

Coevolution leaves a stronger imprint on interactions than on community structure

Timothée Poisot ^{1,2,3,*}, Daniel B. Stouffer ¹

(1) Centre for Integrative Ecology, School of Biological Sciences, University of Canterbury, Christchurch, New Zealand

(2) Département des Sciences Biologiques, Université de Montréal, Montréal, Canada

(3) Québec Centre for Biodiversity Sciences, Montréal, Canada

* e-mail: tim@poisotlab.io

Abstract: Coevolutionary dynamics act on both species and their interactions in ways that shape ecological communities. It remains unclear, however, how the structure of communities at larger spatial scales influences or is influenced by local coevolutionary processes, and how mechanisms acting at these different scales feedback onto one another. Here we show that, although species interactions vary substantially over a continental gradient, the coevolutionary significance of individual interactions is maintained across different scales. Notably, this occurs despite the fact that observed community variation at the local scale frequently tends to weaken or remove community-wide coevolutionary signal. When considered in terms of the interplay between community ecology and coevolutionary theory, our results demonstrate that individual interactions are capable and indeed likely to show a consistent signature of past coevolution even when woven into communities that do not.

Keywords: species interactions host-parasites phylogenetic congruence coevolution

Date: September 8, 2015

Abstract: 134 words; Main text: 3120 words; 4 figures; no table; 38 references.

Authorship: TP and DBS conceived the study; TP performed the analysis; TP and DBS wrote the paper.

Ecological interactions often exert important selective pressures on the species involved. For example, the phenologies of lodgepole pines and red crossbills respond spatially to the presence of squirrels (Benkman et al. 2003). Likewise, palm species undergo changes in seed morphology in response to the extinction of bird dispersing their seeds (Galetti et al. 2013). Interactions can be lost, too, when phenologies of the species involved shift (Rafferty et al. 2015). Kritsky (1991) relates the discovery of the moth *Xanthopan morgani*, with a proboscis famously over a foot long, which Darwin predicted would exist based on the phenology of local plant *Angraecum sesquipedale*. In addition, interactions, and the emergent structures they define, are distributed in similar ways across communities at both large or small scales (Jordano et al. 2003). Together, these observations suggest that much ecological structure could be the end result of (co)evolutionary dynamics between species (Eklof et al. 2011; Stouffer et al. 2012). Unfortunately, although the coevolutionary dynamics of pairs of interacting species have been well described at macro-evolutionary (Van Valen 1973) and micro-evolutionary (Gandon et al. 2008) timescales, most attempts to understand how they cascade up to the levels of diversity of both species and interactions found within empirical communities have been inconclusive (Hembry et al. 2014). Notwithstanding, coevolutionary dynamics are often presented as a key driving force behind ecological structure across both time and space (Thompson 1994; Thompson 2005); it is therefore crucial to determine the scale at which they are both relevant and quantifiable.

Historically, the evidence for coevolution in taxonomically diverse communities is quantified as the degree of matching between the phylogenies of two sets of interacting organisms (Legendre et al. 2002). This notion builds on the century-old idea that extant species interact in a way similar to the way their ancestors did (Fahrenholz 1913; Guimarães Jr et al. 2011; Nuismer et al. 2013). Note that testing these assumptions is related to, but markedly more restrictive than, testing for phylogenetic conservatism of species' interactions (Rezende et al. 2007; Eklof et al. 2011). This is because of additional, higher-order constraints related to the shape of both trees at all depths (Cavender-Bares et al. 2009; Mouquet et al. 2012): ancestral constraints create high phylogenetic inertia which carries forward to extant taxa (Desdevices et al. 2003; Diniz-Filho and Bini 2008; Vale and Little

2010). For this reason, although several systems have been described that exhibit matching phylogenetic structure, many deviate from this assumption for a variety of factors. Detecting matching phylogenies for interacting clades nonetheless indicates that their coevolutionary history is long standing and is therefore suggestive that their extant ecological structure is an outcome of ancestral constraints and/or co-adaptation (Nuismer and Harmon 2014).

Nevertheless, it is important to note that there is more to co-evolution than simply observing matching phylogenies or than observing phylogenetic structure of species interactions (Johnson and Stinchcombe 2007). At a *large* scale (*i.e.* both temporal, spatial, and organizational), true coevolution addresses both of these dimensions simultaneously: measures of coevolution yield a positive signal when (i) phylogenetic trees are congruent (ii) based on the observation that species at similar positions in both trees interact. This line of thinking does more than building on extent interactions; because of the branching nature of trees, it ensures that the congruence informed by interactions is true at *all* phylogenetic depths (Nieberding et al. 2010). How different methods to measure coevolution deal with this structure varies, but at least one common thread is that they address macro-evolutionary questions on the basis of macro-evolutionary structures (Price 2003). Although this is somehow different from *micro*-coevolution (*i.e.* within and between populations at reduced temporal and spatial scales), this is no less an instance of coevolution. To a certain extent, micro-coevolution (*i.e.* reciprocal selection over ecologically relevant timescales) *proceeds* from existing co-phylogenetic structure. For how are species entangled in interactions, if not by their previous evolutionary history? And although matching phylogenies are not expected to result from micro-evolutionary processes (Poisot 2015), there is no valid ground to reject matching phylogenies with matching interactions as proof of a shared evolutionary history, which we will henceforth refer to as *coevolution*.

The considerations outlined above can be expressed as quantitative predictions. Communities that have assembled by successive divergence events due to coevolution should display phylogenetic congruence, that is (i) have similar phylogenetic trees and (ii) have species at matching positions

in the trees that tend to interact (Page 2003). Of course, this matching can be imperfect, as some interactions display substantial variability at ecologically relevant temporal and spatial scales (Poisot et al. 2012; Carstensen et al. 2014; Olito and Fox 2015; Trøjelsgaard et al. 2015), and the same two species can interact in different ways under the effect of local environmental contingencies, spatial mismatch in species phenologies, variations in population abundances, and chance events (Poisot et al. 2015). Variability of interactions, however, does not predict (i) how the coevolutionary signal of pairwise interactions is kept or lost at the scale of the whole community nor (ii) whether or not this variability is related to changes in the amount of coevolutionary signal that can be detected locally.

In this manuscript, we analyze a large dataset of over 300 species of mammalian hosts and their ectoparasites, sampled throughout Eurasia, for which phylogenetic relationships are known. Using a Procrustean approach to quantify the strength of coevolutionary signal (Balbuena et al. 2013), we show that locally sampled communities rarely show strong evidence of coevolution despite the fact that the overall system does at the continental scale. We then provide evidence to support the conclusion that the amount of coevolutionary signal within a local community is predictable based on the importance of interactions for coevolutions in the *regional* network. We finally show that the contribution of these interactions to coevolution is invariant across scales, and is unrelated to their tendency to vary across space. These results suggest that the key unit at which coevolution ought to be studied is the interaction rather than the complex networks they form, and this is true even at large taxonomical and spatial scales.

1 Methods

1.1 Data source and pre-treatment

We use data on observations of interactions between 121 species of rodents and 205 species of parasitic fleas in 51 locations across Europe (Krasnov et al. 2012b) to build 51 species-species in-

teraction networks. Interactions were measured by combing rodents for fleas, a method that gives high quality data as it has a high power of detection. Previous analyses revealed that this dataset shows significant coevolutionary signal at the continental level (Krasnov et al. 2012a). Importantly, it also provides spatial replication and variability (Canard et al. 2014) at a scale large enough to capture macro-ecological processes. This dataset is uniquely suited for our analysis, as it represents a thorough spatial and taxonomic sampling of a paradigmatic system in which interspecific interactions are thought to be driven by macro-evolution and co-speciation events (Combes 2001; Verneau et al. 2009);

The original dataset gives quantitative interaction strengths (expressed as an averaged number of parasites per species per host). In this system, quantitative interaction strengths were shown to be affected to a very high degree by local variations in abundance across sampling locations (Canard et al. 2014), and it therefore seems unlikely that they reflect macro-ecological processes. Therefore, to account for differential sampling effort—which cannot readily be quantified—and across site variations in abundance—which do not pertain to macro-evolutionary processes—we only study the networks’ bipartite incidence matrices (that is, presence and absence of infection of hosts by the parasites).

1.2 Spatial scales and interaction spatial consistency

Noting that variation of interactions across locations—which can be caused by local ecological mechanisms, as opposed to reflecting evolutionary dynamics—can decrease congruence, we analyze the data at three different levels which we will refer to as continental, regional, and local. Notably, the continental level summarizes the complete dataset whereas both the regional and local levels are location-specific scales.

The first, *continental* interaction data consists of the aggregated “metanetwork” which includes all documented interactions between species from the regional species pool (Poisot et al. 2012).

The second, *regional* interaction data accounts for different species composition across sites, specifically by testing whether sampling from the regional species pool affects coevolutionary signal. Within each site, the regional scale is given by the subset of the metanetwork formed by the locally present species (properly speaking, the induced subgraph of the metanetwork induced from the nodes of the local network). Hence the regional networks are always a perfect subset of the continental network, and do not reflect whether species were actually observed to interact locally or not, but whether they *can* interact at all.

The third, *local* interaction data also accounts for variation in the interactions between observed species, in addition to encompassing the above. In contrast to the regional scale, the local scale includes only the interactions that were actually observed in the field at a given site. Therefore, the local and regional networks always include the same species, but the local network has only a subset (or, at most, an exact match) of the interactions in the regional network.

We finally define the spatial consistency of every interaction as the number of sites in which the two species involved co-occur, or simply

$$S_{ij} = \frac{L_{ij}}{C_{ij}}, \quad (1)$$

the spatial consistency of an interaction S_{ij} between species i and j is measured by dividing the number of locations in which both are present (C_{ij}) and the number of locations in which they interact (L_{ij}). Because $L_{ij} \in [0, C_{ij}]$, this measure takes values in $[0, 1]$. Larger values reflect high spatial consistency. Note that although they are reported as 0 (*i.e.* having no interactions), we actually have no information about species pairs that have never co-occured; this is a common, but hard to correct, feature of spatially replicated datasets in which species occurrence varies (Morales-Castilla et al. 2015). Therefore, the values of S_{ij} can only be defined for species that have been observed to *co-occur* at least once.

1.3 Quantifying coevolutionary signal

We quantify the strength of coevolutionary signal in terms of the degree of matching between host and parasite phylogenies, given knowledge of extant species interactions (at varying spatial scales). We do so using the *PACo* method (Balbuena et al. 2013), which is robust to variations in both number of species and interactions. *PACo* provides measures of both the network-level congruence (*i.e.*, is the network coevolved?) and the interaction-level signal (*i.e.*, what is the contribution of each interaction to the overall coevolutionary signal?). Strong values of the later metric reflect *low* contributions to coevolution – interactions that contribute strongly to phylogenetic congruence have low *PACo* values. Importantly, and by contrast to previous methods such as *ParaFit* (Legendre et al. 2002), *PACo* also can be used to meaningfully quantify the contribution of every interaction to the network-level signal even in cases where the entire network shows no significant coevolutionary signal. As required by *PACo*, the phylogenetic trees for hosts and parasites were rendered ultrametric (*i.e.*, all species are at the same distance from the root).

2 Results and discussion

2.1 Local and regional scale networks show no coevolutionary signal

As host-macroparasite interactions are hypothesized to be ecologically constrained, as a result of their being evolutionary conserved (Combes 2001), the congruence observed at the continental level sets the baseline for what would be expected in local communities. Of course, if ecological mechanisms reduce coevolutionary signal, we should detect coevolution at the continental scale but not locally. Out of 51 sites, 35 show no signal of coevolution at all, 11 show significant coevolutionary signal when using the regional interactions, and 12 show significant coevolutionary signal using the local interactions (see *Supp. Mat. 1* for network-level significance values; Figure 1). These results support the idea that macro-evolutionary processes, such as co-diversification, can

have consequences at the macro-ecological level but may not in fact be detectable at finer spatial scales.

2.2 Coevolutionary signal is predicted by the contribution of interactions

On the other hand, system-level differences say little about the behavior of individual interactions. Despite the fact most coevolutionary mechanisms act at the interaction level (Thompson 1999), most *measures* of it are expressed at the community level. We observe here that networks with interactions that are important for coevolution at the continental scale indeed have more coevolutionary signal at the local and regional scales alike (Fig. 2A). Intriguingly, we also find that the distribution of individual interactions' contributions to coevolution is strongly conserved, regardless of the scale at which the interactions are quantified (Fig. 2B). Because interactions differ in their total contribution to coevolution, this implies that their distribution across networks (*i.e.* whether the local network is a sampling of strongly contributing, or weakly contributing, interactions) is what actually drives differences in overall coevolutionary signal. Network-level coevolutionary signal emerges directly from the properties of interactions and is not a property of the network itself.

2.3 Interactions contributing to coevolution are not more spatially consistent

Beyond their contribution to coevolution, interactions also ultimately differ in how frequently they vary when the species involved co-occur (Carstensen et al. 2014; Olito and Fox 2015; Trøjelsgaard et al. 2015). This can happen, for example, when one of the partner is able to forage for optimal resources (Betts et al. 2015). Once more, the literature on host-parasite interactions assumes that the reason why some interactions are more frequent is because they reflect a significant past history of coevolution (Guimaraes et al. 2007; Morand and Krasnov 2010); that is, the ecological constraints emerge from the evolutionary conservatism. If this were true, we should observe a significant, positive correlation between the probability of observing an interaction and the importance of that

interaction for coevolution at the continental scale. Surprisingly, we find that neither is true here since interactions that are important for coevolution are not more spatially consistent (Fig. 3). This implies that the spatial consistency of an interaction do not reflect its evolutionary past, but rather (extant) ecological processes.

2.4 The contribution of interactions to coevolution is consistent across scales

Ultimately, coevolutionary signal varies across scale because of the simultaneous variation of species' interactions *and* communities' phylogenetic tree structure. In a system characterised by substantial turnover we would expect the contribution of each separate interaction to differ across scales as well. Instead, we observe here that interactions that contribute strongly to coevolutionary signal at the continental scale *also* show a significant tendency to contribute strongly at the local ($p < 0.05$ for positive correlations in 48 out of 51 networks) and regional (in 47 out of 51 networks), and this observation is independent of network-wide coevolutionary signal (Fig. 4). Remarkably, this result implies that the remnants of coevolution are still locally detectable in *individual interactions* even though coevolution regularly fails to leave its imprint on most local networks.

3 Conclusions

Overall, the results of our analyses demonstrate that there is a sizeable gap between our current understanding of host-parasite coevolution as the basis of multi-species interactions and its applicability to ecological questions. Local networks show little to no signal of coevolution and the strength of coevolution between two species is a surprisingly poor predictor of how frequently they interact. In contrast to the frequent assumption that phylogenetic structure is a key driver of community structure (Cavender-Bares et al. 2009), these data reveal that this impact is actually minimal at ecologically relevant spatial scales. And yet, despite all the above, individual interactions are some-

how able to maintain their coevolutionary signal even when the community they are woven into does not. Thinking more broadly, these discrepancies provide a clear roadmap for bridging the gap between our appreciation of the role of coevolution and its empirically measurable outcomes: network structure is the most parsimonious *mechanism* by which coevolution proceeds, not the imprint coevolution leaves on ecological communities.

Acknowledgements. We thank Juan Antonio Balbuena for discussions about the *PACo* method, and members of the Stouffer and Tylianakis groups for comments on an early draft of this manuscript. We are indebted to Matt Hutchinson and Fernando Cagua for contributions to the code of the *paco* R package. Funding to TP and DBS was provided by a Marsden Fund Fast-Start grant (UOC-1101) and to DBS by a Rutherford Discovery Fellowship, both administered by the Royal Society of New Zealand.

References

- Balbuena, J. A., R. Míguez-Lozano, and I. Blasco-Costa. 2013. PACo: A Novel Procrustes Application to Cophylogenetic Analysis. *PLoS ONE* 8:e61048.
- Benkman, C. W., T. L. Parchman, A. Favis, and A. M. Siepielski. 2003. Reciprocal selection causes a coevolutionary arms race between crossbills and lodgepole pine. *Am. Nat.* 162:182–194.
- Betts, M., A. Hadley, and W. Kress. 2015. Pollinator recognition by a keystone tropical plant. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 112:3433–3438.
- Canard, E. F., N. Mouquet, D. Mouillot, M. Stanko, D. Miklisova, and D. Gravel. 2014. Empirical evaluation of neutral interactions in host-parasite networks. *The American Naturalist* 183:468–479.
- Carstensen, D. W., M. Sabatino, K. Trøjelsgaard, and L. P. C. Morellato. 2014. Beta Diversity of

- 237 Plant-Pollinator Networks and the Spatial Turnover of Pairwise Interactions. PLoS ONE 9:e112903.
- 238 Cavender-Bares, J., K. H. Kozak, P. V. A. Fine, and S. W. Kembel. 2009. The merging of community
239 ecology and phylogenetic biology. *Ecol. Lett.* 12:693–715.
- 240 Combes, C. 2001. *Parasitism - The Ecology and Evolution of Intimate Interactions*. University Of
241 Chicago Press.
- 242 Desdevises, Y., P. Legendre, L. Azouzi, and S. Morand. 2003. Quantifying phylogenetically struc-
243 tured environmental variation. *Evolution* 57:2647–2652.
- 244 Diniz-Filho, J. A. F., and L. M. Bini. 2008. Macroecology, global change and the shadow of
245 forgotten ancestors. *Glob. Ecol. Biogeogr.* 17:11–17.
- 246 Eklof, A., M. R. Helmus, M. Moore, S. Allesina, and A. Eklöf. 2011. Relevance of evolutionary
247 history for food web structure. *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* 279:1588–1596.
- 248 Fahrenholz, H. 1913. Ectoparasiten und abstammungslehre. *Zool. Anz.* 41:371–374.
- 249 Galetti, M., R. Guevara, M. C. Côrtes, R. Fadini, S. V. Matter, A. B. Leite, F. Labecca, et al.
250 2013. Functional Extinction of Birds Drives Rapid Evolutionary Changes in Seed Size. *Science*
251 340:1086–1090.
- 252 Gandon, S., A. Buckling, E. Decaestecker, and T. Day. 2008. Host-parasite coevolution and patterns
253 of adaptation across time and space. *J. Evol. Biol.* 21:1861–1866.
- 254 Guimaraes, P. R., V. Rico-Gray, P. S. Oliveira, T. J. Izzo, S. F. dos Reis, and J. N. Thompson. 2007.
255 Interaction intimacy affects structure and coevolutionary dynamics in mutualistic networks. *Curr.*
256 *Biol.* 17:1797–1803.
- 257 Guimarães Jr, P. R., P. Jordano, and J. N. Thompson. 2011. Evolution and coevolution in mutualistic

258 networks. *Ecol. Lett.* 14:877–885.

259 Hembry, D. H., J. B. Yoder, and K. R. Goodman. 2014. Coevolution and the Diversification of
 260 Life. *The American Naturalist* 184:425–438.

261 Johnson, M. T., and J. R. Stinchcombe. 2007. An emerging synthesis between community ecology
 262 and evolutionary biology. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 22:250–257.

263 Jordano, P., J. Bascompte, and J. M. Olesen. 2003. Invariant properties in coevolutionary networks
 264 of plant-animal interactions. *Ecol. Lett.* 6:69–81.

265 Krasnov, B. R., M. A. Fortuna, D. Mouillot, I. S. Khokhlova, G. I. Shenbrot, and R. Poulin. 2012a.
 266 Phylogenetic Signal in Module Composition and Species Connectivity in Compartmentalized Host-
 267 Parasite Networks. *The American Naturalist* 179:501–511.

268 Krasnov, B. R., M. A. Fortuna, D. Mouillot, I. S. Khokhlova, G. I. Shenbrot, R. Poulin, and B. R.
 269 Krasnov. 2012b. Data from: Phylogenetic signal in module composition and species connectivity
 270 in compartmentalized host-parasite networks.

271 Kritsky, G. 1991. Darwin’s Madagascan Hawk Moth Prediction. *American Entomologist* 37:206–
 272 210.

273 Legendre, P., Y. Desdevises, and E. Bazin. 2002. A statistical test for host-parasite coevolution.
 274 *Syst. Biol.* 51:217–234.

275 Morales-Castilla, I., M. G. Matias, D. Gravel, and M. B. Araújo. 2015. Inferring biotic interactions
 276 from proxies. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*.

277 Morand, S., and B. Krasnov, eds. 2010. Biogeography of host-parasite interactions. Oxford Uni-
 278 versity Press, Oxford.

279 Mouquet, N., V. Devictor, C. N. Meynard, F. Munoz, L.-F. Bersier, J. Chave, P. Couteron, et al.

280 2012. Ecophylogenetics: advances and perspectives. *Biol. Rev.* 87:769–785.

281 Nieberding, C., E. Jousset, Y. Desclaux, and others. 2010. The use of co-phylogeographic
282 patterns to predict the nature of host–parasite interactions, and vice versa. *The Biogeography of*
283 *Host-Parasite Interactions* 631–641.

284 Nuismer, S. L., and L. J. Harmon. 2014. Predicting rates of interspecific interaction from phyloge-
285 netic trees. *Ecol Lett* n/a–n/a.

286 Nuismer, S. L., P. Jordano, and J. Bascompte. 2013. Coevolution and the Architecture of Mutualistic
287 Networks. *Evolution* 67:338–354.

288 Olito, C., and J. W. Fox. 2015. Species traits and abundances predict metrics of plantpollinator
289 network structure, but not pairwise interactions. *Oikos* 124:428–436.

290 Page, R. D. M. 2003. *Tangled trees: Phylogeny, cospeciation, and coevolution*. University of
291 Chicago Press.

292 Poisot, T. 2015. 23 When is co-phylogeny evidence of coevolution? *Parasite Diversity and Diver-*
293 *sification: Evolutionary Ecology Meets Phylogenetics* 420.

294 Poisot, T., E. Canard, D. Mouillot, N. Mouquet, and D. Gravel. 2012. The dissimilarity of species
295 interaction networks. *Ecol Lett* 15:1353–1361.

296 Poisot, T., D. B. Stouffer, and D. Gravel. 2015. Beyond species: why ecological interaction net-
297 works vary through space and time. *Oikos* 124:243–251.

298 Price, P. W. 2003. *Macroevolutionary theory on macroecological patterns*. Cambridge University
299 Press.

300 Rafferty, N. E., P. J. CaraDonna, and J. L. Bronstein. 2015. Phenological shifts and the fate of

301 mutualisms. *Oikos* 124:14–21.

302 Rezende, E. L., J. E. Lavabre, P. R. Guimarães, P. Jordano, and J. Bascompte. 2007. Non-random
 303 coextinctions in phylogenetically structured mutualistic networks. *Nature* 448:925–8.

304 Stouffer, D. B., M. Sales-Pardo, M. I. Sirer, and J. Bascompte. 2012. Evolutionary Conservation of
 305 Species' Roles in Food Webs. *Science* 335:1489–1492.

306 Thompson, J. N. 1994. *The Coevolutionary Process*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

307 Thompson, J. N. 1999. The raw material for coevolution. *Oikos* 84:5–16.

308 Thompson, J. N. 2005. *The Geographic Mosaic of Coevolution*. University Of Chicago Press.

309 Trøjelsgaard, K., P. Jordano, D. W. Carstensen, and J. M. Olesen. 2015. Geographical variation in
 310 mutualistic networks: similarity, turnover and partner fidelity. *Proc. R. Soc. B* 282:20142925.

311 Vale, P. F., and T. J. Little. 2010. CRISPR-mediated phage resistance and the ghost of coevolution
 312 past. *Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.*

313 Van Valen, L. 1973. A new evolutionary law. *Evol. Theory* 1:1–30.

314 Verneau, O., L. Du Preez, and M. Badets. 2009. Lessons from parasitic flatworms about evolution
 315 and historical biogeography of their vertebrate hosts. *C. R. Biol.* 332:149–158.

316 **List of Figures**

317	1	Spatial distribution.	16
318	2	Distribution of coevolutionary signal.	17
319	3	Spatial consistency.	18
320	4	Conservation of contribution to coevolutionary signal.	19

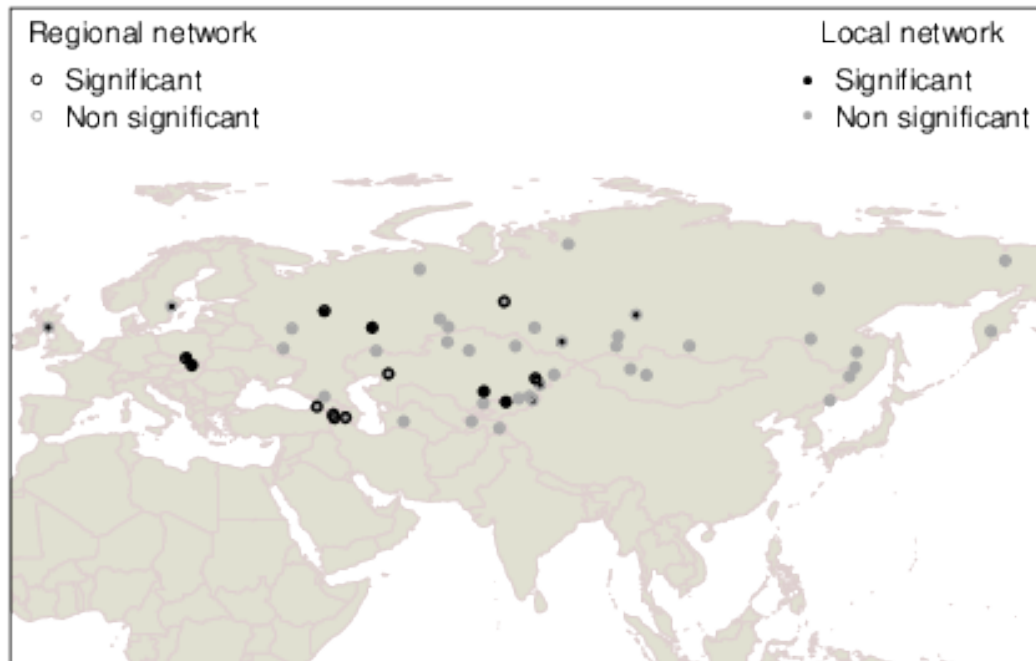


Figure 1: Spatial distribution of coevolutionary signal across the 51 sites. For each location, we indicate whether or not the structure of regional and local interaction networks is consistent with phylogenetic congruence. The colour of the circle corresponds to regionally significant or non-significant (black and grey, respectively) while the colour of the symbol within corresponds to locally significant or non-significant (black and grey, respectively).

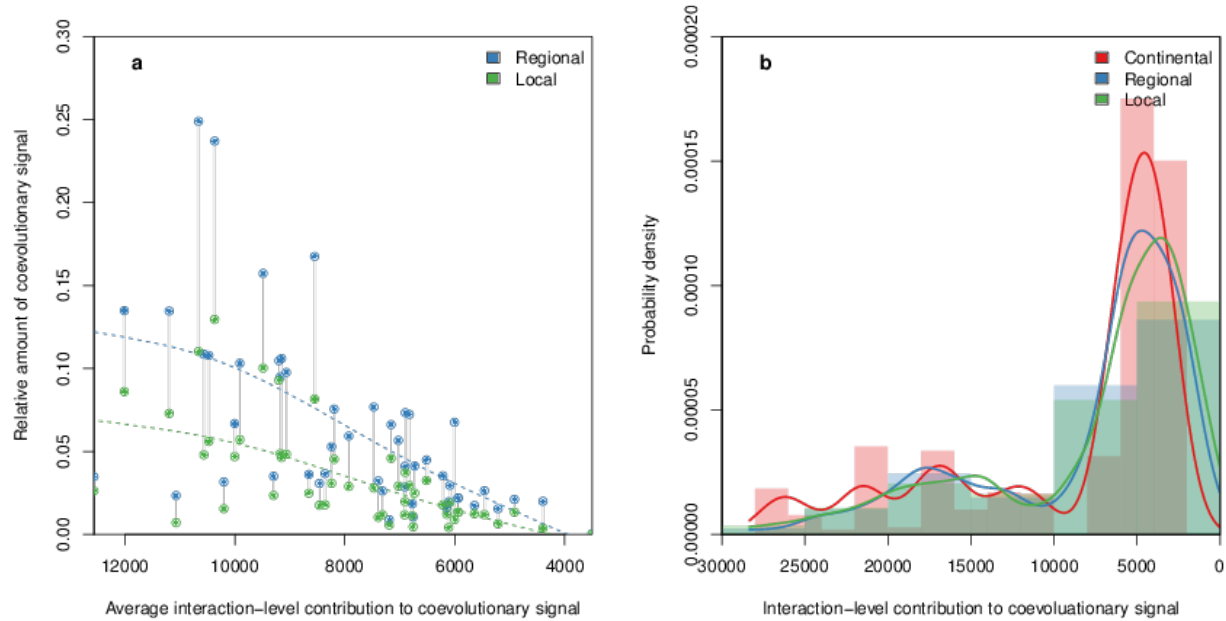


Figure 2: Distribution of coevolutionary signal at the network and interaction levels. **a**, Networks that have lower coevolutionary signal at the local or regional level are composed of interactions that on average contribute little to coevolution at the continental scale. Coevolutionary signal is presented relatively to the continental level coevolutionary signal. Dashed lines are a cubic smoothing spline, and the two levels of the same networks are linked by solid grey lines. **b**, Overall, interactions observed at the local, regional, and continental scale have roughly equivalent contributions to coevolutionary signal. Probability density was smoothed using a Gaussian kernel density estimator. Raw probability densities are shown as semi-transparent bars.

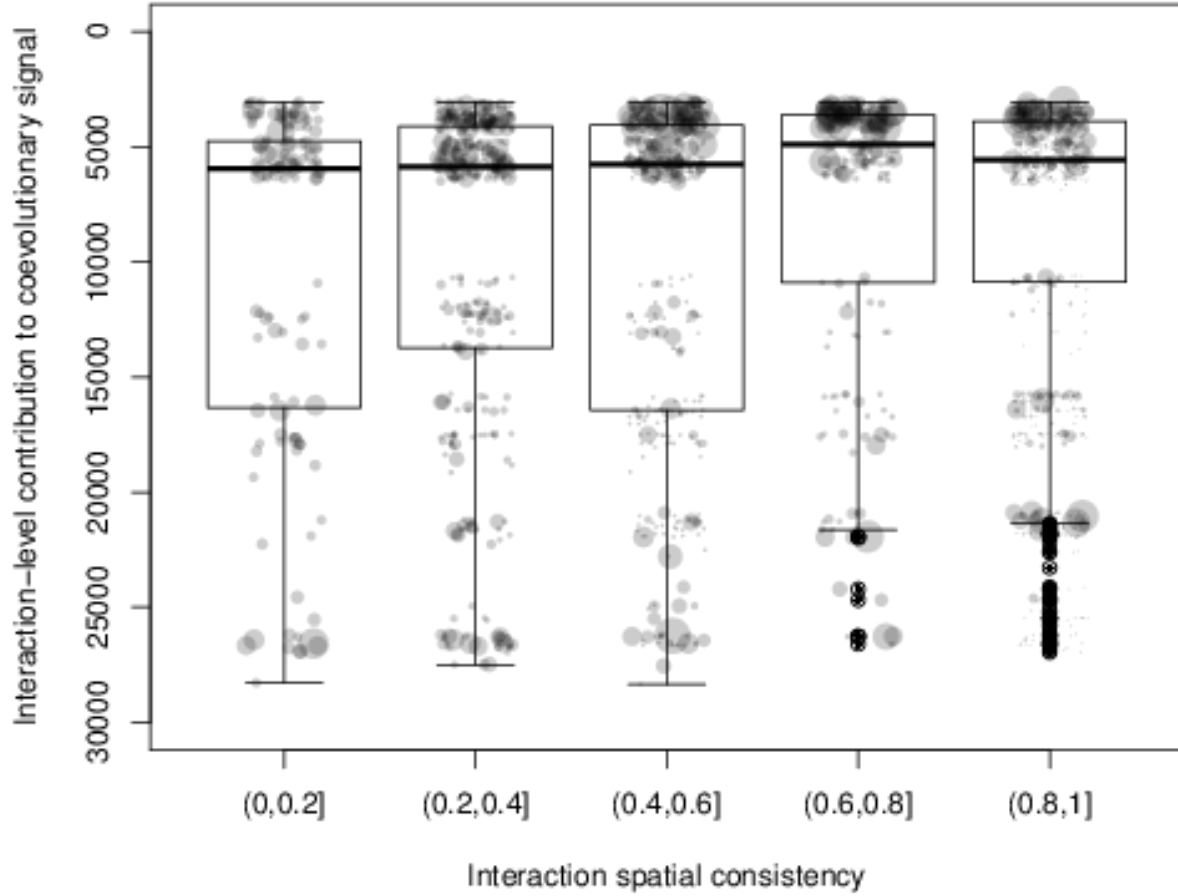


Figure 3: Spatial consistency of an interaction and its contribution to coevolutionary signal. Note that because *PACo* gives low scores to interactions with a strong contribution to coevolution, the y axis is reversed. Spatial consistency is defined as the probability of observing an interaction between two species given that they were observed to co-occur. Although statistically significant, there was no biologically meaningful relationship between spatial consistency and an interaction's importance for coevolution in the continental network ($R^2 \approx 0.01$, $\rho = -0.1$, $p \leq 10^{-5}$).

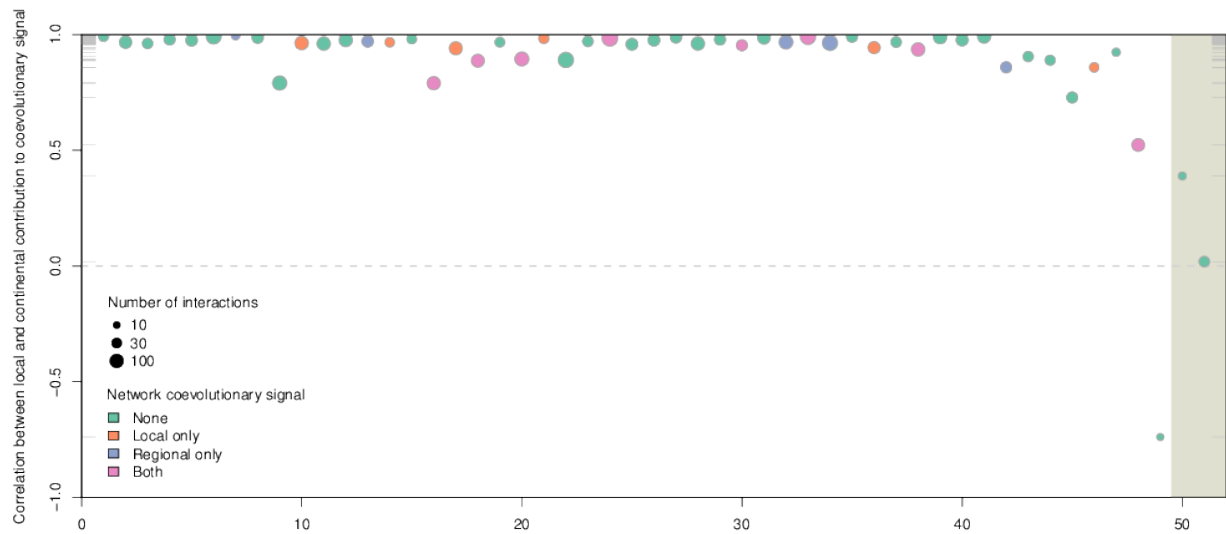


Figure 4: The contribution to coevolutionary signal of the interaction between two species is maintained across scales. For every site, we show the Pearson’s correlation between interaction-level coevolutionary signal in the continental network and the same in the local network. The size of each point is proportional to the size of the network, and all correlations are significant at $\alpha = 0.05$ except in the grey shaded area.