- 1 Reproductive biology of the invasive exotic shrub, *Rhododendron ponticum* L.
- 2 (Ericaceae)
- 3

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1 Abstract

2 The reproductive biology of an exotic species will affect its ability to become naturalised and 3 invasive in non-native habitats. Rhododendron ponticum is an ecologically damaging exotic 4 weed in the British Isles, which spreads predominantly by seed. I investigated how inbreeding 5 and out-crossing affect seed production and germination in a wild population of this species in 6 Ireland. Experimental manipulations revealed low fruit and seed set when insects were 7 excluded from flowers, suggesting that this species has limited capability for spontaneous 8 autogamy. Hand-pollination treatments showed that although flowers are self-compatible 9 (with self and same plant pollen), higher levels of seed set occur following outcrossing 10 (xenogamy). There was no significant difference in rate of germination of seeds from inbred 11 or outcrossed treatments. The addition of xenogamous pollen to open flowers did not increase 12 fruit or seed set, suggesting that flowers in this population are not pollen limited: native 13 generalist pollinators, mainly bumblebees (Bombus spp.), are providing an adequate pollinator 14 service. This work demonstrates that outcrossing increases seed set and pollinators are 15 required to facilitate this. Hence generalist native pollinators can promote invasion by exotic 16 plants. Native pollinators can clearly play an important part in alien species invasion.

17

18 Keywords

19 fruit set - hand-pollination - inbreeding - invasion - out-crossing - pollination - seed
20 production

1 Introduction

2 Although many exotic species are introduced into non-native habitats, only a fraction become 3 invasive (Williamson, 1994; Mack et al., 2000; Mooney & Cleland, 2001). Successful 4 invasion involves a number of stages including introduction, establishment and range 5 expansion (Andow et al., 1990). A significant factor affecting invasion is the mode of 6 reproduction of a species. Plants capable of vegetative spread may easily expand their ranges 7 in suitable habitats, and some clonal plants have been notoriously successful, for example 8 Fallopia japonica (Houtt.) Ronse Decraene (Japanese knotweed) (Hollingsworth & Bailey, 9 2000). In sexually reproducing species, breeding system characteristics, such as self-10 compatibility, outcrossing rate and method of pollen and seed dispersal can dramatically 11 influence population dynamics and invasion (Kittelson & Maron, 2000).

12

13 Entomophilous species, artificially introduced into habitats that lack their mutualistic insect 14 pollinators, may set seed as a result of apomixis (asexual seed production), autogamy 15 (spontaneous self pollination in open flowers) or cleistogamy (the production of specialised 16 closed flowers) (Spencer, Kennedy & Gray, 1996). Indeed, in species with a mixed mating 17 system, a lack of pollinators can promote increased self-pollination (e.g. Redbotorstensson & 18 Berg, 1995; Kalisz & Vogler, 2003). Invasive exotic plants are often capable of self-19 fertilisation, and this is frequently cited as a mechanism for successful invasion (Baker, 1965; 20 Williamson & Brown, 1986; Rambuda & Johnson, 2004; but see Williamson & Fitter, 1996). 21 On the other hand, obligate out-crossers, or those that require facilitation by pollinators, may 22 be reproductively constrained by a lack of pollinator visitation (Burd, 1994; Parker, 1997; 23 Larson & Barrett, 1999). Species which rely on specialised mutualistic interactions with 24 pollinators may completely fail to set seed in exotic habitats (Richardson et al., 2000). Most 25 plants do not rely on specialist pollinators, however, and generalist native pollinators can

facilitate adequate xenogamy (Stary & Tkalcu, 1998; Richardson *et al.*, 2000; Mooney &
 Cleeland, 2001; Chittka & Schurkens, 2001).

3

4 Generalist pollinators often visit exotic plants, and many successful aliens produce large floral 5 displays (Ghazoul, 2002). The size of the floral display can affect the behaviour of pollinators 6 (Klinkhamer et al., 1989; Goulson et al., 1998). This influences not only the quantity of 7 pollinating visits, but also the quality of the pollination service received. The production of 8 many flowers can increase pollinator visitation (Augspurger, 1980; Geber, 1985; Klinkhamer, 9 de Jong & de Bruyn, 1989; Klinkhamer & de Jong, 1990; Stout, 2000), which may result in 10 increased reproductive success. Alternatively, plants with large floral displays may suffer 11 from inbreeding as a result of increased geitonogamy (within-plant pollen transfer) (Geber, 1985; de Jong et al., 1992; de Jong, Waser & Klinkhamer, 1993; Klinkhamer & de Jong, 12 13 1993). Inbreeding can reduce individual fitness through decreased fruit and seed production, 14 seed germination, and growth and fertility of inbred offspring (Keller & Waller, 2002; 15 Wallace, 2003). In addition, at the population level, inbreeding can result changes in genetic 16 diversity and affect the ability of a population to cope with environmental change (Lande, 17 1995). Inbreeding rates may already be relatively high in exotic plant populations since many 18 exotic plants form small isolated populations of genetically similar individuals, or are 19 descended from small founder populations (Lee et al., 2004). Having said that, low genetic 20 diversity does not necessarily restrict plant invasion and some invasive plants display little 21 genetic variation within populations (Poulin, Weller & Sakai, 2005).

22

23 Study species:

24 Rhododendron ponticum L. (Ericaceae) is a highly invasive shrub in several regions in north-

25 western Europe (Cronk & Fuller, 1995). Its spread is facilitated by successful seedling

1 recruitment, which results from the production of prolific numbers of small, viable, wind 2 dispersed seeds each year (Brown, 1953; Cronk & Fuller, 1995). Seeds are produced sexually 3 rather than as a result of apomixis, and cleistogamy is not known to occur (Cross, 1975). 4 Naturalised populations in Britain and Ireland are thought to have descended from Spanish 5 ancestors, but introgression with North American Rhododendron species has occurred in 6 many populations (Milne & Abbott, 2000). This could have affected the breeding system of 7 *R. ponticum* in the British Isles compared with ancestral populations in Spain (Mejías, Arroyo 8 & Ojeda, 2002), but no previous studies have determined that this is the case.

9

10 Naturalised R. ponticum has been presumed to be insect pollinated because it produces a 11 massive floral display of large (>60 mm corolla diameter), bright pink/purple flowers that 12 secrete profuse volumes of nectar, flowers are protandrous and anthers are poricidal (although 13 natural vibrations can release pollen; King & Buchmann, 1995). Various Hymenoptera, 14 Diptera and Lepidoptera have been cited as pollinators (Cross, 1975; Cronk & Fuller, 1995). 15 Recently, it has been revealed that a range of insects visit flowers in native (Spanish) and 16 exotic (Irish) habitats, many of which pick up and transport pollen (Mejías et al., 2002, Stout 17 et al., 2006). Observations of pollinator behaviour suggest that levels of geitonogamy (within-18 plant pollen transfer) are high in Irish populations (Stout, 2007). The impacts of inbreeding on 19 fruit production in native populations has been shown to be negligable (Mejías et al., 2002), 20 but nothing is known about the reproductive biology or breeding system of R. ponticum in its 21 exotic range (Rotherham, 2001).

22

In this paper, I investigate the breeding system of exotic *R. ponticum*. Specifically, I test thefollowing hypotheses:

25

1. Exotic *R. ponticum* is capable of autogamous self-pollination

- Pollination limitation reduces natural levels of seed production
 Inbreeding affects both the quantity and quality of seed produced (in terms of proportion of fruit set, number of seeds produced and germination success)
- +
- 5

6 Materials and Methods

7 Breeding experiments were performed on a wild population of Rhododendron ponticum 8 plants at Howth Head (Co. Dublin) in 2003. Twelve treatments were set up on each of five 9 plants (a randomised block design) (see Table 1). Individual plants were at least 5m apart to 10 avoid treating clones (which arise as a result of short-distance vegetative spread via layering). 11 On each plant, each treatment was performed on all flowers on a single inflorescence; on 12 average, 12.97 flowers were treated per inflorescence (SE 0.57). Insects were excluded from 13 appropriate treatments by bagging inflorescences with bridal veil material (<1 mm mesh) on 1st May 2003, before flower buds opened. Plants were visited every 3-7 days during May and 14 15 June 2003 to perform hand pollinations or to emasculate flowers as necessary. When 16 appropriate, individual flowers were hand pollinated at least twice during the period they were 17 open. To test for spontaneous autogamy (treatment 1), inflorescences were bagged and no 18 further manipulation was carried out. To test for facilitated autogamy (treatment 2), 19 inflorescences were bagged, and flowers self-pollinated by bending anthers to apply pollen 20 directly onto stigmas of the same flowers. For geitonogamy and xenogamy treatments (3 and 21 4 respectively), inflorescences were bagged, and pollen was applied by hand by picking 22 dehiscing stamens from randomly selected donor flowers (from the same or different plants 23 respectively) and applying pollen directly from these anthers onto the stigmas of recipient 24 flowers. To test whether same-flower pollen contributes to pollination success, I used 25 additional treatments, similar to 3 and 4, but flowers were emasculated prior to opening (by

carefully prising apart petals and removing immature anthers from flowers with tweezers)
(treatments 5 and 6). To test whether the emasculation technique was reliable, and to test for
apomixis, additional bagged, emasculated flowers received no further manipulation (treatment
7). Treatment 8 consisted of open untreated flowers, representing seed set under natural, nonmanipulated conditions. Treatments 9, 10 and 11 were equivalent to 2, 3 and 4 but
inflorescences were not bagged. To examine levels of pollen receipt from different flowers
(geitonogamous and/or xenogamous), treatment 12 consisted of open, emasculated flowers.

At the end of the flowering period (29th June 2003) bags were removed to prevent any damage 9 10 to developing fruits. Although fruits do not usually dehisce until January/February, seeds are 11 ripe by December (Cross, 1975). Fruits from all treatments were collected at the end of 12 November 2003 to ensure no seeds were lost during dehiscence. Fruit lengths were measured 13 and fruits were stored at room temperature (approximately 20-23°C) in individual paper cases 14 to allow them to dry out. Once seeds were released, they were counted from a sample of 111 15 fruits. Seeds are small (~2mm in length), but mature seeds are easily distinguished from much 16 smaller (<0.5mm in length) undeveloped ovules. Only mature seeds were counted.

17

18 In addition, once seeds were released, germination trials were conducted. Twenty mature 19 seeds were taken from a randomly selected fruit from each plant for each treatment, except 20 treatment 7 (emasculated and bagged) where no seeds were produced. Some fruits from 21 treatment 1 (spontaneous autogamy) contained less than 20 seeds, and so as many seeds as 22 were available were selected (plants 1, 3 and 4 produced 9, 6 and 0 seeds respectively). Seeds 23 were placed in Petri dishes lined with filter paper (Whatman Type 1), watered daily with 0.5-24 1 ml of deionised water as necessary. Light is essential for germination of *R. ponticum* seeds (Cross, 1981) and so Petri dishes were covered with transparent lids. Petri dishes were 25

randomly arranged to reduce position and edge effects and kept at room temperature. The
 number of germinations (determined by the appearance of both cotyledons) were measured
 every 1-5 days for 50 days.

4

5 Data analysis

6 The relationship between fruit length and the number of seeds per fruit was not linear and so 7 was analysed using quadratic regression analysis. Subsequently, the number of seeds 8 produced per fruit from each treatment was estimated from this equation. The proportion of 9 fruit set was calculated as the number of fruits produced per inflorescence divided by the 10 number of flowers on that inflorescence at the time of flowering. Comparisons of proportion 11 of fruit set and mean fruit length were made using ANOVA for Randomised Complete Blocks 12 (RCB) with each plant representing a fixed block (Sokal & Rohlf, 1995). To determine 13 whether flowers are capable of autogamous self-pollination in the absence of insects, fruits 14 from treatment 1 (bagged flowers) were compared with fruits from treatment 8 (open 15 flowers). Similarly, to establish the effect of self pollination versus outbreeding on seed 16 production, fruits from treatments 2, 3 and 4, and, separately, 9, 10 and 11, and, separately, 5 17 and 6 were compared; and when significant differences were found, post-hoc Student-18 Newman-Keuls (SNK) tests were used to determine groupings. To establish the occurrence 19 and impact of self pollination, non-emasculated and equivalent emasculated treatments were 20 compared. To determine whether flowers were pollen limited, treatment 11 was compared 21 with treatment 8, assuming that maximum fruit set occurred in open flowers with additional 22 outcross pollen added by hand.

1	Self compatibility indicies (SCI) and an auto-fertility index (AFI) were also calculated for the
2	population, by calculating values for each plant and then obtaining a mean for the population,
3	using the following according to Lloyd & Schoen (1992):
4	
5	SCI (within flower) = mean seed set after facilitated selfing (treatment 2) / mean seed set after
6	xenogamy (treatment 6)
7	
8	SCI (between flowers) = mean seed set after geitonogamy (treatment 3) / mean seed set after
9	xenogamy (treatment 6)
10	
11	AFI = mean seed set after spontaneous autogamy (treatment 1) / mean seed set after
12	xenogamy (treatment 6)
13	
14	The SCI ranges from 0 to greater than 1, with 1 representing full self-compatibility, and
15	values <0.75 interpreted as representing self-incompatibility (Lloyd & Schoen 1992). The
16	AFI represents the ability of flowers to self-fertilise in the absence of pollinators (Escaravage
17	<i>et al.</i> , 1997).
18	
19	The proportion of seeds germinated (i.e. developing both cotyledon leaves) for each plant in
20	each treatment was calculated per day. The proportion germinated on five days during the
21	germination period (day 20, 31, 40 and 50) were compared among treatments using RCB
22	ANOVA, again with each plant representing a fixed block (Sokal & Rohlf, 1981). Open
23	treatments 8 – 12 may have received self/geitonogamous pollen in addition to outcross pollen,
24	and so these treatments were analysed separately.
25	

1 Results

2 There was a positive relationship between fruit length and the number of seeds per fruit (Fig.

3 1). Quadratic regression analysis revealed this relationship to be highly significant ($F_{2,108} =$

4 265.5, p < 0.0001, the model explaining 83% of the variance). Fruits <6.5 mm in length

5 contained no seeds. There were no significant effects of plants (blocks) in any of the RCB

- 6 analyses below.
- 7

8 Autogamous self-pollination

9 When insects were excluded from flowers, but no additional pollen was added (treatment 1),

10 just under half of all flowers produced a fruit (mean fruit set \pm SD: 0.45 \pm 0.27), but these

fruits were very small and most did not contain seeds (mean number of seeds \pm SD: 29.81 \pm

12 43.81). When insects were not excluded, but no additional pollen was added (treatment 8),

fruit and seed production was higher (mean \pm SD fruit set: 0.91 \pm 0.08; number of seeds:

14 405.99 \pm 294.28). The differences between treatments 1 and 8 were significant (fruit set: $F_{1,4}$

15 = 9.41, p = 0.04; fruit length: $F_{1,4} = 21.77$, p = 0.010).

16

17 Facilitated self pollination vs. geitonogamy vs. xenogamy

18 Seed set increased when geitonogamous or out-cross pollen was added, both when insects

19 were excluded from flowers (treatments 2, 3 and 4: fruit set: $F_{2,8} = 5.11$, p = 0.04; fruit length:

20 $F_{2,8} = 22.33$, p = 0.001) and when they were not excluded (treatments 9, 10 and 11: fruit set:

21 $F_{2,8} = 4.97, p = 0.04$; fruit length: $F_{2,8} = 10.15, p = 0.006$) (Fig. 2). Post-hoc tests revealed

significant differences in fruit length between all treatments when insects were excluded (p < p

23 0.05), but failed to resolve differences between other groups.

24

25 Effect of emasculation

Although emasculated bagged flowers (treatment 7) occasionally produced small fruits, these fruits contained no seeds. Hence both emasculation and bagging appear to be reliable methods for excluding pollen and flowers do not appear to be capable of seed production via apomixis. There were no significant differences in fruit set or fruit length between emasculated and nonemasculated treatments (Fig. 3). There was no significant difference between emasculated flowers hand-pollinated with geitonogamous or xenogamous pollen (treatments 5 and 6: fruit set: $F_{1,4} = 1$, p = 0.37; fruit length: $F_{1,4} = 0.92$, p = 0.39).

8

9 *Pollen limitation*

10 When additional out-cross pollen was added to open flowers (treatment 11), 100% fruit set

11 was achieved, with a mean of 594.79 seeds per fruit (SD = 204.74). Although fruit set and

12 send number were higher than open pollinated flowers (treatment 8, mean \pm SD, fruit set: 0.91

13 \pm 0.08; number of seeds: 405.99 \pm 294.28), these differences were not significant (fruit set:

14 $F_{1,4} = 5.94, p = 0.07$; fruit length: $F_{1,4} = 0.86, p = 0.41$).

15

16 Self compatibility and auto-fertility

17 The mean self compatibility index (SCI) was 0.24 (within flowers) and 0.69 (between flowers

18 on the same plant) (standard deviation = 0.24 and 0.46 respectively). In addition, the auto-

19 fertility index (AFI) was 0.044 (SD=0.06).

20

21 Germination success

22 There were significant differences among treatments 1-6 on day 31 ($F_{5,20}$ = 3.307, p = 0.024)

but this difference had disappeared by day 40 and 50. Throughout the trial period, the

24 proportion of seeds germinated from the out-crossed treatments (4 and 6) was higher than

25 seeds produced by geitonogamy (3 and 5), which was higher than seeds produced by selfing

(1 and 2, Fig. 4). There were no significant differences in germination success among open
 treatments (8-12) at any time point.

3

4 **Discussion**

5 Although it has long been recognised that the prolific seed production of *Rhododendron* 6 ponticum has facilitated its invasion in many parts of Britain and Ireland (Brown, 1953; 7 Cross, 1981), the breeding system has been unclear. I found that insect exclusion severely 8 reduces fruit and seed set. In addition, the calculated AFI was extremely low, indicating a 9 minimal ability to spontaneously self-fertilise in naturalised exotic populations. This can be 10 explained by 1) protandry within flowers and 2) poricidal anthers which require vibration for 11 pollen release. This is also the case in ancestral Spanish populations (Mejías et al., 2002). It 12 has been predicted that reliance on insect visitation for seed production should be unusual 13 among highly invasive taxa (Baker, 1965) and there are some famous examples of invading 14 exotics that are chiefly autogamous (e.g. cheatgrass, Bromus tectorum, and Hottentot fig, 15 Carpobrotus edulis, in North America, Richardson et al., 2000). However, there are other 16 notable alien invaders that are outcrossers and require pollinator visitation (e.g scotch broom, 17 Cytisus scoparius, Parker, 1997, Lantana camara, Goulson & Derwent, 2004). R. ponticum 18 appears to fall into the latter category.

19

Long-lived woody plants, with multiple flowering episodes throughout their life, tend not to
depend upon spontaneous autogamy and generally show low levels of self-compatibility
(Stebbins, 1965; Rambuda & Johnson, 2004). Self-sterility has been demonstrated in six *Rhododendron* species from Hong Kong (Ng & Corlett, 2000), but *R. ferrugineum*, a distantly
related Euopean species, shows high levels of self-compatibility (Escaravage *et al.*, 1997). *R. ponticum* also appears to be partially self compatible: I found that hand-selfing, via facilitated

1 autogamy and particularly by geitonogamy, resulted in fruit and seed set. Geitonogamous 2 pollination probably increased fruit and seed set in relation to facilitated selfing due to 3 protandry limiting within-flower fertilisation. The facilitated selfing carried out in this study 4 may simply have transferred pollen onto immature stigmas. It is unlikely that physical or 5 chemical self incompatibility (SI) mechanisms, common in other taxa, exist in *R. ponticum* to 6 prevent self-fertilisation (Silva & Goring, 2001; Hiscock & McInnis, 2003). When compared 7 with non-emasculated treatments, emasculation had no significant effect on fruit and seed set. 8 This supports the notion that within-flower selfing is not an important component of the 9 breeding system, and that emasculation does not affect stigma or style receptivity or 10 attractiveness of flowers to pollinators (Dafni, 1992 and references therein).

11

12 In Spain, Mejías et al. (2002) demonstrated that reproductive success from facilitated self 13 pollination was not significantly different to out-crossing. However, I found that the addition 14 of xenogamous pollen to bagged flowers significantly increased seed set when compared with 15 any of the inbred treatments. Therefore it may be concluded that seed quantity is adversely 16 affected by inbreeding. However, these seeds displayed no significant increase in germination 17 success, indicating that seed quality is not affected by inbreeding. Of course, other aspects of 18 seed quality, for example, seed size and progeny fitness beyond the germination stage were 19 not measured, and may be adversely affected by inbreeding. Outcrossing plants often express 20 inbreeding depression early in their life cycle, particularly at the seed production stage 21 (Barrett & Harder, 1996; Husband & Schemske, 1996). Mejías et al. (2002) found that 22 xenogamy did not improve fruit set in native Spanish populations of R. ponticum. It is 23 possible that introgression with North American *Rhododendron* species in exotic populations 24 has caused this change in the breeding system of this species. A recent study has also shown 25 differences in the biology of native and exotic R. ponticum plants (Erfmeier & Bruelheide,

2004) where exotic populations of *R. ponticum* displayed higher vegetative growth rates than
 native Spanish ones and this difference was shown to be genetically determined (Erfmeier &
 Bruelheide, 2005).

4

5 No pollen limitation was detected in these experiments, and this suggests that flowers are 6 receiving adequate pollinator service in this population. However, since only a small 7 proportion of the inflorescences were manipulated per plant, and this study was only carried 8 out in one flowering season, I cannot rule out the possibility that pollen limitation occurs in 9 this exotic species (Zimmerman & Pyke, 1988). Indeed, substantially lower levels of fruit set 10 have been recorded in other populations in Ireland, and a positive correlation between 11 pollinator visitation rate and fruit set has been determined (Stout et al., 2006). Hence, pollen 12 limitation may occur in populations other than the one studied, although resource limitation 13 may also be responsible for lower fruit set.

14

15 Implications for invasion

16 Exotic R. ponticum in the British Isles benefits from pollination by native insects and 17 produces vast numbers of seeds which provide the primary mechanism for its invasion. In the 18 absence of pollinator visitation, this species would set few seeds, because of the inability of 19 flowers to spontaneously self-pollinate. There was no pollination limitation in the population 20 studied because of adequate service from generalist pollinators. These insects are attracted by 21 the prolific nectar and pollen production (Stout et al., 2006) and seem unaffected by toxins in 22 the nectar (von Malottki & Wiechmann, 1996). Although a range of insects pick up pollen 23 from *R. ponticum* flowers (Stout *et al.*, 2006), only bumblebees appear to facilitate pollen 24 deposition (Stout, 2007). Bumblebees forage in an efficient manner, often moving between 25 adjacent flowers and can promote high levels of geitonogamy (Stout, 2000; Utelli & Roy,

1	2000). On the other hand, studies have shown that insects visit a reduced proportion of		
2	flowers on large plants, and so mass flowering is not necessarily associated with low		
3	outcrossing rates (Augspurger, 1980; Andersson, 1988; Parker, 1997). Individual R. ponticum		
4	plants produce a large number of flowers and movements between plants are rare		
5	(approximately 2% of bumblebee moves, Stout, 2007). Therefore, it may be that a large		
6	proportion of seeds set by <i>R. pontcium</i> are as a result of geitonogamy. However, until we		
7	know more about pollen carryover in <i>R. ponticum</i> , we can not speculate on this further.		
8	Carryover was estimated to be negligible after 5 flowers and pollen dispersal distances were		
9	estimated between 2-45m in R. ferrugineum (Escaravage & Wagner, 2004).		
10			
11	The breeding system is obviously not the only factor affecting invasion of <i>R. ponticum</i> in the		
12	British Isles. The availability of safe sites for germination (Cross, 1981; Rotherham, 2001;		
13	Mejías et al., 2002; Erfmeier & Bruelheide, 2004), the removal of competing plants by		
14	vertebrate grazers (Higgins et al., 2001), disturbance (Rotherham, 2001) and climate all play a		
15	role. However, the fact that this species is not pollinator limited and produces abundant seed		
16	suggests that it has the potential to become more invasive, particularly in suitable habitats.		
17	Given the effort and costs involved with Rhododendron control (Dehnen-Schmutz, Perrings &		
18	Williamson, 2004), land managers should take care to prevent the establishment and		
19	flowering of <i>R. pontcium</i> , as seed production and further spread is inevitable.		
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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Relationship between fruit length and number of seeds per fruit (N = 111). Equation of fitted line: $y = 3.33x^2 - 40.36x + 132.49$, $R^2 = 0.831$.

Figure 2: (a) proportion of fruit set and (b) fruit length (mean \pm SE) of bagged (shaded bars) and open (unshaded bars) flowers hand-pollinated with self (same flower), geitonogamous (same plant) and xenogamous (different plant) pollen.

Figure 3: (a) proportion of fruit set and (b) fruit length (mean \pm SE) of non-emasculated (shaded bars) and emasculated (unshaded bars) treatments. No significant differences were found between emasculated and non-emasculated treatments.

Figure 4: mean proportion of seeds germinated from inbred (1, 2, 3, 5, solid lines) and outcrossed (4, 6, broken lines) treatments over 50 days from the start of the germination experiment. Numbers at ends of lines refer to treatments. Significant differences among treatments were only detected at day 31.

Table 1: Treatments used in this experiment: treatment numbers 1-7 were bagged with bridal veil material to prevent insect visitation.

Number	Treatment	Pollen added from:
1	Spontaneous autogamy	No pollen added
2	Facilitated autogamy	Same flower
3	Geitonogamy	Different inflorescence, same plant
4	Xenogamy	Different plant
5	Emasculation + Geitonogamy	Different inflorescence, same plant
6	Emasculation + Xenogamy	Different plant
7	Emasculation control/Apomixis	No pollen added
8	Open control	No pollen added
9	Open + Facilitation	Same flower
10	Open + Geitonogamy	Different inflorescence, same plant
11	Open + Xenogamy	Different plant
12	Emasculation + Open	No pollen added











