

This is an Open Access document downloaded from ORCA, Cardiff University's institutional repository:<https://orca.cardiff.ac.uk/id/eprint/87708/>

This is the author's version of a work that was submitted to / accepted for publication.

Citation for final published version:

Timoteo, Sergio, Albino Ramos, Jaime, Vaughan, Ian Phillip and Memmott, Jane 2016. High resilience of seed dispersal webs highlighted by the experimental removal of the dominant disperser. *Current Biology* 26 (7) , pp. 910-915.  
10.1016/j.cub.2016.01.046

Publishers page: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2016.01.046>

Please note:

Changes made as a result of publishing processes such as copy-editing, formatting and page numbers may not be reflected in this version. For the definitive version of this publication, please refer to the published source. You are advised to consult the publisher's version if you wish to cite this paper.

This version is being made available in accordance with publisher policies. See <http://orca.cf.ac.uk/policies.html> for usage policies. Copyright and moral rights for publications made available in ORCA are retained by the copyright holders.



1 **High resilience of seed dispersal webs highlighted by the**  
2 **experimental removal of the dominant disperser**

3

4 Sérgio Timóteo <sup>1,2,3</sup>, Jaime Albino Ramos<sup>2</sup>, Ian Phillip Vaughan<sup>4</sup> and Jane  
5 Memmott<sup>1</sup>

6

7 <sup>1</sup>School of Biological Sciences, Life Sciences Building, University of Bristol, 24  
8 Tyndall Avenue, Bristol, BS8 1TQ United Kingdom.

9 <sup>2</sup>MARE – Marine and Environmental Sciences Centre, Department of Life  
10 Sciences, University of Coimbra, 3004-517 Coimbra, Portugal.

11 <sup>3</sup>CFE - Centre for Functional Ecology, Department of Life Sciences, University  
12 of Coimbra, Calçada Martim de Freitas, 3001-456 Coimbra, Portugal

13 <sup>4</sup>Cardiff School of Biosciences, Cardiff University, Cardiff, CF10 3AX, Wales,  
14 United Kingdom.

15

16 Corresponding author: Sérgio Timóteo: Sergio.Timoteo@bristol.ac.uk

17 Running title: Resilience in seed dispersal networks

18 Keywords: community, conservation, ecology, extinction, food webs,  
19 regeneration, resilience, rewiring, network robustness, seed dispersal.

20

21 **SUMMARY**

22 The pressing need to conserve and restore habitats in the face of on-going  
23 species loss [1, 2], requires a better understanding of what happens to  
24 communities when species are lost or reinstated [3, 4]. Theoretical models  
25 show that communities are relatively insensitive to species loss [5, 6], however  
26 they disagree with field manipulations showing a cascade of extinctions [7, 8]  
27 and have seldom been tested under field conditions [e.g. 9]. We experimentally  
28 removed the most abundant seed-dispersing ant species from seed-dispersal  
29 networks in a Mediterranean landscape, replicating the experiment in three  
30 types of habitat, and then compared these communities to un-manipulated  
31 control communities. Removal did not result in large-scale changes in network  
32 structure. It revealed extensive structural plasticity of the remaining community,  
33 which rearranged itself through rewiring, while maintaining its functionality. The  
34 remaining ant species widened their diet breadth in a way that maintained seed  
35 dispersal, despite the identity of many interactions changing. The species  
36 interaction strength decreased; thus the importance of each ant species for  
37 seed dispersal became more homogeneous, thereby reducing the dependence  
38 of seed species on one dominant ant species. Compared to the experimental  
39 results, a simulation model which included rewiring considerably overestimated  
40 the effect of species loss on network robustness. If community-level species  
41 loss models are to be of practical use in ecology or conservation, they need to  
42 include behavioural and population responses and they need to be routinely  
43 tested under field conditions; doing this would be to the advantage of both  
44 empiricists and theoreticians.

45

46 **RESULTS**

47

48 We documented 2146 ant-seed interactions from the 36 plots established in  
49 three habitat types along a decreasing gradient of ecological complexity  
50 (complex Montado forest, grazed forest and cereal fields). In each habitat type  
51 we sampled six control plots, and six experimental plots. *Messor barbarus*  
52 dominated the networks in the 18 control plots (complex Montado: 67%, grazed  
53 forest: 65%, cereal field: 67% of the interactions). The removal of *M. barbarus* in  
54 experimental plots was performed by treating trails and nest entrances with a  
55 formicidate. Eleven ant species (2 to 7 species per plot) were recorded carrying  
56 seeds of 150 plant species (5 to 28 species per plot), establishing 401 unique  
57 ant-seed interactions (Supplemental Data Set). Species and interactions have  
58 different levels of sampling completeness at the plot scale, being very high for  
59 ant species, high for seed species and medium for interactions (96%, 61 % and  
60 41% respectively, Table S1, Supplemental Experimental Procedures). Detection  
61 proportion however, was similar in control and experimental plots (Table S1).  
62 We tested the effect of the removal of *M. barbarus* on ant and seed species  
63 richness, network structure and seed dispersal. We then compare our empirical  
64 results to those from a species loss model which predicts the effect of *M.*  
65 *barbarus* removal. Full details and full results of the linear models (LMs), and  
66 the generalized linear models (GLMs) for plot-level statistics, or the linear and  
67 generalized linear mixed models (LMMs and GLMMs) for multiple seed or ant  
68 species per plot are available in Supplemental Experimental Procedures and  
69 Supplemental Results.

70

71 **Effect of removing of *M. barbarus* on the number of seeds dispersed, seed**  
72 **species richness and network architecture.**

73 The effect of *M. barbarus* removal on the number of seeds dispersed differed  
74 between habitats, with no significant change in the complex Montado and the  
75 cereal habitats (Tukey test,  $p = 0.153$  and  $p = 0.965$ , respectively), but a  
76 significant decrease in the grazed forest (Tukey test,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Figure 1A;  
77 Table S2). The species richness of seeds dispersed was unaffected by the  
78 removal of *M. barbarus* (Figure 1B; Table S3).

79 To determine whether the removal of *M. barbarus* affected the structure  
80 of the networks, six network descriptors [10–12] were calculated for each plot:  
81 1) network specialization [13]; 2) interaction evenness [10]; 3) vulnerability [14];  
82 4) connectance [15]; 5) interaction strength asymmetry [16] and 6) network  
83 robustness [17] (Supplemental Results, Table S4 and references therein). In  
84 addition, species richness and species evenness for both ants and plants were  
85 calculated for each plot, making ten variables in total. A permutational  
86 multivariate analysis of variance (PerMANOVA) was used to test for differences  
87 in all ten variables between the experimental and control plots, and between the  
88 three habitats. There was no significant differences in either case, nor an  
89 interaction effect (Pseudo- $F_{1,30} = 0.298$ ,  $p = 0.626$ ; Pseudo- $F_{2,30} = 1.537$ ,  $p =$   
90  $0.219$ ; and Pseudo- $F_{2,30} = 1.621$ ,  $p = 0.205$  respectively).

91 GLMs for individual variables showed that habitats differed significantly in  
92 terms of seed evenness, interaction evenness, connectance, and interaction  
93 strength asymmetry (Figure 2, Table S3). The significant differences were  
94 always between the two forested habitats and the cereal fields: between  
95 complex Montado and cereal fields (interaction evenness and connectance),

96 and between grazed forest and cereal fields (all the four variables) (Figure 2,  
97 Table S3). Interaction strength asymmetry was negatively affected by the  
98 removal of ants (LM,  $p = 0.03$ ; Figure 2, Table S3), i.e. the dependence  
99 imbalance between the two levels of interacting species was reduced in  
100 experimental plots. Network specialization, vulnerability, and network  
101 robustness were unaffected by habitat and treatment (Table S3). Ant species  
102 richness and evenness was unchanged by the removal of *M. barbarus* and by  
103 habitat (Table S3); thus, the loss of *M. barbarus* was offset by the movement of  
104 other ant species into the experimental plots. The power of the models fitted to  
105 the variables in the PerMANOVA was medium to large (0.53 to 0.99;  $0.72 \pm$   
106  $0.05$ ) [18]. The minimum effect size, relative to the control, detectable at a  
107 significance level of 5%, and power values of 0.80 and 0.95 were modest ( $2.2\%$   
108  $\pm 3.0$  and  $5.4\% \pm 5.5$  respectively, Table S5, Supplemental Experimental  
109 Procedures).

110 We calculated the mean number of unique ant-seed interactions in the  
111 networks, and this was unaffected by habitat and treatment (Table S2).  
112 However, when calculated for species other than *M. barbarus*, allowing us to  
113 ask how these species changed their diet following the removal of *M. barbarus*,  
114 there were significantly more unique interactions between these ant species  
115 and seed species in experimental than in control plots (GLM,  $p < 0.001$ ; Table  
116 S2), this effect being unrelated to habitat.

117 Diet breadth was significantly greater in experimental than in control plots  
118 (GLMM,  $p < 0.001$ ; Table S2), thus in the absence of *M. barbarus*, the  
119 remaining ant species expanded their dietary range, and a greater number of  
120 seed species was taken by each ant species. Differences were also found

121 between the habitats: significantly more seed species were taken by ants in  
122 cereal fields than in complex Montado (GLMM,  $p = 0.025$ ; Figure 1C; Table S2).

123 To understand how the relative dependency of the network on each ant  
124 species changed in response to the removal of *M. barbarus*, we calculated the  
125 mean difference in species interaction strength [16] between the ant species  
126 with the highest score and the rest of the ant community, i.e. how much seed  
127 dispersal functioning is dependent on the ant species with the highest strength.  
128 The difference in species interaction strength was significantly smaller (LMM,  $p$   
129  $< 0.001$ ), decreasing in all habitats when *M. barbarus* was removed, and this  
130 effect was significantly greater in grazed forest (Tukey,  $p < 0.001$ ) than in the  
131 other habitats (Figure 1D, Table S2).

132

### 133 **Effect of removing of *M. barbarus* on seed dispersal**

134 We measured how frequently the different seed species were dispersed by ants  
135 by counting the number of plots where each seed was dispersed – i.e.  
136 occurrence, and subtracting occurrence in control plots from occurrence in  
137 experimental plots to give an occurrence difference. Removing *M. barbarus* had  
138 no consistent effect upon occurrence, increasing in complex Montado, but  
139 decreasing in grazed forest and cereal fields (Figure 1E, Table S2). While the  
140 system showed considerable variation in seed identity, there was very little  
141 variation in the seed species richness. In the experimental plots, 38 plant  
142 species absent from control plots were sampled, but in the control plots, 40  
143 species absent from the experimental plots were sampled, of which 28 were  
144 dispersed only by *M. barbarus*. Looking exclusively at seed species dispersed  
145 by *M. barbarus* the number of seeds of each plant species dispersed was

146 positively affected by *M. barbarus* removal from experimental plots (GLMM,  $p <$   
147 0.001; Table S2). The rarest plant species appeared to be those most strongly  
148 affected by the removal, with 67% of the species lost recorded once or twice  
149 (Figure S1). However a randomization test indicated that this difference could  
150 be accounted by a sampling effect (Supplemental Experimental Procedures).

151

## 152 **Comparing the empirical data to mathematical simulations of species** 153 **removal**

154 We simulated *in silico* the effect of removing *M. barbarus* from the plots by  
155 removing the species and its interactions from the control plot datasets, while  
156 allowing some degree of rewiring [19]: resources from *M. barbarus* were made  
157 available to the remaining species, following Carvalheiro *et al.* [20]  
158 (Supplemental Experimental Procedures). We looked specifically at two  
159 variables: seed species richness, which provides information on the integrity of  
160 the seed dispersal service after removal; and robustness, which measures  
161 future responses of the networks to further species loss.

162 Our model overestimated the impact of removing *M. barbarus* from the  
163 networks (Figure 3). The model predicted its removal would result in a 40%  
164 reduction in the number of seed species dispersed (i.e. richness); the empirical  
165 removal revealed a rather different outcome: increased seed species richness  
166 in the complex Montado experimental plots, and a much smaller than predicted  
167 decrease in experimental plots in the other two habitat types (Figure 4A). For  
168 robustness, the simulations again predicted a large decrease due to removal of  
169 *M. barbarus*, whereas either a small increase (grazed forest) or small decreases  
170 were observed in the experimental plots (Figure 4B). Differences between the



171 simulation and both control and experimental plots were highly significant for  
172 seed species richness and robustness (GLMMs for both variables,  $p < 0.001$ ,  
173 Table S6).

174

## 175 **DISCUSSION**

176

177 The removal of the most abundant ant species in the network did not result in  
178 large-scale changes in the structural properties of the ant-seed dispersal  
179 network. Indeed, the number of seeds dispersed was only significantly reduced  
180 in grazed forest. Furthermore, the only network variable to change due to  
181 removal was interaction strength asymmetry, which increased following the  
182 removal of *M. barbarus*. This result is even more striking because *M. barbarus*  
183 clearly dominated control plots by transporting ca. 65% of the seeds dispersed.  
184 The networks were structurally resilient and, following the removal of the  
185 dominant species, the remaining ant species compensated this loss via  
186 changes in behaviour. New ant species moved into the community, the  
187 remaining ant species dispersed more seed species, and the dependence of  
188 plants on the different ant species was homogenized. The identity of some of  
189 the interactions within the networks changed however: rare plant species were  
190 the most affected by removal of *M. barbarus*, but this is mostly likely  
191 consequence of a sampling effect.

192

## 193 **Limitations**

194 There are two main limitations to our approach. Firstly, seed dispersal only truly  
195 occurs when a seed reaches a new place, escaping predation or becoming

196 unviable, and generates a new individual [21]. Harvester ants are very effective  
197 seed collectors, but actually disperse as few as 0.1% of the seeds they gather  
198 [22]. However, these rare dispersal events have the potential to shape seedling  
199 recruitment in habitats characterized by harsh germination conditions, and high  
200 rates of seed death [23–25]; both of these likely to occur in Montado. Secondly,  
201 observations took place over two months, and thus we observed behavioural  
202 plasticity rather than population changes. However, this response provides a  
203 fast acting buffer to any changes to the community.

204

#### 205 **The effect of removal of *Messor barbarus* on the seed-dispersal network**

206 The number of interactions remained fairly constant because the remaining ant  
207 species assumed the role of *M. barbarus*. Simulations of species loss in other  
208 mutualistic networks – pollination networks – suggest that they cope surprisingly  
209 well to species loss. In pollination networks, the rate of loss due to linked  
210 extinctions is linear, rather than showing precipitous decreases, even when the  
211 most linked species go extinct first [6]. However, field manipulations of  
212 pollination systems suggest that simulations may seriously underestimate the  
213 impact of species loss; for example, losing a single pollinator species can impair  
214 the reproductive outcome of plants [9]. Brosi and Briggs [9] pointed out that the  
215 role of species in ecosystem functions is dynamic; they change their  
216 interactions depending on the presence of other competitors. However, these  
217 authors considered only the impact of removing one pollinator species on one  
218 plant species, so the community-wide impact of their manipulation remains  
219 unknown. Our community approach allows the detection of compensatory  
220 effects at the scale of the network, and of both losses and gains in a wide range

221 of species. We found that most of the seed species lost from the networks were  
222 rare, but that these rare species were replaced by other rare species. However,  
223 the observed change in species occurrence was a sampling effect. The seeds  
224 of 28 rare species were dispersed by *M. barbarus* and the association between  
225 a dominant, highly generalized species and rare species is seen in other  
226 mutualistic networks that are characterized by a highly nested architecture [26].

227 Habitat type affected seed dispersal with consistent differences between  
228 both forested habitats and the cereal fields (Figure 2). Canopy cover is an  
229 important driving factor in the stability of host-parasitoid networks in forests, and  
230 a reduction in cover may increase spatiotemporal homogenization [10]. The  
231 significantly lower interaction evenness in our canopy-free plots than in our  
232 forest plots is an effect also observed by Tylianakis et al. [27].

233 Our results fit within the general concepts of resilience and robustness,  
234 albeit some subtle distinctions. Highly resilient networks return to their original  
235 state after perturbation, as defined by the identity of their interactions [3, 28, 29].  
236 This is clearly not the case with our system, as the identity of the interactions is  
237 different after the perturbation. Similarly, while we are working in the general  
238 field of robustness (recording the response of the community to species loss),  
239 the term network robustness refers to network structure rather than function [5,  
240 6, 30]. Our ant-seed dispersal system is characterized by a high level of  
241 structural plasticity [19] which allows extensive rewiring. However, what we  
242 observe goes beyond this, as rewiring does not necessarily imply the continuity  
243 of function, a network could rewire, but function could be diminished. What we  
244 observed was a highly resilient community that shows considerable structural  
245 plasticity while maintaining functionality, via an increase in diet breadth of the

246 remaining ant species. However, we do not know whether this structural  
247 plasticity is sustainable.

248

### 249 **The simulated species removal**

250 The species loss simulations seriously overestimated the effect of species loss  
251 on seed dispersal. Models predicted the loss of the dispersal service to rare  
252 species in the community, but failed to predict that other rare species would be  
253 dispersed instead. Moreover, the simulations overestimated the impact of  
254 species loss on network robustness. These results emphasize a real need to  
255 develop models that predict more accurately the outcome of perturbations.

256 Although we assumed that some rewiring would occur (distributing shared seed  
257 resources among the remaining species), our simulations remained unrealistic.

258 In real communities, mechanisms of compensation following the loss of a  
259 competitive species induce reshuffling of the interactions between other  
260 species, which may provide better resistance to disturbance to the system as a  
261 whole [31]. This could occur at both the individual level (short-term behavioral  
262 responses) and the species level (longer term population responses).

263

### 264 **CONCLUSION**

265

266 This is one of the few studies in which the effect of species removal from an  
267 ecological network is tested in a replicated field experiment at the level of the  
268 whole community. We observed a remarkable degree of resilience and  
269 restructuring in our seed dispersal networks, enabling seed dispersal to  
270 continue, despite a huge experimental perturbation. The simulation models,

271 however, provided a poor prediction of our experimental findings, emphasizing  
272 the need for better models if these are to be of practical use. The incorporation  
273 of behavioral and population responses is critically needed in this context.  
274 Closer collaboration between field ecologists and theoreticians would improve  
275 the likelihood of this, as large-scale, well replicated, ambitious field experiments  
276 are needed, alongside new theoretical approaches.

277

#### 278 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

279 ST collected the data, performed modelling work, undertook analysis and wrote  
280 the first draft, JR advised on field logistics and analysis, IV advised on the  
281 statistics and revisions to the manuscript, JM designed the study, ST, JR and  
282 JM contributed substantially to manuscript revisions.

283

#### 284 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

285 ST was funded by a grant from Fundação para Ciência e Tecnologia  
286 (SFRH/BD/60290/2009). We would like to thank Jason Tylianakis, Colin  
287 Fontaine and Daniel Montoya for discussing the work with us, Xavier Espadaler  
288 for confirming the identity of the ant species, Sam Duckerin for field assistance,  
289 and Alfredo Sendim, for allowing us to work on his farm.

290

291 **REFERENCES**

292

- 293 1. Pimm, S., and Raven, P. (2000). Biodiversity: extinction by numbers.  
294 *Nature* 403, 843–845.
- 295 2. Hanski, I. (2005). Landscape fragmentation, biodiversity loss and the  
296 societal response. *EMBO Rep.* 6, 388–329.
- 297 3. McCann, K. S. (2000). The diversity-stability debate. *Nature* 405, 228–33.
- 298 4. Memmott, J. (2009). Food webs: a ladder for picking strawberries or a  
299 practical tool for practical problems? *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.*  
300 364, 1693–1699.
- 301 5. Dunne, J. A., Williams, R. J., and Martinez, N. D. (2002). Network  
302 structure and biodiversity loss in food webs: robustness increases with  
303 connectance. *Ecol. Lett.* 5, 558–567.
- 304 6. Memmott, J., Waser, N. M., and Price, M. V (2004). Tolerance of  
305 pollination networks to species extinctions. *Proc. R. Soc. London. Ser. B*  
306 *Biol. Sci.* 271, 2605–2611.
- 307 7. Paine, R. (1966). Food web complexity and species diversity. *Am. Nat.*  
308 100, 65–75.
- 309 8. Brown, J., and Munger, J. (1985). Experimental manipulation of a desert  
310 rodent community: food addition and species removal. *Ecology* 66, 1545–  
311 1563.
- 312 9. Brosi, B. J., and Briggs, H. M. (2013). Single pollinator species losses  
313 reduce floral fidelity and plant reproductive function. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*  
314 *U. S. A.* 110, 13044–8.
- 315 10. Tylianakis, J. M., Tscharntke, T., and Lewis, O. T. (2007). Habitat  
316 modification alters the structure of tropical host-parasitoid food webs.  
317 *Nature* 445, 202–205.
- 318 11. Heleno, R. H., Ceia, R. S., Ramos, J. A., and Memmott, J. (2009). Effects  
319 of alien plants on insect abundance and biomass: a food-web approach.  
320 *Conserv. Biol.* 23, 410–419.
- 321 12. Villa-Galaviz, E., Boege, K., and Del-Val, E. (2012). Resilience in plant-  
322 herbivore networks during secondary succession. *PLoS One* 7, e53009.
- 323 13. Blüthgen, N., Menzel, F., and Blüthgen, N. (2006). Measuring  
324 specialization in species interaction networks. *BMC Ecol.* 6.
- 325 14. Bersier, L.-F., Banašek-Richter, C., and Cattin, M.-F. (2002). Quantitative  
326 descriptors of food-web matrices. *Ecology* 83, 2394–2407.
- 327 15. Jordano, P. (1987). Patterns of mutualistic interactions in pollination and  
328 seed dispersal: connectance, dependence asymmetries, and coevolution.  
329 *Am. Nat.* 129, 657–677.

- 330 16. Bascompte, J., Jordano, P., and Olesen, J. M. (2006). Asymmetric  
331 coevolutionary networks facilitate biodiversity maintenance. *Science* 312,  
332 431–433.
- 333 17. Burgos, E., Ceva, H., Perazzo, R. P. J., Devoto, M., Medan, D.,  
334 Zimmermann, M., and María Delbue, A. (2007). Why nestedness in  
335 mutualistic networks? *J. Theor. Biol.* 249, 307–13.
- 336 18. Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*  
337 2nd ed. (Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers).
- 338 19. Staniczenko, P. A., Lewis, O. T., Jones, N. S., and Reed-Tsochas, F.  
339 (2010). Structural dynamics and robustness of food webs. *Ecol. Lett.* 13,  
340 891–9.
- 341 20. Carvalheiro, L. G., Barbosa, E. R. M., and Memmott, J. (2008). Pollinator  
342 networks, alien species and the conservation of rare plants: *Trinia glauca*  
343 as a case study. *J. Appl. Ecol.* 45, 1419–1427.
- 344 21. Levin, S. A., Muller-Landau, H. C., Nathan, R., and Chave, J. J. (2003).  
345 The ecology and evolution of seed dispersal: a theoretical perspective.  
346 *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.* 34, 575–604.
- 347 22. Azcárate, F. M., and Peco, B. (2003). Spatial patterns of seed predation  
348 by harvester ants ( *Messor Forel*) in Mediterranean grassland and  
349 scrubland. *Insectes Soc.* 50, 120–126.
- 350 23. Detrain, C., and Tasse, O. (2000). Seed drops and caches by the  
351 harvester ant *Messor barbarus*: do they contribute to seed dispersal in  
352 Mediterranean grasslands? *Naturwissenschaften* 87, 373–6.
- 353 24. Turnbull, L. A., Rees, M., and Crawley, M. J. (1999). Seed mass and the  
354 competition/colonization trade-off: a sowing experiment. *J. Ecol.* 87, 899.
- 355 25. Azcárate, F., Arqueros, L., and Sánchez, A. (2005). Seed and fruit  
356 selection by harvester ants, *Messor barbarus*, in Mediterranean grassland  
357 and scrubland. *Funct. Ecol.* 19, 273–283.
- 358 26. Bascompte, J., and Jordano, P. (2007). Plant-animal mutualistic  
359 networks: the architecture of biodiversity. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.* 38,  
360 567–593.
- 361 27. Tylianakis, J. M., Laliberté, E., Nielsen, A., and Bascompte, J. (2010).  
362 Conservation of species interaction networks. *Biol. Conserv.* 143, 2270–  
363 2279.
- 364 28. Holling, C. (1973). Resilience and stability of ecological systems. *Annu.*  
365 *Rev. Ecol. Syst.* 4, 1–23.
- 366 29. Pimm, S. (1984). The complexity and stability of ecosystems. *Nature* 307,  
367 3321–326.
- 368 30. Solé, R. V., and Montoya, J. M. (2001). Complexity and fragility in  
369 ecological networks. *Proc. Biol. Sci.* 268, 2039–45.
- 370 31. Ives, A. R., and Cardinale, B. (2004). Food-web interactions govern the

371 resistance of communities after non-random extinctions. *Nature* 429, 174  
372 – 177.  
373



## FIGURE LEGENDS

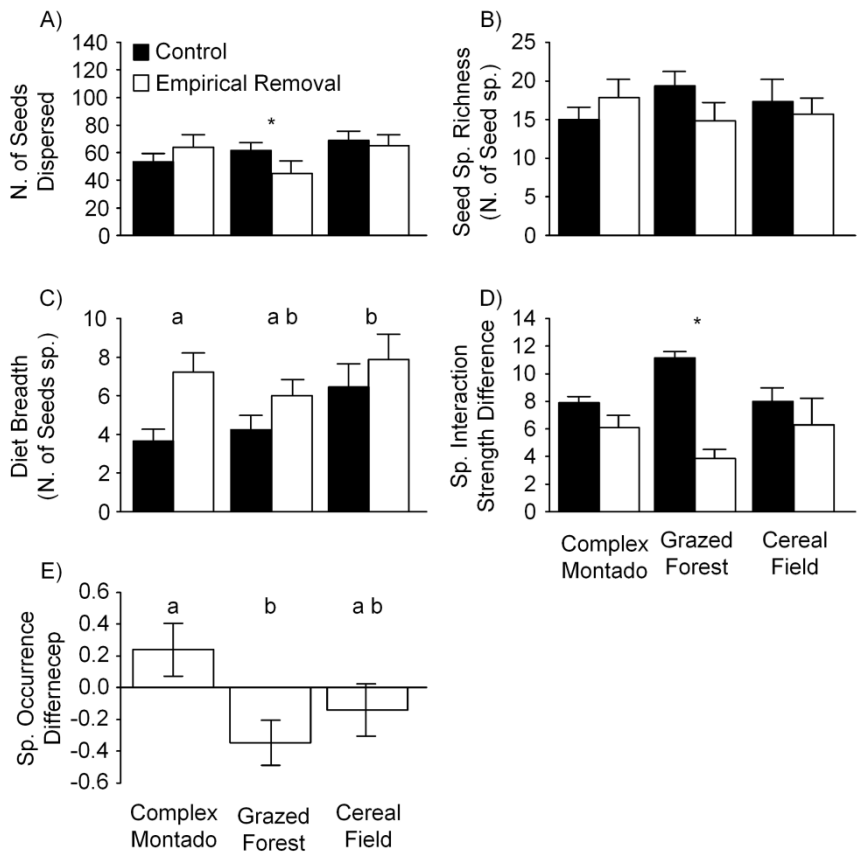
**Fig. 1:** A) Number of seeds recorded as being dispersed, and B) seed species richness (B), means  $\pm$  SEM (n = 36 plots). C) Diet breadth of ants other than *M. barbarus*, means  $\pm$  SEM (114 observations of ten ant species, in 36 plots). D) Species interaction strength difference in ant species, between the most abundant species in the network and the remaining species, means  $\pm$  SEM (31 observations of ten ant species), in control plots (no removal of *M. barbarus*) and experimental plots (removal of *M. barbarus*) in three habitats. E) Seed species occurrence difference, mean difference  $\pm$  SEM (220 observations from 150 plants species), bars above the line show that the number of plots where seed species were dispersed was higher in the experimental plots; bars below the line show that the number of plots where seed species were dispersed was higher in the control plots), in the three habitats sampled in control plots (no removal of the ant *M. barbarus*) and experimental plots (with removal of *M. barbarus*). Different letters (a, b) indicate significant differences between habitats. \* Significant effect of treatment within habitat. Details of the statistical analysis and outcomes can be found in Supplemental Experimental Procedures and Tables S2 and S3.

**Fig. 2:** Response variables used in the univariate LMs showing differences between the three habitats, means  $\pm$  SEM (n = 36 plots): A) Seed species evenness, B) Interaction evenness, C) Connectance, and Interaction strength asymmetry. Only variables with significant differences are shown (different letters (a, b, c) indicate significant differences between habitats). Details of the

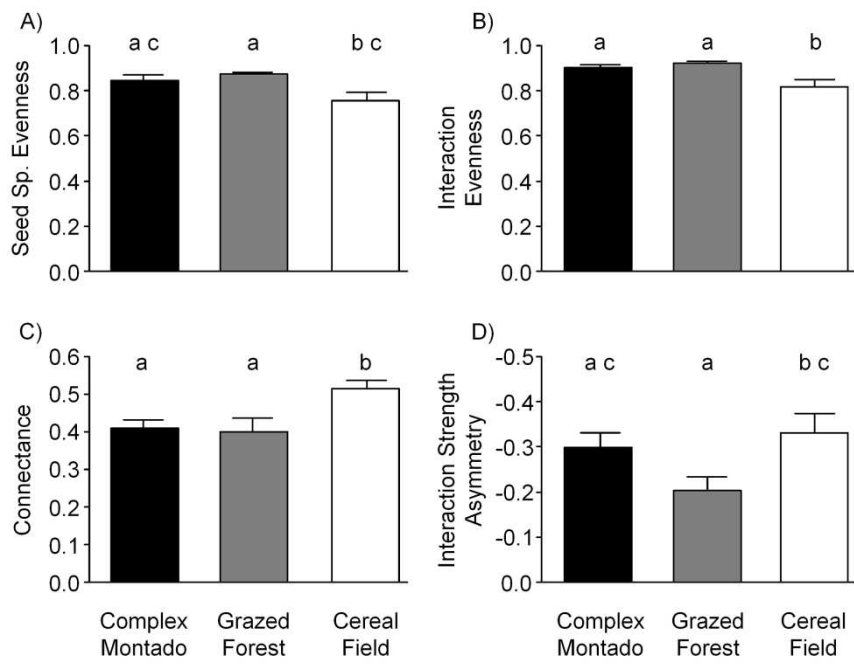
statistical analysis and outcomes can be found in the Supplemental Experimental Procedures and Table S3.

**Fig. 3:** Control, empirical removal, and simulated ant—seed dispersal networks, from plots chosen as representative of the different treatments and habitats. Each species is represented by a rectangle, seeds at the bottom level and ants at the top level; the widths of the rectangles are proportional to the species' abundance in each plot. The size of each triangle connecting ants and seeds represents the frequency of interactions in the each plot. *M. barbarus* interactions are shown in white in the control plots; this species was removed from the empirical removal and simulated removal plots.

**Fig. 4:** Comparison of the empirical removal of *M. barbarus* and its simulated removal, in three habitats: A) the empirical and simulated differences (%) to control plots in dispersed seed species richness, and B) the empirical and simulated differences to control plots in network robustness (53 observations from two types of networks). Bars above the x-axis show that the parameter was greater in the presence of *M. barbarus* than in its absence, bars below the x-axis show the opposite. Details of the statistical analysis and outcomes can be found in Supplemental Experimental Procedures and Table S6.

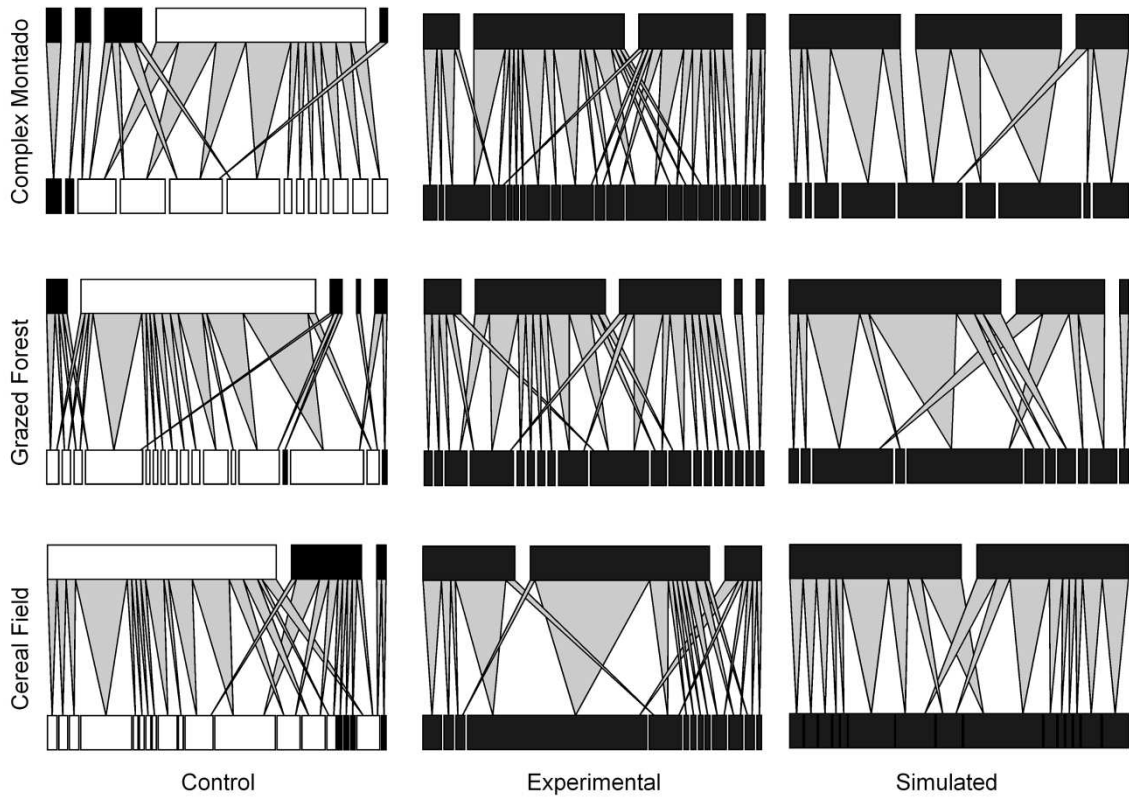


**Fig. 1**

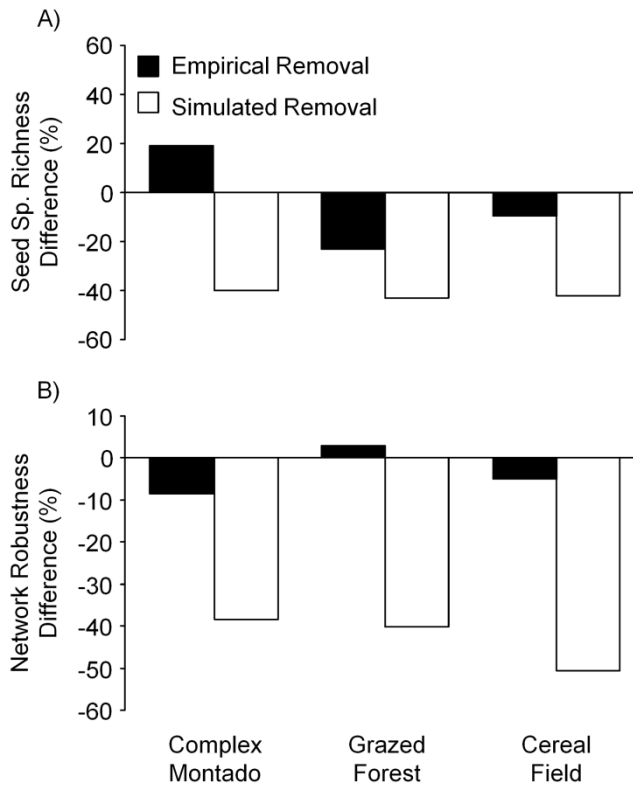


**Fig. 2**

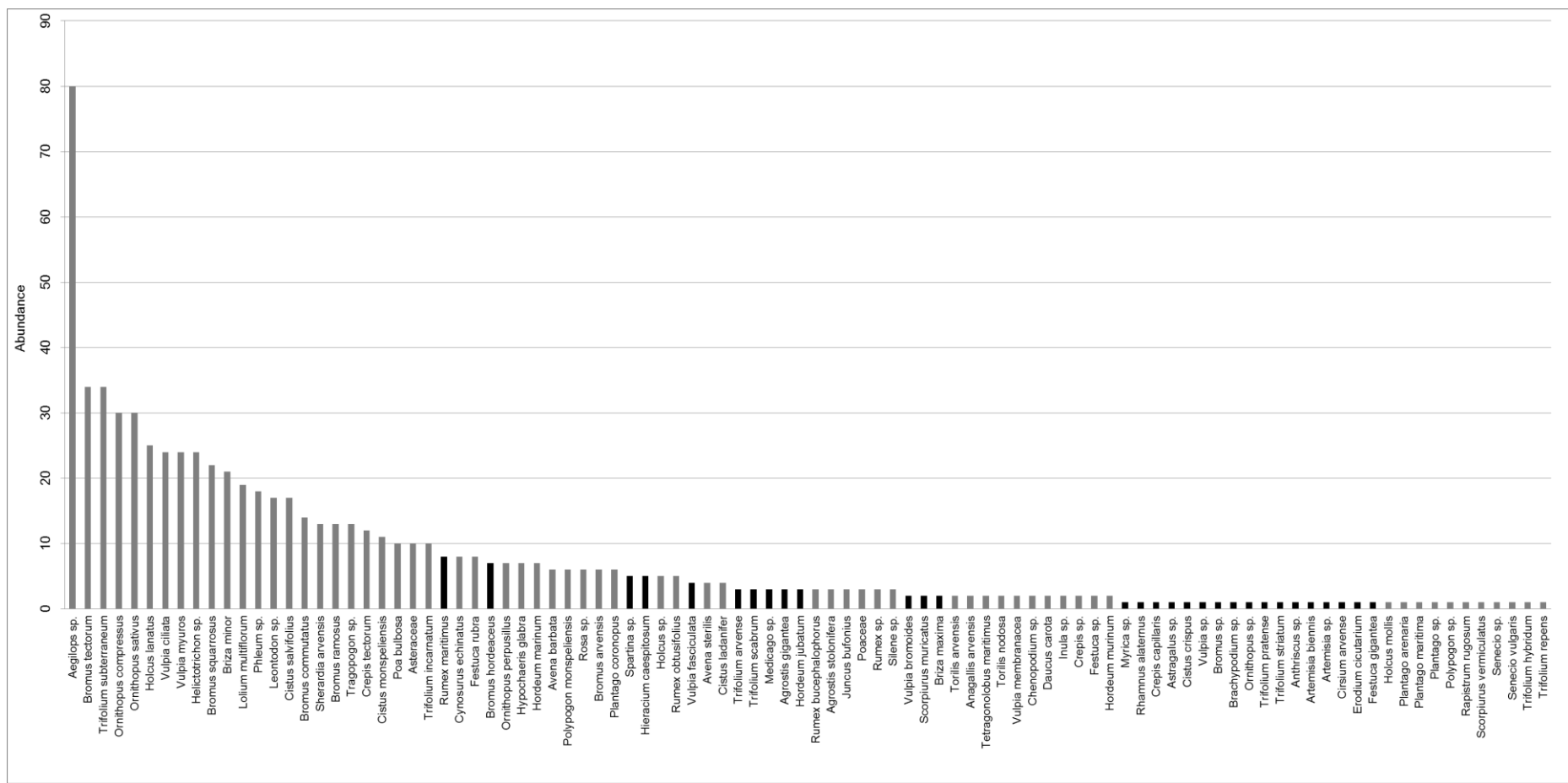
376



**Fig. 3**



**Fig. 4**



**Figure S1** - Distribution of the abundance of seeds dispersed by *Messor barbarus* in control plots. Species lost from the experimental plots are shown in black.

	Control	Treatment	Overall
Ant species	96% ± 2.39	97% ± 1.79	96% ± 1.50
Seed species	63% ± 5.48	59% ± 4.17	61% ± 3.46
Interactions	43% ± 4.63	39% ± 4.23	41% ± 3.16

**Table S1** – Mean detection percentage ( $\pm$  SEM) of ant species, seed species and interactions between species, in control plots, experimental plots, and overall. Detection percentage was calculated as the proportion of the estimated number of species/interactions recorded (based on Chao 2 estimator) (see Supplemental Experimental Procedures).



	Response variable and model structure	Parameter	Estimate ± SE	P	
Effect of removing of <i>M. barbarus</i> on network architecture and species diversity	Number of seeds dispersed: GLM; log-link, Poisson errors	Intercept	3.977 ± 0.056	< 0.001	
		Habitat (GF)	0.145 ± 0.076	0.057	
		Habitat (CF)	0.255 ± 0.074	< 0.001	
		Plot (Experimental)	0.182 ± 0.076	0.016	
		GF:Experimental	- 0.501 ± 0.110	< 0.001	
		CF:Experimental	- 0.240 ± 0.104	0.021	
	$X^2 = 41.479, 5 \text{ df}, p < 0.001$				
	Unique interactions (all ants): GLM; log-link, Poisson errors	Both variables		> 0.05	
		$X^2 = 6.414, 3 \text{ df}, p = 0.093$			
	Unique interactions (no <i>M. barbarus</i> ): GLM; log-link, Poisson errors	Intercept	2.283 ± 0.100	< 0.001	
		Habitat (GF)	0.091 ± 0.110	0.408	
		Habitat (CF)	- 0.188 ± 0.119	0.112	
		Plot (Experimental)	0.512 ± 0.096	< 0.001	
	$X^2 = 35.138, 3 \text{ df}, p < 0.001$				
	Diet breadth: GLMM; log-link, Poisson errors	Intercept	0.980 ± 0.246	< 0.001	
		Habitat (GF)	0.032 ± 0.140	0.818	
		Habitat (CF)	0.327 ± 0.146	0.025	
		Plot (Experimental)	0.425 ± 0.118	< 0.001	
	$X^2 = 15.421, 3 \text{ df}, p = 0.001$				
	Species interaction strength difference: LMM; identity link, normal errors	Intercept	8.412 ± 0.737	< 0.001	
		Habitat (GF)	3.084 ± 0.812	< 0.001	
		Habitat (CF)	- 0.020 ± 0.963	0.983	
		Plot (Experimental)	- 1.817 ± 0.865	0.045	
GF:Experimental		- 5.654 ± 1.122	< 0.001		
CF:Experimental		- 0.090 ± 1.371	0.948		
$X^2 = 15.421, 5 \text{ df}, p < 0.001$					

4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13

	Response variable and model structure	Parameter	Estimate $\pm$ SE	P
Effect of removal of <i>M. barbarus</i> on seed dispersal	Difference in occurrence: LMM; identity link, normal errors	Intercept	0.239 $\pm$ 0.160	0.137
		Habitat (GF)	- 0.586 $\pm$ 0.221	0.009
		Habitat (CF)	-0.380 $\pm$ 0.226	0.095
	$X^2 = 7.125, 2 \text{ df}, p = 0.028$			
	Seeds dispersed by <i>M. barbarus</i> : GLMM; log-link, Poisson errors	Intercept	1.144 $\pm$ 0.145	< 0.001
		Plot (Experimental)	0.264 $\pm$ 0.049	< 0.001
$X^2 = 28.962, 1 \text{ df}, p < 0.001$				

15 **Table S2 (related to Figure 1)** – Results for the Linear Mixed Models (LMMs), Generalized Linear  
 16 Models (GLMs) and Generalized Linear Mixed Models (GLMMs) comparing different response variables  
 17 between control and treatment plots, and among the three habitat types. For ease of interpretation, models  
 18 only included the interaction between treatment and habitat when this reduced the AIC: no other model  
 19 simplification was used. *P*-values are derived from *t*-tests for models with normal errors and *z*-tests for  
 20 models with Poisson errors.  $X^2$  test was performed on deviance of the final model against that of a null  
 21 model. GF – Grazed Forest, CF – Cereal Fields. Parameter estimates for habitat are relative to complex  
 22 Montado.

23

24

25

	Response variable and model structure	Parameter	Estimate ± SE	P
Effect of removing of <i>M. barbarus</i> on network architecture and species richness	Ant species richness: GLM; log-link, Poisson errors	Both variables		> 0.05
		$X^2 = 4.052, 3 \text{ df}, p = 0.256$		
	Seed species richness: GLM; log-link, Poisson errors	Both variables		> 0.05
		$X^2 = 0.856, 3 \text{ df}, p = 0.836$		
	Network specialization: LM; identity link, normal errors	Both variables		> 0.05
		Adjusted $R^2 = -0.006, F_{3,32} = 0.931, p = 0.437$		
	Interaction evenness: LM; identity link, normal errors	Intercept	0.906 ± 0.655	< 0.001
		Habitat (GF)	0.696 ± 0.674	0.223
		Habitat (CF)	- 0.786 ± 0.674	0.007
		Plot (Experimental)	0.226 ± 0.655	1.000
		Adjusted $R^2 = 0.302, F_{3,32} = 9.349, p = 0.002$		
	Vulnerability: LM; identity link, normal errors	Both variables		> 0.05
		Adjusted $R^2 = 0.024, F_{3,32} = 4.459, p = 0.297$		
	Connectance: LM; identity link, normal errors	Intercept	0.388 ± 5.950	< 0.001
		Habitat (GF)	7.826 ± 5.280	0.616
		Habitat (CF)	2.776 ± 5.280	0.009
		Plot (Experimental)	5.634 ± 5.950	0.281
		Adjusted $R^2 = 0.233, F_{3,32} = 4.538, p = 0.009$		
	Interaction strength asymmetry: LM; identity link, normal errors	Intercept	- 0.338 ± - 0.029	< 0.001
		Habitat (GF)	0.073 ± - 0.037	0.041
Habitat (CF)		- 0.024 ± - 0.037	0.511	
Plot (Experimental)		0.064 ± - 0.029	0.030	
Adjusted $R^2 = 0.234, F_{3,32} = 4.562, p = 0.009$				

26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35

	Response variable and model structure	Parameter	Estimate ± SE	P
Effect of removing of <i>M. barbarus</i> on network architecture and species richness	Network robustness: LM; identity link, normal errors	Both variables		> 0.05
		Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = - 0.037, F <sub>3,32</sub> = 0.587, p = 0.628		
	Ant evenness: LM; identity link, normal errors	Both variables		> 0.05
		Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.181, F <sub>5,30</sub> = 5.119, p = 0.049		
	Seed evenness: LM; identity link, normal errors	Intercept	1.162 ± 2.670	< 0.001
		Habitat (GF)	2.791 ± 2.495	0.480
		Habitat (CF)	1.866 ± 2.495	0.023
		Plot (Experimental)	3.140 ± 2.670	0.543
	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> = 0.185, F <sub>3,32</sub> = 3.655, p = 0.023			

37 **Table S3 (related to Figure 1 and Figure 2)** – Results for the GLMs and LMs of variables included in  
38 the univariate models: network specialization, interaction evenness, vulnerability, connectance,  
39 interaction strength asymmetry, robustness, ant evenness, seed evenness, ant species richness, and seed  
40 richness. Variables were entered transformed or untransformed, whichever applies. Model fitting and  
41 presentation of results is as described for Supplemental Table S1. Parameter estimates for Habitat are  
42 relative to complex Montado (CM). GF – Grazed Forest, CF – Cereal Fields.  
43

Variable	Description
Interaction Specialization	A network level measure for specialization, based on the Shannon diversity index, and calculated as the deviation from be the minimum specialization expected given the matrix. Interaction Specialization ranges from 1 (total specialization) to 0 (no specialization). This index has the advantage of not being affected by network size or sampling intensity, delivering reliable and robust comparisons [S1].
Interaction Evenness	This index is the Shannon index for interactions, using the total number of realised interactions as the denominator [S2, S3]. It has been demonstrated that habitat disturbance affects Interaction Evenness negatively [S2], although this may be a mathematical consequence of losses in abundance of plants or animals [S4].
Vulnerability	Originally defined as the weighted mean number of predators per prey [S3]; in the present work adapted to ant species per seed species.
Connectance	An unweighted measure of the fill of the network, calculated by dividing the number of observed links by the total number of possible links ( $C=L/(IJ)$ ). It has been shown that Connectance has a negative relationship with species diversity [S5], though this could be a probabilistic artefact due to a combination of sampling effort with species abundance, in networks of different sizes [S4]. In food webs, Connectance promotes an increase in Robustness to secondary extinctions, and they are more susceptible to “attacks” (extinction of the most connected nodes) than to “errors” (random loss of nodes) [S6]. In mutualistic networks, Connectance may promote persistence (number of species remaining after disturbance) of the assemblage but is detrimental to its resilience (speed of recovery) [S5].
Interaction Strength Asymmetry	Also an indicator of specialization between the levels of the web, measuring dependence asymmetry in the overall interactions [S7]. Singleton species are assigned disproportional influence, but bipartite package’s version of this metric removes all singleton species in order to avoid such influence [S8]. Negative values imply higher dependency in the lower levels of the network.
Network Robustness	Robustness gives a measure of robustness to the loss of species. It is rooted on the rationale that if a given proportion of species becomes extinct (primary extinctions) from one level of a network, species on other levels that depend on them will be eliminated as a consequence (secondary extinctions). This can be depicted by a extinction curve characterized by its slope - extinction slope [S9]. This was improved by Burgos <i>et al.</i> [S10] who proposed a simple single parameter: the area under the curve (AUC) of extinction.

44 **Table S4** – Description of the network variables entered in the PerMANOVA and LM models (see  
45 Supplemental Experimental Procedures).

Variables	Minimum effect size (%) detectable at 0.80 power	Minimum effect size (%) detectable at 0.95 power
Ant species richness	2.7	9.2
Seed species richness	0.8	1.1
Network specialization	< 0.1	0.6
Interaction Evenness	< 0.1	< 0.1
Vulnerability	6.2	16.8
Connectance	8.3	11.1
Network Robustness	21.3	31.2
Ant evenness	12.1	33.5
Seed evenness	8.1	12.0

46 **Table S5** - The smallest effect sizes (control vs experimental) detectable using our experimental design,  
47 assuming a significance level of 0.05 and a power of 0.80 and 0.95 (see Supplemental Experimental  
48 Procedures). Values are calculated as the percent change in the treatment plots relative to the control, for  
49 the network metrics that were not found to respond significantly to *M. barbarus* removal (see Table S2).  
50

	Response variable and model structure	Parameter	Estimate ± SE	P
Comparing the empirical data to mathematical simulations of species removal	Seed richness: GLMM; log-link, Poisson errors	Intercept	2.308 ± 0.090	< 0.001
		Habitat (GF)	0.077 ± 0.088	0.381
		Habitat (CF)	0.065 ± 0.089	0.468
		Plot (Control)	0.492 ± 0.094	< 0.001
		Plot (Experimental)	0.425 ± 0.095	< 0.001
	X <sup>2</sup> = 31.999, 2 df, p < 0.001			
	Robustness: LMM; identity link, normal errors	Intercept	0.155 ± 0.013	< 0.001
		Habitat (GF)	0.007 ± 0.014	0.625
		Habitat (CF)	- 0.017 ± 0.014	0.226
		Plot (Control)	0.113 ± 0.014	< 0.001
Plot (Experimental)		0.104 ± 0.014	< 0.001	
X <sup>2</sup> = 49.023, 4 df, p < 0.001				

51 **Table S6 (related to Figure 4)** – Results for the GLMM and LMM for dispersed seed species richness  
52 and network robustness, respectively. Models were simplified as described for Table S1. Parameter  
53 estimates for Plot are relative to Predicted (predicted values from the simulation models).  
54

## 55 Supplemental Experimental Procedures

### 56 57 Field site, study system and data collection

58  
59 The study was conducted in the Portuguese Montado, which is an agro-sylvo-pastoral system,  
60 largely dominated by two species of evergreen oaks, *Quercus suber* and *Q. rotundifolia*, with a diverse  
61 shrubby and herbaceous understory. The area is subject to the Mediterranean climate of long and dry  
62 summers, and has high diversity of both plant and animal species. The field experiments were conducted  
63 on a 1700 ha farm (N38° 42' 12.708", W-8° 19' 29.1396"). The Montado is a matrix of three habitats, all  
64 three of which were present at the field site: 1) complex Montado forest, used to harvest the bark of *Q.*  
65 *suber* (cork oak); the structure of the habitat is diverse, and it has trees and well-developed shrub and  
66 herbaceous layers; 2) grazed forest, used mainly for livestock grazing (sheep, pigs, or cows); the habitat is  
67 simplified, and it has a reduced shrub layer and a simplified herbaceous community; and 3) cereal fields,  
68 characterized by a very low density of trees, a complete absence of shrubs and, with the exception of the  
69 crop and annual weeds, no herbaceous layer.

70 We replicated our experiment in each of the three habitats, to determine whether our results were  
71 context-dependent or could be generalized across different habitats. We chose an ant-seed dispersal  
72 community for manipulation, and used observations of ants carrying seeds as a proxy for dispersal; the  
73 latter is the usual approach in this field [S11, S12]. In each of the three habitats, six control and six  
74 experimental plots were chosen (a total of 36 plots); each plot included a nest entrance of the most  
75 abundant ant species in this area (*M. barbarus*, Linnaeus 1767: Formicidae: *Messor*). Ant species in the  
76 *Messor* genus are found all over the world, especially in the Palearctic, being *M. barbarus* the most  
77 studied species of them [S13]. *M. barbarus* is a very common seed harvester in Mediterranean grasslands  
78 and scrublands [S14, S15], with an important role on the composition and structure of the plant  
79 communities of these habitats [S16] The plots were 10 m by 10 m in size and at least 30 m apart (further  
80 than the maximum distance seeds are transported by large individual ants [S17]). Control and  
81 experimental plots were assigned haphazardly avoiding clustering of plots of either type (i.e. they were  
82 not paired spatially). To remove *M. barbarus* from experimental plots, the nest entrances and trails  
83 leading to them were treated with a formicide (Deltamethrin, a synthetic pyrethroid). Nests were checked  
84 every other day, and re-treated if necessary, until ant activity ceased after about five weeks. Nests were  
85 monitored throughout the field season for any further activity and retreated if necessary. The application  
86 of the formicide was highly targeted and is unlikely to have affected other ant species, as these do not use  
87 the trails and entrances of *M. barbarus*.

88 Ants and seeds were sampled twice between the beginning of August and mid-September 2012,  
89 from 0730h to 1330h, by a team of two people. Ant activity was low in the afternoons due to high  
90 temperatures; ants are most active at temperatures of between 25 and 30°C [S18, S19], and the afternoon  
91 temperature at the field site exceeded 35 °C. Each plot was searched for interactions – an ant of any  
92 species carrying a seed – for two hours each day. Two plots were sampled each day, one experimental  
93 and one control and in order to sample ant species with different activity periods, searches alternated  
94 hourly between the two plots. Both the ants and their seeds were collected for identification. Ant  
95 identification was carried out using a guide to the ants of Portugal [S20] and confirmed by an ant  
96 taxonomist (see Acknowledgements); identification of seeds to plant species (71.4%), or to the lowest  
97 taxonomic level possible (27.6% and 1.0% to genus and family levels, respectively, and henceforth  
98 referred as species for simplification), was carried out using a reference collection from the field, along  
99 with identification manuals [S21, S22] and two online resources [S23, S24]. The seed-dispersal network  
100 for each plot, showing all recorded interactions, was visualized and analyzed using bipartite package in R  
101 [S25]. Analysis was based on these 36 networks and on the data used to construct them.

### 102 103 Sampling completeness and species/interactions detection

104  
105 To estimate the effectiveness of species and interaction detection, we estimated the total  
106 numbers of ant species, seed species, and interactions present in all 36 plots, comparing these estimates to  
107 our observed values. A non-parametric estimator – Chao 2 was used, which is based on the proportion of  
108 unique species relative to the proportion of duplicate species (species/interactions collected in a single  
109 sample and in two samples, respectively) [S26, S27]. The software EstimateS 9.1.0 [S28] was used to  
110 calculate expected richness. Sampling completeness was calculated by dividing the observed richness by  
111 the estimated total richness. Detection of ant species was very high and close to the expected richness  
112 (96%), high for seed species (61%) and relatively low for interactions (41%) (Table S1). Critically,  
113 sampling completeness was independent of treatment, with the detection proportion in the control and  
114 experimental plots always within 4% of one another (Table S1).



115 **Effect of removing of *M. barbarus* on the number of seeds dispersed, network architecture and**  
116 **seed/ant species richness.**

117  
118 To test effect of removing *M. barbarus* on the number of seeds dispersed at each habitat we  
119 performed for each habitat a separate generalized linear model (GLM). To determine the effect of *M.*  
120 *barbarus* removal on the architecture of the networks, six widely used network variables [e.g. S2, S29,  
121 S30] were calculated for each plot (see Table S4). Four of the six network variables provide information  
122 about how generalized the seed dispersal process is: 1: network specialization (based on interaction  
123 diversity [S1]), 2: interaction evenness (uniformity of link distribution [S2]), 3: vulnerability (number of  
124 ant species per seed species [S3]), and 4: connectance (proportion of realized links [S31]). The fifth  
125 variable, interaction strength asymmetry, indicates how balanced the network is, and measures overall  
126 dependence and the direction of the asymmetry between the two levels [S7]. Finally, network robustness  
127 evaluates the ability of the network to cope with extinctions, and measures its response to species loss  
128 [S10]. As well as these six network variables, species richness and evenness for both ants and plants were  
129 calculated for each plot, making 10 variables in total.

130 A permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PerMANOVA [S32]) was used to test for  
131 overall differences in the ten variables between the experimental and control plots and between the three  
132 habitats. This is a non-parametric multivariate test that makes use of dissimilarity matrices, and through a  
133 series of permutations calculates p values drawn from F statistics [S32]. Although its power is lower than  
134 a parametric counterpart, such as a MANOVA, it is robust to multivariate heterogeneity of multivariate  
135 dispersion, and makes no assumptions about multivariate normality [S32, S33].

136 We explored the effect of treatment and habitat on each individual on each individual variable.  
137 Separate linear models (LMs), were used to test the effect of treatment and habitat on the individual  
138 variables, except for ant and plant species richness for which GLMs were used. Residuals were plotted  
139 and checked for departures from normality, and variables were transformed (log or power  
140 transformations) to ensure the best fit to normality; variables were back-transformed for the presentation  
141 of results. Linear Models (LMs), General Linear Models (GLMs), and the linear and generalized linear  
142 mixed models (LMMs and GLMMs) were fitted using R software [S34], using packages lme4 [S35] and  
143 nlme [S36] for the latter two. Tables S2, S3 and S6 provide full details of the different models used,  
144 including link functions and error distributions, model refinement and full results. Models always  
145 contained the main effects, but for ease of interpretation, interaction terms were only included if they  
146 reduced the AIC. Pairwise differences between habitats and habitat-treatment combinations were assessed  
147 using Tukey tests, with R's multcomp package.

148 The number of unique ant-seed interactions, in each network was calculated; in the control plots  
149 it was calculated for all ant species collectively and then for all species minus *M. barbarus*. To test the  
150 effects of *M. barbarus* removal and habitat on the number of unique ant-seed interactions, we used a  
151 GLM.

152 To quantify ant diet breadth, we calculated the number of seed species taken by each ant species  
153 other than *M. barbarus* in each plot. We investigated variation in ant diet breadth by using a GLMM with  
154 treatment and habitat as fixed effects. Plot and ant species were included as random effects to control for  
155 potential pseudo-replication given the multiple observations (ant species) from the same plot, and for  
156 differences in the ant species among plots.

157 We used species interaction strength to quantify the overall dependence of plants on each of the  
158 ant species. Species interaction strength measures how important a species at one level of the network is  
159 to the species at another level, and is calculated as the sum of the dependencies of each species [S7]. In  
160 the context of our ant—seed system, we used species interaction strength to quantify the overall  
161 dependence of plants (all species) on each of the ant species. To understand how the relative dependency  
162 of the network on each ant species changed in response to the removal of *M. barbarus*, we calculated the  
163 mean difference in species interaction strength between the ant species with the highest score and the rest  
164 of the ant community, in each habitat for each species. The greater this difference, the greater the  
165 dependence of plant species on a single species of ant, and this demonstrates the degree of its dominance  
166 in relation to the rest of the community. Differences in species interaction strength in plots with and  
167 without *M. barbarus* and between habitats were tested with a LMM, entering ant species as a random  
168 effect.

169 The number of seeds recorded as being dispersed in each plot was compared between treatments  
170 (control vs. experimental) and habitats by using a GLM.

171  
172  
173  
174

175 **Power analysis**

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

The level of replication of our networks across the system (6 plots per treatment per habitat,  $n = 36$ ) is above the common level of replication typical in most empirical network studies [e.g. S37–S41], and in line with the best replicated empirical networks [e.g. S2, S42]. However non-significant differences between treatments (control vs experimental plots) could still be due to insufficient replication. Consequently, we performed a post-hoc power analysis to estimate the smallest treatment effect (difference between treatment and control) that could be detected using our experimental design. This was done for the non-significant statistical results from the univariate analysis of network metrics (see Table S3 for variables under analysis), following the procedure by Johnson et al. [S43]. This method is based on 1000 simulations of the dataset used to fit the model, using parameters estimated from the original model as a base to recreate the dataset. We re-ran the simulation using a range of possible effect sizes to find the smallest value that would be detected at a significance level of 5% and adopting power values of 0.80, which is commonly adopted in ecology, and 0.95, which ensures that as much emphasis is placed on Type II errors (our primary concern here) as for Type I errors [S44]. The results (Table S5) suggest that we would have been able to detect treatment effects relative to the control of  $< 0.01\%$  to 21.3% ( $2.2\% \pm 3.0$ ), with a power of 0.80, and of  $< 0.01\%$  to 33.5% ( $5.4\% \pm 5.5$ ), with a power of 0.95, for the nine variables, confirming the ability of our experiment to detect large changes in network structure, and increasing the confidence in our conclusion that network metrics are little affected by removal of *M. barbarus*.

196 **Effect of removing of *M. barbarus* on seed dispersal**

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

We measured how frequently the different seed species were dispersed by ants, and how this was affected by *M. barbarus* removal. For each plant species in each habitat, its occurrence in control plots (i.e. the number of plots where seed species were recorded as being dispersed) was subtracted from its occurrence in experimental plots, calling this variable “occurrence difference”. We used a LMM to test whether this difference varied between habitats, entering plant species as a random effect.

Finally, we looked exclusively at the seed species dispersed by *M. barbarus*, and tested the effect of *M. barbarus* removal on the overall mean number of dispersed seeds per plant species, by using a GLMM, entering plant species and plot as random effects to control for multiple observations from the same plot, and differences in plant species composition among the plots.

208 **Randomization test to determine whether observed differences in the dispersal of rare seed species**  
209 **is a sampling effect.**

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

We used a permutational MANOVA, based on 10 000 permutations, to identify differences in the overall seed species composition among habitats, and between treatments. The permutational MANOVA showed that the overall seed community was significantly different among habitats ( $p < 0.001$ ), but not between treatment and control (0.72).

However, the observed differences in the dispersal of rare species could be a sampling effect, and for this reason we used a randomization test. We tested whether the number of seed species unique to either control (40 species) or experimental (38 species) plots (a total of 78 species, henceforth referred to as “unique species” as opposed to the other 72 species found in both control and treatment plots) was significantly greater than that expected by chance (i.e. exceeding a potential sampling effect). We repeatedly randomised the data, and each time the number of unique species was counted and compared to the observed number (78).

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

The randomization test worked in the following way: 1) the ant-seed interactions were summarised in each of the 36 plots, giving the number of seeds of each species; 2) within each of the three habitats separately (to account for the large inter-habitat differences in the overall seed species list), the 12 plots were randomly reallocated to give six ‘control’ and six ‘treatment’ plots (i.e. just switching the labels around); 3) the randomised data sets from the three habitats were combined and the overall number of unique species calculated. The process was run 10 000 times to build up a frequency distribution for the number of unique species. The observed number of unique species in the field data (78) was then compared to this frequency distribution, and the number of simulations that produced  $>78$  unique species counted.

231

232

233

234

Across the simulations, the mean number of unique species to either control or treatment plots was 74.9, with more than 78 unique species occurring in 1291 simulations, giving a p-value of 0.13 i.e. the observed number of unique species was not significantly greater than that expected by chance, suggesting that 78 unique species was consistent with a sampling effect.

## Comparing the empirical data to mathematical simulations of species removal

For comparison with the empirical data, we simulated the effect of removing *M. barbarus* from the plots by removing the species and its interactions from the control plot datasets, i.e. by instigating an *in silico* extinction. Given the efficiency with which ants locate and gather newly available resources [S14, S45], we assumed that the seeds we observed being dispersed by *M. barbarus* would be taken by other ant species in the plots. Therefore, seeds made available by the removal of *M. barbarus* (i.e. the seeds they dispersed in the control plots) were allocated to the remaining species in the network (7 ant species, ranging from 1- 6) in proportion to their abundance in each plot. Following the approach of Carvalho *et al.* [S46], we used the proviso of an ant species only being allocated a seed species if it had been observed taking a seed of this species. Carvalho *et al.* [S46] accounted for both saturated and unsaturated resources, but we assumed that the remaining ant community was unsaturated, and that each of the remaining species added more workers to the community to collect the additional seeds. Mathematically, the process follows the equation:

$$A_i = O_i + R \times \left( \frac{O_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i)} \right)$$

where  $A_i$  is the predicted amount of seeds of a remaining seed species following removal of *M. barbarus*, and dispersed by each ant species ;  $O_i$  is the original quantity of a remaining seed taken by an ant species; and  $R$  is the quantity of seeds taken originally by *M. barbarus*. Plants whose seeds were solely moved by *M. barbarus* are lost from the network, thus reflecting the impact that the removal of this species has on the seed dispersal process. In reality, we don't know how many seeds remain in the environment as we only have data on those observed being carried by an ant. However, we are interested in the ant-seed dispersal community and so we assume that we have data on all the seeds that are ant dispersed.

We looked specifically at the variables seed species richness and network robustness. Both seed species richness and network robustness were compared between treatments (control, empirical removal, and simulated removal) using a GLMM. Network was modeled as a random effect to account for a lack of independence between control and simulated networks, the latter being derived from the control network in each plot.

266 **Supplemental References**

- 267 S1. Blüthgen, N., Menzel, F., and Blüthgen, N. (2006). Measuring specialization in species  
268 interaction networks. *BMC Ecol.* 6.
- 269 S2. Tylianakis, J. M., Tschardt, T., and Lewis, O. T. (2007). Habitat modification alters the  
270 structure of tropical host-parasitoid food webs. *Nature* 445, 202–205.
- 271 S3. Bersier, L.-F., Banašek-Richter, C., and Cattin, M.-F. (2002). Quantitative descriptors of food-  
272 web matrices. *Ecology* 83, 2394–2407.
- 273 S4. Blüthgen, N., Fründ, J., Vázquez, D. P., and Menzel, F. (2008). What do interaction network  
274 metrics tell us about specialization and biological traits? *Ecology* 89, 3387–99.
- 275 S5. Thebault, E., and Fontaine, C. (2010). Stability of ecological communities and the architecture of  
276 mutualistic and trophic networks. *Science* (80-. ). 329, 853–856.
- 277 S6. Dunne, J. A., Williams, R. J., and Martinez, N. D. (2002). Network structure and biodiversity loss  
278 in food webs: robustness increases with connectance. *Ecol. Lett.* 5, 558–567.
- 279 S7. Bascompte, J., Jordano, P., and Olesen, J. M. (2006). Asymmetric coevolutionary networks  
280 facilitate biodiversity maintenance. *Science* 312, 431–433.
- 281 S8. Dormann, C. F., Fründ, J., Blüthgen, N., and Gruber, B. (2009). Indices, graphs and null models:  
282 analyzing bipartite ecological networks. *Open Ecol. J.* 2, 7–24.
- 283 S9. Memmott, J., Waser, N. M., and Price, M. V. (2004). Tolerance of pollination networks to species  
284 extinctions. *Proc. R. Soc. London. Ser. B Biol. Sci.* 271, 2605–2611.
- 285 S10. Burgos, E., Ceva, H., Perazzo, R. P. J., Devoto, M., Medan, D., Zimmermann, M., and María  
286 Delbue, A. (2007). Why nestedness in mutualistic networks? *J. Theor. Biol.* 249, 307–13.
- 287 S11. Howe, H. F., and Smallwood, J. (1982). Ecology of seed dispersal. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* 13,  
288 201–228.
- 289 S12. Christianini, A. V., and Oliveira, P. S. (2010). Birds and ants provide complementary seed  
290 dispersal in a neotropical savanna. *J. Ecol.* 98, 573–582.
- 291 S13. Plowes, N., Johnson, R., and Hoelldobler, B. (2013). Foraging behavior in the ant genus *Messor*  
292 (Hymenoptera: Formicidae: Myrmicinae). *Myrmecol. News* 18, 33–49.
- 293 S14. Azcárate, F. M., and Peco, B. (2003). Spatial patterns of seed predation by harvester ants (  
294 *Messor Forel*) in Mediterranean grassland and scrubland. *Insectes Soc.* 50, 120–126.
- 295 S15. Reyes-López, J., Ruiz, N., and Fernández-Haeger, J. (2003). Community structure of ground-  
296 ants: the role of single trees in a Mediterranean pastureland. *Acta Oecologica* 24, 195–202.
- 297 S16. Azcárate, F., Arqueros, L., and Sánchez, A. (2005). Seed and fruit selection by harvester ants,  
298 *Messor barbarus*, in Mediterranean grassland and scrubland. *Funct. Ecol.* 19, 273–283.
- 299 S17. Gómez, C., and Espadaler, X. (1998). Myrmecochorous dispersal distances: a world survey. *J.*  
300 *Biogeogr.* 25, 573–580.
- 301 S18. Azcárate, F. M., Kovacs, E., and Peco, B. (2007). Microclimatic conditions regulate surface  
302 activity in harvester ants *Messor barbarus*. *J. Insect Behav.* 20, 315–329.
- 303 S19. Cerdá, X., Retana, J., and Cros, S. (1998). Critical thermal limits in Mediterranean ant species:  
304 trade-off between mortality risk and foraging performance. *Funct. Ecol.* 12, 45–55.
- 305 S20. Collingwood, C. A., and Prince, A. (1998). A guide to ants of continental Portugal. *Bol. da Soc.*  
306 *Port. Entomol. Supl.* 5, 8–49.
- 307 S21. Villarias, J. L. (1979). Atlas de malas hierbas 1st ed. Ediciones Mundi-Prensa, ed. (Madrid:  
308 Heroes, S.A.).
- 309 S22. Martin, C. A., and Barkley, W. D. (1973). Seed identification manual 2nd ed. (The Blackburn  
310 Press).
- 311 S23. CSIC Herbarium Jaca. Available at: <http://proyectos.ipe.csic.es/herbario/en/listado->

- 312 [imagenes.php?galeria=3](#) [Accessed November 19, 2013].
- 313 S24. Groningen Institute of Archaeology The digital plant atlas. Available at:  
314 <http://dzn.eldoc.ub.rug.nl/> [Accessed November 19, 2013].
- 315 S25. Dormann, C. F. F. C., Gruber, B., and Fründ, J. (2008). Introducing the bipartite package:  
316 analysing ecological networks. *R News* 8, 8–11.
- 317 S26. Chao, A. (1984). On the estimation of the number of classes in a population. *Scand. J. Stat.* 11,  
318 265–270.
- 319 S27. Colwell, R. K., and Coddington, J. A. (1994). Estimating Terrestrial Biodiversity through  
320 Extrapolation. *Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci.* 345, 101–118.
- 321 S28. Colwell, R. K. (2013). EstimateS: Statistical estimation of species richness and shared species  
322 from samples. Version 9. Available at: <http://purl.oclc.org/estimates>.
- 323 S29. Villa-Galaviz, E., Boege, K., and Del-Val, E. (2012). Resilience in plant-herbivore networks  
324 during secondary succession. *PLoS One* 7, e53009.
- 325 S30. Heleno, R. H., Ceia, R. S., Ramos, J. A., and Memmott, J. (2009). Effects of alien plants on insect  
326 abundance and biomass: a food-web approach. *Conserv. Biol.* 23, 410–419.
- 327 S31. Jordano, P. (1987). Patterns of mutualistic interactions in pollination and seed dispersal:  
328 connectance, dependence asymmetries, and coevolution. *Am. Nat.* 129, 657–677.
- 329 S32. Anderson, M. J. (2001). A new method for non parametric multivariate analysis of variance.  
330 *Austral Ecol.* 26, 32–46.
- 331 S33. Anderson, M. J., and Walsh, D. C. I. (2013). PERMANOVA, ANOSIM, and the Mantel test in  
332 the face of heterogeneous dispersions: What null hypothesis are you testing? *Ecol. Monogr.* 83,  
333 557–574.
- 334 S34. R Core Team (2015). R: A language and environment for statistical computing.
- 335 S35. Bates, D., Mächler, M., and Bolker, B. (2012). Fitting linear mixed-effects models using lme4. *J.*  
336 *Stat. Softw.* .....
- 337 S36. Pinheiro, J., Bates, D., DebRoy, S., Sarkar, D., and Team, R. (2014). nlme: linear and nonlinear  
338 mixed effects models. *R Packag. version 3.1-118*.
- 339 S37. Heleno, R., Lacerda, I., Ramos, J. a, and Memmott, J. (2010). Evaluation of restoration  
340 effectiveness: community response to the removal of alien plants. *Ecol. Appl.* 20, 1191–203.
- 341 S38. Cruz, J. C., Ramos, J. A., Silva, L. P., Tenreiro, P. Q., and Heleno, R. H. (2013). Seed dispersal  
342 networks in an urban novel ecosystem. *Eur. J. For. Res.* 132, 887–897.
- 343 S39. Silva, F. R. Da, Furtado, R., Montoya, D., Memmott, J., Pizo, M. A., and Rodrigues, R. R.  
344 (2014). The restoration of tropical seed dispersal networks. *Conserv. Biol.*, 1–9.
- 345 S40. Macfadyen, S., Gibson, R. H., Symondson, W. O. C., and Memmott, J. (2011). Landscape  
346 structure influences modularity patterns in farm food webs: consequences for pest control. *Ecol.*  
347 *Appl.* 21, 516–24.
- 348 S41. Brosi, B. J., and Briggs, H. M. (2013). Single pollinator species losses reduce floral fidelity and  
349 plant reproductive function. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 110, 13044–8.
- 350 S42. Carvalheiro, L. G., Veldtman, R., Shenkute, A. G., Tesfay, G. B., Pirk, C. W. W., Donaldson, J.  
351 S., and Nicolson, S. W. (2011). Natural and within-farmland biodiversity enhances crop  
352 productivity. *Ecol. Lett.*, 1–9.
- 353 S43. Johnson, P. C. D., Barry, S. J. E., Ferguson, H. M., and Müller, P. (2015). Power analysis for  
354 generalized linear mixed models in ecology and evolution. *Methods Ecol. Evol.* 6, 133–142.
- 355 S44. Di Stefano, J. (2003). How much power is enough? Against the development of an arbitrary  
356 convention for statistical power calculations. *Funct. Ecol.* 17, 707–709.
- 357 S45. Gómez, C., and Espadaler, X. (1998). Seed dispersal curve of a Mediterranean myrmecochore:  
358 influence of ant size and the distance to nests. *Ecol. Res.* 13, 347–354.

359 S46. Carvalheiro, L. G., Barbosa, E. R. M., and Memmott, J. (2008). Pollinator networks, alien species  
360 and the conservation of rare plants: *Trinia glauca* as a case study. *J. Appl. Ecol.* 45, 1419–1427.  
361  
362