

This work has been submitted to **NECTAR**, the **Northampton Electronic Collection of Theses and Research**.

Article

Title: The influence of floral traits on specialisation and modularity of plant-pollinator networks in a biodiversity hotspot in the Peruvian Andes

Creators: Watts, S., Dormann, C. F., Gonzalez, A. M. M. and Ollerton, J.

DOI: [10.1093/aob/mcw114](https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcw114)

Example citation: Watts, S., Dormann, C. F., Gonzalez, A. M. M. and Ollerton, J. (2016) The influence of floral traits on specialisation and modularity of plant-pollinator networks in a biodiversity hotspot in the Peruvian Andes. *Annals of Botany*. **118**(3), pp. 415-429. 0305-7364.

It is advisable to refer to the [publisher's version](#) if you intend to cite from this work.

Version: Accepted version

Note: This is a pre-copyedited, author-produced version of an article accepted for publication in *Annals of Botany* following peer review. The version of record is available online at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcw114>.

<http://nectar.northampton.ac.uk/8930/>



1 Original Article

2 **The influence of floral traits on specialisation and modularity of plant-pollinator**
3 **networks in a biodiversity hotspot in the Peruvian Andes.**

4

5 **Stella Watts^{1*}, Carsten F. Dormann², Ana M. Martín González^{3,4} and Jeff Ollerton¹**

6

7 ¹ *Landscape and Biodiversity Research Group, Department of Environmental and*

8 *Geographical Sciences, University of Northampton, Avenue Campus, St George's Avenue,*

9 *Northampton NN2 6JD, UK. ² Department of Biometry and Environmental System Analysis,*

10 *University of Freiburg, Tennenbacher Straße 4, 79106, Freiburg, Germany. ³ Pacific*

11 *Ecoinformatics Computational Ecology Lab, 1604 McGee Ave, 94703 Berkeley, California,*

12 *USA, ⁴ Center for Macroecology, Evolution and Climate, Natural History Museum of*

13 *Denmark, University of Copenhagen, DK-2100 Copenhagen Ø, Denmark.*

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26 *For correspondence. E-mail hummingbird_pe@yahoo.com

1 **Abstract**

- 2 • *Background and Aims.* Modularity is a ubiquitous and important structural property of
3 ecological networks which describes the relative strengths of sets of interacting species and
4 gives insights into the dynamics of ecological communities. However this has rarely been
5 studied in species rich, tropical plant-pollinator networks. Working in a biodiversity hotspot
6 in the Peruvian Andes we assessed the structure of quantitative plant-pollinator networks in
7 nine valleys, quantifying modularity among networks, defining the topological roles of
8 species and the influence of floral traits on specialisation.
- 9 • *Methods* A total of 90 transects were surveyed for plants and pollinators at different
10 altitudes and across different life zones. Quantitative modularity (QuanBiMo) was used to
11 detect modularity and six indices were used to quantify specialisation.
- 12 • *Key Results* All networks were highly structured, moderately specialised and significantly
13 modular regardless of size. The strongest hubs were *Baccharis* plants, *Apis mellifera*, *Bombus*
14 *funnebris*, and Diptera spp., which were the most ubiquitous and abundant species with the
15 longest phenologies. Species strength showed a strong association with the modular structure
16 of plant-pollinator networks. Hubs and connectors were the most centralised participants in
17 the networks and were ranked highest (high generalisation) when quantifying specialisation
18 with most indices. However, complimentary specialisation d' quantified hubs and connectors
19 as moderately specialised. Specialisation and topological roles of species were remarkably
20 constant across some sites, but highly variable in others. Networks were dominated by
21 ecologically and functionally generalist plant species with open access flowers which are
22 closely related taxonomically with similar morphology and rewards. Plants associated with
23 hummingbirds had the highest level of complimentary specialisation and exclusivity in
24 modules (functional specialists) and the longest corollas.

1 *Conclusions* We have demonstrated that the topology of networks in this tropical montane
2 environment was non-random and highly organised. Our findings underscore that
3 specialisation indices convey different concepts of specialisation and hence quantify different
4 aspects, and that measuring specialisation requires careful consideration of what defines a
5 specialist.

6
7 **Key words:** Asteraceae, *Baccharis*, floral traits, plant-pollinator networks, modularity,
8 specialisation, *Apis mellifera*, *Bombus funebris*, biodiversity hotspot, hummingbirds,
9 topological roles, Peruvian Andes.

10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Ecological interactions between plants and their flower visitors are fundamental to the
3 ongoing function of both natural and agricultural ecosystems (Klein *et al.*, 2007; Ollerton *et*
4 *al.*, 2011). In the past decade network approaches have been developed that enable ecologists
5 to probe these interactions in ever more detail, introducing many new indices to describe
6 network topology, quantify the degree of specialisation between partners, and assess network
7 stability, robustness and ecosystem function (Memmot *et al.*, 2004; Fortuna and Bascompte,
8 2006; Dormann *et al.*, 2009).

9

10 Understanding the topology of ecological networks is fundamental when interpreting
11 community and ecosystem responses to global change (Fortuna *et al.*, 2010), and there is
12 growing recognition of network structure, such as the distribution of strong and weak links
13 and the presence of compartments or modules (Ings *et al.*, 2009). Modularity is a ubiquitous
14 and important structural property of ecological networks which describes the relationship
15 between interacting species and gives insights into the dynamics of ecological communities.
16 In modular networks subsets of species interact more frequently with each other than with
17 species in other modules (Newman, 2004; Olesen *et al.*, 2007).

18

19 The advent of sophisticated algorithms and indices for the analysis of quantitative networks
20 also allows for comparisons of network-wide specialisation and modularity among
21 communities with differing species richness (Dormann and Strauss, 2014; Schleuning *et al.*,
22 2014; Martín González *et al.*, 2015). In addition to comparisons of modularity among entire
23 communities, each species can be classified into different functional roles according to their
24 position within and among modules (Olesen *et al.*, 2007; Martín González *et al.*, 2012). For
25 instance, module hubs are highly connected generalist species linked to many species within
26 their own module, while connectors are species linking several modules. Network hubs are

1 generalist species, acting as both connectors and module hubs, and are thus important to the
2 cohesiveness of both the network and its own module. Peripheral species are specialists, have
3 few links, and are linked almost exclusively to species within their module (Olesen *et al.*,
4 2007; Martín González *et al.*, 2012).

5

6 Modularity tends to prevail towards the tropics in areas of high contemporary precipitation
7 (Dalsgaard *et al.*, 2013; Schleuning *et al.*, 2014). Specialisation may also be expected in
8 species rich tropical communities, given that more feeding niches may become available and
9 inter-specific competition may increase (e.g. Dalsgaard *et al.*, 2011; but see Ollerton and
10 Cranmer, 2002; Schleuning *et al.*, 2012; Moles and Ollerton, 2016). However, although
11 modularity may be regarded as a sign of interaction specialisation, it does not necessarily
12 involve highly specific links but rather a discrete partition of interactions among species in
13 the network (Martín González *et al.*, 2015). Ecological processes thought to shape network
14 patterns and influence modularity include seasonal resource fluctuations, overlapping
15 phenological schedules in highly seasonal climates, high productivity and resource diversity
16 (Bosch *et al.*, 2009; Martín González *et al.*, 2012, 2015, Schleuning *et al.*, 2012, 2014), and
17 plant and animal traits (Donatti *et al.*, 2011).

18

19 In this study we use a new method to detect modularity and to describe species' roles across
20 nine valleys in the Peruvian Andes, investigating modularity, topological roles of species and
21 specialisation of plant-pollinator communities. Specifically we addressed the following
22 questions: (1) Network level traits: how are the regional plant-pollinator networks structured
23 in terms of interaction specialisation and modularity? (2) Species level traits: which species
24 have important topological roles in the networks (i.e. network and module hubs), does their
25 position change across valleys, and are there similarities in module composition of
26 widespread species among valleys?

1 (3) Dominant species: do widespread plant and pollinator species share similar traits, and is
2 there evidence of taxonomic and functional clustering across valleys? (4) Generalists and
3 specialists: are network hubs generalist, widespread species and do peripheral species such as
4 hummingbirds tend to be more specialised? Are species consistently generalised or
5 specialised across valleys?

6

7 MATERIALS AND METHODS

8 *Study sites, sampling design and species traits*

9 The Vilcanota Highlands of southeastern Perú contain a unique flora and fauna with high
10 levels of diversity and endemism (Wege and Long, 1995; Stattersfield *et al.*, 1998). A ten year
11 study of the flora of this region in several ecosystems and life zones (2700m -4900m),
12 revealed 145 plant families, 450 genera and 871 species (Tuypayachi, 2005). Despite being a
13 biodiversity hotspot, no previous work has examined plant-pollinator networks in the region.
14 Fieldwork was carried out in nine valleys of the Sacred Valley of the Incas, this region lies
15 60km north of the city of Cusco. These valleys differ in their development from valley floor
16 to snow level in terms of river volume, amplitude, width and human occupation. Therefore
17 the life zones are not uniform (Tuypayachi, 2005). Surveys were conducted between the
18 villages of Pisac, Ollantaytambo and Chillca, in the provinces of Calca and Urubamba,
19 Department of Cusco. The study sites spanned an area of ca. 60km in length along the
20 Urubamba river, from Huaran to the eastern limits of the Historical Sanctuary of Machu
21 Picchu at Piscacucho, situated between (13° 13'S, 72° 2'W and 13° 12'42' S, 72° 21' 41 W).
22 The vegetation is dominated by deciduous shrubs, abundant annual herbs, small trees, spiny
23 shrubs and stunted Elfin forest. The canopy is generally not tall and is mostly present in
24 subtropical humid montane, comprising of approximately 10% of the vegetation. *Alnus*
25 *acuminata* (Betulaceae) has a restricted distribution, surviving only as a few individuals
26 strewn in steep ravines and along water courses. *Passiflora* grow in *Alnus* stands but was too

1 high up to include in surveys. *Myrcianthes oreophylla* (Myrtaceae) and *Escallonia resinosa*
2 (Grossulariaceae) trees are small enough to survey at head height. *Eucalyptus* plantations
3 were not present in transects and only the understory of *Polylepis* (Rosaceae) forests was
4 surveyed given that *Polylepis* is a wind pollinated species. Anthropogenic pressures include
5 livestock farming, agriculture, overgrazing, wide-spread planting of *Eucalyptus* and pine and
6 the extraction of *Polylepis* wood by rural communities. A total of 390 honey bee hives are
7 owned within the Sacred Valley, with an average of ten hives per keeper (The Association of
8 Beekeepers, Urubamba, Department of Cusco, pers. comm.).

9

10 *Transects*

11 In each of the nine valleys we established ten transects covering a total altitudinal range of
12 1150 m. Each transect was subdivided at each altitude into two 500 x 3m sampling areas,
13 running parallel either side of established trails and were marked with ten points at intervals
14 of 50m. The topography of the mountain chain dictated where transects started and finished,
15 and whether they were orientated horizontally across or vertically up the valleys. A total of
16 90 transects were surveyed once during the dry season, between April and October 2002 at
17 five different altitudes and across different life zones (as defined by Holdridge, 1967)
18 (Fig.1). Sampling effort focused on one valley at a time, rather than spreading the effort
19 across all sites due to the logistical constraints encountered covering such a large sampling
20 area. The order in which each transect was walked in each of the valleys was determined
21 using random numbers (1-5), so that the timing of the transect surveys across valleys and
22 elevations minimised biasing the results. Transects correspond approximately to the
23 following life zones: subtropical montane thorn steppe (2700-3200 m; sampled between 3147
24 and 3235 m), subtropical montane dry forest (3000-3400 m, sampled 3351-3424 m),
25 subtropical humid montane forest (3500-3800 m, sampled at 3653-3746 m) and *Polylepis*
26 forests (the majority of the ca. 30 species are classified as vulnerable (IUCN, 2010) (3700-

1 4200 m, sampled at 3846-4003 m) (see Fig. 2 for plants and habitats). Surveys were
2 undertaken between 08:00-17:00 h mostly under favourable conditions for a total of 90 h.
3 Two observers slowly walked each 500 m transect belt (one surveying the left side of the
4 trail and the other surveying the right side) for 60 minutes, recording only those visitors that
5 while foraging for pollen and/or nectar made contact with either anthers or stigmas, i.e.
6 potential pollinators. Those insects that could not be identified in the field were captured and
7 deposited individually into labelled vials for later identification or assignment to
8 morphospecies. Most bee and syrphid fly species were identified to species or genus; other
9 groups were usually identified to family and assigned to morphospecies categories.
10 Functional taxonomic groups of flower visitors (sensu Fenster *et al.*, 2004; Ollerton *et al.*,
11 2007) were identified as follows: Diptera were divided as Syrphidae, Tachinidae, and all
12 other Diptera. Hymenoptera were divided as all other solitary bees, *Bombus* spp., Vespidae
13 and *Apis*. Voucher specimens of insects and plants are retained at the University of San
14 Antonio Abad, Cusco, Perú. Hummingbirds were identified in the field using the field guide
15 *Birds of the High Andes* (Fjeldså and Krabbe, 1990).
16 Body length for 5-10 insects captured on flowers was measured representing the main
17 functional groups (see Table 5). Measurements of hummingbirds' bills were taken from mist-
18 net data collected in the field and from the literature. Corolla length for 10-20 flowers of each
19 plant species was measured from the base of the calyx to the flower aperture using a digital
20 calliper in the field. Plant species were identified using (Gentry, 1996) and with help from the
21 staff from the Herbario Vargas, Universidad Nacional de San Antonio Abad del Cusco, Perú.
22 Plants were assigned to floral traits and nectar was assessed following Ollerton and Watts
23 (2000).

24

25

1 *Data analysis*

2 Data represent interaction frequency matrices for nine valleys. Cell values indicate the
3 frequency of interaction between species pairs, and cells with zeros indicate no interaction.
4 For each of the nine valleys, matrices of interaction between P plant and A pollinator species
5 were created by pooling data across the altitudinal gradient (1-5) then each matrix was
6 analysed separately. Additionally, we constructed the following two matrices: (1) Full matrix:
7 a single plant-pollinator ($A \times P$) network pooling all the data from nine valleys across the
8 altitudinal gradient (110 plant and 143 pollinator species), (2) Reduced matrix: a single plant-
9 pollinator ($A \times P$) matrix (same as 1) but which excluded species with fewer than two
10 interactions in at least two valleys. This exclusion reduced the total number of species to 26
11 plants and 39 pollinators. We used the R-package bipartite 2.03 (Dormann *et al.*, 2009) to
12 calculate all network indices. At the network level, we calculated complementary
13 specialisation H_2' and quantitative modularity (QuanBiMo: Dormann and Strauss, 2014). At
14 the species level we used five measures to quantify specialisation (species degree, weighted
15 closeness, species strength, pollination service (PSI), and complimentary specialisation d').
16 We then focused on three widespread abundant species across valleys: the honey bee (*Apis*
17 *mellifera*; Apidae), a bumblebee (*Bombus funebris*; Apidae) and the hummingbird
18 (*Aglaeactis cupripennis*; Trochilidae) to illustrate how the indices reflect the actual degree of
19 specialisation (niche partitioning between species), by contrasting observed visitations with
20 expectations from a null model. These three species were selected because they were present
21 in most valleys and at many altitudes so the sample sizes were sufficient. The measures of
22 specialisation chosen are suitable for comparisons across networks (Dormann, 2011). We
23 chose these particular species because *Apis mellifera* is an introduced species reported in the
24 literature to be a super generalist and hence likely to have a strong impact on network
25 structure (Dupont *et al.*, 2003). Similarly, some *Bombus* spp. are reported as generalists (see

1 Dormann, 2011) and hummingbirds are predicted as specialists (Sonne *et al.*, 2016). Thus,
2 this presented an excellent opportunity to compare these predictions with our data. All
3 statistical analyses were performed using R, version 3.1.0 (R Development Core Team,
4 2014). All means are \pm SD and medians are indicated as required.

5

6 *Network-level metrics*

7 **Quantitative modularity (QuanBiMo)** (Dormann and Strauss, 2014) computes modules in
8 weighted, bipartite networks. This algorithm follows the approach of Clauset *et al.*, (2008)
9 based on a hierarchical representation of interaction frequencies and optimal allocation of
10 species into modules. A module is defined by species having more interactions within the
11 module than among modules, thus modularity is the result of some degree of specialisation in
12 species interactions (Martín González *et al.*, 2015). Modularity Q ranges from 0 for randomly
13 configured networks to 1 for networks composed of perfect modules. We searched for the
14 best organisation of each network into modules in the best of five independent runs of the
15 QuanBiMo algorithm following Schleuning *et al.*, (2014). If no further improvement was
16 recorded after 10^8 swaps, the run was terminated and the result interpreted as the optimum.
17 QuanBiMo can be invoked recursively, searching for modules within modules (see Dormann
18 and Strauss, 2014). Thus, to identify nested module structure at the highest level, we
19 performed a separate modularity analysis focusing on hummingbirds using 10^6 steps. To
20 determine whether hummingbirds and their plants were consistently ascribed to the same
21 modules, we checked module identity by repeating the analysis 50 times and recorded the
22 distribution of plants and hummingbirds across modules each time, following Gómez *et al.*,
23 (2013). To account for Q 's dependence on network size and sampling intensity (Dormann
24 and Strauss, 2014) absolute values were corrected using null models based on the random
25 placement of interactions observing the same marginal totals (Patefield, 1981). Corrected

1 modularity Q was calculated as the difference between the value of the empirical network and
2 the mean value obtained from 100 null models for QuanBiMo (Schleuning *et al.*, 2014;
3 Martín González *et al.*, 2015).

4
5 To identify species with importance for modularity, c - and z - values were calculated for all
6 species based on the number of links, where c refers to the even distribution of links within
7 and across modules and z refers to the number of within-module interactions (Guimerà *et al.*,
8 2005). Critical c and z values proposed by Olesen *et al.*, (2007) were defined for binary
9 networks and we thus adapted their approach by calculating weighted versions of z and c
10 using species strength instead of species degree (*sensu* Bascompte *et al.*, 2006). To
11 objectively define thresholds we ran 100 null models for original networks and employed
12 95% quantiles as critical c - and z -values.

13
14 **Complementary specialization H_2'** (Blüthgen *et al.*, 2006) is a network level index which
15 measures the degree of complementary specialisation (or exclusiveness) of the interactions at
16 the level of the entire matrix. Specifically, it quantifies the deviation of observed interactions
17 from those expected given the species' abundances or interaction frequencies (measured as
18 species' marginal totals), so that the more exclusive the interactions, the larger is the H_2' value
19 for the web. Complimentary specialisation H_2' ranges from 0 for the most generalised
20 networks to 1 for a completely specialised network. As H_2' accounts for variability in the
21 species' total observation frequencies it can be used directly to make cross-network
22 comparisons despite variation in total frequencies among communities (Blüthgen, 2010).

23
24
25
26

1 *Species-level indices*

2 **Species' Degree (qualitative measure)** (Jordano *et al.*, 2003) is the number of species to
3 which a species is linked. Degree is calculated based on a binary interaction matrix and thus
4 describes specialisation in a qualitative way. Specialists have lower degree than generalists.

5

6 **Complimentary Specialisation d'** (Blüthgen *et al.*, 2006) is a species-level specialisation
7 index related to complimentary H_2' which estimates the complementarity of interactions
8 based on the standardised Kullback-Lieber divergence (= relative entropy). As H_2' for the
9 entire web, the complimentary d' index determines the extent to which the interaction
10 specialization of a focal species may differ from null-model expectations in which species
11 interact with partners in proportion to their availability, again measured as species' marginal
12 totals (Blüthgen *et al.*, 2006). It ranges from 0 (no specialisation) and 1 (perfect
13 specialisation).

14

15 **Species Strength** (Bascompte *et al.*, 2006). The strength of a species is defined as the sum of
16 dependences of the plants relying on an animal or the animals relying on a plant. It is a
17 measure of the importance of this animal from the perspective of the plant set and vice versa.

18 This measure is a quantitative extension of the species degree, which is the number of
19 interactions per species in qualitative networks (Jordano *et al.*, 2003). The higher the value,
20 the more generalised e.g. a plant species is, because more pollinator species depend on it (and
21 vice versa).

22

23 **Pollination Service Index (PSI)** (Dormann, 2011) estimates the importance of a pollinator
24 for all plant species; is hence an extension of the idea of species strength. Put simply, it
25 measures the probability that *intraspecific* pollen is transferred to plant species i . This
26 depends both on the proportion of visits a pollinator pays to species i and on the number of

1 pollinators that visit i . For PSI , importance of a pairwise interaction (for the plant) is
2 calculated as: ‘dependence’ i on j multiplied by per visit efficiency i visited by j , where per
3 visit efficiency i visited by $j = (\text{average proportion visits to } i \text{ by } j \text{ in all visits by } j) ^\beta$. It
4 assumes that the order of plant species visited is random (no mixing, no constancy). To
5 account for that not being true, β could be adjusted. We envisage a penalty for the fact that a
6 pollinator has to make two (more or less successive) visits to the same plant species: the first
7 to take the pollen up, the second to pollinate the next. Thus, using $\beta=2$ as an exponent in step
8 1 would simulate that a pollinator deposits all pollen at every visit. In a sense, $\beta=2$ represents
9 a complete turnover of pollen on the pollinator from one visit to the next; only the pollen of
10 the last-visited species is transferred. That is certainly a very strong penalisation. At present
11 we set the exponent to $\beta=1$, because the step of controlling for “pollen purity” is already a
12 major improvement. It assumes, implicitly, that pollen is perfectly mixed on the pollinator
13 and hence pollen deposited directly proportional to frequency of visits to the different plants.
14 Also, the extent to which pollen gets mixed and/or lost during foraging flights is unknown,
15 and hence the true exponent remains elusive. For a value of $\beta = 0$, PSI simplifies (and is
16 equal) to species strength. At its maximum, $PSI = 1$, it shows that all pollen is delivered to
17 one plant species that completely depends on the monolectic pollinator. At its minimum, PSI
18 $= 0$, it indicates that a pollinator is irrelevant to all plant species. To any of the target species:
19 accounting for the proportion of pollen actually delivered (due to floral constancy,
20 irreversible pollen compaction, pollen viability, etc.) by a modifying exponent, beta. A value
21 of 1 (the default) makes pollen deposition proportional to the number of same-species visits,
22 while a value of 2 would require the pollinator to have come from the same species the exact
23 previous visit. We acknowledge that species will differ substantially in their beta-value, and
24 at present use PSI largely as an index of pollen-purity-at-visit.

25

1 **Weighted closeness centrality** measures the proximity of a node to all other nodes in the
2 network (Freeman, 1979) based on path lengths to other nodes, and has been proposed as
3 measure of generalisation in pollination networks by Martín González *et al.*, (2010) as it
4 measures the connectivity of the entire community. Thus, for each individual species we
5 measure its connectivity to all other species in the community and then average all the
6 individual connectivities in order to obtain a value that describes the entire community.
7 Weighted closeness centrality (Opsahl *et al.*, 2010) calculates closeness, but based on
8 weighted representation of the network. Low closeness scores indicate specialisation and high
9 closeness scores indicate nodes (pollinators) are more “central”, e.g. closer to all other
10 species in the network.

11

12 As raw values for network indices may be affected by species frequencies and sampling
13 intensities, network metrics were compared with an appropriate null model. We generated
14 1000 null models using the Patefield algorithm (Patefield, 1981) (method *r2d* implemented in
15 the bipartite package of R), which generates null models with marginal totals identical to
16 those of the observed matrix (see Blüthgen *et al.*, 2008; Dormann *et al.*, 2009). This null
17 model redistributes interaction events among all the cells in the network randomly, while
18 constraining the total number of interactions per species. It assumes that species interact
19 randomly, without constraining the degree of specialisation in a network.

20

21 Following Ollerton *et al.*, (2007) we categorised the plants according to their level of
22 functional and ecological specialisation/generalisation. “Functional” refers to the number of
23 functional groups (often higher taxonomic groups such as family) of pollinators which
24 service a plant. “Ecological” refers to the species richness of pollinators. Clearly for both of
25 these categories there is a continuum between specialisation and generalisation: for the
26 purposes of this analysis we define a functional specialist as one that is pollinated by only a

1 single higher taxon (e.g. Trochilidae or Apidae); a strict ecological specialist is one that is
2 pollinated by a single animal species.

3

4 RESULTS

5 A total of 1583 flower visits to 110 plant species from 143 animal species and morphospecies
6 were recorded across all 9 valleys (Table 1). When pooled across all sites we observed a total
7 of 719 species-species links. Thirty-three plant families were recorded, of which Asteraceae
8 (43 species) was the most frequently visited family, receiving 65% of total visits, followed by
9 Lamiaceae (10%) and Myrtaceae (6%). The highest diversity of flower visitors was on the
10 dioecious flowers of *Baccharis*, receiving 29% of all visits by a total of 73 pollinator species.
11 The most frequent flower visitors belonged to the orders Diptera (48%), Hymenoptera (33%),
12 Coleoptera (8%), Trochilidae (6%) and Lepidoptera (5%). *Apis mellifera* dominated the bee
13 fauna (26%) while Vespidae comprised less than 1% (see Tables S3 and S4 in Supplementary
14 Data for a full species list of plants and pollinators).

15

16 *Network complimentary specialisation (H_2') and modularity (Q)*

17 All networks were significantly different from null models ($P < 0.0001$) (Supplementary Data
18 Fig. S1), most of them being also moderately specialised (mean $H_2' = 0.39 \pm 0.10$). Huaran
19 was the most specialised site ($H_2' = 0.58$). All networks were more modular than expected
20 from null models and showed very low variability in Q among runs (Table 2). Q was
21 positively correlated with the number of modules detected at each site (Pearson's correlation:
22 $t = 2.83$; $r = 0.53$; $P = 0.02$). Q was negatively correlated with honey bee abundances across
23 sites (Pearson's correlation: $t = -2.90$; $r = -0.73$; $P = 0.02$) but not with H_2' (Pearson's
24 correlation: $t = -0.73$; $r = 0.26$; $P = 0.48$). Q and H_2' index values for the reduced matrix were
25 similar to the other nine networks, suggesting that deleting species with fewer than two
26 interactions in at least two valleys had little effect on index values (Table 2).

1 *The role of individual species and functional groups in the network structure*

2 The roles of functional groups and plant families in network structure across valleys are
3 presented in Table 3. Hymenopterans and plants from the family Asteraceae played the most
4 important topological roles (i.e. were network hubs, module hubs and connectors) across
5 networks. The majority of species were peripheral (83%), with most of their links within their
6 own module (Table 3, Figs. 3 and 4). Species strength was positively related to weighted
7 measures of c and z values, particularly z values (z values: $r = 0.48$, $P < 0.000001$; c values:
8 $r = 0.05$, $P < 0.00001$). Thus species with high species strength have many interactions within
9 their own module. By contrast, c values, where c refers to the even distribution of links
10 within and across modules, although significant, the correlation was very weak. Only 29
11 pollinator species (20%) and 19 plant species (17%) exceeded the threshold for c -values and
12 z -values to be considered hubs or connectors. The strongest network and module hubs were
13 *Baccharis* plants, *Apis mellifera*, *Bombus funebris*, and Diptera spp.; the most ubiquitous and
14 abundant species with the longest phenologies, found at all altitudes, present in most valleys
15 and covering several life zones (Supplementary Data Tables S1, S2, S3 and S4). Just three
16 plants, *Baccharis salicifolia*, *Baccharis buxifolia* and *Jungia rugosa* (Asteraceae) and two
17 flower visitors, the honey bee *Apis mellifera* and Syrphidae sp.2 exceeded both thresholds in
18 eight valleys, and were thus network hubs (Supplementary Data Tables S1 and S2).
19 Connectors were both plant and insect/bird species in approximately equal proportions.
20 Introduced honey bees were hubs in 60% of networks, or acted as module hubs, i.e. species
21 with many interactions within their own module (low c , high z), or connector species, i.e.
22 linking several modules (high c , low z) in the remaining networks (see Supplementary Data
23 Table S1). The bumblebee *Bombus funebris* was a module hub and connector in two
24 networks. Syrphids (Diptera) were consistently connectors, while Lepidoptera, Coleoptera
25 and Trochilidae were mostly peripheral. These functional groups had c and z values close to
26 zero and were specialists, i.e., they had only a few links and almost always only to species

1 within their module. Lepidoptera, Coleoptera and Trochilidae were observed quite frequently
2 across most valleys and at most altitudes (Table 1, Supplementary Data Table S4). Across
3 networks, the majority of interactions aggregated around two hub and two plant connector
4 species belonging to the family Asteraceae (78%) (Fig. 4 and Supplementary Data Table S2,
5 S3 and Figs S6 and S7). As with pollinators, plants changed roles across networks.

6

7 *Module composition*

8 A total of 69 modules were detected when summing the number of modules recorded in each
9 of the nine valleys (see Table 2). Seventy percent of all those modules contained Diptera and
10 26% of all modules were isolated species groups without any links to the remaining network
11 (z values = 0); of those, more than a quarter were hummingbirds (see Figs 3 and 4).

12 Complementary specialisation d' for hummingbirds was significantly higher than all other
13 functional groups of flower visitors (Wilcoxon signed rank test with continuity correction $v =$
14 50, $P < 0.01$) (Fig. 5A). Likewise, corolla length of flowers visited by hummingbirds was
15 significantly longer than flowers visited by all other functional groups of flower visitors
16 (Wilcoxon signed rank test with continuity correction $v = 273.5$, $P < 0.0001$) (Fig. 5B). Seven
17 modules were exclusively represented by hummingbird species and the plant species they
18 interacted with across valleys. The module identity of hummingbirds and plants was 100%
19 consistent when the analysis was repeated across 50 independent algorithm runs (i.e. for each
20 matrix, the same plants and hummingbirds were always members of the same module)

21 (Table 4, Fig. 4 and Supplementary Data Fig. S7). Taxonomic and functional clustering in
22 module composition was evident across sites. Modules consistently formed around similar
23 hub plant and pollinator species mostly at the level of orders, but in some cases at the level of
24 genus. Sets of interacting species which were repeatedly associated across valleys include the
25 hummingbird *Aglaeactis cupripennis* which interacted with *Barnadesia horrida* (Asteraceae)
26 in the same modules 75% of the time. *Apis mellifera*, which interacted in the same modules

1 with *B. buxifolia* and *Minthostachys spicata* (Lamiaceae) in 80% of cases, and in the same
2 modules as *Myrsianthes oreophila* (Myrtaceae) in 67% of cases. *Bombus melaleucus*
3 (Apidae), which interacted in the same modules with *Escallonia resinosa* (Grossulariaceae)
4 75% of the time (see Table 4, Fig. 4 and Supplementary Data Figs S6 and S7).

5

6 *Morphological traits*

7 The relevant morphological traits of plant families and functional groups of pollinators are
8 presented in Table 5. There was significant variation among groups for the median number of
9 pollinator species visiting flowers with different morphologies ($\chi^2= 7.841$, $P < 0.05$) with up
10 to 57 species visiting plants with open tube morphology. However, a Bonferroni adjustment
11 for the six comparisons rendered this finding non-significant (Fig. 6). Thus, bowl shaped
12 flowers or flowers with tubular, flag or gullet shaped corollas were not visited by
13 significantly more species than flowers with open access tubular flowers. Hub, connector and
14 peripheral insect flower visitors had short to medium mouthparts allowing easy access to both
15 pollen and nectar to a wide range of corolla lengths. Peripheral, hub and connector
16 hummingbirds had short to long bills (Table 4), which together with tongue maximal
17 extension beyond bill tip (Watts *et al.*, 2012) allowed legitimate and non-legitimate access to
18 nectar from a wide range of corolla tube lengths (6 to >100 mm) (Fig. 5B). The majority of
19 hub and connector plants (*Baccharis*, *Ageratina*, *Aristeguietia*, and *Jungia*) have numerous
20 open tube flowers characterised by a head of small ray and disc flowers 5–10mm in length.
21 The stamens and pistels are exposed, which allows easy access to pollen, while the corolla
22 tubes are short enough to allow access to the small amounts of nectar contained at the base.
23 The remaining connectors had small white tubular flowers (5-6 mm), or open dish or open
24 bowl flowers which permitted easy access to the reward for a wide variety of flower visitors
25 (see Table 5, Fig. 2B for *B. salicifolia* and Supplementary Data Table S2 for hub and
26 connector plant species).

1 *Specialisation indices and the role of individual species in the network structure*

2 Network and module hub pollinators were ranked highly when quantifying species degree,
3 species strength, weighted closeness and pollination service index (*PSI*) (Supplementary Data
4 Tables S1 and S2). The strongest network and module hubs were the most centralised
5 participants in the networks (high ranking weighted closeness values indicating
6 generalisation). However, complimentary specialisation d' quantified network hubs, module
7 hubs and connectors as moderately specialised: $d'_{flw. visitors} = 0.42 \pm 0.18$; $d'_{plants} = 0.43 \pm$
8 0.16). Thus, in some cases, although network hubs such as *Sciaria* sp.4 yielded high species
9 degree and weighted closeness values (high generalisation), when measuring specialisation in
10 terms of exclusiveness of interactions complimentary specialisation d' indicated a significant
11 amount of specialisation (see Table S1). The *PSI* index also yielded relatively high values
12 and rankings suggesting that network hubs and modules hubs were potentially important
13 pollinators for the plant in the networks. Similarly, the same high rankings were also found
14 for network and module hub plants when calculating specialisation indices (Supplementary
15 Data Table S2). The strongest connector plant species (species linking several modules) also
16 yielded high rankings for specialisation indices and were the most centralised participants in
17 the networks (*Jungia rugosa* at Poques, *M. spicata* at Piscacucho and *M. oreophila* at
18 Mantanay). The remaining connector species were still relatively central in the networks, but
19 specialisation indices values and their rankings were lower than for hub species
20 (Supplementary Data Tables S1 and S2). Both plant and pollinator network hubs and module
21 hubs were some of the most abundant in terms of visitation and their presence in transects.

22

23

24 Hubs and connectors were generally more abundant and widespread than peripherals, but not
25 always (Supplementary Data Tables S3 and S4). In some valleys, honey bees were
26 peripherals, but were ranked highest in terms of visitation (Table 1). Similarly, *B. salicifolia*
27 was the most visited plant in Pumamarca (46 visits), but was classified as a peripheral.

1 Hummingbird complimentary specialisation d' values indicated a relatively high level of
2 specialisation ($d'_{\text{flw. visitors}} = 0.61 \pm 0.23$; $d'_{\text{plants}} = 0.60 \pm 0.19$). In 95% of cases, $d'_{\text{flw. visitors}}$
3 values were significantly different from null models. Likewise, d'_{plants} also yielded high
4 values; in 74% of cases values were significantly different from null models (Table 4). At
5 Huaran, the most specialised hummingbird *Aglaeactis castelnaudii* interacted within its own
6 module with the most specialised plants, whereas the most generalised hummingbird
7 *Metallura tyrianthina* interacted with the most generalised plant *Aegiphila mortoni*
8 (Verbenaceae). At Chicon, module 2 included the addition of Diptera sp.11 and Hymenoptera
9 sp.5 visiting plants to collect pollen (Table 4, Supplementary Data Fig. S6).

10
11 A summary of observed species level specialisation index values for the most relevant
12 functional groups of pollinators are shown in Table S5 (Supplementary Data). Figures S2, S3
13 and S4 (Supplementary Data) show five specialisation indices and the position of the
14 observed values relative to the null models for three widespread abundant species across
15 valleys: *A. mellifera*, *B. funebris* and *A. cupripennis*. These represent random realisations of a
16 perfect generalist. Thus, when the observed value is within the histogram of null models,
17 species are classified as generalist. Honey bees were moderately specialised, but this was not
18 consistent across sites (i.e. Choquebamba and Poques, Supplementary Data Fig. S2). The
19 bumblebee *B. funebris* was the most generalist flower visitor; the observed values were
20 consistently within the histogram of null models across most valleys (Supplementary Data
21 Fig. S3). *Aglaeactis cupripennis* was the most specialised; the observed values were
22 consistently on one side of the histogram, indicating consistent specialisation across valleys
23 (Supplementary Data Fig. S4). The indices and null model correction can be used to further
24 highlight these irregularities. The raw data, the difference between observed and mean null
25 model values, and z-scores for five specialisation indices (degree, strength, *PSI*, weighted
26 centrality and complimentary specialisation d') are presented in Supplementary Data Fig. S5).

1 The inconsistency for honeybees is reflected in the height of the summary box plots, for
2 which d' is very small for *B. funebris* (always a generalist) and considerably larger for
3 *A. mellifera* (sometimes a generalist, sometimes a specialist).

4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25

1 DISSCUSSION

2 In this work we investigated modularity, topological roles of species and specialisation of
3 plant-flower visitor networks in the tropical Peruvian Andes. Our results showed that all
4 plant-pollinator networks were highly structured, deviating significantly from random species
5 associations. For the network-wide complimentary specialisation index H_2' , null models
6 were unable to capture the observed structure of networks, suggesting a network property
7 inexplicable merely from species abundances. Plant-flower visitor networks, especially those
8 containing hummingbirds, showed moderate to high levels of specialisation (or exclusiveness
9 of interactions) and modularity. Modularity was higher in networks where *A. mellifera*
10 numbers were generally lower, suggesting that in some sites subsets of species interact more
11 frequently with each other than with species in other modules where honey bees are less
12 dominant. All networks were significantly modular, regardless of size, which contrasts with
13 reports that networks with < 50 species were never modular (Olesen *et al.*, 2007). This
14 incongruence may result from a lack of detecting power of the algorithm used by previous
15 studies at low network sizes (e.g. Guimerà *et al.*, 2005; Olesen *et al.*, 2007). On the other
16 hand, the new QuanBiMo algorithm is more sensitive and also more specific than current
17 binary algorithms (Dormann and Strauss, 2014).

18

19 On average, modularity in the nine valleys was neither high nor low and networks were only
20 moderately specialised. Observed modules represent communities of pollinators and plants
21 which were active in the same season. The networks were dominated by ecologically and
22 functionally generalist plant species which are closely related taxonomically (e.g. *Baccharis*,
23 *Ageratina* and *Aristeguietia*) with similar morphology and rewards. These plants exhibited
24 high plasticity by changing their topological roles across sites and serving as either network
25 hubs in some valleys, or switching to module hubs or connectors in other valleys
26 (Supplementary Data Table S2). Thus, our networks were structured mainly by hubs and

1 connector plants and pollinators which were functionally and ecologically equivalent.
2 Asteraceae plant hubs were ubiquitous and abundant in most valleys; they flowered
3 throughout the season and were present at each altitude and most life zones. A similar pattern
4 was also evident for the dominant pollinators such as *A. mellifera*, Syrphid sp.2, *Sciaria* sp.4
5 (Diptera) and *B. funebris*. Such pollinators have the ability to “fill the gap” by changing
6 topological roles, for example, where honey bees were less common (Pumamarca),
7 bumblebees replaced them as module hubs. The weighted modularity analysis (which
8 accounts for sampling bias with null-model corrections) also showed that modules were
9 comprised of both plant hubs and flower visitor hubs, with more insects and hummingbirds
10 than plants acting as hub or connector species. This is in contrast with other studies (Dupont
11 and Olesen, 2008), where no insect species served as hubs and the majority of connectors
12 were insects, or where all hubs were plant species (Bosch *et al.*, 2009). Only 48 (19%) of all
13 species played a significant role in shaping network structure, while the majority of species
14 were peripheral, in line with other studies (Olesen *et al.*, 2007; but see Bosch *et al.*, 2009). In
15 each network, plant, insect and hummingbird species served as connectors in equal
16 proportions, suggesting they play an important role in linking different modules or by gluing
17 peripheral species together into modules. Across networks, most modules were dominated by
18 dipterans and social bees, particularly introduced honey bees. Taxonomic and functional
19 clustering was also evident across sites, with some plant species and functional groups of
20 flower visitors repeatedly associated. This further supports the conclusion that the topology
21 of networks is non-random and highly organised.

22

23 The networks in the Sacred Valley were dominated by open-access flowers, which were
24 visited by many small to medium sized insects, with few morphological restrictions for the
25 insects to access the reward. This is in accord with findings of Kaiser-Bunbury *et al.*, (2014),
26 who also reported that flowers with a low complexity showed weak constraints in floral

1 resource accessibility and interacted with most pollinator species. Moreover, some
2 hummingbirds, bees and syrphids were still able to access such flowers by robbing nectar and
3 pollen. The highest diversity of flower visitors was on the dioecious flowers of *Baccharis*,
4 which is not surprising given that the genus has the richest galling fauna of the neotropics
5 (Boldt and Robbins, 1990), and the highest diversity of visiting flies (Souza-Silva *et al.*,
6 2001). The abundance of dipterans on *Baccharis* plants may not only signify the importance
7 of the flowers in their diet, but also their importance as potential pollinators, and hence play
8 an important role in ecosystem function (Souza-Silva *et al.*, 2001). This suggests that species
9 strength and specific dietary requirements of functional groups, influences module structure
10 in the Sacred Valley. Our networks were dominated by ecological and functional generalist
11 plants, which were probably pollinated by whatever flower visitors were a suitable size and
12 shape, and had appropriate behaviour.

13

14 Earlier binary modularity studies which implied that network hubs, module hubs and
15 connectors are generalist species (e.g. Olesen *et al.*, 2007) did not evaluate this using
16 quantitative specialisation indices and null models. This study is one of the few to measure
17 the level of specialisation for individual species with important topological roles within and
18 across networks using quantitative data. We found that the strongest network hubs, module
19 hubs and connectors were the most centralised participants in the networks and were ranked
20 highest when quantifying specialisation across the five different (species level) specialisation
21 indices. Moreover, many of these species were consistently the most centralised participants
22 across networks, suggesting a high level of generalisation. Both plant and pollinator network
23 hubs and module hubs were also the most abundant in terms of visitation and presence in
24 transects. In contrast though, network hubs, module hubs and connectors all showed a
25 moderate degree of specialisation (or exclusiveness) when measuring specialisation using
26 complimentary specialization index d' , and a few species were highly specialised. This

1 finding is in contrast with Olesen *et al.*, (2007) who found that network hubs and connectors
2 (i.e. species with both high c and z scores) were super-generalists. These differences are
3 likely to be attributed to the SA algorithm (see Guimerà *et al.*, 2005; Olesen *et al.*, 2007)
4 which analyses each trophic level separately and to the fact that in Olesen *et al.*'s study
5 interactions are binary whereas in our study we use interaction strength. Finally, species
6 strength is closely related to species abundance (Bascompte and Jordano, 2007) and was
7 positively related to weighted measures of within-module degree. This suggests that species
8 strength and factors relating to abundance were the main determinants of the modular
9 structure of plant-pollinator networks, in concordance with Schleuning *et al.*, (2014). In
10 contrast, the relationship between species strength and the even distribution of links across
11 modules, although significantly positive, was weak suggesting that links are not uniformly
12 distributed among all of the communities.

13

14 In the Sacred valley, specialisation varied along a continuum between moderate
15 generalisation to moderate specialisation, concurrent with other work (Waser *et al.*, 1996;
16 Johnson and Steiner, 2000). One interesting finding was how much the specialisation of some
17 species changed across sites, and how constant it remained in other species, a trend also
18 evident in terms of the topological roles of plants and flower visitors. Across all seven sites
19 where present, *B. funebris* was consistently a generalist flower visitor, but served as hub,
20 connector or peripheral species. Degree is the number of plant links and is consistent with a
21 strict definition of specialisation, but it makes no use of the number of visits recorded for
22 each interaction. Surprisingly, although honey bees recorded the highest number of links and
23 visits of all flower visitors, when describing niche properties, they showed a moderate degree
24 of complementary specialisation (or exclusiveness of species interactions). These findings
25 underscore that specialisation indices convey different concepts of specialisation and hence
26 quantify different aspects (Dormann, 2011). Hummingbirds and the plants they visited had

1 the highest level of complimentary specialisation and exclusivity in modules (functional
2 specialist). At the same time, the majority of plants visited and probably pollinated by
3 hummingbirds (but see Watts *et al.*, 2012), were usually visited by several species of
4 hummingbirds and so in that sense could be considered as ecological generalists. Yet again,
5 this highlights that measuring specialisation requires careful consideration of what defines a
6 specialist (Ollerton *et al.*, 2007; Dormann, 2011).

7

8 The variability in specialisation described above could be attributed to any of a number of
9 factors including: a response of flower visitors to low plant diversity at some sites
10 (Schleuning *et al.*, 2012), community and geographical context of plant populations (Ollerton
11 *et al.*, 2007), spatio-temporal variation in pollinator abundance (Johnson and Steiner, 2000;
12 Watts *et al.*, 2013), variability in pollinator distribution and morphology (Newman *et al.*
13 2014), geographical phenotypic variation (Cosacov *et al.*, 2014), or variation in flower
14 visitors and floral and pollinator community composition (Kaiser-Bunbury *et al.*, 2014).
15 Finally, the changes in specialisation across sites could also be explained by flower visitors
16 switching to more rewarding plants throughout their activity periods.

17

18 A number of potential biases are important in to highlight. Since the pollinator assemblages
19 studied were taxonomically very different in life histories, nesting preferences and behaviour,
20 the transect census method undertaken may not have been appropriate to adequately
21 characterise some of the taxa, particularly solitary bees and hummingbirds. For example,
22 hummingbirds may have been under-represented in different samples because the
23 composition and the relative abundance of hummingbird species is likely to be affected by
24 their morphological-behavioural attributes, available resources, distributional/altitudinal
25 limits or habitat affinities of a particular bird species and gradients in local climate (Borgella
26 *et al.*, 2001). Furthermore hummingbirds were easily disturbed from foraging by observers

1 walking transects and did not tend to visit many plants within the sampling area, but instead
2 either remained on the periphery or in the canopy. However most parts of the valleys did not
3 have a high canopy, thus we estimate that approximately 10% of plant-hummingbird
4 interactions were missed from the canopy in subtropical humid montane forests. These plants
5 include *Passiflora* spp. which climbs up trees such as *Alnus*, *Duranta* spp., *Fuchsia* spp. and
6 *M. oreophila*.

7
8 Micro-climatic differences among these valleys and changes in weather along the altitudinal
9 gradient may have affected local distributions of butterfly species. Flower visiting beetles can
10 be inactive and infrequent visitors, whereas some small solitary bees are short-lived, have
11 short flight ranges and are not easily detected (Gathmann and Tschardtke, 2002). For future
12 work a number of alternative sampling designs might be incorporated in conjunction with the
13 transect method to eliminate some of the potential biases such as data aggregation, one of
14 which could have included fixed observation plots, which might also generate sufficient data
15 to avoid pooling data.

16
17 In conclusion, during a single season snapshot in time, we have demonstrated that the
18 topology of networks in this tropical montane environment was non-random and highly
19 organised. Although we acknowledge that some taxa may have been under-represented in
20 different samples and lacked sampling replication, the weighted modularity analysis (which
21 accounts for sampling bias with null-model corrections) showed some remarkable
22 consistency with many plant species and functional groups of flower visitors repeatedly
23 associated. We used six different specialisation indices to show that in the Sacred Valley,
24 specialisation varied along a continuum between moderate generalisation to moderate
25 specialisation. Our findings also underscore that specialisation indices convey different

1 concepts of specialisation and hence quantify different aspects, and that measuring
2 specialisation requires careful consideration of what defines a specialist.

3

4

5 SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

6 Supplementary data are available online at www.aob.oxfordjournals.org and consist of the
7 following. Figure S1: Histograms for H_2' values for the analysis of each network. Figure S2:
8 Histograms of observed and null model specialisation values of *Apis mellifera*, for the
9 analysis of specialisation shift. Figure S3: histograms of observed and null model
10 specialisation values of *Bombus funebris* for the analysis of specialisation shift. Figure S4:
11 histograms of observed and null model specialisation values of *Aglaeactis cupripennis* for the
12 analysis of specialisation shift. Figure S5: histograms showing specialisation index values
13 (species degree, species strength, Pollination Service Index (*PSI*), weighted centrality (WC)
14 and complimentary specialisation d') for *Bombus funebris*, *Apis mellifera* and *Aglaeactis*
15 *cupripennis*. Figure S6: Chicon featuring seven modules identified by QuanBiMo. Figure S7:
16 Mantabay featuring seven modules identified by QuanBiMo. Table S1: Connection (c) and
17 participation (z) values and complimentary specialisation d' for pollinators in 10 networks
18 based on weighted strength from 100 null models. Table S2: Connection (c) and participation
19 (z) values and complimentary specialisation d' for plants in 10 networks based on weighted
20 strength from 100 null models. Table S3: Full list of plant species surveyed in the Sacred
21 Valley. Table S4: Full list of pollinator species surveyed in the Sacred Valley. Table S5:
22 Summary of observed species level specialisation index values for the most relevant
23 functional groups of pollinators.

24

25

1 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

2 We thank Federico and Fatty Argandoña, Carmen Aparicio, Carlos Calvo, Rossemeri
3 Cuéllar, Rosa and Herbert Duran, Juan Flores, Marcela Moreno Herrera, David Huamàn
4 Ovalle, Ramon Ipanaque, Karin Nuñez, Berioska Quispe Estrada, Mireya Natividad Raurau
5 Quisiyupa, Javier Saldivar and Celia Zuñiga for field assistance; the staff from Universidad
6 Nacional de San Antonio Abad del Cusco, Perú; Permission to undertake fieldwork was
7 granted by the Director of the National Institute of Natural Resources (INRENA)—Permit
8 numbers: 008799 and 0001982. This research was self-funded by SW and by grants from The
9 British Ecological Society, Idea Wild, The Biodiversity Trust, The Anglo Peruvian Society
10 and The Leslie Church Bursary Fund of the University of Northampton.

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

1 LITERATURE CITED

- 2 **Bascompte J, Jordano P, Olesen JM. 2006.** Asymmetric coevolutionary networks facilitate
3 biodiversity maintenance. *Science* **312**: 431–433.
- 4 **Bascompte J, Jordano P. 2007.** Plant-animal mutualistic networks:
5 the architecture of biodiversity. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution and Systematics*
6 **38**:567-593.
- 7 **Blüthgen N. et al. 2006.** Measuring specialization in species interaction networks. *BMC*
8 *Ecology* **6**:9. doi: 10.1186/1472-6785-6-9.
- 9 **Blüthgen N, Fründ J, Vázquez DP, Menzel F. 2008.** What do interaction network metrics
10 tell us about specialization and biological traits? *Ecology* **89**: 3387–3399.
- 11 **Blüthgen N. 2010.** Why network analysis is often disconnected from community ecology: A
12 critique and an ecologist’s guide. *Basic Applied Ecology* **11**: 185–195.
- 13 **Boldt PE, Robbins TO. 1990.** Phytophagous and flower-visiting insect fauna of *Baccharis*
14 *salicifolia* (Asteraceae) in the southwestern United States and northern Mexico.
15 *Environmental Entomology* **19**: 515–523.
- 16 **Borgella R Jr., Snow AA, Gavin TA. 2001.** Species richness and pollen loads of
17 hummingbirds using forest fragments in southern Costa Rica. *Biotropica* **33**: 90–109.
- 18 **Bosch J, Martín González AM, Rodrigo A, Navarro D. 2009.** Plant–pollinator networks:
19 adding the pollinator’s perspective. *Ecology Letters* **12**: 409–419.
- 20 **Clauset A, Moore C, Newman MEJ. 2008.** Hierarchical structure and the prediction of
21 missing links in networks. *Nature* **453**: 98–101.
- 22 **Cosacov A, Cocucci AA, Sérsic AN. 2014.** Geographical differentiation in floral traits across
23 the distribution range of the Patagonian oil-secreting *Calceolaria polyrhiza*: do
24 pollinators matter? *Annals of Botany* **113**: 251-266.

- 1 **Dalsgaard B, Magård E, Fjeldså J, et al. 2011.** Specialization in plant-hummingbird
2 networks is associated with species richness, contemporary precipitation and
3 Quaternary climate-change velocity. *PLoS ONE* **6**: e25891.doi:
4 10.1371/journal.pone.0025891.
- 5 **Dalsgaard B, Trøjelsgaard K, Martín González AM, et al. 2013.** Historical climate-change
6 influences modularity and nestedness of pollination networks. *Ecography* **36**: 1331–
7 1340.
- 8 **Donatti CI, Guimaraes PR, Galetti M, Pizo MA, Marquitti FMD, Dirzo R. 2011.**
9 Analysis of a hyper-diverse seed dispersal network: modularity and underlying
10 mechanisms. *Ecology Letters* **14**: 773–781.
- 11 **Dormann CF, Fründ J, Blüthgen N, Gruber B. 2009.** Indices, graphs and null models:
12 analysing bipartite ecological networks. *The Open Ecology Journal* **2**: 7–24.
- 13 **Dormann CF. 2011.** How to be a specialist? Quantifying specialisation in pollination
14 networks. *Network Biology* **1**: 1–20.
- 15 **Dormann CF, Strauss R. 2014.** A method for detecting modules in quantitative bipartite
16 networks. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* **5**: 90–98.
- 17 **Dupont YL, Hansen DM, Olesen JM. 2003.** Structure of a plant–flower-visitor network in
18 the high-altitude sub-alpine desert of Tenerife, Canary Islands. *Ecography* **26**: 301-310.
- 19 **Dupont YL, Olesen J. 2008.** Ecological modules and roles of species in heathland plant–
20 insect flower visitor networks. *Journal of Animal Ecology* **78**: 346–353.
- 21 **Fenster CB, Armbruster WS, Wilson P, Dudash MR, Thomson JD, et al. 2004.**
22 Pollination syndromes and floral specialization. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution and*
23 *Systematics*. **35**: 375-403.
- 24 **Fjeldså J, Krabbe N. 1990.** *Birds of the high Andes*. Denmark: Apollo Books.
25
- 26 **Fortuna MA, Bascompte J. 2006.** Habitat loss and structure of plant-animal mutualistic
27 networks. *Ecology Letters* **9**: 281–286.

- 1 **Fortuna MA, Stouffer DB, Olesen JM, Jordano P, Mouillot D, Krasnov B, et al. 2010.**
2 Nestedness versus modularity in ecological networks: two sides of the same coin? *Journal*
3 *of Animal Ecology* **79**: 811–817.
- 4 **Freeman LC. 1979.** Centrality in social networks I: Conceptual clarification. *Social*
5 *Networks* **1**: 215–239.
- 6 **Gathmann A, Tschardt T. 2002.** Foraging ranges of solitary bees. *Journal of Animal*
7 *Ecology* **71**: 757-764.
- 8 **Gentry AH. 1996.** *A field guide to the families and genera of woody plants of northwest*
9 *South America (Colombia, Ecuador, Perú) with supplementary notes on herbaceous*
10 *taxa*, 2nd edn. Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press.
- 11 **Gómez JM, Muñoz-Pajares AJ, Abdelaziz M, Lorite J, Perfectti F. 2013.** Evolution of
12 pollination niches and floral divergence in the generalist plant *Erysimum*
13 *mediohispanicum*. *Annals of Botany* **113**: 237–249.
- 14 **Guimerà R, Mossa S, Turtschi A, Amaral LAN. 2005.** The worldwide air transportation
15 network: anomalous centrality, community structure, and cities global roles.
16 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science USA* **102**: 7794–7799.
- 17 **Holdridge LR. 1967.** *Life Zone Ecology*. Costa Rica: Tropical Science Centre.
- 18
- 19 **Ings TC, Montoya JM, Bascompte J, et al. 2009.** Ecological networks - beyond food webs.
20 *Journal of Animal Ecology* **78**: 253–269.
- 21 **IUCN, 2010.** IUCN red list of threatened species. Version 2010.1. [www.iucnredlist.org]
22 assessed 3 January 2016.
- 23 **Johnson SD, Steiner KE. 2000.** Generalization versus specialization in plant pollination
24 systems. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* **15**: 140–143.
- 25 **Jordano P, Bascompte J, Olesen JM. 2003.** Invariant properties in coevolutionary networks
26 of plant-animal interactions. *Ecology Letters* **6**: 69–81.

- 1 **Kaiser-Bunbury CN, Vázquez DP, Stang M, Ghazoul J. 2014.** Determinants of the
2 microstructure of plant-pollinator networks. *Ecology* **95**: 3314–3324.
- 3 **Klein AM, Vaissière BE, Cane JH, et al. 2007.** Importance of pollinators in changing
4 landscapes for world crops. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* **274**: 303–313.
- 5 **Martín González AM, Dalsgaard B, Olesen JM. 2010.** Centrality measures and the
6 importance of generalist species in pollination networks. *Ecological Complexity* **7**: 36–
7 43.
- 8 **Martín González AM, Allesina S, Rodrigo A, Bosch J. 2012.** Drivers of
9 compartmentalization in a Mediterranean pollination network. *Oikos* **121**: 2001–2013.
- 10 **Martín González AM, Dalsgaard B, Nogués-Bravo D, et al. 2015.** The macroecology of
11 phylogenetically structured hummingbird-plant networks. *Global Ecology and*
12 *Biogeography*. doi:10.1111/geb.12355.
- 13 **Memmott J, Waser NM, Price MV. 2004.** Tolerance of pollination networks to species
14 extinctions. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B* **271**: 2605–2611.
- 15 **Moles A, Ollerton J. 2016.** Is the notion that species interactions are stronger and more
16 specialized in the tropics a zombie idea? *Biotropica* **48**: 141–145.
- 17 **Newman MEJ. 2004.** Fast algorithm for detecting community structure in networks.
18 *Physical Review E* **69**: 066133.
- 19 **Newman E, Manning J, Anderson B. 2014.** Matching floral and pollinator traits through
20 guild convergence and pollinator ecotype formation. *Annals of Botany* **113**: 373–384.
- 21 **Olesen JM, Bascompte J, Dupont YL, Jordano P. 2007.** The modularity of pollination
22 networks. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science USA* **104**: 19891–19896.
- 23 **Ollerton J, Watts S. 2000.** Phenotype space and floral typology: towards an objective
24 assessment of pollination syndromes. *Det Norske Videnskaps-Akademi. I. Matematisk-*
25 *Naturvidenskapelige Klasse, Skrifter, Ny Serie* **39**: 149–159.

- 1 **Ollerton J, Cranmer L. 2002.** Latitudinal trends in plant-pollinator interactions: are tropical
2 plants more specialised? *Oikos* **98**: 340–350.
- 3 **Ollerton J, Killick A, Lamborn E, Watts S, Whitston M. 2007.** Multiple meanings and
4 modes: on the many ways to be a generalist flower. *Taxon* **56**: 717–728.
- 5 **Ollerton J, Winfree R, Tarrant S. 2011.** How many flowering plants are pollinated by
6 animals? *Oikos* **120**: 321–326.
- 7 **Opsahl T, Agneessens F, Skvoretz J. 2010.** Node centrality in weighted networks:
8 Generalizing degree and shortest paths. *Social Networks* **32**: 245–251.
- 9 **Patefield WM. 1981.** Algorithm AS159. An efficient method of generating r x c tables with
10 given row and column totals. *Applied Statistics* **30**: 91–97.
- 11 **R Development Core Team 2010.** R: A language and environment for statistical computing.
12 R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna. [www.r-project.org].
- 13 **Schleuning M, Fründ J, Klein AM, et al. 2012.** Specialization of mutualistic interaction
14 networks decreases toward tropical latitudes. *Current Biology* **22**: 1925–1931.
- 15 **Schleuning M, Ingmann L, Strauß R, et al. 2014.** Ecological, historical and evolutionary
16 determinants of modularity in weighted seed-dispersal networks. *Ecology Letters* **17**:
17 454–463.
- 18 **Sonne J, Martín González AM, Maruyama PK, et al. 2016.** High proportion of smaller
19 ranged hummingbird species coincides with ecological specialization across the
20 Americas. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B* doi: 10.1098/rspb.2015.2512.
- 21 **Souza-Silva M, Fontenelle JCR, Martins RP. 2001.** Seasonal abundance and species
22 composition of flower-visiting flies. *Neotropical Entomology* **30**: 351–358.
- 23 **Stattersfield JA, Crosby MJ, Long AJ, Wege DC. 1998.** *Endemic bird areas of the world:*
24 *priorities for biodiversity conservation.* United Kingdom: Birdlife International.
- 25 **Tupayachi A. 2005.** Flora de la Cordillera de Vilcanota. *Arnaldoa* **12**: 126–144.

- 1 **Waser NM, Chittka L, Price MV, Williams NM, Ollerton J. 1996.** Generalization in
2 pollination systems, and why it matters. *Ecology* **77**: 1043–1060.
- 3 **Watts S, Huamán Ovalle D, Moreno Herrera M, Ollerton J. 2012.** Pollinator
4 effectiveness of native and non-native flower visitors to an apparently generalist Andean
5 shrub, *Duranta mandonii* (Verbenaceae). *Plant Species Biology* **27**: 147–158.
- 6 **Watts S, Sapir Y, Segal B, Dafni A. 2013.** The endangered *Iris atropurpurea* (Iridaceae) in
7 Israel: honey bees, night-sheltering male bees and female solitary bees as pollinators.
8 *Annals of Botany* **111**: 395–407.
- 9 **Wege DC, Long AJ. 1995.** *Key areas for threatened birds in the Neotropics*. Cambridge,
10 UK: Birdlife International, series 5.
- 11
12
13
14
15
16

1
2
3
4

Table 1. Total number of flower visitors for each functional group in each of the 9 valleys starting from Huaran to the eastern limits of the Historical Sanctuary of Machu Picchu at Piscacucho, situated between (13° 13'S, 72° 2'W and 13° 12'42' S, 72° 21' 41 W).

	<i>Apis</i>	Lepidoptera	<i>Bombus</i>	Solitary bees	Diptera	Syrphidae	Tachinidae	Coleoptera	Trochilidae	Hemiptera	Vespidae
Huaran	40	0	3	0	4	8	1	0	26	0	0
Yanacocha	79	41	0	1	114	25	10	4	4	0	2
Chicon	104	4	5	1	26	20	4	10	33	0	0
Mantanay	47	5	20	2	12	32	21	5	19	0	0
Pumamarca	24	2	21	3	53	21	0	42	0	0	1
Choquebamba	7	0	19	1	84	24	3	14	1	15	3
Poques	29	5	10	0	50	43	4	37	0	0	3
Tiaparo	74	2	0	4	46	35	5	7	4	0	0
Piscacucho	24	14	4	0	22	61	14	16	0	0	0
Total	428	73	82	12	411	269	62	135	87	15	9

5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16

1 Table 2. Network modularity and complimentary specialisation H_2' for the 9 valleys and the combined networks (full and reduced matrices– see
 2 Methods). Modularity related measures given are (1) by the number of detected modules, (2) by observed modularity Q with its standard deviation
 3 across five independent algorithm runs and (3) by the null-model corrected modularities using Patefield algorithm (null model PA) (ΔQPA), given by
 4 $Q - \text{mean } Q_{\text{NULL}}$ for the respective null model.

Networks	A	P	Network size	H_2'	Number of modules	Weighted Q	s.d.(w. Q)	PA	ΔQPA	Null model z score s.d.	P value
Huaran	16	8	24	0.59	5	0.39	0.01	0.25	0.14	6.26	<< 0.001
Yanacocha	51	22	73	0.37	6	0.37	0.00	0.12	0.25	6.95	<< 0.001
Chicon	32	18	50	0.46	7	0.35	0.01	0.17	0.18	6.00	<< 0.001
Mantanay	34	24	58	0.39	7	0.50	0.00	0.26	0.24	9.22	<< 0.001
Pumamarca	36	26	62	0.40	10	0.48	0.00	0.31	0.17	6.03	<< 0.001
Choquebamba	43	25	68	0.43	10	0.55	0.00	0.21	0.34	6.19	<< 0.001
Poques	47	32	79	0.26	7	0.46	0.00	0.39	0.07	2.94	< 0.01
Tiaparo	32	25	57	0.52	9	0.48	0.00	0.24	0.24	8.07	<< 0.001
Piscacucho	38	27	65	0.36	8	0.47	0.01	0.34	0.13	6.07	<< 0.001
Reduced matrix	39	26	65	0.27	5	0.30	0.00	0.13	0.17	22.52	<< 0.001
Full	143	110	253	0.31	9	0.31	0.00	0.10	0.21	5.46	<< 0.001

5
6
7

1 Table 3. The role of functional groups of pollinators and plant families in the nine networks.
 2 Numbers indicate the number of species per order. Species numbers do not add up to the total
 3 number of pollinator species (143) since some species acted as both network hubs, module hubs,
 4 connectors and periphery species depending on the site. Only those plant families with the most
 5 important topological roles are shown.
 6

Order	Network hub	Module hub	Connector	Periphery	Valleys present
Coleoptera	0	1	3	25	8
Diptera	0	4	7	57	9
Hemiptera	0	1	0	0	1
Hymenoptera	1	3	3	16	9
Lepidoptera	0	1	1	13	7
Syrphidae	1	3	4	18	9
Trochilidae	0	1	1	7	6
Family					
Apocynaceae	0	0	1	0	2
Asteraceae	3	7	9	44	9
Gentianaceae	0	1	1	2	2
Lamiaceae	0	0	1	3	6
Myrtaceae	0	0	1	1	3
Verbenaceae	0	0	1	3	3

7
 8
 9
 10
 11
 12
 13
 14
 15
 16
 17

1 Table 4. Connection (c) and participation (z) values, complimentary specialisation d' for hummingbirds and their plant species in six networks
 2 based on weighted strength from 100 null models, identifying species with important topological roles in the networks and how they change across
 3 valleys. Frequency of each hummingbird and plant belonging to each module when the modularity analysis is repeated 50 times. Module ascription was
 4 always the same for each plant and pollinator (100% or 1.00) for each of the 50 runs.
 5

Valley	Hummingbird species	d'	c	z	Network role	Module ascription	Frequency of belonging to each module	Plant species	d'	c	z	Network role	Module ascription
Huaran	<i>Metallura tyrianthina</i>	0.31**	0.47	0.15	Connector	Module 1	1	<i>Aegiphila mortoni</i>	0.26*	0.58	-0.54	Connector	Module 1
	<i>Colibri coruscans</i>	0.06 ^{NS}	0.00	-0.34	Periphery	Module 1	1						
	<i>Oreonympha nobilis</i>	0.51*	0.00	-0.71	Periphery	Module 2	1	<i>Barnadesia horrida</i>	0.73***	0.26	0.71	Periphery	Module 2
	<i>Aglaeactis cupripennis</i>	0.62***	0.06	1.14	Periphery	Module 2	1	<i>Duranta mandonii</i>	0.74 ^{NS}	0.00	-0.71	Periphery	Module 2
	<i>Aglaeactis castelnaudii</i>	1.00***	0.00	0.00	Periphery	Module 5	1	<i>Fuchsia apetala</i>	0.70 ^{NS}	0.00	-0.70	Periphery	Module 5
								<i>Passiflora tripartita</i>	0.86*	0.00	0.70	Periphery	Module 5
Yanacocha	<i>Metallura tyrianthina</i>	1.00***	0.00	0.00	Periphery	Module 6	1	<i>Barnadesia horrida</i>	0.74 ^{NS}	0.00	0.71	Periphery	Module 6
								<i>Fuchsia apetala</i>	0.58 ^{NS}	0.00	-0.70	Periphery	Module 6
Chicon ‡	<i>Aglaeactis cupripennis</i>	0.66***	0.03	2.13	Module hub	Module 2	1	<i>Gynoxys longiflora</i>	0.60***	0.27	0.63	Periphery	Module 2
	<i>Aglaeactis castelnaudii</i>	0.66*	0.00	-0.35	Periphery	Module 2	1	<i>Brachyotum nutans</i>	0.78***	0.00	1.07	Periphery	Module 2
	<i>Pterophanes cyanopterus</i>	0.45**	0.05	0.24	Periphery	Module 2	1	<i>Barnadesia horrida</i>	0.54*	0.00	-0.84	Periphery	Module 2
	<i>Oreonympha nobilis</i>	0.52	0.00	-0.76	Periphery	Module 2	1	<i>Puya ferruginea</i>	0.77***	0.00	0.86	Periphery	Module 2
	<i>Oretrochilus estella</i>	0.47 ^{NS}	0.00	-0.11	Periphery	Module 2	1						
Mantanay	<i>Metallura tyrianthina</i>	0.64*	0.00	-0.90	Periphery	Module 5	1	<i>Passiflora tripartita</i>	0.39 ^{NS}	0.16	-0.23	Periphery	Module 5
	<i>Aglaeactis castelnaudii</i>	0.80***	0.00	1.08	Periphery	Module 5	1	<i>Barnadesia horrida</i>	0.60***	0.14	1.02	Periphery	Module 5
	<i>Aglaeactis cupripennis</i>	0.50***	0.13	-0.18	Periphery	Module 5	1	<i>Duranta mandonii</i>	0.73*	0.00	0.49	Periphery	Module 5
						Module 5	1	<i>Siphocampylus actinothrix</i>	0.62	0.00	-1.28	Periphery	Module 5
Choquebamba	<i>Aglaeactis cupripennis</i>	1.00***	0.00	0.00	Periphery	Module 8	1	<i>Brachyotum nutans</i>	1.00***	0.00	0.00	Periphery	Module 8
Reduced	<i>Aglaeactis castelnaudii</i>	0.69***	0.00	0.28	Periphery	Module 4	1	<i>Barnadesia horrida</i>	0.61*	0.32	2.12	Module hub	Module 4
	<i>Metallura tyrianthina</i>	0.61***	0.00	-0.02	Periphery	Module 4	1	<i>Fuchsia apetala</i>	0.54*	0.00	-0.78	Periphery	Module 4
	<i>Oreonympha nobilis</i>	0.52*	0.00	-1.33	Periphery	Module 4	1	<i>Gynoxys longiflora</i>	0.42***	0.40	-0.59	Periphery	Module 4
	<i>Aglaeactis cupripennis</i>	0.66***	0.10	1.06	Periphery	Module 4	1	<i>Passiflora tripartita</i>	0.26 ^{NS}	0.13	-0.70	Periphery	Module 4
								<i>Duranta mandonii</i>	0.56***	0.00	0.07	Periphery	Module 4
								<i>Brachyotum nutans</i>	0.55***	0.12	0.02	Periphery	Module 4
								<i>Aegiphila mortoni</i>	0.25***	0.44	0.00	Periphery	Module 4

Values significantly different from 1000 null models using Patefield algorithm as follows < 0.05*; < 0.01**; < 0.001***, NS = Not significant. Marginal values shown in ita
 ‡Module also comprised of Diptera sp.11 visiting *B. horrida* and Hymenoptera sp.5 visiting *G. longiflora*.

1
2

Table 5. Summary of the main morphological traits of plants and flower visitors in the Sacred Valley.

Plant family/genera	Flower morphology	Accessibility to nectar and pollen	Flower orientation
Apocynaceae, Caryophyllaceae, Ranunculaceae, Rosaceae	Dish shaped or bowl shaped: actinomorphic (with several symmetry planes) 2–5 mm deep	Open access flowers with exposed nectar and pollen, or pollen presented as pollinia. Nectar volume small.	Upright or horizontal (0–90°)
Asteraceae: <i>Bidens</i> , <i>Baccharis</i> , <i>Senecio</i> , <i>Ageratina</i> , <i>Aristeguietia</i>	Open tube: actinomorphic characterised by a head of small ray and disc tubular flowers mostly 5–10mm in length. Stamens and pistils exposed	Easy access to both pollen and nectar. Nectar volume small, concealed at the base of narrow tubes. Pollen exposed	Upright or horizontal (0–90°)
Fabaceae, Gentianaceae, Lamiaceae	Flag or gullet: bilaterally symmetrical, zygomorphous flowers 4–35 mm. Mechanically strong. Stamens and pistils exposed	Nectar concealed at the bottom of narrow or wide tubes. Nectar volume moderate and concentration high. Pollen exposed or absent	Horizontal (90°)
Verbenaceae, Passifloraceae, Melastomataceae, Bromeliaceae, Onagraceae	Tube: bilaterally symmetrical, zygomorphous flowers 5–135 mm in length. Some flowers mechanically strong. Stamens and pistils exposed	Nectar concealed in mostly deep narrow tubes. Pollen hidden or located anterior to the corolla, large amounts of nectar. Nectar concentration low	Horizontal to pendant (90–180°)
Pollinator functional group	Families/genera	Body/bill length	Resource
Diptera	Muscidae, Sphaeroceridae, Tachinidae, Sciariidae, Scianidae and Anthomyiidae	4–10 mm	Mostly nectar
Syrphidae	<i>Eristalis</i> , <i>Copestylum</i> , <i>Toxomerus</i> , <i>Platycheirus</i> and <i>Tuberculanostoma</i>	> 9 mm	Nectar and pollen
Trochilidae	<i>Aglaeactis</i> , <i>Metallura</i> , <i>Colibri</i> , <i>Pterophanes</i> , <i>Oreotrochilus</i> and <i>Oreonympha</i>	13–32 mm	Nectar only; also nectar robbers
Hymenoptera: Apidae	<i>Apis mellifera</i> and several <i>Bombus</i> spp.	10–16 mm; proboscis 6–10 mm	Pollen and nectar
Hymenoptera: Vespidae	Small to medium wasps	< 10 mm	Pollen and nectar
Coleoptera	Chrysomelidae, Bruchidae, Curculionidae and Melyridae	5–10 mm	Pollen and nectar
Lepidoptera	Hesperiidae and some small diurnal moths	5–10 mm	Nectar
Hemiptera	All <i>Lygaeus albornatus</i>	> 10 mm	Nectar

1 Fig. 1: Schematic diagram representing the nine valleys surveyed in the Sacred Valley in
2 terms of different habitats encountered along an elevational gradient from 2900-4100 m and
3 their quantitative bipartite graphs. Pollinators are arranged on the left and plants on the right.
4 The number of interactions is indicated by the width of the bars.

5
6
7 Fig. 2. Plant species and habitats surveyed in the Sacred Valley: (A) *Barnadesia horrida*
8 (Asteraceae); (B) *Baccharis salicifolia* (Asteraceae); (C) *Passiflora tripartita* var. *mollissima*
9 (Passifloraceae); (D) *Polylepis* (Rosaceae) woodlands 3700-4200 m; (E) subtropical montane
10 dry forest (3000-3400 m), characterised by steep rocky slopes with spiny shrubs such as
11 *Duranta mandonii* (Verbenaceae) and many *Puya* sp.; (F) *Lupinus mutabilis* (Fabaceae); (G)
12 *Oreocallis grandiflora* (Proteaceae); Photographs: (A, C, F,G) Stella Watts, (D,E) Jeff
13 Ollerton, (B) Lynn Watson.

14
15 Fig. 3. Scatterplot of species roles for the reduced matrix. The coefficients z and c refer to
16 among-module connectivity and within-module degree, respectively. Dashed grey lines
17 indicate 95% quantiles from 100 null models and indicate the topographical space of network
18 hubs (top right-hand rectangle, high z and c values), module hubs (top left-hand rectangle,
19 high z and low c values), connectors (bottom right-hand rectangle, low z and high c values)
20 and peripheral species (bottom left-hand rectangle, low z and c values). The top graph
21 represents the role of functional groups of pollinator species, showing the presence of two
22 bees in the role of module and network hubs, and two flies (one of them a syrphid) acting as
23 connectors. For the purposes of this analysis, solitary bees and wasps are included within
24 Hymenoptera and Tachinidae are included within Diptera. The bottom graph illustrates plant
25 species, showing that the family Asteraceae has two module hubs and one connector species,
26 the latter together with a Grossulariaceae species. No plant takes the role of network hub.

27
28 Fig. 4. Reduced pooled matrix featuring five modules identified by QuanBiMo (with steps =
29 $1e8$; $Q = 0.30$; $n = 5$ independent runs). Species are sorted according to their modular affinity,
30 plants as rows and pollinators as columns. Darker squares indicate more frequent interactions.
31 Red boxes delineate the five modules and cells inside the boxes are the links within modules.
32 As can be seen, *Apis mellifera* is clearly not randomly distributed over the five modules, thus
33 linking modules five, four, three, two and one (bottom to top right) into a coherent network.
34 The dominant pollinator and flower type are: Module 1: large syrphids, a large butterfly and a
35 large long-billed hummingbird visiting open access flowers; Module 2: small flies and
36 syrphid flies visiting open access Asteraceae flowers; Module 3: large bumblebees, large
37 syrphids, large flies and beetles visiting open access and flag/gullet flowers; Module 4:
38 medium sized hummingbirds with relatively short bills visiting long tubular flowers, Module
39 5: honey bees and mainly large flies, tachinid flies and syrphids visiting open access and
40 flag/gullet flowers. Asteraceae plants are as follows: *Ageratina sternbergiana*, *Aristeguietia*
41 *anisodonoton*, Asteraceae sp. 2, Asteraceae sp. 4, *Baccharis buxifolia*, *Baccharis salicifolia*,
42 *Barnadesia horrida*, *Cronquistianthus urubambensis*, *Gynoxys longiflora*, *Senecio*
43 *panticallensis*.

44
45 Fig. 5. Complimentary specialisation d' (A) and corolla length (B) for hummingbirds *versus*
46 all other functional groups of flower visitors. Data pooled across the five valleys: Huaran,
47 Yanacocha, Chicon, Mantanay and Choquebamba in which hummingbirds were observed.
48 Box plots show the median (horizontal line) and ranges from the 25th and 75th percentiles,
49 the solid square is the mean, and the tips of the whiskers indicate the fifth and 95th

1 percentiles. Circles represent outliers. Different letters denote significant differences at $P <$
2 0.01.

3

4 Fig. 6. Number of pollinator species visiting plant species with open tube, open access,
5 gullet/flag and tubular flowers. Data pooled across all valleys. Box plots show the median
6 (horizontal line) and ranges from the 25th and 75th percentiles, the solid square is the mean,
7 and the tips of the whiskers indicate the fifth and 95th percentiles. Circles represent
8 outliers. Bars with the same letters indicate no significant difference, $P > 0.05$ after
9 Bonferroni adjustment.

10

11

1 SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

2 Table S1. Connection (c) and participation (z) values for each species to describe their role in
3 10 plant–pollinator networks in the Sacred Valley. Specialisation indices: species degree,
4 species strength, pollination service index (PSI) and complimentary specialisation d' for
5 flower visitors based on weighted strength from 100 null models, identifying insect and
6 hummingbird species with important topological roles. Superscripts indicate ranks with 1 for
7 the highest generalisation down to 42 for lowest. Index values and rankings also show how
8 network positions change across some valleys and how constant they remain in others. For
9 species degree, values in bold are unique (all others are ties). Abbreviations as follows: Nh =
10 network hub; Mh = Module hub and C = connector. Complimentary specialisation d' values
11 significantly different from 1000 null models using Patefield algorithm as follows: $< 0.05^*$, $<$
12 0.01^{**} , $< 0.001^{***}$. Marginal values are shown in italics.

13
14 Table S2. Connection (c) and participation (z) values for each species to describe their role in
15 10 plant–pollinator networks in the Sacred Valley. Specialisation indices: species degree,
16 species strength, pollination service index (PSI) and complimentary specialisation d' for
17 plants based on weighted strength from 100 null models, identifying plant species with
18 important topological roles. Superscripts indicate ranks with 1 for the highest generalisation
19 down to 26 for lowest. Index values and rankings also show how network positions change
20 across some valleys and how constant they remain in others. For species degree, values in
21 bold are unique (all others are ties). Abbreviations as follows: Nh = network hub; Mh =
22 Module hub and C = connector. Complimentary specialisation d' values significantly
23 different from 1000 null models using Patefield algorithm as follows: $< 0.05^*$, $< 0.01^{**}$, $<$
24 0.001^{***} . Marginal values are shown in italics.

25
26 Table S3. Full list of plant species surveyed in the Sacred Valley and the total number of
27 plants found in transects for each plant species, in which valleys, altitudes, life zones and
28 months. Life zones abbreviations are as follows: mts-S = subtropical montane thorn steppe;
29 mdf-S = subtropical montane dry forest; hmf-S = subtropical humid montane forest; p -S =
30 *Polylepis* forests.

31
32 Table S4. Full list of pollinator species surveyed in the Sacred Valley and the total number of
33 visits recorded in which valleys, altitudes, life zones and months. Life zones abbreviations are
34 as follows: mts-S = subtropical montane thorn steppe; mdf-S = subtropical montane dry
35 forest; hmf-S = subtropical humid montane forest; p -S = *Polylepis* forest.

36
37 Table S5. Summary of observed species level specialisation index values for the most
38 relevant functional groups of pollinators reporting species degree, species strength,
39 Pollination Service Index (PSI) weighted closeness and complimentary specialisation d' .

40
41
42 Figure S1. Complimentary specialisation H_2' values for the analysis of each network. Red
43 triangles indicate observed values whereas histograms represent the distribution of 1000 null
44 models using the Patefield algorithm in the bipartite package R. All values significantly
45 different from 1000 null models using Patefield algorithm: $P < 0.001$.

46
47
48 Figure S2. Observed and null model specialisation values of *Apis mellifera*, for the analysis
49 of specialisation shift. Histograms illustrate the distribution of 1000 null models and
50 represent the position of a perfect generalist. Red triangles indicate the observed value.

1 Figure S3. Observed and null model specialisation values of *Bombus funebris* for the analysis
2 of specialisation shift. Histograms illustrate the distribution of 1000 null models and
3 represent the position of a perfect generalist. Red triangles indicate the observed value.
4

5 Figure S4. Observed and null model specialisation values of *Aglaeactis cupripennis* for the
6 analysis of specialisation shift. Histograms illustrate the distribution of 1000 null models and
7 represent the position of a perfect generalist. Red triangles indicate the observed value.
8
9

10 Figure S5. Specialisation index values (degree, strength, Pollination Service Index (*PSI*),
11 Weighted Centrality (*WC*) and complimentary specialisation *d'*) for *Bombus funebris*, *Apis*
12 *mellifera* and *Aglaeactis cupripennis*. The first box represents the raw index values, as
13 computed from the networks. The second box represents corrected values, i.e. differences
14 between raw values and the mean of the null models. They position the boxes relative to a
15 perfect generalist (value of 0). The third is the *z*-scores (divided by a constant for more
16 convenient comparison in the plots).
17

18 Fig. S6. Chicon featuring seven modules identified by QuanBiMo (with steps = 1e8; *Q* =
19 0.30; *n* = 5 independent runs). Species are sorted according to their modular affinity, plants as
20 rows and pollinators as columns. Darker squares indicate more frequent interactions. Red
21 boxes delineate the seven modules and cells inside the boxes are the links within modules.
22 As can be seen, *Baccharis buxifolia* is clearly not randomly distributed over the seven
23 modules, thus linking modules six modules (left to right) into a coherent network. There were
24 no network hubs in this valley. The main pollinator and flower type (left to right): Module 2:
25 medium sized hummingbirds with relatively short bills visiting long tubular flowers; Module
26 3: dominated by honey bees (module hub) a bumblebee, large flies, tachinid flies, large
27 syrphids and a large hummingbird with a long bill visiting open access and gullet flowers;
28 Module 6: dominated by Syrphid sp. 2 (connector) and Syrphid sp. 3 visiting open access
29 Asteraceae flowers.
30
31

32 Fig. S7. Mantanay featuring seven modules identified by QuanBiMo (with steps = 1e8; *Q* =
33 0.30; *n* = 5 independent runs). Species are sorted according to their modular affinity, plants as
34 rows and pollinators as columns. Darker squares indicate more frequent interactions. Red
35 boxes delineate the seven modules and cells inside the boxes are the links within modules.
36 As can be seen, *Apis mellifera* is clearly not randomly distributed over the seven modules,
37 thus linking five modules (bottom to top) into a coherent network. The main pollinator and
38 flower type (left to right): Module 1: large bumblebee, a butterfly and Syrphid fly visiting
39 small tubular flowers of *Escallonia resinosa* (module hub) and *Duranta armata*; Module 4:
40 dominated by honey bees (network hub), a large syrphid and small beetles visiting mostly
41 open access flowers; Module 5: exclusively medium sized hummingbirds with relatively
42 short bills visiting long tubular flowers; Module 6: dominated by the plant *Myrsianthes*
43 *oreophila* (connector) and bumble bee, butterflies, large tachinid flies, large flies and a large
44 hummingbird with a long bill visiting mostly long tubular and open access flowers.

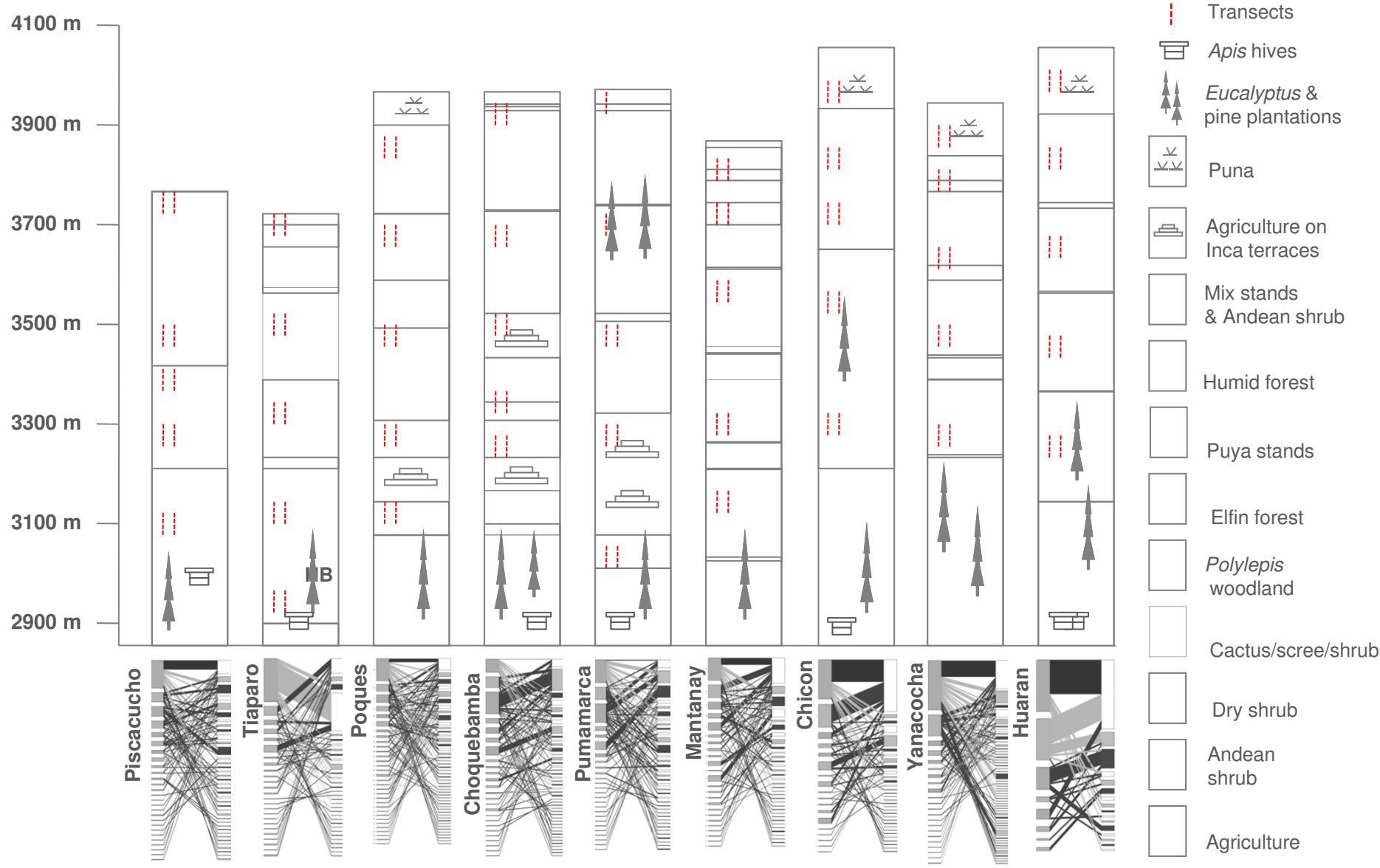




Table S1. Connection (c) and participation (z) values for each species to describe their role in 10 plant–pollinator networks in the Sacred Valley. Specialisation indices: species degree, species strength, pollination service index (PSI) and complimentary specialisation d' for flower visitors based on weighted strength from 100 null models, identifying insect and hummingbird species with important topological roles. Superscripts indicate ranks with 1 for the highest generalisation down to 42 for lowest. Index values and rankings also show how network positions change across some valleys and how constant they remain in others. For species degree, values in bold are unique (all others are ties). Abbreviations as follows: Nh = network hub; Mh = Module hub and C = connector. Complimentary specialisation d' values significantly different from 1000 null models using Patefield algorithm as follows: < 0.05*, < 0.01**, < 0.001***. Marginal values are shown in italics.

Flower visitor species	Order	Network position	c	z	Species Degree	Species Strength	PSI	Weighted Closeness	d'
<i>Apis mellifera</i>	Hymenoptera	Nh	0.51	2.04	10 ¹	5.66 ¹	0.52 ³	0.06 ¹	0.39 ^{***22}
<i>Apis mellifera</i>	Hymenoptera	Nh	0.48	2.47	8 ¹	3.37 ²	0.36 ⁷	0.03 ¹	0.33 ^{**21}
<i>Apis mellifera</i>	Hymenoptera	Nh	0.65	1.78	9 ¹	3.08 ²	0.33 ⁹	0.02 ¹	<i>0.21</i> ¹⁵
<i>Apis mellifera</i>	Hymenoptera	Nh	0.67	3.45	18 ¹	7.18 ¹	0.47 ²	0.16 ¹	0.18 ^{***18}
<i>Apis mellifera</i>	Hymenoptera	Mh	0.00	2.66	3 ⁷	2.12 ⁵	0.67 ⁵	0.12 ²	0.43 ^{***7}
<i>Apis mellifera</i>	Hymenoptera	Mh	0.27	2.46	5 ¹	3.43 ¹	0.67 ²	0.71 ¹	0.40 ^{***21}
<i>Apis mellifera</i>	Hymenoptera	C	0.71	1.23	4 ³	2.21 ³	0.67 ⁴	0.01 ²	0.50 ^{***20}
<i>Bombus funebris</i>	Hymenoptera	C	0.54	-0.33	4 ²	0.26 ¹⁴	0.06 ²⁰	0.01 ⁶	0.07 ⁷
<i>Bombus funebris</i>	Hymenoptera	Mh	0.20	1.58	7 ¹	2.87 ²	0.28 ¹¹	0.02 ³	0.24 ¹⁴
<i>Bombus funebris</i>	Hymenoptera	Mh	0.57	2.26	15 ²	2.54 ²	0.16 ⁶	0.06 ³	0.21 ^{***21}
<i>Eriopsis</i> sp.2	Coleoptera	Mh	0.00	1.78	2 ⁶	0.65 ¹³	0.32 ⁹	0.02 ⁶	<i>0.52</i> ³⁰
<i>Eriopsis</i> sp.2	Coleoptera	C	0.61	-0.68	3 ⁶	0.20 ²³	0.06 ²³	0.01 ⁶	0.58 ^{*11}
<i>Lygaeus albornatus</i>	Hemiptera	Mh	0.00	1.37	3 ⁵	2.62 ²	0.75 ³	0.01 ⁵	0.85 ^{***42}
<i>Metardaris cosinga</i>	Lepidoptera	Mh	0.12	3.24	8 ²	4.61 ²	0.32 ⁴	0.03 ³	0.23 ^{***32}
Muscidae sp.1	Diptera	Mh	0.00	2.12	3 ³	1.57 ⁵	0.24 ¹⁰	0.02 ³	0.32 ^{*17}
Muscidae sp.1	Diptera	Mh	0.09	1.98	3 ⁵	1.18 ⁸	0.21 ¹⁴	0.02 ⁶	0.55 ^{*16}
Muscidae sp.1	Diptera	Mh	0.10	2.26	5 ⁴	2.34 ⁴	0.33 ⁶	0.01 ⁹	<i>0.34</i> ¹⁹
<i>Sciaria</i> sp.4	Diptera	Mh	0.12	2.04	8 ¹	5.26 ⁵	0.69 ³	0.01 ¹	0.75 ^{***28}
<i>Sciaria</i> sp.4	Diptera	Mh	0.15	1.72	6 ³	3.97 ¹	0.50 ⁵	0.03 ³	0.65 ^{***33}

<i>Sciaria</i> sp.4	Diptera	Mh	0.46	2.06	9 ³	1.75 ⁴	0.25 ⁴	0.08 ²	0.30 ^{***29}
<i>Sciaria</i> sp.4	Diptera	C	0.65	1.15	6 ³	1.68 ⁵	0.58 ²	0.02 ⁴	0.50 ^{***28}
Syrphidae sp.2	Syrphidae	Nh	0.42	3.24	4 ³	0.80 ⁷	0.11 ¹⁴	0.02 ⁶	0.15 ²⁶
Syrphidae sp.2	Syrphidae	C	0.58	-0.60	4 ²	0.79 ²	0.18 ¹¹	0.03 ²	0.26 ^{*14}
Syrphidae sp.2	Syrphidae	Mh	0.22	2.02	8 ²	3.22 ²	0.36 ¹⁰	0.03 ³	0.41 ^{**24}
Syrphidae sp.2	Syrphidae	C	0.64	-0.33	4 ³	1.19 ⁷	0.16 ¹⁶	0.01 ⁴	0.18 ¹⁰
Syrphidae sp.2	Syrphidae	C	0.71	0.00	7 ⁵	1.09 ⁷	0.10 ⁸	0.06 ³	0.16 ^{***15}
Syrphidae sp.3	Syrphidae	C	0.59	-0.40	3 ⁵	0.20 ²²	0.06 ²⁴	0.00 ¹⁵	0.16 ⁷
Syrphidae sp.3	Syrphidae	Mh	0.00	1.88	5 ⁴	2.32 ⁴	0.37 ⁴	0.01 ¹⁰	0.56 ^{**36}
Syrphidae sp.3	Syrphidae	C	0.50	1.48	3 ⁵	0.58 ¹²	0.25 ¹¹	0.03 ⁴	0.28 ¹⁸
<i>Toxomerus</i> sp.2	Syrphidae	C	0.64	0.06	3 ⁵	0.41 ¹⁴	0.15 ¹⁴	0.03 ²	0.13 ¹¹
<i>Toxomerus</i> sp.2	Syrphidae	C	0.60	0.10	3 ⁵	0.28 ¹⁹	0.11 ²¹	0.01 ⁴	0.12 ⁸
<i>Toxomerus</i> sp.2	Syrphidae	C	0.74	1.34	6 ³	2.29 ⁵	0.24 ¹⁴	0.02 ²	0.30 ²⁴
<i>Metallura tyrianthina</i>	Trochilidae	C	0.47	0.15	3 ¹	0.66 ⁴	0.23 ⁵	0.06 ²	0.31 ^{**7}
<i>Aglaeactis cupripennis</i>	Trochilidae	Mh	0.03	2.13	9 ³	2.49 ³	0.53 ³	0.03 ⁸	0.66 ^{***28}

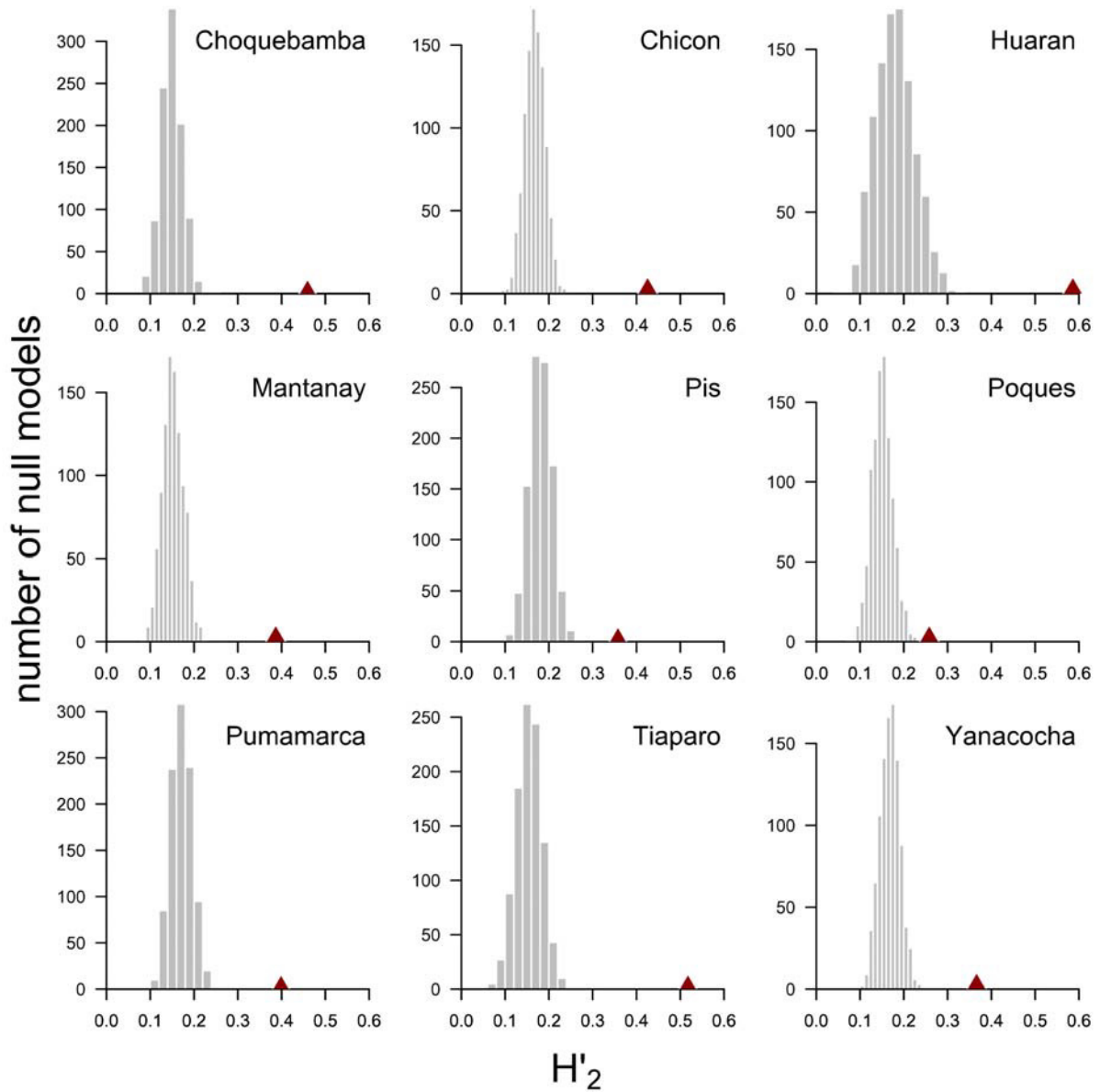


Figure S1. Complimentary specialisation H_2' values for the analysis of each network. Red triangles indicate observed values whereas histograms represent the distribution of 1000 null models using the Patefield algorithm in the bipartite package R. All values significantly different from 1000 null models using Patefield algorithm: $P < 0.001$.

Table S2. Connection (c) and participation (z) values for each species to describe their role in 10 plant–pollinator networks in the Sacred Valley. Specialisation indices: species degree, species strength, pollination service index (PSI) and complimentary specialisation d' for plants based on weighted strength from 100 null models, identifying plant species with important topological roles. Superscripts indicate ranks with 1 for the highest generalisation down to 26 for lowest. Index values and rankings also show how network positions change across some valleys and how constant they remain in others. For species degree, values in bold are unique (all others are ties). Abbreviations as follows: Nh = network hub; Mh = Module hub and C = connector. Complimentary specialisation d' values significantly different from 1000 null models using Patefield algorithm as follows: < 0.05*, < 0.01**, < 0.001***. Marginal values are shown in italics.

Network	Plant species	Family	Network position	c	z	Species Degree	Species Strength	Weighted Closeness	d'
Choquebamba	<i>Baccharis salicifolia</i>	Asteraceae	Nh	0.71	1.49	11 ²	4.53 ⁴	0.02 ¹	0.39 ^{***6}
Mantanay	<i>Baccharis salicifolia</i>	Asteraceae	Mh	0.30	1.7	8 ²	4.58 ²	0.04 ²	0.32 ^{**11}
Poques	<i>Baccharis salicifolia</i>	Asteraceae	Mh	0.29	2.43	10 ³	4.75 ²	0.04 ²	0.41 ^{*15}
Reduced	<i>Baccharis salicifolia</i>	Asteraceae	C	0.63	1.45	29 ¹	11.08 ¹	0.07 ¹	0.16 ^{***7}
Chicon	<i>Baccharis buxifolia</i>	Asteraceae	Mh	0.31	1.78	17 ¹	11.67 ¹	0.02 ²	0.21 ^{***4}
Huaran	<i>Baccharis buxifolia</i>	Asteraceae	Mh	0.17	1.15	8 ¹	7.16 ¹	0.14 ¹	0.46 ^{***4}
Pumamarca	<i>Baccharis buxifolia</i>	Asteraceae	Mh	0.24	1.5	3 ⁵	0.87 ⁸	0.02 ⁵	0.44 ¹³
Choquebamba	<i>Ageratina sternbergiana</i>	Asteraceae	Mh	0.19	1.89	2 ⁶	0.64 ¹³	0.01 ¹⁰	0.44 ^{***11}
Tiaparo	<i>Ageratina sternbergiana</i>	Asteraceae	Mh	0.36	1.74	5 ²	3.11 ²	0.01 ⁴	0.64 ^{***17}
Poques	<i>Ageratina sternbergiana</i>	Asteraceae	C	0.74	-0.41	10 ³	2.58 ⁵	0.03 ⁵	0.29 ⁸
Tiaparo	<i>Aristeguietia discolor</i>	Asteraceae	C	0.45	0.85	5 ²	2.05 ⁴	0.01 ⁵	0.79 ^{**8}
Piscacucho	<i>Aristeguietia discolor</i>	Asteraceae	C	0.55	0.00	9 ³	4.18 ³	0.03 ²	0.54 ^{***19}
Yanacocha	Asteraceae sp.2	Asteraceae	Mh	0.07	2.15	6 ⁴	3.75 ³	0.04 ³	0.38 ^{*10}
Pumamarca	Asteraceae sp.2	Asteraceae	Mh	0.22	1.49	15 ¹	6.47 ³	0.02 ⁴	0.36 ^{**7}
Choquebamba	Asteraceae sp.2	Asteraceae	Mh	0.38	1.49	4 ⁴	1.46 ⁷	0.01 ⁹	0.65 ^{***15}
Yanacocha	Asteraceae sp.4	Asteraceae	C	0.39	-0.45	3 ⁶	0.37 ¹¹	0.04 ⁴	0.23 ⁵
Piscacucho	Asteraceae sp.4	Asteraceae	C	0.56	0.58	7 ³	1.65 ³	0.02 ⁵	0.33 ⁵
Reduced	<i>Barnadesia horrida</i>	Asteraceae	Mh	0.32	2.12	8 ⁸	1.93 ⁶	0.02 ⁸	0.61 ^{***26}
Mantanay	<i>Cynanchum tarmense</i>	Apocynaceae	C	0.46	0.08	4 ³	1.27 ⁷	0.03 ³	0.32 ¹²

Mantanay	<i>Escallonia resinosa</i>	Grossulariaceae	Mh	0.34	1.61	8 ²	2.72 ³	0.03 ⁵	0.28 ⁸
Reduced	<i>Escallonia resinosa</i>	Grossulariaceae	C	0.64	-0.53	13 ⁵	1.67 ⁷	0.03 ⁶	0.28 ^{***6}
Tiaparo	<i>Eupatorium sp.2</i>	Asteraceae	Mh	0.00	1.5	2 ⁵	0.25 ¹⁶	0.01 ¹¹	0.63 ¹⁶
Piscacucho	<i>Gentiana postrata</i>	Gentianaceae	Mh	0.18	2.18	10 ²	4.85 ²	0.03 ³	0.47 ^{***19}
Tiaparo	<i>Gentiana postrata</i>	Gentianaceae	C	0.46	-0.85	2 ⁵	0.19 ¹⁸	0.01 ⁹	0.42 ⁴
Pumamarca	<i>Jungia rugosa</i>	Asteraceae	Nh	0.63	1.77	14 ²	6.50 ²	0.02 ²	0.34 ^{**6}
Reduced	<i>Jungia rugosa</i>	Asteraceae	Mh	0.31	1.63	11 ⁶	1.93 ⁵	0.05 ³	0.22 ^{***11}
Choquebamba	<i>Jungia rugosa</i>	Asteraceae	C	0.57	0.71	1 ⁷	0.14 ¹⁷	0.00 ¹⁴	0.45 ^{***12}
Poques	<i>Jungia rugosa</i>	Asteraceae	C	0.54	1.5	22 ¹	13.82 ¹	0.05 ¹	0.31 ^{**10}
Chicon	<i>Minthostachys spicata</i>	Lamiaceae	C	0.46	-0.97	2 ⁶	0.24 ¹⁴	0.02 ⁴	0.09 ¹
Piscacucho	<i>Minthostachys spicata</i>	Lamiaceae	C	0.51	1.15	16 ¹	9.71 ¹	0.04 ¹	0.47 ^{***16}
Mantanay	<i>Myrsianthes oreophila</i>	Myrtaceae	C	0.39	0.71	17 ¹	11.17 ¹	0.04 ¹	0.31 ^{***14}

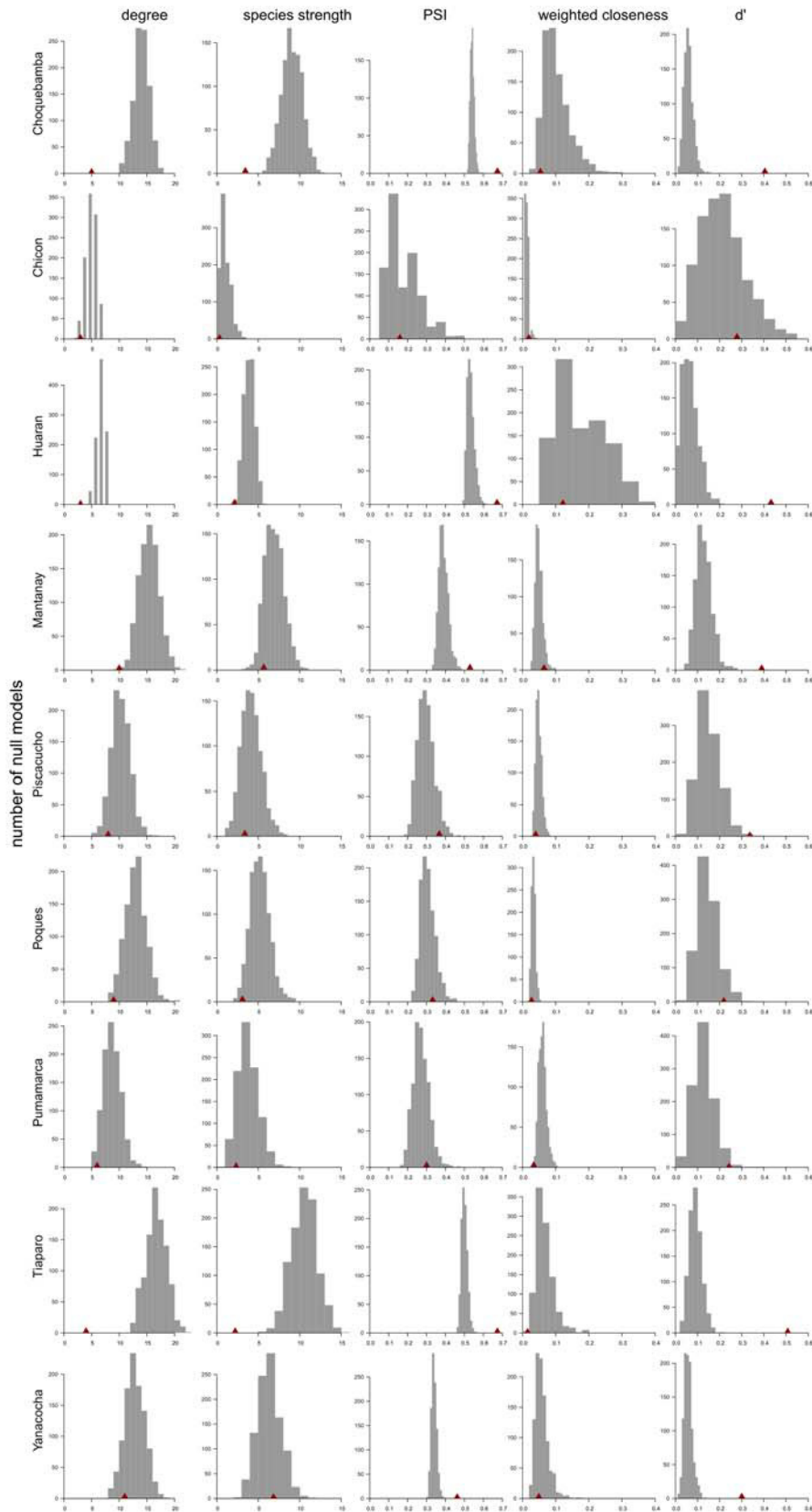


Figure S2. Observed and null model specialisation values of *Apis mellifera*, for the analysis of specialisation shift. Histograms illustrate the distribution of 1000 null models and represent the position of a perfect generalist. Red triangles indicate the observed value.

Table S3. Full list of plant species surveyed in the Sacred Valley and the total number of plants found in transects for each plant species, in which valleys, altitudes, life zones and months. Life zones abbreviations are as follows: mts-S = subtropical montane thorn steppe; mdf-S = subtropical montane dry forest; hmf-S = subtropical humid montane forest; *p*-S = *Polylepis* forests.

Family	Scientific name	Number of plants	Huaran	Yanacocha	Chicon	Mantanay	Pumamarca	Choquebamba	Poques	Tiaparo	Piscacucho	Altitude 1	Altitude 2	Altitude 3	Altitude 4	Altitude 5	mts-S	mdf-S	hmf-S	<i>p</i> -S	April	June	July	August	October	
Apocynaceae	Asclepiadoideae sp1	1	X									X					X								X	
	Asclepiadoideae sp2	1	X											X			X								X	
	<i>Cynanchum tarmense</i>	14				X						X					X							X		
Asteraceae	<i>Ageratina sternbergiana</i> (D. C.) King & H. Robinson	54			X		X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X	
	<i>Ageratina</i> sp.1	2									X	X	X	X	X			X				X				
	<i>Ageratina</i> sp.2	1								X					X			X				X				
	<i>Aristeguetia anisodonon</i> (D. C.) King H. Robinson	13			X	X		X	X			X	X	X	X				X		X	X	X	X	X	
	<i>Aristeguetia discolor</i> (D. C.) King H. Robinson	25								X	X	X	X		X	X			X			X				
	Asteraceae sp. 2	59		X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Asteraceae sp. 4	22		X	X	X				X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Asteraceae sp. 5	49		X				X				X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X				X
	Asteraceae sp. 6	10		X				X				X		X				X	X		X				X	
	Asteraceae sp. 7	5		X					X						X	X			X		X				X	
	Asteraceae sp. 8	7		X					X						X	X			X		X				X	
	Asteraceae sp. 14	6							X				X	X					X		X					
	Asteraceae sp. 15	1							X					X						X		X				
	Asteraceae sp. 16	2							X				X		X				X	X	X	X				
	Asteraceae sp. 17	2							X	X			X						X		X	X	X			
	Asteraceae sp. 35	4					X		X						X	X			X		X	X				
Asteraceae sp. 37	3						X	X						X				X		X	X					

	Asteraceae sp. 63	2							X						X		X	X	
	Asteraceae sp. 45	2								X					X		X	X	
	<i>Baccharis boliviensis</i> (Weddell) Cabrera	5							X	X					X	X		X	X
	<i>Baccharis buxifolia</i> (Lamarck) Persoon	79	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	<i>Baccharis odorata</i> H.B.K.	4			X					X					X	X			
	<i>Baccharis salicifolia</i> (R. & P.) Persoon	262	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	<i>Baccharis</i> sp.4	1						X							X		X		
	<i>Baccharis</i> sp.6	1							X						X		X		
	<i>Barnadesia horrida</i> Muschler	27	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
	<i>Bidens andicola</i> H.B.K.	3			X				X				X					X	X
	<i>Bidens pilosa</i> L.	1			X								X			X			X
	<i>Bidens triplinervia</i> H.B.K.	6						X	X		X	X	X		X			X	
	<i>Cronquistianthus</i> cf. <i>urubambensis</i> King H. Robinson	7						X		X		X	X		X	X		X	
	<i>Cronquistianthus</i> sp.1	1					X						X			X		X	
	<i>Cronquistianthus</i> sp.2	2							X				X		X			X	
	<i>Cronquistianthus</i> sp.3	1							X						X			X	
	<i>Eupatorium</i> sp.1	4					X						X	X	X		X	X	
	<i>Eupatorium</i> sp. 2	6						X	X				X					X	
	<i>Gynoxys longiflora</i> Sch.Bip. ex Wedd.	9			X	X							X	X			X		X
	<i>Jungia rugosa</i> Lessing	76		X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
	<i>Senecio panticallensis</i> Cabrera	15					X	X		X	X			X		X	X	X	X
	<i>Senecio</i> sp.1	1					X							X		X		X	
	<i>Senecio</i> sp.2	1					X							X		X		X	
	<i>Senecio</i> sp.3	1					X							X		X		X	
	<i>Senecio</i> sp.4	1						X						X		X		X	
	<i>Taraxacum</i> sp.1	3		X			X							X	X	X		X	X
	<i>Verbesina</i> sp.	3						X						X	X			X	X
Berberidaceae	<i>Berberis humbertiana</i> J. F. Macbride	7		X			X	X		X	X			X	X	X		X	X
Bignoniaceae	<i>Tecoma sambucifolia</i> H.B.K.	2			X						X				X				X
Brassicaceae	Brassicaceae sp.	1						X						X		X		X	
Bromeliaceae	<i>Puya ferruginea</i> (R. & P.) L. D. Smith	1			X									X	X				X

Campanulaceae	<i>Lobelia tenera</i> H. B. K.	3							X				X	X				X	X	X	X	
	<i>Siphocampylus actinothrix</i> E. Wimm.	3							X									X	X		X	
	<i>Siphocampylus</i> sp.	1											X					X	X	X		
Caryophyllaceae	<i>Arenaria lanuginosa</i> (Michaux) Rohrbach	1											X						X		X	
	<i>Drimaria</i> sp.	2							X									X	X		X	
	<i>Stellaria media</i> (L.) Cirillo	5							X	X	X			X	X			X	X			
Convolvulaceae	<i>Cuscuta grandiflora</i> H.B.K.	1											X					X		X		
Cunoniaceae	<i>Weinmannia pentaphylla</i> R.& P.	9							X									X	X		X	
Fabaceae	<i>Desmodium rotundifolium</i> (Michaux) D.C.	1											X		X						X	
	Fabaceae sp.	1		X									X					X			X	
	<i>Lupinus aridulus</i> C.P.Sm.	2							X				X					X		X		
	<i>Lupinus mutabilis</i> (Sweet)	7							X						X	X		X			X	
	<i>Lupinus paniculatus</i> Desr.	8											X	X				X	X		X	
	<i>Lupinus</i> sp.	1							X						X			X	X			
	<i>Melilotus alba</i> Medikus	10			X			X	X				X	X				X	X		X	
	<i>Platymiscium</i> sp.	1		X									X					X			X	
	<i>Senna birostris</i> (Vogel) H. S. Irwin & Barneby	5							X				X		X			X	X	X		
	<i>Trifolium amabile</i> var. <i>pentlandii</i> Ball	6							X	X			X	X	X			X	X	X		
	Gentianaceae	<i>Gentiana prostrata</i> (Haenke) Á. Löve & D. Löve	12							X	X			X					X		X	
		<i>Gentiana</i> sp.1	1											X					X		X	
	Geraniaceae	<i>Geranium</i> sp.1	2											X					X		X	
Grossulariaceae	<i>Escallonia resinosa</i> (Ruiz & Pav.)	28		X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	
Lamiaceae	<i>Lamium amplexicaule</i> L.	1							X						X			X	X			
	<i>Minthostachys spicata</i> (Bentham) Epling	103		X		X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	
	<i>Salvia oppositiflora</i> R. & P.	4							X	X			X					X	X	X	X	
Lythraceae	Lythraceae sp.	2							X				X		X			X	X			
Loasaceae	<i>Mentzelia fendleriana</i> Urban & Gilg	3							X						X			X	X			
Loranthaceae	<i>Gaiadendrum</i> cf. <i>punctatum</i> (R. & P.) G. Don	1											X		X			X		X		
Melastomataceae	<i>Brachyotum naudinii</i> Triana	2							X				X					X	X	X	X	
	<i>Brachyotum nutans</i> Gleason	21		X	X				X	X					X	X			X	X	X	
Myrtaceae	<i>Myrcianthes oreophila</i> (Diels) McVaugh	83			X	X			X		X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	

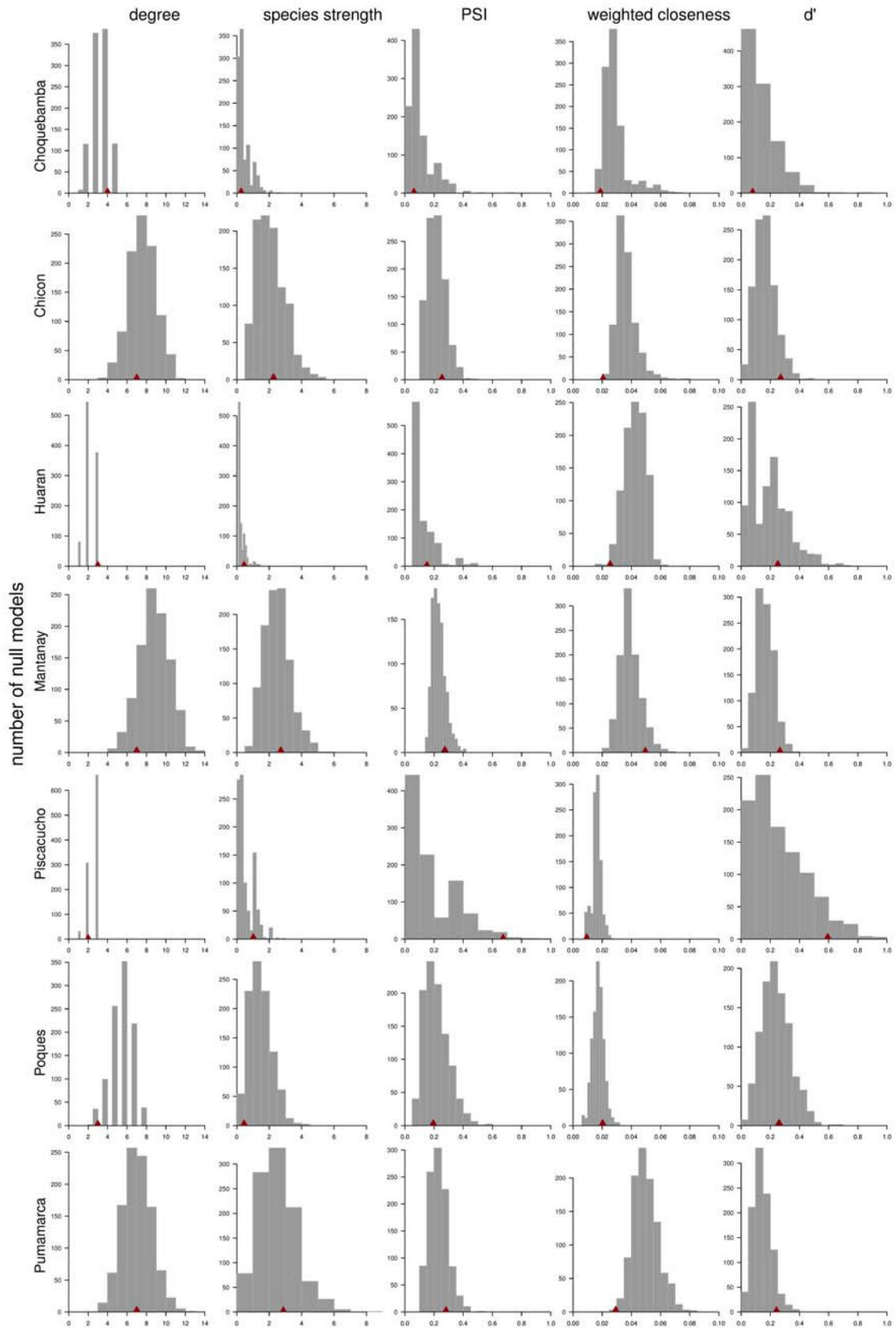


Figure S3. Observed and null model specialisation values of *Bombus funebris* for the analysis of specialisation shift. Histograms illustrate the distribution of 1000 null models and represent the position of a perfect generalist. Red triangles indicate the observed value.

Table S4. Full list of pollinator species surveyed in the Sacred Valley and the total number of visits recorded in which valleys, altitudes, life zones and months. Life zones abbreviations are as follows: mts-S = subtropical montane thorn steppe; mdf-S = subtropical montane dry forest; hmf-S= subtropical humid montane forest; *p-S* – *Polylepis* forest.

Family	Scientific name	Number of visits	Huaran	Yanacocha	Chicon	Mantanay	Pumamarca	Choquebamba	Poques	Tiaparó	Piscacucho	Altitude 1	Altitude 2	Altitude 3	Altitude 4	Altitude 5	mts-S	mdf-S	hmf-S	<i>p-S</i>	April	June	July	August	October	
Diptera	Diptera sp. 1	36	X	X		X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X		X	
	Diptera sp. 2	3		X	X						X		X	X					X			X	X		X	
	Diptera sp. 3	5		X		X			X				X		X	X		X	X		X			X	X	
	Diptera sp. 4	1		X								X							X						X	
	Diptera sp. 5	7				X			X	X	X	X	X	X		X		X	X		X	X		X		
	Diptera sp. 6	2		X	X								X						X					X	X	
	Diptera sp. 7	1									X				X					X			X			
	Diptera sp. 8	2		X								X							X						X	
	Diptera sp. 9	1		X									X						X						X	
	Diptera sp. 10	2		X								X								X					X	
	Diptera sp. 11	7		X	X	X		X		X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X		X	
	Diptera sp. 12	1		X									X						X						X	
	Diptera sp. 13	3		X										X		X				X					X	
	Diptera sp. 14	9		X						X			X	X									X		X	
	Diptera sp. 15	11	X		X	X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	
	Diptera sp. 16	2		X		X						X						X							X	X
	Diptera sp. 17	5		X						X		X				X			X	X			X			X
Anthomyiidae	Anthomyiidae sp. 1	3					X	X							X			X		X						
	Anthomyiidae sp. 2	7		X			X					X	X	X					X		X					
Bibionidae	Bibionidae sp.	2						X					X		X				X		X					
Chironomidae	Chironomidae sp.	1					X				X							X		X						

Vespidae	Vespidae sp. 1	1						X		X				X		X		
	Vespidae sp. 2	1	X							X				X				X
	Vespidae sp. 3	2						X		X		X		X		X		
	Vespidae sp. 4	2						X				X						
	Vespidae sp. 5	1	X							X								X
	Vespidae sp. 6	1						X			X			X		X		
	Vespidae sp. 7	1				X				X						X		
Coleoptera	Coleoptera sp. 1	5		X		X	X	X		X		X	X	X	X	X		X
	Coleoptera sp. 2	7			X		X		X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Coleoptera sp. 3	9		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X
	Coleoptera sp. 4	2	X			X				X				X		X		
	Coleoptera sp. 5	3				X		X		X		X		X		X		
	Coleoptera sp. 6	1						X				X		X			X	
	Coleoptera sp. 7	7				X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X	X		
	Coleoptera sp. 8	1	X								X				X			
	Coleoptera sp. 9	1						X		X				X			X	
	Coleoptera sp. 10	3					X		X	X		X		X		X	X	
	Coleoptera sp. 11	3						X		X				X			X	
	Coleoptera sp. 12	2	X								X			X				
	Coleoptera sp. 13	2					X			X		X		X		X		
	Coleoptera sp. 14	1					X					X		X		X		
Melyridae	<i>Astylus</i> sp. 1	5					X	X	X		X			X		X	X	
	<i>Astylus</i> sp. 2	4				X	X				X	X	X	X		X		X
	<i>Astylus</i> sp. 3	15				X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X
Bruchidae	Bruchidae sp. 1	1					X			X				X		X		
	Bruchidae sp. 2	1					X			X				X		X		
	Bruchidae sp. 3	1							X			X		X		X		
Chrysomelidae	Chrysomelidae sp. 1	1					X			X				X		X		
	Chrysomelidae sp. 2	32		X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Curculionidae	Curculionidae sp. 1	6				X	X	X		X				X		X		
	Curculionidae sp. 2	4				X	X			X		X	X	X		X		
	Curculionidae sp. 3	3				X	X			X		X		X		X		

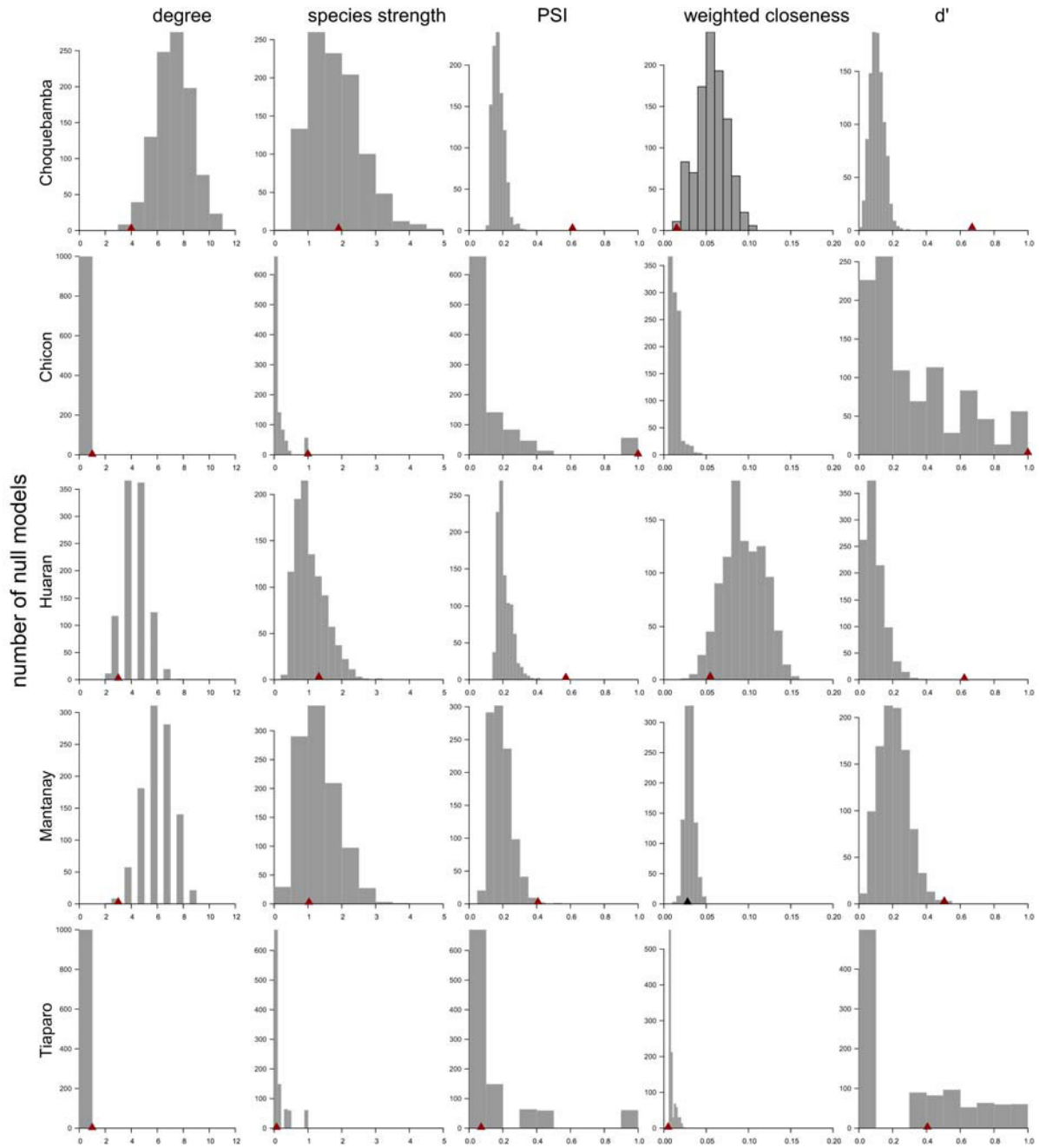


Figure S4. Observed and null model specialisation values of *Aglaeactis cupripennis* for the analysis of specialisation shift. Histograms illustrate the distribution of 1000 null models and represent the position of a perfect generalist. Red triangles indicate the observed value.

Table S5. Summary of observed species level specialisation index values for the most relevant functional groups of pollinators reporting species degree, species strength, Pollination Service Index (*PSI*) weighted closeness and complimentary specialisation d' .

		Species Degree	Species Strength	Pollination Service Index (<i>PSI</i>)	Weighted Closeness	Complimentary Specialisation d'
Diptera	Mean	2.00	0.660	0.210	0.012	0.352
	Median	2.00	0.260	0.140	0.009	0.338
	SD	1.79	0.940	0.200	0.008	0.260
	Maximum	8.00	5.267	1.000	0.030	1.000
	Minimum	1.00	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
<i>Apis mellifera</i>	Mean	7.00	3.264	0.463	0.121	0.340
	Median	6.00	3.080	0.463	0.039	0.330
	SD	3.04	1.950	0.180	0.220	0.090
	Maximum	11.00	6.830	0.674	0.716	0.508
	Minimum	3.00	0.310	0.159	0.010	0.219
Coleoptera	Mean	2.00	0.290	0.153	0.011	0.319
	Median	1.00	0.120	0.092	0.008	0.281
	SD	1.80	0.300	0.197	0.006	0.248
	Maximum	7.00	1.634	1.000	0.027	1.000
	Minimum	1.00	0.010	0.010	0.000	0.000
<i>Bombus</i>	Mean	4.00	1.176	0.246	0.020	0.330
	Median	3.00	0.449	0.196	0.020	0.283
	SD	2.22	1.198	0.182	0.012	0.138
	Maximum	7.00	3.071	0.673	0.050	0.594
	Minimum	1.00	0.125	0.062	0.007	0.078
Tachinidae	Mean	1.00	0.171	0.105	0.011	0.223
	Median	1.00	0.259	0.050	0.009	0.123
	SD	0.65	0.259	0.129	0.006	0.244
	Maximum	3.00	1.048	0.500	0.028	0.815
	Minimum	1.00	0.007	0.007	0.004	0.000
Lepidoptera	Mean	2.00	0.313	0.168	0.009	0.344
	Median	1.00	0.125	0.100	0.009	0.386
	SD	0.82	0.395	0.164	0.005	0.264
	Maximum	3.00	1.167	0.583	0.017	0.753
	Minimum	1.00	0.007	0.007	0.000	0.000
Trochilidae	Mean	1.88	0.714	0.349	0.017	0.524
	Median	1.00	0.583	0.244	0.010	0.519
	SD	1.05	0.719	0.317	0.018	0.277
	Maximum	4.00	2.000	1.000	0.064	1.000
	Minimum	1.00	0.024	0.024	0.000	0.000

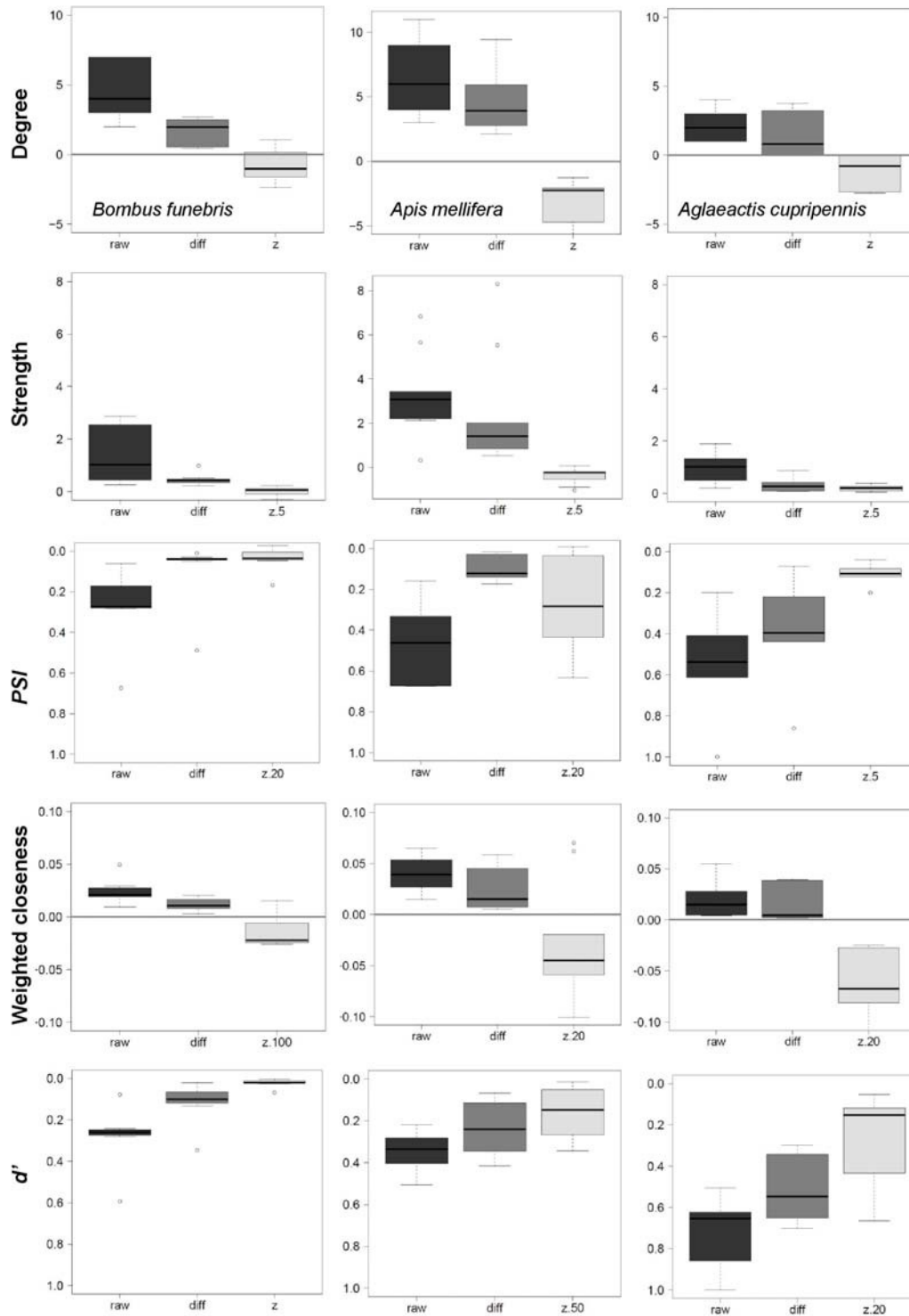


Figure S5. Specialisation index values (degree, strength, Pollination Service Index (*PSI*), Weighted Centrality (*WC*) and complimentary specialisation d') for *Bombus funebris*, *Apis mellifera* and *Aglaeactis cupripennis*. The first box represents the raw index values, as computed from the networks. The second box represents corrected values, i.e. differences between raw values and the mean of the null models. They position the boxes relative to a perfect generalist (value of 0). The third is the z -scores (divided by a constant for more convenient comparison in the plots).

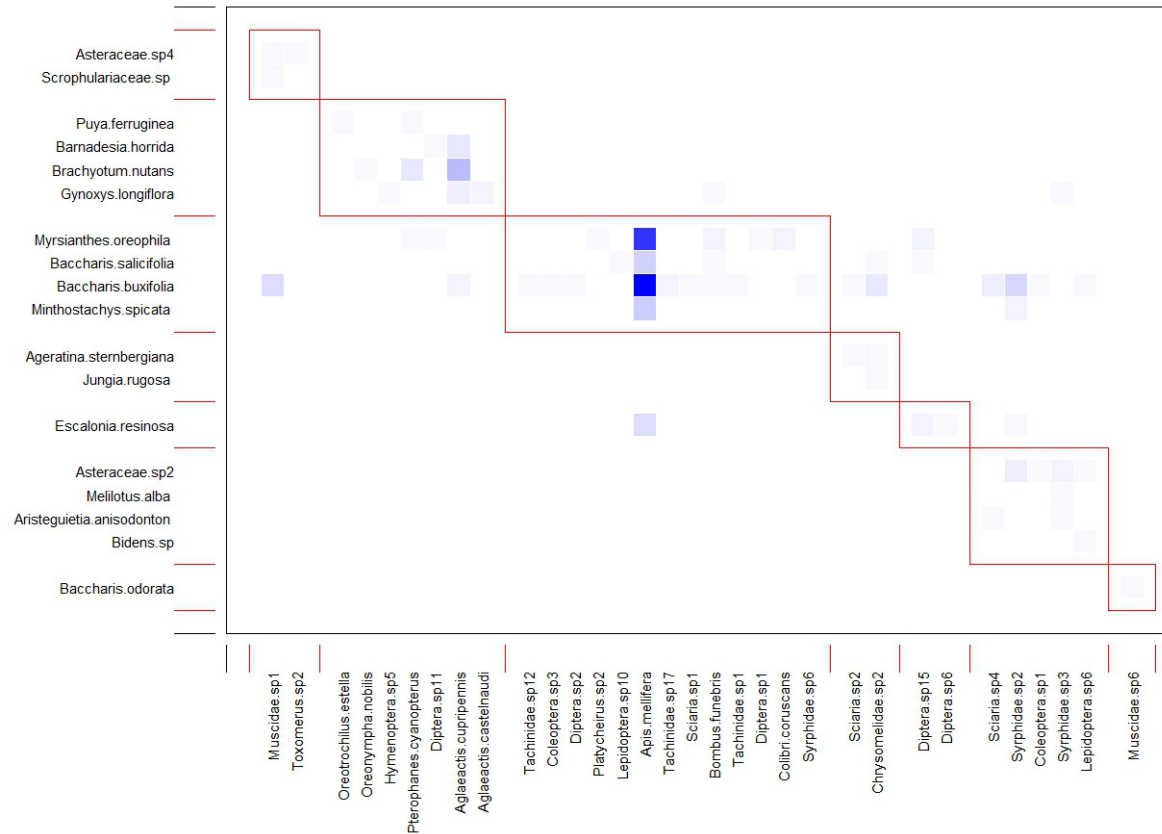


Fig. S6. Chicon featuring seven modules identified by QuanBiMo (with steps = 1e8; $Q = 0.30$; $n = 5$ independent runs). Species are sorted according to their modular affinity, plants as rows and pollinators as columns. Darker squares indicate more frequent interactions. Red boxes delineate the seven modules and cells inside the boxes are the links within modules. As can be seen, *Baccharis buxifolia* is clearly not randomly distributed over the seven modules, thus linking modules six modules (left to right) into a coherent network. There were no network hubs in this valley. The main pollinator and flower type (left to right): Module 2: medium sized hummingbirds with relatively short bills visiting long tubular flowers; Module 3: dominated by honey bees (module hub) a bumblebee, large flies, tachinid flies, large syrphids and a large hummingbird with a long bill visiting open access and gullet flowers; Module 6: dominated by Syrphid sp. 2 (connector) and Syrphid sp. 3 visiting open access Asteraceae flowers.

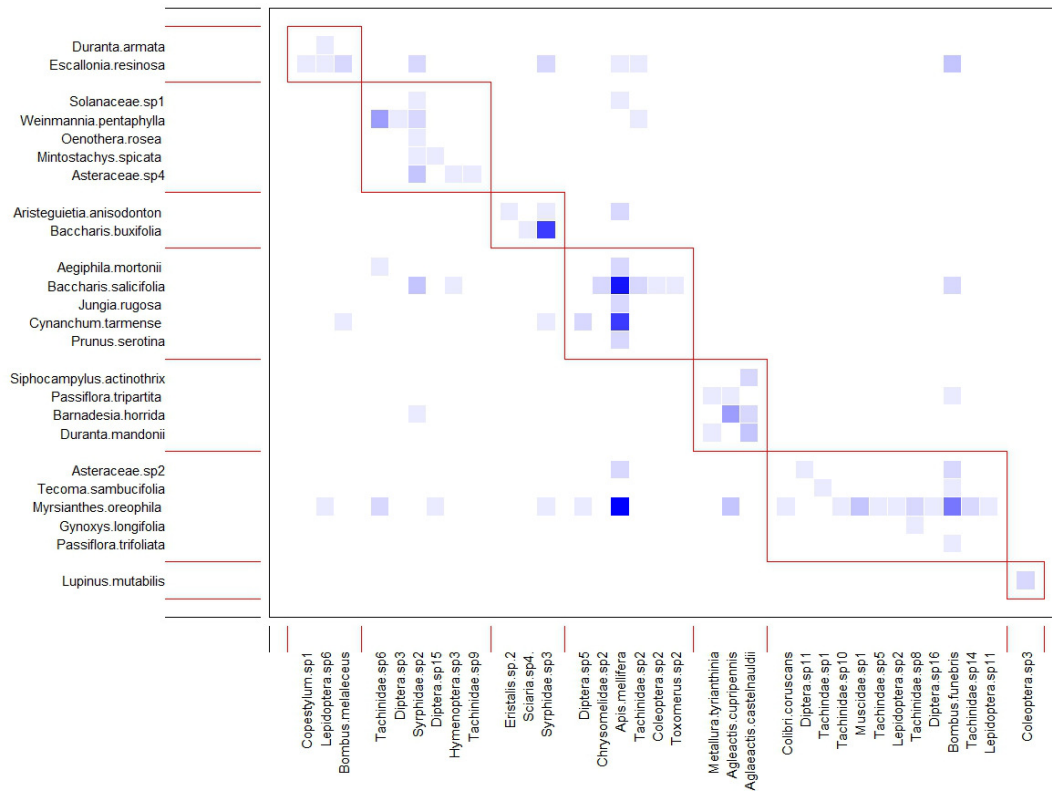


Fig. S7. Mantaray featuring seven modules identified by QuanBiMo (with steps = 1e8; $Q = 0.30$; $n = 5$ independent runs). Species are sorted according to their modular affinity, plants as rows and pollinators as columns. Darker squares indicate more frequent interactions. Red boxes delineate the seven modules and cells inside the boxes are the links within modules.

As can be seen, *Apis mellifera* is clearly not randomly distributed over the seven modules, thus linking five modules (bottom to top) into a coherent network. The main pollinator and flower type (left to right): Module 1: large bumblebee, a butterfly and Syrphid fly visiting small tubular flowers of *Escallonia resinosa* (module hub) and *Duranta armata*; Module 4: dominated by honey bees (network hub), a large syrphid and small beetles visiting mostly open access flowers; Module 5: exclusively medium sized hummingbirds with relatively short bills visiting long tubular flowers; Module 6: dominated by the plant *Myrsianthes oreophila* (connector) and bumble bee, butterflies, large tachinid flies, large flies and a large hummingbird with a long bill visiting mostly long tubular and open access flow