatedly detected by both methods increased confidence in their importance. For instance, the
⁴²⁷ consistent appearance of *Vicia* in both sample types early in the season supports field observations
⁴²⁸ of a strong association between *B. pascuorum* and *Vicia* species (Artamendi et al., unpublished data),
⁴²⁹ underscoring the value of integrating field surveys with laboratory-based methods.

⁴³⁰ Conclusions

⁴³¹ The similarities between interaction data suggest robustness between each methodology, and the in-
⁴³² herent implications of the sample sources of each provide varied means of interpreting different inter-
⁴³³ actions. Interaction transects provide a valuable field-based perspective, although given their lower
⁴³⁴ sampling efficiency, incorporating them as a validation of other surveys may be the best way to in-
⁴³⁵ tegrate this methodology into future studies. Field observations can fill gaps left by metabarcoding
⁴³⁶ methodologies, such as confirmation of pollination efficacy, interaction frequency, and species-level
⁴³⁷ resolution. As a direct observation of the pollen transported to the nest, corbiculate pollen may also
⁴³⁸ be a good starting point for identifying which plants may provide pollen with optimal macronutrients
⁴³⁹ for larval development. Similarly, gut content metabarcoding provides an important perspective on
⁴⁴⁰ the nutritional needs of actively foraging pollinators, identifying which taxa provide pollen as food for
⁴⁴¹ supporting this activity (Li et al., 2025). Knowing which taxa are actually ingested by pollinators is
⁴⁴² especially useful for identifying taxa that facilitate microbiota exchange and acquisition during plant
⁴⁴³ interactions (Cullen et al., 2021; Keller et al., 2021), including parasite and disease transfer (Lignon et
⁴⁴⁴ al., 2024). Although they are not equal, our research highlights overall that each methodology offers
⁴⁴⁵ advantages and disadvantages in terms of sensitivity, sampling effort, and perspective.

⁴⁴⁶ While most of the methodologies we applied—aside from gut-content metabarcoding—have previously
⁴⁴⁷ been used independently to characterize plant–pollinator networks (Devriese et al., 2024; e.g., Magrach
⁴⁴⁸ et al., 2023), our findings highlight the added value of integrating them. Gut-content metabarcoding

449 emerges as a promising new tool, but its greatest potential is realized when combined with established
450 approaches. A key next step is improving our ability to quantify interaction frequencies at the individual
451 level using metabarcoding, whether from gut contents or pollen. Overall, methodological advances are
452 likely to come from linking complementary data sources to fill the informational gaps left by any single
453 approach.

454 *Data and code availability*

455 All amplicon sequencing data will be deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive project: PR-
456 JEB105453. Other data and code will be available in the GorBEEa public GitHub repository, Compara-
457 son_interaction_methodologies. Data and code will be made publicly available upon acceptance of the
458 manuscript.

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