

Demographic effects on fruit set in the dioecious shrub Canada buffaloberry (*Shepherdia canadensis*)

The effects of pollen limitation on reproductive success in plants have been well-documented using pollen supplementation experiments. However, the role of local demographics in determining pollen limitation, particularly in terms of the additive effects of pollen availability and competition are not well known. We measured fruit set in the dioecious shrub Canada buffaloberry (*Shepherdia canadensis*) to evaluate whether local demographics measured at three spatial scales (25, 50, and 100 m²) affect fruit set in buffaloberry for a population of shrubs in central Alberta, Canada. We test whether density-dependence (population density), nearest pollen source (distance to nearest male shrub), pollen donor (male density), pollen competitor (female density), or the combined pollen donor and competitor hypotheses best explain natural variations in fruit set for a population of Canada buffaloberry. Support was highest for the combined pollen donor and competitor hypothesis at an intermediate spatial scale of 50 m². Average percent fruit set was 32.9% with fruit set increasing 3.3 units per one unit increase in male shrub density (pollen donors), while decreasing by 2.2 units per one unit increase in female density (pollen competitors). This illustrates that access to male shrubs within a 3.99 m radius affects pollen availability to female shrubs, while nearby females compete intra-specifically for pollen.

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5 **Authors:**

6 Kate M. Johnson & Scott E. Nielsen

7 **Affiliations:**

8 Department of Renewable Resources, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

9 Correspondence to: scottt@ualberta.ca, (780) 492-1656

10 Introduction

11 Fruit set is commonly limited by pollen availability, particularly in dioecious species due to the
 12 isolation of male and female reproductive organs (Burd 1994; Knight 2005). As a result of having
 13 half the number of seed bearers as monocious species, dioecious plants must produce more seeds
 14 and disperse those seeds to as many areas as their hermaphroditic counterparts, but with twice the
 15 population density (Heilbuth et al. 2001). Given such reproductive constraints, it is unsurprising
 16 that evolution of dioecy has been rare among angiosperms with only 6% (14,620 of 240,000) of
 17 all angiosperms being dioecious (Renner and Ricklefs 1995). Dioecious species tend to rely on
 18 small, generalist pollinators (Armstrong & Irvine 1989). Charlesworth (1993) argued that this
 19 association has developed because generalist pollinators are not able to determine the sex of a
 20 particular flower and therefore associate it with its pollen or nectar reward, enabling the evolution
 21 of female flowers by reducing the required investment in floral attractive structures. Borkent and
 22 Harder (2007) confirmed this prediction by showing that the generalist pollinators of Canada
 23 buffaloberry (*Shepherdia canadensis* L. Nutt) do not bias visits based on sex. However, generalist
 24 pollinators may limit the reproductive success of dioecious species by reducing pollen quality due
 25 to the deposit of foreign pollen by indiscriminating pollinators (Kunin 1993). The
 26 competitiveness of dioecy may therefore be attributed to obligate outcrossing, which decreases
 27 the accumulation of harmful mutations found in self-fertilizing plants (Slotte et al. 2013).

28 Fruit set has previously been shown to depend on (1) pollen quantity (Knight 2005), (2) pollen
 29 quality (Kunin 1993) and (3) local resource competition (De Jong, van BatenBurg & van Dijk
 30 2002). Here we deal specifically with the role of demographic factors in determining the quantity
 31 of pollen available. Not surprisingly, an inverse relationship between fruit set and distance to
 32 nearest conspecific male plant has been observed for many dioecious species (Kay et al. 1984; De

33 Jong, Batenburg & Klinkhamer 2005; Wang, et al. 2013.), as has a positive relationship between
34 local male density and fruit set (House 1992).

35 Buffaloberry is a shade intolerant (Humbert et al. 2007), nitrogen-fixing (Hendrickson & Burgess
36 1989; McCray-Batzli et al. 2004; Rhoades et al. 2008) dioecious shrub common to disturbed
37 boreal and temperate montane forests of western North America (Stringer & LaRoi 1970; LaRoi
38 & Hnatiuk 1980). Shrubs heights (widths are often similar) range between 0.9 to 3.9 m (Bormann
39 1988), although in Alberta they are rarely over 2 m. Fruit production in buffaloberry is inversely
40 related to canopy cover (Hamer 1996; Nielsen et al. 2004), with inter-annual variation in fruit
41 explained primarily by the previous year's midsummer rainfall suggesting that climate affects the
42 development of flower primordium (Krebs et al. 2009). Plants flower early in the spring, among
43 the earliest of plants in the region, shortly after the soil thaws and before the forest canopy leafs
44 out (Figure 1). Buffaloberry is pollinated nearly entirely by dipterans (97%), the majority of
45 which are in the Syrphidae and Empididae families (Borkent & Harder 2007), with
46 Hymenopterans and Hemipterans also known to pollinate buffaloberry (Lewis 1990). Male
47 buffaloberry flowers offer both pollen and nectar rewards to potential pollinators, while female
48 flowers only produce nectar (Mosquin 1971; Lewis 1990). Borkent and Harder (2007) found that
49 insect pollinators of buffaloberry visit each sex at equal rates, possibly due to an inability to
50 discriminate between flowers. Pollinators visit an average of 6 flowers per plant, spend >9
51 seconds at each flower, and have a 25.2% re-visitation rate (Borkent and Harder 2007). This
52 relationship suggests that the reproductive success of buffaloberry is pollen-limited due to a
53 deficiency in pollinator visits.

54 Here we use buffaloberry as a model species to examine how pollen donor (male) and pollen
55 competitors (female) affect fruit set in a dioecious species. We hypothesize that male-biased

population density should produce higher fruit set for any nearby female shrub due to increased pollen availability (pollen donor hypothesis), while a female-biased population density should increase competition for pollen and thus decrease fruit set for any given female plant (pollen competitor hypothesis). Pollen donor and pollen competitor hypotheses are not mutually exclusive. In fact, we expect both could be affecting fruit set in dioecious species and test this additive effect as a competing hypothesis. We also test these hypotheses against a null model of equal fruit set regardless of local demography, a simple density-dependent hypothesis based on total population size ignoring local sex-biases, and distance to nearest male plant which could be considered a simple pollen donor hypothesis as commonly measured in the literature. We examine these hypotheses by measuring fruit set for a natural population of buffaloberry in central Alberta, Canada.

Materials and methods

Sixty buffaloberry shrubs were randomly selected in Terwillegar Park in Edmonton, Alberta, marked with a double-faced aluminum tag wired to one stem at the base of the shrub, and monitored for flowering and fruit set between 8 May and 22 June 2012. Terwillegar Park is a 174 hectare natural area located along the North Saskatchewan River in the southwest part of Edmonton (53.48071° N, 113.60785° W). The middle of the park is an open off-leash dog area that is surrounded by natural vegetation with minimum management (City of Edmonton 2009). All shrubs were located along forest edges or in semi-open deciduous forests of balsam poplar (*Populus balsamifera*) and trembling aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) and away from the off-leash dog park. We used a natural experimental design to test pollen donor and pollen competition hypotheses by examining variation in fruit set among shrubs within an open pollination system following other studies of fruit set in dioecious plants (Armstrong & Irvine 1989; House 1992; Wang et al. 2013). Although experimental hand pollination experiments (pollinator restriction

[bagging] would be unnecessary since it is a dioecious species) could be used to address pollen limitations, we were interested here in examining how local demographic effects influenced fruit set within the same population and year of fruiting.

Due to the large number of potential flowers present on an individual shrub (many 1000s), a subsample of flowers was counted to measure initial flower production and thereafter fruit set (e.g. Bowers 2009; Khanizadeh 1989). Specifically, we systematically sampled from each of the 60 focal female shrubs four branch segments approximately 30 cm in length by randomly selecting one branch from each the four cardinal directions. Sampled branch segments were marked with a Sharpie® pen by encircling the branch stem 30 cm from the tip of the branch with a ‘permanent mark’. The number of flowers on each branch segment was counted twice. First between 8 and 10 May and recounted again between 23 and 24 May to ensure full flower counts since phenology of shrubs varied slightly and due to later than normal spring conditions. The maximum number of flowers observed among either of the two counts was used as the total number of flowers per sampled branch. Because fruit ripening begins here in early July, we visited all shrubs between 22 and 28 of June as the color of fruit began to lighten in color to count the number of fruit per marked branch. Fruit set for each shrub was defined as a percent of total flowers with fruit based on the number of fruit to flowers counted on the different dates across all four branch segments (initial analyses revealed no differences among branch orientations). Based on general observations of fruit production in the prior five years, fruit abundance in Terwilligar Park in 2012 appeared to be about average (Nielsen, personal observation).

We quantified population demography of local buffaloberry populations around each marked female shrub at three spatial scales: 25 m² (2.82 m radius), 50 m² (3.99 m radius), and 100 m² (5.64 m radius). Distances to all neighboring shrubs (by sex) were measured using a Hagl f DME

201 Cruiser (Långsele, Sweden) with the transponder centered on the marked plant and the electronic receiver held over the center of all other surrounding shrubs to measure distance to the focal marked female shrub out to a maximum of a 5.64 m radius. In addition to sex-specific densities, distance to nearest male shrub was measured as a simple test of the pollen donor hypothesis (minimum distance) as this is commonly used in the literature. This included measurements beyond 5.64 m (100 m²) in the few cases where shrub density was low enough that no males were present within the largest sampling scale used (5.64 m radius).

Six *a priori* candidate models were defined for each spatial scale (25 m², 50 m², and 100 m²) based on the following hypotheses (Table 1): (0) *null model* of equal (mean) fruit set among plants (.); (1) *simple pollen donor or pollen source hypothesis* measured as distance to nearest male shrub or source of pollen ($-\hat{\sigma}_{dist}$); (2) *density-dependent hypothesis* measured as total population density (+D); (3) *pollen donor hypothesis* measured as male shrub density (+ $\hat{\sigma}_D$); (4) *pollen competitor hypothesis* measured as female shrub density ($-\hat{\sigma}_D$); or (5) *pollen donor and pollen competitor hypotheses* combined (+ $\hat{\sigma}_D - \hat{\sigma}_D$). We used density of individual sexes, rather than sex ratio to represent trade-offs between pollen donor and pollen competition hypotheses as a few plots contained only one sex (inferences were similar when analyzing a smaller set of the data using sex ratios as a predictor). We predicted the direction of the response in fruit set for each hypothesis as indicated by the – or + symbols representing negative or positive effects on fruit set respectively. Specific to our hypotheses, we expected fruit set to decrease with distance to nearest male shrub ($-\hat{\sigma}_{dist}$) since that is the source of pollen. Likewise fruit set was expected to increase with population density (+D), and especially for male density (+ $\hat{\sigma}_D$), since again this would be the source of pollen. Conversely, we expected fruit set to decrease with local increases in female shrubs since they would be competing for pollen ($-\hat{\sigma}_D$). Finally, we predicted an additive effect of male and female shrub density (+ $\hat{\sigma}_D - \hat{\sigma}_D$) on fruit set with male density

127 positively related to fruit set and female density negatively related to fruit set, but not necessarily
128 at the same rate.

129 To test support for these hypotheses, we modeled percent fruit set of buffaloberry based on our
130 hypothesized factors using a generalized linear model (GLM) using STATA 12.1 with a Gaussian
131 family and identity link (McCullagh & Nelder 1989). Collinearity (Pearson correlations $> |0.7|$)
132 was checked among variables within each model with no problems found. Models were ranked
133 for support using the small sample size corrected Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC_c) where
134 smaller AIC_c values indicate more support of the model given the data and models tested
135 (Burnham & Anderson 2004). Model parameters were estimated for the top AIC_c -selected model
136 and predictions graphed to assist with interpretation.

137 Results

138 The most supported candidate models explaining fruit set in buffaloberry were the pollen donor
139 and competitor hypothesis ($+\delta_D - \phi_D$) at both a 50 m² and 100 m² scales (Akaike weights, $w_i =$
140 0.470 and 0.263 respectively; Table 2) thus supporting both the pollen donor and pollen
141 competitor hypotheses. These models were followed by the simple pollen donor hypothesis ($-$
142 δ_{dist}) that was measured as the distance to the nearest male plant ($w_i = 0.104$; Table 2). All other
143 models had much less support ($\Delta AIC_c \geq 4.6$), including the null model (.) of equal fruit set among
144 shrubs regardless of local demography ($\Delta AIC_c = 7.3$) that was 39.2 times less supported
145 (evidence ratio of Akaike weights, w_i) than our top AIC_c . A simple density-dependence model
146 ($+D$) measuring local shrub density had less support than the null model, illustrating the
147 importance of sex-specific demography and thus opposite effects of sexes on fruit set.
148 Interestingly, the pollen competitor hypothesis ($-\phi_D$) alone had the lowest support of all models
149 ($\Delta AIC_c = 9.4$; Table 2), despite being present as a variable in the top supported model which

150 included male density ($+\sigma_D - \varphi_D$). When considering the spatial scale at which fruit set was most
 151 affected by surrounding shrubs, the 50 m² scale (3.99 m radius) was consistently more supported
 152 than the other two spatial scales tested.

153 The top supported model representing the pollen donor and pollen competitor hypothesis ($+\sigma_D -$
 154 φ_D 50m²), measured average fruit set (model constant) among focal female shrubs at 32.9% (SE
 155 = 2.9) with each additional increase in male shrub density resulting in an increase in percent fruit
 156 set by 3.3 (SE = 0.9) units (Table 3). This supports the pollen donor hypothesis where access to
 157 male shrubs affects pollen availability. Female shrub density, on the other hand, was inversely
 158 related to percent fruit set with each one unit increase in female density resulting in a 2.1 (SE =
 159 0.8) unit decrease in percent fruit set (Table 3) thus also supporting the pollen competitor
 160 hypothesis where females compete intra-specifically for pollen. This negative effect on fruit set
 161 was, however, evident only after considering pollen donor effects of male shrub density, since
 162 there was little support for this effect alone ($w_i = 0.004$; Table 2). Fruit set was also marginally
 163 more affected by the presence of males (pollen donor) than females (pollen competitor) with the
 164 highest fruit set occurring when sex bias was skewed heavily towards males (Figure 2; see line in
 165 graph representing the 1:1 sex ratio).

166 Discussion

167 Although a number of studies have demonstrated a negative effect of plant isolation on fruit set,
 168 especially for dioecious plants (Kay et al 1984; House 1992; Steffan-Dewenter et al. 1999; De
 169 Jong, Batenburg & Klinkhamer 2005; Wang et al. 2013), pollen limitation is not considered in
 170 terms of the additive effects of pollen availability (pollen donor) and competition (surrounding
 171 female shrubs). We found that density of male and female shrubs at both 50 m² and 100 m²
 172 predicted fruit set in buffaloberry better than nearest male neighbor measures. However male

density alone was not a better predictor of fruit set than distance to nearest male. This contrasts with studies of fruit set in other dioecious species in which local male density was more significantly related to fruit set than distance to nearest male (House 1992). Our result may be linked to the foraging habits of buffaloberry pollinators, which tend to visit an average of 6 flowers per plant, spend a relatively long time at each flower and revisit flowers frequently, indicating that pollinators are not highly mobile and tend to forage within a small area (Borkent & Harder 2007). As a result, proximity to the nearest pollen source is more important than a high concentration of local pollen.

Local male density was most predictive of fruit set when considered in terms of the additive effect of increased pollen donors and decreased pollen competitors. Our support for the pollen competitor hypothesis contrasts with the findings of Wang et al. (2013) who found no significant effect of female competition on fruit set in the dioecious tree *Rhamnus davurica*. We show that female density is not a good predictor of fruit set unless considered in conjunction with male density, indicating that future assessments of pollen limitation should consider these factors in terms of their additive or possibly even their multiplicative effects. Competition for pollen at high female densities limits the quantity pollen available to any given female. Because buffaloberry pollinators visit both sexes at equal rates (Borkent and Harder 2007), pollinators are more likely to have visited a female previously and be carrying less pollen in a population with high female density. In addition to facilitating higher fruit set, females occurring within male-biased populations may experience increased long-term fitness. Females with access to a wider choice of mates could produce a surplus of embryos, which would enable selective abortion of lower quality seeds (Melser & Klinkhamer 2001). The reproductive advantages attributed to females occurring within male-biased populations may be necessary to compensate for the greater reproductive costs incurred by females that attract seed dispersers with fleshy fruits. Indeed male-

197 biased sex ratios are common in other long-lived dioecious species with biotic seed dispersal and
198 fleshy fruit (Field, Pickup & Barrett 2012).

199 All demographic factors were most predictive of fruit set at a 50 m² scale, indicating that
200 pollinators most actively transfer pollen between plants that are within a 3.99 m radius of each
201 other. Similar studies of dioecious species have documented a threshold of isolation below which
202 fruit set is not limited by insufficient pollinator visits (Kay et al. 1984; De Jong, Batenburg &
203 Klinkhamer 2005). It is likely that the high flight costs of generalist pollinators confine pollinator
204 activities to a small area and discourage travel between patches (Klinkhamer et al. 2001). The
205 high number of flowers visited per plant and rate of re-visits (25.2%, Borkent & Harder 2007)
206 indicates pollinator reluctance to leave a patch once they have begun foraging.

207 The lack of support for the density dependent hypothesis indicates that as well as not biasing
208 visits based on sex, pollinators also do not prefer patches with a higher density of plants. We
209 conclude that the Dipteran pollinators of buffaloberry are opportunistic, and given similar rates of
210 pollinator visitation to males and females, and low and high density patches, females located
211 within male biased populations are least likely to be pollen-limited and will therefore experience
212 higher fruit set.

213 **Conclusion**

214 A male-biased population of buffaloberry surrounding a female shrub (within 3.99 m radius; 50
215 m²) exhibits higher fruit set, supporting both the pollen donor and pollen competitor hypotheses.
216 Although fruit set in buffaloberry was influenced by both male (positively) and female
217 (negatively) shrub density, local male density had a stronger effect on fruit set. This study
218 demonstrates that local demographics affect fruit set through the additive effects of pollen donors

219 and competitors. More research is needed to understand factors affecting flower production and
220 pollinators of buffaloberry.

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223 **References**

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309 Tables

310 Table 1: List of candidate models (hypotheses) predicting fruit set in buffaloberry based on
311 demographic factors and scale of measurement.

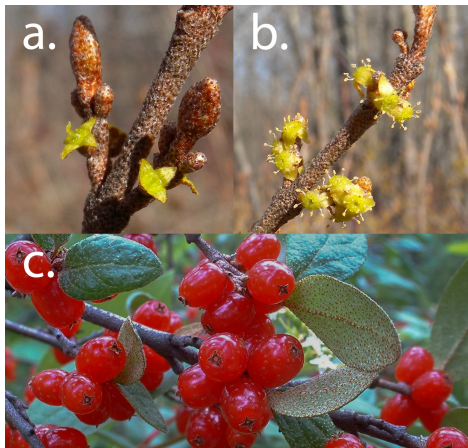
ID	Hypothesis	Scale	Model
0	Null (mean fruit set)	<i>N.A.</i>	.
1	Pollen source (nearest male)	<i>N.A.</i>	$-\sigma_{dist}$
2a	Density dependence	25	$+D_{25}$
2b	Density dependence	50	$+D_{50}$
2c	Density dependence	100	$+D_{100}$
3a	Pollen donor	25	$+\sigma_{D_{25}}$
3b	Pollen donor	50	$+\sigma_{D_{50}}$
3c	Pollen donor	100	$+\sigma_{D_{100}}$
4a	Pollen competitor	25	$-\sigma_{D_{25}}$
4b	Pollen competitor	50	$-\sigma_{D_{50}}$
4c	Pollen competitor	100	$-\sigma_{D_{100}}$
5a	Pollen donor & competitor	25	$+\sigma_{D_{25}} - \sigma_{D_{25}}$
5b	Pollen donor & competitor	50	$+\sigma_{D_{50}} - \sigma_{D_{50}}$
5c	Pollen donor & competitor	100	$+\sigma_{D_{100}} - \sigma_{D_{100}}$

312 Table 2: Ranking of support among candidate models using Akaike's Information Criteria
313 adjusted for small sample size (AIC_c). Hypothesis, model ID, scale, model structure, parameter
314 number (K), change in AIC_c and Akaike weights (w_i) are also provided.

I	Hypothesis	Scale	Model	K	AIC_c	ΔAIC_c	w_i
5b	Pollen donor & competitor	50	$+\sigma_D - \varphi_D$	3	503.9	0.0	0.470
5c	Pollen donor & competitor	100	$+\sigma_D - \varphi_D$	3	505.1	1.2	0.263
1	Pollen source (nearest)	<i>N.A.</i>	$-\sigma_{dist}$	2	506.9	3.0	0.104
3b	Pollen donor	50	$+\sigma_D$	2	508.6	4.6	0.046
5a	Pollen donor & competitor	25	$+\sigma_D - \varphi_D$	3	508.8	4.9	0.040
3a	Pollen donor	25	$+\sigma_D$	2	510.4	6.5	0.018
3c	Pollen donor	100	$+\sigma_D$	2	510.6	6.7	0.016
0	Null (mean fruit set)	<i>N.A.</i>	.	1	511.2	7.3	0.012
2b	Density dependence	50	$+D$	2	512.6	8.7	0.006
2a	Density dependence	25	$+D$	2	512.8	8.9	0.005
2c	Density dependence	100	$+D$	2	512.9	9.0	0.005
4b	Pollen competitor	50	$-\varphi_D$	2	513.3	9.4	0.004
4a	Pollen competitor	25	$-\varphi_D$	2	513.3	9.4	0.004
4c	Pollen competitor	100	$-\varphi_D$	2	513.3	9.4	0.004

315 Table 3: Model parameters for variables included in the most supported candidate model
 316 describing fruit set in buffaloberry representing the pollen donor and pollen competitor
 317 hypothesis (50 m² scale).

Variable	Coef.	SE	95% Conf. Interval	
			Lower	Upper
♂ _{D₅₀}	3.29	0.94	1.44	5.14
♀ _{D₅₀}	-2.06	0.78	-3.60	-0.52
constant	32.90	2.91	27.20	38.61



319 Figure 1: Pistillate flowers (a.), staminate flowers (b.) and ripe fruit (c.) of Canada buffaloberry
 320 (*Shepherdia canadensis*). Flowers photographed on 6 May 2009 and fruit on 8 July 2004 at
 321 Terwilleger Park, Edmonton, Alberta. Male shrubs begin flowering first (sometimes up to 1
 322 week) and are 2 to 3 times larger than female flowers. Photographs by S. Nielsen.

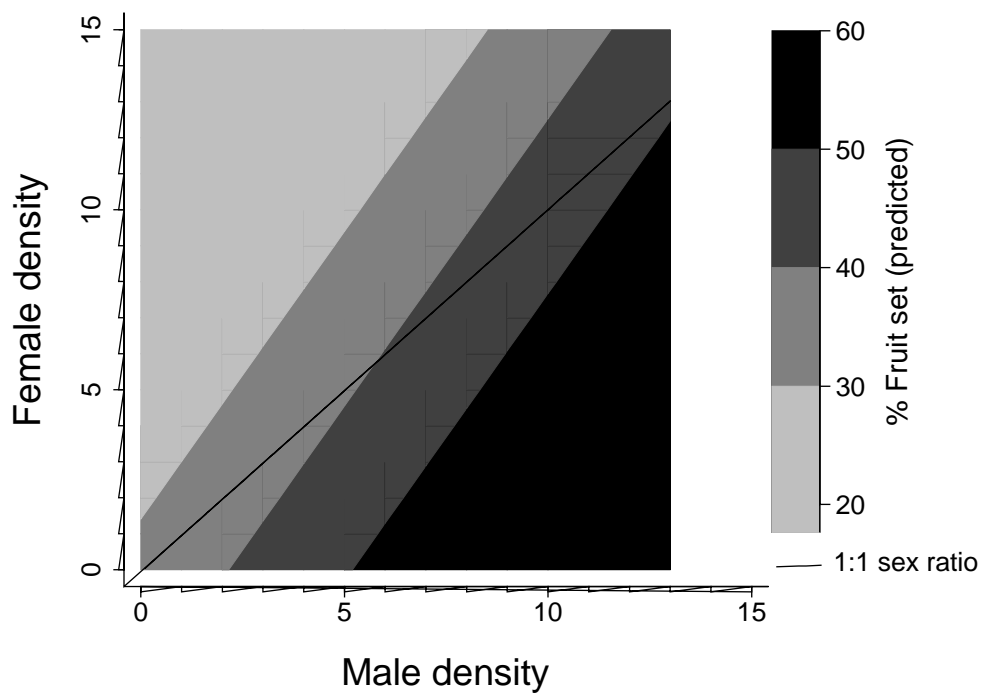


Figure 2: Percent fruit set predicted for buffaloberry based on female and male shrub density. A line representing equal sex ratio (1:1) is provided for reference.