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2	flowering in pollinator-sharing annual plants
3	
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5	
6	
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### 11 Abstract

Density dependent interactions are fundamental to community ecology, but studies often reduce 12 13 the complex nature of species interactions. In plant ecology, interactions during vegetative 14 growth and flowering are often considered separately, though both can affect reproductive 15 output. Here we use communities of annual flowering plants in the genus Clarkia to ask how 16 interactions during growth and flowering contribute to density dependence in plant seed 17 production, and if pollinator behaviors explain apparent patterns in plant interactions during 18 flowering. We measure seed set (seed number per ovule) and total fecundity (whole-plant seed 19 production) of Clarkia focal plants in experimental interaction plots with the effect of pollinators 20 experimentally removed through supplemental pollination or retained. We also observe 21 pollinator behaviors in the plots and experimental arrays to document pollinator preference, 22 constancy and joint attraction. During flowering, pollinators significantly changed the density 23 dependent effects of Clarkia interactions on seed set in 31% of species interactions, and these 24 changes corresponded to pollinator behaviors. Total fecundity, however, did not depend on interactions between Clarkia; instead, earlier-flowering, non-Clarkia forbs limited total fecundity. 25 26 Our study shows that interactions during vegetative growth can preclude the effect of pollinator-27 mediated interactions on fecundity by limiting potential reproductive output. Simultaneously 28 studying different types of species interactions allows for understanding the contingency of 29 ecological outcomes.

### 30 Introduction

31 Density dependent interactions shape population dynamics and community structure. In 32 communities, co-occurring species are typically engaged in multiple types of interactions within 33 and between trophic levels that can affect density dependence (e.g., plant-plant resource 34 competition and pollinator-mediated plant interactions). Typically, studies aimed at quantifying 35 the strength and magnitude of density dependent interactions either estimate the combined 36 effects of multiple interaction types on performance or focus on a single interaction type 37 (Losapio et al. 2019). For example, studies in plant community ecology estimate the effects of 38 species interactions on coexistence (e.g. Angert et al. 2009, Godoy et al. 2014, Kraft et al. 2015, 39 Bimler et al. 2018, Wainwright et al. 2019), but do not parse the contribution of plant-plant 40 interactions during vegetative growth from the effects of pollinator-mediated interactions during 41 flowering (but see Lanuza et al. 2018 for an example of how variation in pollination affects 42 pairwise coexistence dynamics). Conversely, recent work in pollination ecology demonstrates 43 that pollinator-mediated plant interactions are key to understanding seed production and density 44 dependence (Lázaro et al. 2014, Benadi & Pauw 2018, Bergamo et al. 2020, Opedal & Hegland 45 2020, Phillips et al. 2020), but rarely do these studies investigate how interactions during 46 vegetative growth also contribute to seed production. On one hand, the 'combined effects' 47 approach cannot identify how interaction types combine to determine overall patterns in density 48 dependence, which lowers its predictive value. The 'single interaction' approach, on the other 49 hand, assumes that only one interaction type is relevant for reproductive output and therefore 50 may overestimate its importance, which lowers the explanatory value. One way to unite these 51 two approaches in plant ecology is to quantify density dependence arising from interactions 52 during growth and flowering and determine their relative contributions to seed production. This 53 should illuminate the ways in which interactions during these two life stages might combine to 54 affect plant species' performance, population persistence, and coexistence (Bartomeus et al. 55 2021).

56

57 For plant species that grow together and share pollinators, density dependent interactions 58 during vegetative growth determine plant survivorship, size, and potential fecundity (e.g., flower 59 and ovule production). Interactions during the reproductive stage determine whether flowers are 60 pollinated and produce seed. Whereas the mechanisms driving interactions during vegetative 61 growth have been widely explored (e.g. Dybzinski & Tilman 2007), pollinator-mediated 62 interactions during flowering are less understood. Two aspects of pollinator foraging behavior, 63 pollinator preference and constancy, have the potential to explain the effect of pollinator 64 mediated interactions on seed set. Preference reflects a pollinator's choice in visiting one plant 65 species over others when all are available and can introduce or intensify competition between 66 plant species by affecting the quantity of conspecific pollen that plants receive. Conspecific 67 pollen receipt and seed set for a particular plant should decline with declining pollinator 68 preference (Pauw 2012, Song & Feldman 2014, Benadi 2015). Constancy is the tendency of 69 pollinators to visit one species of plant in a foraging bout. If pollinators are inconstant, they can 70 introduce incompatible, heterospecific pollen to co-flowering plants. Heterospecific pollen 71 transfer is widespread in plant communities and is a form of reproductive interference between plant species that decreases seed set (Morales & Traveset 2008, Arceo-Gómez et al. 2016, 72 73 Arceo-Gómez et al. 2019, Moreira-Hernández & Muchhala 2019). Plant interactions via shared 74 pollinators can also be facilitative. Patches of many co-flowering plants may attract more 75 pollinators than when growing alone, which can increase pollinator visitation rates and thus 76 pollination service; this phenomenon is known as joint attraction (Kunin & Iwasa 1996, Moeller 77 2004, Feldman et al. 2004, Bizecki Robson 2013). The potential for facilitation via joint attraction 78 is contingent on low interspecific pollen transfer, and thus high pollinator constancy. Lastly, 79 because different pollinator taxa exhibit different degrees of preference and constancy (Waser 80 et al. 1996; e.g. Eckhart et al. 2006, Barrios et al. 2016), the composition of the pollinator

community will also modulate the extent to which pollinator-mediated interactions affect plant
reproduction.

83

84 Studies of in natural plant-pollinator communities (Lanuza et al. 2018) and small mesocosms of 85 plant and pollinator species (Bartomeus et al. 2021) confirm the importance of examining plant-86 plant interactions during both vegetative growth and flowering. However, no experimental study 87 has quantified the relationship between density dependence arising from interactions during 88 vegetative growth versus flowering, nor demonstrated the link between pollinator-mediated 89 interactions during flowering and pollinator foraging behavior. In this study, we do both in a 90 group of four sympatric and co-flowering winter annuals in the genus Clarkia (Onagraceae). 91 The four *Clarkia* species commonly co-occur throughout their range of geographic overlap 92 (Eisen & Geber 2018) and share bee pollinators specialized on the genus (MacSwain et al. 93 1973, Moeller 2005, Singh 2014), suggesting that they interact during both vegetative growth 94 and flowering. Furthermore, because Clarkia species flower late in the season after almost all 95 other annual plants in the area have senesced, the main interaction during flowering is through 96 pollinators that they share with each other (MacSwain et al. 1973).

97

98 To investigate the separate and combined effects of density dependent interactions during 99 growth and flowering on plant reproductive success, we use experimental pairwise interaction 100 plots of sown *Clarkia* and pollen supplementation via hand pollination (Figure 1). In the pairwise 101 interaction plots, interactions during growth affect plant size, and hence reproductive potential, 102 while interactions via shared pollinators during flowering affect pollination and seed set. The 103 pollen supplementation alleviates any effect of pollen limitation to seed set, allowing the effect of 104 interactions during growth to be separated from the effect of pollinator-mediated interactions 105 during flowering. We also investigate the link between pollinator behavior and *Clarkia* 106 interactions during flowering using pollinator observations in our experimental interaction plots,

and in experimental floral arrays, to measure pollinator preference, constancy, and visitationrate in response to floral density.

- 109
- 110 Methods

### 111 Natural history

112 *Clarkia* is a genus of winter annual plants which germinate in late winter and grow over the 113 course of the spring. All Clarkia species are self-compatible, but 2/3 of the species are 114 predominantly outcrossing due to pronounced spatial separation (herkogamy) of anthers and 115 stigmas within flowers and temporal separation (protandry) between anther dehiscence and 116 stigma maturation (Lewis & Lewis 1955). All four Clarkia taxa in this study (C. cylindrica ssp. 117 clavicarpa (Jeps.) Lewis & Lewis, C. speciosa ssp. polyantha Lewis & Lewis, C. unquiculata 118 Lindl., C. xantiana ssp. xantiana A. Gray, family Onagraceae) exhibit pronounced herkogamy 119 and protandry, and in the two taxa where outcrossing rates have been measured, outcrossing 120 rates range from 0.53-0.95 in C. xantiana ssp. xantiana (Moeller et al. 2012; Hove et al. 2016) 121 and 0.80-0.94 in C. unguiculata (Hove et al. 2016). In the remainder of the paper, we drop 122 subspecies designations and refer to the four taxa as species.

123

124 The four *Clarkia* species are sympatric in the southernmost portion of the Sierra Nevada 125 Mountain range. This region and our study are on Tübatulabal land known commonly as the 126 Kern River Canyon (KRC; Kern County, California, USA). We pay our respects to the 127 Tübatulabal people and recognize their past and ongoing connection to the land and its ecology. 128 The *Clarkia* in the KRC co-occur in communities of varying congeneric composition (from one to 129 four Clarkia species) embedded in low-elevation grassland, chaparral, and oak woodlands. In 130 their range of sympatry, Clarkia begin to flower in early May, and flowering lasts until mid- to late 131 June. All four species overlap in flowering time for about two weeks in late May and share a 132 group of bee pollinators specialized on the genus rather than any one species (MacSwain et al.

133 1973. Singh 2014). Pollen limitation to reproduction has been found in C. xantiana (Moeller et 134 al. 2012, Hove et al. 2016) and C. cylindrica (Eisen et al. 2020), but not C. unguiculata (Hove et 135 al. 2016). Where present, pollen limitation is variable across sites and years (Moeller et al. 136 2012, Hove et al. 2016, Eisen et al. 2020). Research has shown that at least one species, C. 137 xantiana, has higher seed set when it grows in multi-species Clarkia communities than at sites 138 where it occurs alone, and that this effect is explained by increased visitation from shared 139 pollinators at multi-species sites (Moeller 2004). 140 141 We use two different experiments to understand how pollinator-mediated interactions factor into 142 interactions between *Clarkia*. First, we use an *in-situ* common garden experiment to determine

143 (1) how focal *Clarkia* seed production and total fecundity respond to variation in neighborhood

density; (2) how pollinator-mediated interactions contributed to patterns in observed density-

dependence; and (3) pollinator preference and joint attraction. Because pollinator constancy

146 was impossible to estimate in pairwise interaction plots due to low species richness, we

147 additionally recorded pollinator visitation in multi-species experimental arrays of *Clarkia* plants to

148 estimate pollinator constancy.

149

150 Experimental Design

151 Pairwise Interaction Plots

152 Interactions during growth and flowering

153

154 To determine the combined effects of *Clarkia* growing and flowering together on reproductive

155 success, we used an experimental design closely modeled after work done to estimate

156 competitive interactions in annual plant communities (Godoy & Levine 2014, Godoy et al. 2014,

- 157 Kraft et al. 2015, Wainwright et al. 2019). In short, seeds of one *Clarkia* species were sown into
- a plot as a competitive background, and then seeds of the same and different *Clarkia* species

were sown as focal plants (Figure 1A, B). The identity of the background *Clarkia* species, and the density of background *Clarkia* varied across plots. This allowed us to estimate the effect of increasing density of background *Clarkia* on focal plant fecundity for each pair of focal species and background species.

163

164 In the pairwise interaction plots, we measured two metrics of reproductive success on focal 165 Clarkia plants in response to neighborhood density. First, we measured seed set as the success 166 of converting ovules in a fruit into seeds (number of seeds per ovule or the proportion of ovules 167 that result in filled seed) (Figure 1C). This metric is determined by interactions that occur during 168 pollination. Second, we measured total fecundity, or the total number of filled seeds produced 169 by a plant (Figure 1C), determined by interactions over the entire lifespan of the plant. Total 170 fecundity is the product of the total number of ovules a plant produces, which is determined 171 during growth and represents a plant's maximum potential fecundity, and seed set, as described 172 above. In our experiment, both seed set and total fecundity are potentially determined by the 173 density and identity of background sown Clarkia.

174

175 To remove the effects of pollinator-mediated pollen limitation to seed set, we added conspecific 176 pollen to one flower on each focal plant (Figure 1B). Comparison of seed set in the pollen 177 supplemented fruit, whose flower received additional pollen, to seed set in a control fruit, whose 178 flower did not receive additional pollen quantifies the effect of pollinator-mediated pollen 179 limitation to seed set (Figure 1C). We refer to these two fruits as "pollen-supplemented" and 180 "control" fruits in the rest of the paper. Total fecundity calculated from the seed set of control 181 fruits reflects the combined effects of plant-plant interactions during growth and, via pollinators, 182 during flowering on plant reproductive success, while total fecundity calculated from the seed 183 set of pollen-supplemented fruits reflects only the effects of plant-plant interactions during 184 growth on reproductive success (Figure 1C).

185

186 In late June through early July 2016, we set up 160, 1X1 meter experimental plots in a 187 community where all four species naturally occur in the Kern River Canyon (35°31'45N, 188 118°39'36W; Area = 0.57ha). We arranged plots in blocks of four, where plots were separated 189 by  $\sim 1/4$  meters, and blocks were separated by  $\sim 1/2$  meter. We cleared plots of all naturally 190 occurring *Clarkia* to prevent natural seed rain into the plots but did not disturb the soil. We also 191 left non-Clarkia forbs and grasses in place for two reasons: because it was infeasible to weed 192 them, and because grasses and forbs make up a substantial component of the vegetation: 193 removing them could disrupt interactions among Clarkia, and our intention was to study 194 interactions among Clarkia species in as natural a setting as possible (Table of common grass 195 and forb species in Table S1). 196 197 *Clarkia* seeds for the experimental sowing were collected at the study site as well as nearby 198 sites in the Kern River Canyon at the end of the 2016 growing season (late June). We used a 199 hand deawner (Hoffman Manufacturing, Inc, Fogelsville PA, USA) to break open the fruits and 200 extract seed, and a seed blower to separate seed from fruit walls. We sowed the seed into 201 experimental plots in October 2016 before the onset of winter rains that trigger germination. 202 Each block was haphazardly assigned a background *Clarkia* species, and each plot within the 203 block was haphazardly assigned one of five seeding densities (0, 0.04, 0.16, 0.64, and 2.56 204  $q/m^2$ ). For a given background seeding density, we chose to plant the same mass of seed 205 because the four species differ in seed size, and seed size correlates with adult plant size. Had 206 we planted equal seed numbers for a given seeding density, the background biomass, and 207 hence competitive effect, of large seeded species (C. unquiculata and C. xantiana) would have 208 been greater than that of the smaller seeded species (C. cylindrica and C. speciosa).

209 Background seeding densities were chosen based on previous estimates of naturally occurring

seed production at the field site (James, unpublished data). For *C. xantiana*, with an average

seed mass of 0.025 mg (Gould et al. 2014), the five seeding densities corresponded to 0, 1600,
6400, 25600, and 102400 seeds per m<sup>2</sup>. In total, our design yielded 20 background species X
density treatments, with eight plot replicates per treatment.

214

215 To establish focal plants of each species on which to measure reproductive output, we planted 216 twenty focal seeds into one of four designated locations (one for each species) in each plot. The 217 locations were delimited using 2.5cm radius cabone craft rings (CSS Industries, Inc., PA, USA) 218 secured in the around with two 3.8cm fence staples. In the spring of 2017, we thinned the focal 219 seedlings in the cabone rings to one focal Clarkia plant. To prevent bias in selecting a focal 220 seedling, we left the seedling that was closest to the center of the ring and removed the rest. In 221 this same period, we counted the number of seedlings of background Clarkia species that had 222 germinated and the number of non-target grasses and forbs growing within a 5cm radius from 223 the focal seedling. We also weeded any seedlings of non-target Clarkia species in the background of all plots. 224

225

226 During the two-week flowering stage in late May 2017 we haphazardly assigned one flower as 227 the control to receive no additional pollen, and another flower to receive additional conspecific 228 pollen on all focal plants with  $\geq 2$  flowers. We selected pairs of flowers that were at a similar 229 reproductive stage so that they were exposed to similar environments during pollination. To add 230 conspecific pollen to the pollen addition flowers, we harvested mature, dehiscing anthers from 231 3-4 flowers from naturally occurring conspecific *Clarkia* growing nearby by 8 am before 232 pollinators began foraging for the day. The pollen was applied to the freshly opened and 233 receptive stigmas on the selected flower of a focal plant immediately after harvesting the 234 anthers. Applying pollen to freshly opened stigmas ensured that they had not received any con-235 or heterospecific pollen prior to applying our treatment. Application of pollen in this manner

236 coats the stigma with >300 pollen grains, well in excess of the number of ovules (20-100) in

237 each ovary (M.A. Geber, pers. obs.).

238

239 We counted the number of fruits on each focal plant and collected the treatment fruits at the end

240 of the growing season. We also counted the number of filled seeds, aborted seeds, and

241 unfertilized ovules in each treatment fruit. We harvested all background *Clarkia* in each plot and

242 weighed the above ground biomass after drying plants at 65 C for 48 hours.

243

244 Pollinator visitation in the interaction plots

245 During the co-flowering period in 2017, we observed bee visitation in the pairwise interaction

246 plots to quantify pollinator preferences and joint attraction (Figure S1). Due to time limitation and

247 the fact that some plots did not have surviving focal plants, not all 1m<sup>2</sup> plots were observed;

248 however, at least one plot from each block was observed during the co-flowering period.

249 Observations were made in ten-minute periods. Bees entering plots were identified to genus or

250 species and tracked as they made visits to Clarkia flowers. After the 10-minute observation

251 period, we counted and recorded the number and identity of open *Clarkia* flowers in the plot.

252

253 Pollinator Arrays to assess constancy

254 We assembled cut-stem arrays of the four *Clarkia* species to observe pollinator behavior during 255

the 2015 and 2016 Clarkia growing seasons. We cleared a 5 x 5m patch of all naturally

256 occurring *Clarkia* in the middle of the experimental site in late April before *Clarkia* plants had

257 started flowering. We constructed a grid with nodes at every 0.5m increment for a total of 100

258 nodes and buried a floral water pick at each node to fill with water and hold Clarkia stems.

259

260 Each array contained equal numbers of cut stems of all four *Clarkia* species planted at one of 261 four densities (in 2015: 10, 20, 40, or 100 stems; in 2016: 12, 24, 64, or 100 Clarkia stems)

(Table S1). This design allowed us to observe pollinator constancy across a range of plant densities, holding diversity relatively constant. Because different bee species forage at different times of day (Hart & Eckhart 2010), we ran most treatments in the morning and afternoon on different days. For each array run, we gathered *Clarkia* stems before 8am to assemble in the grid. We arranged *Clarkia* stems in the grid according to a randomly generated map of a particular treatment, where locations in the grid were either left 'blank' or received one *Clarkia* stem of a prescribed *Clarkia* species depending on the treatment density.

269

270 During the array runs, we identified and monitored bees as they entered and foraged in arrays. 271 When a bee entered the array and landed on a flower, one person called out the grid location of 272 the flower/bee, identified the bee to species or genus, and tracked the bee's movements until it 273 left the array, while another person recorded. At the end of each array run, we counted the 274 number of open flowers of each species and then disposed of wilted *Clarkia* stems. Rarely, we 275 re-used stems if they still had visibly turgid petals and leaves, though we never retained stems 276 for more than two runs. Array treatments lasted 40 or 60 minutes; many treatments in 2016 277 were stopped at 40 minutes due to wilting. We did not run the experiment on days when the 278 predicted peak temperature was below 21°C or wind was stronger than a light breeze.

279

### 280 Statistical Analysis

All calculations and statistical analyses were performed in R (R version 3.5.2, R Core Team, 2018). We used two different analyses to understand the effects of density dependent interactions on *Clarkia* seed production. We first investigated density dependent interactions in the flowering stage by determining how *Clarkia* densities affected seed set (the number of seeds per ovule in a fruit), and then investigated the density dependent effects of the neighborhood on *Clarkia* total fecundity using glmms. We then analyzed the three pollinator foraging behaviors that contribute to density dependence during the flowering stage.

288

# 289 Seed set

290 For each fruit, we defined 'successes' as filled seeds, and 'failures' as the sum of unfertilized 291 ovules and aborted seeds. We built a set of candidate models to determine which combination 292 of four fixed effects factors best explained variation in seed set – the pollination treatment 293 (pollen supplemented vs. control), the focal Clarkia species identity, the background Clarkia 294 species identity, and the biomass of background Clarkia in the plot. We did not include non-295 *Clarkia* grasses or forbs in this analysis because they flower before *Clarkia* during the 296 experiment, and therefore would not affect the pollination interactions of Clarkia. We also used 297 one random effect, the identity of the focal plant, in all models. We did not include random 298 effects for plot nested within block or for block because models with these effects were 299 unidentifiable. To avoid model dredging, we built a set of models relevant to our questions and 300 hypotheses with which to perform model selection (Table S3). We fit the data to all candidate 301 models using the Ime4 package (Bates et al. 2015) and selected the model with the lowest AICc 302 (the best-fit model) for ecological inference. The most complex model included an interaction of 303 all four fixed effects and represents our prediction that successful seed set depends on the 304 density dependent effect of the background Clarkia on the focal Clarkia and varies according to 305 pollination treatment.

306

After identifying the best-fit model, we used estimated marginal means to determine the predicted density dependent effect of background *Clarkia* on focal *Clarkia* seed set, with and without pollen addition (package emmeans, Lenth 2019). Here, the effect of pollinators on the interaction is the change in the density dependent effect of background *Clarkia* on focal *Clarkia* seed set between the two pollination treatments (pollen addition and no pollen addition). If pollinators change the strength or direction of the interaction, then the effect of increasing background *Clarkia* biomass will be significantly different between the two pollination

treatments. We also tested if the estimated density dependent effect of background *Clarkia* on focal *Clarkia* was significantly different from zero for both pollination treatments to examine if and when pairwise *Clarkia* interactions were significantly different from zero (no effect of increasing density). Finally, we estimated pollen limitation to successful seed set of each *Clarkia* species as the difference in the probability of successful seed set between pollen addition vs. no addition treatments.

320

321 Total fecundity

322 The second analysis focused on the total fecundity (total seed number) of focal plants in the 323 interaction plot. We calculated total fecundity as the product of fruit number on a plant, the 324 average number of ovules, seeds, and aborted seeds across the two sampled fruits (control and 325 pollen-supplemented), and the proportion of successful seeds in fruits under each pollination 326 treatment. This allowed us to calculate total estimated reproductive output of the whole plant 327 under the two treatment scenarios. We used generalized linear mixed effects models with a 328 Poisson error distribution to model total reproductive output with six potential fixed effects: 329 pollination treatment, focal *Clarkia* species identity, background *Clarkia* species identity, 330 background *Clarkia* biomass, and the number of forbs and number of grasses within 5cm of the 331 focal seedling. Forb and grass counts were centered and standardized to improve model 332 performance. We included two random effects: an observation-level random effect to account 333 for over-dispersion in the data, and plant identity. We again did not include random effects for 334 plot and block because such a model was unidentifiable.

335

As before, we built a set of candidate models relevant to the study with which to perform model selection. The most complex candidate model included an interaction between the pollination treatment, background *Clarkia* identity, focal *Clarkia* identity, and background *Clarkia* biomass, as well as the additive effects of forb and grasses (Table S3). This candidate model represented

our prediction that whole-plant seed production depends on the density dependent effect of the
background *Clarkia* on the focal *Clarkia*, which is modified by the activity of pollinators. We
again selected the model with the lowest AICc score for ecological inference. With the best-fit
model, we used the Wald test to determine the significance of the predictors on total
reproductive output.

345

# 346 Pollinator preference in the pairwise interaction plots

347 We built an interaction network using the R package bipartite to understand pollinator 348 preference (Dormann et al. 2008). In the network, we only included the first visit of each 349 pollinator to a plot because each plot was dominated by a single background species such that 350 subsequent movements within a plot were likely to be to the same species (visits to focal plants 351 in plots against a common background species were rare). We first estimated d', or network 352 specialization, of the three most common pollinator taxa (Blüthgen et al. 2006). Higher values of 353 d'indicate higher values of pollinator specialization within the network, which we interpret as 354 taxon-level pollinator preferences for different *Clarkia*. We only included the three most common 355 pollinator taxa because all other pollinators accounted less than 2% of the sample (Table S2). 356 Next, we used a chi-squared test to compare the proportion of first-choice visits to each Clarkia 357 species with the proportion of each background plot type we observed. If bees have no 358 preference among Clarkia, then the proportion of first-choice visits to each plant species should 359 be equal to the proportion of plots we observed where that species was sown into the 360 background.

361

# 362 Pollinator constancy in the experimental arrays

To understand the potential for pollinator (in)constancy to affect pairwise interactions between species, we built a 4x4 matrix for each array run, where rows represent the *Clarkia* species first visited by a pollinator, and columns represent the species visited next in a sequence of two

sequential flower visits. On-diagonal entries in the matrix represent pollinator movements to the same species of *Clarkia* (constancy), and off-diagonal movements between different species (inconstancy). We divided the sum of all inconstant movements by the total number of moves in arrays to quantify the proportion inconstant movements that might lead to incompatible pollen transfer in *Clarkia*. We also tabulated the number of inconstant movements between each pair of *Clarkia* species and conducted a chi-squared test to determine which pairs of species are at higher risk for incompatible pollen transfer.

373

# 374 Joint attraction in the pairwise interaction plots

375 We used a generalized linear mixed effects model of visitation rate (visits per 10-minute

376 observation interval) with a Poisson error distribution to determine the potential for joint

377 attraction in the pairwise interaction plots. Log-transformed floral abundance was used as a

378 fixed effect in the model, and we included random effects for plot and observation period. Joint

attraction in this analysis would be an increase in visitation rate as a function of floral

380 abundance.

381

#### 382 Results

# 383 The effect of interactions during growth and flowering on seed production

We collected 371 fruits from 232 focal *Clarkia* plants in the pairwise interaction plots. The uneven number of fruits collected was due to fruit loss from herbivory. We found that the best-fit model of the probability of successful seed set included the four-way interaction between focal *Clarkia* species identity, background *Clarkia* species identity, background *Clarkia* biomass, and pollination treatment (Table S3). In other words, the best fit model of the probability of seed set depended on the species-specific, density dependent effect of background *Clarkia* on focal *Clarkia*, and this effect was modified by pollination treatments.

392 Pollination significantly changed the density dependent effect of background Clarkia on focal 393 Clarkia seed set in 31% of the interactions (five of 16 interactions: Figure 2, Table 1). In three of 394 these interactions, the density dependent effect was more competitive when the effect of 395 pollinators was included (no pollen addition treatment) than when the effect of pollinators was 396 removed (pollen addition treatment). In other words, pollinator-mediated interactions introduced 397 a competitive effect of the background Clarkia on focal Clarkia for the following three 398 background/focal species combinations: C. unguiculata/C. xantiana; C. xantiana/C. unguiculata; 399 and C. cvlindrica/C. xantiana. Conversely, in the other two cases, the density dependent effect 400 of the background was more positive with the effect of pollinators than without; that is, pollinator-401 mediated interactions introduced a facilitative effect of the background on focal Clarkia in C. 402 speciosa/C. cylindrica and C. speciosa/C. speciosa background/focal combinations. Of these 403 interactions, only two of the 32 density dependent effects of background Clarkia density on 404 Clarkia seed set were significantly different from zero. One was the competitive effect of C. 405 *unguiculata* on *C. xantiana* in the pollen addition treatment (z = -2.49, p = 0.01), and the other was 406 the competitive effect of C. cylindrica on C. xantiana in the no pollen addition treatment (z= -407 4.89, p<0.001) (Figure 2).

408

Finally, the average pollen limitation to successful seed set varied by focal species. Additional pollen increased seed set in three of the four species: *C. unguiculata, C. cylindrica,* and *C. xantiana*. The treatment effect was highest for *C. unguiculata*, indicating that pollination service limited its successful seed set the most of the four species (Figure 3, Table S4). The treatment effect was lowest in *C. speciosa*, which experienced slightly lower seed success under pollen supplementation (Figure 3, Table S4).

415

The best-fit model for total fecundity included the additive fixed effects of (1) pollination
treatment and (2) the number of forbs surrounding the focal plant when it was a seedling (Table

418 S2). In other words, total fecundity of focal *Clarkia* plants was best predicted by the effect that 419 non-Clarkia forbs had on focal plants during growth, and wholesale pollen limitation in Clarkia 420 during flowering (Figure 4). Total fecundity strongly declined with increasing forbs (-0.77  $\pm 0.15$ 421 SE; Wald p-value < 0.001, Table S5) and was significantly higher in the pollen addition 422 treatment relative to the no pollen addition treatment (1.17  $\pm$  0.20 SE; Wald p-value < 0.001, 423 Table S5). 424 425 Pollinator foraging behaviors 426 Preference and joint attraction in the interaction plots 427 We performed 193, 10-minute observation periods and observed 446 pollinators in the Clarkia

428 interaction plots in 2017. The three most abundant pollinator visitors, in order of abundance,

429 were Diadasia angusticeps (Apidae), Hesperapis regularis (Mellitidae), and Lasioglossum spp.

430 (Halictidae) bees, which made up more than 99% of all observed pollinators (Table S2). The

431 preference of these three pollinators varied: *D. anguisticeps* exhibited the most specialized

432 behavior, visiting *Clarkia speciosa* to the near exclusion of the other *Clarkia* (d' = 0.79), followed

433 by *H. regularis* (d'=0.33), and *Lasioglossum sp.* (d'=17), both of which visited all four *Clarkia*, but

434 most commonly *C. xantiana* and *C. cylindrica* (Figure 5, Panel A).

435

Overall visitation to the different *Clarkia* was significantly different from the null expectation that visitation to each species is proportional to the frequency with which we observed plots with each background-sown *Clarkia* ( $\chi^2(3)$ =104.47; p<0.001). The residuals of the chi-squared analysis indicate pollinator preference for *C. speciosa* and *C. xantiana* (Pearson residuals = 7.6 and 2.4, respectively), and avoidance of *C. cylindrica* and *C. unguiculata* (Pearson residuals = -3.7, -5.2, respectively).

442

443 Pollinator constancy in the experimental arrays

444	We performed 17 array runs with all four Clarkia species, observing 664 pollinator movements
445	from 418 bees across 2015 and 2016. Only 100 of the 664 movements (15%) were between
446	different plant species (and thus inconstant); therefore, Clarkia pollinators are by and large
447	constant foragers, even when equally exposed to all four Clarkia species. Interspecific
448	movements were significantly different from the null expectation of being evenly divided among
449	species pairs ( $\chi^2(5)$ =65.56; p<0.001). The species pairs where switching occurred most
450	frequently were C. xantiana and C. unguiculata and C. xantiana and C. cylindrica. These were
451	the only species pairs with Pearson residuals > 1 (Pearson residuals=6.45 and 1.55
452	respectively). Movements between individuals in these pairs of accounted for more than 60% of
453	inconstant movements in the dataset (Figure 5, Panel B).
454	
455	Pollinator Joint Attraction
456	Pollinator visitation rate (in visits per 10-minute observation periods) increased with log floral
457	abundance in the interaction plots, indicating joint attraction (0.86±0.11, p<0.001; Figure 5,
458	Panel C).
459	
460	Discussion
461	In community ecology, density dependent species interactions are the building blocks of
462	theories of community function and species persistence. In focusing on either the combined
463	effects of interaction types on species interactions or a single interaction type, studies often
464	overlook the multiplex nature of species interactions which can result in overly simplistic
465	predictions about plant community dynamics (Losapio et al. 2019, Bartomeus et al. 2021). In
466	this study we do our best to reconcile that plant interactions during both growth and flowering
467	can affect density dependent interactions between co-flowering plant species in a group of four
468	sympatric pollinator-sharing Clarkia species.

468 sympatric pollinator-sharing *Clarkia* species.

469

#### 470 The importance of studying multiple life history stages to understand plant interactions

471 We found that the contribution of pollinator-mediated interactions during flowering to total plant 472 fecundity is, above all, contingent on what transpires during growth. Whereas successful seed 473 set depended on pollinator-mediated Clarkia interactions (discussed below), the only density 474 dependent interaction explaining the total fecundity of focal plants was that of the non-Clarkia 475 forbs surrounding seedlings during growth. We anticipated that the effect of interactions during 476 flowering might change the direction and/or magnitude of density dependence independently of 477 the effects of growing together, which is how previous studies have typically framed the 478 question of how pollinators could affect plant coexistence dynamics (e.g. Benadi & Pauw 2018, 479 Bergamo et al. 2020, Lanuza et al. 2018, Lázaro et al. 2014, Rathcke 1983). In contrast, our 480 findings were surprising in two ways: first, the competitive effect exerted by plants during growth 481 limited total fecundity so strongly, by limiting total ovule production, that it masked the effect of 482 pollinator-mediated interactions on seed production per ovule during flowering. This 483 demonstrates that the significance of pollinator-mediated plant interactions for plant fecundity is 484 constrained by, rather than independent of, plant interactions during growth.

485

486 Second, density dependent competition during growth was exerted by non-Clarkia forbs on 487 Clarkia seedlings, whereas the density dependent effects of pollinator-mediated interactions 488 during flowering were exerted by *Clarkia* on *Clarkia*. This result demonstrates that the density 489 dependent effects of particular species (in this case, congeneric *Clarkia*) are potentially only 490 relevant during one, rather than all, life stages (Leslie 2005). Stage-dependent interactions 491 have been explored in animal communities in terms of ontogenetic niche shifts (Werner & 492 Gillam 1984, Bassar et al. 2017), and our results suggest that accounting for ontogeny may be 493 appropriate for understanding plant community coexistence as well. This result also highlighted 494 that studying *Clarkia* interactions without removing background grasses and forbs was revealing 495 of the ecology of the plant community. Had we taken a more traditional approach of studying

496 pairwise interactions without the rest of the annual plant community (by weeding, for example). 497 we may have concluded that interactions during flowering are strong drivers of Clarkia 498 interaction dynamics, because it would have been impossible to detect the density dependent 499 effects introduced by non-Clarkia forbs. Our results support the idea that studying species 500 interactions in a pairwise fashion can limit our understanding of community structure and 501 function (Abrams 1983, Chesson 2018, Levine et al. 2017, Mayfield & Stouffer 2017). One way 502 to incorporate such complexity into predictive models may be to leverage the growing body of 503 network theory (Godoy et al. 2018, Opedal & Heglend 2020, Valdovinos 2019, Losapio et al. 504 2019) to build models that capture how the stage-specificity and contingency of density 505 dependent species interactions affect population persistence and community structure. 506 Alternatively, the implications of our findings could be explored by using population models to 507 compare plant species persistence in communities where interactions during growth take 508 precedence in determining fecundity, versus communities where pollinator-mediated 509 interactions determine fecundity.

510

# 511 Pollinator-mediated interactions correspond to foraging behavior and affect seed set

512 We have shown that pollinator-mediated interactions during flowering affect seed set at the 513 scale of the fruit and can be linked to the foraging behaviors of pollinators. This links two types 514 of pollination ecology: studies that show that pollinator foraging varies according to community 515 context (Eckhart et al. 2006, Lázaro et al. 2009, Valdovinos et al. 2013), and that pollinator 516 sharing among species affects focal plant performance (Bergamo et al. 2019, Moeller 2004, 517 Lanuza et al. 2018). Here we found that pollinators changed the positive, negative, or neutral 518 effect of background Clarkia density on seed set in five of 16 species interactions. A few 519 patterns stand out from this analysis. First, the *Clarkia* pairs that exhibited density dependent 520 interactions significantly different than zero (C. cylindrica background/C. xantiana focal, and C. 521 unguiculata background/C. xantiana focal) shared pollinators and represented the two species

522 pairs where pollinators were most likely to make interspecific (inconstant) visits (Figure 5, Panel 523 B). In one of these interactions, the significantly competitive effect of C. unguiculata density on 524 C. xantiana was neutralized when including the effect of pollinator sharing. To wit, pollinators 525 acted as a facilitative force and 'rescued' C. xantiana from the otherwise competitive effect of 526 increasing C. unguiculata density. This result may be explained by joint attraction, where 527 increasing *Clarkia* density in the plot attracted more pollinators overall, and that pollinators 528 preferred C. xantiana much more than they did C. unguiculata, resulting in C. xantiana receiving 529 a disproportionate amount of pollinator visits. In the other species interaction significantly 530 different from zero, pollinators introduced a competitive effect of C. cylindrica on C. xantiana. 531 We suspect this can be explained simply by incompatible pollen transfer between plants from 532 inconstant shared pollinators. Alternatively, the fact that pollinators alleviated competition in one 533 case but exacerbated competition in another could be explained by potential differences in how 534 different species tolerate incompatible pollen. For example, previous work has shown that 535 flowering plants, including Clarkia, exhibit species-specific sensitivity or tolerance to 536 heterospecific pollens (Arceo-Gómez et al. 2016, Arceo-Gómez et al. 2019); it is possible that 537 C. xantiana tolerates C. unquiculata pollen better than it does C. cylindrica pollen, resulting in 538 the differences in pollinator-mediated interactions.

539

540 In addition, the only species that exhibited a significant intraspecific pollinator-mediated 541 interaction was C. speciosa, which does not share pollinators to a great extent with the other 542 three species and experienced lower rates of inconstant visitation. In this instance, increasing 543 conspecific density trended toward competition when the effect of pollinators was removed but 544 trended toward facilitation when the effect of pollinators was retained. This suggests that joint 545 attraction can introduce a positive density dependent Allee effect in conspecific stands of 546 flowering plants, as suggested by a previous model exploring the relationship between pollinator 547 foraging, plant density, and plant performance (Kunin & Iwasa 1996). However, we would likely

not have found positive density dependence if not for *Diadasia angusticeps*, which has a
decided preference for *C. speciosa*, and was quite abundant in 2017. Without *D. anguisticeps*,
or in years of low abundance, pollination service to *C. speciosa* would likely have been lower in
both quantity and quality both because generalists can exacerbate negative reproductive
outcomes (Kunin 1993) and because competition for pollinator services generally increases in
plant communities when pollinators are scarcer (Lázaro et al. 2014, Ye et al. 2014).

554

Finally, the effect of *C. speciosa* backgrounds on *C. cylindrica* seed set trended towards facilitative without the effect of pollinators but became less so with effect of pollinators; in this case, pollinators introduced a competitive effect that dampened *C. speciosa* facilitation of *C. cylindrica*. Because these two species do not share pollinators (Figure 4 Panel A), and there is rarely switching between the two (Figure 4 Panel C), the competitive effect from pollinators is likely due to low pollinator service to *C. cylindrica* when surrounded by *C. speciosa* (Table 1).

### 562 Plant-pollinator networks are predictive of plant average pollen limitation

563 In our study, network information corresponded to patterns in plant species' average pollen 564 limitation. Whereas additional compatible pollen did not increase seed set in focal C. speciosa, it 565 did increase the average seed set in the three other species: C. xantiana experienced a small 566 boost in seed set with additional pollen, C. cylindrica a slightly higher boost, and C. unguiculata 567 saw the greatest effect of additional pollen on seed set. Thus, high pollinator preference and low 568 rates of pollinator sharing translated to high rates of compatible pollen transfer for C. speciosa. 569 In contrast, higher rates of pollinator sharing likely resulted in interspecific pollen transfer in the 570 three other *Clarkia* species resulting in pollen limitation, and the magnitude of pollen limitation 571 corresponded to pollinator preference. The promising implication of this result is that 572 comparatively easy-to-collect information from plant-pollinator interaction networks maps closely 573 to average pollen limitation in plant populations, which is more difficult to measure. Testing this

- 574 idea in high diversity plant-pollinator systems would help illuminate the potential relationship
- 575 between plant population level pollen limitation and plant-pollinator networks.
- 576

# 577 Conclusion

- 578 In this work, we have endeavored to understand how density dependence during growth and
- 579 flowering, separately and in combination, determine plant seed production. We found that the
- 580 effects of species interactions in the flowering phase of life were explained by pollinator foraging
- 581 behaviors, but that these effects on total fecundity were overridden by interactions in the growth
- 582 phase. In total, this study shows how natural history work describing the complexity of biological
- 583 interactions can be linked to performance variables relevant to population and community
- 584 dynamics in ways that are revealing of community function. It may also help frame future
- 585 theoretical studies of stage-dependent multispecies interactions, as the larger task of identifying
- 586 the population and community-level ramifications of such interactions remains.

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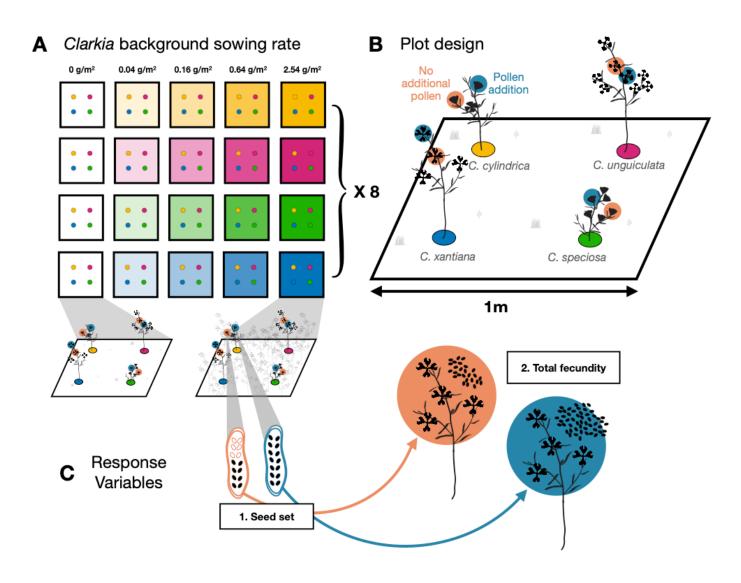
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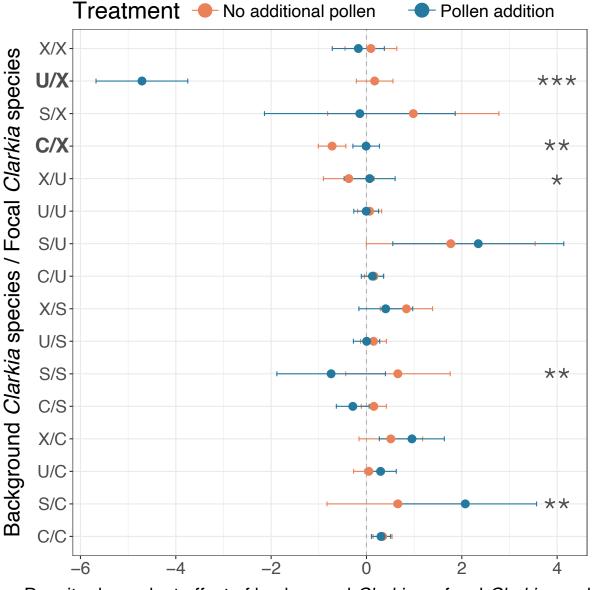
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735 Figure 1. Schematic of the pairwise interaction plot experiment. A. In experimental 1m x 1m 736 plots, seeds of one Clarkia species (yellow: C. cylindrica, green: C. speciosa, pink: C. 737 unquiculata, blue: C. xantiana) were sown in the background at a range of seeding rates from 738 0g/m2 to 2.54g/m2; 20 seeds of a focal Clarkia species were sown in one of the four cabone 739 rings secured in the four corners of the plot. Following germination, focal seedlings in the 740 cabone rings were thinned to a single individual. The schematic shows the range of 741 background treatments but does not depict the actual arrangement of plots in the field. Four 742 plots with a given background species and varying background seeding densities were grouped 743 into blocks. There were 8 replicate plots of each background species x background seeding 744 density. B. Depiction of pollination treatments on focal plants. In each plot, two pollination 745 treatments were applied to all focal plants that had 2 or more flowers. One flower was assigned 746 as the control and received no additional pollen while the second flower received additional 747 pollen from hand pollination. Pollen was collected from the appropriate *Clarkia* species from 748 plants growing at the site but outside of experimental plots. C. Two response variables were 749 measured on each focal plants 1) seed set equal to the ratio of filled seed to total ovules 750 (unfertilized ovules, aborted ovules and filled seed) in fruits from control and pollen-addition 751 flowers; 2) total fecundity equal to the product of fruit number, average total ovule number per 752 fruit, and average seeds per fruit in the two different pollination treatments.



Density-dependent effect of background Clarkia on focal Clarkia seed set

754

756 Figure 2. The effect of increasing density of background *Clarkia* on the probability of an oyule becoming a successful seed in focal Clarkia. The effect (slope) varies according to species pairs 757 758 and interactions over pollination. Each row is a different background/focal species combination. 759 Points indicate the estimated effect of increasing background species' density on the probability 760 of seed set for the focal species, and lines are standard errors. Negative values indicate the 761 probability of seed set declines with increasing background density (a competitive effect of 762 background Clarkia), whereas positive values mean that the probability of seed set increases 763 with background density (there is a facilitative effect of background *Clarkia*). Letters stand for 764 the first letter of the species name: C- Clarkia cylindrica; S- C. speciosa; U-C. unguiculata; and 765 X- C. xantiana. Blue points are the treatment where the effect of pollinators is removed (pollen 766 addition). Orange points are the treatment where the effect of pollinators is retained (no 767 additional pollen). Bolded combinations are those that include an interaction between 768 background density and pollination treatment that is significantly different from zero; stars indicate a significant effect of pollination treatment on the interaction (\*, p<0.05; \*\*, p<0.01; \*\*\*, 769 770 p<0.001).

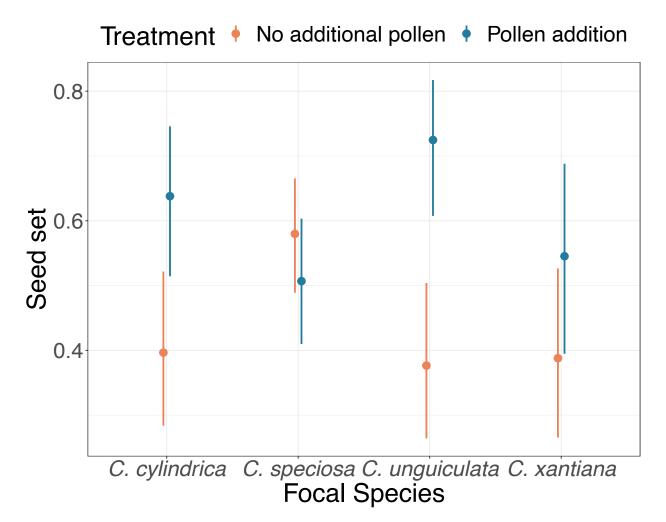




Figure 3. Species-specific probability of seed success in fruits for both pollination treatments.

773 Points represent the marginal estimated average across all background species treatments at

the mean background *Clarkia* density. Bars represent the 95% confidence interval for each

775 estimate.

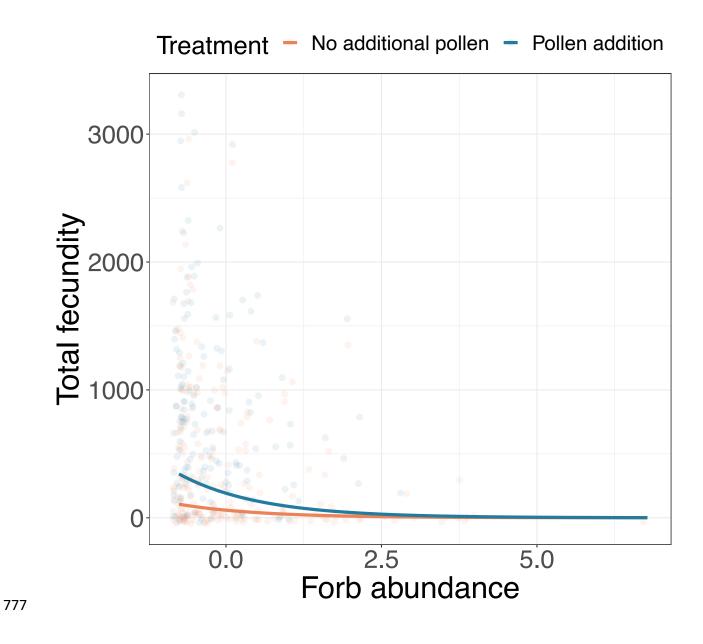
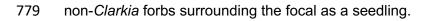
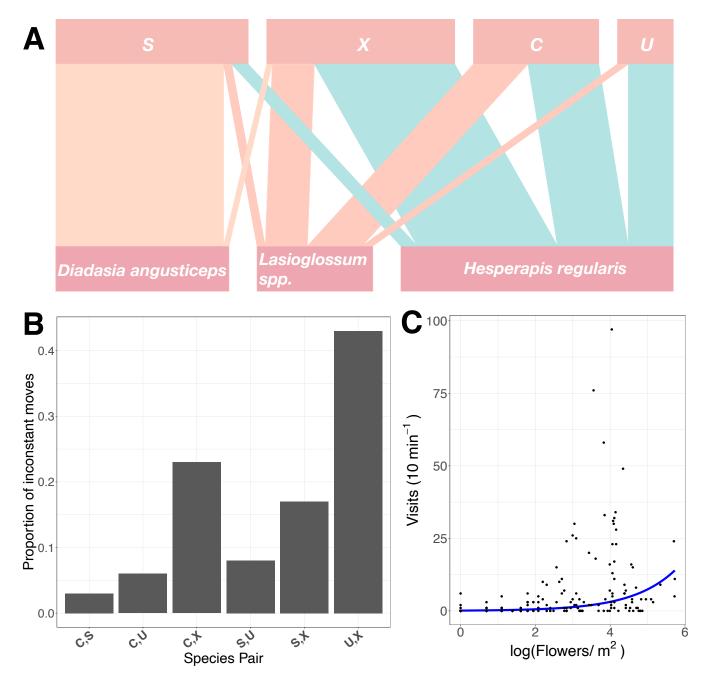


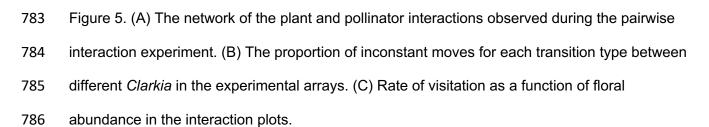
Figure 4. Predicted full-plant seed set as a function of pollination treatment and the number of



780







787 Table 1. The effect of pollinators on seed set in the density dependent interactions between

788 *Clarkia* species (Figure 1), and the suggested explanation of the change in terms of observed

- pollinator behaviors (Figure 3). Only statistically significant pairwise interactions are shown in
- this table.

Background	Focal	Change in density dependent effect of background on focal ± SE	Interpretation	Behavioral Explanation	p- value
Clarkia unguiculata (U)	Clarkia xantiana (X)	4.88 ± 0.93	Pollinators alleviate the competitive effect of U on X	Joint attraction to higher densities, but pollinator preference for <i>C</i> . <i>xantiana</i>	< 0.001 (***)
Clarkia cylindrica (C)	Clarkia xantiana (X)	-0.72 ± 0.21	Pollinators exacerbate the competitive effect of C on X	Incompatible pollen transfer	0.001 <sup>-</sup> (**)
Clarkia xantiana (X)	Clarkia unguiculata (U)	-0.44 ± 0.21	Pollinators exacerbate the competitive effect of X on U	Pollinator preference for <i>C</i> . <i>xantiana</i> and incompatible pollen transfer	0.039 (*)

Clarkia speciosa (S)	Clarkia speciosa (S)	1.40 ± 1.48	Pollinators alleviate the competitive effect of S on S	Pollinator attraction to higher densities	0.0091 (**)
Clarkia speciosa (S)	Clarkia cylindrica (C)	-1.41 ± 0.53	Pollinators reduce the facilitative effect of S on C	Low pollinator overlap and therefore low pollinator service to C	0.0073 (**)