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# FITCH et al. Integrating effects of neighbor interactions for pollination and abiotic resources on coffee

#### yield in a multi-strata agroforest

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## ABSTRACT

Animal-pollinated plants interact with neighbors for both abiotic resources and pollination, with consequences for reproduction and yield. Yet few studies have compared the relative magnitude of these effects, particularly in agroecosystems. In vertically stratified communities, such as agroforests, neighbor effects may be stratum-dependent. Understanding the net effects of neighbors on crop yield is important for managing multifunctional agroecosystems to simultaneously support production and biodiversity. This study evaluated the effects of neighboring plants on pollen deposition, fertilization, and yield in Coffea arabica in a shaded organic coffee farm with high non-crop plant abundance and diversity in Chiapas, Mexico. We assessed the impact of 1) floral resources at three vertical strata (herbs, coffee bushes, and canopy trees) on stigma pollen load (a measure of interaction for pollination), and 2) floral density and canopy cover (proxies for competition for abiotic resources) on yield (final fruit set and per-fruit weight), using structural equation modeling to evaluate the relative effect of each interaction type. Coffee competed for pollination with neighbors (conspecifics and heterospecifics) across strata. Pollen load influenced final fruit set, but the effect of neighbor competition for pollination was weaker than effects mediated by interaction for abiotic resources. Effects of interactions for abiotic resources were heterogeneous across strata, with negligible effects of herb-layer or coffee flower density but net positive effects of canopy trees on final fruit set. Overall effects of neighbors on coffee yield were weak, suggesting that coffee agroecosystems can be managed to maintain high plant density and diversity without sacrificing yield.

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*Keywords:* Agroecosystem multifunctionality; Chiapas; *Coffea arabica*; Mexico; Neighborhood effects; Pollinator-mediated plant interactions; Structural equation modeling

#### RESUMEN

Las plantas polinizadas por animales interactúan con las vecinas tanto por los recursos abióticos como por la polinización, con consecuencias para la reproducción y el rendimiento de cultivos. Sin embargo, pocos estudios comparan la magnitud relativa de estos efectos, particularmente en agroecosistemas. En comunidades estratificadas verticalmente, como los agrobosques, los efectos vecinos pueden depender del estrato. Comprender los efectos netos de los vecinos en el rendimiento de cultivos es importante para gestionar agroecosistemas multifuncionales y apoyar simultáneamente la producción y la biodiversidad.

Este estudio evalua los efectos de las plantas vecinas sobre la deposición de polen, la fertilización y el rendimiento en *Coffea arabica* en una finca de café orgánico bajo sombra con alta abundancia y diversidad de plantas no cultivadas en Chiapas, México. Evaluamos el impacto de 1) los recursos florales en tres estratos verticales (hierbas, cafetos y árboles de dosel) sobre la carga de polen del estigma (una medida de interacción para la polinización), y 2) la densidad floral y la cubierta de dosel (representantes de la competencia por recursos abióticos) sobre el rendimiento (taza de fruto final y peso por fruto), utilizando modelos de ecuaciones estructurales para evaluar el efecto relativo de cada tipo de interacción.

El café compitió por la polinización con vecinos (conespecíficos y heteroespecíficos) en todos los estratos. La carga de polen influyó en la taza de fruto final, pero el efecto de la competencia vecina por la polinización fue más débil que los efectos mediados por la interacción para recursos abióticos. Los efectos de las interacciones para recursos abióticos fueron

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heterogéneos a través de los estratos, con efectos insignificantes de la densidad del estrato de hierba o del café, pero efectos positivos netos de los árboles del dosel en la taza de fruto final. Los efectos generales de los vecinos en el rendimiento del café fueron débiles, lo que sugiere que los agroecosistemas de café se pueden manejar para mantener una alta densidad y diversidad de plantas sin sacrificar el rendimiento.

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

Plants frequently compete with neighbors for abiotic resources including light, water, and soil nutrients, often with profound effects on growth and population dynamics of wild plants (Goldberg & Barton 1992, Gurevitch *et al.* 1992) and yields of crop plants (Njoroge 1994, Oerke 2006). At the same time, co-flowering plants commonly interact for pollination, with outcomes ranging from mutually detrimental to mutually beneficial (Mitchell *et al.* 2009, Braun & Lortie 2019). For a given pair of organisms, the net outcome of interaction will depend on the effect of both types of interactions. Moreover, there may be complex feedbacks between interaction types, since the availability of abiotic resources – influenced by neighbors – can impact floral traits and pollinator attraction (Prado *et al.* 2019, Fitch & Vandermeer 2020). Integrating the effects of multiple interaction types in a single study can therefore lead to a better understanding of the net effect of neighbors on plant fitness and crop yield. Yet, while interactions for shared abiotic resources and interactions for shared pollinators have each received significant attention in isolation, studies that consider both types of interactions simultaneously are less common (Underwood *et al.* 2014).

This is particularly true for agroecosystems. While the agronomy literature includes many studies investigating the effects of competition for abiotic resources on crop yield (reviewed in

Radosevich et al. 1997, Zimdahl 2007), few studies have investigated interactions for shared pollinators in crop systems (but see Klein et al. 2008, Badillo-Montaño et al. 2019), and even fewer have looked at both types of interactions together (but see Klein *et al.* 2015). The low plant diversity of conventional agroecosystems may ameliorate neighbor effects on pollination (Albor et al. 2019), but rising interest in agricultural practices that increase on-farm plant diversity – including intercropping, hedgerows and wildflower strips – may increase competition for pollination between crop and non-crop species (Lander et al. 2011, Nicholson et al. 2019; but see Lundin et al. 2017) and/or among crop species (Osterman et al. 2021). The higher plant diversity and greater vertical stratification of agroforests may strengthen the effect of neighbor interactions for pollination relative to other agroecosystems, though this remains untested. Most of the existing research on interactions for shared pollinators focuses on forbs in semi-natural meadow-type habitats (reviewed in Braun & Lortie 2019), where flowers tend to occur in a single stratum of vertical space. In habitats with greater vertical stratification, neighbor effects on pollination may be stratum-specific, given evidence for stratum fidelity in some forest bee communities (Roubik et al. 1995, Ulyshen et al. 2010, but see Roubik 1993), but this has received scant attention.

Coffee (*Coffea* spp.; Rubiaceae) is an important animal-pollinated crop where we might expect complex effects of neighbor interactions, particularly on farms with abundant non-crop plants. The question of whether plant neighborhood influences yield is particularly salient in coffee, given the potential for coffee farms to support high levels of biodiversity (Perfecto *et al.* 1996, O'Brien & Kinnaird 2003, De Beenhouwer *et al.* 2013). This depends on on-farm plant diversity, including canopy trees and herbaceous vegetation (De Beenhouwer *et al.* 2013, Hipólito *et al.* 2018, Iverson *et al.* 2019).

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Canopy trees modulate temperature extremes and evapotranspiration rates in the understory, reducing coffee plant stress and maintaining environmental conditions that maximize photosynthesis (Staver *et al.* 2001, Lin 2009). Thus, coffee yields commonly peak under moderate shade levels (Soto-Pinto *et al.* 2000, Staver *et al.* 2001, Prado *et al.* 2018). But high levels of shading (>~50% canopy cover) frequently reduce yield (Soto-Pinto *et al.* 2000, Staver *et al.* 2001). High shade may also encourage the growth of coffee fungal diseases (Avelino *et al.* 2006, López-Bravo *et al.* 2012). Interactions for abiotic resources with herbaceous vegetation appear to be more generally competitive, and unmanaged herbaceous vegetation can substantially reduce coffee yield (Njoroge & Kimemia 1990, Moraima García *et al.* 2000, Eshetu & Kebede 2015). This is likely due to competition for soil nutrients and, in drier conditions, water (Njoroge 1994, Staver *et al.* 2001). The distinct patterns of effect for interactions with herb-layer and canopy-layer neighbors highlights the value of considering each stratum separately when evaluating neighborhood effects on coffee yield.

The organic management practices (particularly no herbicide or synthetic fertilizer use) and moderate to high shade tree density on the farm under study are likely to contribute to competitive interactions for abiotic resources between coffee bushes and neighboring plants. Many of the common non-crop plants in coffee agroecosystems (both trees and herbs) produce abundant, animal-pollinated flowers. In our study region, the bloom period of coffee coincides with high floral abundance in both canopy and herb strata (Fisher *et al.* 2017), setting the stage for interactions for shared pollinators.

Yet several aspects of the reproductive biology of *C. arabica* may limit the impact of neighbor interactions for pollination. First, *C. arabica* is self-compatible and often not pollen limited (Prado *et al.* 2018) [though biotic pollination generally improves yield (Moreaux *et al.* 

2022)]. Thus, even if floral neighborhood influences pollination, its effects on yield may be small. Second, coffee is mass-blooming (Philpott *et al.* 2006). High conspecific density may increase floral fidelity by pollinators (Duffy & Stout 2011), reducing the effects of heterospecific neighbors. Indeed, a recent study from coffee agroecosystems in Puerto Rico found no effect of floral neighborhood on the proportion of coffee pollen in the pollen loads of foraging bees (Prado *et al.* 2021). Together with evidence that resource competition with neighbors reduces coffee yield (Campanha *et al.* 2004, Ronchi *et al.* 2007, Eshetu & Kebede 2015), these factors suggest that interactions for abiotic resources are more important than interactions for shared pollinators in determining net neighbor effects on *C. arabica.* Moreover, coffee is perennial; interannual variation in pollinator availability, climatic conditions, plant vigor, and resource availability make it difficult to evaluate the relative importance of different types of interactions in determining coffee yield, as this is likely to vary from year to year.

In this study, we examined how plant neighborhood influences pollination and yield in *C. arabica*, using path analysis to determine the relative contribution of interactions for shared pollinators and for abiotic resources to the net effect of neighboring plants on coffee yield. For both types of interactions, we asked whether the impact of neighbors is mediated by the strata in which they occur (herb, coffee, or canopy layer). To assess pollination, we measured stigma pollen load (including coffee pollen and heterospecific pollen) and the number of pollen tubes reaching the base of the style. Stigma pollen load is a measure of pollination quantity, although some portion of the coffee pollen present was likely self pollen, since even coffee stigmas blocked from pollination receive substantial pollen (Klein *et al.* 2003, G. Fitch unpublished data). Since ovules can only be fertilized when pollen tubes reach the ovaries, the number of pollen tubes that grow to the base of the style is a measure of pollination quality. We considered

three measures of coffèe fruit production, all assessed at the branch level: initial fruit set, final fruit set, and per-fruit weight. Initial fruit set is determined largely by pollination levels and is therefore a measure of successful fertilization, but coffee frequently aborts developing fruits that they cannot adequately provision (Bos *et al.* 2007). Final fruit set and fruit weight are therefore the product of an interplay between pollination and resource availability (along with fruit predation and climatic factors) (Klein *et al.* 2015, Tamburini *et al.* 2019), and are the two measures of yield we assessed. In coffee, micronutrient deficiency is a key driver of fruit abortion (DaMatta *et al.* 2007), with water stress also contributing (Lin 2009); competition with neighboring plants for soil nutrients and water are therefore likely to influence levels of fruit abortion.

We present the hypothesized relationships in Figure 1, elaborating on them below (parenthetical letters correspond to specific links illustrated in Figure 1). We expected that neighborhood coffee flower density would be positively related to coffee pollen load, due to the enhanced potential for cross-pollination (a), while canopy- and herb-layer flower density would reduce coffee pollen load, indicating competition for pollination with heterospecifics but not conspecifics (b). We predicted that co-flowering canopy trees (which are generally >3m above the height of coffee plants) would reduce coffee pollen load but not affect heterospecific pollen, since the vertical separation of coffee layers within a foraging bout (Roubik *et al.* 1995). Co-flowering forbs are less spatially separated from coffee flowers, so we anticipated more pollinator switching, leading to reduced coffee pollen and increased heterospecific pollen (c). We expected coffee pollen load to positively influence pollen tube number, while heterospecific pollen tube

number to independently influence both initial and final fruit set (Niesenbaum & Casper 1994), thus linking pollen receipt to coffee yield (e). However, because *C. arabica* is not pollen-limited, we thought interactions for abiotic resources would be more important in determining the net effect of neighbors. We expected competition with canopy trees to reduce both final fruit set and per-fruit weight (f), mediated primarily by access to light since nearly half the surveyed plants had >50% canopy shading (Table S1). While we anticipated competition for soil nutrients with canopy trees, we expected its effect to be weaker than, and covary with, competition for light. We expected competition with herbs and conspecifics for soil nutrients and/or water to negatively influence final fruit set and per-fruit weight (g) (Njoroge & Kimemia 1990, Njoroge 1994). Biomass is a commonly used, if imperfect, proxy measure for competition in plants (Trinder *et al.* 2013, Damgaard & Weiner 2017), but we could not accurately, nondestructively measure herb-layer biomass, so we used floral density, which is often highly correlated with biomass (Younginger *et al.* 2017) (see Methods).

## 2. METHODS

#### 1. Study system

Research took place in Finca Irlanda (15.17358 -92.33827), a ca. 300-ha shaded organic coffee farm in SE Chiapas, Mexico. Multiple varieties of *C. arabica* are cultivated on the farm. This study included individuals from two varieties, Catimor and Java; we did not distinguish between varieties. Coffee mass blooms during the dry season, December-April. This research occurred during consecutive mass blooms, 19-24 February and 6-10 March 2018.

The understory of Finca Irlanda is a spatially heterogeneous assemblage of herbaceous plants, most of which, like coffee, bloom during the dry season. Herbs are controlled by periodic

cutting with machete, resulting in a mosaic of plants at varying stages of regrowth, generating high spatial heterogeneity in herb biomass and floral abundance (Figure S1). The canopy layer includes diverse shade trees; spatial variation in species composition and density of shade trees contributes to heterogeneity in the availability of both light and floral resources. Soil nutrient levels strongly influence coffee plant vigor on the farm (Gonthier et al. 2013).

#### 2. Data collection

See Figure 2 for a schematic of our sampling design. During the first mass bloom, we established 21 20 m x 2 m transects, following the orientation of coffee rows. Transects were chosen to represent the full range of canopy cover, understory biomass, and floral density present on the farm at the time of the first mass bloom and were >50 m apart (Table S1).

Within each transect, we selected three focal coffee plants. Focal plants had plentiful open flowers, were separated from one another by >1 m, and were distributed across the length of the transect. From each focal plant we collected the carpel from three haphazardly selected flowers from the outermost node of three branches from the upper third of the bush, cutting the carpel from the flower just above the ovary (Figure S2); carpels were stored in 95% ethanol. For each focal plant, we measured its height and assessed canopy cover above its crown (our primary measure of interaction for abiotic resources with canopy trees) using CanopyApp 1.0.3 (University of New Hampshire, Durham, NH USA). We selected a fourth branch from each focal plant to assess fruit set, marking it with tape. On this branch, we counted open flowers and nearly-open buds, starting with the outermost node, on four nodes or until we reached >30 open flowers, whichever required more nodes (except in two cases where no available branch had >30open flowers).

We used neighborhood floral density at each stratum as a measure of interactions for both pollination and abiotic resources (Figure 1, paths a-c, g). To assess neighborhood floral density, we counted and identified all flowers within a 2m x 2m plot centered on each focal plant, with separate tallies for each stratum. For highly abundant flowers, we counted the number of flowers in a representative 50cm x 50cm area and extrapolated from that count. This plot size encompasses the likely sphere of influence of neighbors interacting for abiotic resources, and is consistent with plot sizes selected for assessing effects of interactions for shared pollinators in other studies (e.g., Hegland & Boeke 2006, Duffy & Stout 2011, Bruckman & Campbell 2014). While plants at greater distances can influence pollination (Essenberg 2013, Albor *et al.* 2019), we located transects in areas that were relatively uniform in herb-layer and canopy tree density over the scale of tens of meters, so our 2m x 2m neighborhood is representative of the floral community at larger scales.

We hypothesized that proximity to an apiary would increase honeybee (*Apis mellifera*) visitation rates and pollen deposition, so we calculated the distance between the closest apiary and the center of each transect. To confirm that differences in pollination across sites was due to neighbor effects, rather than another environmental factor, we compared pollen deposition on the same plants between two mass bloom events at a subset of 12 transects that varied in neighborhood floral density (see Supplementary Material).

In June 2018, when fruits were beginning to swell, we surveyed focal branches for initial fruit set. For each branch, we counted the number of developing fruits on the section of branch where we had tallied flower number. We calculated branch-level initial fruit set by dividing the number of developing fruits by the previously-recorded number of open flowers and large buds.

Once fruits began to ripen in October 2018, we surveyed all plants every 2-3 weeks. At each survey, ripe fruit on focal branches were counted, collected, and weighed. Collection continued until all fruit were collected (December 2018). Branch-level final fruit set was calculated by the number of fruits harvested by the number of open flowers and large buds.

To assess pollen deposition and fertilization, the collected carpels were, upon return to the lab, transferred to NaOH to soften for 24h. After softening, carpels were rinsed in water, mounted on a microscope slide with decolorized aniline blue stain (Kearns & Inouye 1993), and squashed. Using a UV fluorescent microscope at 40x magnification, we counted the number of pollen tubes that extended past the base of the style and the number of conspecific and heterospecific pollen grains on one randomly chosen stigma lobe per carpel (Figures 2, S2). Pollen was identified as coffee or non-coffee using a reference collection made on-site.

#### 3. Data analysis

All analyses were conducted using R v.4.0.2 (R Core Team 2020). To test for spatial autocorrelation across transects in measures of pollination, yield, or neighborhood, we calculated Moran's I autocorrelation coefficient for each variable, using transect-level means, and compared this to the null expectation of no autocorrelation using the 'ape' package (Paradis & Schliep 2019). In all cases, P>0.1, indicating no spatial autocorrelation (Table S2). We checked for correlation among measures of floral neighborhood using linear mixed-effects models, implemented with the 'lme4' package using the 'lme()' function, with transect as a random effect, using a Bonferroni correction to adjust P-values for multiple comparisons.

We used piecewise structural equation modeling (SEM) to examine the effect of neighborhood on conspecific and heterospecific stigma pollen load, pollen tube number, initial

fruit set, final fruit set, and fruit weight. The neighborhood metrics we included in the maximal model were: coffee flower density, herb-layer flower density, canopy flower density, total flower richness, and canopy cover. Canopy cover was included as a measure of interaction for abiotic resources with canopy trees; flower density in all three strata were included as measures of interaction for shared pollinators. We used total floral richness in all strata, rather than considering each stratum separately, because most flowering species were in the herb layer. Coffee flower density, canopy-layer flower density, and herb-layer flower density were additionally included in submodels of final fruit set as measures of competition for abiotic resources with conspecifics, flowering canopy trees, and herbaceous weeds, respectively. Coffee flower density, rather than coffee plant density, was used because coffee plants differed substantially in vigor and size both within and across transects (G. Fitch personal observation), and therefore likely differed in resource use. Moreover, analysis of data from a pilot project indicated that neighborhood coffee flower density was a better predictor of final fruit set than coffee plant density (G. Fitch unpublished data). We considered herb flower density the best available measure to assess competitive effects of herbs for two reasons. First, the herbs considered most noxious by farmers produce profuse floral displays. Second, stem density decreases during regrowth post-cutting, so stem density does not reflect biomass. We included coffee plant height (a proxy for age), distance from transect centroid to nearest apiary, and mass bloom event as covariates.

Using function 'lme()' from package 'nlme' (Pinheiro *et al.* 2020), we constructed linear mixed-effects models describing the hypothesized relationships between these variables. We tested for collinearity of predictors in all submodels by calculating the variance inflation factor (VIF) using function 'vif()' from package 'car'(Fox & Weisberg 2019). In all cases, VIF<2,

indicating negligible collinearity. We combined these submodels in a SEM using the 'psem()' function from 'piecewiseSEM' (Lefcheck 2016). Submodels of pollen load and pollen tubes included plant nested within transect as random effects; submodels of fruit set and weight included transect only. Coffee pollen load was log<sub>10</sub>-transformed to achieve normality.

To evaluate SEM fit, we used Fisher's C and a chi-squared test comparing the hypothesized model to a null model. We examined tests of directed separation to determine if our initial model had omitted significant, biologically plausible relationships, and updated the model to include these where necessary (the only such relationship linked coffee pollen load to final fruit set). While we retained all measures of neighborhood plant density in the final model, regardless of significance, we dropped covariates from the model in cases where *P*>0.05 and omission increased AIC value by <2. We also omitted neighborhood plant richness from the final model, since 1) it was strongly correlated with all measures of floral density (see Results), 2) it did not have a significant effect on any response variable, and 3) its omission substantially improved model fit ( $\Delta$ AIC=14). To calculate the net effect of each stratum on final fruit set, we multiplied standardized coefficients along each causal chain, adding resulting values together where the same stratum had multiple distinct effects.

## **3. RESULTS**

We found high levels of coffee pollen and low levels of heterospecific pollen on coffee stigmas (Table S1); 35% of stigmas had no heterospecific pollen. Coffee pollen load and pollen tube number differed substantially among flowers within a plant and among plants within a transect (Figure S3). Neighborhood coffee flower density was negatively correlated with both herb-layer flower density (t=-5.11, df=194, P<0.001) and canopy-layer flower density (t=-2.84,

df=194, P=0.01); herb-layer flower density was not correlated with canopy-layer flower density (t=0.85, df=194, P=0.4). Floral richness was strongly correlated with floral density at all strata (P<0.001 in all cases).

Results from SEM, discussed below, are summarized in Figures 3 and S4 and Table 1. The global model provided good fit to the data (Fisher's C=47.12, df=50, P=0.6; P>0.05 indicates reasonable fit). Neighborhood floral density reduced coffee pollen load, indicating competition for pollination. Contrary to our expectation (Figure 1, hypotheses a & b), the magnitude of this effect was consistent across strata. Neighborhood floral richness did not significantly influence coffee pollen load (t=-0.39, df=154, P=0.7), and was not included in the final SEM. Heterospecific pollen load was not significantly influenced by any component of floral neighborhood. Distance to the nearest apiary did not influence pollen load. Neither conspecific nor heterospecific pollen load predicted pollen tube number, and pollen tube number was not correlated with initial fruit set, indicating that pollen receipt did not limit fertilization. As expected, given that initial fruit set tends to reflect fertilization rather than resource availability, we found no effect of neighbors on initial fruit set. Focal plant height did not influence initial or final fruit set and was omitted from the final model.

Initial fruit set strongly predicted final fruit set. Neither coffee flower density nor herb density influenced final fruit set, indicating minimal effects of resource competition with neighbors in these strata. Canopy trees did influence final fruit set, but in complicated ways that suggest a role for both facilitation and competition. Floral richness did not influence final fruit set (t=1.14, df=186, P=0.3) and was omitted from the final model. We observed a strong positive effect of canopy cover on final fruit set, with a weaker negative effect of canopy-layer flower

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density. There was no relationship between focal plant flower number and canopy cover ( $R^2=0.0$ ,  $F_{1.99}=0.34$ , P=0.6)

We found a positive effect of coffee pollen load on final fruit set and a negative effect of pollen tube number on final fruit set. Per-fruit weight was strongly positively correlated with initial fruit set and negatively correlated with plant height but was not affected by pollen tube number or any measure of floral neighborhood or pollination.

Via the influence of pollen load on final fruit set, competition for pollination ultimately affected yield, despite the lack of connection between pollen load and pollen tube number. The net standardized effect size of interactions for pollination on final fruit set was -0.06, compared to the net effect of +0.1 for interactions for shared abiotic resources (as assessed by the effects of canopy cover and canopy-layer flower density on final fruit set). There was a small net competitive effect of both coffee flower density ( $\beta$ =-0.022) and flowering forb density ( $\beta$ =-0.016) (which we used as a proxy for the strength of competition for abiotic resources) on final fruit set, but a net facilitative effect of canopy trees, via the positive influence of canopy cover ( $\beta$ =0.072).

#### 4. DISCUSSION

This study provides one of the first estimates of the relative strength of interactions between coffee and neighboring plants for (a) shared pollinators and (b) abiotic resources in a coffee agroforest. Uniquely, we assessed these effects independently for three strata of plant neighborhood (herb layer, coffee layer, canopy layer), providing a nuanced picture of the net effect of neighbors on coffee. Our results demonstrate that interactions for both pollination and abiotic resources influence coffee fruit set and fruit weight, albeit weakly, with interaction for

abiotic resources appearing to have a greater effect. Below, we discuss each interaction type separately, then integrate them to discuss the implications for agroecosystem management.

#### 1. Neighbor interactions for pollination

The magnitude of competition for pollination was similar across strata (i.e., herb, coffee, and canopy layers). This is surprising, given that insect pollinator assemblages often differ across strata in forests (Ulyshen *et al.* 2010, Urban-Mead *et al.* 2021). But stratification complexity is lower in this agroforest relative to adjacent semi-natural forest, potentially reducing the extent to which individual bees forage exclusively in one stratum. At the same time, we found strikingly little heterospecific pollen on coffee stigmas, consistent with the findings of Prado *et al.* (2021), and suggesting high pollinator fidelity. This in turn suggests that competition largely arises from individual bees specializing on non-coffee flowers, rather than bees switching between coffee and non-coffee flowers. Intriguingly, we found that the taxonomic richness of the co-flowering community had no effect on coffee pollination.

Floral neighborhood, however, explained a small amount of the overall variance in coffee pollen load, and even less in heterospecific pollen. Moreover, there was high variability in pollen load among flowers from the same plant. *Coffea arabica* is capable of self-pollination; it may be that flowers vary in the amount of pollen they produce [documented in other species (e.g. McKone 1989, Lau *et al.* 1995)], which in turn could affect the number of self-pollen grains deposited on the stigma.

We were surprised by the lack of relationship between pollen load and proximity to managed colonies of honeybees, a major pollinator of coffee. But apiary density is high across the farm; all transects were <600 m from an apiary, and over half were <250 m away [well

within the typical foraging range of honeybees (Visscher & Seeley 1982, Danner *et al.* 2016, Bänsch *et al.* 2020)], so honeybee forager densities may not be strongly related to apiary locations. Moreover, coffee was also commonly visited by other pollinators, particularly stingless bees (G. Fitch personal observation).

Despite reducing stigma pollen load, co-flowering neighbors had no effect on fertilization, since 1) stigma pollen load did not influence pollen tube number, and 2) pollen tube number did not influence initial fruit set. The lack of relationship between pollen load and pollen tubes is likely due to the very high levels of coffee pollen found on all stigmas surveyed; in all but three carpels, coffee pollen load exceeded pollen tube number by >10x, while coffee flowers generally contain only two ovules. Furthermore, it is likely that self pollen comprised a large portion of the overall pollen load; in another study, we found that stigmas on *C. arabica* flowers where pollinators were excluded had  $559\pm96$  (mean $\pm SE$ ) pollen grains, only 30% less, on average, than on flowers open to pollination (G. Fitch unpublished data). While *C. arabica* is capable of self-pollination, fruit set increases with cross pollen (Klein *et al.* 2003); perahps because pollen tubes from self pollen do not reach the ovule (Cruzan & Barrett 1993, 1996). Our study did not distinguish between self and cross pollen, but given the likelihood that most pollen grains were self, it is unsurprising that pollen load did not correlate with pollen tube number.

While we found no link between pollen load and either pollen tube number or initial fruit set, the direct, positive effect of coffee pollen load on final fruit causally links neighbor effects on pollination to coffee yield. This suggests that coffee plants respond to information about pollen load in determining how to allocate limited resources for fruit maturation – a common phenomenon (Stephenson 1981, Winsor *et al.* 1987), presumably because stigma pollen load to

offspring vigor is increased pollen tube competition (Mulcahy 1971, Niesenbaum & Casper 1994). It is surprising, then, that we find a negative effect of pollen tube number on final fruit set. It may be that large numbers of pollen tubes clog the style, reducing fertilization and increasing the likelihood of fruit abortion (Young & Young 1992; but see Niesenbaum & Casper 1994), while large pollen loads increase the likelihood of receiving vigorous pollen grains that rapidly fertilize ovaries (Mulcahy 1971). However, our measures of fruit set did not include the flowers from which we collected data on pollen load and pollen tube number. With substantial variation in pollen load and pollen tube number among flowers within a plant, we cannot assume that the flowers assessed for fruit set experienced equivalent pollination to the harvested flowers. The positive correlation between coffee pollen load and final fruit set may alternatively reflect differences in plant vigor, with plants that are able to put more resources towards developing fruit – leading to high fruit set – also producing more pollen per flower, which translates to high stigma pollen load via self-pollination.

#### 2. Neighbor interactions for abiotic resources

We found no evidence for competition for abiotic resource with neighboring conspecifics or flowering herbs. The lack of influence of conspecifics may reflect the low planting density on this farm, which at ~2400 coffee plants/ha<sup>2</sup> (Schmitt & Perfecto 2020) is about half that recommended for optimal yield (DaMatta *et al.* 2007). We did not assess competition with herbaceous plants directly, but rather used forb flower density as a proxy for measure for the strength of competition, so we may have missed the signal of competitive interactions with herbs – though we note that the herbs considered to be significant weeds by farmers were in bloom at the time of our surveys, and flower density was grossly correlated with biomass, a common measure of competitive effect (Trinder *et al.* 2013).

The observed positive effect of canopy cover on final fruit set is consistent with several other studies finding higher coffee fruit set in shaded vs. unshaded farms (Lin 2009, Prado *et al.* 2018), despite opposing evidence that shading may reduce yields (Campanha *et al.* 2004). This may stem from beneficial effects of shade trees on soil moisture, soil nutrients, or both. Lin (2009) found that fruit abortion in coffee was negatively correlated with soil moisture, which was positively correlated with canopy shading. At the same time, litter from canopy trees is an important nutrient source in low-intensity coffee cultivation (Beer *et al.* 1997), and trees reduce nitrogen leaching (Tully *et al.* 2012). Further research is needed to determine the relative importance of canopy trees' influence on soil moisture and soil nutrients for supporting high coffee yields.

The negative effect of canopy flower density on final fruit set may represent competition for soil nutrients with two tree species [*Roseodendron donnell-smithii* (Bignoniaceae), 58% of canopy-layer flowers, and *Schizolobium parahyba* (Fabaceae), 35%]. Like coffee, these species are mass-blooming, and produce large-seeded fruit which take several months to mature. Thus, resource needs – and consequently soil nutrient uptake – of these species are synchronous with those of coffee, leading to competition despite the facilitative effect of canopy cover overall. Future research should more directly assess competition for soil nutrients between coffee and canopy trees (see next section), to determine whether the observed pattern is indeed driven by synchronicity in resource demands between coffee and large-fruited canopy trees.

## 3. Management implications

We demonstrate that heterospecific floral neighborhood can influence pollination even of hyper-abundant mass-blooming crops. While research has examined the converse effect of mass-blooming crops on pollination of neighboring non-crops (e.g. Holzschuh *et al.* 2011), evidence of neighbor effects on mass-flowering crops is scarce. In this case, these effects did not substantially impact yield because the focal crop was not pollen-limited. We expect the effect of co-flowering neighbors on pollination to be more significant in crops, such as *C. canephora*, that require animal pollination.

Our results indicate that tradeoffs between coffee yield (final fruit set and per-fruit weight) and non-crop flowering plant density are weak. This is heartening both from a conservation perspective and for the prospects of diversifying on-farm production streams. Supporting high densities of managed honeybees, alongside wild pollinator populations, requires the maintenance of temporally consistent high floral densities. Therefore, management that maintains high densities of flowering forbs in the landscape is essential to maintaining farm multifunctionality (Machado *et al.* 2021).

This study was conducted on a single farm, allowing us to evaluate the effects of plant neighborhood while holding constant other management practices that influence pollination and yield. But it would be instructive to examine neighbor effects across a wider range of farms, to determine whether our findings are robust to different management practices, and across varying climatic and edaphic conditions. Additionally, *C. arabica* is known for biennial bearing (DaMatta 2004, DaMatta *et al.* 2007), which may have introduced noise into our data on fruit set and weight, obscuring the effects of neighbors; conducting research on the same plants over consecutive years would avoid this issue, and might also reveal interesting patterns relating the strength of bienniality to neighborhood composition. Future studies would also do well to

measure competition for abiotic resources more directly, including with conspecifics, herbaceous vegetation, and canopy trees (see Trinder *et al.* 2013 for a review of promising approaches). Furthermore, there are other interactions that we did not investigate that influence coffee yield and are likely affected by neighborhood conditions, in particular interactions with herbivores (Soto-Pinto *et al.* 2002, Escobar-Ramírez *et al.* 2019) and pathogens (Soto-Pinto *et al.* 2002, López-Bravo *et al.* 2012). On the farm studied, at least, our results indicate that maintaining high non-crop plant abundance and diversity in coffee agroecosystems does not lead to significant yield losses – a promising finding for efforts to promote win-win scenarios in managing lands simultaneously for agricultural production and biodiversity conservation.

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## Author contributions

GF and JV conceived the ideas and designed methodology; GF collected field data and samples; GF, JG, AO, and MO processed samples; GF, JG, AO, and MO analyzed the data; GF led the

writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are openly available in the Dryad Digital Repository: https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.v6wwpzgzw (Fitch *et al.* 2022).

#### **Disclosure statement**

The corresponding author confirms on behalf of all authors that there have been no involvements that might raise the question of bias in the work reported or in the conclusions, implications, or opinions stated.

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**Figure 1.** Hypothesized effects of neighbor interactions for a) shared pollinators and b) abiotic resources on coffee pollination and yield. Letters correspond to specific hypotheses described in the Introduction. In b), canopy cover is used as a proxy for the strength of competition for abiotic resources (especially light) with canopy trees, while coffee and herb-layer flower density are used as proxies for the strength of competition with neighboring coffee plants and herbs, respectively. See Data Analysis under Methods for more details.



b) Abiotic resource-mediated interactions



Figure 2. Schematic diagram of sampling and survey design. Data collection occurred at 21 sites. Bulleted points indicate variables for which data were collected at that scale. Low/high density refers to the density of co-flowering plants in the neighborhood of target coffee plants. Low density:  $\leq 25$  flowers m<sup>-2</sup>, high density:  $\geq 25$  flowers m<sup>-2</sup> (see Data Collection).



Canopy cover

Figure 3. Results from SEM analysis of neighborhood coffee on pollination and yield. Only relationships with p<0.1 are included. Coefficients represent standardized effect sizes; significance codes:  $\cdot p < 0.1$ ; \*p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01; \*\*\*p < 0.001. For visual clarity, covariates (mass bloom event and coffee bush height) have been omitted from the diagram (see Table 1 for full model output).



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Table 1. Model output from structural equation models relating plant neighborhood to stigma pollen load, pollen tube number, fruit set, and fruit weight in coffee. Boldface indicates a significant effect at p < 0.05.

| Response<br>Marginal R <sup>2</sup>   | Predictor                   | Std.<br>estimate | Estimate±s.e.       | DF  | Critical<br>value | Р      |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------|---------------------|-----|-------------------|--------|
| log(Coffee<br>pollen load)<br>0.11    | Coffee flower density       | -0.19            | -0.03±0.01          | 155 | -2.10             | 0.048  |
|                                       | Herb-layer flower density   | -0.13            | $-0.02 \pm 0.01$    | 155 | -1.78             | 0.08   |
|                                       | Canopy-layer flower density | -0.15            | -0.006±0.003        | 155 | -2.29             | 0.03   |
|                                       | Mass bloom event            | -                | -                   | 1   | 9.26              | 0.002  |
| Heterospecific<br>pollen load<br>0.07 | Coffee flower density       | -0.06            | $-0.17 \pm 0.23$    | 155 | -0.73             | 0.5    |
|                                       | Herb-layer flower density   | 0.08             | 0.22±0.21           | 155 | 1.00              | 0.3    |
|                                       | Canopy-layer flower density | 0.11             | $0.08 \pm 0.05$     | 155 | 1.43              | 0.2    |
|                                       | Mass bloom event            | -                | -                   | 1   | 4.39              | 0.04   |
| Pollen tube<br>number<br>0.00         | log(Coffee pollen load)     | 0.02             | 0.14±0.63           | 157 | 0.21              | 0.8    |
|                                       | Heterospecific pollen load  | -0.05            | -0.02±0.03          | 157 | -0.77             | 0.4    |
| Initial fruit set<br>0.00             | Pollen tube number          | 0.04             | 0.002±0.002         | 194 | 0.76              | 0.4    |
| Final fruit set<br>0.34               | log(Coffee pollen load)     | 0.13             | 0.03±0.01           | 187 | 2.91              | 0.004  |
|                                       | Pollen tube number          | -0.10            | -0.003±0.001        | 187 | -2.61             | 0.01   |
|                                       | Initial fruit set           | 0.50             | 0.47±0.04           | 187 | 10.91             | <0.001 |
|                                       | Canopy cover                | 0.24             | $0.002\pm 5e^{-4}$  | 187 | 3.65              | <0.001 |
|                                       | Coffee flower density       | 0.01             | $2e^{-4}\pm 0.002$  | 187 | 0.11              | 0.9    |
|                                       | Herb-layer flower density   | -0.07            | $-0.003 \pm 0.002$  | 187 | -1.58             | 0.1    |
|                                       | Canopy-layer flower density | -0.14            | $-0.002\pm5e^{-4}$  | 187 | -2.95             | 0.004  |
|                                       | Mass bloom event            | -                | -                   | 1   | 5.13              | 0.02   |
| Fruit weight<br>0.28                  | Pollen tube number          | 0.02             | 0.001±0.003         | 188 | 0.34              | 0.7    |
|                                       | Initial fruit set           | 0.28             | 0.44±0.09           | 188 | 4.81              | <0.001 |
|                                       | Canopy cover                | 0.06             | $7e^{-4}\pm 0.001$  | 188 | 0.65              | 0.5    |
|                                       | Coffee flower density       | -0.04            | $-0.002 \pm 0.004$  | 188 | -0.62             | 0.5    |
|                                       | Herb-layer flower density   | -0.05            | $-0.004 \pm 0.004$  | 188 | -0.90             | 0.4    |
|                                       | Canopy-layer flower density | 0.06             | $7e^{-4}\pm 0.001$  | 188 | 0.68              | 0.5    |
|                                       | Coffee bush height          | -0.45            | $-0.002\pm 3e^{-4}$ | 188 | -6.70             | <0.001 |



b) Abiotic resource-mediated interactions



# Cano Flowe



Canopy cover

