1

Testing for pollinator recognition in multiple species of *Heliconia*

Dustin G. Gannon[1*], Adam S. Hadley[2,3], Urs G. Kormann[2,4], F. Andrew Jones[1,5], Matthew G.

Betts[2,6]

[1] Department of Botany and Plant Pathology, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon, USA

[2] Forest Biodiversity Research Network, Corvallis, Oregon, USA

[3] Department of Natural Resources and Energy Development, Government of New Brunswick,

Frederiction, Canada

[4] Ecological Research Group, Swiss Ornithological Institute, Sempach, Switzerland

[5] Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, Apartado Postál 0843-03092, Panamá, Panamá

[6] Department of Forest Ecosystems and Society, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon,

USA

20 *Corresponding author: gannondu@oregonstate.edu

Abstract

Plant-pollinator generalization increases the robustness of plant-pollinator communities to fluctuations in the availability of mutualistic partners. However, natural selection may reinforce floral traits that filter pollinator communities to promote pollination by efficient pollinators, which reduces the number of potential partners. We tested the generality of a recently described, cryptic pollinator filter termed 'pollinator recognition' (PR) which could reduce the realized number of pollinators compared to the number of floral visitors. PR was first documented experimentally in *Heliconia tortuosa* whereby pollen tube germination – a proxy for reproduction – was enhanced following visits from morphologically specialized pollinators, but not generalists. We tested for PR in four taxa spread widely across the Heliconiaceae.

With aviary experiments that standardized pollen quality and minimized variation in pollen quantity, we demonstrated that visits by pollen-free hummingbirds increased pollen tube rates compared to hand pollination alone in two species; we also corroborated previous results that visits by long-billed, but not short-billed hummingbirds increased pollen tubes in *H. tortuosa*. Based on these results, we suggest that the PR mechanism likely exists beyond a single species in the Heliconiaceae and could promote outcrossing in two ways. First, promoting pollen tube growth following a cue from a visiting pollinator could allow a plant to invest in seed production when pollen on the stigma is less likely to be composed entirely of self pollen. Second, because hummingbirds with long, decurved bills tend to be less territorial and more mobile than those with short, straight bills, pollinator recognition could act in conjunction with physical exploitation barriers, such as long and curved corolla tubes, to filter the community of floral visitors in favor of those that are more likely to carry pollen from geographically and therefore genetically distance sources. While the mechanism underlying PR remains equivocal,

49 cryptic pollinator filters may be more common than previously anticipated and could alter

50 perspectives on redundancy in plant-pollinator communities.

Introduction

Generalized pollination systems in which plants are pollinated by many floral visitors,

each of which may visit many plants, are expected to result in communities that are more robust

to fluctuations in the abundance of mutualistic partners [1–6]. This stability is derived through

redundant interactions and may be important to the maintenance of biodiversity in plant-

pollinator communities during an era of global climate change and anthropogenic disturbances

[4,7,8]. However, natural selection may favor floral traits that filter the community of floral

visitors to promote pollination by efficient mutualistic partners [9–12].

Pollinator filters, in general, manipulate animal visitation patterns. For example, nectar

that is distasteful to some pollinators will deter them from visiting [13] and exploitation barriers,

such as long corolla tubes that limit access to floral rewards [14,15], may make visitation

unprofitable for some animals [16,17]. These filters reduce the generality of visitation patterns so

their effects should be evident in observations of species interactions (generally pollinator visits

to flowers); however, previous work with *Heliconia tortuosa* (Heliconiaceae) documented a

cryptic pollinator filter that promotes pollen germination and pollen tube growth based on the

identity, behavior, and bill morphology of hummingbird floral visitors [18].

In single-visit aviary experiments that controlled for variation in pollen deposition and

visitation rates by different pollinator species [18], the number of pollen tubes that germinated in

a style (henceforth 'pollen tube rate') was nearly six times greater in flowers visited by

hummingbirds with bill shapes that are morphologically matched to the flowers (i.e., long,

decurved bills) than in flowers visited by hummingbirds with mismatched bill shapes.

Furthermore, in a separate experiment, manual nectar removal showed higher pollen tube rates

than hand pollination alone. Betts et al. coined this behavior 'pollinator recognition' and posited

that nectar removal and pollen deposition by long-billed hummingbirds provides a cue for pollen

grain germination and pollen tube growth, thus reducing pollination efficiency by

morphologically mismatched hummingbirds that visit and transfer pollen but cannot access the

full volume of nectar at the base of the flower [18].

Betts et al. (18) speculated that pollinator recognition may be adaptive if it allows plants

to invest in reproduction following a visit from a pollinator that is more likely to carry high-

quality pollen and limit reproduction with the pollen deposited by a pollinator more likely to

carry pollen of low quality. Despite receiving visits from at least six hummingbird species, *H.*

tortuosa specializes on long-billed hummingbirds that are highly mobile [18,19] compared to the

short-billed hummingbirds which tend to defend territories and therefore move less. The mobile

foraging behaviors of these birds may make them more likely to carry high-quality pollen from

geographically and genetically distant sources [20]. Indeed, recent work supports that pollination

by large-bodied, traplining hummingbirds with long, decurved bills promotes outcrossing among

H. tortuosa individuals [21].

We postulated that pollinator recognition may occur in other plant taxa, particularly in

relatively stable tropical systems with high pollinator diversity. Determining whether this is the

case is important for two reasons. First, pollinator recognition could be one means through which

tight morphological matching evolves despite apparently generalized interaction networks.

Second, if the number of realized pollinator species is much smaller than the number of observed

floral visitors, pollination networks could be more vulnerable to loss of specialist pollinators

under anthropogenic change [4,5]. We tested for pollinator recognition in four species distributed

widely across the Heliconiaceae phylogeny.

Materials and Methods

Study species

Heliconiaceae is a monogeneric family consisting of an estimated 200-250 species which

radiated rapidly c.a. 39-24 million years ago [22]. *Heliconia* species are rhizomatous perennial

herbs distributed widely throughout the Neotropics and on some South Pacific islands. Flowers

are situated within showy bracts and composed of six tepals, five of which are fused to create a

cylindrical perianth, the sixth peels back upon anthesis. A defining feature of the Heliconiaceae

is a staminode (modified stamen) that partially covers the opening to the nectar chamber at the

base of the perianth, which may need to be moved by a visiting animal when they extract the

nectar reward (though the mechanics of this have not be studied in detail). Flowers of the

Heliconiaceae last a single day from anthesis to dehiscence.

We targeted species that were common in the living collection at the Organization of

Tropical Studies Las Cruces Biological Station, Puntarenas Province, Coto Brus, Costa Rica, (8°

47′ 7″ N, 82° 57′ 32″ W) and could be found naturally or in ornamental gardens in the area. We

required that plants were setting seed when left unmanipulated, indicating that a viable pollen

source existed in the area, since previous work on mating systems in *Heliconia* suggests that the

hermaphroditic flowers of many species are self-incompatible to partially self-compatible, but

largely not selfing [18,21,23–26]. Furthermore, we required that wild, native hummingbirds

could be seen visiting the flowers of each target species in camera trap data [27] or during

observation, indicating that wild-caught hummingbirds would visit and drink from the flowers

inside aviaries despite the fact that many plant species in the collection are not native to Costa

Rica. The plant species that met these criteria included *H. hirsuta*, which is native to South

America and Trinidad [28], *H. rostrata*, native to western South America [28] but a common

ornamental throughout the tropics, and *H. wagneriana*, native to Costa Rica and Panama [29].

Furthermore, because so little is known of this unusual plant behavior, we also sought to

replicate the results of the original study in the native *H. tortuosa,* an exercise rarely undertaken

in experimental ecology [30].

We selected two hummingbird species with different bill morphologies and foraging

behaviors as "treatments" in order to accentuate differences in morphological matching to and

nectar depletion from the range of flower shapes exemplified by the four *Heliconia* species (Fig

1). Green hermit hummingbirds (*Phaethornis guy*) are common traplining hummingbirds in the

region with long ($\bar{x}$ = 41.90 mm, s_x = 1.52 mm), moderately decurved bills ($\bar{k} = 0.022$ mm^{-1},

$s_k = 0.004$ mm^{-1}, $n = 27$ birds of mixed sex, where k_i is the curvature of the ith bill measured as

the inverse of the radius of the arc of the bill – see Temeles et al. [15]). Rufous-tailed

hummingbirds (*Amazilia tzacatl*) are common territorial hummingbirds with short ($\bar{x} = 21.60$

mm, $s_x = 1.55$ mm, $n = 14$ birds of mixed sex), slightly decurved bills ($\bar{k} = 0.016$ mm^{-1}, $s_k =$

0.002 mm^{-1}; Fig 1).

Fig 1. Morphological mismatch between the hummingbird and *Heliconia* species used in

experiments. The average mismatch ($\hat{\Delta}$) between a plant and hummingbird species was measured

as the Euclidean distance between a flower and a bird's bill in the $\mathbb{R}^2$ trait space, where one axis

was the total length of a bill or flower (mm) and the other was the radius of the arc along the

outside edge of the flower or bill (mm). We then computed the mean ($\hat{\Delta}$) and standard deviation

(*s*) of the distances between each bill-flower pair, where *n* is the number of pairwise

comparisons.

Assuming that morphologically matched floral visitors increase the numbers of

successful pollen tubes for all *Heliconia* species, we predicted the following: 1) For *H.*

wagneriana and *H. tortuosa*, we would predict greater numbers of pollen tubes in flowers visited

by green hermit hummingbirds compared to rufous-tailed hummingbirds due to long and curved

flowers (Fig 1). 2) Because both *H. hirsuta* and *H. rostrata* have shorter, straighter flowers and

both hummingbird bill shapes approximate the shape of the flowers well (Fig 1), we would not

predict a large difference in the number of pollen tubes between flowers visited by green hermits

and those visited by rufous-tailed hummingbirds. We therefore used hand pollinations as a

control treatment in all experiments since hand pollinations do not replicate the physical

characteristics of a visit by a morphologically matched pollinator aside from pollen deposition.

Hence, we would predict the fewest pollen tubes in flowers pollinated by hand for all plant

species. Furthermore, this helped us control for potentially low genetic diversity in the pollen

pool since the control flowers (hand pollination only) and the treatment flowers (hand pollination

followed by a visit from a pollen-free hummingbird) both received pollen by hand from the same

donor.

Aviary experiments

To test whether pollen germination and tube growth is dependent on interactions with

morphologically matched floral visitors, we conducted 110 single-visit experiments ($n = 214$

flowers from 54 plants; see Table 1 for the number of replicates per treatment) with captive

hummingbirds inside portable aviaries. The aviaries measured 2 meters tall and one meter on a

side and could be quickly assembled around live plants (S1 File). In these experiments, we used

only virgin flowers that had been covered with mesh bags prior to anthesis in order to preclude

pollination by free-ranging pollinators. Flowers were not emasculated, however, due to

extremely low numbers of pollen tubes in emasculated flowers in natural settings (A. S. Hadley,

unpublished data).

Table 1: Sample sizes for individual plants (grouping factor) and flowers (experimental units)

for each species $\times$ treatment combination.

	Hand pollination (HP)[*]	Hand pollination + short-billed bird (SB)	Hand pollination + long-billed bird (LB)	Hand pollination (HP)[**]	Hand pollination + pipette	Hand pollination + nectar extraction	Nectar extraction + hand pollination
H. hirsuta							
Plants	7	4	5	0	0	0	0
Flowers	11	5	7	0	0	0	0
H. rostrata							
Plants	19	13	10	13	7	15	5
Flowers	39	25	19	24	8	38	11
H. tortuosa							
Plants	10	8	6	10	7	10	4
Flowers	16	10	11	27	7	36	5
H. wagneriana							
Plants	12	6	11	11	7	8	4
Flowers	31	17	23	17	7	12	10

174
[*]Hand pollination controls for aviary experiments
[**]Hand pollination controls for nectar removal experiments

We selected inflorescences based on the availability of two virgin flowers and erected the

aviary around the whole plant. We then randomly assigned one of the flowers as a control flower

that received hand-pollination but no visit from a bird (HP treatment). The remaining flower was

hand-pollinated with pollen from the same donor flower, then allowed a visit by either a pollen-

free short-billed hummingbird (SB treatment; n = 14 *A. tzacatl* individuals used in experiments)

or a pollen free long-billed hummingbird (LB treatment; n = 12 *P. guy* individuals used in

experiments). To ensure the birds were free of pollen before the visit to the focal flower, we

cleaned them using a soft paint brush and damp cotton swab under 20x magnification prior to

releasing them into the aviary. Thus, flowers were the experimental units and individual plants

were treated as a blocking effect to account for potential dependence among measurements on

flowers from the same plant. Where possible, plants received all treatments (often on separate

days).

By hand-pollinating all flowers using pollen from an arbitrarily selected pollen donor, we

were able to control for differences in the quality of pollen delivered by the different pollinator

species. Indeed, we could not perfectly standardize the quantity of pollen grains at the stigmatic

surface because the size of *Heliconia* pollen grains makes it impractical to quantify the number

of grains in the field; however, we attempted to reduce variation in the quantity of pollen

available to the flowers by having the same experimenter apply pollen in an even layer across the

stigmatic surface with a toothpick under 20x magnification for every flower.

After the hummingbird visited the treatment flower (evidenced by bill insertion and a

clear attempt to feed from the flower), we terminated the experiment and checked the stigma

again to ensure that pollen was still present and in an even layer on the stigmatic surface before

again covering the flowers with mesh bags. All flowers were collected the following day, the

styles removed and preserved in formalin acetyl-acid, and scored for pollen tubes using epi-

florescence microscopy [18,23] (see S1 File for more information). All aviary experiments were

conducted during the 2018 and 2019 dry seasons (Feb-Mar).

Tests for a mechanism

We conducted additional experiments to test hypotheses of the mechanism of pollinator

recognition. Betts et al. [18] found increased pollen tube rates in flowers from which nectar was

removed compared to hand pollination alone. As an independent test of whether nectar removal

provides a cue to which plants respond, we manually extracted nectar from flowers of three of

the four species (*H. hirsuta* did not produce flowers regularly enough to conduct the full suite of

experiments) and compared pollen tube rates to control flowers that were hand-pollinated on the

same day. Alternatively, it is possible that the long-billed hummingbirds trigger a mechanical

cue [31] when they insert their bills into the flower. To test whether we could induce an increase

in pollen tube success rates using a mechanical stimulus, we molded a pipette tip to match the

curvature of the focal flower. We then inserted the pipette tip as a hummingbird would insert its

bill but did not remove any nectar. Finally, because we were unable to perfectly replicate the

timing of events in a natural pollinator visit in which nectar removal and pollen deposition

happen concurrently, we conducted some experiments in which we hand pollinated before

manually removing nectar and some in which we hand pollinated after removing nectar.

Differences in these pollen tube rates may indicate the importance of the timing of pollen

transfer and nectar removal or bill insertion (see S1 File for more detail).

Statistical methods

We separately analyzed pollen tube count data from each set of experiments (i.e., aviary

experiments as one dataset and nectar removal experiments as a second dataset). We fit

hierarchical Poisson models of pollen tube counts using a Bayesian regression approach

implemented in the R package 'rstan' [32,33]. We included effects for each plant of each species

(i.e., random blocking effects) to account for potentially correlated observations that could arise

from scoring pollen tubes in multiple flowers from the same plant (since individual plants

received more than one treatment). A Bayesian approach allowed us flexibility in defining the

variance structure such that plant-level effects are considered exchangeable draws from

distributions with a variance unique to each plant species. We assumed plant effects are

distributed normally (on the log scale) with mean of zero and unknown, species-specific

variance, and used weakly informative Gaussian priors for all regression coefficients (see S1 File

for full model specification and prior justification). Furthermore, we defined our priors for

regression coefficients to concentrate mass around zero such that evidence of an effect needs to

be strong to shift the posterior distribution away from zero; our effect sizes are therefore

conservative.

We assessed HMC chain convergence using the $\hat{R}$ statistic, checking that the value was

below 1.1 for all parameters being estimated [34] and used posterior predictive checks for a

range of summary statistics to evaluate model fits. Below, we report posterior mean pollen tube

counts per style for a given treatment and plant species as $\hat{\lambda}$ with a subscript indicating the

treatment and plant species. We use *HP*, *SB*, *LB*, *HPNE*, *NEHP,* and *BM* to indicate the

treatment. Treatment codes are as follows: *HP* identifies the hand-pollinated control flowers; *SB*

indicates the treatment in which we hand pollinated flowers, then allowed a clean, rufous-tailed

hummingbird (short, straight bill) to visit; *LB* indicates the treatment in which we hand

pollinated flowers, then allowed a pollen-free green hermit hummingbird (long bill) to visit;

HPNE identifies the treatment in which we hand pollinated the flowers then manually removed

the nectar; *NEHP* identifies the treatment in which we hand pollinated the flowers after removing

nectar; and *BM* identifies the treatment in which we inserted a pipette tip but did not attempt to

remove nectar. We use the letters *h*, *r*, *t*, and *w* to identify *H. hirstuta*, *H. rostrata*, *H. tortuosa*,

and *H. wagneriana* in the subscripts (respectively). We additionally report differences between

treatments as the fold change in pollen tube rates and use the notation $\hat{\lambda}_{i,j}/\hat{\lambda}_{k,j}$ for the fold change

between treatments *i* and *k* for plant species *j*. Ninety-five percent credible intervals for posterior

estimates are presented in square brackets.

Results

When we compared pollen tube counts in hand-pollinated control flowers (HP) and those

that were visited by a pollen-free, morphologically matched hummingbird, we found evidence

that a visit by a matched hummingbird increases pollen tube rates for *H. tortuosa* over hand

pollination alone (Fig 2). Pollen tube rates were 4.98 times greater [1.59, 12.59] following visits

from long-billed hummingbirds compared to the control treatments with only hand pollination.

However, short-billed hummingbird visits did not boost pollen tube rates for *H. tortuosa* above

the hand-pollinated controls ($\hat{\lambda}_{HP,t}$= 0.23 tubes per style [0.05, 0.56]; $\hat{\lambda}_{SB,t}$ = 0.28 tubes per style

[0.048, 0.76]; Fig 2). Thus, the pollen tube rate in flowers visited by morphologically matched

hummingbirds was greater (4.51 times greater [1.07, 13.88]) than the pollen tube rate in flowers

visited by morphologically mismatched hummingbirds (Fig 1).

Fig 2. Pollen tube rates in flowers that received hand pollination only (HP) and those visited by a pollen-free hummingbird following hand pollination. Flowers were visited by either short-billed (SB), rufous-tailed hummingbirds (*Amazilia tzacatl*) or long-billed (LB) green hermit hummingbirds (*Phaethornis guy*). Thick, interior error bars show 80% posterior credible intervals and thin error bars show 95% credible intervals. The grey, horizontal dashed lines show estimates ($\pm SE$) of the pollen tube rates in flowers left open to free ranging pollinators. Note that the range on the y-axis differs for *H. rostrata*.

In *H. rostrata* flowers, pollen tube rates in those visited by hummingbirds were greater than hand pollination alone regardless of the bird species used in experiments. The estimated rates were nearly identical in flowers visited by long-billed hummingbirds and those visited by short-billed hummingbirds, but were nearly double the rate in hand pollinated controls ($\hat{\lambda}_{HP,r} = 0.39$ tubes per style [0.23, 0.62]; $\hat{\lambda}_{SB,r} = 0.70$ tubes per style [0.39, 1.11]; $\hat{\lambda}_{LB,r} = 0.72$ tubes per style [0.38, 1.22]; Fig 2).

For *H. hirsuta* and *H. wagneriana,* single visits from cleaned hummingbirds did not enhance pollen tube success rates above hand pollination alone (Fig 2), and pollen tube rates in *H. wagneriana* flowers that were visited by clean birds were actually reduced. The number of pollen tubes per style in *H. wagneriana* flowers visited by green hermits were a little more than half those of hand pollinations ($\hat{\lambda}_{LB,w}/\hat{\lambda}_{HP,w} = 0.64$ [0.36, 1.07]) and short-billed hummingbird visits yielded pollen tube rates less than half of hand pollination treatments ($\hat{\lambda}_{SB,w}/\hat{\lambda}_{HP,w} = 0.43$ [0.18, 0.82]; Fig 2).

When we experimentally removed nectar using pipette tips to test the hypothesis that differential nectar removal may be the mechanism for pollinator recognition, the effect of nectar

removal on pollen tube rates for *H. rostrata* and *H. tortuosa* was negligible (Fig 3). We did find

some evidence that our nectar removal treatments had a positive effect on pollen tube

germination relative to hand-pollinations alone for *H. wagneriana* ($\hat{\lambda}_{HP,w} = 0.42$ [0.09, 1.04];

$\hat{\lambda}_{HPNE,w} = 0.89$ [0.26, 2.07]; Fig 3), but this effect is driven in part by a small number of

influential observations (>5 pollen tubes found in 2 styles), and disappears after removing them,

so we caution readers in their interpretation of this result.

Fig 3. Results from experimental tests of the effect of nectar depletion on pollen tube rates. We

used hand-pollination (HP) as a control treatment and compared pollen tube rates in flowers that

received the control treatment to those in flowers that received out-cross pollen by hand either

before (HP + nectar extraction) or after (Nectar extraction + HP) manual removal of the nectar in

the flower. As a test of whether pollen germination success could be boosted after the

mechanical stimulus of a hummingbird inserting its bill to drink from the flower, we tested for an

effect of pipette insertion without removing any nectar (HP + pipette). Interior, thick error bars

show 80% posterior credible intervals and narrow bars show 95% credible intervals.

Inserting a hummingbird bill mimic (i.e., pipette tip) into flowers as a mechanical signal

without removing nectar also did not induce substantially higher pollen tube rates in any of the

tested species (Fig 3), and, in all cases, hand pollinating flowers after removing nectar resulted in

the fewest pollen tubes per style out of all treatments, generally about half of hand pollination

alone ($\hat{\lambda}_{NEHP,r}/\hat{\lambda}_{HP,r} = 0.44$ [0.09, 1.24]; $\hat{\lambda}_{NEHP,t}/\hat{\lambda}_{HP,t} = 0.64$ [0.05, 2.33]; $\hat{\lambda}_{NEHP,w}/\hat{\lambda}_{HP,w} = 0.44$

[0.10, 1.15]).

Discussion

We tested for generality of pollinator recognition in *Heliconia,* which may act in

conjunction with physical exploitation barriers, such as long and/or curved corolla tubes, to filter

the pollinator community. If the capacity for plants to actively filter floral visitors based on

morphological trait matching is widespread, this would have implications for the robustness of

plant-pollinator communities. Given local extinction or reduced densities of morphologically

matched pollinators, mismatched pollinators may alter their foraging behaviors to exploit newly

available resources [35–38]; however, visits from mismatched pollinators would not compensate

for the pollination services lost to a plant with a pollinator recognition mechanism, even if they

deposit pollen at the stigma. This could increase the likelihood of coextinctions.

We provide evidence that the pollinator recognition behavior could occur beyond a single

species. Experiments that allowed us to standardize pollen quality and minimize variation in the

quantity of pollen at the stigmatic surface showed that pollen tube rates in flowers pollinated by

hand were elevated if also visited by pollen-free hummingbirds with morphologically matched

bills compared to hand-pollination alone in two of four species tested. Furthermore, flowers that

were visited by birds with mismatched bill shapes did not enhance pollen tube rates compared to

hand pollination alone in *H. tortuosa* flowers. These results substantiate the findings of Betts et

al. [18] for *H tortuosa,* and provide new evidence supporting that visits by morphologically

matched pollinators may enhance pollen tube success in *H. rostrata*. While the pollen tube rates

did not differ among the *H. rostrata* flowers that were visited by green hermit hummingbirds and

those visited by rufous-tailed hummingbirds, the relatively low pollen tube counts in the flowers

that received hand pollination alone indicate that a poorly matched floral visitor may not enhance

pollen tube rates. We discuss this further below.

The mechanism of pollinator recognition

Previous work demonstrated increased pollen tube rates with manual nectar extraction

treatments compared to hand-pollinations alone in *H. tortuosa* [18]. Betts et al. [18] hypothesized

that, because birds with well-matched bill morphologies can drain the nectar chamber but those

with mismatched bills often cannot [17,18], nectar removal could provide a cue to which plants

respond to promote successful pollen tube growth. Our results do not corroborate these findings

as we did not find a substantial increase in pollen tube rates for *H. tortuosa* or *H. rostrata*

following manual nectar removal treatments. While we found increased pollen tube rates in *H.*

wagneriana flowers following manual nectar removal (Fig 3), this result is tenuous because the

pollen tube counts in the flowers from which we removed nectar are similar to the pollen tube

counts in our hand pollinated flowers from the aviary experiments (Figs 2 and 3).

An alternative explanation for the increase in pollen tube rates following bird visits (*H.*

tortuosa and *H. rostrata*; Fig 2) is that pollen supplied by hand was subsequently removed or

rearranged by pollen-free hummingbirds. This could reduce pollen competition at the stigmatic

surface, potentially promoting pollen tube germination [39]. However, there are two primary

reasons we find this explanation unlikely. First, both long-billed and short-billed hummingbirds

contact the stigmas of *H. tortuosa*, but only the long-billed hummingbird visits resulted in

increased pollen tube counts. Second, neither the pollen tube rates in flowers that received the

bill mimic treatment nor the flowers for which pollen was applied before nectar removal

(potential for pollen rearrangement) differed strongly from those in the hand pollinated control

flowers, which have no potential for pollen rearrangement (Fig 3). We therefore do not believe

that a parsimonious explanation is one in which morphologically matched hummingbirds arrange

pollen at the stigmatic surface in precisely the right way to stimulate germination. We note,

however, that if true, this could still provide a cryptic pollinator recognition mechanism. In

summary, the evidence that nectar removal provides the cue for pollinator recognition is

equivocal and further experiments are necessary to verify nectar removal or establish a new

mechanism.

Implications of pollinator recognition

Heliconia tortuosa and *H. rostrata* represent two distant branches of the >200-branch

Heliconiaceae phylogeny [22]. Given the positions of these two taxa on the tree, the mechanism

that allows pollinator recognition in *H. tortuosa* could be basal and potentially prevalent in the

Heliconiaceae and other related families. While, for *H. rostrata*, the mechanism did not appear to

filter either bird species used here, the response to bird visitation compared to hand pollination

alone suggests the potential for a pollinator filter. The realized degree of specialization in

Heliconia-hummingbird pollination systems may therefore be more specialized than what

interaction data (flower visits) show. Data on pollination efficiencies of morphologically

matched and mismatched pollinators could help to support or refute this idea, but little is known

about pollination of these *Heliconia* species within their native geographic ranges. More

generally, mismatched pollinators are often less efficient pollinators [17,40–43], but this is

largely thought to be due to differences in pollen transfer efficiency and not active filtering by

the plant. More data are needed on these and other taxa to understand the implications of

pollinator recognition in natural populations.

In forest fragments around Coto Brus, mismatched hummingbirds account for c.a. 10% of

honest visits (those in which the visitor contacts the reproductive organs of the flower) to *H.*

tortuosa (K. Leimburger, *unpublished data*), and this proportion likely increases in isolated

fragments where morphologically matched hummingbirds are less common [44–46]. Indeed, *H.*

tortuosa plants in fragmented forests show reduced seed sets compared to those in continuous

forest [47], presumably due to a paucity of morphologically matched hummingbirds. Pollinator

recognition is therefore likely to be an additional pollinator filter acting in conjunction with

morphological barriers that often result in only imperfect resource partitioning by floral visitors

[16,48–50].

From an evolutionary standpoint, we agree with Betts et al. [18] that filtering the short-

billed, territorial hummingbirds could promote outcrossing and enhance the genetic diversity of

pollen grains that reach the ovules. The hummingbirds of Coto Brus with bill morphologies that

complement the flowers of *H. tortuosa* carry taxonomically diverse pollen loads, but the ratio of

Heliconia to other pollen tends to be greater than it is on mismatched pollinators [18]. Because

these morphologically matched pollinators forage over a larger range [51] and carry high

Heliconia pollen loads, the pool of conspecific pollen available to a plant on a given visit may be

more genetically diverse than on a visit from a mismatched pollinator. This would be adaptive if

plants suffer from inbreeding depression. Indeed, Torres-Vanegas et al. [21,52] found genetic

signatures in *H. tortuosa* populations that are consistent with this hypothesis; inbreeding was

greatly reduced in large, connected forest patches where morphologically matched, traplining

hummingbirds were more prevalent.

In *H. rostrata* styles, visits from clean hummingbirds to hand-pollinated flowers also

increased pollen tube rates, but regardless of the bird species. The effects in *H. rostrata* were

nearly identical for two species of hummingbirds with notably different morphologies (Fig 1).

However, given the relatively short, straight corolla of *H. rostrata* (Fig 1), both hummingbird

species we used for experiments were able to achieve high morphological matches and might not

be expected to differ in their visitation characteristics, such as nectar consumption. We did not

destructively sample flowers after hummingbird visits to measure the nectar remaining, but both

species of birds can be seen drinking from *H. rostrata* flowers in recorded videos (S1 and S2

videos).

In Peru, seven hummingbird species of various sizes and with various bill shapes have

been observed visiting *H. rostrata*, but nothing is known of their pollination efficiencies [53].

Based on our results showing increased pollen tube rates in bird visited flowers compared to

hand pollination, we posit that *H. rostrata* could filter visits from animals without

complementary morphologies. This idea is supported by data from Janeček et al. [26] who

recorded olive sunbirds (*Cyanomitra olivacea*) and Camaroon sunbirds (*Cyanomitra oritis*)

visiting *H. rostrata* flowers in South Africa where it has been introduced. These authors found

that *H. rostrata* flowers left open to visits from sunbirds had extremely low pollen tube rates, as

did hand-pollinated flowers. While these results are suggestive of a cryptic pollinator filter, it

could also be that promoting pollen tube growth after receiving a cue from a pollinator

(regardless of the pollinator's identity) could reduce rates of self-pollination, similarly promoting

outcrossing. Subsequent floral evolution toward longer and more curved flowers could have

resulted in an active and cryptic pollinator filter for *H. tortuosa*, precluding pollen delivered by

mismatched pollinators.

Conversely, we were not able to detect an effect of hummingbird visits to *H. hirsuta* and

even found reduced pollen tube rates in *H. wagneriana* flowers that were visited by

hummingbirds relative to hand-pollinations alone. While the mechanisms underlying this result

in *H. wagneriana* remain unclear, we identified one way in which this species differs from the

others that could produce this result. Gannon et al. [27] discovered that *H. wagneriana* plants

have a mechanism for keeping the anthers protected within the perianth and then rapidly

extending them as a hummingbird visits. This is thought to protect pollen from desiccation

and/or increase pollen transfer to pollinators during the first visit. Once exposed, however, pollen

grains desiccate relatively quickly, and often fail to adhere to the stigmatic surface. This may

make the pollen grains of *H. wagneriana* especially easy to dislodge. While we checked that

pollen was still present on the stigma after a bird visited, the size of *Heliconia* pollen makes

exact quantification in the field infeasible. Thus, it is possible that reduced pollen loads after the

birds visited resulted in reduced pollen tube counts relative to hand pollination alone.

Using camera traps, Gannon et al. [27] found that c.a. 97% of the visits to open *H.*

wagneriana flowers around Las Cruces were by traplining species with morphologically

matched bill shapes. Similarly, Snow and Snow [54] report only green hermit and rufous-

breasted hermit (*Glaucis hirsutus*) visitors at *H. hirsuta* flowers in Trinidad (part of its native

range), both of which have well-matched bills. While we did not find evidence for pollinator

recognition in these two *Heliconia* species, it is possible that a pollinator recognition mechanism

would not help to filter floral visitors given that morphologically mismatched pollinators may

not account for a considerable proportion of visits.

Conclusions

Our results help to highlight the potential for cryptic plant behaviors that could result in

pollinator filters and therefore cryptic specialization. Detailed and manipulative experiments to

assess realized pollination network structure and vulnerability to disturbance are therefore

warranted [4–7]. A starting point to identify possible cryptic pollinator filters is the comparison

of pollen tube rates (or other proxies/metrics for reproduction) in hand-pollinated flowers versus

open pollination. Reduced pollen tube success in hand pollinated flowers compared to open

pollination would identify the potential for more complex dynamics than the simple placement of

pollen on the stigma. Notably, Pedersen and Kress [24] report a c.a. four-fold increase in pollen

tube rates in *Heliconia paka* flowers that were visited by honeyeaters compared to those

pollinated by hand. These results would be consistent with what we would predict for *H. paka*

given a pollinator recognition mechanism. More generally, Young and Young [39] report that

hand-pollinated flowers had reduced reproductive output compared to open-pollinated flowers

for 17 of 52 plant species from highly divergent lineages. We know of no follow-up experiments

with these or related taxa, but we urge others to conduct similar experiments to those presented

here to examine the potential for cryptic specialization in other pollination systems.

Acknowledgements

We thank C. Dowd, E. Sandi, M. Atencio, C. Tortorelli, and G. Doyle for invaluable

assistance with field experiments, and the staff of the Las Cruces Biological Station for

maintaining an excellent location in which to conduct research. We thank N. Waser, R. Sargent,

J. Lau, and five anonymous reviewers for comments on previous versions of the manuscript. All

experimental methods involving hummingbirds were approved by the Oregon State University

Animal Care and Use Committee (Animal Care and Use Permit 5020).

Data accessibility

474   Data from pollination experiments and all R code necessary to reproduce the results can

475   be found on a public Github repository (https://github.com/Dusty-Gannon/PR-in-Heliconia).

Author contributions

478   MGB, ASH, and DGG designed experiments. DGG analyzed the data and wrote the

479   original version of the manuscript. All authors contributed to data collection and critical review

480   of the manuscript.

Ethical statement

483   All experimental methods involving hummingbirds were approved by the Oregon State

484   University Animal Care and Use Committee (Animal Care and Use Permit 5020) and all

485   international research guidelines and practices were followed.

References

1. Waser NM, Chittka L, Price MV, Williams NM, Ollerton J. Generalization in Pollination
Systems, and Why it Matters. Ecology. 1996;77(4):1043–60.

2. Rezende EL, Lavabre JE, Guimarães PR, Jordano P, Bascompte J. Non-random
coextinctions in phylogenetically structured mutualistic networks. Nature. 2007 Aug
23;448(7156):925–8.

3. Alarcón R, Waser NM, Ollerton J. Year-to-Year Variation in the Topology of a Plant-
Pollinator Interaction Network. Oikos. 2008;117(12):1796–807.

4. Kaiser-Bunbury CN, Muff S, Memmott J, Müller CB, Caflisch A. The robustness of
pollination networks to the loss of species and interactions: a quantitative approach
incorporating pollinator behaviour. Ecology Letters. 2010;13(4):442–52.

5. Thébault E, Fontaine C. Stability of Ecological Communities and the Architecture of
Mutualistic and Trophic Networks. Science. 2010 Aug 13;329(5993):853–6.

6. Rohr RP, Saavedra S, Bascompte J. On the structural stability of mutualistic systems.
Science. 2014 Jul 25;345(6195):1253497.

7. Bascompte J, Jordano P, Olesen JM. Asymmetric Coevolutionary Networks Facilitate
Biodiversity Maintenance. Science. 2006 Apr 21;312(5772):431–3.

8. Kaiser-Bunbury CN, Mougal J, Whittington AE, Valentin T, Gabriel R, Olesen JM, et al.
Ecosystem restoration strengthens pollination network resilience and function. Nature. 2017
Feb 9;542(7640):223–7.

9. Schemske DW, Horvitz CC. Variation among Floral Visitors in Pollination Ability: A
Precondition for Mutualism Specialization. Science. 1984;225(4661):519–21.

10. Shuttleworth A, Johnson SD. The importance of scent and nectar filters in a specialized
wasp-pollination system. Functional Ecology. 2009 Oct 1;23(5):931–40.

11. Muchhala N, Brown Z, Armbruster WS, Potts MD. Competition Drives Specialization in
Pollination Systems through Costs to Male Fitness. The American Naturalist. 2010 Dec
1;176(6):732–43.

12. Armbruster WS. The specialization continuum in pollination systems: diversity of concepts
and implications for ecology, evolution and conservation. Functional Ecology. 2017 Jan
1;31(1):88–100.

13. Stevenson PC, Nicolson SW, Wright GA. Plant secondary metabolites in nectar: impacts on
pollinators and ecological functions. Functional Ecology. 2017;31(1):65–75.

14. Gill FB. Ecological Fitting: Use of Floral Nectar in Heliconia stilesii Daniels by Three
Species of Hermit Hummingbirds. The Condor. 1987;89(4):779–87.

15. Temeles EJ, Koulouris CR, Sander SE, Kress WJ. Effect of flower shape and size on
foraging performance and trade-offs in a tropical hummingbird. Ecology. 2009 May
1;90(5):1147–61.

16. Rodríguez-Gironés MA, Sun S, Santamaría L. Passive partner choice through exploitation
barriers. Evol Ecol. 2015 May 1;29(3):323–40.

17. Temeles EJ, Liang J, Levy MC, Fan Y-L. Floral isolation and pollination in two
hummingbird-pollinated plants: the roles of exploitation barriers and pollinator competition.
Evol Ecol. 2019 Jun 11. doi: 10.1007/s10682-019-09992-1

18. Betts MG, Hadley AS, Kress WJ. Pollinator recognition by a keystone tropical plant. Proc
Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2015 Mar 17;112(11):3433–8.

19. Stiles FG, Wolf LL. Hummingbird Territoriality at a Tropical Flowering Tree. The Auk.
1970;87(3):467–91.

20. Wright S. Isolation by Distance. Genetics. 1943 Mar;28(2):114–38.

21. Torres-Vanegas F, Hadley AS, Kormann UG, Jones FA, Betts MG, Wagner HH. The Landscape Genetic Signature of Pollination by Trapliners: Evidence From the Tropical Herb, Heliconia tortuosa. Front Genet. 2019;10. doi: 10.3389/fgene.2019.01206

22. Iles WJ, Sass C, Lagomarsino L, Benson-Martin G, Driscoll H, Specht CD. The phylogeny of Heliconia (Heliconiaceae) and the evolution of floral presentation. Mol Phylogenet Evol. 2016 Dec; doi: 10.1016/j.ympev.2016.12.001

23. Kress WJ. Self-Incompatibility in Central American Heliconia. Evolution. 1983;37(4):735–44.

24. Pedersen LB, Kress WJ. Honeyeater (Meliphagidae) pollination and the floral biology of PolynesianHeliconia (Heliconiaceae). Pl Syst Evol. 1999 Mar 1;216(1):1–21.

25. Schleuning M, Templin M, Huamán V, Vadillo GP, Becker T, Durka W, et al. Effects of Inbreeding, Outbreeding, and Supplemental Pollen on the Reproduction of a Hummingbird-pollinated Clonal Amazonian Herb. Biotropica. 2011 Mar 1;43(2):183–91.

26. Janeček Š, Chmel K, Gómez GU, Janečková P, Chmelová E, Sejfová Z, et al. Ecological fitting is a sufficient driver of tight interactions between sunbirds and ornithophilous plants. Ecology and Evolution. 2020;10(4):1784–93.

27. Gannon DG, Kormann UG, Hadley AS, Betts MG, Jones FA. The "jack-in-the-box" stamens of Heliconia wagneriana (Heliconiaceae). Ecology. 2018;99(2):488–90.

28. Bernal R, Gradstein S, Celis M. Catálogo de plantas y líquenes de Colombia. Bogotá: nstituto de Ciencias Naturales, Universidad Nacional de Colombia; 2016.

29. Stiles G. Notes on the natural history of Heliconia (Musaceae) in Costa Rica. Brenesia. 1979;15:151–80.

30. Fraser H, Barnett A, Parker TH, Fidler F. The role of replication studies in ecology. Ecology and Evolution. 2020;10(12):5197–207.

31. Braam J. In touch: plant responses to mechanical stimuli. New Phytologist. 2005;165(2):373–89.

32. Carpenter B, Gelman A, Hoffman MD, Lee D, Goodrich B, Betancourt M, et al. Stan: A Probabilistic Programming Language. Journal of Statistical Software. 2017 Jan 11;76(1):1–32.

33. R Core Team. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing [Internet]. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2020. Available from: https://www.R-project.org/

34. Gelman A, Carlin JB, Stern HS, Dunson DB, Vehtari A, Rubin DB, et al. Bayesian Data Analysis. Chapman and Hall/CRC; 2013.

35. Brosi BJ, Briggs HM. Single pollinator species losses reduce floral fidelity and plant
reproductive function. PNAS. 2013 Aug 6;110(32):13044–8.

36. Temeles EJ, Newman JT, Newman JH, Cho SY, Mazzotta AR, Kress WJ. Pollinator
Competition as a Driver of Floral Divergence: An Experimental Test. PLOS ONE. 2016
Jan 27;11(1):e0146431.

37. Bezemer N, Hopper SD, Krauss SL, Phillips RD, Roberts DG. Primary pollinator exclusion
has divergent consequences for pollen dispersal and mating in different populations of a
bird-pollinated tree. Molecular Ecology. 2019. doi: 10.1111/mec.15264

38. Temeles EJ, Bishop GA. A hurricane alters pollinator relationships and natural selection on
an introduced island plant. Biotropica. 2019;51(2):129–38.

39. Young HJ, Young TP. Alternative Outcomes of Natural and Experimental High Pollen
Loads. Ecology. 1992 Apr 1;73(2):639–47.

40. Muchhala N. Exploring the boundary between pollination syndromes: bats and
hummingbirds as pollinators of Burmeistera cyclostigmata and B. tenuiflora
(Campanulaceae). Oecologia. 2003 Feb;134(3):373–80.

41. Muchhala N. Adaptive Trade-Off in Floral Morphology Mediates Specialization for Flowers
Pollinated by Bats and Hummingbirds. The American Naturalist. 2007 Apr 1;169(4):494–
504.

42. Solís-Montero L, Vallejo-Marín M. Does the morphological fit between flowers and
pollinators affect pollen deposition? An experimental test in a buzz-pollinated species with
anther dimorphism. Ecology and Evolution. 2017;7(8):2706–15.

43. Peralta G, Vázquez DP, Chacoff NP, Lomáscolo SB, Perry GLW, Tylianakis JM. Trait
matching and phenological overlap increase the spatio-temporal stability and functionality
of plant–pollinator interactions. Ecology Letters. 2020;23(7):1107–16.

44. Kormann U, Scherber C, Tscharntke T, Klein N, Larbig M, Valente JJ, et al. Corridors
restore animal-mediated pollination in fragmented tropical forest landscapes. Proc R Soc B.
2016 Jan 27;283(1823):20152347.

45. Hadley AS, Frey SJK, Robinson WD, Betts MG. Forest fragmentation and loss reduce
richness, availability, and specialization in tropical hummingbird communities. Biotropica.
2018;50(1):74–83.

46. Morrison BML, Mendenhall CD. Hummingbird–Plant Interactions Are More Specialized in
Forest Compared to Coffee Plantations. Diversity. 2020 Apr;12(4):126.

47. Hadley AS, Frey SJ, Robinson WD, Kress WJ, Betts MG. Tropical forest fragmentation
limits pollination of a keystone understory herb. Ecology. 2014 2014;95(8):2202–12.

48. Feinsinger P. Organization of a Tropical Guild of Nectarivorous Birds. Ecological
Monographs. 1976;46(3):257–91.

49. Vlašánková A, Padyšáková E, Bartoš M, Mengual X, Janečková P, Janeček Š. The nectar
spur is not only a simple specialization for long-proboscid pollinators. New Phytol. 2017
Sep 1;215(4):1574–81.

50. Metelmann S, Sakai S, Kondoh M, Telschow A. Evolutionary stability of plant–pollinator
networks: efficient communities and a pollination dilemma. Ecology Letters.
2020;23(12):1747–55.

51. Stiles FG. Ecology, Flowering Phenology, and Hummingbird Pollination of Some Costa
Rican Heliconia Species. Ecology. 1975;56(2):285–301.

52. Torres-Vanegas F, Hadley AS, Kormann UG, Jones FA, Betts MG, Wagner HH. Tropical
deforestation reduces plant mating quality by shifting the functional composition of
pollinator communities. Journal of Ecology. 2020. doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-
2745.13594

53. Dalsgaard B, Maruyama PK, Sonne J, Hansen K, Zanata TB, Abrahamczyk S, et al. The
influence of biogeographical and evolutionary histories on morphological trait-matching
and resource specialization in mutualistic hummingbird-plant networks. Functional
Ecology. 2021. doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.13784

54. Snow BK, Snow DW. Feeding Niches of Hummingbirds in a Trinidad Valley. Journal of
Animal Ecology. 1972;41(2):471–85.

Supporting information

625   **S1 video.** Green hermit hummingbird (*Phaethornis guy*) visiting and drinking nectar from a

626   *Heliconia rostrata* flower.

627   **S2 video.** Rufous-tailed hummingbird (*Amazilia tzacatl*) visiting and drinking nectar from a

628   *Heliconia rostrata* flower.

629   **S1 File. Supplementary methods.**

SB - *Amazilia tzacatl* ♂

$\hat{\Delta} = 45.75$ mm
$s = 7.25$ mm
$n = 490$

$\hat{\Delta} = 32.70$ mm
$s = 4.80$ mm
$n = 182$

$\hat{\Delta} = 35.19$ mm
$s = 5.47$ mm
$n = 140$

$\hat{\Delta} = 50.52$ mm
$s = 4.39$ mm
$n = 126$

H. tortuosa

H. rostrata

H. hirsuta

H. wagneriana

$\hat{\Delta} = 21.75$ mm
$s = 5.84$ mm
$n = 945$

$\hat{\Delta} = 16.09$ mm
$s = 7.25$ mm
$n = 351$

$\hat{\Delta} = 27.09$ mm
$s = 13.79$ mm
$n = 270$

$\hat{\Delta} = 34.07$ mm
$s = 6.44$ mm
$n = 243$

1 cm

LB - *Phaethornis guy* ♂

Figure 1. Mismatch

Figure 2. Results from aviary experiments

H. rostrata

H. tortuosa

H. wagneriana

Pollen tubes per style

HP | HP + pipette | HP + nectar extraction | Nectar extraction + HP

Figure 3. Results from nectar removal experime