

1 **Key-words:** Apidae, Amplicon sequencing, Interaction, Metabarcoding, Network, Pollinator, Plant-
2 pollinator interaction, Gut microbiome

3 **Abstract**

4 Our understanding of plant-pollinator interaction networks hinges on the methods used to describe their
5 nodes and links. Most networks are built from field observations that may overlook many consumer-
6 resource links, and these networks lack descriptive links that characterize interaction types and out-
7 comes. Towards a more complete approach for building interaction networks, we compare plant inter-
8 actions from the wild pollinator species, *Bombus pascuorum*, recorded by three methodologies with
9 different implications for interaction outcomes. We compare floral visitation interactions obtained
10 from field observations, plant consumption interactions revealed by metabarcoding of gut contents,
11 and pollen transport interactions detected by metabarcoding of corbicular pollen loads. Our approach
12 adds functional context to plant-pollinator network links and reveals new interactions. We show that
13 both metabarcoding approaches increase the number of interactions and reveal links that were over-
14 looked by field observations of visitation, highlighting plant taxa that are not pollinator-dependent, yet
15 constitute important dietary resources. Paired with floral diversity surveys, gut-content results also
16 reveal seasonal patterns in the spatial extent and functional diversity included in forage, which other
17 methodologies fail to demonstrate. Metabarcoding data analyzed at the individual specimen level fur-
18 ther contribute heterogeneity in plant resource use between pollen transport and consumption. Metabar-
19 coding methodologies capture greater spatial, temporal, and taxonomic ranges, while field observations
20 provide validating datasets with higher taxonomic precision. Our results show that integrating visita-
21 tion, transport, and consumption data changes network topology and the roles of plant nodes, offering

22 a more nuanced and complete map of interactions with clearer priorities for management. We advocate
23 for defining links explicitly by their functions and combining methods to account for hidden structure
24 in ecological networks.

25 **Data and Code for peer-review**

26 All data and code used for the analyses in this manuscript are provided on an Anonymous GitHub repos-
27 itory (https://anonymous.4open.science/r/B_pascuorum_interaction_networks). All raw amplicon se-
28 quencing data will be deposited in a project in the European Nucleotide Archive upon final manuscript
29 acceptance.

30 **1. Introduction**

31 Pollination is a critical ecosystem service that is currently threatened by global anthropogenic change,
32 including habitat loss, intensifying agriculture, pathogens, and invasive species (Klein et al., 2006).
33 Pollinators crucially support the reproduction of 94% of wild flowering plants and 75% of crop species
34 (Vanbergen & Insect Pollinators Initiative, 2013), contributing to 35% of global food production (Klein
35 et al., 2006). Despite the clear importance of understanding plant-pollinator interactions, our knowledge
36 of interaction diversity remains incomplete, as the methodological approach to studying plant-pollinator
37 interactions has historically been biased towards the plants (Bosch et al., 2009; Evans & Kitson, 2020).
38 As a consequence, the well-established relationship between pollinator diversity and the productivity of
39 plant communities (Artamendi et al., 2025; Katumo et al., 2022; Woodcock et al., 2019) lacks an equally
40 developed mirrored perspective, describing the floral diversity that supports pollinator populations.

41 Network theory provides a useful framework to summarize patterns of plant–pollinator interaction

(Burkle & Alarcón, 2011), but most studies under this framework have yet to account for how the scope of networks is influenced by the interaction types that define links. Existing methodologies for reconstructing interaction networks tend to emphasize structural patterns, while overlooking the functional outcomes of interactions that are critical for understanding how plant communities support pollinators (Quintero et al., 2022). In *Apidae* species, for example, plant interactions may have several outcomes. Bees consume plant material, including pollen, nectar, or even plant tissue (Pashalidou et al., 2020; Vaudo, 2015). They also collect pollen on their corbicula for transport to the nest for feeding drones and larvae (Leach & Drummond, 2018; Vaudo, 2015). Finally, visitation of the reproductive parts of flowers can have various outcomes for both the plant and pollinator, including pollen transfer (Emer & Memmott, 2023) and pathogen transfer (Lignon et al., 2024). Interaction networks generally represent only one of these outcomes, although each is important to understanding how plant taxa support pollinators.

The importance of different outcomes in plant-pollinator interactions becomes clear when considering the biodiversity necessary to support pollinators across life stages. Because the resources needed for a foraging adult pollinator are different from those needed at the larval stage, or by other colony members (Leach & Drummond, 2018; Vaudo, 2015), transported pollen may not completely represent the interactions necessary to sustain adult pollinators. This is especially true for bumblebees (*Bombus spp.*), which are able to evaluate pollen resource quality to discern foraging choices (Leonhardt & Blüthgen, 2012; Timberlake, de Vere, et al., 2024). Bumblebees make trial-and-error floral visits in order to find adequate forage (Selva et al., 2024), which may result in pollen transport without consumption. Conversely, consumption, or simply visitation, may occur without resulting in transport (Popic et al.,

2012). Accounting for different interaction outcomes, such as visitation, transport, and consumption, is a critical next step in representing the network of plant diversity used by pollinators.

Incorporating the pollinator-perspective by leveraging complimentary methodologies can produce a comprehensive understanding of the contexts within which plant-pollinator interactions occur. Microscopy and molecular analyses of pollen load samples sourced from insect specimens often identify greater plant species diversity within interaction networks compared to only field observations of floral visitation (Baksay et al., 2022; Bosch et al., 2009). Additionally, studies adopting a pollinator-centric view have revealed greater detail in forage preference trends, such as how pollinators use forage quality or quantity-based strategies (Selva et al., 2024; Timberlake, de Vere, et al., 2024), seasonal changes (Leponiemi et al., 2023), life cycle timing, and metabolic specialization (Vaudo, 2015)

Genetic tools can detect plant-pollinator interactions that may be unobserved in pollen microscopy and traditional field surveys (Arstingstall et al., 2021; Bell et al., 2016; Lowe et al., 2022; Pornon et al., 2017), and target specific interaction types. Metabarcoding of conserved gene regions from pollen samples can complement field observations of visitation (Arstingstall et al., 2021; Bell et al., 2017), increasing species detection by 9 - 144% (Baksay et al., 2022; Milla et al., 2022; Smart et al., 2017) and network sampling completeness up to 30%, while reducing exaggeration of specialization (Arstingstall et al., 2021) and revealing interactions beyond the traditionally surveyed floral community (de Vere et al., 2017; Milla et al., 2022). Advances in the reliability and accessibility of sequencing technologies have made these approaches more feasible for studying plant-pollinator interactions.

Most pollinator interaction network studies that apply metabarcoding focus on the external pollen loads of bees or pollen stored in nest reserves of honey and beebread (Baksay et al., 2022; Devriese et al.,

84 2024; Leontidou et al., 2021; Leponiemi et al., 2023; Selva et al., 2024), despite limitations of these
85 sampling targets. Pollen in these samples can come from the environment, even including accumulation
86 of windborne material (Negri et al., 2015). To account for this, past studies have ignored detections
87 of wind-pollinated taxa (Pornon et al., 2017; Tanaka et al., 2020), although this may introduce bias
88 to results, given that many plant taxa are both wind- and insect-pollinated (Saunders, 2018). A more
89 fundamental issue with externally carried pollen and nest reserves is their restricted ability to represent
90 interaction types. Corbicular pollen provides an easily obtained sample, containing pollen from one or
91 more plant species collected for transport to the nest for brood feeding (Leach & Drummond, 2018;
92 Vaudo, 2015), only directly representing pollen transport interactions (Arstingstall et al., 2021). Given
93 the role of this pollen in bees' life cycles, it is often suggested as the central sample type reflecting diet,
94 thus used to represent foraging networks (Shi et al., 2025), and considered synonymous with successful
95 pollination interactions. This may overstate the function of corbicular pollen.

96 Pollinator intestinal tracts (hereafter: guts) represent an additional source for observing dietary inter-
97 actions, specifically consumption of pollen and other plant material (Haag et al., 2023; Li et al., 2025;
98 Mayr et al., 2021). Plant DNA detected in gut contents can reveal interactions with consumption as the
99 exclusive outcome, which, in addition to flower visits, can include nectar robbing (Popic et al., 2012)
100 and occasional herbivory (Pashalidou et al., 2020). The gut-content approach can also account for en-
101 vironmental contamination in external pollen and nest stores by highlighting oversights resulting from
102 the exclusion of interactions with the anemophilous and partially-anemophilous plant taxa in external
103 pollen studies. There is an accumulating body of evidence supporting the idea that pollinators regularly
104 search across functional groups of the plant community to meet their nutritional needs (de Vere et al.,

105 2017; Ibiyemi et al., 2025; Milla et al., 2022; Pojar, 1973; Selva et al., 2024; Tanaka et al., 2020; Ter-
106 rell & Batra, 1984; Timberlake, de Vere, et al., 2024; Wood et al., 2022), although little attention has
107 been given to these observations as a potentially important part of plant-pollinator networks (Saunders,
108 2018). This understudied component of pollinator foraging together with the surprising lack of genetic
109 analyses of pollinator gut contents, represents a clear knowledge gap and an opportunity to uncover
110 finer detail in plant-pollinator interaction networks.

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

126 types and implications for pollinator health.

127 **2. Methods**

128 Our sample collection was conducted in Gorbeia Natural Park (coord: 43.068, -2.796) , a protected
129 area in northern Spain, under permission from local authorities (Bizkaiko foru aldundia, Reference:
130 2023AM36). Within Gorbeia, we selected 16 sampling sites located within the mixed zones of mead-
131 ows and shrublands found at higher elevations. We conducted fieldwork from early April to the end of
132 July, 2023 covering the main flowering period and peak annual pollinator activity in Gorbeia. On each
133 sampling day during this timeframe, we visited field sites in pairs. Sampling days were organized into
134 six periods, in which we sampled each site pair once per period. We conducted three types of surveys
135 during daily peaks of pollinator activity, including floral diversity surveys (“flower counts”), interaction
136 transect surveys, and *Bombus pascuorum* specimen collection for amplicon sequencing analyses.

137 *Interaction transects and floral resource availability surveys*

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

145 *Bombus pascuorum* specimens

146 For every period visit at each site, we collected up to five *B. pascuorum* specimens for molecular
147 analyses (N = 126). We brought specimens back from the field and froze them at -20°C until processed.
148 In the lab, we extracted the entire gut and honey stomach of *B. pascuorum* individuals. Additionally,
149 if present, we collected pollen from the corbicula of specimens into sterile 1.5 mL centrifuge tubes.
150 Pollen samples were stored individually by specimen sample at -20°C.

151 *Gut-content DNA extraction*

152 Genomic DNA was extracted from *B. pascuorum* guts using the NucleoSpin® 96 Soil kit (Macherey-
153 Nagel, Düren, Germany) and amplified in duplicate using the DFD forward and ASDFAS reverse
154 primers. To avoid site and period bias, all samples were randomized before the DNA extraction. We
155 followed the kit manufacturer protocol, only adjusting centrifuge spin duration to account for differing
156 maximum velocity available within our centrifuge (See Supporting Information). Nanodrop spec-
157 trophotometry was used to quantify DNA concentration and purity of the extracts by measuring re-
158 flectance at 260/230 nm wavelengths.

159 *DNA extraction from corbicular pollen pellets*

160 DNA was extracted from pollen pellets (N = 25) using the Machery-Nagel NucleoSpin® 8 Food kit,
161 including additional initial steps recommended by the kit's supplementary protocol for pollen DNA ex-
162 traction (See Supporting Information). The Qubit high sensitivity dsDNA kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific)
163 was used to quantify DNA extract concentrations for randomly selected samples.

164 *Amplicon sequencing*

165 We used a dual-indexed amplicon multiplexing approach to generate our metabarcoding library, as

described previously by Donald et al. (2022). Briefly, we performed a first step amplification using the Nex-F & Nex-R tagged internal transcribed spacer 2 primer pair, ITS-S2F (Chen et al., 2010) and ITS4R (White et al., 1990), with the following modifications: (1) 3-6 N-mers to increase sequence base diversity and (2) linker sequences that complement index linker. Amplified products were checked on a 1% agarose gel for successful amplification. The resulting amplicons were used as template in the second-step PCR where unique 8-mer indices and illumina p5/p7 sequencing primers were attached. Amplicons were checked for successful amplification as above, purified, normalised and size selected using SPRI-beads, and pooled equi-volume to generate the amplicon library. The resulting library was quantified using Qubit HS kit and functional library was estimated using Colibri qPCR assay. Final library was sequenced on the illumina MiSeq 3000 instrument for 300 cycles in paired-end mode at the Ecological Genetics laboratory, Bioeconomy Science Institute, Auckland, New Zealand (Detailed methods provided in Supporting Information).

Bioinformatics: taxonomic assignment and contaminant analysis

Raw base call files (BCL) were converted to fastq using bcl2fastq2 (v2.20) tool. Demultiplexing was performed on the raw fastq files using index combinations and primer pair sequence simultaneously to minimize non-target data, resulting in paired raw reads per sample. Raw reads were processed using the DADA2 bioinformatics pipeline (Callahan et al., 2016). Reference ASVs were used to call taxonomic identities using the assign taxonomy method in dada2 in conjunction with the published ITS2 reference database of Bell (2021). We selected the database due to high species coverage for our study area. All but 21 species were identified to species level, with the remaining 21 identified to genus level. Taxonomy data were combined with sample x ASV matrix and sample metadata in phyloseq R package

187 (add citation) and downstream quality control and statistical analyses were performed in the R analysis
188 environment. For contaminant and misidentified ASV removal, we used a three-step screening process.
189 First, ASVs were analyzed for contaminants using the R package, decontam (Davis et al., 2018). Sec-
190 ond, we conducted a BLAST search using ITS2 Database (Ankenbrand et al., 2015) to verify taxa that
191 were identified by singleton ASVs within our results. Finally, the remaining list of taxa was screened
192 against a locally specific herbarium (Agut & Hermosilla, 2025).

193 *Statistical analysis*

194 We compared the results of each methodology across methodology, time, and individual specimens.
195 As an initial broad test of whether the methodologies detected interactions with different plant com-
196 munities, we used binary presence-absence matrices to compare the communities detected by each
197 methodology on each sampling day. Data were aggregated by sampling day for all sets of observations.
198 Community composition was contrasted using the Raup-Crick dissimilarity index in a PERMANOVA
199 test within the R package, vegan (Oksanen et al., 2024) with methodology as the independent vari-
200 able. Further pairwise comparisons of these data were made by subsetting the dissimilarity matrix used
201 in the first test by each unique methodology pair and using multiple pairwise PERMANOVAs. We
202 also used vegan to observe beta dispersal of our data as a further means of testing the assumptions of
203 PERMANOVA analysis.

204 From the 126 *B. pascuorum* specimens, we obtained both gut-content and pollen sequence data for 23
205 individuals. Using this subset of paired samples, we compared the plant communities detected by the
206 two metabarcoding methodologies at the individual sample level without aggregation. As before, Raup-
207 Crick dissimilarity matrices were calculated using binary detection data from pollen and gut detections.

PERMANOVA compared both methodologies' detected communities in strata defined by specimens of sample origin.

B. pascuorum-plant interaction network metrics

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

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

3. Results

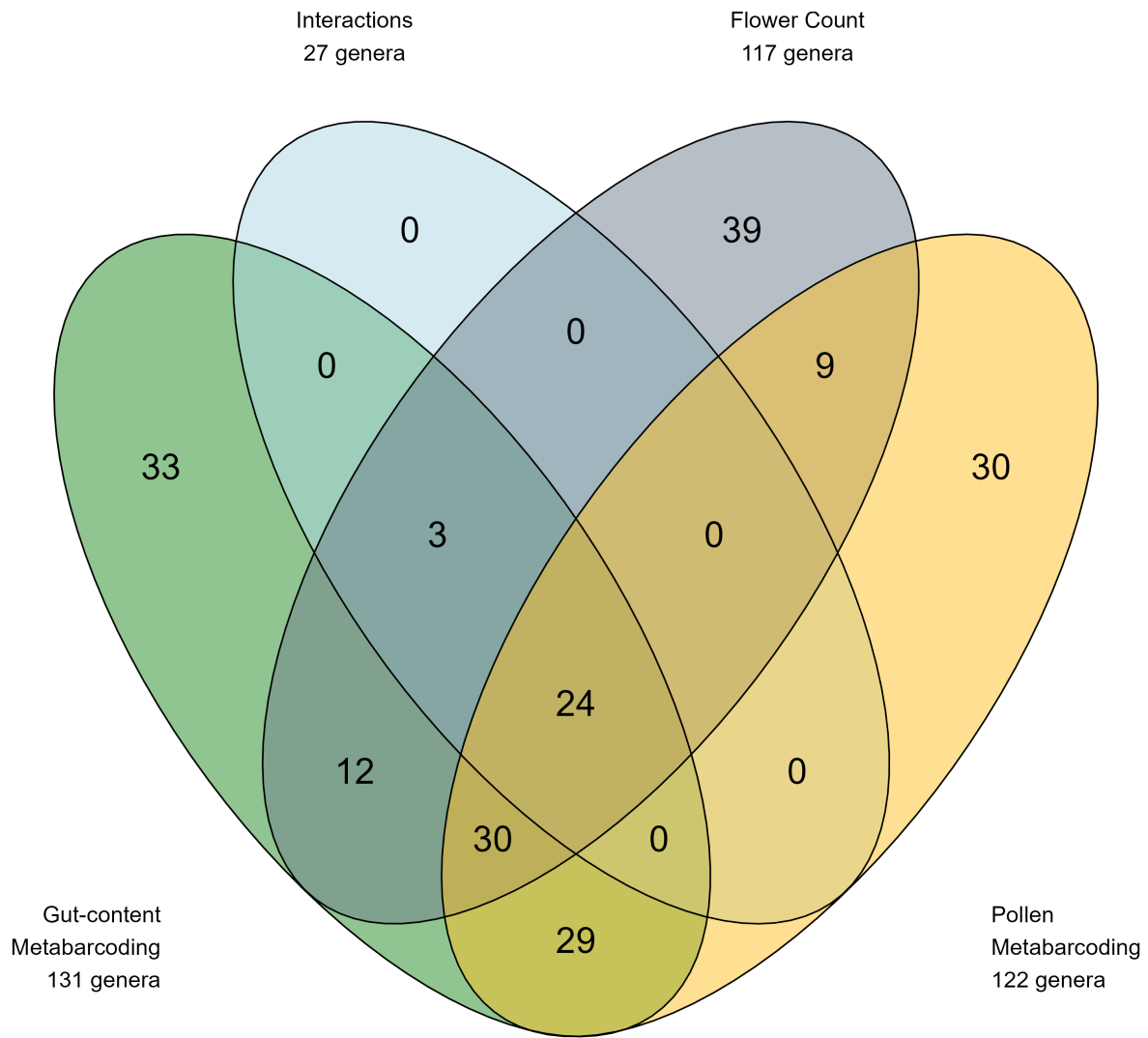
Assessment of floral resource use relative to availability

Within our flower count surveys we registered a total of 117 flowering herbaceous plant genera across the sampling season, representing the pool of floral resources available to *B. pascuorum*, which interacted with only a subset of this diversity (Fig. 1). In fact, 39 genera recorded in flower counts

228 were absent from the interaction networks generated by any of the methodologies. Interaction transects
229 revealed interactions with 27 genera (23% of total floral diversity), while gut-content and corbicular
230 pollen metabarcoding revealed interactions with 58% and 53% of available taxa, respectively.

231 *Comparison of interaction detection by methodology*

232 Between all pollen metabarcoding samples, we obtained 5,160 ASVs within 2,506,925 reads, while
233 in 122 of the gut-content metabarcoding samples, we identified 2,302 ASVs from 2,973,224 reads
234 (See Supporting Information). Before quality screening of results, 251 taxa were identified by both
235 metabarcoding methodologies in total. After screening, 170 total taxa remained identified within our
236 data. Both metabarcoding methodologies detected multiple unique taxa (33 taxa for gut contents and
237 30 for corbicular pollen), while interaction transects did not detect any unique interactions (Fig. 1).
238 The two metabarcoding methodologies shared 83 common plant genera, representing 68% of the total
239 corbicular pollen diversity and 63% of the gut content diversity.



240

241 **Figure 1:** Total diversity and overlap of plant genera observed by four observation methodologies:
 242 transect surveys of floral diversity ("flower counts") and *Bombus pascuorum* - flower interactions,
 243 and metabarcoding of plant DNA in corbicular pollen and gut contents of *B. pascuorum*.

244 Taxonomic diversity varied across sampling periods, revealing distinct temporal patterns in flower-
 245 ing taxa and interactions (Fig. 2). Although floral and interaction diversity increased overall from

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

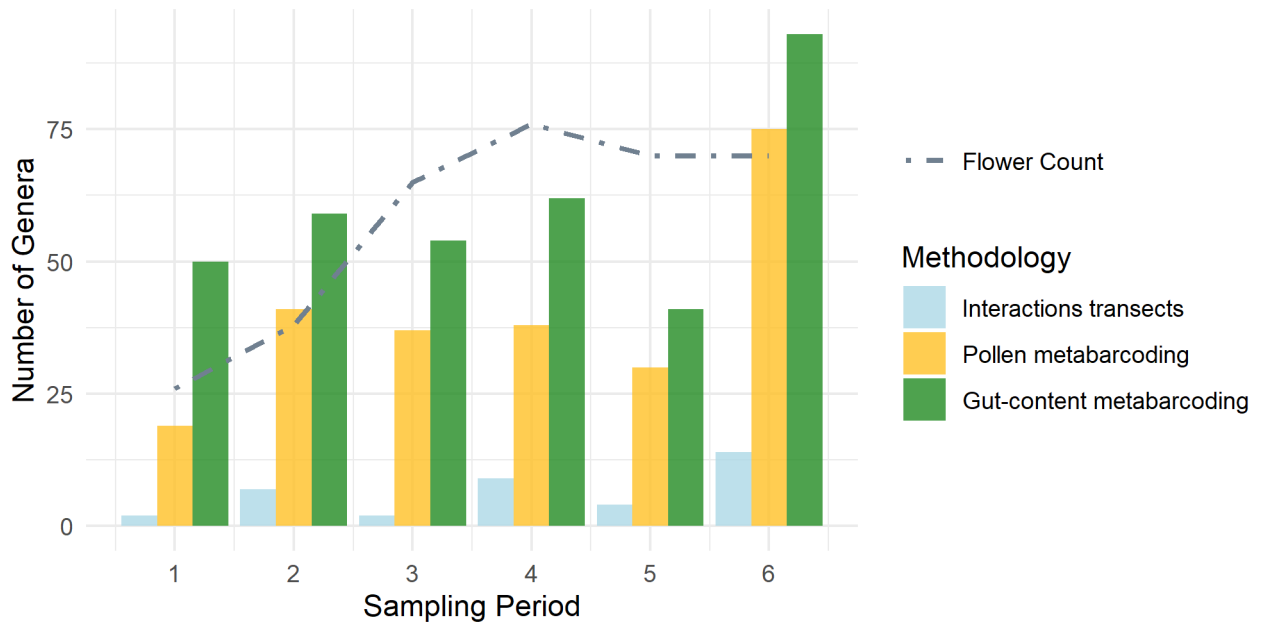


Figure 2: Taxonomic diversity in *Bombus pascuorum* interaction networks over six sampling periods (April - August, 2023) observed through floral visitation surveys and ITS2 metabarcoding of DNA extracted from bumblebee gut contents and corbicular pollen loads. The results of each methodology correspond to samples or surveys taken across the same 48 sampling days. The number of plant genera indicated is a cumulative raw value for each methodology and period, with no standardization for sampling effort. Interaction diversity for transects is represented by the total number of plant taxa observed over each transect and sampling day, for each period. For metabarcoding methodologies,

259 *interaction diversity is the total number of plant genera observed across all samples collected during*
260 *the given period.*

261 *Functional diversity observations*

262 The design of interaction transects only included taxa from the entomophilous community, while both
263 metabarcoding methodologies detected taxa from the anemophilous community as well, representing
264 28% (N = 41) of the total identified plant genera between the two methodologies. Among these were 20
265 genera from *Poaceae*, nine tree or woody plant genera, and 12 other herbaceous genera (See Supporting
266 Information Fig. S3). During periods one, two, and six—when gut-content metabarcoding detected
267 more taxa than the entomophilous community recorded in transects—an average of 13% of those taxa
268 were anemophilous or partially anemophilous (See Supporting Information, Fig. S4).

269 *Plant community composition across methodologies*

270 A PERMANOVA test comparing taxonomic composition of interaction plant communities between
271 methodologies indicated a significant effect of methodology on the observed community ($P < 0.001$, R
272 $= 0.28$). In this analysis, interaction transects showed high beta-dispersal (distance to centroid = 0.62)
273 compared to the more centered metabarcoding and flower count results (distance to centroid ≤ 0.10),
274 and an ANOVA test of mean dispersal by methodology indicated different levels of dispersal ($P < 0.001$)
275 for each methodology. The communities detected by each of the methodologies were also visualized
276 using non-metric Multidimensional Scaling (nMDS, stress = 0.17, Fig. 3). Pairwise comparisons (Table
277 1) showed that the plant communities detected by flower counts were different from those of all other
278 methodologies ($P < 0.001$, Holm-Bonferroni), although between pairs of interaction methodologies, no
279 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	0.0369	0.111
gut metabarcoding	interaction	1	1	0.010	0.80	0.55	1
pollen metabarcoding	interaction	1	1	-0.024	-1.13	0.997	1

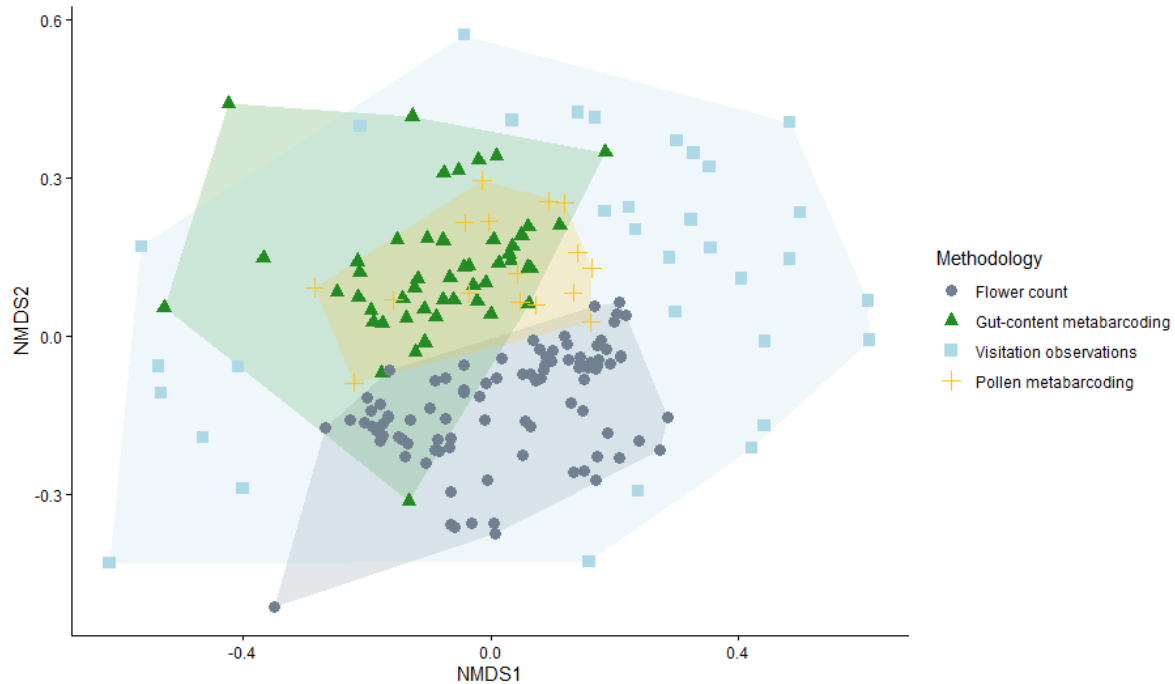


Figure 3: Non-metric multi-dimensional scaling plot of plant communities detected by three methodologies for observing *Bombus pascuorum* floral interactions and a flower diversity survey. Observations from each methodology are aggregated by sampling day, reduced to binary presence/absence data, and compared in ordination using the Raup-Crick dissimilarity index (ordination stress = 0.17).

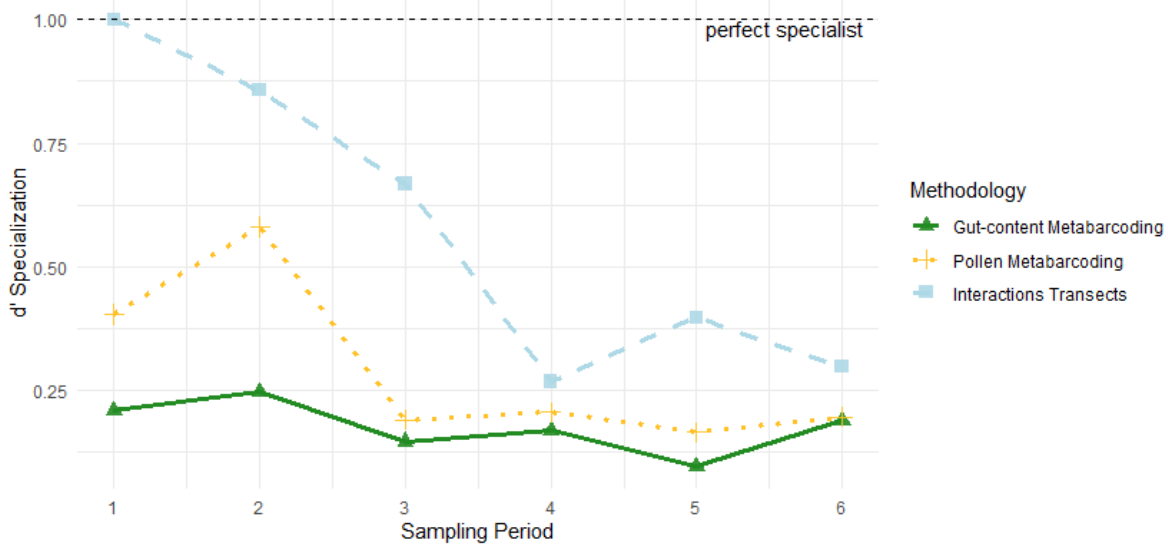
Gut-content vs. pollen-derived plant communities from paired samples

Comparing metabarcoding results from the same specimens, gut contents yielded fewer taxa (mean = 13 genera, sd = 9) than pollen samples (mean = 19 genera, sd = 7). On average, only 21% of taxa (mean = 7 genera, sd = 3) were shared between the two sample types. A PERMANOVA with specimen as a blocking factor indicated a difference in the plant community observed by both sample types (See Supporting Information Table S2) explaining 18% of the variation between gut- and pollen-based detections. Data used in this comparison were similarly dispersed (distance to centroid = 0.08), with no

298 difference between the two groups observed by a permutest.

299 *Species level interaction network*

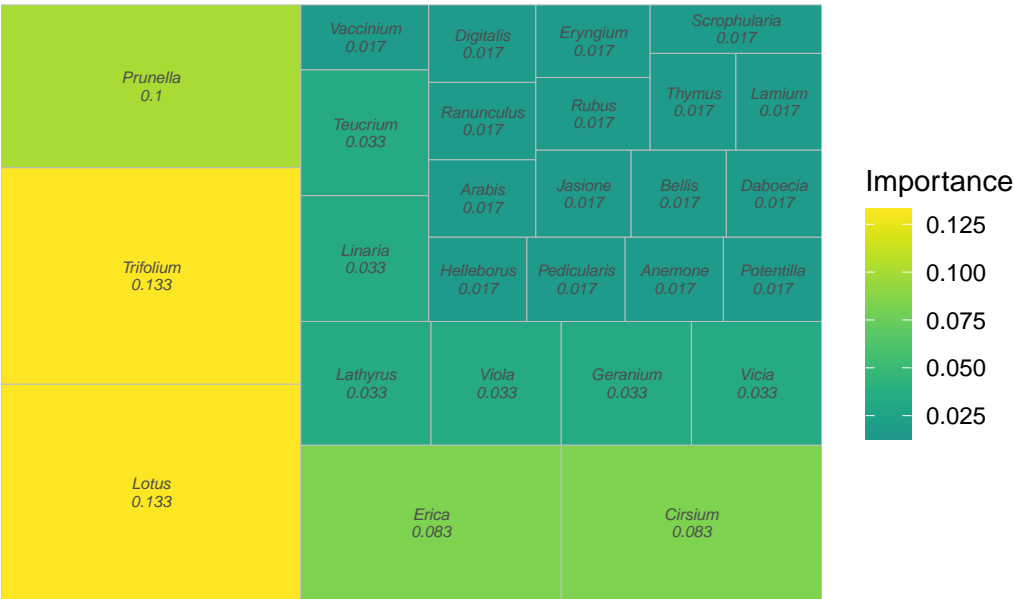
300 We calculated interaction specialization of *B. pascuorum* and an importance metric for the plant taxa
 301 within interaction networks. Specialization [d' ; Blüthgen et al. (2006)] declined over the season for
 302 transect and pollen-metabarcoding data but remained relatively stable for gut-content metabarcoding
 303 (Fig. 4), with transects indicating complete specialization in the first period. Across all methods, *Lo-*
 304 *tus* emerged as the most important plant genus, though the structure of importance differed: the two
 305 metabarcoding networks showed more evenly distributed importance values (Fig. 5b-c), whereas the
 306 transect network was dominated by a few top taxa (Fig. 5a).



308 **Figure 4:** Specialization of plant interactions for *Bombus pascuorum* as indicated by networks con-
 309 structed from three interaction observation methodologies. Specialization was calculated as d' using
 310 the methodology of Blüthgen et al. (2006), with $d' = 1$ representing perfect specialist behavior. Spe-
 311 cialization of *B. pascuorum* for each period was calculated relative to interaction data from the same

312 species in other periods, rather than other pollinator species.

A. Interaction transect-based network



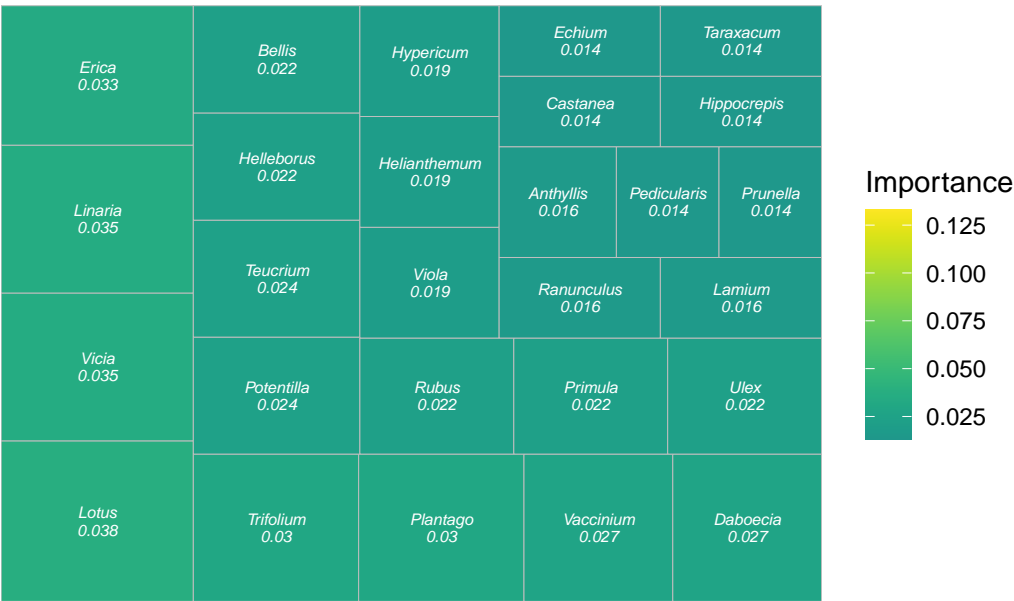
313

B. Gut-content metabarcoding



314

C. Corbicular pollen metabarcoding



315

316 **Figure 5.** Plant “importance” within *Bombus pascuorum* interaction networks constructed from three
 317 interaction observation methodologies: (A) interaction transects, (B) gut-content metabarcoding, and
 318 (C) corbicular pollen metabarcoding. Importance was calculated as the proportion of total plant inter-
 319 actions observed by the given methodology represented by interactions with the specific plant genus.
 320 Importance is visualized with block size proportional to importance, and color scaled to minimum and
 321 maximum values observed by each methodology.

322 Combined interaction network

323 We combined the results from each interaction methodology to create an interaction network for *B.*
 324 *pascuorum* with links defined by interaction outcomes, including consumption, transport, and visitation
 325 (Fig. 6). This single species network included 170 nodes, increasing the number of taxa included in
 326 the network compared to individual methodology constructed networks. Additionally, each plant taxa

received up to three links, including link metadata for interaction outcomes in the network. In total, the network contained 281 descriptive links.

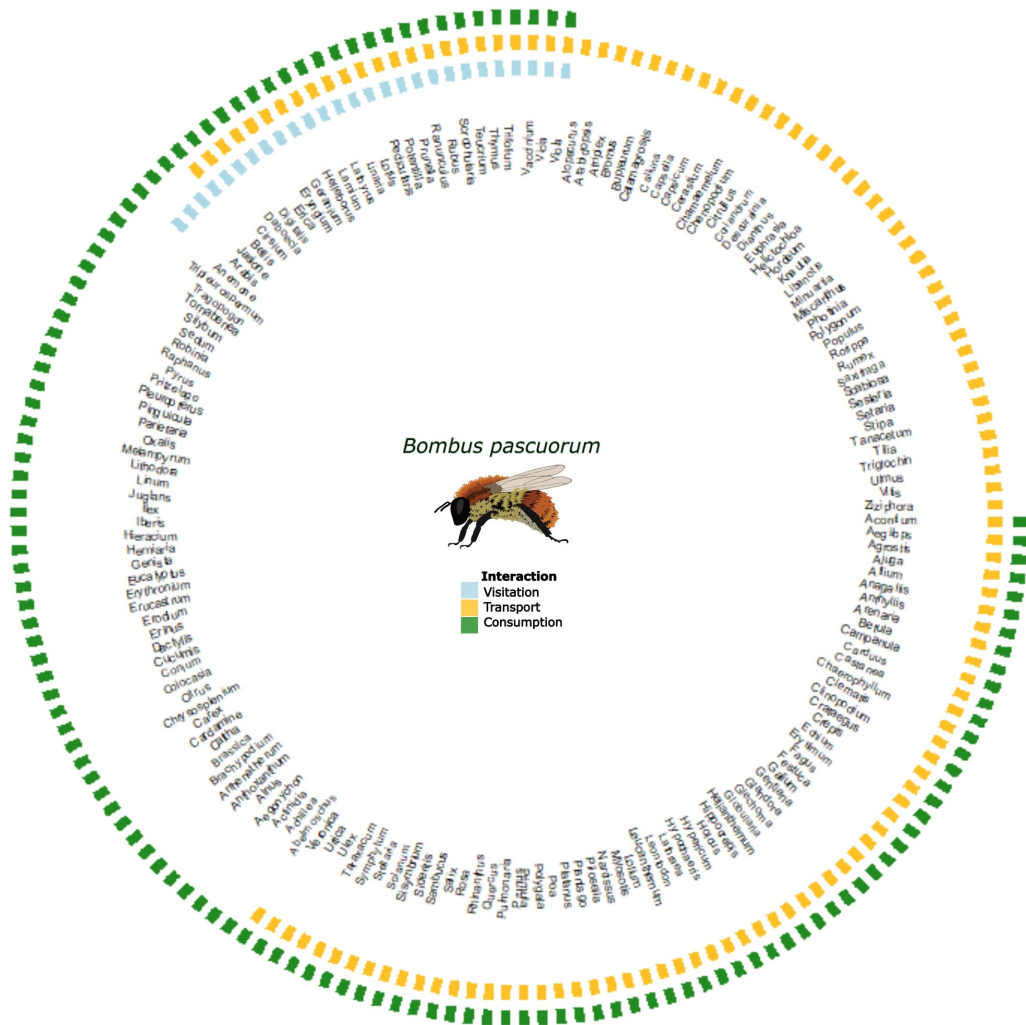


Figure 6. Combined interaction network for *Bombus pascuorum* including all interaction plant taxa detected by three methodologies. Interaction transect observations are represented by visitation, cor- bicular pollen metabarcoding observation by transport, and gut-content metabarcoding observations

333 *by consumption. The network includes 170 plant genera, each with up to three links describing the*
334 *outcomes of interactions with the single pollinator species. Interactions providing links represent the*
335 *presence or absence of any interaction observation within the dataset of a given methodology.*

336 **4. Discussion**

337 Plant-pollinator interaction networks are complex. We show that using functionally informa-
338 tive network links and combining methodologies yields a comprehensive and strongly validated
339 plant-pollinator interaction network. Notably, the two metabarcoding approaches revealed shared in-
340 teractions with anemophilous and partially anemophilous plants for pollen consumption and transport,
341 highlighting the complementarity of their data. Although each interaction methodology overlapped
342 statistically at the aggregated level, the combined network resulting from each methodology increased
343 the total nodes, and each methodology provided context to network links. Metabarcoding alone
344 also proved effective at capturing a broad range of links and providing detailed, specimen-level
345 data. Important information from the function of links is missing under the current approach to
346 characterizing interaction networks, but using multiple methodologies helps to fill these gaps.

347 We compared each methodology in terms of the diversity of detected interactions, assignment of relative
348 importance of plant taxa and specialization of *B. pascuorum* within the resulting network, and observed
349 plant community composition. Consistent with previous comparisons between field and metabarcod-
350 ing observation of plant-pollinator interactions, metabarcoding increased observed interaction diversity
351 (Baksay et al., 2022; Milla et al., 2022; Smart et al., 2017), in our case by more than six-fold compared
352 to interaction transect results. Considering this, and the time dedicated to data collection for both types
353 of methodologies, metabarcoding was a more efficient approach. Interaction transects did provide the

354 advantage of greater taxonomic resolution, as we were able to detect interactions at the species-species
355 level, whereas metabarcoding provided species-genus level interactions. Beyond taxonomic detection
356 capabilities, the results from each methodology allowed for network-level cross-validation.

357 Network topology and specialization patterns differed markedly across methodologies. Interaction tran-
358 sects tended to overstate both the degree of specialization and the dominance of the most frequently
359 visited plant taxa. Although *B. pascuorum* is known to form strong early-season associations with cer-
360 tain plant species (Artamendi et al., unpublished dataset), the metabarcoding approaches indicated much
361 lower specialization and produced more evenly distributed network structures. These results mirrored
362 previous interaction networks constructed for individual pollinator species, which also have shown a
363 tendency towards representing pollinators as specialists when using field observation data versus the
364 generalist behavior indicated by metabarcoding data (Arstingstall et al., 2021). Overall, the combined
365 datasets across methodologies suggested a more diverse foraging niche than visitation data alone would
366 have implied.

367 The three methodologies showed complementary patterns in network composition. Flower counts and
368 interaction transects overlapped as expected from the study design, yet differed statistically, likely due
369 to the much larger number of taxa detected by the former. No statistical differences were found among
370 the three interaction-focused methods, although their dispersion differed, reflecting variation in spa-
371 tial and taxonomic coverage. Interaction transects are shaped by local habitat and plant-community
372 differences, whereas metabarcoding integrates interactions across the broader landscape, producing
373 more consistent results. Metabarcoding approaches overlapped minimally with the floral community
374 detected by flower counts, indicating that interaction networks include taxa not captured within tran-

sects. This is unsurprising given that flower counts reflect potential, not actual, interactions and are constrained by spatial and temporal limits that do not restrict metabarcoding.

Between the two metabarcoding approaches, gut-content metabarcoding captured greater overall taxonomic diversity and was more efficient, given that every specimen provided a gut sample, but not necessarily a pollen sample. Pollen samples detected more taxa per individual, however, and hypothetically offered an advantage as a non-lethal sampling option. The combination of both methodologies' results broadened the interaction network greatly, and incorporated contextualized interaction links. These links showed which plant genera were consumed for adult bee nutrition, and which provided pollen for transport to the nest. In our case, gut-content metabarcoding was particularly informative for revealing seasonal foraging patterns, detecting more consumed taxa than were flowering in the early and late parts of the season, and showing relatively stable specialization over time. Together, these results indicated that the plant community represented in consumption-based interactions differs from the floral community captured by field- and pollen-based surveys.

Metabarcoding observes forage across functional groups

The diversity of plant groups observed within our metabarcoding data, especially the temporal changes in diversity observed by gut-content metabarcoding, indicated that *B. pascuorum* forages on different plant taxa than previously expected. Through metabarcoding, we observed interactions with a variety of taxa outside of the entomophilous meadow and shrubland plant community, including trees and shrubs, grasses, and other herbaceous plants. Our observations of anemophilous plant interactions are supported by previously documented records for *Bombus* species (de Vere et al., 2017; Ibiyemi et al., 2025; Milla et al., 2022; Pojar, 1973; Selva et al., 2024; Tanaka et al., 2020; Terrell & Batra, 1984;

396 Timberlake, de Vere, et al., 2024; Wood et al., 2022), and have especially intriguing implications for
397 bumblebee forage behavior. Previous studies using external pollen metabarcoding have removed wind-
398 pollinated taxa from their analyses under the argument that wind-borne pollen in samples may represent
399 false positive interactions (Negri et al., 2015; Pornon et al., 2017; Tanaka et al., 2020). Our gut-content
400 results, however, caution against the practice of removing these taxa as contaminants, especially if using
401 external pollen loads as standalone proxies for forage networks.

402 The presence of DNA from anemophilous taxa within gut samples suggests that interactions with these
403 taxa may be more than coincidental interactions with pollen in the environment. Indeed, beyond con-
404 sumption for adult nutrition, there are previous indications that pollen from flowering trees supports
405 colony establishment success and low larval mortality (Wood et al., 2022). Our results support the hy-
406 pothesis that most bumblebees forage selectively for consumption and transport of high quality pollen
407 (Ruedenauer et al., 2016; Timberlake, de Vere, et al., 2024), adapting their forage to take advantage of
408 the best available resources as they change with environmental variability (Selva et al., 2024). While
409 it is possible that some plant material may be transported or consumed incidentally (Arstingstall et al.,
410 2021), the taxa detected within *B. pascuorum* gut contents and corbicular pollen form part of the web
411 of biodiversity that supports the species and possibly other pollinators. Our detection of anemophilous
412 plant DNA in both metabarcoding methodologies indicates that *B. pascuorum*, and perhaps other bum-
413 blebee species, may intentionally forage on these taxa to meet nutritional needs at various life stages.

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

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

427 *Metabarcoding offers individual level analysis*

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

438 Despite the greater depth and resolution that metabarcoding provides to network characterization, it
439 must be acknowledged that the methodology is imperfect. Primer and marker biases result in pref-
440 erential amplification of certain sequences, making some taxa more or less likely to appear in final
441 results. We also chose to use the ITS2 region as a target for amplicon sequencing, while other viable
442 marker genes provided competitive options for targeting plant taxa (Espinosa Prieto et al., 2024), and
443 could have yielded different results. Finally our reference database was inevitably likely to have been
444 incomplete or unbalanced in terms of available sequences for matching our data to ASVs and taxa. In
445 response to these limitations, we further suggest that combination with other interaction methodologies
446 is likely to be the most effective way to overcome inherent methodological oversights.

447 *Conclusions*

448 The similarities between interaction data suggest robustness between each methodology, and the in-
449 herent implications of the sample sources of each provide varied means of interpreting different inter-
450 actions. Interaction transects provide a valuable field-based perspective, although given their lower
451 sampling efficiency, incorporating them as a validation of other surveys may be the best way to in-
452 tegrate this methodology into future studies. Field observations can fill gaps left by metabarcoding
453 methodologies, such as confirmation of pollination efficacy, interaction frequency, and species-level
454 resolution. As a direct observation of the pollen transported to the nest, corbicular pollen may also
455 be a good starting point for identifying plants that may provide pollen with optimal macronutrients
456 for larval development. Similarly, gut-content metabarcoding provides an important perspective on
457 the nutritional needs of actively foraging pollinators, identifying taxa that provide pollen as food for
458 supporting this activity (Li et al., 2025). Knowing which taxa are actually ingested by pollinators is

especially useful for identifying taxa that facilitate microbiota exchange and acquisition during plant interactions (Cullen et al., 2021; Keller et al., 2021), including parasite and disease transfer (Lignon et al., 2024). Although they are not equal, our research highlights overall that each methodology offers advantages and disadvantages in terms of sensitivity, sampling effort, and perspective.

While most of the methodologies we applied, aside from gut-content metabarcoding, have previously been used independently to characterize plant–pollinator networks (e.g., Devriese et al., 2024; Magrach et al., 2023), our findings highlight the synergistic value of integrating them. Gut-content metabarcoding emerges as a promising approach, but its greatest potential is realized when combined with established approaches. A key next step is improving our ability to quantify interaction frequencies at the individual level using metabarcoding, whether from gut contents or pollen. Overall, methodological advances are likely to come from linking complementary data sources to fill the informational gaps left by any single approach.

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