

From Individuals to Networks: The Role of Variation in Plant-Pollinator Communities' Responses to Global Change

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Abstract

1
2 1. Plant–pollinator communities are critical for biodiversity, ecosystem function, and human
3 well-being. Yet our ability to predict divergent species responses to environmental change,
4 the risk of abrupt collapse, or the potential for recovery in plant-pollinator systems remains
5 limited.

6 2. Here, we argue that individual variation within species may play a critical but underap-
7 preciated role in shaping the sensitivity, robustness, and resilience of animal pollinators and
8 plant-pollinator communities.

9 3. We explore processes by which individual variation may influence responses to perturbation,
10 highlighting parallels with existing niche theory at the species level (e.g., the biodiversity-
11 ecosystem function (BEF) literature). We suggest that individual variation—as a key but
12 distinct component of total intraspecific variation—may generate more gradual (rather than
13 abrupt) responses to environmental stress than predictions based on species means in many
14 cases, but that these effects will depend on how traits underlying performance, interaction fre-
15 quency, stress sensitivity, and pollination efficacy covary among individuals.

16 4. Finally, we highlight critical knowledge gaps and open questions in the structure and dynam-
17 ics of plant-pollinator interactions at the individual scale and conclude by outlining a roadmap
18 for integrating individual variation into studies of plant-pollinator communities under global
19 change.

1 Introduction

“No one supposes that all the individuals of the same species are cast in the same actual mould. These individual differences are of the highest importance for us, for they are often inherited, as must be familiar to every one; and they thus afford materials for natural selection to act on and accumulate.” (Darwin, 1859)

Plant–pollinator interactions underpin the maintenance of terrestrial biodiversity and ecosystem function. Pollination mediates reproduction in most flowering plants and supports the stability and quality of yields for many crops important to human diets and livelihoods (Klein *et al.*, 2007; Ollerton *et al.*, 2011). Predicting if or when plant–pollinator communities might collapse in response to rapidly changing environmental conditions is crucial for conserving biodiversity and supporting human well-being (Potts *et al.*, 2010; Timberlake *et al.*, 2026). Despite the emergence of plant–pollinator systems as a model for the ecology of mutualistic networks in recent decades, our ability to predict the impacts of rapid environmental change on pollinators—and the consequences for ecological communities or ecosystem services—remains limited (Bascompte & Scheffer, 2023; Peralta *et al.*, 2024a). Among pollinators, closely related or apparently similar species show markedly divergent responses to environmental change, creating patterns of ‘winners and losers’ (Jackson *et al.*, 2022). Yet what makes some taxa resilient and others susceptible to different extinction drivers remains poorly understood. At the same time, understanding and possibly predicting the risk of collapse in plant–pollinator systems (e.g., ‘tipping points’ (Huang *et al.*, 2021)), the pace of decline after critical thresholds are exceeded, and the potential for recovery after disturbance are well-recognized challenges of paramount importance. However, empirical evidence for such critical thresholds remains largely theoretical (Burkle *et al.*, 2013; Lever *et al.*, 2014), and we have only a limited understanding of factors underlying tolerance to environmental change. Understanding the mechanisms underlying sensitivity and resilience to environmental change is key to accurately

44 predicting and effectively mitigating the effects of global environmental change on biodiversity,
45 while also identifying ‘safe operating spaces’ that maintain stable pollination services and human
46 well-being (Steffen *et al.*, 2015; Timberlake *et al.*, 2026).

47 Individual variation within species can shape sensitivity to perturbation and capacity for rewiring
48 and recovery (Cantwell-Jones *et al.*, 2024) and may be critical to addressing these knowledge
49 gaps, yet has received limited attention in the literature on plant-pollinator interactions. More than
50 150 years ago, Darwin recognized the importance of within-species variation in driving evolution.
51 This emphasis on variation among individuals marked a fundamental departure from the Linnaean
52 focus on differences between discrete groups (i.e., species), but despite Darwin’s early empha-
53 sis on variation, modern ecological theory has focused primarily on mean differences between
54 species. Recent years, however, have reignited the emphasis on individual-level variation, recog-
55 nizing its ubiquity (Bolnick *et al.*, 2003; Des Roches *et al.*, 2018; Sih *et al.*, 2004)—arising even
56 in the absence of genotypic or environmental variation (Ayroles *et al.*, 2015; de Bivort, 2025)—
57 and impact on ecological and evolutionary processes (Cantwell-Jones *et al.*, 2024; Gamelon *et al.*,
58 2025; Gomez & Perfectti, 2012; Violle *et al.*, 2012) from collective performance in social animals
59 (Jolles *et al.*, 2020; Oster & Wilson, 1978) to species interactions (Bolnick *et al.*, 2003; Gaiarsa
60 *et al.*, 2022; Guimarães, 2020). In parallel, the increasing dominance of global environmental
61 change has shown the limits of the classical, static view of ecological systems under equilibrium
62 conditions, shifting the emphasis toward understanding how species and communities respond
63 to—and recover from—perturbations. A key challenge arising from this shift is identifying traits
64 that promote robustness and resilience to environmental change, ranging from gene expression and
65 regulatory networks (Vitousek *et al.*, 2025) to species and ecological communities (Bascompte
66 & Scheffer, 2023; Hernández-Carrasco *et al.*, 2025; Inouye *et al.*, 2021). Here, we suggest that
67 continued expansion of research on individual variation may help identify trait-based mechanisms
68 that buffer sensitivity or promote resilience to environmental change, while also shedding light on
69 the ecological and evolutionary forces that produce phenotypic variation within species in the first

70 place (Des Roches *et al.*, 2018).

71 In pollinators, individuals vary substantially within species in key phenotypes including morphol-
72 ogy (Couvillon & Dornhaus, 2010), physiology (Pimsler *et al.*, 2020), and behavior and cognition
73 (Chittka *et al.*, 2003). Phenotypic variation underlies species' ecological niches and shapes plant-
74 pollinator interactions (Junker *et al.*, 2013), such as tongue length driving visitation frequency in
75 bees (Peat *et al.*, 2005) and moths (Haverkamp *et al.*, 2016) *via* trait matching (Klumpers *et al.*,
76 2019), and wing shape impacting dispersal in butterflies (Breuker *et al.*, 2007). While few studies
77 have explicitly linked intraspecific variation to ecological resilience in plant-pollinator networks,
78 the existing evidence suggests important potential effects. For example, across bumblebees (*Bom-*
79 *bus* spp) species with higher variation in body size are more likely to have stable or increasing
80 population size under anthropogenic environmental change (Austin & Dunlap, 2019). At the com-
81 munity level, the degree of niche complementarity and functional redundancy among individuals
82 may influence species coexistence and community dynamics across different perturbation scenar-
83 ios (Hart *et al.*, 2016; Poisot *et al.*, 2015; Tur *et al.*, 2014).

84 Despite its potential to influence ecological sensitivity and resilience (Fig. 1; Cantwell-Jones *et al.*
85 2024; Guimarães 2020), few studies to date have explored the role of individual variation in shap-
86 ing the responses of plant-pollinator communities to anthropogenic change, let alone identified
87 underlying mechanisms. Here, we explore the growing empirical evidence for individual variation
88 in plant-pollinator communities (Arroyo-Correa *et al.*, 2025; Cantwell-Jones *et al.*, 2024; Gaiarsa
89 *et al.*, 2022; Guimarães, 2020; Peralta *et al.*, 2024b) and consequences for ecological sensitivity
90 and resilience. We focus on pollinators because of robust emerging empirical evidence for indi-
91 vidual variation, but include plant examples where appropriate to highlight that these patterns and
92 processes are not restricted to pollinators; our intention is to provide illustrative examples of how
93 and why individual variation matters, rather than provide a comprehensive review. We first synthe-
94 size perspectives on how individual variation may influence higher-order characteristics (such as

95 sensitivity, robustness, and resilience) at the population, species, and community scales, drawing
96 parallels with the role of species diversity and niche heterogeneity in ecosystem functioning. We
97 next explore illustrative examples of mechanisms by which individual variation affects the sensi-
98 tivity, robustness, and resilience of plant-pollinator communities under perturbation. Finally, we
99 identify critical open questions and practical future directions that we hope will spur new focus
100 on understanding the role of individual variation in the resilience of plant-pollinator networks.
101 While we focus here on the effect of niche-based, phenotypic variation on communities' responses
102 to global change as a starting point, plant-pollinator interactions arise from both niche (e.g., trait
103 matching) and neutral processes (e.g., variation in interaction rates driven by population abundance
104 or stochastic fluctuations) (Peralta *et al.*, 2020), and similar dynamics likely occur for neutral pro-
105 cesses. We specifically highlight the need to (a) quantify individual variation in empirical systems,
106 (b) identify correlations between phenotypic traits underlying performance at the organismal scale
107 and interaction patterns at the community scale, and (c) leverage emerging technologies and theo-
108 retical models to address these urgent knowledge gaps.

109 **2 A framework for linking individual variation to community** 110 **dynamics**

111 We focus here on how individual variation affects sensitivity, robustness, and resilience at higher
112 levels of biological organization (see Box 1 for operational term definitions used here; (Fig. 2))
113 (e.g., colonies, populations, species, or communities). This framework parallels the biodiver-
114 sity–ecosystem function literature, where well-established theoretical and empirical work has demon-
115 strated links between species diversity and the productivity and stability of ecological communities.
116 More species-rich plant communities generally show greater productivity (e.g., biomass produc-
117 tion), which may arise through several mechanisms, including niche complementarity (Tilman
118 *et al.*, 2001) or (perhaps more often) sampling effects (diverse communities are more likely to con-

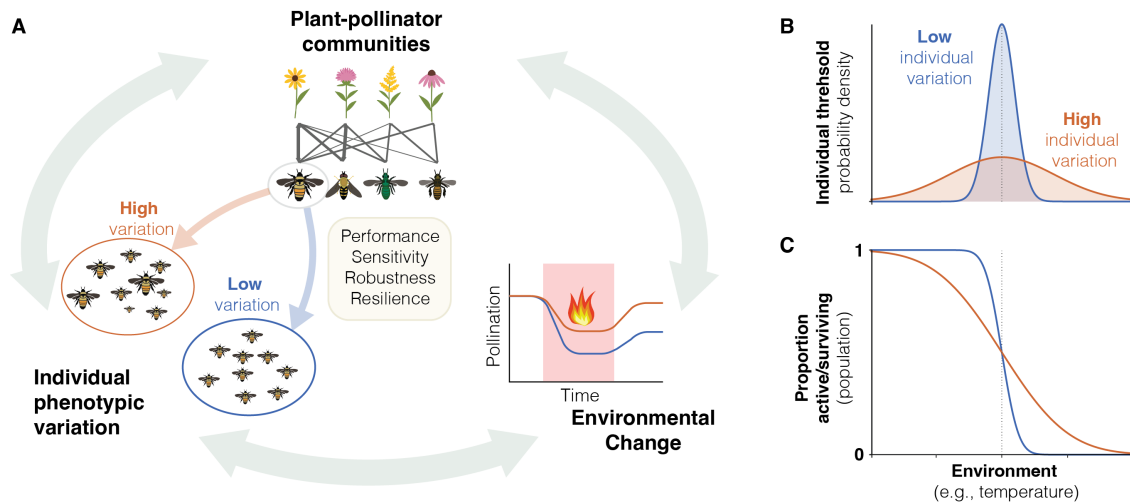


Figure 1: Linking individual phenotypic variation in plant–pollinator communities to environmental change. (A) Individual variation in traits affects the performance, sensitivity, robustness, and resilience of plant and pollinator species, ultimately driving population and community responses to environmental change. (B-C) Schematic representation of how trait distributions influence physiological thresholds (e.g., upper thermal limits). (B) Population-scale sensitivity to environmental conditions (e.g., temperature) may have high (orange) or low (blue) individual trait variation. This, in turn, may result in (C) an abrupt cutoff when the threshold is reached in populations with low individual variation (in blue), and a slow decay in populations with high individual variation, suggesting that these populations can withstand greater environmental variation. While here we focus on pollination and population dynamics, this framework can be applied to other scales and aspects of performance. Graphic art of pollinators by Jeremy Hemberger

119 tain highly productive species; Cardinale *et al.* 2006). Species diversity can also promote stability
 120 of ecosystem function (e.g., through biological insurance effects and response diversity; Loreau
 121 *et al.* 2021), akin to widening the stability basin (or ‘robustness’ in our terminology) in Holling’s
 122 ‘ball-and-cup’ analogy (Holling *et al.*, 1973).

123 Analogous to niche variation across species, individual niche complementarity (e.g., the extent
 124 to which individuals differ in dietary breadth) and sampling effects (e.g., the probability that a
 125 local population contains highly active foragers) may have comparable effects on performance,
 126 sensitivity, and resilience at the population scale, opening the potential for ‘downscaling’ species

127 niche theory to individuals. However, individual variation may also reflect distinct patterns and
128 processes. For example, physiological or phenotypic trade-offs may exist only at the level of indi-
129 viduals and not at higher levels (i.e., colony, population, or species); while foraging bees exhibit
130 trade-offs between speed and accuracy in learning that reflect fundamental neurobiological con-
131 straints at the individual level (Chittka *et al.*, 2003), colonies of social species benefit from a diver-
132 sity of cognitive strategies among workers (Burns & Dyer, 2008). As a result, trade-offs observed
133 at the individual level do not necessarily scale to colonies, populations, or species, and *vice versa*.
134 Thus, diversity-performance relationships established at one scale (such as performance-tolerance
135 tradeoffs that support biodiversity-stability relationships across species (Loreau *et al.*, 2001; Mari-
136 otte *et al.*, 2013)) will not necessarily translate down to lower scales (e.g., individuals or colonies).
137 It is thus critical to draw on biodiversity–ecosystem function theory while recognizing potential
138 limitations of directly applying species-level effects to the individual level.

Box 1. Definitions of key terms

The use of key terms varies across the literature and between fields; here, we adopt the following definitions. We define *individual variation* as the component of intraspecific variation attributable to differences between individuals (i.e., *inter-individual variation*, equivalent to the between-individual component of niche variation in Bolnick *et al.* 2003). Total intraspecific variation is thus a summation of *intra-individual variation* (e.g., niche breadth within individuals arising from ontogeny, plasticity, or other factors) and *inter-individual variation*. *Performance* is the ability of individuals, species, or communities to carry out key ecological functions (such as pollination) under given conditions. *Sensitivity* describes the degree to which performance shifts in response to changes in the environment (biotic or abiotic), and can be interpreted as the local slope in a performance vs. environment curve. *Robustness* refers to the ability of individuals (or communities) to sustain ecological functions under a range of environmental conditions or stress. *Resilience* is the capacity to recover functional performance after disturbance, whether through phenotypic plasticity, reorganization (e.g., interaction rewiring), or compensatory dynamics.

139

140 To illustrate the importance of variation among individuals in a population—and how it differs
141 from total intraspecific variation—consider a simple plant-pollinator community composed of
142 three plants and two pollinators, which are highly generalist at the species level (i.e., all polli-
143 nator species interact with all plant species; Fig. 3A). Both pollinator species interact similarly
144 with the same plant species, resulting in identical species-level interaction patterns. Yet these sim-
145 ilar patterns arise from different individual-level strategies. One pollinator species is composed
146 of individual ‘specialists’, with low overlap in resource use among individuals, leading to high
147 inter-individual variation, high floral fidelity, and low intra-individual variation. In contrast, the
148 other pollinator species is composed of individual ‘generalists’, with high overlap in resource use
149 among individuals, leading to low inter-individual variation, low floral fidelity, and high intra-

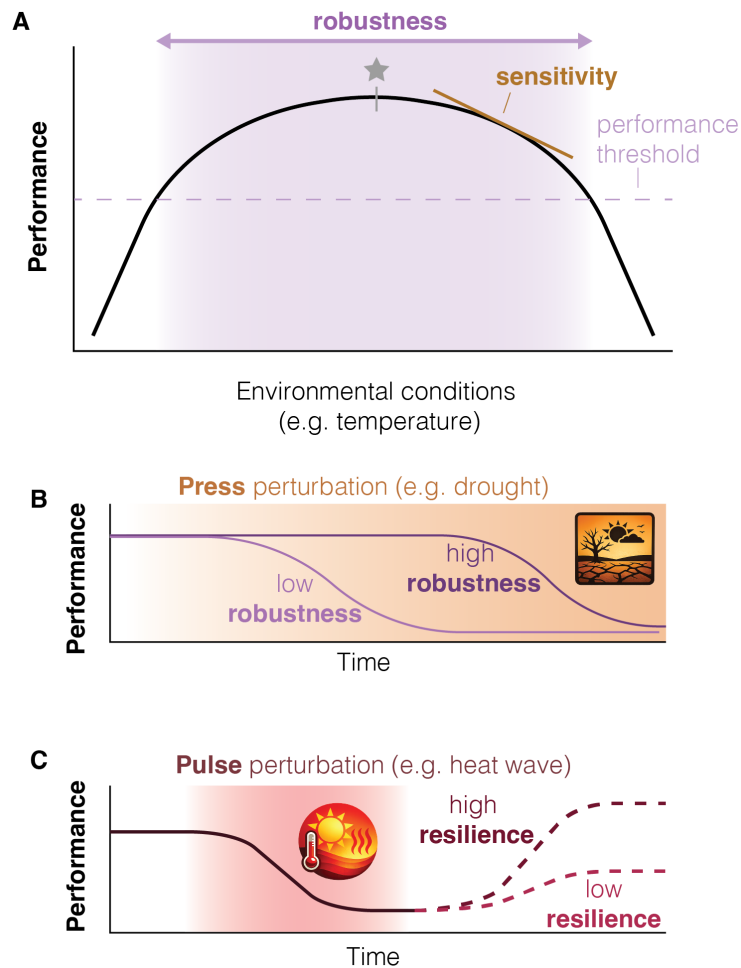


Figure 2: **Conceptual framework for key terms.** (A) Environmental conditions, such as temperature, can affect pollinator performance, including flight capacity and pollination efficiency. Sensitivity is defined as the rate of change in performance with respect to environmental conditions (i.e., the local slope). Robustness is defined as the range of conditions under which performance remains above a relevant threshold, such as the critical thermal minimum and maximum, with more robust populations exhibiting greater tolerance to a wider range of conditions than less robust populations (B). (C) Resilience is defined as the capacity to recover performance after a perturbation. For example, after the critical thermal maximum is temporarily exceeded, populations with high resilience will return to (or potentially exceed) their pre-perturbation performance level more quickly, whereas populations with low resilience will take longer—or may never fully recover. Schematic illustrations in (B) and (C) were generated with OpenAI’s DALL-E model.

150 individual variation (Fig. 3B). These differences in individual-level interaction structure may lead
151 to substantial differences in pollination services ('performance'). Highly specialized individuals
152 will repeatedly visit flowers of the same plant species, exhibiting high floral fidelity and thereby
153 leading to greater conspecific pollen transfer relative to generalized individuals (Fig. 3C). In this
154 context, perturbations, such as individual mortality, will also have different effects on the two pol-
155 linator species. In populations or species composed of individual specialists, interactions could be
156 completely lost, leading to greater sensitivity and potentially lower resilience if dietary preferences
157 are genetically encoded. In contrast, populations composed of individual generalists would show
158 a proportional decrease in interactions until all individuals were lost, reflecting high robustness
159 (potentially at the cost of lower performance; Fig. 3D). These patterns would also translate to key
160 aspects of network structure. For example, networks with species containing individual general-
161 ists would retain high connectance (the proportion of all potential species links that are filled in a
162 network) until a rapid collapse of connectance at high population loss (Lever *et al.*, 2014). In con-
163 trast, in networks with species containing individual specialists, network-level connectance would
164 be predicted to decline gradually as pollinator populations decline.

165 **3 Individual variation as a driver of plant-pollinator responses** 166 **to global change**

167 Plant–pollinator communities often show divergent responses to similar environmental perturba-
168 tions. Here, we build on the framework above to explore how individual variation may help explain
169 this heterogeneity in sensitivity, robustness, and resilience.

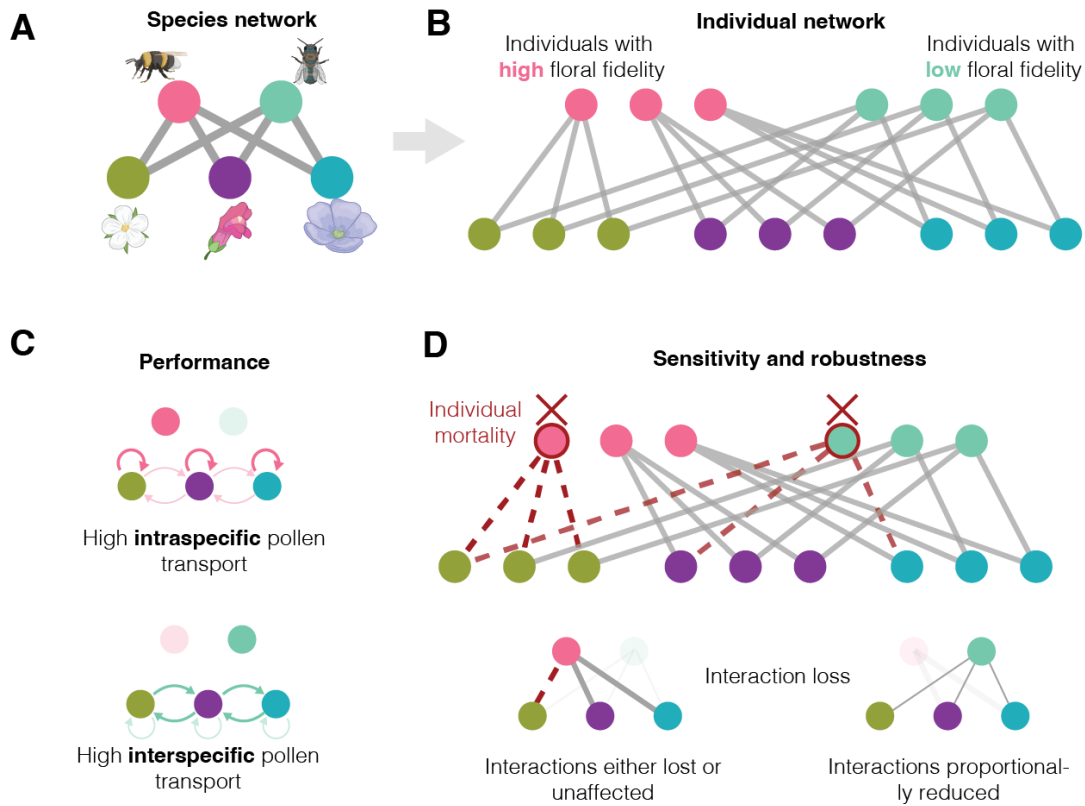


Figure 3: **Linking individual variation to species interactions.** (A) Representative plant-pollinator community and underlying (B) individual-level interactions, reflecting two pollinator species composed of ‘specialist’ (high floral fidelity) or ‘generalist’ (low floral fidelity) individuals, and how the resulting (C) pollination service changes based on the predicted pollen transport from different individuals. (D) Individual variation in interaction patterns also affects population responses to the loss of an individual in species-level interactions. Pollinator and flower illustrations in (A) were generated with BioRender.

170 **3.1 Individual variation and sensitivity**

171 Among both plants and pollinators, closely related and ecologically similar taxa are showing
172 strongly divergent responses to global environmental change. For example, in North America,
173 populations of several bumble bee species are stable or increasing, while others are in decline
174 (Jackson *et al.*, 2022). This pattern appears to be linked to morphological variation within species
175 (Austin & Dunlap, 2019), suggesting that individual phenotypic variation may affect the sensitiv-
176 ity of populations and species to environmental change (Des Roches *et al.*, 2018) through distinct
177 mechanisms. Generally, when individual variation in stress susceptibility is low (e.g., in thermotol-
178 erance), performance at the population scale is expected to show a strongly nonlinear decline near
179 the population mean tolerance (Fig. 1B, C). In contrast, greater individual variation in susceptibil-
180 ity would yield a consistent decline in performance on either side of the population mean (Fig. 1B).
181 As a result, greater individual variation may ‘smooth’ population-level sensitivity curves, whereas
182 limited variation could promote more threshold-like responses. Thus, populations with limited
183 individual variation may exhibit a greater tendency toward rapid, threshold-like responses to en-
184 vironmental perturbations, leading to rapid declines in pollination when critical stress levels are
185 reached. This is consistent with recent work showing that low variation in heat sensitivity within
186 insects (*Drosophila*) leads to more abrupt, threshold-like declines in survival near the population-
187 mean tolerance (Bullard *et al.*, 2026).

188 Individual variation in sensitivity within pollinator species is increasingly well documented; indi-
189 vidual pollinators differ markedly in their susceptibility and sensitivity to stressors such as disease
190 (Decanini *et al.*, 2007), temperature variations (Feuerborn *et al.*, 2023), and pesticide exposure
191 (Easton-Calabria *et al.*, 2023). Moreover, variation in body size is widespread and can influence
192 sensitivity to stressors, such as starvation (Couvillon & Dornhaus, 2010) and habitat loss (Bom-
193 marco *et al.*, 2010). Intraspecific variation in thermal tolerance also varies across populations (Pim-
194 sler *et al.*, 2020) and reproductive caste (Feuerborn *et al.*, 2023). While these patterns highlight the

195 ubiquity of intraspecific variation in stress susceptibility, the links between individual-level varia-
196 tion in susceptibility and tolerance thresholds or sensitivity at the population or species level have
197 not, to our knowledge, been directly tested.

198 Beyond effects of individual variation on population or species sensitivity, individual variation
199 among pollinators may also influence the sensitivity of communities and species interactions to
200 perturbations (Fig. 3). For example, in social and semi-social bees, division of labor may allow
201 individual foragers to specialize (*via* high floral fidelity) on particular floral resources (Brosi, 2016;
202 Yourstone *et al.*, 2023), while maintaining dietary diversity at the colony scale within species. In
203 contrast, individual solitary bees must acquire the full range of nutrients for their offspring (Filip-
204 iak, 2019). Consequently, they often exhibit low flower fidelity, regardless of resource abundance
205 (Bosch & Vicens, 2005; Torchio & Tepedino, 1980; Williams & Tepedino, 2003). As a result,
206 interactions with individual specialists (e.g., in social species) may yield higher mean pollination
207 efficacy but greater sensitivity (Gomez & Perfectti, 2012; Lopes *et al.*, 2022), echoing productivity-
208 stability trade-offs in ecosystem services (Montoya *et al.*, 2019).

209 **3.2 Individual variation and robustness**

210 Predictions that environmental perturbations could drive the rapid collapse of plant–pollinator
211 communities through cascading loss of interactions and coextinction have become a central theme
212 in pollination ecology (Lever *et al.*, 2014; Memmott *et al.*, 2004). Even though the distribution of
213 individual phenotypes within populations has major implications for robustness and coexistence
214 at the species and community scales (Baruah, 2022; Hart *et al.*, 2016, Fig. 4A), empirical evi-
215 dence for abrupt community-level collapse or the mechanisms shaping robustness across whole
216 plant–pollinator systems remains surprisingly limited. When individual variation is low, and indi-
217 viduals strongly overlap in traits such as thermal optima or dietary breadth, the loss of individuals
218 can lead to proportional declines in population-level performance (Figs. 1B, 4A). In contrast, when

219 trait distribution is highly variable, even random losses can trigger nonlinear, unstable outcomes in
220 population-level pollination performance (Figs. 1C, 4B). Such effects are conceptually similar to
221 ‘sampling effects’ described at the species scale (Cardinale *et al.*, 2006; Lepš *et al.*, 2006). When
222 individual trait variation is high, performance (e.g., pollination) at the population scale may depend
223 disproportionately on a small subset of highly active individuals, a pattern supported by empirical
224 studies of individual bees (Crall *et al.*, 2018; Tenczar *et al.*, 2014).

225 However, the extent to which individual loss propagates to the community scale depends not only
226 on how performance varies across individuals, but also on how interactions are organized within
227 networks (Fig. 3D). For example, when an individual is removed (Fig. 3D), the consequences for
228 community-level performance depend both on that individual’s interaction pattern and comple-
229 mentarity with other individuals. In our hypothetical community shown in Fig. 3, individual-scale
230 network connectance increases after the loss of individuals (0.33 before individual loss vs. 0.38 af-
231 ter; Figs. 3B and 3D, respectively). Superficially, this increase in connectance could suggest greater
232 redundancy in pollination function and increased robustness (Lever *et al.*, 2014). However, explic-
233 itly accounting for the interaction patterns of the removed individuals reveals a disproportionate
234 decline in pollination services for some species (e.g., the green plant in Fig. 3) not only through
235 reduced visitation but also because the remaining (generalist) pollinators predominantly transport
236 large amounts of heterospecific pollen. Thus, although network-level metrics may suggest im-
237 proved system performance, individual-level contributions to pollination can decline sharply when
238 specialized individuals are lost (Fig. 3B).

239 Generalization at the individual level may buffer interaction loss at the population and species
240 scales (Fig. 3D), thereby maintaining temporal patterns in network structure and population-level
241 performance, and increasing the robustness and persistence of ecological networks (Gaiarsa *et al.*,
242 2021; Guimarães, 2020; Ponisio *et al.*, 2017). The limited empirical data that exist suggest that
243 indeed intraspecific variation in interaction frequency may promote community robustness: plant

244 population persistence is greater when pollinated by a combination of specialized and generalized
245 individuals (Arroyo-Correa *et al.*, 2025), and variation in individual phenotypes and in pollinator
246 attraction may increase the feasibility of plant populations (i.e., range of environmental conditions
247 where a community may persist, consistent with ‘robustness’ here; Arroyo-Correa *et al.* 2023). A
248 key unresolved question is whether interaction performance covaries with sensitivity: robustness
249 may increase if high-performance individuals are more stress-resistant, but decrease if they are
250 disproportionately vulnerable.

251 Networks of ecological interactions typically exhibit highly skewed distributions, in which most
252 species (and likely most individuals; Bolnick *et al.* 2003) interact with only a few interaction
253 partners (specialists), while the remainder interact with many partners (generalists). As a result,
254 individual-level network metrics, such as connectance, nestedness, or modularity, may diverge
255 strongly from species-level averages. While the distribution of interactions has important con-
256 sequences for network dynamics at the species scale (Bascompte & Jordano, 2007; Gaiarsa &
257 Guimarães, 2019), understanding whether these findings scale down to individual-level interac-
258 tion networks can help identify individuals of high functional importance that sustain these critical
259 interactions.

260 **3.3 Individual variation and resilience**

261 Plant-pollinator communities show a remarkable capacity to recover following disturbance (Kaiser-
262 Bunbury *et al.*, 2017), yet these responses are highly variable (Dzekashu *et al.*, 2024), and there
263 is evidence of persistent, long-term degradation in many systems (Burkle *et al.*, 2013). Individ-
264 ual variation may promote the recovery of populations and species interactions after perturba-
265 tion through several mechanisms. In the short term, rare behavioral phenotypes (including those
266 that may be suboptimal under normal conditions) and stress-tolerant individuals can sustain low-
267 density populations and avert local extinctions through ecological bet-hedging (Kain *et al.*, 2015).

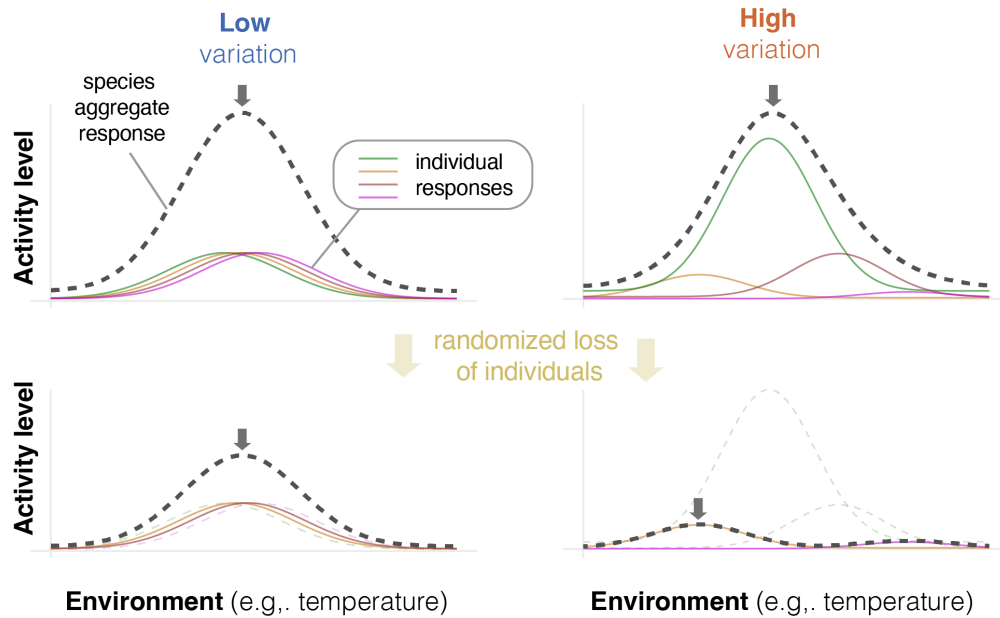


Figure 4: **Impacts of individual variation on robustness to the loss of individuals.** (A) When individuals have overlapping optima and functional roles (i.e., low individual variation), losses translate into proportional reductions in performance. (B) By contrast, when individuals vary widely in optima or amplitudes, random losses can lead to nonlinear declines and instability in population- or community-level performance. Solid lines show theoretical individual responses, and dashed lines show species aggregate responses. Dark grey arrows indicate peak activity level in each scenario.

268 For example, in seed-dispersal communities, a few plant individuals can attract disproportionately
 269 high vertebrate partner diversity, highlighting how rare or specialized individuals can buffer popu-
 270 lations against perturbations (Quintero *et al.*, 2025). Individual variation may thus promote (short-
 271 term) resilience by improving population growth at low densities (Chesson, 2000). Over longer
 272 timescales (i.e., generations), individual variation may promote evolutionary rescue in response to
 273 environmental change and perturbation (Bell, 2013).

274 High individual variation may also promote population and species persistence and recovery under
 275 long-term, press disturbances (e.g., phenological or range shifts under climate change) by allowing
 276 species to fill new (or extirpated) niche space or exploit novel spatio-temporal overlaps with poten-

277 tial interaction partners by expanding individual variation (Fig. 2). For example, species with high
278 trait variance may access a broader set of resources (Peat *et al.*, 2005; Peralta *et al.*, 2024b), thereby
279 reducing dependence on any single resource and increasing population-level resilience (and robust-
280 ness). Indeed, increased individual niche variation was proposed more than half a century ago as
281 a primary mechanism for species-level niche expansion (Van Valen, 1965). Individual-niche het-
282 erogeneity underlying species-level niche expansion could provide a plausible mechanism for why
283 some species with higher intraspecific morphological variation exhibit stronger population growth
284 in response to environmental change (Austin & Dunlap, 2019).

285 4 Open questions

286 Together, the patterns we outline above suggest that plant–pollinator communities with similar
287 species-level composition or network structure may nevertheless exhibit dramatic differences in
288 sensitivity, robustness, and resilience due to the distribution of phenotypic variation among indi-
289 viduals. Yet many open questions remain, and resolving them will require moving beyond species
290 averages to understand how individual-level heterogeneity shapes ecological responses to pertur-
291 bation.

- 292 • **What is the empirical distribution of individual trait variation in interactions?** While
293 it is often implicitly assumed that individuals have similar functional efficacy (Gomez &
294 Perfectti, 2012; Herrera, 1987; Lopes *et al.*, 2022; Vázquez *et al.*, 2005), it is likely that
295 individual phenotypic variation (e.g., in behavior and morphology) may influence pollen
296 deposition (e.g., Fig. 3 and section 3.2 above) *via* differential visitation frequency and in-
297 teraction efficacy (e.g., pollen deposition). As a result, observed species-level interaction
298 networks may substantially misestimate functional robustness if interaction frequency and
299 interaction efficacy are unevenly distributed among individuals. For example, communities
300 in which a small subset of individuals disproportionately contribute to pollen deposition may

301 be far more vulnerable to perturbation than species-level network structure alone would pre-
302 dict. The handful of empirical studies that have directly quantified individual-level variation
303 in interaction frequency and network position (Arroyo-Correa *et al.*, 2021; Gaiarsa *et al.*,
304 2022; Peralta *et al.*, 2024b) show strong variation in interaction patterns and functional out-
305 comes for both plants and pollinators. However, empirical studies quantifying individual
306 interactions—especially linking them to other phenotypic traits associated with performance
307 and stress susceptibility—remain quite sparse. Recent technological advances—particularly
308 in computer vision and metabarcoding (see Future Directions)—could enable unprecedented
309 resolution to quantify how individual variation in interaction frequency (and potentially effi-
310 cacy) shapes the dynamics and robustness of ecological communities.

- 311 • **How do trait correlations shape performance, sensitivity, and resilience?** A second crit-
312 ical gap our framework highlights is how traits underlying performance and interaction fre-
313 quency correlate with sensitivity at the organismal scale. For example, how does tolerance
314 to environmental stressors (e.g., pesticide exposure) vary between low- and high-performing
315 individuals? In social and semi-social bees, a small number of individual workers perform
316 the vast majority of foraging bouts (Crall *et al.*, 2018) and floral visits (Thomson & Chittka,
317 2001). If highly connected or high-performing individuals are also comparatively stress-
318 tolerant, ecological function may remain stable despite substantial environmental change.
319 In contrast, if the individuals contributing most strongly to pollination are also the most
320 stress-sensitive, perturbations could generate abrupt declines in pollination despite limited
321 population loss. Quantifying trait correlation structures may reveal trade-offs between per-
322 formance and tolerance, analogous to species-level trade-offs underlying diversity–stability
323 relationships (Loreau *et al.*, 2021). For example, in plant communities under drought stress,
324 tradeoffs between productivity and drought tolerance across species may promote commu-
325 nity stability under fluctuating conditions (Mariotte *et al.*, 2013) (although such tradeoffs
326 are not universal; Jung *et al.* 2020). However, it remains largely unknown whether similar

327 trade-offs occur among individuals within populations. Thus, quantifying individual-level
328 trait covariance is critical and will require integrative studies spanning multiple trait axes—
329 such as disease susceptibility, morphology, and cognition. Variation across species in natural
330 history may play an important role in structuring these tradeoffs: for example, sociality in
331 pollinators may affect interaction patterns (see section 3.1, Fig. 3) as well as stress sensitivity
332 (Crall & Raine, 2023). Critically, this will also require moving beyond static morphology to
333 dynamic, multi-metric measures of performance that link sensitivity-relevant traits (e.g., dis-
334 ease or thermal susceptibility) to population- and community-level consequences, including
335 interaction structure, functional outcomes, and the consistency of organisms' roles in inter-
336 action networks (Gaiarsa *et al.*, 2025). These correlations can reveal how selection within
337 species cascades to shape the structure and dynamics of mutualistic interactions.

- 338 • **How do temporal changes in individual variation shape responses to environmental**
339 **conditions?** Phenotypic plasticity can rapidly reshape trait distributions across short ecolog-
340 ical scales—from hours to seasons. The effect of plasticity will depend on how individual
341 plants and animals differ in their responses (e.g., developmental or behavioral) to environ-
342 mental change (i.e., 'reaction norms'; Cabirol *et al.*, 2023; Dingemans *et al.*, 2010; Suter &
343 Widmer, 2013), and may play a critical role in buffering higher levels of organization (e.g.,
344 colonies, populations, or communities). For example, within social bee colonies, individual
345 mortality may trigger compensatory upregulation of activity among other workers, provid-
346 ing colony-level buffering. Individual pollinators can also shift their floral visitation patterns
347 (and degree of 'specialization', or floral fidelity) in response to local resource availability
348 and weather (Brosi, 2016; Rose-Person *et al.*, 2025; Slominski & Burkle, 2021; Spiesman
349 & Gratton, 2016). Thus, the existence of individual variation in behavioral compensation
350 (i.e., 'behavioral reaction norms') may buffer pollination function at the population level,
351 even in the absence of colony-level coordination, functionally equivalent to 'response di-
352 versity' across species. Alternatively, the loss of individuals may amplify effects at higher

353 levels (e.g., colony or population); in social insect colonies, the loss of specialized workers
354 may drive collective colony collapse (Perry *et al.*, 2015). These examples emphasize how
355 individual variation may drive community-level compensation and regulation across scales
356 (Vitousek *et al.*, 2025), but also underscore that individuals' plastic behavioral responses
357 across space and time remain poorly understood.

358 **5 Future directions**

359 Despite growing recognition that individual variation can shape the sensitivity, robustness, and
360 resilience of plant–pollinator communities under global change, key gaps remain in our ability
361 to both measure individual phenotypes and interactions at scale and link those data to predictive
362 theory. We suggest that future work should emphasize two complementary priorities: (1) scalable
363 approaches for characterizing individual variation, and (2) tighter integration of theory, data, and
364 experimentation.

365 **5.1 Scale up measurements of individuals in the lab and field**

366 A persistent bottleneck lies in the difficulty of repeatedly monitoring large numbers of individuals
367 under ecologically relevant conditions. Emerging tools now facilitate the quantification of indi-
368 vidual behavior and interaction patterns at unprecedented scales. In particular, the convergence
369 of low-cost camera systems, robust image and video analysis, and deep learning algorithms for
370 behavioral quantification could enable high-throughput monitoring of individual-scale interactions
371 and activity (e.g., Arroyo-Correa *et al.* 2021; Sittinger *et al.* 2024; Smith *et al.* 2026; Spiesman
372 *et al.* 2021). Integrating deep-learning-based detection with classical computer vision can further
373 support automated tracking of floral preferences and visitation dynamics for uniquely identified
374 individuals (e.g., Jain *et al.* 2025; Ulrich *et al.* 2024), enabling repeated-measures estimates of
375 specialization, foraging activity, interaction turnover, and behavioral plasticity.

376 In addition, molecular tools such as DNA metabarcoding can complement visual observations
377 by resolving resource use and cryptic interactions, revealing individual-level dietary patterns and
378 interaction networks (e.g., Argueta-Guzmán *et al.* 2026; Gaiarsa *et al.* 2022). These scalable ap-
379 proaches should support—not replace—the need for natural history and data collection on basic
380 information on trait distributions, phenology, and trait covariances, which remain missing for most
381 plant and pollinator species. A promising direction would be to leverage image data from field
382 collections and citizen-science repositories to quantify phenotypic variation within and across pop-
383 ulations and species (e.g., Ostwald *et al.* 2025).

384 **5.2 Integrate theory and data through prediction-focused synthesis and ex-** 385 **perimentation**

386 Although theoretical models incorporating individual variation have advanced substantially (e.g.,
387 Arroyo-Correa *et al.* 2025; Baruah 2022), they remain constrained by limited empirical estimates
388 of trait distributions, trait covariances, and the structure of individual-level interactions. A critical
389 next step is to bridge species-scale frameworks—such as BEF and ecological network theory—
390 to the individual level. Central concepts at the species-level—complementarity, response diver-
391 sity, and sampling effects—have clear analogs at the individual level, but their consequences for
392 community function and dynamics may differ when variation is structured within species rather
393 than among species (e.g., Fig. 3). For example, two plant–pollinator communities with identical
394 species richness and similar connectance may differ dramatically in robustness if interaction fre-
395 quency and pollination efficacy are broadly distributed across individuals in one community but
396 concentrated among a few highly connected or highly effective individuals in another. Under-
397 standing when species-level expectations scale down to the individual level would shed light on
398 how population-level trait variation affects network stability, persistence, and pollination function
399 under environmental change.

400 Critically, as with the BEF literature, expanding beyond observation to experiments that manipu-
401 late the distribution of individual phenotypes within populations could provide causal tests of how
402 environmental perturbations propagate to affect interaction networks and community dynamics.
403 Manipulating the distribution of individual phenotypes within populations may provide an exper-
404 imentally tractable route to testing collapse thresholds, buffering capacity, and resilience mecha-
405 nisms that are otherwise difficult to study through species-level diversity manipulations.

406 In summary, the convergence of scalable monitoring, molecular and image-based phenotyping,
407 and increasingly mature individual-based theory creates an opportunity to understand, quantify,
408 and ultimately predict the effects of individual variation on plant–pollinator community responses
409 to global change. Integrating these advances can help address current central gaps: why appar-
410 ently similar species diverge in their responses to environmental change, what determines tol-
411 erance limits and the potential for abrupt declines, and which mechanisms allow populations and
412 communities to persist or recover following disturbance. By linking individual trait distributions to
413 interaction structure and pollination function, the framework we propose here can move us toward
414 a predictive ecology of plant-pollinator communities under global change, advancing fundamen-
415 tal ecological understanding while informing conservation strategies that protect not only species
416 richness, but also functional diversity down to the scale of individuals.

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