

1 **Plant traits that influence flower visits by birds in a montane forest**

2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9

Oscar Gonzalez
Grupo Aves del Peru. Gomez del Carpio 135 Lima, Peru
and
Department of Natural Sciences, Emmanuel College, Franklin Springs 30662 GA, USA.
ogonzalez@ec.edu

Abstract

10 In a bird-flowering plant network, birds select plants that present traits attractive
11 to them. I studied plant characteristics that might predict flower visitation rate by the
12 most common bird visitors in a bird-flowering plant network located in an elfin forest of
13 the Andes. The nectarivorous birds which had the highest number of interactions with
14 flowering plants in this network were the Coppery Metaltail (*Metallura theresiae*), the
15 Great Sapphirewing (*Pterophanes cyanopterus*), and the Moustached Flowerpiercer
16 (*Diglossa mystacalis*). I analyzed different flower traits (flower aggregation, nectar
17 volume, nectar energy, color, orientation, and dimensions of the corolla) of the common
18 plants that these birds visited with a principal component analysis. The plants most
19 visited by birds were *Brachyotum lutescens* and *Tristerix longibracteatus*. While nectar
20 traits of the plants seemed to be the best predictor for bird visitation, there was no
21 statistical association between visitation and plant traits, except for *Metallura theresiae*
22 in the dry season. I discuss the possible causes of resource partitioning for these
23 nectarivorous birds.

24 **Keywords:** Nectar, elfin forest, flower traits, nectarivorous birds

25
26

27

Introduction

28 Birds that feed on nectar make decisions on multiple scales to select plants and
29 flowers; these scales could be at habitat, flowering patch, individual plant, or flower level
30 (Sutherland and Gass 1995; Ortiz-Pulido and Vargas-Licona 2008). The visitation of
31 each bird species may be different for the same resource (Feinsinger 1976; Davis et al.
32 2015). Different plant traits can attract flower visitors, such as the color of the corolla
33 (Wilson et al. 2006), the aggregation of flowers of the plants (Fonturbel et al. 2015), the
34 morphological matching of the feeding apparatus with the flower (Cotton 2007), flower
35 orientation (Aizen 2003), or nectar properties.

36 Nectar is a primary resource for flower visitors and is a crucial determinant in
37 interactions between animals and plants (Wiens 1989, Rathcke 1992, Cotton 2007,
38 Janecek et al. 2012; Justino et al. 2012). The energy resource of nectar is determined
39 by volume present and sugar concentration; animals tend to preferentially visit flowers
40 with the most reward (Fleming et al. 2004). It is likely that nectarivorous birds - such as
41 hummingbirds or flowerpiercers - have specific preferences for some plants depending
42 on the nectar volume or concentration of their flowers (Hainsworth and Wolf 1976,
43 Nicolson and Fleming 2003, Gutierrez et al. 2004, Zambon et al. 2020), and often for
44 amino acids (Hainsworth and Wolf 1976). Although, the best sources for amino acids in
45 hummingbirds are insects (Abrahamczyk and Kessler 2015).

46 The activity of flower visitors can be predicted by flower phenology (Feinsinger
47 1980, Stiles 1980, Murcia 1996, Rotenberry 1990, Gutierrez and Rojas 2001, Dante et
48 al. 2013, Magilanesi et al. 2014, Gonzalez and Loiselle 2016). For example, movements
49 of hummingbirds are known to be associated with flower blooms (Schuchmann 1999).
50 In temperate forests, hummingbird diversity correlates with flower density, such as in
51 Mexico (Martinez del Rio and Eguiarte 1987), Canada (Inouye et al. 1991), and the U.S.
52 (McKinney et al. 2012). Furthermore, seasonality in the tropics is highly influential in
53 plants and their pollinators (Cruden et al. 1983); temperature and precipitation influence
54 local bird activity (Bourgault et al. 2010) such as foraging time and visitation rates of
55 hummingbirds (Fonturbel et al. 2015).

56 In different tropical forests, several studies have shown an association of
57 nectarivorous birds with nectar resources. Some examples of hummingbirds and their
58 preferences by region are as follows: In Costa Rica - breeding, molt, diversity, density,
59 and movements with blooming of their flowers (Stiles 1978, 1985, Wolf et al. 1976); in
60 Puerto Rico - visits to flowers depend on bill size and corolla length (Kodric-Brown et al.
61 1984); in Bolivia - richness with flower availability (Abrahamczyk et al. 2011); and in
62 Colombia - life cycle with nectar energy and seasonal abundance of flowers (Gutierrez
63 et al. 2004, Cotton 2007, Toloza-Moreno et al. 2014). However studies that looked to
64 find a relationship between hummingbirds and nectar in a landscape gave different
65 results (Ortiz-Pulido and Rodriguez 2011). Other nectarivorous birds may select flowers
66 by traits other than nectar such as accessibility or inflorescence size; that is the case of
67 African sunbirds (Schmid et al. 2015). For hummingbirds, the different foraging
68 strategies (territorial or traplining) are also important in their floral selectivity (Feinsinger
69 1976).

70 The study of nectarivorous bird communities in the neotropics provide
71 opportunities to understand ecological interactions in different ecosystems (e.g.
72 Rodriguez-Flores et al. 2012, Maglianasi et al. 2014) and test specific hypotheses on

73 the drivers of these interactions, such as morphological mismatch (Vinzentin-Bugoni et
74 al. 2014) or nectar quality and quantity (Maruyama et al. 2014). An understudied
75 ecosystem that has an abundant nectarivorous bird community occurs in the upper
76 montane forest of the Andes (Ramirez et al. 2007, Gonzalez 2008). In these forests, a
77 diverse suite of hummingbirds and flowerpiercers is abundant (Gonzalez et al. 2019).
78 However, which factors explain the patterns of plant visitation is little known in this
79 system. Consequently, in this study the question is: Which traits of flowering plants are
80 associated with visits by common nectarivorous birds? I hypothesize that traits
81 associated with energy explain flower visits better than other floral traits.

82
83

Methods

84 Study Area

85 This research was conducted in the elfin forest in Unchog, located in the high
86 Andes of Peru (9° 42' 32.33" S, 76° 9' 39.13" W; 3700 m) from 2011 to 2014. The elfin
87 forest is considered as an ecotone between the cloud forest and the puna grassland. It
88 has a marked seasonality of dry (May to September) and wet periods (October to
89 March). The dry season is not devoid of rain, but it has less rain than the wet season.
90 The temperature is cold, colder in the dry season, and the annual range varies from -1
91 to 15°C.

92 The landscape in Unchog is hilly, with small forest pockets dominated by
93 *Weinmannia*. The non-forested area is a matrix of puna grasslands with shrubs, the
94 most common one being *Brachyotum spp.* I sampled three sites that concentrated the
95 most extensive groves of elfin forest (~8 ha each), embedded in an area of 300 ha.
96 These sites ranged from 0.6 to 1.7 Km from each other. The plant composition was very
97 similar in the three sites (Sorensen index of similarity ranged from 0.72-0.80 among
98 sites), so I pooled all the information on plant traits.

99

100 Study Species

101 Nectarivorous birds present in the area were recorded by direct observations with
102 binoculars. I walked inside the forest patches and forest edges, recording the birds and
103 their visits to the flowers. I considered a visit as the moment when a bird fed on a flower
104 or flowers of a plant, disregarding the number of flowers visited and if the visit was
105 legitimate (pollinating) or not because this research considers the visitor's perspective.
106 A matrix of observed interactions, accounting for the times a bird was visiting a plant
107 was constructed (Gonzalez and Loiselle 2016, Gonzalez et al. 2019). Birds and plants
108 of the bird-flowering plant visitation network that were more abundant and more
109 connected were selected to examine which plant traits predict bird interactions (Ortiz-
110 Pulido and Vargas-Licona 2008).

111 The three most quantitatively important bird species that visited flowers were
112 Coppery Metaltail (*Metallura theresiae*) – hereafter, the Metaltail; Great Sapphirewing
113 (*Pterophanes cyanopterus*) – hereafter, the Sapphirewing, and Moustached
114 Flowerpiercer (*Diglossa mystacalis*) – hereafter, the Flowerpiercer. The Metaltail is a
115 small-billed, territorial hummingbird that weighs 5.07±0.09 g. and has a bill length of
116 12.03±0.87 mm. The Sapphirewing is a large and non-territorial hummingbird with a

117 mass of 9.3 ± 1.27 g. (Dunning 2007) and a bill length of 30.06 ± 2.78 mm. The
 118 Flowerpiercer, which was the third most abundant species in terms of flower visitations,
 119 is a passerine nectar-robber with a mass of 16.2 g. (Dunning 2007) and a bill length of
 120 10.73 ± 1.41 mm.

121
 122 **Flower Traits**

123 I selected a subset of 13 plants that these three bird species visited to account
 124 for flower traits that might affect bird visitation. These plants had more than one
 125 interaction with birds (Gonzalez and Loiselle 2016) and were common in at least one
 126 season of the whole period of observation (Table 1). I sampled a total of 186 individual
 127 plants and an average of 14 individuals per plant species.

128 To account for the availability of the flowers, I graphed the availability of the
 129 flowers in the dry season of 2014 (May, June, and July) and in the wet season of 2013
 130 (January, February, March, and April). The resulting phenology is representative of the
 131 whole sampling period. I recorded the color of the corolla of the flowers that the birds
 132 visited (white, pink, purple, green, and red) and the orientation as horizontal or pendular
 133 (Table 1).

134 It is known that hummingbirds in the Andes have specific preferences for some
 135 strata in forested habitats (Gutierrez-Zamora 2008); so for each of the plants, I
 136 estimated the height where the flowers were located in relation to the ground level
 137 (Fenster et al. 2015). I also estimated flowers per individual plant as a measurement of
 138 aggregation of the resource (Dudash et al. 2011), then corolla length (Maruyama et al.
 139 2014) and opening (Temeles et al. 2002). Nectar volume and sugar amount were also
 140 considered (Stiles and Freeman 1993; Ornelas et al. 2007). The data collected was
 141 averaged by each plant species.

142
 143 Table 1. Characteristics of plant species frequently visited by birds in the elfin forest.

| Plant species | Flower color | Flower orientation | Number of plants sampled | Mean Height (m) | SD Height | Mean Flowers in a plant | SD Flowers in a plant |
|----------------------------------|--------------|--------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|-----------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| <i>Bomarea brevis</i> | Red | Pendular | 6 | 0.39 | 0.20 | 2.7 | 1.7 |
| <i>Bomarea setacea</i> | Red | Pendular | 12 | 0.40 | 0.01 | 13.6 | 7.4 |
| <i>Brachyotum lutescens</i> | Green | Pendular | 18 | 0.92 | 0.60 | 36.5 | 22.1 |
| <i>Brachyotum naudinii</i> | Purple | Pendular | 10 | 0.80 | 0.60 | 30.2 | 11.6 |
| <i>Centropogon isabellinus</i> | Red | Horizontal | 6 | 0.70 | 0.01 | 19.0 | 14.3 |
| <i>Desfontainia spinosa</i> | Red | Horizontal | 18 | 1.00 | 0.01 | 17.4 | 9.3 |
| <i>Disterigma sp.</i> | White | Pendular | 11 | 1.00 | 0.01 | 17.4 | 11.3 |
| <i>Fuchsia decussata</i> | Red | Pendular | 33 | 5.47 | 2.60 | 20.6 | 11.8 |
| <i>Gentianella fruticulosa</i> | Red | Pendular | 9 | 0.10 | 0.09 | 11.7 | 3.4 |
| <i>Passiflora cumbalensis</i> | Pink | Pendular | 18 | 7.13 | 2.60 | 9.3 | 3.5 |
| <i>Puya pseudoeryngioides</i> | White | Horizontal | 23 | 0.65 | 0.01 | 43.5 | 20.5 |
| <i>Rubus sp.</i> | Purple | Horizontal | 3 | 0.23 | 0.40 | 15.2 | 13.0 |
| <i>Tristerix longibracteatus</i> | Red* | Horizontal | 19 | 6.1 | 5.80 | 30.5 | 18.2 |

144 * Also has yellow, but red is more predominant
 145

146 Nectar Sampling

147 Nectar characteristics were measured for these 13 plants (Table 2). Nectar
 148 volume in μL was measured with calibrated capillary tubes of 75 mm and the
 149 concentration in g of sugar per 100 g of solution with a refractometer that accounted for
 150 0 to 50%, brand VEE GEE® (Kearns and Inouye 1993). Sugar constituents were not
 151 identified. There are several problems in measuring nectar, mostly due to its own
 152 variation within flowers of the same plant, time of day, and climatic conditions (Willmer
 153 2011). The volume of nectar varied by the time of the day (McDade and Weeks 2004a)
 154 and even in flowers of the same plant (Cruden and Hermann 1983). Other studies
 155 involving measurements of nectar volume have confirmed its large variability (Baker
 156 1975, Bolten et al. 1979, Ayala 1986, Stiles and Freeman 1993, Gutierrez and Rojas
 157 2001, McDade and Weeks 2004a, b, Zambon et al. 2020); so the coefficient of
 158 variability for volume and concentration was considered in the analysis, as well as the
 159 largest amount of nectar (Opler 1983).

161 Table 2. Nectar characteristics of flowers visited by birds in the elfin forest measured
 162 six hours after sunrise.

| <i>Species</i> | Nectar Volume (microliters) | | CC nectar (gr sugar/gr solution) *100 | | Mg sugar/flower | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------|---------------------------------------|------|-----------------|------|
| | Avg | SD | Avg | SD | Avg | SD |
| <i>Bomarea brevis</i> | 3.90 | 2.21 | 9.48 | 8.34 | 0.38 | 0.19 |
| <i>Bomarea setacea</i> | 2.80 | 2.62 | 0.50 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.00 |
| <i>Brachyotum lutescens</i> | 36.39 | 16.84 | 7.74 | 5.58 | 2.90 | 0.96 |
| <i>Brachyotum naudinii</i> | 20.40 | 14.51 | 4.60 | 0.70 | 0.96 | 0.10 |
| <i>Centropogon isabellinus</i> | 27.76 | 10.76 | 9.00 | 3.55 | 2.59 | 0.40 |
| <i>Desfontainia spinosa</i> | 12.41 | 5.69 | 10.44 | 5.15 | 1.35 | 0.30 |
| <i>Disterigma sp</i> | 5.90 | 0.00 | 2.50 | 0.00 | 0.15 | 0.00 |
| <i>Fuchsia decussata</i> (DS) | 10.68 | 5.71 | 3.40 | 1.46 | 0.37 | 0.08 |
| <i>Fuchsia decussata</i> (WS) | 22.99 | 15.94 | 12.62 | 8.5 | 3.05 | 1.40 |
| <i>Gentianella fruticulosa</i> | 1.92 | 1.40 | 1.75 | 1.25 | 0.03 | 0.02 |
| <i>Passiflora cumbalensis</i> (DS) | 25.56 | 15.83 | 19.54 | 5.81 | 5.39 | 0.94 |
| <i>Passiflora cumbalensis</i> (WS) | 23.95 | 8.89 | 10.59 | 3.99 | 2.66 | 0.36 |
| <i>Puya pseudoeryngioides</i> | 36.80 | 33.96 | 9.04 | 8.88 | 3.45 | 3.12 |
| <i>Rubus sp.</i> | 6.02 | 3.87 | 3.19 | 1.47 | 0.19 | 0.06 |
| <i>Tristerix longibracteatus</i> (DS) | 23.30 | 17.71 | 5.90 | 3.30 | 1.41 | 0.59 |
| <i>Tristerix longibracteatus</i> (WS) | 20.87 | 15.31 | 4.29 | 4.52 | 0.91 | 0.70 |

163 Avg: Average, SD: Standard Deviation, reported only for the flower that had nectar. DS:
 164 Dry Season, WS: Wet Season.

165
 166 I removed nectar at different times for different flowers to check which
 167 measurement best would account for the nectar available to the plant's potential flower
 168 visitors. I did not use the standard procedure of bagging flowers for 24 hours because
 169 there were flowers that did not produce nectar continuously, so these measurements

170 could be misleading (Cruden and Hermann 1983; McDade and Weeks 2004a).
171 Temperatures during the night often dropped below freezing, which causes flowers to
172 produce less nectar. Furthermore, due to atmospheric cold fronts which are very
173 common in this region, flower abortion is frequent; several flowers wilted or were without
174 nectar (“rewardless”) in the early morning (59% of 929 measurements of flowers
175 resulted in no nectar). Flowers that were covered for 6 hours since sunrise had the
176 lowest proportion of flowers without nectar (57%). Hence, I selected this measurement
177 as the most accurate and the best indicator for the offer of nectar to the birds. Other
178 researchers, such as Handelman and Kohn (2014), also used nectar measurements in
179 the morning (between 8 to 12 PM) to account for the energetic offer of the plants to
180 hummingbirds. The standing crop (nectar mass in milligrams) for each plant species
181 was calculated by multiplying the concentration by the volume of nectar, related by the
182 number of hours it was covered (Cruden and Hermann 1983). Conversions were made
183 following Dafni (1992:148).

184

185 **Analysis**

186 I analyzed characteristics of flowers available and bird visits in wet and dry
187 seasons separately by pooling the data across months that represented the dry season
188 (May to September) and the wet season (October to April). I used principal component
189 analysis (PCA) to analyze the patterns of the traits of the selected plant species
190 (Gutierrez-Zamora 2008). This analysis identified aggregation tendencies of flower
191 morphology (corolla length and width), distribution of flowers in the plant (flower
192 aggregation), and flower reward to visitors (nectar volume, sugar of nectar). I used the
193 package Factomine in R (Le et al. 2008), which helps to analyze data with multiple
194 variables that could be numerical, ordinal, or categorical. For each of these variables,
195 the program calculates the correlation coefficient between them and each of the values
196 given by the plants. In this case, I set up nectar volume, sugar amount, coefficient of
197 variance of both corolla length, corolla wide variables as numerical. The orientation of
198 the flower (horizontal or pendular) and flower color were considered as categorical. The
199 replicates were each one of the 13 plant species.

200 These plant species were ordinated based on their floral traits, such that the
201 dispersion of the plants in the ordination reflects their separation in floral characteristics.
202 The relative importance of the various floral characters in separating plants along the
203 principal coordinate axes is defined by comparing the variance of the trait in the
204 ordination with the variance of all the traits in the plot using a T-test (Le et al. 2008).

205 To confirm a possible association of the visitation of each species with plants of
206 specific characteristics, I correlated the visitation data of each bird species to the plants
207 with each of the first two axes of the PCA ordination in the dry season and in the wet
208 season. For the comparison of bird visitations of the Sapphirewing and the
209 Flowerpiercer with each axis, I used Spearman’s rank-order correlation due to the non-
210 normality of the data. The statistics was done with the package Stats in R. For the
211 visitations of the Metaltail, I performed a generalized linear model (GLM) with a Poisson
212 distribution (Zuur et al. 2009), using the axis of the PCA as independent variables.

213

214

Results

215 Principal Components of Flower Traits

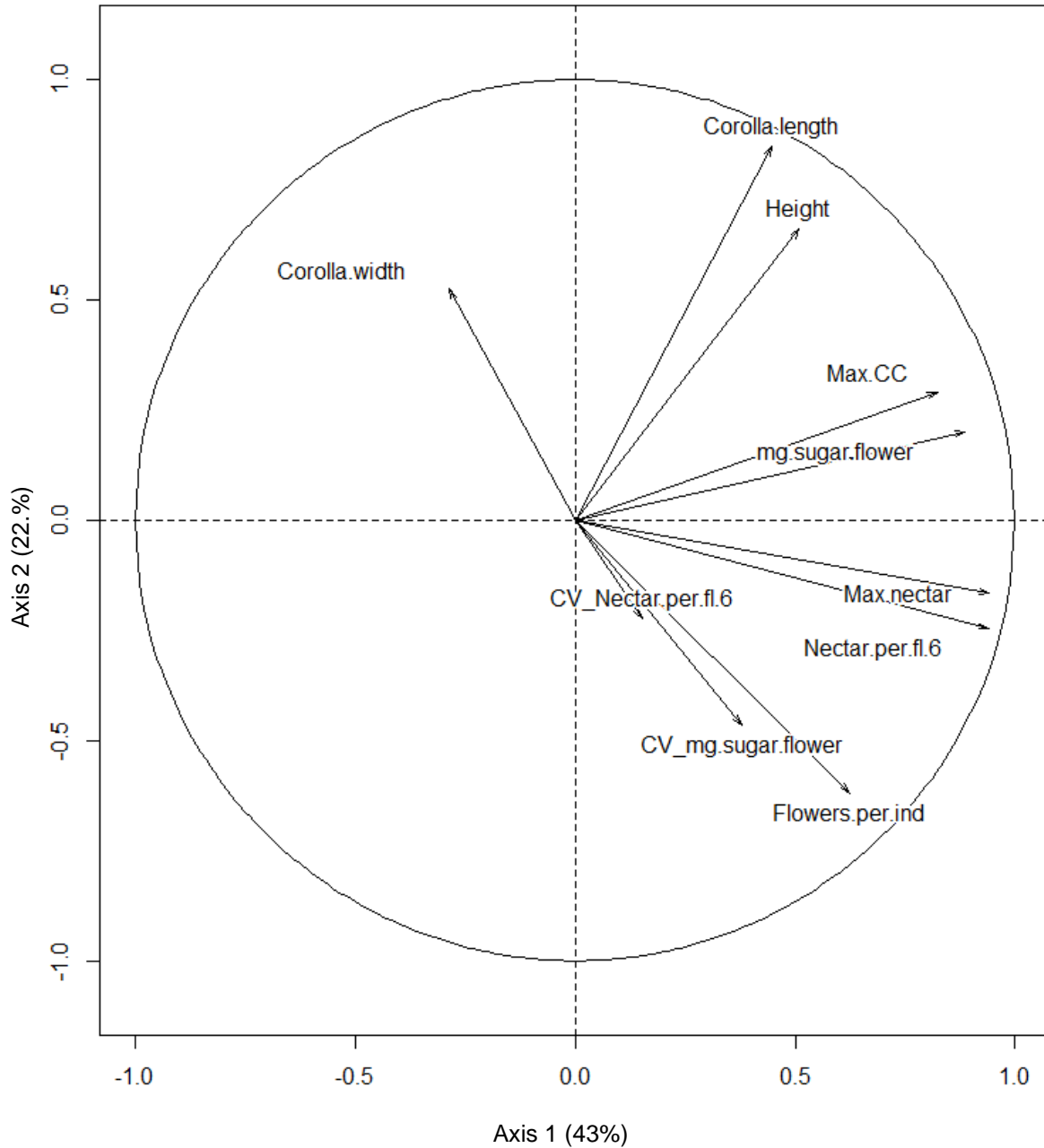
216 The two principal axes of the ordination accounted for 66% of all variation (Figure
217 1 and Sup. Table 1). Figure 1 shows only the dry season due to the ordination of plant
218 traits was almost identical for both seasons. Plants that had greater energy (mg. sugar
219 per flower, nectar per flower, maximum nectar and maximum concentration) and larger
220 number of flowers per plant tended to cluster with higher scores on the first principal
221 component axis (e.g. *Tristerix longebracteatus*, *Centropogon isabellinus*, *Brachyotum*
222 *lutescens*). Plants located in higher vegetation strata - with larger corolla and wider
223 corolla opening (this last trait becoming important only in the wet season) and few
224 flowers per plant - tended to have higher scores along the second PCA axis (*Fuchsia*
225 *decussata*, *Desfontainia spinosa*, *Passiflora cumbalensis*) (Figure 2). These results
226 were largely consistent between the wet and dry seasons, even with some turnover in
227 plant species that flowered.

228 The Metaltail in the dry season had almost half of its visitations to the shrub
229 *Brachyotum lutescens* (Table 3), which has relatively moderate number of flowers per
230 plant and high variability in nectar volume and sugar. The rest of their flower visits were
231 dispersed and included plants with relatively low nectar rewards and plants that
232 occurred in lower vegetation strata (Figure 2A). In the wet season, the Metaltail visited a
233 greater diversity of plants as measured by their floral traits, demonstrated by their
234 overlap in all quadrants of the ordination (Figure 2B). The Sapphirewing tended to visit
235 plants with higher energy rewards, large corolla, and higher vegetation strata such as
236 the mistletoe *Tristerix longebracteatus*, with 92% of all visits in the dry season (Figure
237 2C). Similarly, visits during the wet season were also concentrated on plants with these
238 same characteristics. As in the dry season, the mistletoe dominated among plant visits
239 (75%) (Figure 2D). The Flowerpiercer tended to also visit plants primarily with high
240 nectar reward and a high number of flowers per individual such as the previous
241 mistletoe (58% of visits) and *Brachyotum lutescens* (25% of visits) in the dry season
242 (Figure 2E). Although *Brachyotum lutescens* accounted for 50% of the visits in the wet
243 season (Figure 2F), like the Metaltail, flowerpiercers visited a diversity of plants across
244 the entire ordination space.

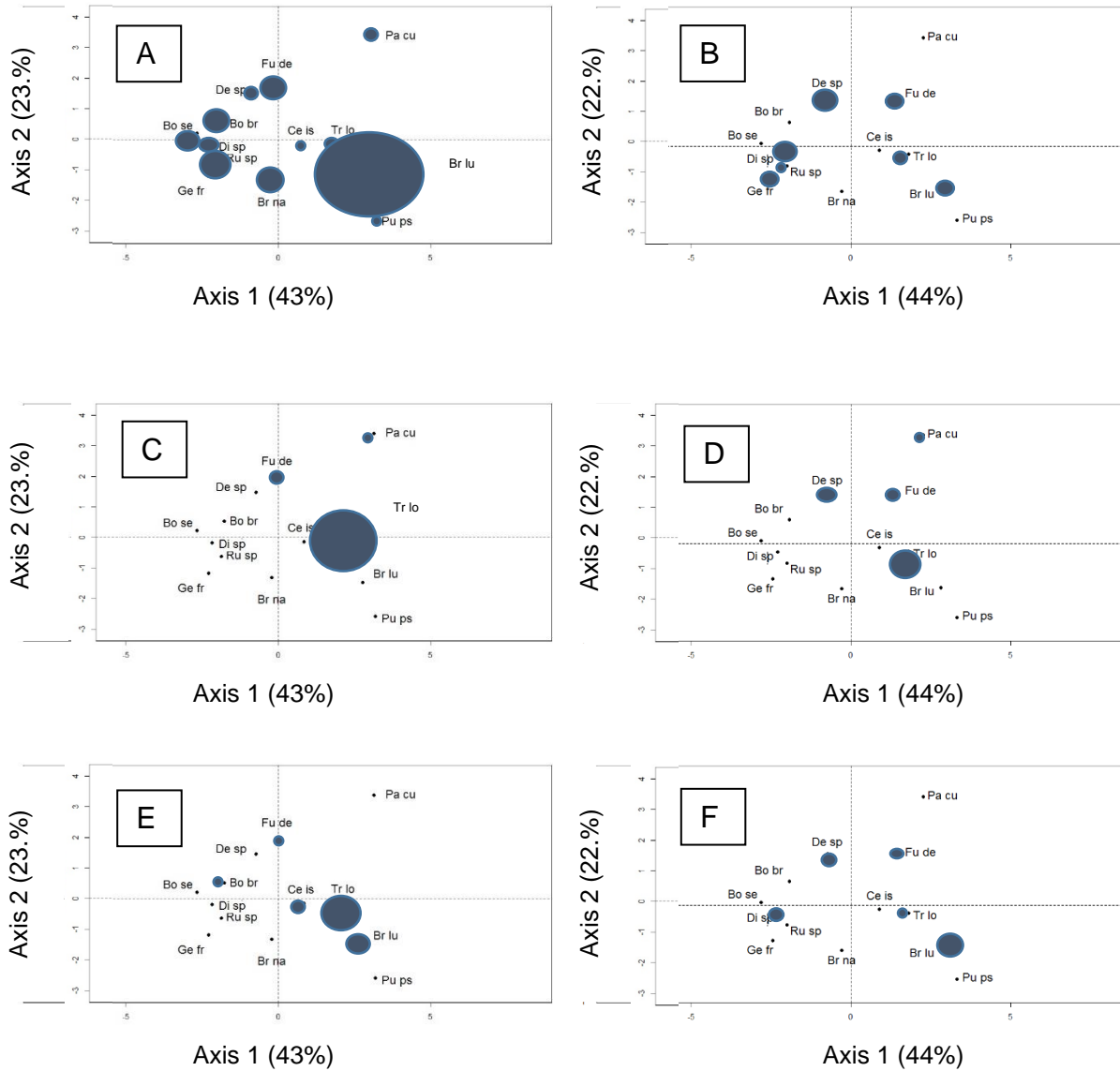
245 I found that bird visits for the Sapphirewing and the Flowerpiercer could not be
246 explained by floral traits (Table 4). All correlations between these two birds and PCA
247 scores for plant traits were non-significant, except for a positive correlation for the
248 Sapphirewing along the second axis in the wet season (Table 4). However, I found a
249 significant positive association along axis 1 and a significant negative association along
250 axis 2 for visits by Metaltails in the dry season (Axis 1: 0.19, $p < 0.001$; Axis 2: -0.17, $p <$
251 0.05 , $df=12$) but not in the wet season. (Axis 1: -0.04, $p=0.65$; Axis 2: 0.01, $p=0.92$,
252 $df=12$) Therefore, in the dry season, Metaltails appeared to frequently visit plants with
253 higher energy rewards (axis 1) and plants with smaller corollas located lower in the
254 vegetation.

255

256



257
258 Figure 1. Principal component analysis of the plant traits that influence the visitation
259 rate of the most connected bids in the bird-visitation network (dry season).
260 Axis 1: Nectar amount (volume and mass), corolla length, height of the flower.
261 Axis 2: Flower aggregation, nectar variability, corolla opening. Wet season
262 was almost identical.



263
264
265
266

267
268
269

270
271

272 Figure 2. Ordination plot of the plants that influence the visitation rate of the most
273 connected bids in the bird-visitation network. Axis 1: Nectar properties. Axis 2:
274 Flower aggregation and morphology. The circles represent the number of
275 visitations by birds to each plant; minimum: 1, maximum: 42. A: Metaltail, dry
276 season. B: Metaltail, wet season. C: Sapphirewing, dry season. D:
277 Sapphirewing, wet season. E: Flowerpiercer, dry season. F: Flowerpiercer,
278 wet season. Keys: Bo br= *Bomarea brevis*, Bo se= *Bomarea setacea*, Br lu=
279 *Brachyotum lutescens*, Br na= *Brachyotum naudinii*, Ce is= *Centropogon*
280 *isabellinus*, De sp= *Desfontainia spinosa*, Di sp= *Disterigma sp.*, Fu de=
281 *Fuchsia decussata*, Ge fr= *Gentianella fruticulosa*, Pa cu= *Passiflora*
282 *cumbalensis*, Pu ps= *Puya pseudoeryngioides*, Ru sp= *Rubus sp.*, Tr lo=
283 *Tristerix longebracteatus*.

284

285
286
287

Table 3. Total visitation recorded by the most connected species in the bird-flowering plant visitation network.

| Plant species/Bird visitor Season | Metaltail | | Sapphirewing | | Flowerpiercer | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------|-----|--------------|-----|---------------|-----|
| | Dry | Wet | Dry | Wet | Dry | Wet |
| <i>Bomarea brevis</i> | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| <i>Bomarea setacea</i> | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Brachyotum lutescens</i> | 42 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 4 |
| <i>Brachyotum naudinii</i> | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Centropogon isabellinus</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| <i>Desfontainia spinosa</i> | 3 | 4 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 |
| <i>Disterigma sp.</i> | 4 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| <i>Fuchsia decussata</i> | 7 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| <i>Gentianella fruticulosa</i> | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Passiflora cumbalensis</i> | 3 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Puya pseudoeryngioides</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Rubus sp.</i> | 6 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Tristerix longibracteatus</i> | 2 | 2 | 23 | 15 | 14 | 1 |

288
289
290
291
292

Table 4. Spearman correlation coefficients for bird visitation against nectar traits (axis 1) and corolla morphology (axis 2) of the principal component analysis for flowering plants visited by birds in the elfin forest.

| Season | Dry | | Wet | |
|--------------------------------|-------|--------|-------|--------|
| | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| Axis | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| <i>Pterophanes cyanopterus</i> | 0.435 | 0.547* | 0.339 | 0.595* |
| <i>Diglossa mystacalis</i> | 0.398 | 0.069 | 0.271 | 0.089 |

293 *P=< 0.05

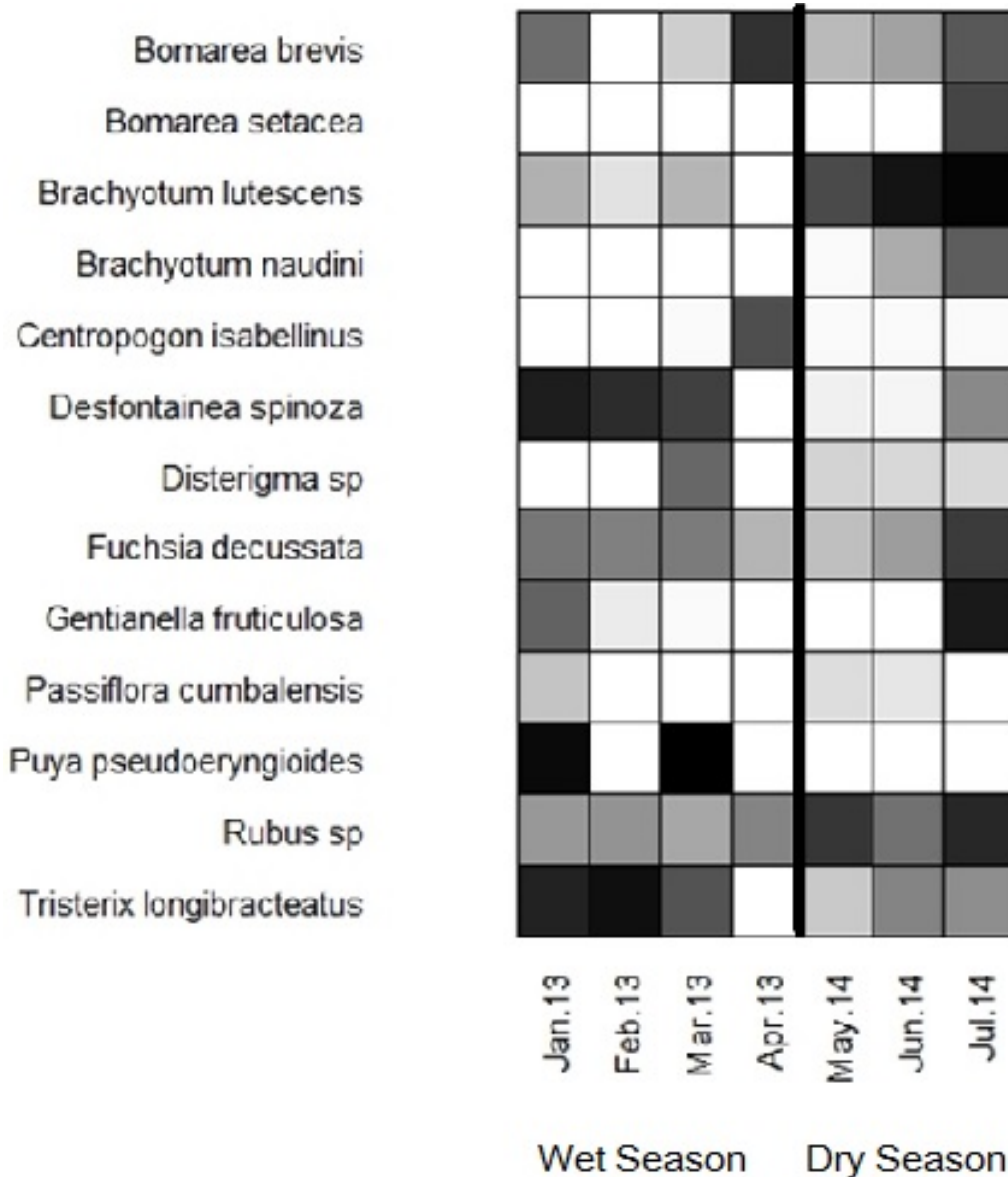
294
295

Plant Trait Variability

296 The abundance of flowers and number of species flowering varied across
297 seasons (Figure 3). Plants that flowered across seasons included *Bomarea brevis*,
298 *Brachyotum lutescens*, *Tristerix longibracteatus*, *Fuchsia decussata* and *Rubus sp.*,
299 while *Centropogon isabellinus* and *Bomarea setacea* produced flowers for only limited
300 periods. *Puya* was spatially patchy and flowered only over a short period of time in the
301 wet season. Some species, such as *Brachyotum naudinii* and *Bomarea setacea*, also
302 flowered only in the wet season.

303 The factors of flower aggregation, corolla color, and flower orientation were not
304 independent; they were linked to specific species of plants that the birds visited, so
305 there is no way to account for floral selectivity based on these factors. Flowers of
306 *Tristerix longibracteatus*, which are red, were visited by the Sapphirewing and the
307 Flowerpiercer, but not by the Metaltail (Table 3). The three birds visited species of
308 plants that had many flowers per individual (*B. lutescens* and *T. longibracteatus*); but
309 differed in the orientation of the flowers they foraged. The Metaltail visited mostly the

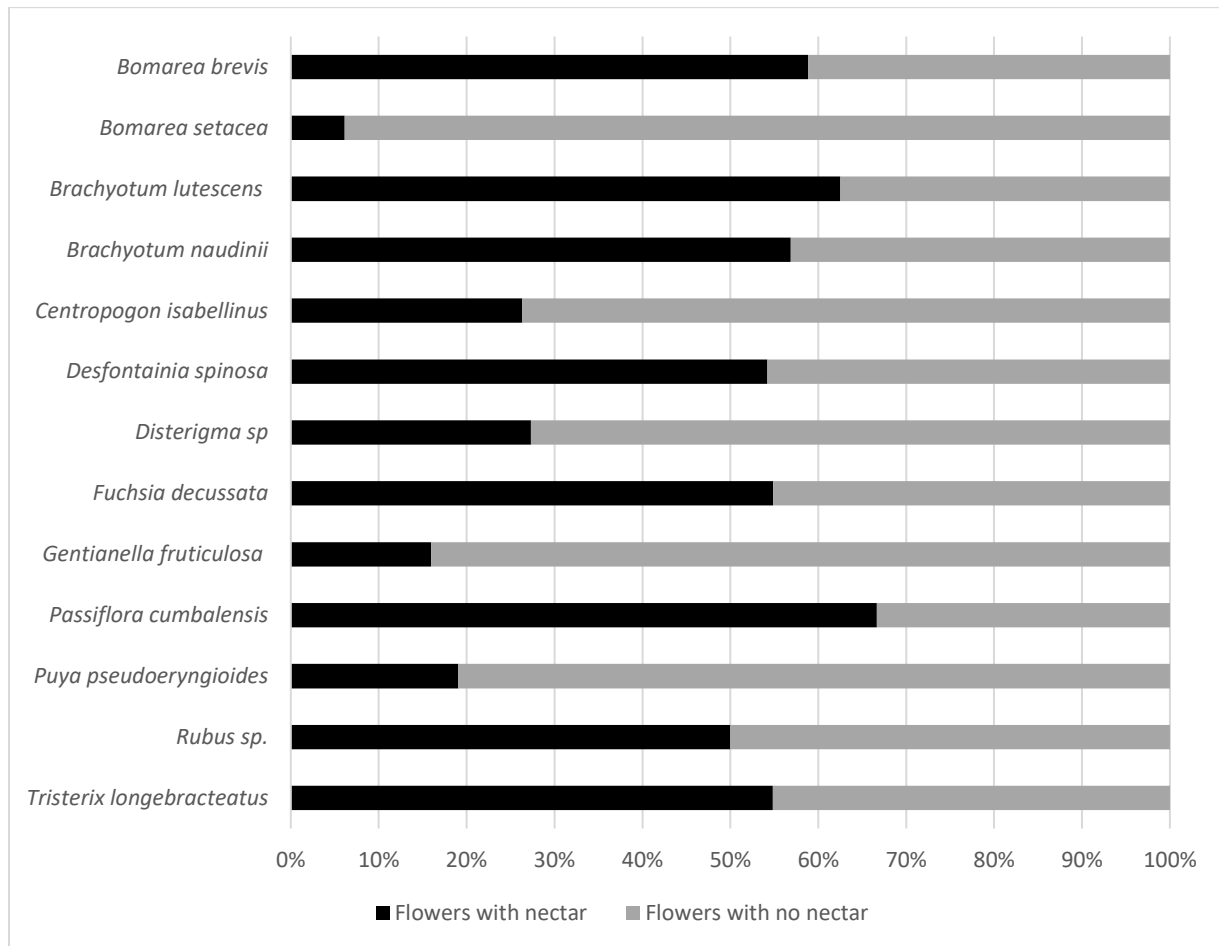
310 pendular flowers of *B. lutescens*; the Sapphirewing and the Flowerpiercer frequented
 311 horizontals of *T. longibracteatus*. The Sapphirewing foraged almost exclusively in the
 312 tree canopy, the Metaltail mostly in the understory, and the flowerpiercer was between
 313 the canopy and the understory (Sup.Table 1).
 314



315
 316
 317 Figure 3. Flowering phenologies of ornithophilous plants most visited by birds in the elfin
 318 forest (2013-2014). The darker the square, the higher the number of flowers
 319 per hectare.

320
 321 As expected, the nectar volume and concentration varied considerably among
 322 the plant species selected. I reported the information for the plants that had nectar

323 (Table 2). Several of these species had less than 50% of their flowers with nectar
324 (Figure 4). Further, nectar volume and concentration were also found to vary between
325 dry and wet season for *Fuchsia decussata*, *Passiflora cumbalensis* and *Tristerix*
326 *longebracteatus*; all three of these species had long corollas. *Passiflora cumbalensis*
327 had the highest energy available per flower (5.39 ± 2.66 mg) and highest concentration
328 (19.54 ± 5.81), followed by *Puya pseudoeryngioides*, *Fuchsia decussata* and *Brachyotum*
329 *lutescens*. *Brachyotum lutescens* had higher average nectar volume, followed by *Puya*
330 (36.39 ± 16.84 μ l).
331



332
333

334 Figure 4. Nectar availability in flowers of plants most visited by birds in the elfin forest.

335
336

Discussion

337 Plant species of elfin forests can be separated based on nectar and
338 morphological traits (Figure 1). Half or more of the bird visits to flowers for the Metaltail,
339 the Sapphirewing, and the Flowerpiercer were focused on plants with higher scores
340 along the first PCA axis in the dry season (Figure 2). I expected that plants with higher
341 energy rewards, as indicated by nectar volume and sugar concentration, would be more
342 attractive to birds. However, this expectation held only for the Metaltail in the dry

343 season. I found no significant association between visitation and scores along the first
344 PCA axis, which was defined mainly by nectar rewards, for either Sapphirewings or
345 flowerpiercers (Table 4). As the first PCA axis only captured 43-44% of the total
346 variation, there may be other factors that are needed to explain bird visits as a function
347 of floral characters. For bird visitors of *Rhododendron* flowers in the Himalayas, long
348 corollas and high nectar volume are the main preferences (Basnett et al. 2019).

349 Plants that had both large nectar rewards and larger number of flowers per plant
350 were the shrub *Brachyotum lutescens* and the mistletoe *Tristerix longibracteatus*. Both
351 were frequently visited by these birds (Gonzalez and Loiselle 2016) and other
352 nectarivorous birds in similar ecosystems, such as the elfin forest in the Colombian
353 paramo (Gutierrez and Rojas 2001). The PCA separated plants that were more insect-
354 pollinated than bird-pollinated; the former plants have low nectar reward and short
355 corollas. For these plants (e.g. *Disterigma* spp., *Gentianella fruticulosa*, *Bomarea* spp.,
356 *Rubus*, Figure 2), the Metaltail was the more important bird visitor among those studied
357 here (Gonzalez and Loiselle 2016).

358 Usually, small hummingbirds, such as the Metaltail, are generalists in terms of
359 flower visitation while large hummingbirds like the Sapphirewing are specialists
360 (Dalsgaard et al. 2009). The different plant species that the Metaltail and the
361 Sapphirewing used as resources are in part similar to two of the groups of plants and
362 hummingbirds identified by Gutierrez et al. (2004) in an elfin forest of Colombia. Small,
363 short billed-hummingbirds tend to visit plants with a low nectar reward while large
364 hummingbirds visit plants that have long-corolla flowers. Metaltails showed significant
365 associations with flower characteristics along both PCA axes, which largely reflect floral
366 rewards and flower size. Although the abundance and phenology of flowering plants
367 varied between seasons (Fig. 3), the plant trait ordination was almost identical in both
368 seasons (Sup. Table 1).

369 The Sapphirewing visited *Tristerix longibracteatus* as its primary floral resource
370 in both dry and wet season. Other plants which had higher nectar volume and sugar
371 content (e.g. *Puya pseudoeryngioides*, Table 2) were not visited by this bird. This result
372 suggests that Sapphirewings might have been selecting certain plant species (e.g.,
373 *Tristerix*) rather than general plant characteristics (e.g., high energy rewards). In an elfin
374 forest of Colombia, Sapphirewings visited primarily one *Puya* species, and such visits
375 may be associated with plant phenology (i.e., what plants are available when birds are
376 present) (Gutierrez et al. 2004).

377 The Flowerpiercer, like the Metaltail, was a generalist but tended to visit plants
378 with high nectar reward and high number of flowers per plant, such as *Brachyotum*
379 *lutescens* and *Tristerix longibracteatus*. Other species of *Diglossa* also are known to
380 visit *Brachyotum* (Stiles et al. 1992) or *Tristerix longibracteatus* (Graves 1992). The
381 peculiar foraging behavior of the Flowerpiercer, searching for the flowers that are on a
382 different spatial level than flowers commonly used by hummingbirds (Feinsinger and
383 Cowell 1978), might explain coexistence with the other two hummingbird species that
384 use the same nectar resources. The different patterns of visitation to plants by these
385 three bird species between seasons may be related to change in floral preferences over
386 time (Fagua and Gonzalez 2007).

387 The fact that no statistical associations were detected between bird visitation and
388 plant traits for the Metaltail in the wet season, the Sapphirewing in the dry season and

389 the Flowerpiercer in both seasons (Table 4), suggest that other factors beyond floral
390 traits may be needed to explain patterns of floral visitation by birds. Future studies
391 should examine in greater detail specific preferences of bird species for plant species
392 using controlled experiments (Maglianesi et al. 2015, Fenster et al. 2015).

393
394

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

395 I thank Dr. Bette Loiselle for her guidance in this research. I also thank the field
396 assistants that helped in taking several measurements of plant traits and bird visits to
397 the plants: mainly from the Universidad de Huanuco. Funding for fieldwork in Peru came
398 from the Premio Nacional para la Investigacion Ambiental of the Ministerio del Ambiente
399 of Peru, Optics for the Tropics, Royal Society for Bird Protection, Idea Wild and
400 University of Florida's Tropical Conservation and Development Program field research
401 fund. Research Grant. Thanks to FINCyT in Peru and WWF for funding my PhD studies.

402
403

LITERATURE CITED

404

405 Abrahamczyk, S., J. Kluge, Y. Gareca, S.Reichle and M. Kessler. 2011. The Influence
406 of Climatic Seasonality on the Diversity of Different Tropical Pollinator Groups.
407 PLoS ONE 6.

408 Abrahamczyk, S., and M. Kessler. 2015. Morphological and behavioural adaptations to
409 feed on nectar: how feeding ecology determines the diversity and composition of
410 hummingbird assemblages. Journal of Ornithology 156:333-347.

411 Aizen, M. A. 2003. Down-facing flowers, hummingbirds and rain. Taxon 52:675-680.

412 Ayala, A. V. 1986. Aspects of the relationship between *Thalurania furcate colombica*
413 (Aves: Trochilidae) and the flowers from which it sucks in a sub-andean forest.
414 Caldasia 14:549-562.

415 Baker, H. G. 1975. Sugar concentrations in nectars from hummingbird flowers.
416 Biotropica 7:37-41.

417 Basnett, S., R. Ganesan, and S.M. Devy. 2019. Floral traits determine pollinator
418 visitation in Rhododendron species across an elevation gradient in the Sikkim
419 Himalaya. Alpine Botany 129:81-94.

420 Bolten, A. B., P. Feinsinger, H. G. Baker, and I. Baker. 1979. Calculation of sugar
421 concentration in flower nectar. Oecologia 41:301-304.

422 Bourgault, P., D. Thomas, P. Perret, and J. Blondel. 2010. Spring vegetation phenology
423 is a robust predictor of breeding date across broad landscapes: a multi-site
424 approach using the Corsican blue tit (*Cyanistes caeruleus*). Oecologia 162:885-
425 892.

- 426 Cotton, P. A. 2007. Seasonal resource tracking by Amazonian hummingbirds. *Ibis* 149:
427 135-142.
- 428 Cruden, R. W. 1972. Pollinators in high-elevation ecosystems - relative effectiveness of
429 birds and bees. *Science* 176:1439-1440.
- 430 Cruden, R. W., and S. M. Hermann. 1983. Studying nectar? Some observations on the
431 art. Pages 223-241 in Bentley, B and T. Elias, editors. *The Biology of Nectaries*.
432 University of Columbia Press. New York. USA.
- 433 Cruden, R. W., S. M. Herman, and S. Peterson. 1983. Patterns of nectar production and
434 plant-pollinator coevolution. Pages 80-125 in Bentley, B and T. Elias, editors. *The*
435 *Biology of Nectaries*. University of Columbia Press. New York. USA.
- 436 Dafni, A. 1992. *Pollination Ecology. A Practical Approach*. Oxford University Press. New
437 York. USA.
- 438 Dalsgaard, B., A. M. M. Gonzalez, J. M. Olesen, J. Ollerton, A. Timmermann, L. H.
439 Andersen, and A. G. Tossas. 2009. Plant-hummingbird interactions in the West
440 Indies: floral specialisation gradients associated with environment and
441 hummingbird size. *Oecologia* 159:757-766.
- 442 Dante, S. K., B. S. Schamp, and L. W. Aarssen. 2013. Evidence of deterministic
443 assembly according to flowering time in an old-field plant community. *Functional*
444 *Ecology* 27:555-564.
- 445 Davis, A., R. E. Major, and C. E. Taylor. 2015. The association between nectar
446 availability and nectarivorous density in urban and natural environments. *Urban*
447 *Ecosystems* 18:503-515.
- 448 Dudash, M. R., C. Hassler, P. M. Stevens, and C. B. Fenster. 2011. Experimental floral
449 and inflorescence trait manipulations affect pollinator preference and function in a
450 hummingbird-pollinated plant. *American Journal of Botany* 98:275-282.
- 451 Dunning, J. B., Jr. 2007. *CRC handbook of avian body masses*. 2nd ed. CRC, Boca
452 Raton, FL. USA.
- 453 Fagua, J. C., and V. H. Gonzalez. 2007. Growth rates, reproductive phenology, and
454 pollination ecology of *Espeletia grandiflora* (Asteraceae), a giant Andean
455 caulescent rosette. *Plant Biology* 9:127-135.
- 456 Feinsinger, P. 1976. Organization of a tropical guild of nectarivorous birds. *Ecological*
457 *Monographs* 46:257-291.
- 458 Feinsinger, P. 1980. Asynchronous migration patterns and the coexistence of tropical
459 hummingbirds. Pages 411–419 in Keast, A., and E. Morton, editors. *Migrant bird*
460 *in the Neotropics: ecology, behavior, distribution and conservation*. Smithsonian
461 Institution Press, Washington D.C. USA.

- 462 Feinsinger, P., and R. K. Colwell. 1978. Community organization among neotropical
463 nectar-feeding birds. *American Zoologist* 18:779-795.
- 464 Fenster, C. B. 1991. Selection on floral morphology by hummingbirds. *Biotropica* 23:98-
465 101.
- 466 Fenster, C. B., R. J. Reynolds, C. W. Williams, R. Makowsky, and M. R. Dudash. 2015.
467 Quantifying hummingbird preference for floral trait combinations: The role of
468 selection on trait interactions in the evolution of pollination syndromes. *Evolution*
469 69:1113-1127.
- 470 Fleming, P. A., B. H. Bakken, C. N. Lotz, and S. W. Nicolson. 2004. Concentration and
471 temperature effects on sugar intake and preferences in a sunbird and a
472 hummingbird. *Functional Ecology* 18:223-232.
- 473 Fonturbel, F.E., P. Jordano, and R. Medel. 2015. Scale-dependent responses of
474 pollination and seed dispersal mutualisms in a habitat transformation scenario.
475 *Journal of Animal Ecology* 103:1334-1343.
- 476 Gonzalez, O. 2008. Aves de la Selva Central Peruana: Levantamiento de informacion
477 ornitologica del Parque Nacional Yanachaga-Chemillen. Technical Report
478 submitted to the Office of Natural Protected Areas, INRENA. PROFONANPE.
479 Lima. Peru.
- 480 Gonzalez, O., and B. Loiselle. 2016. Bird-flowering plant network in the Andes:
481 phenology is more important than abundance or morphology. *PeerJ* 4:e2789.
- 482 Gonzalez, O., Diaz, C., and B. Britto. 2019. Assemblage of nectarivorous birds and their
483 floral resources in an elfin forest of the central Andes of Peru. *Ecologia Aplicada*
484 18(1):21-35.
- 485 Gutiérrez, A., and S. Rojas. 2001. Dinámica anual de la interacción colibrí-flor en
486 ecosistemas altoandinos del volcán Galeras, sur de Colombia. Tesis de grado,
487 Universidad Nacional de Colombia, Bogotá. Colombia.
- 488 Gutierrez, A., S. V. Rojas-Nossa and Stiles, F. G. 2004. Annual dynamics of
489 hummingbird-flower interactions in high Andean ecosystems. *Ornitologia*
490 *Neotropical* 15 (Suppl.): 205–213.
- 491 Gutierrez-Zamora, A. 2008. Ecological interactions and structure of a high Andean
492 community of hummingbirds and flowers in the Eastern Andes of Colombia.
493 *Ornitologia Colombiana* 7:17-42.
- 494 Hainsworth, F. R., and L. L. Wolf. 1976. Nectar characteristics and food selection by
495 hummingbirds. *Oecologia* 25:101-113.

- 496 Handelman, C., and J. R. Kohn. 2014. Hummingbird color preference within a natural
497 hybrid population of *Mimulus aurantiacus* (Phrymaceae). *Plant Species Biology*
498 29:65-72.
- 499 Inouye, D. W., W. A. Calder, and N. M. Waser. 1991. The effect of floral abundance on
500 feeder censuses of hummingbird populations. *Condor* 93:279-285.
- 501 Janecek, S., J. Riegert, O. Sedlacek, M. Bartos, D. Horak, J. Reif, E. Padysakova, D.
502 Fainova, M. Antczak, M. Pesata, V. Mikes, E. Patacova, J. Altman, et al. 2012.
503 Food selection by avian floral visitors: an important aspect of plant-flower visitor
504 interactions in West Africa. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 107:355-
505 367.
- 506 Justino, D. G., P. K. Maruyama, and P. E. Oliveira. 2012. Floral resource availability and
507 hummingbird territorial behaviour on a Neotropical savanna shrub. *Journal of*
508 *Ornithology* 153:189-197.
- 509 Kearns, C.A. and D.A. Inouye. 1993. *Techniques for Pollination Biologists*. University
510 Press of Colorado. USA.
- 511 Kodric-Brown, A., J. H. Brown, G. S. Byers, and D. F. Gori. 1984. Organization of a
512 tropical island community of hummingbirds and flowers. *Ecology* 65:1358-1368.
- 513 Lê, S., Josse, J. and F. Husson. 2008. [FactoMineR: An R Package for Multivariate](#)
514 [Analysis](#). *Journal of Statistical Software* 25(1):1-18.
- 515 Maglianesi, M.A., N. Blüthgen, K. Boehning-Gaese, and M. Schleuning. 2014.
516 Morphological traits determine specialization and resource use in plant-
517 hummingbird networks in the neotropics. *Ecology* 95:3325-3334.
- 518 Maglianesi, M. A., K. Bohning-Gaese, and M. Schleuning. 2015. Different foraging
519 preferences of hummingbirds on artificial and natural flowers reveal mechanisms
520 structuring plant-pollinator interactions. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 84:655-664.
- 521 Maloof, J. E., and D. W. Inouye. 2000. Are nectar robbers cheaters or mutualists?
522 *Ecology* 81:2651-2661.
- 523 Martinez del Rio, C. M., and L. E. Eguiarte. 1987. Bird visitation to *Agave salmiana* -
524 comparisons among hummingbirds and perching birds. *Condor* 89:357-363.
- 525 Maruyama, P. K., J. Vizentin-Bugoni, G. M. Oliveira, P. E. Oliveira, and B. Dalsgaard.
526 2014. Morphological and spatio-temporal mismatches shape a neotropical
527 savanna plant-hummingbird network. *Biotropica* 46:740-747.
- 528 McDade, L. A., and J. A. Weeks. 2004a. Nectar in hummingbird-pollinated neotropical
529 plants I: Patterns of production and variability in 12 species. *Biotropica* 36:196-
530 215.

- 531 McDade, L. A., and J. A. Weeks. 2004b. Nectar in hummingbird-pollinated neotropical
532 plants II: Interactions with flower visitors. *Biotropica* 36:216-230.
- 533 McKinney, A. M., P. J. CaraDonna, D. W. Inouye, B. Barr, C. D. Bertelsen, and N. M.
534 Waser. 2012. Asynchronous changes in phenology of migrating Broad-tailed
535 Hummingbirds and their early-season nectar resources. *Ecology* 93:1987-1993.
- 536 Murcia C. 1996. Forest fragmentation and the pollination of Neotropical plants. Pages
537 19–36 in Schelhas J. and R.Greenberg, editors. *Forest Patches in Tropical*
538 *Landscapes*. Island Press, Washington DC. USA.
- 539 Nicolson, S. W., and P. A. Fleming. 2003. Nectar as food for birds: the physiological
540 consequences of drinking dilute sugar solutions. *Plant Systematics and Evolution*
541 238:139-153.
- 542 Opler, P. A. 1983. Nectar production in a tropical ecosystem. Pages 30-79 in Bentley B.
543 and T. Elias, editors. *The biology of nectaries*. Columbia University Press. New
544 York. USA.
- 545 Ornelas, J. F., M. Ordano, A. J. De-Nova, M. E. Quintero, and T. Garland, Jr. 2007.
546 Phylogenetic analysis of interspecific variation in nectar of hummingbird-visited
547 plants. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* 20:1904-1917.
- 548 Ortiz-Pulido, R., and C. L. Rodriguez. 2011. Is energy in nectar a good predictor of
549 hummingbird activity at landscape scale? *Italian Journal of Zoology* 79:100-104.
- 550 Ortiz-Pulido, R., and G. Vargas-Licona. 2008. Exploring the relationship between
551 hummingbird records and flower abundance with spatio-temporal scaling.
552 *Ornitologia Neotropical* 19:473-483.
- 553 Ramirez, O., M. Arana, E. Bazan, A. Ramirez and A. Cano. 2007. Assamblages of two
554 mammal and bird communities in two major ecological units in the high Andean
555 plateau of southern Peru. *Ecologia Aplicada* 6(1-2):1-15.
- 556 Rathcke, B. J. 1992. Nectar distributions, pollinator behavior, and plant reproductive
557 success. Pages 113-138 in M. D. Hunter, T. Ohgushi, and P. W. Price, editors.
558 *Effects of resource distribution on animal-plant interactions*. Academic Press,
559 San Diego. USA.
- 560 Rodriguez-Flores, C.I., F.G.Stiles and M.C. Arizmendi. 2012. Pollination network of a
561 hermit hummingbird community (Trochilidae, Phaethornithinae) and their nectar
562 resources in the Colombian Amazon. *Ornitologia Neotropical* 23:85-100.
- 563 Rotenberry, J. T. 1990. Variable floral phenology - temporal resource heterogeneity and
564 its implication for flower visitors. *Holarctic Ecology* 13:1-10.
- 565 Schmid, B., H. Nottebrock, K. J. Esler, J. Pagel, A. Pauw, K. Boehning-Gaese, F. M.
566 Schurr, and M. Schleuning. 2015. Reward quality predicts effects of bird-

- 567 pollinators on the reproduction of African Protea shrubs. *Perspectives in Plant*
568 *Ecology Evolution and Systematics* 17:209-217.
- 569 Schuchmann, K.L. 1999. Hummingbirds. Pages 468-680 *in* Del Hoyo, J. Elliot, A. and
570 Sargatal, J. editors. *Handbook of the birds of the world. Vol. 5. Barn owls to*
571 *Hummingbirds.* Lynx Editions, Barcelona. Spain.
- 572 Stiles, F. G. 1978. Temporal organization of flowering among hummingbird foodplants
573 of a tropical wet forest. *Biotropica* 10(3):194-210.
- 574 Stiles, F. G. 1980. The annual cycle in a tropical wet forest hummingbird community.
575 *Ibis* 122:322-343.
- 576 Stiles, F. G. 1985. Seasonal patterns and coevolution in the hummingbird-flower
577 community of a Costa Rican subtropical forest. *Ornithological Monographs*
578 36:757-787.
- 579 Stiles, G., A. Ayala and M. Girón. 1992. Polinizacion de las flores de *Brachyotum*
580 (Melastomataceae) por dos especies de *Diglossa* (Emberizidae). *Caldasia*
581 17(1):47-54.
- 582 Stiles, F. G., and C. E. Freeman. 1993. Patterns in floral nectar characteristics of some
583 bird-visited plant-species from Costa-Rica. *Biotropica* 25:191-205.
- 584 Sutherland, G. D., and C. L. Gass. 1995. Learning and remembering of spatial patterns
585 by hummingbirds. *Animal Behaviour* 50:1273-1286.
- 586 Temeles, E. J., Y. B. Linhart, M. Masonjones and H. D. Masonjones. 2002. The role of
587 flower width in hummingbird bill length-flower length relationships. *Biotropica*
588 34:68-80.
- 589 Toloza-Moreno, D.L., D.A. León-Camargo and L. Rosero-Lasprilla 2014. Annual cycle
590 of hummingbirds (Trochilidae) in high Andean forests and paramo areas of the
591 Cordillera Oriental of Colombia. *Ornitología Colombiana* 14: 28-47.
- 592 Vizentin-Bugoni, J., P. K. Maruyama, and M. Sazima. 2014. Processes entangling
593 interactions in communities: forbidden links are more important than abundance
594 in a hummingbird-plant network. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B-Biological*
595 *Sciences* 281.
- 596 Wiens, J. A. 1989. *The ecology of bird communities. Volume 2: processes and variation.*
597 Cambridge University Press. New York. USA.
- 598 Willmer, P. 2011. *Pollination and Floral Ecology.* Princeton University Press. USA.
- 599 Wilson, P., M. C. Castellanos, A. D. Wolfe, and J. D. Thomson. 2006. Shifts between
600 bee and bird pollination in penstemons. Pages 47-68 *in* N.M. Waser and J.

- 601 Ollerton, editors. Plant–pollinator interactions: from specialization to
602 generalization. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. USA.
- 603 Wolf, L. L., F. G. Stiles, and F. R. Hainsworth. 1976. Ecological organization of a
604 tropical, highland hummingbird community. *Journal of Animal Ecology* 45:349-
605 379.
- 606 Zambon V., K. Agostini, M. Nepi, M.L. Rossi, A.P. Martinelli, and M. Sazima. The role of
607 nectar traits and nectary morphoanatomy in the plant-pollinator interaction
608 between *Billbergia distachia* (Bromeliaceae) and the hermit *Phaethornis*
609 *eurynome* (Trochilidae). *Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society*. 192:816–827.
- 610 Zuur, A.F., Leno, E.N., Walker, N.J., Saveliev, A.A., and Smith, G.M. 2009. Mixed
611 effects models and extensions in ecology with R. Springer, New York. USA.
- 612

613 Supplementary Table 1. Principal component analysis for the plant traits that are
614 visited by the most connected birds in the bird-flowering plant visitation network.

| | Dry Season | | Wet Season | |
|------------------------------------|-------------|---------|-------------|---------|
| | Axis 1 | Axis 2 | Axis 1 | Axis 2 |
| Eigenvalue | 4.328 | 2.296 | 4.445 | 2.168 |
| % of var. | 43.276 | 22.959 | 44.445 | 21.678 |
| Cumulative % of var. | 43.276 | 66.235 | 44.445 | 66.123 |
| PC1 | correlation | p value | correlation | p value |
| Max nectar | 0.941 | * | 0.940 | * |
| Nectar per flower | 0.940 | * | 0.955 | * |
| Milligrams sugar per flower | 0.886 | * | 0.906 | * |
| Maximum nectar concentration | 0.823 | * | 0.774 | * |
| Flowers per individual | 0.623 | 0.02 | 0.676 | 0.01 |
| Height of flowers | 0.508 | 0.07 | 0.525 | 0.11 |
| Corolla length | 0.446 | 0.12 | 0.456 | 0.11 |
| C.V. Milligrams sugar per flower | 0.379 | 0.2 | 0.459 | 0.11 |
| C.V. Microliters nectar per flower | 0.152 | 0.6 | 0.126 | 0.68 |
| Corolla width | -0.287 | 0.3 | -0.246 | 0.41 |
| PC2 | | | | |
| Corolla length | 0.849 | * | 0.844 | * |
| Height | 0.661 | 0.01 | 0.629 | 0.02 |
| Flowers per individual | -0.619 | 0.02 | -0.632 | 0.02 |
| Corolla width | 0.524 | 0.06 | 0.553 | 0.04 |
| Maximum nectar concentration | 0.291 | 0.33 | 0.337 | 0.25 |
| Milligrams sugar per flower | 0.201 | 0.50 | 0.095 | 0.75 |
| Maximum nectar concentration | -0.164 | 0.59 | -0.163 | 0.59 |
| C.V. Microliters nectar per flower | -0.222 | 0.46 | -0.251 | 0.40 |
| Nectar per flower | -0.246 | 0.41 | -0.169 | 0.58 |
| C.V. Milligrams sugar per flower | -0.465 | 0.10 | -0.334 | 0.26 |

615 *p value < 0.01

616