Desert shrub facilitation shapes pollination network topology

Running title: < 45 characters

Letter

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All data will be archived upon acceptance at Dryad. All data and R code are available on Github in reproducible documents https://jennabraun.github.io/foundation-pollination/

The title page must also contain:

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Abstract (150 words)

Interactions for pollination are dependent on ecological context. Network analysis lets us explore all interactions simultaneously. We built individual pollinator visitation networks of foundation shrubs and cactus in a desert ecosystem. We found positive effects of shrub density on the pollination of neighbouring foundation plants. Shrub density influenced centrality and generality of focal plants. Denser patches had higher access to the conspecific population.

**Introduction**

Interactions between species structure plant communities and contribute to biodiversity maintenance globally. Interacting populations are aggregations of interacting individuals, thus the outcome of interactions between species (i.e. plant fitness) can be influenced by both intraspecific and interspecific variation in attractiveness to pollinators. A plant’s attractiveness to pollinators is influenced by phenotypic variation in traits that improve pollinator foraging efficiency including floral display size ([Thomson 1981](#_ENREF_30); [Ohashi & Yahara 1998](#_ENREF_22)) and plant height ([Donnelly *et al.* 1998](#_ENREF_8); [Toräng *et al.* 2006](#_ENREF_31)). Plant attractiveness to pollinators is also a consequence of the floral composition of surrounding area due to density-dependent interactions between the local co-blooming floral neighbourhood and the focal plant ([Rathcke 1983](#_ENREF_25); [Seifan *et al.* 2014](#_ENREF_29)). Within season phenological variation in the density and composition of co-flowerings plants can lead to temporal shifts in interactions among plants ([Aizen & Rovere 2010](#_ENREF_1); [Runquist 2013](#_ENREF_27)). Plant-pollinator mutualisms physically take place within natural communities and are embedded within complex webs of interactions ([Montoya *et al.* 2006](#_ENREF_20)). Therefore, plant-pollinator interactions are not only the outcome of co-evolution between the direct participants; they also reflect interactions within the surrounding community. Few papers still examine how plants interact for pollinators at a whole community level (but see Moeller, Hegland, a couple newers ones). Understanding the ecological and individual contexts that mediate the outcome of pollinator-mediated interactions is necessary research….

Network analysis has emerged as a valuable tool for studying plant-pollinator interactions ([Bascompte & Jordano 2013](#_ENREF_3)). Most pollinator visitation networks are species based; each node represents a population of plants or pollinators and links are the sum of interactions between them. The recognition that patterns between interacting individuals drive the patterns between interacting species has driven recent interest in downscaling from populations to individuals (Olesan 2010, ([Dupont *et al.* 2011](#_ENREF_12); [Gómez & Perfectti 2011](#_ENREF_16); [Dupont *et al.* 2014](#_ENREF_13); [Tur *et al.* 2014](#_ENREF_32); [Valverde *et al.* 2016](#_ENREF_33); [Rumeu *et al.* 2018](#_ENREF_26)). These have been used to explore specialization of pollen use ([Tur *et al.* 2014](#_ENREF_32)) and interaction rewiring with phenology ([Valverde *et al.* 2016](#_ENREF_33)). Species and individual approaches are complementary, for example they have been used to study changes in specialization across a gradient of elevation in hummingbird-plant networks ([Maglianesi *et al.* 2015](#_ENREF_19)). An advantage of individual-based networks is the ability to explore the contribution of individual variation to the structure and pattern of relations at the whole network level. Differences in the number of links per plant can lead to a core-periphery structure due to differences in pollinator sharing ([Valverde *et al.* 2016](#_ENREF_33)). Differences in pollinator sharing can also lead to network compartmentalization. Modules are network structures consisting of nodes that interact more strongly with each other than the rest of the network. These modules are hypothesized to stability etc. Previous individual based approaches have found modules are spatially structured (Dupont), within module degree is influence by both individual floral display size and local conspecific density ([Dupont *et al.* 2011](#_ENREF_12)). They can arise even in very short flowering seasons (Morente-Lopez et al, 2018).

Centrality measures describe the topological position of a node and describe how a node is connected to the rest of the community through pollinator sharing. Degree centrality is the number of links per node i.e. other interacting individuals. In plant-plant interaction networks, links between individuals act as mating probabilities within populations (Gomez and Perfectti, revise). Therefore, integrating centrality measures can provide insight into things governing plant fitness. Centrality improve plant fitness (Gomez Perfectii). However, in a multi-species individual interaction network, individuals are connected with both conspecifics and heterospecifics. Thus increasing centrality will not improve access to conspecifics if individuals are primarily connected with individuals of other species. The increased linkage to heterospecifics may be facilitative or competitive. In some communities, facilitative interactions for pollination are dominant (Hegland, Tur) and they can be quite diffuse. Alternatively, association with other species can lead to a dilution in pollinators leading to decreased visitation. So there may be 2 different consequences of pollinator sharing here: Changes in visitation rates and changes in access to the mating pool. There is evidence that plant-plant facilitation shapes pollination networks (Losapio et al 2018). Thus, neighbours can shift and be an indirect part of interaction networks even if those neighbours are not observed.

In this study, we addressed the influence of pollinator sharing on the topological shape of the pollinator-visitation network of a spring blooming desert shrub and cactus community. We explored the interplay between individual floral display size, the local floral neighbourhood, and within-season phenology on pollinator visitation, centrality measures and network modularity. In desert ecosystems, peak flowering periods are restricted to a relatively short period in the spring time which is strongly constrained by climatic conditions ([Jennings 2001](#_ENREF_18)). Spring blooming shrubs and cacti represent individual concentrations of floral resources and are thus a model system for studying how multi-level variation in floral density influences community interactions. We hypothesized that focal plants growing in denser areas would be more attractive to pollinators because of optimal foraging. We used an individual based pollinator-visitation network to explore how variation in the individual context in terms of floral display size and neighbourhood density contribute to individual plants roles and positions within the network and to overall network structure. We assessed if centrality improves access to other conspecifics. Finally, we compared the species level and individual level networks in terms of nestedness, modularity and specialization to contribute to a better understanding of how individual interactions scale up into species level patterns. In sensitive ecosystems such as deserts phenological shifts in interactions are happening already and we need a better understanding of the higher-level patterns of interactions that function at the community level to determine biodiversity to better understand the impact of these changes.

Methods

Field data collection

Plant-pollinator interactions were studied at Sunset Cove at the Sweeney Granite Mountains Desert Research Station within the Mojave National Preserve in California (1280 MASL, 34°46'26.5"N 115°39'31.3"W). Data collection was carried out between April 20th and May 9th, 2018 which included the flowering period of most spring blooming shrubs and cacti at the site. The experiment ended when it was not possible to located blooming shrubs that had not yet been observed. Focal plants were chosen by walking in a line starting in a different quadrant of the study site each day to avoid confounding area by time of day. To avoid oversampling the most abundant species, up to six individuals of a single species were sampled per observer per day. All focal plants were georeferenced using a Garmin 64st handheld GPS.

Flower-visitor interactions for each focal plant were recorded within 10-minute in-situ observation periods between 9:00 AM and 5:30 PM in the absence of strong winds. Observations were focused on seven species of shrub and three species of cactus for a total of 66 hours of observation (Table 1). This approach to creating a pollinator visitation network allows visitation rates to be compared between individual plants, in comparison to the frequently used method of transect walks in which the most abundant interactions are most frequently observed ([Westphal *et al.* 2008](#_ENREF_35)).

Only visitors that made contact with the reproductive organs of the flowers were recorded. Visitors from taxonomic groups known not be pollinators were excluded (i.e. Coccinellidae ladybird beetles, *Carpophilus* sp. pollen beetles and spiders). Soft-winged flower beetles (Melyridae) in the subfamily Dasytinae were excluded because they were observed but were stationary deep within flowers and without disturbing the flower could not be effectively counted. Very small pollinators, i.e. < 2 mm e.g. micro-beeflys (Mythicomyiidae) were also excluded from analyses because it was not realistic to accurately track visitation to large shrubs such as *L. tridentata*. Most floral visitors were identified to genus or species on the wing to minimize any artefacts of destructive sampling. We collected voucher specimens to verify the identifications which are archived at York University. Some groups e.g. Tachinidae and Sarcophagidae were resolved to family due to the difficulty of identifying them on the wing (Appendix A). Some visitors were morphotyped within these categories. Morphotyping and RTU (recognizable taxonomic unit) are useful methods for characterizing and quantifying pollinator communities ([Oliver & Beattie 1993](#_ENREF_24)). This method provides information about the linkages between different genera and functional groups.

Floral display size and height are known to influence attractiveness of plants to pollinators, and consequently, the number of open flowers and the height of each focal plant directly before the observation period were recorded. As a measure of the immediate floral neighbourhood, we recorded the abundance and identity of all blooming shrubs and cactus within a 3 m radius around the focal plant. We tracked shrub phenology and estimated site-level floral density by counting the number of blooming shrubs of each species in four 10 m by 50 m band transects on 13 days over the study period. This was a proxy for net floral abundance.

To track pollinator population changes throughout the study period, yellow, white, and blue coloured six-inch diameter plastic bowls filled with water with a few drops of dish detergent were placed in arrays of three at six locations in open areas, every other day. The number of pollinators were extracted from these data to estimate the abundances of the observed floral visitors during the experiments (hereafter termed ‘pollinators’).

**Data analysis**

All statistical analyses were performed using R Version 3.4.2 (R Core Team, 2017), and all code is available on GitHub at https://github.com/jennabraun/foundation-pollination. Site level density values for non-density-sampling days (~3) were imputed for each species separately using linear interpolation because there was no expectation for seasonality using imputeTS, ([Moritz & Bartz-Beielstein 2017](#_ENREF_21)). The species-specific values were summed to fill in the missing dates.

Influence of individual traits and floral neighbourhood on pollinator visitation

To test for between-plant variation in pollinator visitation rates, we fit generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) with the number of visits as the response variable and individual floral display size, floral neighbourhood density, site density, and study day as predictor variables. The shrub species was included in the models as a random effect. To account for over dispersion in the model, we used a negative binomial error distribution. Height and floral display size were positively correlated (Pearson’s = 0.537, p < 0.0001, df = 392) and thus only floral display size was included in finals models. We assessed model fit by comparing candidate models to each other and to the intercept only model using AIC and likelihood ratio tests. In cases when AIC < 2 and there were no differences in likelihood ratio test, we chose the simpler of the models. We tested the final chosen predictors for multicolinearity using vif (car) ([Fox *et al.* 2012](#_ENREF_14)).

To test for pollination hotspots that can arise from habitat preferences or spatial heterogeneity locally rather than floral preferences, we used Moran’s I and Geary’s C (k = 4) to test for spatial autocorrelation of visitation rates using spdep ([Bivand *et al.* 2011](#_ENREF_4)).

Network analyses

To facilitate the discovery of general trends, pollinators were classified into 17 distinct functional groups (Table S1). We built a quantitative, bipartite network using visitation frequencies to each individual plant as the measure of interaction strength. As a measure of individual generalization, we calculated the effective number of interaction partners, eH, where H is the Shannon Diversity of functional groups visiting the individual plant ([Dormann 2011](#_ENREF_9)). Nestedness is a quantitative measure describing the hierarchy of the interactions of the network. In nested networks, specialized nodes i.e. those with fewer interactions are linked with generalized nodes i.e. well connected nodes. We also calculated the extent to which each plant’s interaction contributes to network nestedness in comparison to a random null model that controls for degree differences ([Saavedra & Stouffer 2013](#_ENREF_28)). All bipartite network indices were calculated using functions within the bipartite package ([Dormann *et al.* 2008](#_ENREF_10)).

In unipartite networks, each link is a shared pollinator functional group connecting potentially interacting individual plants. From the individual based unipartite network, we calculated several centrality measuresthat are frequently used to describe influence in social network analysis using igraph ([Csardi & Nepusz 2006](#_ENREF_7)). In species networks, these measures describe the importance of species (Gonzalez 2010, Jordano 2006).

Degree centrality is the number of links per individual. In plant-plant networks it describes the number of interactions with conspecifics i.e. the mating pool and the number of heterospecifics i.e. potential competitors/facilitators. Eigancentrality extends the concept of degree centrality but takes into the account of the importance i.e. degree of the interactors. Individuals that interact frequently with other highly connected individuals are more poised to influence the full network. They interact with dense substructures within the network. Betweenness is number of times a node lies on the shortest path between other nodes and describes the importance of a node on connecting the parts of the network ([Freeman 1978](#_ENREF_15); [González *et al.* 2010](#_ENREF_17)). Make definitions more mathy

We fit GLMM (glmmTMB) ([Brooks *et al.* 2017](#_ENREF_6)) using the bipartite and unipartite network indices as response variables and the individual plant traits, local floral neighbourhood and study day as predictors. Plant species was included in all models as a random effect. Models were compared to intercept only models using AIC and likelihood ratio tests with χ2 approximations. Need error link functions in here somewhere.

Betweenness values were continuous and zero-inflated (n = 141, Figure A2), so we first modelled the likelihood of an individual having a betweenness value > 0 using a binomial mixed effect model. We then log-transformed the continuous part to meet the assumptions of normality and modelled it using a Gaussian error distribution (residuals: W = 0.98854, p-value = 0.5491). These indices provide information about how individual context contributes to node positioning, importance and overall network structure.

Access to conspecifics

To relate an individual plant’s access to conspecifics and exposure to heterospecifics to centrality and individual context, we used an unweighted, unipartite network i.e. interaction strength is not considered to count the number of linked conspecifics and heterospecifics for each individual. The number of connected and unconnected conspecific or heterospecific plants were used as binomial response variable in quasibinomial GLMM (MASS) ([Venables & Ripley 2013](#_ENREF_34)) to account for overdispersion and plant species was included as a random effect. Degree, eiganvector and closeness centrality measures were strongly correlated with each other (Table A3). Thus, only degree centrality was included in these models because it is the most commonly reported measure. Betweenness centrality, study day, visitation rates, shrub density and floral display size were also used as predictors. Models were compared to random intercept using AIC and likelihood ratio tests.

Unipartite modularity

Modularity describes how plant communities are structured into clusters or modules of densely interacting individuals by pollinator sharing. Modularity was calculated for the plant-plant interaction network using simulated annealing in rnetcarto, ([Doulcier & Stouffer 2015](#_ENREF_11)). This value was compared to the modularity of 1000 random networks generated holding the totals of rows and columns fixed based on Patefields’ (1981) algorithm ([Oksanen & Blanchet](#_ENREF_23)). Z-scores were calculated to assess significance of results and facilitate comparison between the different networks. Z-scores were calculated using: Z:Score = (Observed value - mean (null)/sd\*null). Positive value denote the observed value is higher than the mean of the null distribution. To explore the role of phenology, individual traits and neighbourhood on modularity, and therefore ecological dynamics, we built multinomial models (nnet)([Venables & Ripley 2013](#_ENREF_34)) using the module as the response, and plant species, individual floral display size, visitation rate, study day and local floral neighbourhood as the predictors.

Down-scaling effects on whole network measures

To complement these individual measures and facilitate comparison of this network to other visitation networks, we calculated several common indices for the individual and species bipartite network. H2` is the degree of complementary specialization of the whole network of interacting species. It measures the deviation of observed interactions from those expected given the marginal totals of the species. This quantitative measure ranges from 0 and 1; the higher the selectivity of the species, the higher H2` is for the network. H2` does not vary significantly with network size ([Blüthgen *et al.* 2006](#_ENREF_5)). Weighted nestedness (WNODF) is a quantitative measure which ranges between 0 and 100, and describes the hierarchy of the interactions of the network. In nested networks, specialized nodes i.e. those with fewer interactions are linked with well-connected nodes ([Almeida-Neto & Ulrich 2011](#_ENREF_2)). Weighted connectance is the linkage density divided by the total number of interactors (species or individuals) (Tylianakis et al. 2007). It is a central network property that drives other network properties such as nestedness (Poisot 2014). It measures of the complexity of the network. The modularity of each network was assessed using DirtLPA algorithm implemented in bipartite (Beckett 2016). Modularity can differ for the same network between unipartite and bipartite (citation). Indices were compared to the indices from 1000 random networks generated holding the totals of rows and columns fixed based on Patefields’ (1981) algorithm using Z-scores.

Results

A total of 635 foraging instances were recorded over 394 observation periods, 163 periods had zero visits. A total of 430 visits were to shrubs and 205 were to cactus. The pollinators made up 17 functional groups spanning 62 RTU of visitors (Table 1). With the exception of hummingbirds (*Calypte* sp.), all floral visitors were insects.

There was no spatial autocorrelation detected for visitation rates (Moran’s: -0.055108, p = 0.953, Geary: 1.0442, p = 0.8145). There was no significant correlation between site level floral density and local neighbourhood floral density (Pearson’s = 0.11, p = 0.1187, df = 178).

There was a consistent, positive influence of neighbourhood shrub density on pollinator visitation rates throughout the study period (n = 395, Table 2). There was a significant interaction between floral display size and study day, floral display size became unimportant late in the study period. Site level density decreased over the study period (Pearson’s = -0.4978227, df = 18, p-value = 0.02551). Site level density interacted with floral display size in the same way as study day, but the models had a poorer fit (Table Ax), thus only study day was used for subsequent models.

Floral display size and neighbourhood effects on centrality and network topology

Only visitation rate was a significant predictor of degree centrality (GLMM: Est: 0.20863, χ2: , P < 0.0001) and eigancentrality (Est: 0.055032, χ2: 97.755, p < 0.0001), there was no day effect. Foundation plants differed in their degree and eigancentrality.

The probability of an individual having a betweenness > 0 increased with local shrub density (GLMM, Est: 0.20559, chi, p = 0.018) and visitation rate (Est: 0.83234, chi, p <0.001). Of those individuals with betweenness greater than zero, betweenness increased with visitation rates only (GLMM: Est: 0.18868, χ2: 26.336, p < 0.0001). Betweenness did not differ between species (Kruskal-Wallis: 6.7085, df = 9, p-value = 0.6674).

The number of effective partners increased with pollinator visitation rate (GLMM, Est: 0.08167, chi, p < 0.001) and shrub density (Est: 0.05054, p = 0.0445).

Only visitation rates and species predicted an individual’s contribution to nestedness.

Access to conspecifics

Plants interacted with a higher proportion of conspecifics than heterospecifics (Figure 1). Shrub density improved access to conspecifics but not heterospecifics. Access to both increases with degree centrality, however, in very high degree individuals, those with slighter lower visitation rates had more access to both cons and hets. There was no influence of floral display nor a day effect (Appendix for full models). The interaction is due to the difference between qualititave and quantitative methods. Degree is quantitative, thus it is weighted by the number of visits. However, the proportion is not weighted by visitation, so at high degree those extra pollinator visits are to individuals that a plant is already connected with.

Modularity

The plant-plant interaction network was significantly modular (0.335, Z, p). It was made up of five modules (Figure 2). Visitation rates, study day and species were significant predictors of module, and shrub density was marginally significant (p = 0.051, Table 3).

Effects of downscaling the whole community

Modularity in empirical i–sp networks was considered as significantly higher when it ranged above 95% of modularity values obtained for these null i–sp networks

**Discussion:**

Our study found evidence that individual context in terms of floral display size, the local floral neighbourhood and phenology shapes pollination network topology. In general, floral display size primarily influenced visitation rates which in turn influenced centrality measures. In contrast, flowering shrub density shaped topology beyond increases in visitation including betweenness, access to conspecifics and modularity. Some measures varied throughout the season and some were time invariant. Thus fine scale network topology is contextual within this desert system and depends on both the local floral neighbourhood and time. We found evidence for diffuse, positive pollinator-mediated interactions between co-blooming foundation plants due to density. Density is a frequently studied mechanism of pollination facilitation (Braun, cite, cite) but has not been reported previously for desert ecosystems. It has been reported from intraspecific interactions of mustard. The competitive advantage of a large floral display size was lost in the later time period suggesting that individual traits have a temporal aspect. This may be due to the overall decrease in plant density over the study period, and the results of pollinators becoming less choosy as availability decreases.

Shrub density improved access to conspecifics which may be a novel pathway of pollination facilitation. Foundation plants growing in denser patches were visited by a higher diversity of pollinator functional groups i.e. were more generalized. Plant fitness has been shown to increase with pollinator diversity (Klein et al. 2003, Gómez et al. 2007, Perfectti et al. 2009). Through sampling effort, these plants have a higher likelihood of attracting effective pollinators. Pollination has quantity and quality components. Our results suggest facilitation improves both. Improved pollen diversity can also increase fitness beyond just seed set by improving genetic diversity. In shrubs, which have lots of flowers per plant, this means a capacity to improve fitness by increased paternal diversity and genetic diversity within a single year. This genetics needs to be tested, pollen flows analysis but these methods provide likely pathways of interactions.

Node attributes influence network topology (Bianconi et al, 2009). In this system, we found the influence of individual floral display size mediated through visitation rates influenced almost all aspects of network topology. While it seems obvious that visitation rates should increase centrality measures, they don’t always. In a population individual network, closeness centrality did not depend on visitation rates (Gomez and Perfectii 2011). They found it had a positive effect on degree but negative effect on betweeness. Centrality measures increased access to both conspecifics and heterospecifics.

In addition, there were influences of the nearby floral neighbourhood that acted alongside visitation rates. Interestingly, plants growing denser patches had a betweenness roles which indicates that shrub facilitation contributes to the cohesiveness of the network. There was no difference between species suggests that betweenness may be contextual. Russo et al (2013) also reported low separation between species for betweenness (and closeness) because a subset of species had a high number of connections. Species with high BC may modulate “modulate coextinction and coevolutionary cascades that propagate through the network (Barthélemy 2004, Martín González et al. 2009) by connecting subgroups of interacting species (e.g. modules or compartments, Olesen et al. 2007).” Further research is necessary to distinguish between contextual and individual roles and species roles in structuring ecological interaction networks. It also asks – Do species have these roles because of who they are or is it how they grow?

It is interesting that it was shrub density and not foundation plant density. This suggests that blooming cactus density did not facilitate. However, visually from the species network they interact primarily with each other. Another possibility is that the shrubs tended to have way more flowers, and were taller, so it could have been the magnet species effect in addition to density causing the improved visitation to the focal plants. We didn’t track reproductive output, and manipulations are not feasible with long-lived perennials. Thus they might have been exposed to more het pollen. However, the effects of this on fitness for these species is also unknown. Some community level studies have found that visitation rates are more important than variation in pollination effectiveness per visit (Rader et al., 2016; Sahli & Conner, 2006; Vazquez et al., 2005).

The only other paper that calculated modularity of an sp-I interaction network found it also increased when downscaling. Nestedness is a function of redundancy and it hypothesized to increase a network’s stability (Bascompte and Jordano 2007). There were species specific differences in nestedness. Visitation rates also contributed to nested. Maybe discussion the individual vs species networks here. In individual networks, plants that have similar pollinator guilds form interacting modules. Several things influence modularity in this network. This suggests a divergence between taxonomic similarities and trait similarities. Rumeu et al did a whole paper on trait based networks. Here was attractiveness i.e. visitation rates, species and also potential weak effects of the local floral neighbourhood. However, sampling day also influenced which module a plant was likely to belong to. Other work has found that modules are not super stable (Valverde), and can change through time (Stanoev). Phenology drive modularity (Norente-Lopez 2018). Temporal variations in plant-pollinator interactions are not well documented at the community level and the causes of short-term visitation network dynamics are critically understudied (CarraDonna, Poisot 2014, Bascompte and Jordano 2013).

Better understanding the contexts that lead to individual roles within networks could be really helpful to applied ecology.

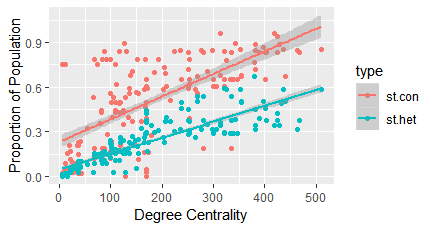
Tables & Figures

Table 1: List of foundation species, number of observation, traits and visitation rate.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Foundation plant species | Observation periods | Mean height +/- SD | | Mean floral number | Mean visitation rate (per 10 min) |
| *Acamptopappus sphaerocephalus* | 96 | | 51.08333 | 45.156250 | 0.8750000 |
| *Eriogonum fasciculatum* | 31 | | 44.03226 | 16.709677 | 2.3870968 |
| *Ericameria cooperi* | 55 | | 49.34545 | 124.363636 | 1.6909091 |
| *Ericameria linearifolia* | 4 | | 69.25000 | 46.500000 | 0.2500000 |
| *Larrea tridentata* | 80 | | 189.87500 | 127.137500 | 1.9125000 |
| *Scutellaria mexicana* | 12 | | 72.92857 | 24.142857 | 0.857142 |
| *Salvia dorri* | 13 | | 55.83333 | 27.000000 | 1.0833333 |
| *Echinocereus engelmannii* | 5 | | 27.80000 | 2.400000 | 1.6000000 |
| *Opuntia basilaris* | 28 | | 25.14286 | 4.714286 | 1.6428571 |
| *Cylindropuntia echinocarpa* | 69 | | 56.01449 | 8.028986 | 2.1884058 |

Table 2: Summary of the GLMM showing the influence of floral display size, floral neighbourhood and time on pollinator visitation rates to desert foundation plants (n = 395 plants). Species was included as a random effect in the models.

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Estimate | χ2 | Df | p |
| Intercept | -0.6084442 | 4.1535 | 1 | 0.0415481 |
| Shrub Density | 0.0746825 | 4.1168 | 1 | 0.0424593 |
| Day | 0.0463114 | 5.1650 | 1 | 0.0230469 |
| Floral Display Size | 0.0116170 | 14.8479 | 1 | 0.0001165 |
| Floral Display:Day | -0.0005315 | 4.1515 | 1 | 0.0415967 |



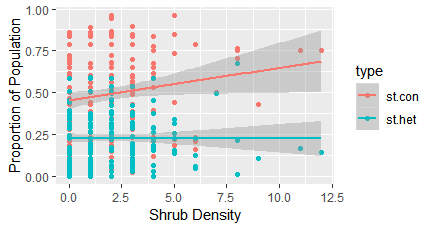


Figure 1: Foundation plants interact with a greater proportion of conspecifics than heterospecifics. Proportions inreased with degree, and proportion conspecifics only increased with shrub density. Values are the number of interactors standardized by the number of potentially interacting plants within the network.

Table 3: Result from multinomial regression showing influencers on plant-plant interaction network modularity.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | χ2 | df | p-value |
| Species | 266.689 | 36 | < 0.0001 |
| Shrub density | 9.397 | 4 | 0.0518980 |
| Visitation rate | 20.085 | 4 | 0.0004805 |
| Study day | 20.085 | 4 | 0.0025540 |

Table 4: Con and het

Table 5: Network comparison

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Indice | Species Level | Individual |
| Connectance | 0.41764706 | 0.09651133 |
| H2 | 0.42532319 | 0.56665181 |
| WNODF | 32.82754538 | 4.65012620 |
| Modularity | Obs :0.4358832  Random value: 0.09052169  Z: 36.35723 | 0.5893211 |

Appendix

Table A.1: Functional groups

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Functional group | Key | Taxons |
| Long-tongued very large bees | LtLbee | Anthophora |
| Short-tongued very large bees | StVLbee | Centris |
| Short-tongued large | StLBee | Diadasia, Mellisodes |
| Short-tongued medium | StMbee | Megachile, Colletes, Ashmeadiella, Hoplitis, Osmia, Lasioglossum |
| Short-tongued small | StSmbee | Lasioglossum (Lasioglossum), Hesperapis, Hylaeus |
| Short-tongued very small | StVSbee | Perdita, Lasioglossum |
| Honeybees | Honeybee |  |
| Small flies | SmDi | Agromyzidae, Richaardiae, Tephritidae |
| Large flies | LgDi | Muscidae, Sarcophagidae, Tachinidae |
| Nectar-seeking wasps | Nwasp | Ammophila, Bembecini, black/blue apoidea, Eumeninae, Pompilidae |
| Long proboscis bee-fly | LpBeefly | Bombylinae |
| Short proboscis bee-fly | SpBeefly | Anthracinae etc |
| Syrphid fly | Syrphid | Allograpta exotica, Eupeuodes volucris, Eristalis sp., Pseudodoros clavatus |
| Humming bird | hummingbird | Calypte sp. |
| Beetles | beetle | Elaterinae, chrysomelidae |
| Small Day flying moths | MicroLep | Coleophora, Lithariapteryx |
| Butterfly | butterfly | Desert swallowtail (Papilio polyxenes coloro), Mojave blue (Euphilotes mojave Mojave) |

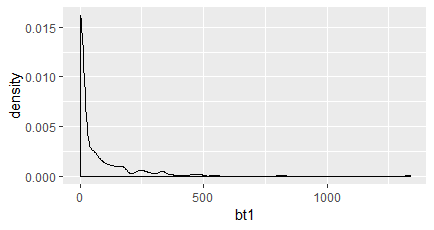


Figure A1: Betweenness values were very zero-inflated. Most models for zero-inflation are for count data, not continuous data.

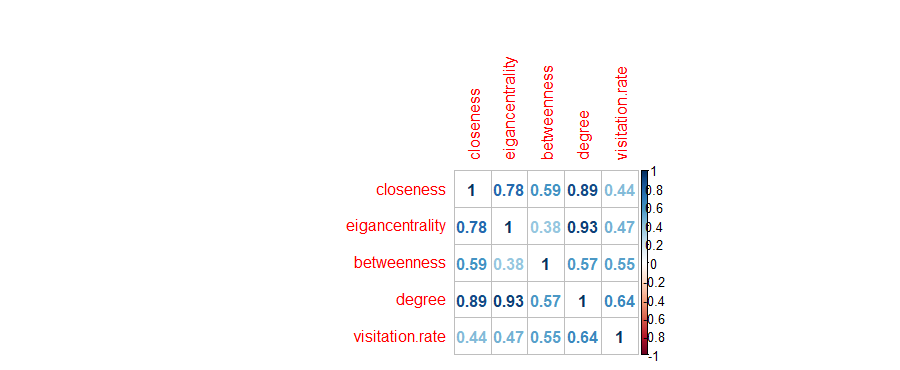


Figure A2: Correlation coefficients between centrality measures and visitation rates.

Comparing best model to null (Quantity)

mnull 3 1362.2 1374.1 -678.10 1356.2

m4 7 1329.5 1357.3 -657.76 1315.5 40.687 4 3.12e-08 \*\*\*

Table A3: Nnet model comparison

m1 <- multinom(module ~ Species + shrub.density + Quantity + N.flowers\*day, data = all)

m2 <- multinom(module ~ Species + shrub.density + Quantity +day + N.flowers, data = all)

m3 <- multinom(module ~ Species + shrub.density + Quantity + day, data = all)

df AIC

m1 60 364.1505

m2 56 365.7156

m3 52 360.2055

null=m4 4 555.3168

Full Models for centrality

Degree

Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)

(Intercept) 4.3962424 0.1674891 26.248 <2e-16 \*\*\*

Quantity 0.2042996 0.0235026 8.693 <2e-16 \*\*\*

shrub.density 0.0034335 0.0253011 0.136 0.892

day -0.0076894 0.0084879 -0.906 0.365

N.flowers 0.0007984 0.0007083 1.127 0.260

Response: dg1

Chisq Df Pr(>Chisq)

Quantity 75.5616 1 <2e-16 \*\*\*

shrub.density 0.0184 1 0.8921

day 0.8207 1 0.3650

N.flowers 1.2705 1 0.2597

Eigancentrality

Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)

(Intercept) 0.1108865 0.0589589 1.881 0.060 .

Quantity 0.0543331 0.0056830 9.561 <2e-16 \*\*\*

shrub.density -0.0028750 0.0072398 -0.397 0.691

N.flowers 0.0001981 0.0002115 0.936 0.349

day -0.0026972 0.0025255 -1.068 0.286

Response: V2

Chisq Df Pr(>Chisq)

Quantity 91.4049 1 <2e-16 \*\*\*

shrub.density 0.1577 1 0.6913

N.flowers 0.8769 1 0.3490

day 1.1406 1 0.2855

Betweenness

(Intercept) -3.019237 0.513989 -5.874 4.25e-09 \*\*\*

shrub.density 0.256831 0.092838 2.766 0.00567 \*\*

Quantity 0.835882 0.129188 6.470 9.78e-11 \*\*\*

day -0.008943 0.029387 -0.304 0.76089

N.flowers 0.003956 0.002115 1.871 0.06135 .

Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)

(Intercept) 4.8100612 0.2635359 18.252 < 2e-16 \*\*\*

Quantity 0.1906119 0.0370056 5.151 2.59e-07 \*\*\*

shrub.density -0.0033480 0.0415197 -0.081 0.936

day 0.0066236 0.0154324 0.429 0.668

N.flowers -0.0012015 0.0009663 -1.243 0.214

Response: log(bt1)

Chisq Df Pr(>Chisq)

Quantity 26.5317 1 2.592e-07 \*\*\*

shrub.density 0.0065 1 0.9357

day 0.1842 1 0.6678

N.flowers 1.5460 1 0.2137

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