Community context determines competition vs. facilitation trade-offs in pollination systems

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15 Abstract

Plant-pollinator interactions are commonly viewed as mutualistic. However, 16 plants that share pollinators also compete for effective pollination. The 17 extent of this competition for pollination and its effects on pollination 18 service are poorly understood at the community level; many species interact simultaneously and multiple intertwined factors might play a role (abundance, visitation, traits). By examining comprehensive empirical data, here we show that competition for pollination is pervasive in natural communities and, surprisingly, is only partially influenced by the number of shared pollinators. Furthermore, the factors that most influence the pollination service (abundance and visit effectiveness) also introduce a trade-off between the absolute amount of conspecific pollen received and the amount relative to 26 heterospecific pollen. Importantly, the ways plants balance these trade-offs 27 depend strongly on the community context, as most species showed flexibility 28 in the strategy they used to cope with competition for pollination. Plantpollinator mutualisms could be better understood as comprising mutualistic and competitive interactions.

12 Introduction

Animal pollination plays a disproportionally important role in food production and maintenance of global biodiversity¹⁻³. Alongside the direct 34 benefits of mutualisms between plants and their pollinators, biodiversity can 35 be supported as a result of inter-species "facilitation"—the indirect positive feedback loops that exist between plant species that share pollinators or pollinators that share plants⁴⁻⁷. This inter-species facilitation is able to promote species coexistence by offsetting the effects of direct resource competition⁸. Indeed, studies at the core of our current theoretical knowledge of mutualisms predict that the maximum number of coexisting species is achieved when the number of shared mutualistic partners is maximised in a community 9 . However, in natural communities, plants rarely share all available pollinators. One explanation is that plants are effectively competing for mutualistic partners because there is a trade-off between the benefits gained from maximising the number of partners and the costs of sharing them with other plant species¹⁰. It has been clear for a long time that when competition for pollina-47 tion is strong enough, these costs can make pollination detrimental to plants' fitness^{11–13}. In fact, it can be sufficient to drive ecological differentiation^{14,15}. However, it is less clear how exactly this ecological differentiation may, in turn, favour (or hinder) the pollination service. There are two main mechanisms through which competition for pollinators can affect plant fertilization 16. The first is by changes in intraspecific pollen transfer. This happens, for example, when plants with more attractive flowers might reduce the number of visits to those less of attractive neighbouring plants, and hence reduce the amount of conspecific pollen deposited by animals¹⁷. The second is via interspecific pollen transfer and occurs when plants share pollination partners. In that case, even receiving a visit might not necessarily translate into fertilization ¹⁸ because a focal plant might

receive heterospecific pollen or because pollen from the focal plant might be lost to different species. Naturally, the precise effects on plant fitness 61 of conspecific and heterospecific pollen deposition depend on the species 62 involved (and are unknown for many plant species). However, there is substantial evidence supporting the link between pollen deposition and seed production; in particular for the detrimental effect of heterospecific pollen deposition on plant fitness^{19,20}. All together, provided pollen is viable and compatible^{21–23}, the higher the quantity of conspecific pollen and its purity 67 (relative to heterospecific pollen), the better the pollination service received by the focal plant. As such, measuring conspecific and heterospecific pollen deposition provides a good indication of the potential levels of facilitation 70 and competition a plant population might experience. 71

By definition, these two mechanisms of competition, intra and interspe-72 cific pollen transfer, occur at the community scale. However, with few exceptions^{24,25}, most of what we know about them and their relationship 74 with key ecological factors is based on studies with two plant species. That is partly so because, at the community scale, the factors that determine the patterns of pollen deposition are tightly intertwined, operate simultaneously, and may lead to emergent phenomena not observed at smaller scales²⁶. For instance, recent empirical evidence suggests that plants with flowering traits 79 that are "original" relative to others in the community generally have fewer interaction partners²⁷. This evidence is aligned with the notion that a species that interacts with few species does so strongly with each of them whereas a species that interacts with a large number of species does so comparatively weakly $^{28-30}$. If evolutionary specialisation occurs by changing traits to focus 84 on fewer but better partners¹⁵, we should expect a reduction of competition for pollinators in species with "original" traits and an increase of competition in species with a large number of interaction partners^{31,32}. Alternatively, it might also be the case that abundance (for example in terms of flower or

pollen counts) is the dominant force driving pollen transfer³³. Abundant plant species might experience a dilution of available pollinators^{34,35} but might also receive more effective visits by capitalising on a larger share of both visits and the pollen carried by pollinators. In this case, a potential reduction in the absolute amount of conspecific pollen received could be compensated by an increase in the amount of conspecific pollen relative to heterospecific pollen. Altogether, it is clear that these ecological factors can indeed shape pollen deposition at the community level. However, their relative importance and how exactly they can minimise competition for pollination—or equivalently, maximise facilitation—in plant populations (across species and communities) has not been determined.

Here, we investigate the balance between competition for pollination and 100 facilitation at the community scale using empirical data from eleven plant-101 pollinator communities in the Argentinian Pampas. First, we estimate the 102 extent to which the net outcome of plants sharing pollinators is facilitation 103 or competition. If facilitation is the primary outcome, we could expect 104 an overall positive relationship between the amount of conspecific pollen 105 deposited in stigmas and the amount of heterospecific pollen²⁴. The higher 106 the deposition of conspecific pollen relative to heterospecific, the larger the 107 slope of this relationship. Second, we investigate the relative contribution 108 that four ecological factors have to the pollination service. Specifically, we 109 hypothesize that the quantity and purity of conspecific pollen deposition should decrease for plants that share many pollination partners. However, we 111 also hypothesize that other factors like the plant's functional originality, its 112 relative floral abundance, and the visit potential should have the potential to 113 compensate for this increase in competition. Third and finally, we examine 114 how much the community context influences the way plants use these factors to minimise competition/maximise facilitation. We use these four ecological 116 factors as a proxy of the realised pollination niche of a plant species in 117

their community. Although some plant species might be widespread across 118 multiple locations, competition for pollinators occurs at the community level 119 and hence we predict that pollination niche will be influenced by the local 120 context. If plant strategy is not flexible across the communities in our study, 121 we could expect niches to be more similar within species than across species. 122 On the contrary, if a species' strategy is flexible, we should expect plants to 123 be able to occupy different niches in each community such that intraspecific 124 competition could ultimately be minimised regardless of the context. 125

126 Methods

We collected data from eleven co-flowering plant communities and their pollinators in three locations in the Argentinian Pampas. In each location, we sampled two restored and two agricultural fragments, except in one located in the Flooding Pampas, where we were only able to sample one restored fragment due to the lack of available sites.

132 Competition vs. facilitation

Our first objective was to identify whether the net outcome of plants sharing 133 pollinators at the community level is facilitation or competition. To do that 134 we examine the relationship between heterospecific and conspecific pollen 135 deposited in plant stigmas²⁴. This is because heterospecific pollen can be seen 136 as an unavoidable cost that plants must pay for receiving conspecific pollen from shared pollinators. A negative relationship (when shared pollinators 138 increase heterospecific pollen loads and decrease conspecific loads) may 139 indicate that competition for pollination is strong. In contrast, a positive 140 relationship is what would be observed when facilitation is the dominant 141 outcome.

143 Data collection

In each of the studied communities, we quantified pollen deposition in a subset 144 of plant species between December 2010 and February 2011. This subset comprised between three and nine common insect-pollinated (entomophilous) plant species that were flowering during the sampling period. Based on 147 data from previous years³⁶, we chose plant species such that they cover 148 a wide range on a specialization-generalization gradient as well as a wide 149 range of abundances. In each of the selected plants, we removed all flowers 150 leaving only buds that were expected to go into florescence on the next day. 151 Two days after flowering, we collected all remaining flowers and counted the 152 number of conspecific and heterospecific pollen grains in their pistils. More 153 details can be found in 37. 154

155 Data analysis

To evaluate the relationship between heterospecific and conspecific pollen, 156 we used a generalised linear mixed model (GLMM) with a Poisson error 157 distribution²⁴. In this model, the number of conspecific pollen grains per 158 flower was the response variable and the number of heterospecific grains the 159 predictor variable (the log number of stigmas sampled was added as an offset term). The slope and intercept of this relationship were allowed to differ 161 between populations (plant species × community), which were modelled as 162 a random effect. Models were fitted using the function glmer from the R 163 package lme4 1.1-19³⁸. A positive slope for a plant population indicates 164 facilitation while a negative slope competition²⁴. 165

Factors affecting quantity and purity of pollination service

Our second objective was to investigate the relative contribution that different ecological factors have on the mechanisms of pollinator-mediated competition.

Generally speaking, we expect that any factor that increases the amount 169 of conspecific pollen deposited in stigmas, both in quantity and purity 170 relative to heterospecific pollen, also has a positive effect on the pollination 171 service. Specifically, we investigated the effect of (i) a plant's number of shared pollinator species, (ii) a plant's abundance relative to the rest of 173 the community, (iii) the mean visit potential—a metric that combines the 174 amount and type of pollen carried by floral visitors and the number of visits 175 it receives from them, and (iv) the plant's functional originality 39 . See Data 176 Analysis section below for more details on these four factors.

178 Data collection

To obtain the number of shared pollinators for each species, we collected data 179 to construct qualitative and quantitative pollination networks. Qualitative 180 networks were constructed based on ten-hour observations of floral visits 181 in each fragment. Quantitative networks were constructed using two 50 m 182 randomly located transects in each fragment. We counted and collected all 183 floral visitors found in a 2 m wide strip while walking at a pace of 10 m 184 per minute^{36,40}. We visited the transects each month between November 185 2010 and March 2011. To obtain floral abundance, we counted all units of 186 floral attraction found during an independent sampling of the same transects used to construct the quantitative visitation networks. To estimate visit 188 potential, we need to construct pollen transfer networks in addition to the 189 visitation networks. To do this, we examined the pollen loads present on the 190 floral visitors collected⁴¹. When the pollen count on an individual animal 191 was estimated to be less than 2,000 grains, we identified every grain to the 192 species level when possible and to pollen complexes when it was not. When the pollen count was above 2,000 grains, we classified approximately 50\% of 194 pollen and total pollen counts were extrapolated 42. Finally, we also recorded 195 morphological traits that relate to plant type (herb, shrub, climber), life

cycle (annual, perennial), flower colouration, phenology, and whether the species is native in the study region. More details can be found in Marrero et al. (2014 and 2017).

200 Data analysis

To investigate the impact of ecological factors on pollination services, we 201 used two sets of linear mixed models (LMM) with bootstrap resampling. 202 The response variables for these model sets were the number of conspecific 203 and heterospecific pollen grains deposited per stigma in flowers open to 204 animal-mediated pollination. We used LMMs in which pollen loads were 205 log-transformed because these models offered a better fit than equivalent 206 GLMMs with Poisson (or quasi-Poisson) error structure. Models were fitted 207 using the R package nlme 3.1-131⁴³. 208 Because the amount of deposited pollen can vary widely across species, and 209

potentially also across communities, we evaluated two possible structures for the random effects: one that includes a random intercept for plant species, and one that treats measures from species across different communities independently. We selected the best random structure by comparing the median Akaike Information Criterion for small samples (AICc).

As fixed predictors in the models, we included the four ecological factors described above. Specifically, we calculated the number of shared pollinators for each plant species by pooling data from the qualitative and quantitative pollination networks. To calculate the plants' relative floral abundance in their community, we aggregated floral counts for each species. We then calculated the mean visit potential of pollinator species i to plant species j as

$$o_{ij} = \frac{v_{ij}}{v_i} \frac{p_{ji}}{p_j}$$

, where v_{ij} is the observed number of visits by i to j, p_{ji} is the number of

pollen grains from j attached to i, v_i is the total number of visits performed by i, and p_j is the total number of grains carried by j. We log-transformed the number of shared pollinators, floral abundance, and visit potential before including them in the model.

Finally, functional originality is defined as the distance of a species from the community trait average—the centroid of functional space of the community^{27,39}. To include phenological variation, we treated floral 229 abundance in each of the survey months (November to March) as a "trait" 230 in our analysis. To account for the non-independence of floral counts and 231 weight all traits equally, we assigned a weight of 1/5 to these abundances 232 (one for each month). We scaled all traits prior to calculating the centroid 233 of the functional space and calculated the species-specific functional 234 coordinates using the R package FD 1.0-12⁴⁴. Finally, we scaled all four 235 factors to have a zero mean and unitary variance. 236

To estimate the coefficients, perform model selection, and quantify the 237 associated uncertainty, we used a combination of multi-model inference and 238 bootstrap resampling with 99 replicates. First, we performed model selection 239 using the AICc and determined the likelihood of each candidate model (a particular combination of predictors) by calculating the median $\Delta AICc$ (relative to the most likely model) for each bootstrap sample. As we wanted model coefficients from more likely candidate models to carry more weight 243 in our results, we sampled the coefficients for our factors proportionally to 244 the likelihood of their candidate model. Finally, we used these distributions 245 of the model coefficients to estimate their mean impact on the pollination service (in terms of quantity and purity of conspecific pollen deposition). 247

248 Flexibility of plant strategies

Our last objective was to tease apart the plant strategies that might reduce 249 competition and, importantly, how the community context influences these 250 strategies. If community context plays a relatively small role or the species 251 strategy is inflexible, we would expect plants of the same species to fill 252 similar pollination niches across different communities. Alternatively, if the 253 community plays a large role and/or plant strategies are flexible, we should 254 be able to observe differences in the realised niche a plant species occupies 255 across communities. To test this, we first used a principal component analysis (PCA) of the four ecological factors (number of shared pollinators, floral 257 abundance, visit potential, and trait originality). We scaled factors across 258 the whole study to ensure that the PCA space does not change according 259 to the species present in each community. We define a species' niche in 260 a community as its coordinates in PCA space. For each species that was 261 present in two or more communities, we then calculated (i) the median 262 distance between the strategies that the species uses in different communities 263 and (ii) the area of the convex hull defined by these points in the first two 264 principal components (only for species present in three or more communities). 265 We then compared the magnitude of these two metrics to those obtained with 99 Monte Carlo randomizations in which we replaced the strategy of the focal plant species by that of another randomly selected species in the 268 dataset. 269

$_{270}$ Results

271 Competition vs. facilitation

We first examined the degree of facilitation/competition in natural communities. Specifically, we examined the slope of the relationship between the

quantities of heterospecific and conspecific pollen deposited on stigmas of 274 each species in a community. Overall, we found that neither net facilita-275 tion nor net competition dominates (Table S1). Indeed, we found that the 276 proportions of species that experienced a statistically significant positive 277 or negative relationship between heterospecific and conspecific pollen were 278 very similar (35% and 37%, respectively; Fig. 1; Table S2). Most of the 279 variation between plants in a facilitation-competition gradient was driven 280 by differences between species; however, we also observed some important 281 differences within species. For instance, six of the species sampled across multiple communities (Carduus acanthoides, Cirsium vulgare, Cypella her-283 bertii, Diplotaxis tenuifolia, Hirschfeldia incana, and Verbena intermedia) 284 showed evidence that the same species, can experience facilitation (positive 285 relationships) in some communities and competition (negative relationships) 286 in others. Interestingly, although there was wide variation in the slope of the relationship between heterospecific and conspecific pollen, almost all plants had more conspecific than heterospecific pollen deposited on their stigmas 289 (Fig. S1). 290

²⁹¹ Factors affecting quantity and purity of pollination service

We then examined the potential roles played in pollen deposition by four 292 ecological factors (number of shared pollinators, abundance, mean visit potential, and functional originality). We found that our models of pollen 294 deposition had high explanatory power (the coefficient of determination R² 295 ranged between 0.76 and 0.93) although a large portion of the explanatory 296 power came from the random effects (Table S3). As determined by AICc, the 297 random structure best supported by the data was the one that fit an intercept for each species in each community (as opposed to a common intercept for 299 each species irrespective of the community to which they belong). This 300 structure was best for both the models of conspecific and heterospecific 301

relationship hetero-conspecific pollen \rightarrow facilitation predominates \rightarrow Mentha pulegium (9) Aloysia gratissima (3) Condalia microphylla (10) 0 Descurania argentina (12) 0 Nothoscordum euosimum (9) 0 Carduus acanthoides (50) 0 Physalis viscosa (5) Hirschfeldia incana (149) Gaillardia megapotamica (12) þ Diplotaxis tenuifolia (26) Solanum sisymbriifolium (3) Cypella herbertii (10) Prosopidastrum globosum (6) Baccharis pingraea (14) Turnera sidioides (30) Thelesperma megapotamicum (3) • Stemodia lanceolata (5) Nierembergia aristata (10) Cirsium vulgare (25) Verbena intermedia (30) Senecio pulcher (5) Dipsacus sp. (5) Sisyrinchium platense (14) Sphaeralcea crispa (5) Glandularia hookeriana (6) Lycium chilense (6) competition predominates

competition vs. facilitation

-0.25

-0.10

Figure 1: Competition vs. facilitation at the community level. Points indicate the estimated slopes for the relationship between the amount of heterospecific and conspecific pollen deposited per stigma across species in each of their communities. Statistically significant negative slopes (darkest shade) indicate that plants experience net competition for animal-mediated pollination, while significantly positive slopes (lightest shade) indicate that net facilitation is the predominant outcome. The number of plants analysed for each species is shown within brackets next to the species name. Error bars correspond to \pm the standard error (SE).

0.00

slope of species-community random effects β_{i}

0.10

0.25

0.50

pollen (Table S4).

Of the four factors we considered, we found that a plant's mean visit potential and relative floral abundance were the most important at predicting pollen deposition in plant stigmas (Fig. 2a). Surprisingly, the number of shared pollinators was comparatively unimportant, particularly for models of heterospecific pollen deposition, as it was only ever included in models with relatively large AICc values (Table S5).

We found that the relationship between each of the ecological factors and pollen deposition was similar for both conspecific and heterospecific pollen. 310 That is, strategies that were associated with an increase in conspecific pollen 311 were also associated with an increase in heterospecific pollen deposition. 312 Specifically, the plants' mean visit potential had a positive effect on pollen 313 deposition (Fig. 2b). However, the effect size was slightly larger for het-314 erospecific than for conspecific pollen. This indicates that, although there 315 is a positive association between visit potential and the quantity of pollen 316 deposition, there is a negative relationship with its purity (Fig. 2c). In 317 contrast, a plants' relative floral abundance negatively affected its deposition 318 quantity, but the mean difference between the coefficients in the models 319 indicates a positive association with purity (Fig. 2c). The third most impor-320 tant factor, functional originality, had a positive, although comparatively 321 smaller, association with both the quantity and purity. Finally, the number 322 of shared pollinators had negative and neutral associations with conspecific 323 and heterospecific pollen, respectively, but these impacts were small when 324 compared to the other factors. Although the ecological factors were positively correlated (Fig. S2), the collinearity between predictors did not qualitatively 326 affect our findings (Fig. S3). 327

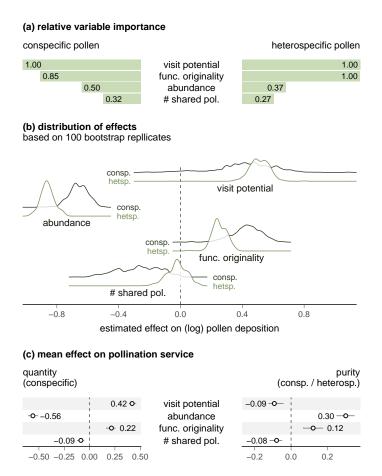


Figure 2: Effect of ecological factors on the pollination service. (a) The plant's visit potential and relative floral abundance are the most important factors determining the deposition of conspecific and heterospecific pollen. Meanwhile, the number of shared pollinators was generally less important. The graph shows the relative importance calculated as the sum of the Akaike weights of the candidate models that included the selected factor. (b) The association between ecological factors and heterospecific pollen tended to align with their association with conspecific pollen. Visit potential and functional originality had a positive association with pollen deposition, while floral abundance and the number of shared pollinators had a negative association. The plot shows the distribution of the effects (across 99 bootstrap replicates) of the four ecological factors for conspecific and heterospecific pollen. (c) The end result of these associations is that only the plants functional originality has a positive impact on both the quantity and purity of conspecific pollen deposition (relative to heterospecific pollen). The plot shows the model averaged mean effect (\pm SE of 99 bootstrap replicates).

328 Flexibility of plant strategies

We used a PCA of the analysed species to investigate whether plants' re-329 alised pollination niche is similar across communities or whether they are flexible and therefore a reflection of the community context. The first two 331 PCA components explained 75% of the total variance (Fig. 3a). The first 332 component was dominated by visit potential and relative abundance while 333 the second component was dominated by the number of shared pollinators 334 and the plant's functional originality. When we locate the species that were 335 sampled in more than one community in the first two PCA components (Fig. 336 3b), we observe that the niches of any given species do not tend to be close 337 to each other. Indeed, when we measured the median distance between the 338 plants' coordinates, we found that it was only significantly smaller than that 339 of randomisations for only two of the twelve species analysed (Fig. 3c).

341 Discussion

353

Our results suggest that community context plays a central role in determining the net cost or benefit of sharing pollinators. First, we found that 343 pollinator sharing can lead to both net facilitative and net competitive effects 344 to plant species in a community. Second, we found that multiple ecological 345 factors can modulate the intensity of competition; however, conspecific and heterospecific pollen deposition are tightly coupled and this creates a clear 347 trade-off between the quantity and purity of pollination⁴⁵. Third, we found 348 that the way these factors influence competition is strongly shaped by the 349 community context. That is, if these factors collectively define a species' 350 pollination niche, the same plant species can occupy dramatically different 351 niches depending on the community to which it belongs.

The criterion we used to identify the effect of animal-mediated pollina-

tion suggested that neither facilitation nor competition are dominant in

(a) components' variance and variable contributions principal component analysis of ecological variables components' cumulative percentage of variance visit potential abundance func. originality component 1st 2nd 3rd 4th 25% 50% 75% 100% 0% contribution (b) plant realised niches in PCA space convex hulls of species niches across communities S. crispa 2nd component (18%) V. intermedia N. euosimum 0 1st component (57%) (c) flexibility of plant's strategies median distance between plant niches vs. randomisations → more flexible → S. crispa T. megapotamicum T. sidioides B. pingraea C. microphylla C. herbertii -0 C. acanthoide S. platense N. euosimun H. incana M. pulegium V. intermedia ← less flexible

Figure 3: The flexibility of plant strategies. (a) The two first components explain a large proportion of the total variance. (b) When plants that were sampled in more than one community are plotted in terms of these two components, we observe that their points, which represent the strategy (the particular combination of ecological factors) of that species in its community, do not seem to be grouped by plant species. (c) This was confirmed using Monte Carlo randomizations of the median distance between strategies of a plant species. Only two of the examined species had strategies that were less flexible than would be expected at random.

p-value

0.50

0.05

0.01

pollination communities. A previous study showed that, in diverse pollina-355 tion communities, sharing pollinators does not necessarily translate to net 356 competition²⁴. The overall extent of facilitation/competition of pollination 357 communities can depend on factors like the adversity of the environment ^{24,46} 358 or how disturbances affect pollinator populations⁴⁷. However, why some 359 species experience more competition than others was not understood. Al-360 though we were unable to measure the fitness outcomes, here we show that 361 the coexistence of facilitative and competitive effects of animal-mediated 362 pollination can be at least partially explained by trade-offs in the pollination service—both the short and the long term. These trade-offs arise when plants 364 simultaneously maximise the deposition of conspecific pollen and minimise 365 that of heterospecific pollen. 366

In the short term, being a specialist and sharing no pollinators might re-367 duce competition⁴⁸ and hence be preferable, not only due to costs to male 368 fitness^{16,49}, but also because, as we show here, sharing pollinators reduces 369 both the quantity and purity of the conspecific pollen deposited. However, 370 over long periods of time, there could be a risk associated with a specialist 371 plant having few pollinators⁵⁰. To ensure long-term survival, it is thus 372 likely that plants also need to balance this risk with the costs of sharing 373 pollinators⁵¹. One possible solution is to share pollinators and have original 374 traits—as we show that trait originality is generally beneficial to pollen deposition and it is commonly thought that species that are further from others in trait space benefit from reduced competition. Yet, there are two 377 possible caveats to this strategy that highlight the interrelatedness of the 378 ecological factors. First, in a mutualism context, it is also possible that trait 379 originality could come at the cost of being less 'apparent' to pollinators⁵². 380 Second, the negative relationship between originality and generalism³² has been shown to depend on plant abundance²⁷, with generalist species being able to also have original traits only when they are abundant enough to 383

provide a valuable reward to make visiting worthwhile to pollinators.

Visit potential (high pollen and visits) and floral abundance, which were 385 the most important predictors of pollen deposition here, introduced an 386 even more explicit trade-off between gaining conspecific pollen and avoiding 387 heterospecific pollen. Receiving high visitation increases conspecific pollen 388 deposition but increases heterospecific pollen deposition to a greater extent even when the visitors are likely to carry a high proportion of conspecific pollen⁵³. Contrastingly, being abundant reduces the amount of conspecific 391 pollen deposited and simultaneously reduces heterospecific pollen at a faster 392 rate. Our results corroborate the importance that two-species studies have 393 ascribed to visitation and abundance 16,35,54, but they also suggest that 55 394 balancing the pros and cons of sharing pollinators at the community level 395 is not trivial and might even be partially responsible for the diversity of 396 plant-pollinator communities⁵⁶. 397

We observed, as expected, that the effects of pollen deposition can vary 398 widely among species. For instance, while the fitness of some plant species 399 can be hurt even by low amounts of heterospecific pollen, for others, fitness 400 can instead be limited by the amount of conspecific pollen^{18,57}. Alterna-401 tively, plant species can also differ substantially in the extent to which self-402 vs. outcross-pollen differ in their value for fertilization. The difference can 403 be particularly relevant for species that are not self-fertile or those in which 404 self-fertilization is rarely effective due to a temporary separation in the 405 maturation of the sexes (dichogamy). 406

Importantly, we show here that the balances between costs and benefits are determined not only by species identity but also by the community to which plants belong. Specifically, most plant species appear to be flexible enough to adopt markedly different niches in different communities. From an evolutionary perspective, our results suggest that selection for a particular strategy might say something about the community in which a species has

typically inhabited during its evolutionary history. Furthermore, from a more 413 applied perspective, flowering plants are sometimes introduced to attract 414 pollinators on other nearby plants. On the one hand, our results suggest that 415 introduced plants that increase the relative originality of natives (e.g. through distinct phenology) might have positive effects³¹. On the other, because 417 different niches can lead to different outcomes across communities, our results 418 also highlight the difficulties involved in predicting whether the introduced 419 plant species will facilitate or compete with neighbours⁵⁸. Other factors 420 that we were unable to measure (e.g. pollinator behaviour and densities or the spatial context) have also been shown to play a role in the outcome of 422 animal-mediated pollination^{26,45,59,60}. Nevertheless, our results indicate that 423 the strategies a plant might use to successfully minimise competition for 424 pollination (or maximise facilitation) must be determined relative to other 425 species in the community, rather than an absolute property of the species itself.

Overall, pollination communities might not necessarily be the paradigmatic 428 mutualistic communities we often believe. Instead, we confirm that plant 429 competition is pervasive in pollination communities. The potential strategies 430 to minimise competition are likely to involve strong trade-offs in the pollina-431 tion service both in the short and long-term. Most remarkably, despite large 432 differences in the quantity and purity of conspecific pollen deposition among 433 species, our results provide solid evidence that competition for pollination is inherently a community process and the same species can occupy differ-435 ent niches in different communities. Many of the widely used theoretical 436 models of plant-pollinator communities do not account for the negative 437 effects of sharing pollinators⁶¹. However, achieving a better understanding 438 of species coexistence and how plant biodiversity is supported by pollination communities will require seeing them as both mutualistic and competitive communities 62. 441

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