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1 2 2	The bees don't know and the flowers don't care: the effect of heterospecific pollen on reproduction in co-occurring lilies ( <i>Thysanotus</i> spp.) with similar flowers.
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### ABSTRACT

Species integrity relies on the maintenance of reproductive isolation, particularly between closely related species. It has been hypothesised that the presence of heterospecific pollen on flower stigmas adversely affects plant reproduction with increasing effect in closely related species. Using two pairs of co-occurring buzz pollinated Thysanotus lilies in the Mediterranean climate region of Perth, Western Australia we quantified the effect of heterospecific pollen on fruit and seed set. We first determined mating systems of the two focal species using self and outcross pollen followed by separate treatments with heterospecific pollen within each species pair. Of the two species receiving pollen, Thysanotus triandrus had a mixed mating system but with significantly lower fruit and seed set from self pollen relative to outcross pollen. Thysanotus tenellus was autogamous with no difference in fruit or seed set between autogamous, self or outcross pollinations. Heterospecific pollen had no effect on fruit or seed set of either focal species. This outcome points to a post-pollination means of reproductive isolation consistent with a flower morphology that causes a low specificity of pollen placement and thus a poor capacity for pre-pollination discrimination. Negative effects of heterospecific pollen, therefore, do not appear to play a role in reproduction within this fascinating group of buzz pollinated flowers.

ADDITIONAL KEYWORDS: Autogamy - buzz pollination - fringe lily - heterospecific pollen transfer - mixed mating - selfing.

### INTRODUCTION

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80 Sexual reproduction in angiosperms is achieved through the medium of flowers with 81 abundant evidence that flowers have been integral to the diversification of the group 82 (Harder & Barrett, 2006). Critical to diversification is the subsequent maintenance of 83 species integrity and effective reproductive isolation. The use of animals that have their 84 own agendas for gamete transfer in most flowering plants means plants have needed to 85 develop ways of either restricting which pollinators visit their flowers or limiting the 86 interference of heterospecific pollen on their own reproduction. Pre-zygotic barriers 87 between species may be driven by phenological differences, divergent floral morphology 88 or differences in pollinator attraction signals including colour, scent (Okamoto et al., 89 2015) or rewards (Johnson, 2010). Post-zygotic barriers include incompatibility systems 90 (McClure & Franklin-Tong, 2006), low viability of hybrids or hybrid sterility (e.g. 91 Fishman & Wyatt, 1999).

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93 Recently there has been considerable attention paid to how reproductive isolation 94 may occur between closely related species with divergent floral morphologies (e.g. 95 Armbruster, 2014; Devaux et al., 2014). Specialised floral forms permit flower visitors to 96 effectively access resources of one species and not others and accurately deliver pollen 97 from one flower to another only within the same species (Johnson, 2006; 2010; Harder & 98 Johnson, 2009). Structural modification leads to reproductive isolation of some plants in 99 a population and eventually leads to speciation. In many of the iconic examples of 100 radiation (Goldblatt et al., 2000, 2001; Goldblatt & Manning, 2006) modifications are 101 associated with altering the location or accessibility of a food reward (usually nectar), so 102 that flowers may become unattractive to more generalist pollinators unable to access the 103 reward. Importantly, unsuitable flower visitors are likely to be ineffective pollinators and 104 selection is predicted to refine and optimise the fit between flower morphology and 105 appropriate pollinators. In radially symmetrical (actinomorphic) flowers, in contrast, 106 there is less likelihood that flowers will be specialised for a narrow range of pollinators 107 and isolating mechanisms are more likely to be physiological (post pollination) than in 108 bilaterally symmetrical flowers. Examining the pollination biology of species with actinomorphic flowers and relatively specialised pollination can help understand how
reproductive isolation can be maintained in species with apparently similar, relatively
unspecialised floral morphology.

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113 One group of plants with mostly actinomorphic flowers, however, do rely on a rather 114 narrow range of pollinators. Flowers that are buzz pollinated automatically select a 115 restricted pollinating fauna of particular bee species that sonicate the anthers to release 116 pollen (Buchmann, 1983). Therefore, given generalist flower morphology yet specialised 117 pollination, how do these species maintain reproductive isolation? Although some buzz 118 pollinated species may have accurate pollen deposition on a flower visitor and 119 subsequently accurate pollen reception (Harder & Wilson, 1997) others may not (Huang 120 & Shi, 2013). Taxa with the Solanum type floral structure (many Solanum spp., 121 *Dodecatheon*, Tremandraceae, Boraginaceae) have a focused type of pollen delivery to a 122 site on bees near where the stigma is also likely to contact the visitor, thereby increasing 123 successful pollen transfer. However species in other groups with poricidal anthers (which 124 release pollen through pores) such as in the Melastomataceae have anther configurations 125 that do not provide pollen delivery onto a consistent part of a flower visitor. In Australia 126 there is a group of species with open lily-type flowers, some of which also have an anther 127 configuration similar to that in Melastoma. In Thysanotus, a genus of approximately 50 128 species (Brittan, 1987) there is little possibility of specialised bee-floral matching as 129 buzzing tends to produce a rather messy pollen release. This makes specific, accurate 130 pollen delivery to a stigma and hence reproductive isolation by this method, difficult.

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132 If closely related species with very similar flowers that lack morphological 133 divergence co-occur and pollinators are indiscriminate in their visitation patterns, flowers 134 likely experience heterospecific pollen transfer (HPT, Morales & Traveset, 2008) or 135 pollen loss (Buide et al., 2015). If pollen is incompatible this may just cause stigma 136 clogging (De Jager, Dreyer & Ellis, 2011), where heterospecific pollen prevents 137 conspecific pollen contacting the stigmas. If interbreeding barriers are weak or absent, 138 female function may be adversely affected due to ovule usurpation or production of 139 infertile hybrids at the expense of fertile offspring (Fishman & Wyatt 1999).

141 A number of studies have examined the effect of heterospecific pollen on fertility of 142 the recipient species (Thomson, Andrews & Plowright, 1981; Kwak & Jennerston, 1991; 143 Morales & Traveset, 2008) but few have specifically examined the effect of 144 heterospecific pollen from a closely related congener on reproductive success. One 145 exception, Arceo-Gómez & Ashman (2011), found that heterospecific pollen decreased 146 seed set and elevated seed abortion. De Jager et al. (2011) also found that application of 147 heterospecific pollen prior to conspecific pollen reduced seed set in coflowering Oxalis 148 species.

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150 Our aim was to determine both the pollination biology and what effect heterospecific 151 pollen had on the reproductive output of two species, each one of which was matched 152 with another with almost identical superficially actinomorphic flowers. To achieve this 153 we measured flowering period to investigate phenological isolation and observed bee 154 visits to two species. We used hand pollination to determine mating system and the effect 155 of HPT on fruit and seed set of two focal species. Collectively, these investigations 156 permitted us to evaluate evidence for negative impacts of heterospecific pollen transfer 157 and pre- vs. post-zygotic mechanisms of species maintenance. Our null hypothesis was 158 that heterospecific pollen would have no effect on fruit or seed set. However, because the 159 focal species coflower, are closely related (Sirisena, 2010) and have such similar flowers, 160 bees may not be able to distinguish between species. Thus, an alternative that may be 161 expected is that heterospecific pollen exchange may be common, and this may decrease 162 the reproductive output of the species.

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STUDY SPECIES AND AREA

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Pollination trials on *Thysanotus tenellus* Endl. and *T. triandrus* R.Br. (Asparagaceae) were recorded at the Nicholson Road Reserve  $(32^0 \ 02' \ 56.89'', 115^0 \ 55' \ 58.75'')$  in the Perth metropolitan region of southwestern Western Australia. The study site is an urban 171 reserve in a low lying area of the Bassendean landform system of the Swan Coastal Plain, 172 supporting relatively natural heathland vegetation with scattered emergent trees. The soil 173 profile is described as duplex with a sandy A horizon and a dense sandy clay B horizon 174 that becomes waterlogged in the lower areas in winter and early spring. The climate is 175 Mediterranean-type with cool winters and hot summers (average maximum annual 176 temperature 25.5 °C, minimum annual 13.4 °C) and rainfall is approximately 822mm/year 177 (Bureau of Meteorology, 2014, for the City of Gosnells, 1991-2013). All species occur in 178 the same area but do vary somewhat in density in different parts of the area (Supporting 179 Information Fig. S1).

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181 The flowering period of each species overlapped with a congeneric species that had an 182 almost identical flower form. Thysanotus species have very similar coloured and shaped, 183 broadly campanulate flowers. The flower colour is usually described in published 184 descriptions as purple but there may be slight variation between species (Fig. 1). The 185 flower colours of the four *Thysanotus* species in this study were quantified using an ASD 186 FieldSpec 4 Spectroradiometer (standard resolution) to confirm similarity of colour 187 across the visible and near-visible UV spectrum (350-700 nm; Supporting Information 188 Fig. S2).

Flowers last only a few hours, opening in the morning and closing about 5 - 6
hours later. All species have a gynoecium with a single papillate stigma, three locular
ovary and two ovules per loculus.

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193 Most of the species of *Thysanotus* are enatiostylous, buzz pollinated and there are 194 three anther configurations, two of which are represented in the species studied here (Fig. 195 1). There is no nectar and pollen is the only reward. *Thysanotus tenellus* is very similar to 196 a currently unpublished *Thysanotus* (*Thysanotus* sp. Coastal plain (N.H. Brittan 66/63) 197 referred to hereafter as T. sp.) and has six suberect, equal sized anthers (Table 1) that 198 generally cluster to one side of the gynoecium. Although T. sp. has not been 199 phylogenetically assessed, from the study by Sirisena (2010) it is likely to be in the same 200 clade as T. tenellus. In T. tenellus the style is only slightly longer than the anthers, while 201 in T. sp. the style is longer and hooked so the stigma is well above the anther pores but 202 faces towards them when the flower is open. Pollen is deposited on the ventral surface of 203 bees and in T. tenellus would be picked up from the same surface but in T. sp. pollen 204 reception is from the dorsal surface of a visitor. While this would seem an inefficient 205 method of pollen collection, the buzzing ejects pollen in all directions and some will land 206 on the side and back of any visiting bee. In T. triandrus, sister to the very similar T. 207 multiflorus R.Br., (Sirisena, 2010) there are three curved anthers (Table 1) to one side of 208 the gynoecium and the curved style brings the stigma to face the anther pores. Bees grasp 209 the anthers and pollen is deposited on the ventral surface but as in T. sp., pollen reception 210 is from the dorsal surface of the visitor.

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The plants were examined in three separate areas within the reserve that were delimited on the basis of fire history. Area A was burnt in 2000, is adjacent to (separated by a 3m wide track) area B burnt in 2002 and area D is long unburnt (> 20 years) and over 500m away from the other two areas with species varying in abundance but largely co-occurring (Supporting Information Fig. S1).

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### FLOWERING PHENOLOGY AND POLLINATOR VISITATION

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In 2013 all flowers of the four species were counted on most days during the flowering season in three areas (A, B and D) where they occur in the reserve. Phenological reproductive isolation was calculated between *T. tenellus* and *T.* sp. and between *T. multiflorus* and *T. triandrus* following Martin & Willis (2007) for the areas in which they co-occur. Phenological isolation quantifies the synchrony of flowering based on the proportion of each species flowering each day and is one where there is complete isolation and zero when there is complete overlap in time and number of flowers.

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At the same time as flowers were counted, pollinator activity was also measured in two ways. First, during flower counting flowers were scrutinized for pollinators as observers (PGL, EEB) travelled through the study site. These observation periods occurred from 20-30 days per year with each visit ~30 minutes in duration and included all focal species with qualitative estimates of pollinator activity recorded. Second, in November 2013, 233 focal flowers were regularly sampled to quantify pollinator visitation rates. T. triandrus 234 and T. multiflorus plants growing in close proximity were observed for 10 minute periods 235 during the morning (total 5.8 hours, 2700 flower hours) and bee visits were recorded. T. 236 tenellus was not sampled to quantify visitation rate because over the entire month of 237 flower counting not a single pollinator was observed (further, examination of open 238 flowers near their closing time in 2011, 2012, and 2013 showed that the vast majority of 239 flowers had no pollen on the petals indicating little to no visitation by bees; pers obs. P. 240 Ladd). 241 242 POLLINATION EXPERIMENTS 243 244 Mating system 245 246 Mating system manipulations were performed on plants in the field that were bagged 247 using black plastic mesh (2mm opening) that excluded any potential pollinators. Pollen 248 was obtained by slitting an anther to expose the pollen and applying the pollen to the 249 stigma of a flower while using a X12 jeweler's lens to ensure the pollen was correctly 250 placed. Treatments were autogamy (flowers unmanipulated), self (pollen from the same 251 flower), outcross (pollen from a plant over 4m from the recipient, flower emasculated). 252 From a floral anatomical point of view there are two pairs of species (Table 1) and these 253 have overlapping flowering times. Thus hybrid pollen crosses were also done to see if the 254 species would produce hybrid seed (manipulated flowers emasculated). In the two focal 255 species supplementary pollination of flowers on unbagged inflorescences was compared 256 with unmanipulated flowers tagged at the same time as the supplementary pollinations to 257 test for pollen limitation under natural conditions. Flower pedicels were tagged with 258 different coloured beads for different treatments. A self-incompatibility index (ISI) was 259 calculated from the mating system study (Zapata & Arroyo, 1978) as 1 – hand self 260 pollination (or autogamous treatment)/hand cross pollination. 261

262 Heterospecific pollen

264 To test whether heterospecific pollen inhibited the production of fruit, T. tenellus and T. 265 triandrus were used as recipients for pollen from T. sp. and T. multiflorus respectively. 266 Six T. triandrus plants with six or more inflorescences were selected (in area B) and 267 covered with mesh bags to prevent pollinator interaction. Six inflorescences were labeled 268 per plant, using different coloured labels for self pollination (3), and outcross pollination 269 (3). At 7.30am each day every flower on the labeled inflorescences was hand pollinated 270 with T. multiflorus pollen. At least an hour later, the flowers were pollinated with either 271 self or cross T. triandrus pollen, according to their tag. It was found that T. tenellus is 272 autogamous at the Nicholson Reserve but from the mating system experiment hybrid 273 pollen seemed to decrease fruit set so in a separate trial flowers were pollinated with 274 hybrid (T. sp.) pollen. At flower opening in the morning T. sp. pollen was applied to the 275 stigma of *T. tenellus* flowers (12 plants used) and flowers were tagged – a similar number 276 of non-manipulated flowers on each plant were also tagged as controls. As the interest 277 was in whether heterospecific pollen interfered with fruit set if the flowers were visited or 278 not, inflorescences were not bagged. As self pollen seems to be placed on stigmas before 279 flowers open, it was not possible to have a treatment of T. sp. pollen applied to 280 emasculated T. tenellus. In all cases any fruits that formed were harvested to count seeds 281 and the numbers of tagged flowers that did not set fruit were recorded. Unfortunately, it is 282 not possible to examine pollen tube growth in the styles because in *Thysanotus* aniline 283 blue-stained pollen tubes do not clearly fluoresce under ultraviolet light.

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Heterospecific pollination of *T. triandrus* on *T. multiflorus* and *T. tenellus* on *T.* sp. were assessed but only one plant of *T. multiflorus* and *T.* sp. was used so the results are preliminary and indicative only.

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# STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Fruit set and seed production data were analysed using generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs) in R 3.0.2 (R Core Team, 2013), using the lme4 package (Bates, Maechler & Bolker, 2012). Mean proportions and 95% confidence intervals were calculated and comparisons between pollination treatments were made graphically. Statisticalsignificance was assessed against an alpha level of 0.05.

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297 Analysis followed the suggestions of Bolker et al. (2009) for analysing non-298 normally distributed data that also include random effects. GLMMs were fit by maximum 299 likelihood using a binomial distribution with a logit link for fruit set data 300 (presence/absence). For seed set data (counts between 1 and 6), GLMMs were 301 implemented using a Poisson distribution with a log link. Parameter estimates were 302 determined by adaptive Gauss-Hermite Quadrature (GHQ), as recommended by Bolker et 303 al. (2009) for models with binomial and Poisson distributions that include less than three 304 random effects. GLMMs were also tested for overdispersion using overdisp\_fun(), and 305 no overdispersion was detected in any of the models.

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307 Mating system

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309 GLMMs were implemented for the proportion of flowers setting fruit, and the mean 310 number of seeds per fruit. For these GLMMs, pollen treatment was the predictor, and 311 plant number was the random effect. Open pollination was the baseline (control) to which 312 each pollination treatment was compared.

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314 Heterospecific pollen transfer

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316 To determine whether interspecific pollen transfer reduced reproductive success, the fruit 317 and seed set data from the HPT experiment were compared to the results obtained from 318 the mating systems experiment. The proportion of fruit with each possible seed number 319 (1-6) was also graphed for self and outcross pollination for T. triandrus, again comparing 320 interspecific pollen transfer to the mating systems experiment. Chi tests were used to 321 compare the frequencies for outcross and self pollinations between the mating system and 322 interspecific pollen transfer experiments. This occurred for the proportion setting fruit 323 and mean number of seeds per fruit.

### 325 326

### RESULTS

327 Fringe lilies flower sequentially from September (austral spring) through to December 328 (Fig. 2). T. tenellus and T. sp. are the first to flower followed by T. multiflorus starting in 329 early October and T. triandrus in early November (Fig. 2). Flowering of T. tenellus and 330 T. sp. is episodic with peaks and troughs relatively consistent between species, while 331 peak flowering of T. tenellus and T. sp. occurred at a similar time in both areas where 332 they co-occur (Table 1). While synchrony of flowering was broadly similar across the 333 three populations studied, variation in plant densities and therefore flower abundance 334 contributed to variation in phenological reproductive isolation (RI). More flowers of T. 335 tenellus occurred in area D and less of T. sp. giving T. tenellus a higher RI value than the 336 other species while the opposite was true in area B. In the second species pair synchrony, 337 peak flowering of T. triandrus was 19 days later than that of T. multiflorus in area A and 338 RI was higher for T. triandrus than T. multiflorus. Across their range, these two species 339 rarely co-occur (Brittan, 1987), but were intermixed in area A but not area B (only 340 separated by 30-70m, well within pollinator flight distance).

341

Flowers of *T. triandrus* and *T. multiflorus* have very similar measured colour spectra, as do *T. tenellus* and *T.* sp. (Supporting Information Fig. S2) with peaks coincident with bee blue spectral reception.

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*T. triandrus* has a mixed mating system (ISI 0.56) however self pollen results in
significantly reduced (< 50%) fruit and seed set (Fig. 3, Supporting Information Table</li>
S1) compared with outcross pollen. Self pollination resulted in only one or two seeds per
fruit while outcross pollination generally produces three to six seeds. Sixty-one percent of
fruits from outcross pollen had six seeds while only 5% had one seed. There was no
evidence of autogamy.

352

In open pollinated flowers, there was a low number of seeds per fruit. This matched the number of seeds per fruit in the self pollination treatment, which indicates 355 that most fruit were the product of geitonogamy (Fig. 3). So, while there is some 356 reproductive assurance, this is relatively weak.

357

Fruit and seed set did not differ in *T. tenellus* between autogamous, self and outcross pollination. (ISI = 0.1, Fig. 3, Supporting Information Table S2). The species has prior selfing (*sensu* Lloyd, 1979) as it was found that 88% of stigmas (n = 20) from just opened (unvisited) flowers carried 4.7  $\pm$ 1.0 (SE) pollen grains. Hybrid pollination between *T. tenellus* and *T.* sp. with *T. tenellus* as the pollen recipient produced lower (although not significantly lower) fruit and seed set with more variability than intraspecific pollination (Fig. 3B; Fig. 3D).

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366 Pollen content for *T. tenellus* is about half that of *T.* sp. (Table 1) while the pollen 367 content and colour spectra for T. multiflorus and T. triandrus are almost identical (Table 368 1, Supporting Information Fig. S2). Blue-banded bees (Amegilla chlorocyanea [Cockerell 369 1914)) visit both T. triandrus and T. multiflorus indiscriminately. In area A, where T. 370 multiflorus and T. triandrus grow together, A. chlorocyanea were seen flying from 371 flowers on one species to flowers of the other (often backwards and forwards) 11 times 372 during 500 minutes of pollinator observations (2700 flower hours). Visits to T. 373 *multiflorus* plants only were observed on two occasions, and to T. triandrus only on one 374 occasion. No bees were observed on the other two species and observations of flowers to 375 assess possible visitation in 2013 showed few flowers had been visited (often none) on 376 the days they were observed.

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Pollination of unbagged flowers of *T. tenellus* with pollen of *T.* sp. produced the same fruit and seed set as control (open pollinated) flowers (Fig. 3). The aim of this HPT trial was to determine if heterospecific pollen had any effect on fruit or seed set and the results show there was no effect. However it is not possible to decide if the seed produced is the result of early acting autogamy or hybridization, although the lack of seed set in the reverse cross of *T. tenellus* pollen on *T.* sp. stigmas suggests it is unlikely hybrid seed would be produced (Table 2).

In *T. triandrus* heterospecific pollen produced no effect on fruit ( $\chi^2_{[1]} = 0.29$ , p>0.05) or seed set ( $\chi^2_{[1]} = 0.86$ , p>0.05; Fig. 3A; Fig. 3C). Subsequent application of self or outcross pollen (after heterospecific pollen) produced almost exactly the same fruit and seed set as in the mating experiment (Fig. 3A; Fig. 3C). Self pollination produced fewer fruit than outcross and fruits contained one or two seeds/fruit from self pollen and greater than three for outcross pollen. In the present study there was only one fruit with one seed produced from 39 hybrid pollinations with *T. triandrus* as the female (Table 2).

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#### DISCUSSION

396 The study of the effect of heterospecific pollen on reproductive output in T. tenellus and 397 T. triandrus examined the extent of reproductive isolation between two pairs of species 398 that are closely related and have similar flowers. It might be expected that the more 399 distantly related the heterospecific pollen donor is to the recipient the less likelihood there 400 would be of an adverse effect (Ashman & Arceo-Gomez, 2013) unless there is some sort 401 of allelopathic interaction (e.g. as found by Sukada & Jayachandra, 1980 and Thomson et 402 al., 1981). Heterospecific pollen made no difference to fruit or seed set for T. triandrus 403 when conspecific pollen was later applied. In contrast to the results for *Mimulus guttatus* 404 DC. (Arceo-Gomez & Ashman, 2014) self pollen did not have a more severe reduction in 405 seed set than outcross pollen added after the heterospecific pollen. The proportion of 406 flowers setting fruit after receiving heterospecific pollen was almost exactly the same as 407 found in the mating system experiment for both self and cross pollen. Similarly, T. sp. 408 pollen had no effect on fruit or seed set in T. tenellus. Other studies have also found no 409 detectable effect after heterospecific pollination (e.g. Kwak & Jennersten, 1991; Caruso 410 & Alfaro, 2000; Harder, 2000) but in most cases the species were not closely related. In 411 contrast experiments on the effect of heterospecific pollen in *Mimulus guttatus* using a 412 closely related congener (M. nudatus Curran ex Greene) showed the M. nudatus pollen 413 mimicked the pollination reaction of conspecific pollen but seed set was reduced due to 414 ovule usurpation (Arceo-Gomez & Ashman, 2011). In T. triandrus there is no evidence 415 of such a deleterious effect. Unpublished data, reported in Brittan (1981), suggested that 416 T. triandrus and T. multiflorus are capable of interbreeding. However, tests for 417 hybridisation with plants from our study site showed that *T. triandrus* success with *T.*418 *multiflorus* pollen is very low (Table 2).

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420 Pollination in T. tenellus at Nicholson Road Reserve is autogamous and the 421 species has prior selfing (sensu Lloyd, 1979). This has not been reported in other buzz 422 pollinated species that would normally need a bee to release the pollen from the anthers. 423 Autogamy has been considered to provide reproductive assurance under conditions of 424 pollen limitation (Morgan & Wilson, 2005; Kennedy & Elle, 2008; De Waal, Anderson 425 & Ellis, 2015; Buide et al., 2015) and has been invoked as a strategy that reduced the 426 effect of heterospecific pollen deposition from Arenaria glabra Michx. on the closely 427 related A. uniflora Poir. (Fishman & Wyatt, 1999). However for T. tenellus (unlike A. 428 glabra) heterospecific pollen had no significant detrimental effect on fruit or seed set. 429 This might be considered to have been due to the fact that the stigmas have conspecific 430 pollen on them when flowers opened. While it is not entirely clear when the pollen 431 reaches the stigma in buds of *T. tenellus*, this is unlikely to be a long time before the 432 flower is opened. When the stigmas of just-opened flowers were examined, only 0.7% of 433 pollen grains on the stigmas had emergent pollen tubes and these were very short. Thus 434 pollen tube growth would have been at a similar time for both the con- and heterospecific 435 pollen. The prior selfing does however provide good reproductive assurance as shown by 436 consistent high fruit and seed set at the same sites (Ladd unpublished data), so the species 437 has escaped pollen limitation. Because T. tenellus has prior selfing it is not possible to be 438 certain if hybrid pollination can produce fruit or not. However the reciprocal cross of T. 439 tenellus pollen on T. sp. female produced only 2 fruit with 1 and 2 seeds indicating that 440 there is a low probability of hybrid progeny being produced (Table 2).

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Unlike *T. tenellus*, fruit and seed set in *T. triandrus* is pollen limited, as is commonly found in animal pollinated plants (Aizen & Harder, 2007) and species with evolutionarily specialised flowers tend to be more pollen limited than species with unspecialised flowers (Lázaro, Lundgren & Totland, 2014). Buzz pollination is a relatively specialised system in which there is selection for flower visitors that can sonicate the anthers. It has been suggested that it is a system that provides precise pollen 448 deposition on a bee's body (Harder & Wilson, 1997) so this should be important in 449 limiting HPT. This may be the case in flowers with the *Solanum* L. and *Dodecatheon* L. 450 type of floral morphology where pollen deposition and collection is on a relatively 451 restricted part of the ventral surface of a bee but other floral morphologies associated 452 with buzz pollination tend to have less precise pollen placement on a visitor. In three 453 species of *Pedicularis* L. there was variation in the modal location of pollen deposition on 454 bumblebee visitors but there was also deposition on other parts of the visitor's body. 455 Similarly, stigma contact from the same species on the pollinator was not 100% precise 456 so although the pollen deposition and receipt from the insect's body could contribute to 457 reproductive isolation it would not eliminate interspecific pollen transfer (Huang & Shi, 458 2013). Thus the adaptive accuracy (sensu Armbruster et al., 2009) is relatively low. This 459 is also the case with the *Thysanotus* species. In the four species studied here pollen is 460 mainly deposited on the ventral surface of the bee and the position of anthers and stigma 461 in *T. tenellus* would easily lead to facilitated selfing if the population at our study site was 462 not already autogamous. In the other species however, the stigma location leads to pollen 463 collection from the dorsal surface of the bee - poor adaptive accuracy. In Thysanotus, 464 buzz pollination is "messy" and is one of the features that allows assessment of whether 465 flowers have been visited or not. In visited flowers pollen is usually obvious on the 466 tepals, style and outer anther surfaces. In a buzz pollinated species dichogamy is not 467 adaptive as stigmas need to be receptive when pollinators visit for pollen, especially if the 468 flower has a very limited lifespan. As noted by Armbruster *et al.*, (2009) the low adaptive 469 accuracy may be related to increased herkogamy (the three non autogamous species have 470 herkogamy distances of over 2mm) that is more useful to buzz pollinated species to limit 471 selfing than is dichogamy.

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The almost identical flower colour and morphology point towards a lack of any isolating factor that would allow a visitor to discriminate between flowers of *T. tenellus* and *T.* sp. or between T. *triandrus* and *T. multiflorus*. Reproductive isolation cannot be effected by morphological differences between the flowers of the two species pairs and pollinators are unlikely to distinguish between them.

479 It has been suggested that interspecific pollinator visits incur a cost to any visited 480 species through lowered male fitness due to pollen "misplacement" (Muchhala & 481 Thomson 2012). This is unlikely in *Thysanotus* species because during buzzing pollen is 482 often scattered over the pollinator and adjacent parts of the flower. This makes it difficult 483 for a pollinator to gather all the pollen it has released so some will always still be 484 available for transfer to a stigma. There is the possibility that differential growth rates of 485 self and outcross pollen tubes may explain the lack of effect of HPT in the species 486 examined here. Despite heterospecific pollen being applied at least an hour before 487 conspecific pollen in T. triandrus, if heterospecific pollen tubes grew more slowly than 488 conspecific tubes it may be that with only six ovules available, faster growing conspecific 489 tubes could reach all the ovules before heterospecific tubes. Unfortunately it is not 490 possible to examine pollen tube growth in the style due to a lack of clear pollen tube 491 fluorescence.

492

493 While complex flowers with specialised requirements for successful pollination 494 may have strong premating isolation this limits their opportunities for reproduction if 495 their specialised pollinator is absent (e.g. Bond, 1994). Post mating isolation is a more 496 appropriate strategy if poor pollinator visitation is a regular problem, as overall 497 community flowering will ensure some pollinators are present that might visit the 498 flowers. Buzz pollinated species have an advantage as pollen is necessary for bee 499 reproductive success (Carr *et al.*, 2015) and flowers that increase an insect's learning time 500 tend to engender a greater constancy in pollinators (Armbruster, 2014). A consistent 501 search image is likely to benefit buzz pollinated species overall as bees that are 502 accustomed to the floral form (Goulson, 1999) and colour will reliably visit even if the 503 flowers are of different species. At Nicholson Road Reserve there are seven Thysanotus 504 species that flower sequentially from late winter through to summer (Ladd pers obs). The 505 closely similar flower form and colour would ensure consistent pollinator servicing as 506 pollinators would swap from the species declining in flowering as another species began.

507

508 The focal species have different forms of reproductive assurance, as found in 509 *Silene ramosissima* Desf. and *S. nicaeensis* All. (Buide *et al.*, 2015). Heterospecific

510	pollen had no detrimental effect on fruit or seeds set of the focal species and the
511	formation of hybrid seed from T. triandrus, T. multiflorus and T. sp. was very low or did
512	not occur at all, so it is likely there is post mating reproductive isolation between the
513	species. This is similar to results reported for buzz pollinated Pedicularis (Mao, 2010
514	cited in Huang & Shi, 2013) and may be a feature of buzz pollinated species in general.
515	The situation for T. tenellus remains unclear as it is autogamous with prior selfing and it
516	is not possible to tell if hybrid seed can be produced from $T$ . sp. pollen. Nevertheless, this
517	seems unlikely as the reverse cross of T. tenellus pollen on T. sp. stigmas produced
518	almost no seed set.
519	
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523	Herbarium confirmed the identity of the Thysanotus species.
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Table 1. Characteristics of the species, \* indicates the focal species with a floral form almost identical to the species listed below it in
 the table. HC – hemicryptophyte, abs – absent, na – not assessed

Species	Plant form	Flower diam (cm)	Inflorescence type	Anthers	Pollen/ flower ±CI	Style form	Infertile fruit retained for some time	Phenolog (Date of a	tical isolatic maximum f	on in 2013 Towering)
								Area A	Area B	Area D
* <i>T. tenellus</i> Endl.	Geophyte	1.9 ± 0.1	Open panicle	6 equal, straight, free	36,158 ± 3,077	Straight	No	abs	0.322 (16 Oct)	0.057 (9 Oct)
<i>T</i> . sp.	Geophyte	$2.5 \pm 0.1$	Open panicle	6 equal, straight, free	93,118 ± 11,201	Hooked	No	abs	0.075 (16 Oct)	0.327 (5 Oct)
* <i>T. triandrus</i> (Labill.) R.Br.	HC		Large umbel	3 equal, curved, free	361,806± 30,537	Curved	Yes	0.662 (18 Nov)	1 (18 Nov)	abs
T. multiflorus R.Br.	HC	$3.0 \pm 0.1$	Large umbel	3 equal, curved, free	374,445 ± 54,107	Curved	Yes	0.549 (31 Oct)	1 (27 Oct)	na

Table 2. Fruit and seed production from hybrid trials between the two pairs of species. Comparisons are with outcross conspecific

695 pollination of the female.

Female (pollen	T. tenellus	<i>T. sp.</i>	T. triandrus	T. multiflorus
recipient)				
Number of crosses	184	24	39	25

	Pollen donor	<i>T. sp.</i>	T. tenellus	T. multiflorus	T. triandrus
	Fruit and seed set	No change	Very small	Very small	0
697 698	Figure captions				
699					
700	Figure 1. A) T. tenellus, B) T. sp., C) T. triandrus, D) T. multiflorus, flower diameters are listed in Table 1.				
701					
702	Figure 2. Flowering phenology of the four Thysanotus species in 2013. Flower counts for T. multiflorus and T. triandrus were from				
703	area A, T. sp. from area B and T. tenellus from area D.				
704					
705	Figure 3. Results of the breeding system on mean fruit set (A, B) and mean seed set (C, D) in <i>T. triandrus</i> (left) and <i>T. tenellus</i> (right).				
706	Results of the heterospecific pollination trial are shown in light grey. HPT cross: T. multiflorus pollen was added to T. triandrus,				
707	followed by later outcross pollen. HPT self: T. multiflorus pollen was added to T. triandrus, followed by later self pollen. HPT only: T.				
708	tenellus received T. sp. pollen only. Sample sizes are given at the base of each column, and bars are 95% confidence intervals.				
709					
710	Supporting Information Figure S1. Distribution of the four species in the three study areas at Nicholson Road Reserve that were				
711	originally delimited by time since fire. A – Fire in 2001; B fire in 2002; D date of last fire unknown but before 2000. Blocks indicate				
712	notional density of each species.				
713					
714	Supporting Information Figure S2. Colour spectra of the flowers of four Thysanotus species and photoreceptor spectra for the bee				
715	Osmia rufa (Menzel et al., 1988).				