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When the neighborhood matters: contextual selection on seedling traits in native and non-native California grasses.

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# **ABSTRACT**

 Plants interact extensively with their neighbors, but the evolutionary consequences of variation in neighbor identity are not well understood. Seedling traits are likely to experience selection that depends on the identity of neighbors because they influence competitive outcomes. To explore this, we evaluated selection on seed mass and emergence time in two California grasses, the native perennial *Stipa pulchra* and the non-native annual *Bromus diandrus*, in the field with six other native and non-native neighbor grasses in single and mixed species treatments. We also quantified characteristics of each neighbor treatment to further investigate factors influencing their effects on fitness and phenotypic selection. Selection favored larger seeds in both focal species and this was largely independent of neighbor identity. Selection generally favored earlier emergence in both focal species, but neighbor identity influenced the strength and direction of selection on emergence time in *S. pulchra* but not *B. diandrus*. Greater light interception, higher soil moisture, and greater productivity of neighbors was associated with more intense selection for earlier emergence and larger seeds. Our findings suggest that changes in plant community composition can alter patterns of selection in seedling traits, and that these effects can be associated with measurable characteristics of the community.

 **KEYWORDS:** Community composition, natural selection, competition, emergence time, seed mass, priority effect, California grasslands, *Stipa pulchra*, *Bromus diandrus*

## **INTRODUCTION**

 Neighboring plants interact extensively through processes such as resource competition, allelopathy, and facilitation. Plant-plant interactions play a central role in structuring plant communities (Soliveres and Maestre 2014, Bashirzadeh et al. 2022), but the resulting evolutionary consequences for populations have historically received little attention (Thorpe et al. 2011). There is growing evidence that variation in the surrounding plant community influences the strength and direction of natural selection exerted on key fitness- related traits (e.g., Lau 2008, Parachnowitsch et al. 2014, Beans and Roach 2015), and that it shapes the evolutionary trajectories of plant populations (e.g. Callaway et al. 2005, Leger 2008, Lankau 2012, Fletcher et al. 2016, Kleynhans et al. 2016, van Moorsel et al. 2018b, van Moorsel et al. 2019, Meilhac et al. 2020, van Moorsel et al. 2021). However, we currently have a limited understanding of the mechanisms by which community composition determines the strength or direction of selection. As drivers of global change, such as climate change and species introductions, alter the composition of plant communities worldwide (Kuebbing et al. 2013, van Kleunen et al. 2015), understanding how plant community composition shapes selection will facilitate predictions of the total evolutionary responses of plant populations to global change.

 In seasonal environments, seedling traits such as emergence time and seed mass strongly influence fitness from early life stages through to adulthood (reviewed in Verdú and Traveset 2005, Larios et al. 2018). Emerging earlier than competitors provides longer windows for growth and reproduction before favorable conditions deteriorate, as well the potential to pre-empt resources and suppress the growth of individuals that emerge later (i.e., priority effects; Vannette and Fukami 2014). Accordingly, meta-analysis shows that earlier seedling emergence tends to enhance fitness (Verdú and Traveset 2005). Similarly, the greater energy reserves present in larger seeds can lead to more rapid seedling growth and

 greater final size, and these benefits can be enhanced in stressful conditions such as drought (Stanton 1984, Wulff 1986, Gross and Smith 1991, Mojonnier 1998, Larios et al. 2014). These competitive benefits are not without cost; for example, earlier emergence can result in increased susceptibility to early-season abiotic stress such as late frost (Skálová et al. 2011) and the production of larger seeds is traded off with producing fewer seeds (Smith and Fretwell 1974, Leishman 2001). In competition, differences in early size can be magnified over the course of growth due to asymmetry of competition (particularly light; Weiner 1990). As a result, the effects of seed mass and emergence time on fitness are likely to be sensitive to the phenotypes of competitors. Seed mass itself can influence emergence time (Wulff 1986, Simons and Johnston 2000, Susko and Lovett-Doust 2000, Waterton et al. 2020), and so the selective effects of neighbors on seed mass and emergence time are likely to be mediated by correlations between them (i.e., indirect selection).

 The identity of neighboring plants is likely to shape patterns of selection on seedling traits. Neighboring plants can influence the availability of light, soil nutrients, and soil moisture availability (Seabloom et al. 2003, Williams et al. 2021), and variation in each of these resources can influence the strength and/or direction of phenotypic selection on plant traits (McGoey and Stinchcombe 2009, Navarro et al. 2022, Waterton et al. 2022). Neighbors that cause different seedling phenotypes to experience differing availabilities of limiting resources may alter the strength of selection. For example, communities that intercept more light may result in relatively less light available for later vs. earlier emerging individuals and thus increasingly favor earlier emergence. Selection among members of a focal species may also be stronger in communities that more severely reduce that species' mean population fitness; this is because — all else being equal — the variance in relative fitness within a population (i.e., the opportunity for selection) increases when mean fitness decreases in

 absolute terms (i.e., all individuals produce 10 fewer seeds; Rundle and Vamosi 1996, Benkman 2013, Fugère and Hendry 2018).

 The selective effects exerted by neighbors may be predictable based on factors such as: (1) origin status (i.e., native vs. non-native), and (2) species diversity. Non-native species often differ from their native counterparts with respect to their traits and impacts on competitors. Compared to their native counterparts, non-natives often emerge earlier (Pérez- Fernández et al. 2000, Deering and Young 2006, Abraham et al. 2009, reviewed in Gioria and Pyšek 2016), differ from natives with respect to the uptake of resources such as light and soil moisture (Morris et al. 2002, Seabloom et al. 2003, te Beest et al. 2014), and reduce mean fitness to a greater extent (Vilà et al. 2011), potentially causing consistent differences in selection exerted by native vs. non-native dominated communities. Consistent with this, several studies have documented that non-native species alter the strength or direction of selection in co-occurring species (Leger et al. 2017), or lead to evolved differences in the traits or performance in co-occurring species (Callaway et al. 2005, Leger 2008, Fletcher et al. 2016). Trait differences between natives and non-natives might also influence the selective responses of each to variation in the surrounding biotic community; for example, non-native species that emerge rapidly (i.e., the phenotypic distribution is shifted earlier) may experience selection on seedling traits that is less sensitive to neighbor identity as even relatively late emerging individuals emerge earlier than the surrounding community. More taxonomically diverse communities can be characterized by more complete resource uptake via sampling and/or complementarity effects (Aarssen 1997, Tilman et al. 1997, Anten and Hirose 1999, Wacker et al. 2009, Guderle et al. 2017), which might lead to stronger selection exerted by communities with high vs. low species diversity. Supporting this, a long-term biodiversity experiment found that plant populations from mixed-species communities evolved greater

 niche differentiation compared to populations from monocultures (Zuppinger-Dingley et al. 2014, van Moorsel et al. 2018a).

 We carried out a field experiment to test the hypothesis that neighboring community composition influences phenotypic selection on seedling traits, and that patterns of selection are determined by characteristics of the neighboring community. Field experiments are a powerful tool for evaluating how variation in surrounding community composition influences patterns of selection because, unlike observational studies across natural gradients, they mitigate the effects of other confounding factors that might influence both community composition patterns of phenotypic selection (Wade and Kalisz 1990). We grew two widespread California grasses, the long-lived perennial native *Stipa pulchra* (Hitchc.) Barkworth and non-native annual *Bromus diandrus* (Roth), in each of nine "neighbor treatments" that varied in the identity, origin status, and number of species. We measured the mass of caryopses (hereafter "seeds"), emergence time and fitness in focal individuals and quantified aspects of the neighboring community in each treatment to further investigate factors influencing mean fitness and patterns of selection. Specifically, we predicted that (1) selection on seedling traits would vary with neighbor identity, such that (2) selection would be stronger under one or more of the following conditions: when neighbors uptake more limiting resources, reduce mean fitness to a greater extent, are non-native, or are more taxonomically diverse.

# **METHODS**

# *Overview*

 We evaluated phenotypic selection on emergence time and seed mass in *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra* growing in one of nine neighbor treatments (Table 1). These comprised eight "neighbor-present" treatments including six single species treatments (three natives and three

 non-natives, taxonomically balanced at the genus level) and two mixed species treatments (all three native or all three non-natives), and a "neighbor-absent" treatment. The seeding rate of each neighbor species in mixed treatments was one third of that in single species treatments, such that the intended total density of emerging seedlings remained the same across both treatment types (i.e., a "replacement series"; Jolliffe 2000). We quantified five neighbor metrics in each treatment: emergence time, peak seedling density, light interception, soil water availability, and total aboveground biomass. We evaluate only linear selection to limit model complexity and because more complex fitness functions are less amenable to formally testing for associations with neighbor metrics.

 We carried out the experiment at the University of California San Diego Biological Field Station (32.89° N, 117.23° W; Supplementary Text S1). The climate is Mediterranean, with most precipitation typically falling between November and May, during which the majority of seedling emergence and subsequent growth occurs. The experiment lasted two growing seasons in 2017 (Season 1) and 2018 (Season 2), with the non-native annual *B. diandrus* grown in Season 1 only and the native perennial *S. pulchra* grown over Seasons 1 and 2. For *B. diandrus*, we evaluated fecundity in Season 1 via the probability of reproducing and total seed weight in reproducing individuals. For *S. pulchra*, we evaluated two fitness measures: 1) fecundity across Seasons 1 and 2 via the probability of reproducing and total seed weight in reproducing individuals, and 2) aboveground vegetative biomass at the end of Season 2 via the probability of surviving and aboveground vegetative biomass in surviving individuals. We evaluate both fitness measures in *S. pulchra* for three reasons: first, because this species can reproduce clonally (Hull and Muller 1977, Dyer and Rice 1997); second, because surviving plants that do not produce seeds within two seasons still have the potential for future sexual reproduction, and; third, because vegetative biomass is strong predictor of fecundity in perennial grasses (Cheplick 2021). Biomass of *S. pulchra* at the end of Season 2

 was strongly positively correlated with total fecundity (i.e., the sum of fecundity in Seasons 1 144 and 2;  $r = 0.87$ ,  $t_{(688)} = 45.3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. S1). We also evaluated neighbor effects on emergence probability and emergence time because previous work shows that emergence is sensitive to neighboring seeds and seedlings (Dyer et al. 2000, Tielbörger and Prasse 2009).

# *Study system and seed material*

 *Bromus diandrus* (ripgut brome) is an annual grass native to Eurasia that has become naturalized in California since European settlement (Jackson 1985). This species is particularly dominant in disturbed areas, such as abandoned agricultural fields (Stromberg and Griffin 1996). *B. diandrus* is largely self-fertilizing (selfing rate > 0.99; Kon and Blacklow 1990). *Stipa pulchra* (purple needlegrass) is a long-lived perennial bunchgrass native to California that is found in woodland, chaparral, and grassland from Baja California to northern California (Baldwin et al. 2012). The potential post-germination lifespan of *S. pulchra* under field conditions is conservatively estimated at 100 years (Hamilton et al. 2002). *S. pulchra* also has high rates of self-fertilization (reported selfing rate ≈ 1; Larson et al. 2001) and can also reproduce clonally (Hull and Muller 1977, Dyer and Rice 1997). *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra* often co-occur throughout California (Waterton et al. 2020).

 For both focal species, we used field collected seeds from naturally occurring populations exhibiting high seedling emergence percentages in a previous study (*S. pulchra*: Sedgwick Reserve; *B. diandrus*: Elliott Chaparral Reserve; see Supplementary Text S1 for details). For each focal species, we used a total of 84 seeds in each of the nine neighbor 163 treatments, with seven seeds from each of 12 maternal lines ( $N = 756$  in each focal species). For each maternal line, we selected seeds that outwardly appeared viable (e.g., filled and undamaged) and randomly assigned them to neighbor treatments. We obtained neighbor seeds through a commercial supplier (S&S Seeds, Carpinteria, CA USA), with the exception

 of *H. murinum* seeds which we collected in bulk from the site of the field experiment in February 2015.

# *Field experiment*

#### *Establishing plots and planting seeds*

171 Prior to Season 1, we established nine  $0.9 \times 1.05$  m plots in a fully randomized block design replicated seven times, with each neighbor treatment represented once per block (Fig. 1). In January 2017, we watered and tilled plots to deplete the seed bank. For each focal species, we planted one seed from each of 12 maternal lines into two rows of six in each plot half, leaving a 30 cm wide strip in the middle of each plot separating each focal species (Fig. 1). We sowed neighbor seeds evenly across plots on the soil surface at a intended density of 177 900 seedlings m<sup>-2</sup>, with seed numbers adjusted for emergence percentages observed in greenhouse trials. We planted focal seeds by gently pressing them into the soil at a depth of 1 cm with radicles pointing downwards. To identify emerging focal individuals, we planted focal seeds in a 1.9 cm diameter, 0.5 cm height PVC ring that was covered while we sowed neighbor seeds. We planted all seeds into dry soil between 14 – 15 February. We watered plots on 16 February, with days to emergence calculated from this date.

 Prior to Season 2, we re-established the neighbor component of *S. pulchra* plot halves (0.45 × 1.05 m), as we harvested neighbor plants after Season 1 (see *Neighbor metrics*). Dry winter conditions delayed the onset of the growing season until after a large rain event on 9 January 2018. Because we harvested neighbor aboveground biomass at the end of Season 1, we re-sowed plots with neighbor seeds on 18 January 2018. We adjusted seed densities from 188 the first season to achieve the original intended density of 900 seedlings m<sup>-2</sup>. In both growing seasons, supplemental water was provided both to initiate germination and to prevent mass

 mortality due to drought, and non-neighbor weeds were carefully removed (full details are provided in Supplementary Text S1).

# *Traits and fitness of focal individuals*

 To quantify initial seed mass, we weighed each focal seed, including lemmas and awns, to the nearest 0.01 mg prior to planting. In Season 1 only, we monitored daily the emergence (i.e., visible radicle) of focal individuals until we had observed no emergence for three consecutive days. We were unable to monitor any emergence on 27 February, 11 days after initial watering, due to a rainstorm; therefore, any plants that emerged on this day were recorded as having emerged on 28 February. In Seasons 1 and 2, we harvested seeds of focal plants whenever seeds had matured but were still attached to culms; seeds were collected in coin envelopes and maintained at room temperature before weighing total seed production for each individual to the nearest 0.01 mg. At the end of Season 2 on 17 May 2018, we harvested *S. pulchra* aboveground biomass and dried it at 40 °C for three days before weighing to the nearest 0.01 g.

# *Quantifying neighbor metrics*

 We quantified five neighbor metrics in each plot in Season 1: (1) emergence time, (2) peak seedling density, (3) light interception, (4) soil water availability, and (5) total aboveground biomass. Full details of data collection for neighbor metrics are given in 208 Supplementary Text S1. Briefly, we monitored emergence of neighbors in a  $20 \times 20$  cm quadrat in the center of each plot daily between 20 February – 14 March 2017. For each plot, we calculated the number of days to reach 50% of total neighbor emergence and the peak density of emerging neighbor seedlings (i.e., prior to the onset of mortality). To characterize light interception, we measured photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) at ground level and above the canopy within an hour of the solar zenith on 18 May 2017 in cloudless weather and

calculated the percentage of light intercepted by the canopy. To quantify soil water

215 availability, we measured volumetric water content (VWC) from  $0 - 15$  cm depth over four

consecutive days following a rain event on 8 May and calculated mean VWC across the four

days. To quantify total aboveground biomass, we carefully clipped all neighbor aboveground

218 biomass to soil level 31 July – 2 August. We dried biomass at 40 °C for three days before

weighing to the nearest 0.01 g.

## *Statistical analyses*

 We conducted all statistical analyses using R version 4.2.2 (R Core Team 2022), analyzing each focal species separately. We tested the significance of fixed effects in all models with Type II Wald chi-square tests using the Anova function in the package car (Fox and Weisberg 2019). To assess the suitability of error distributions and data transformations, we used the simulateResiduals function in the package DHARMa (Hartig 2022).

# *Neighbor metrics*

 We tested whether neighbor metrics (emergence time, peak seedling density, PAR interception, soil VWC, total aboveground biomass), were influenced by each of the following fixed effects: neighbor treatment, neighbor origin, and neighbor diversity using separate PERMANOVAs fit using the adonis2 function in the package vegan (Oksanen et al. 2022). We excluded the neighbor-absent treatment from these analyses because it did not have associated data for emergence time, peak seedling density, and total aboveground biomass. In the case that a full PERMANOVA model was statistically significant, we fit separate univariate models for each neighbor metric. Full details of multivariate PERMANOVAs and univariate models are provided in Supplementary Text S1.

# *Emergence of focal individuals*

 To test whether and how each focal individual's seed mass, neighbor treatment, neighbor origin, and neighbor diversity influence the probability of emergence, we fit binomial generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) with a logit link using the glmmTMB function in the package glmmTMB (Brooks et al. 2017). We tested how each factor influenced mean emergence time (log-transformed to improve the normality of residuals) with linear mixed models (LMMs) using the lmer function in the package lme4 (Bates et al. 2015). Full details of emergence analyses are provided in Supplementary Text S1.

# *Analysis of fitness*

 Fitness (fecundity in *B. diandrus;* fecundity and biomass in *S. pulchra*) was zero- inflated and over-dispersed; therefore, we analyzed mean fitness and phenotypic selection using hurdle negative binomial GLMMs (cf. Wadgymar et al. 2015, Waterton and Cleland 2021, MacTavish and Anderson 2022). These models proceed in two parts: first, a "zero model" comprising a binomial regression with logit link function modeling if plants reproduced or survived until biomass was harvested (*S. pulchra* only); second, a "non-zero model" comprising a negative binomial regression with log link function modeling the fecundity of seed-producing individuals or the biomass of survivors. We rounded fecundity and biomass to the nearest 1 mg and 1 g, respectively, because negative binomial models require integer values for response variables.

*Mean fitness*

 To test the effect of neighbor treatment on mean fitness, we fit a hurdle GLMM (glmmTMB package; Brooks et al. 2017) in which fitness was predicted by neighbor treatment, with block and plot as random intercepts. In the case of significant neighbor treatment effects in zero or non-zero model parts, we carried out two post hoc tests using the emmeans function in the package emmeans (Lenth et al. 2022): first, we tested the effect of

 neighbor presence vs. absence by comparing the neighbor-absent treatment to the average of the eight neighbor-present treatment levels; second, we tested the effect of neighbor identity with pairwise comparisons among the eight neighbor-present treatment levels.

 To investigate whether and how neighbor characteristics influence mean fitness, we examined the Pearson correlations between mean absolute fitness (including individuals with zero and non-zero fitness values) and each neighbor metric. Additionally, to test the effects of neighbor origin (native vs. non-native) and diversity (single vs. mixed species) on mean fitness, we fit separate hurdle GLMMs (glmmTMB package; Brooks et al. 2017) in which fitness was predicted by neighbor origin/diversity, with neighbor treatment, block, and plot as random intercepts.

# *Phenotypic selection*

 We tested the effect of neighbor identity on patterns of direct selection on seed mass and emergence time. Direct selection acting on a trait is that which acts after accounting for selection acting on other correlated traits (i.e., indirect selection). For phenotypic selection analyses, we standardized trait values to a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 across all neighbor treatments to maintain the same relative order of trait values for analyses of neighbor treatment, neighbor origin, and neighbor diversity; we note that standardizing within neighbor treatments gave similar results. To test whether direct selection differed between neighbor treatments, we fit hurdle GLMMs (glmmTMB package; Brooks et al. 2017) in which fitness was predicted by seedling traits (seed mass and emergence time), 281 neighbor treatment, and the trait  $\times$  neighbor treatment interactions, with random intercepts for 282 block and plot. When trait  $\times$  treatment interactions were significant, indicating context- specific selection, we carried out two post hoc tests using the emtrends function in the package emmeans (Lenth et al. 2022): first, we tested the effect of neighbor presence vs.

 absence on selection by comparing the coefficient in the neighbor-absent treatment to the average coefficient of all other treatment levels; second, we tested the effect of neighbor identity on selection with pairwise comparisons among the coefficients of the eight neighbor-present treatments.

 To investigate whether and how neighbor metrics and mean fitness are associated with selection on seedling traits, we examined the Pearson correlations between standardized selection gradients (β) and each neighbor metric and mean fitness. We estimated standardized selection gradients in each neighbor treatment from LMMs (lme4 package; Bates et al. 2015) of within-treatment level relative fitness (i.e., individual fitness divided by mean fitness) 294 predicted by traits, neighbor treatments, and the trait  $\times$  neighbor treatment interactions with random intercepts for block and plot. We relativized fitness within treatment levels as is appropriate for traits, such as emergence time, that are subject to strong soft selection (Weis et al. 2015, De Lisle and Svensson 2017). To test the effects of neighbor origin (native vs. non-native) and diversity (single vs. mixed species) on selection, we fit separate hurdle GLMMs (glmmTMB package; Brooks et al. 2017) in which fitness was predicted by traits, 300 neighbor origin/diversity, and trait  $\times$  neighbor origin/diversity interactions, with random intercepts for neighbor treatment, block, and plot. We estimated the mean value of selection gradients across each level of neighbor origin and diversity with LMMs (lme4 package; Bates et al. 2015) of within-origin/diversity level relative fitness predicted by the relevant traits with random intercepts for neighbor treatment, block, and plot.

 To test whether direct selection exerted by neighbors was consistent between *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra*, we examined the Pearson correlations between standardized selection gradients for each trait in the two focal species across the eight neighbor-present treatments. Below, we focus on the results for *S. pulchra* selection gradients based on fecundity as these are most comparable to *B. diandrus* selection gradients. For a given trait, a

 significant, positive correlation between selection gradients in each species indicates that neighbor environments exerted consistent direct selection in each focal species. We note that estimates of selection in each species are not fully independent as individuals of both species were present in the same plots. That is, latent, unmeasured attributes of each plot may contribute to correlations between the selection gradients estimated for each focal species.

# **RESULTS**

## *Neighbor metrics*

 Neighbor metrics differed significantly among neighbor treatments (pseudo-*F*(7) = 318  $6.26$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ). This overall effect was driven by significant differences among neighbor 319 treatments in emergence time ( $\chi^2(z) = 55.4$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 2A), peak seedling density ( $\chi^2(z) =$ 320 42.4,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 2B), light interception ( $\chi^2(z) = 69.2$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 2C), soil moisture 321 availability ( $\chi^2$ <sub>(7)</sub> = 18.2, *P* = 0.011, note that all pairwise comparisons were nonsignificant; 322 Fig. 2D), and total aboveground biomass  $(\chi^2(\tau) = 126.1, P < 0.001;$  Fig. 2E). However, neighbor metrics did not differ significantly between native and non-native communities 324 (pseudo- $F_{(1)} = 0.98$ ,  $P = 0.48$ ) nor between single- and mixed species communities (pseudo-325  $F_{(1)} = 0.18, P \approx 0.96$ .

# *Emergence of focal individuals*

# *Bromus diandrus*

 In *B. diandrus*, 80.6% of seeds emerged across 24 days with a mean emergence time 329 of 7.8 days (SD = 2.85,  $n = 609$ ). Heavier seeds were more likely to emerge ( $\chi^2(1) = 8.35$ ,  $P =$ 330 0.004; Fig. S2A) and emerged earlier  $(\chi^2(1)} = 29.9, P < 0.001$ ; Fig. S3A) than relatively light seeds. Emergence probability, but not emergence time, was influenced by neighbor treatment, with lower emergence probability in the presence of the non-native *Bromus hordeaceus*

 compared to non-native *Hordeum murinum*, but neighbor origin and diversity had no effect on emergence time or percent (Tables S1, S2; Figs. S4A, S5A).

*Stipa pulchra*

 In *S. pulchra*, 91.3% of seeds emerged across 20 days with a mean emergence time of 337 10.5 days (SD = 2.86,  $n = 690$ ). Heavier *S. pulchra* seeds were more likely to emerge ( $\chi^2$ <sub>(1)</sub> = 338 10.9,  $P = 0.001$ ; Fig. S2B) and emerged earlier ( $\chi^2(1) = 43.2$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. S3B). Neighbor, neighbor origin, and neighbor diversity had no effect on either emergence time or emergence probability (Tables S1, S2; Figs. S4B, S5B).

# *Mean fitness*

# *Bromus diandrus*

 Neighbor treatment had a marginally nonsignificant effect on the probability of reproduction in *B. diandrus* (Table 2; Fig. 3A) and significantly influenced the mean fecundity of seed-producing individuals (Table 2; Fig. 3B). The latter effect was driven not by the presence vs. absence of neighbors, but by differences among neighbor-present treatments (Fig. 3B). Mean fecundity was negatively correlated with neighbor aboveground biomass but was not correlated with any other neighbor metric (Table 3). Neighbor origin did not affect the probability of reproduction, but non-natives reduced the fecundity of seed- producing individuals of *B. diandrus* by a marginally nonsignificant 18% (Table 2; Figs. S6A, B). More diverse communities reduced the probability of reproduction by 8%, but neighbor diversity did not influence the mean fecundity of seed-producing individuals (Table 2; Fig. S7A, B).

*Stipa pulchra*

 Neighbor treatment significantly affected the probability of reproduction in *S. pulchra* (Table 2; Fig. 3C). This was driven by a lower probability of reproduction in the presence vs. absence of neighbors and by differences among neighbor-present treatments (Fig. 3C). Neighbor treatment also affected the mean fecundity of seed-producing *S. pulchra* individuals, driven by lower mean fecundity in the presence vs. absence of neighbors and by differences among neighbor-present treatments (Table 2; Fig. 3D). Neighbor treatment did not significantly influence survival probability (Table 2; Fig. 3E) but significantly influenced biomass among survivors (Table 2; Fig. 3F). This latter effect was driven by lower biomass in the presence vs. absence of neighbors and by differences among neighbor-present treatments. Mean fecundity was weakly, and mean biomass significantly, negatively correlated with total neighbor aboveground biomass (Table 3). However, mean fitness via either fitness measure was not correlated with any other neighbor metric (Table 3). Compared to native neighbors, non-natives lowered fecundity via reproduction probability and biomass via non-zero biomass (Table 2; Figs. S6C-F). More diverse neighbors lowered reproduction and survival probability, but neighbor diversity had no effect on non-zero fecundity or biomass (Table 2; Figs. S7C-F).

# *Phenotypic selection*

 Standardized selection gradients (β) for *S. pulchra* and *B. diandrus* in each neighbor treatment, neighbor origin and neighbor diversity groups are provided in Table S3.

*Bromus diandrus*

 Direct selection favored heavier sown seeds via non-zero fecundity consistently across neighbor treatments (Table 4; Fig. 4B). Later emerging plants were more likely to reproduce, but of those that reproduced, earlier emerging plants had higher fecundity. Selection on emergence time via both fitness components did not differ significantly among  neighbor treatments (Table 4; Fig. 5A, B). Standardized seed mass selection gradients were significantly positively correlated with total neighbor biomass, indicating that heavier sown seeds were increasingly favored when surrounded by neighboring communities with greater aboveground biomass (Table 5). However, no other neighbor metrics or mean fitness were associated with selection on either trait (Table 5). Neither neighbor origin nor neighbor diversity affected the strength or direction of selection on either trait via the probability of reproduction or the fecundity of seed-producing individuals (Table 4; Fig. S8-S11).

*Stipa pulchra*

 Plants from lighter seeds were more likely to reproduce, but of those that reproduced and survived, plants from heavier seeds had higher fecundity and vegetative biomass; this selection did not differ among neighbor treatments (Table 4; Fig. 4C, D). Plants that emerged later were more likely to reproduce and survive (Table 4; Fig. 5C, D), and this selection did not differ among neighbor treatments. Among surviving plants, selection via biomass generally favored earlier emergence, but differed significantly among some neighbor-present treatments resulting from selection for later emergence in the presence of the non-native *F. myuros* that differed significantly from selection for earlier emergence in non-native *B. hordeaceus* (Table 4; Fig. 5F). Standardized selection gradients for emergence time via fecundity and biomass were significantly negatively correlated with soil water availability; selection for earlier emergence was stronger in communities with higher soil moisture (Table 5). Selection gradients for emergence time via both fitness measures were also weakly negatively correlated with light interception, indicating a trend of stronger selection for earlier emergence when neighbors intercepted more light (Table 5). Selection on neither trait was associated with mean fitness (Table 5). Neither neighbor origin nor neighbor diversity influenced selection on either seedling trait via fecundity or biomass (Table 4; Fig. S8-S11).

### *Consistency of selection exerted by neighbors*

 Direct selection on seed mass exerted by neighbors was not consistent in the two focal species, as indicated by a nonsignificant correlation among standardized seed mass selection gradients for *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra* via fecundity (r = 0.44, *P* = 0.27, Fig. 6A). However, this result was strongly influenced by the *Hordeum brachyantherum* treatment, which when excluded resulted in a significant positive correlation among seed mass selection gradients (r  $409 = 0.79$ ,  $P = 0.036$ ). Direct selection on emergence time exerted by neighboring communities was consistent, as indicated by a significant positive correlation among standardized emergence time selection gradients for *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra* (r = 0.80, *P* = 0.018; Fig. 6B). Correlations between *B. diandrus* selection gradients and *S. pulchra* selection gradients 413 via biomass were qualitatively similar, being nonsignificant for seed mass ( $r = 0.41$ ,  $P = 0.32$ , 414 Fig. S12A) and marginally significantly positive for emergence time  $(r = 0.71, P = 0.051;$ Fig. S12B).

### **DISCUSSION**

 Plant-plant interactions are important for shaping plant community structure (Soliveres and Maestre 2014, Bashirzadeh et al. 2022), but less is known about how they drive evolutionary change in constituent populations (Thorpe et al. 2011). We hypothesized that the identity of neighboring plants influences natural selection on seedling traits by determining environmental conditions, and that patterns of selection are predictable based on 422 the characteristics of the neighboring community. We found mixed support for Prediction 1 that the strength or pattern of selection would vary with neighbor identity: neighbor identity influenced patterns of selection on seedling traits in the native perennial *S. pulchra* but not the non-native annual *B. diandrus*. We found mixed support for Prediction 2 that selection would be stronger when neighbors uptake more resources, reduce mean fitness to a greater

 extent, are non-native, or are more species-rich: selection on seedling traits was most strongly associated with measures of neighbor resource uptake and productivity, but not neighbor effects on mean fitness or other characteristics such as origin or diversity. Here, we discuss these key results, their implications in the context of global change, and outline future directions for understanding the evolutionary effects of neighboring plants.

# *Prediction 1: Neighbors shaped selection in S. pulchra, but not B. diandrus*

 In *S. pulchra*, surviving plants that emerged earlier tended to have higher biomass but this selection differed between neighbors, notably with selection for later emergence observed in the presence of non-native *F. myuros*. This variable selection among neighbor treatments is consistent with previous work showing that selection for earlier emergence in velvetleaf (*Abutilon theophrasti*) was more intense in a community of weed species vs. corn crops (Weinig 2000). However, our results differ in that neighbors altered not just the strength but also the direction of selection on emergence time. This suggests that community composition could contribute to temporal or spatial variation in optimum emergence time (cf. Kalisz 1986), and could be cryptic driver of geographic clines in emergence timing (e.g., Gutterman and Edine 1988, Torres-Martínez et al. 2017, Waterton et al. 2020).

 In contrast, selection on seedling traits in the non-native annual *B. diandrus* did not differ significantly among neighbor treatments. This suggests that selection on seedling traits in this species acts more independently of the competitive neighborhood, and instead may be influenced more by other abiotic and biotic environmental factors. This is consistent with the results for mean fitness: neighbor treatment did not affect the probability of reproduction and mean fecundity did not differ between neighbor-present vs. neighbor-absent treatments. One potential reason for this lower sensitivity of selection to neighbor identity in *B. diandrus* vs. *S. pulchra* could be because the former emerged more rapidly (i.e., the phenotypic

 distribution is shifted earlier), such that most individuals, regardless of phenotype, start growing before the different neighboring communities begin to exert any variable effects. We also note that all neighbor species were grasses (representing three genera), and although this reflects the dominant biomass in grassland communities, it likely represents a fraction of the potential phylogenetic and functional diversity present in many natural communities, potentially leading to less variable selection in our experiment than in natural communities.

# *Prediction 2: Patterns of selection were most strongly associated with measures of neighbor resource uptake and productivity*

 Stronger selection for earlier emergence in *S. pulchra* in neighbor communities with higher soil moisture availability was counter to Prediction 2, which states that selection will be stronger where neighbors take up more resources (or, for example, where water is more limiting). However, our measurements of soil moisture were between 0 – 15cm, and *S. pulchra* is deep-rooted (up to 1 m) with the greatest amount of roots found at 15 – 30 cm depth (Hull and Muller 1977). Thus, neighbors that reduced soil moisture the most may have done so at soil depths that have a lesser impact on *S. pulchra* growth. The weak trend of stronger selection for earlier emergence when neighbors intercepted more light was consistent with Prediction 2; however, we expect that this pattern will only hold for neighbor communities in which earlier emergence provides greater light acquisition and not in those where even the earliest emerging plants are shaded. Supporting this, Weinig (2000) found that earlier emergence enhanced velvetleaf fitness in the presence of neighbors for which it allowed greater light capture (short-statured weeds), but not in the presence of taller-statured neighbors where light was limited regardless of emergence time (corn crops). In *B. diandrus*, selection for heavier seeds was stronger neighbor communities with higher aboveground productivity, consistent with Prediction 2. Compared to *S. pulchra*, *B. diandrus* is characterized by a more light-acquisitive growth strategy (e.g., allocating more biomass to

 shoots vs. roots; Holmes and Rice 1996), which may explain why the benefits of heavier seeds were more pronounced for *B. diandrus* in environments characterized by stronger aboveground competition.

 Mean fitness was not associated with the strength of selection in either focal species, contradicting the theoretical prediction that selection will be stronger in environments that reduce mean fitness to a greater extent (Rundle and Vamosi 1996, Benkman 2013, Fugère and Hendry 2018). However, our result is consistent with several studies showing that lower mean fitness in plant populations does not increase the opportunity for selection (Case and Ashman 2007, Sletvold et al. 2017, Waterton et al. 2022). Our results suggest that neighbor characteristics other than effects on mean fitness, such as functional traits or measures of resource uptake, will be more informative for predicting their selective effects. We also note that lifetime fitness estimates are not as reliable in perennial *S. pulchra* as in annual *B. diandrus* due to its potential longevity (> 100 years; Hamilton et al. 2002) and the relatively short duration of this study (2 years).

# *Implications for evolutionary adaptation to global change*

 Adaptive evolution in seedling traits is considered to be an important component of *in situ* responses to global change that will promote long-term species persistence (Walck et al. 2011, Cochrane et al. 2015). Most studies that aim to predict how plant populations will adaptively evolve and persist under drivers of global change such as climate change and nitrogen enrichment have focused on the direct selective effects (Etterson and Shaw 2001, Franks et al. 2007, Anderson et al. 2012, Dickman et al. 2019, Petipas et al. 2020), but rarely consider the potential for plant-plant interactions to mediate adaptive evolutionary responses. The results presented here indicate that such changes in the taxonomic composition of a species' neighbors resulting from global change can affect the strength and even direction of

 phenotypic selection on seedling traits, although the potential for such effects will be greater in some species (e.g., *S. pulchra*) than others (e.g., *B. diandrus*) and will depend on how neighbor identity changes (e.g., differences in light or soil moisture). Such changes in the intensity of selection could potentially promote or impede adaptation to drivers of global change depending on whether they are concordant with or antagonistic to long-term shifts in directly imposed selection.

# *Towards predicting neighbor-mediated evolution*

 Our results suggest that neighbor traits can be used to predict their evolutionary effects, but our study is limited in this regard. First, selection is likely to be determined by neighbor characteristics that we did not quantify, including belowground traits such as rooting depth or allelopathy (cf. Lankau 2012). Second, selection on seedling traits may be driven by interactions between different neighbor characteristics, such as light interception and emergence time (cf. Weinig 2000). With only eight neighbor-present treatments, we are unable to test for such interactions. Third, as has been has been found in previous studies, selection on seedling traits via fitness components expressed at different times was discordant (Kelly 1992, Stratton 1992, Gómez 2004, Akiyama and Ågren 2014); however, because we quantified each neighbor metric at a single time point we are unable to examine how neighbors influence selection acting at different life stages. Finally, with only two focal species, we have limited capacity to investigate the extent to which neighbors exert consistent selection in different focal species, and how this might relate to life history, phenological or morphological traits intrinsic to focal species. Characterizing the mechanisms underlying neighbor-mediated selection will therefore require larger experiments with more focal and neighbor species, which will be logistically challenging given the large sample sizes that generally are required to detect natural selection in the field (Hersch and Phillips 2004).

## *Conclusions*

 Our results demonstrate that neighboring plants can shape selection on seedling traits, suggesting that shifts in plant community composition due to various drivers of global change or other local environmental disruptions may lead to cascading changes in selection. However, these responses will likely differ considerably among species, with the direction and strength of selection in some species being less sensitive to neighbors than in others. Furthermore, we show that patterns of selection on seedling traits are associated with neighbor characteristics such as resource uptake, suggesting that a trait-based approach has considerable potential to increase our understanding of the evolutionary consequences of

plant-plant interactions.

# **DATA AVAILABILITY**

- Data, metadata, and the R script for reproducing data analyses and figures can be
- accessed on the Dryad Data Repository [https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.4tmpg4fgp.](https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.4tmpg4fgp)

# **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

## **Supplementary Text S1.** Supplemental methods.

- **Table S1.** Significance of fixed effects in generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) testing
- effects of neighbor treatment, neighbor origin, and neighbor diversity on emergence percent.
- **Table S2.** Significance of fixed effects in linear mixed models (LMMs) testing effects of
- neighbor treatment, neighbor origin, and neighbor diversity on emergence time.
- **Table S3.** Standardized selection gradients in neighbor treatments and across levels of
- neighbor origin and neighbor diversity.
- **Figure S1.** Association between *S. pulchra* aboveground biomass and total fecundity.
- **Figure S2.** Effect of seed mass on emergence probability in *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra*.
- **Figure S3.** Effect of seed mass on emergence time in *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra*.
- **Figure S4.** Estimated marginal mean emergence probability in neighbor treatments in *B.*
- *diandrus* and *S. pulchra*.
- **Figure S5.** Estimated marginal mean emergence time in neighbor treatments in *B. diandrus*
- and *S. pulchra*.
- **Figure S6.** Estimated marginal mean fitness in neighbor origin status in *B. diandrus* and *S.*
- *pulchra*.
- **Figure S7.** Estimated marginal mean fitness in neighbor diversity level in *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra*.
- **Figure S8.** Seed mass selection coefficients from hurdle GLMMs in neighbor origin status in
- *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra*.
- **Figure S9.** Emergence time selection coefficients from hurdle GLMMs in neighbor origin
- status in *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra*.
- **Figure S10.** Seed mass selection coefficients from hurdle GLMMs in neighbor diversity level
- in *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra*.
- **Figure S11.** Emergence time selection coefficients from hurdle GLMMs in neighbor
- diversity level in *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra*.
- **Figure S12.** Association between selection gradients in *S. pulchra* (based on biomass) and *B.*
- *diandrus* in neighbor-present treatments for seed mass and emergence time.

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# 808 **TABLES**

# 809 **Table 1. Focal species and neighbor treatments in the field experiment.**



810 Notes: Neighbor treatments comprised eight "neighbor-present" treatments, including six

811 single species treatments and two mixed species treatments, and a "neighbor-absent"

812 treatment. The native and non-native mixture treatments contained all three natives and non-

813 natives, respectively, each at a third of the seeding rate in single species treatments.

# 814 **Table 2. Significance of fixed effects in hurdle generalized linear mixed models**

# 815 **(GLMMs) testing effects of neighbor treatment, neighbor origin, and neighbor diversity**

# 816 **on mean fitness.**



817 Notes: Zero models are binomial regressions with a logit link function modeling if plants

819 negative binomial regressions with a log link function modeling the fecundity of seed-

820 producing individuals or the biomass of survivors (*S. pulchra* only). *P*-values < 0.05 are

821 highlighted in bold. See Figs. 3, S6-7 to view the direction and magnitude of each fixed effect

822 level on mean fitness.

<sup>818</sup> reproduced or survived until biomass was harvested (*S. pulchra* only). Non-zero models are

# 823 **Table 3. Correlations between mean fitness and neighbor metrics.**



824 Notes: Correlations are based on neighbor-present treatments only. Significance: †*P* < 0.1, \**P*

825 < 0.05, \*\* $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ .

# 826 **Table 4. Significance of fixed effects in hurdle generalized linear mixed models**

# 827 **(GLMMs) testing effects of neighbor treatment, neighbor origin, and neighbor diversity**

# 828 **on phenotypic selection.**

Fitness	Model	Fixed effect	Zero model			Non-zero model		
component			$\chi^2$	df	$\boldsymbol{P}$	$\chi^2$	df	P
<b>B.</b> diandrus								
Fecundity	Neighbor	Neighbor	11.3	8	0.19	25.6	8	0.001
		Seed mass	0.018	$\mathbf{1}$	0.89	6.54	$\mathbf{1}$	0.011
		Emergence time	4.65	$\mathbf{1}$	0.031	8.31	$\mathbf{1}$	0.004
		Neighbor x seed	6.55	$\,8\,$	0.59	5.07	$\,8\,$	0.75
		Neighbor x emergence	11.2	8	0.19	4.85	$\,8\,$	0.77
	Origin	Origin	0.70	1	0.40	2.85	1	0.091
		Seed mass	0.24	$\mathbf{1}$	0.62	7.10	$\mathbf{1}$	0.008
		Emergence time	6.24	$\mathbf{1}$	0.012	7.99	1	0.005
		Origin x seed	1.61	1	0.20	0.0002	1	0.99
		Origin x emergence	3.23	1	0.072	1.85	1	0.17
	Diversity	Diversity	5.66	1	0.017	0.11	1	0.75
		Seed mass	0.18	$\mathbf{1}$	0.67	7.27	$\mathbf{1}$	0.007
		Emergence time	5.98	$\mathbf{1}$	0.015	7.83	1	0.005
		Diversity x seed	0.90	1	0.34	0.28	1	0.60
		Diversity x emergence	0.058	1	0.81	0.12	1	0.73
S. pulchra								
Fecundity	Neighbor	Neighbor	35.9	$\,8\,$	< 0.001	64.5	$\,8\,$	< 0.001
		Seed mass	4.85	$\mathbf{1}$	0.028	4.00	1	0.046
		Emergence time	6.25	$\mathbf{1}$	0.012	0.009	1	0.92
		Neighbor x seed	12.7	$\,8\,$	0.12	6.44	$\,8\,$	0.60
		Neighbor x emergence	11.7	8	0.16	4.31	$\,8\,$	0.83
	Origin	Origin	7.10	1	0.008	2.63	$\mathbf{1}$	0.11
		Seed mass	6.53	$\mathbf{1}$	0.011	1.44	1	0.23
		Emergence time	8.51	1	0.004	0.0005	1	0.98
		Origin x seed	1.45	1	0.23	0.16	1	0.69
		Origin x emergence	1.24	1	0.27	0.60	1	0.44
	Diversity	Diversity	7.20	1	0.007	0.38	1	0.54
		Seed mass	6.35	1	0.012	1.55	$\mathbf{1}$	0.21
		Emergence time	8.88	$\mathbf{1}$	0.003	0.009	$\mathbf{1}$	0.92
		Diversity x seed	0.25	1	0.62	0.63	1	0.43
		Diversity x emergence	0.002	$\mathbf{1}$	0.96	$0.92\,$	1	0.34
<b>Biomass</b>	Neighbor	Neighbor	9.08	8	0.34	$100.\overline{8}$	$\,8\,$	< 0.001
		Seed mass	0.075	$\mathbf{1}$	0.78	8.88	$\mathbf{1}$	0.003
		Emergence time	16.4	$\mathbf{1}$	< 0.001	17.7	$\mathbf{1}$	< 0.001
		Neighbor x seed	7.59	8	0.47	7.04	$\,8\,$	0.53
		Neighbor x emergence	$10.5\,$	$\,8\,$	0.23	18.4	$\,8\,$	0.018
	Origin	Origin	3.74	1	0.053	3.60		0.058
		Seed mass	0.088	$\mathbf{1}$	0.77	7.51	$\mathbf{1}$	0.006
		Emergence time	23.2	1	< 0.001	11.7	1	< 0.001
		Origin x seed	0.35	1	0.55	0.11	1	0.74
		Origin x emergence	0.80	1	0.37	0.002	1	0.97
	Diversity	Diversity	2.22	1	0.14	2.18	1	0.14
		Seed mass	0.052	$\mathbf{1}$	0.82	7.05	$\mathbf{1}$	0.008
		Emergence time	23.1	$\mathbf{1}$	< 0.001	12.4	1	< 0.001
		Diversity x seed	2.46	$\mathbf{1}$	0.12	0.33	1	0.57
		Diversity x emergence	0.63	1	0.43	1.11	1	0.29

<sup>829</sup> Notes: Zero models are binomial regressions with a logit link function modeling if plants

<sup>830</sup> reproduced or survived until biomass was harvested (*S. pulchra* only). Non-zero models are

<sup>831</sup> negative binomial regressions with a log link function modeling the fecundity of seed-

- producing individuals or the biomass of survivors (*S. pulchra* only). *P*-values < 0.05 are
- highlighted in bold. See Figs. 4-5, S8-11 to view the direction and magnitude of each fixed
- effect level on selection coefficients from hurdle GLMMs.

# 835 **Table 5. Correlations between selection gradients for fitness-related traits (seed mass**



# 836 **and emergence time) and neighbor metrics and mean fitness.**

837 Notes: Correlations are based on neighbor-present treatments only. Significance: †*P* < 0.1, \**P*

838  $< 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001.$ 

#### **FIGURE LEGENDS**

 **Figure 1. Layout of the field experiment with an example block layout.** Dark grey and 841 light grey squares represent native and non-native neighbor plots, respectively; striped and non-striped squares represent mixed species and single species plots, respectively; blue represents neighbor-absent plots. Light grey and dark grey circles represent *B. diandrus* and *S. pulchra* individuals, respectively.



## **Figure 3. Estimated marginal mean fitness ± SE in neighbor treatments in (A, B)** *B.*

 *diandrus* **and (C – F)** *S. pulchra***.** *P*-values are from hurdle generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) testing the effects of neighbor treatment on fitness components. Two types of post hoc tests are shown: 1) neighbor presence vs. absence (indicated above neighbor absent treatment; significance: †*P* < 0.1, \**P* < 0.05, \*\**P* < 0.01, \*\*\**P* < 0.001); 2) pairwise

- comparisons among the eight neighbor-present treatments (letters indicate significant
- differences). Dark grey and light grey bars represent native and non-native neighbor

 treatments, respectively; striped and non-striped bars represent mixed species and single species treatments, respectively; blue represents the neighbor-absent treatment. Neighbor treatment codes: ABS = Neighbor-absent; BRCA = *Bromus carinatus*; FEMI = *Festuca microstachys*; HOBR = *Hordeum brachyantherum*; NAMIX = Native mixture; BRHO = *Bromus hordeaceus*; FEMY = *Festuca myuros*; HOMU = *Hordeum murinum*; NONMIX = Non-native mixture.

 **Figure 4. Seed mass selection coefficients ± SE from hurdle GLMMs in neighbor treatments in (A, B)** *B. diandrus* **and (C – F)** *S. pulchra***.** *P*-values are for the seed mass 872 (SM) and seed mass  $\times$  neighbor treatment interaction (SM  $\times$  N) terms in hurdle GLMMs testing the effects of seedling traits (seed mass and emergence time), neighbor treatment, and 874 the trait  $\times$  neighbor treatment interactions. Dark grey and light grey bars represent native and non-native neighbor treatments, respectively; striped and non-striped bars represent mixed species and single species treatments, respectively; blue represents the neighbor-absent treatment. Neighbor treatment codes: ABS = Neighbor-absent; BRCA = *Bromus carinatus*; FEMI = *Festuca microstachys*; HOBR = *Hordeum brachyantherum*; NAMIX = Native mixture; BRHO = *Bromus hordeaceus*; FEMY = *Festuca myuros*; HOMU = *Hordeum murinum*; NONMIX = Non-native mixture.

**Figure 5. Emergence time selection coefficients ± SE from hurdle GLMMs in neighbor** 

**treatments in (A, B)** *B. diandrus* **and (C – F)** *S. pulchra***.** *P*-values are for the emergence

884 time (ET) and emergence time  $\times$  neighbor treatment interaction (ET  $\times$  N) terms in hurdle

GLMMs testing the effects of seedling traits (seed mass and emergence time), neighbor

886 treatment, and the trait  $\times$  neighbor treatment interactions. Two types of post hoc tests are



903 NONMIX = Non-native mixture.

# **FIGURES**

















#### **Supporting Text S1. Supplemental methods.**

#### *Site information*

 The experimental site is flat, regularly tilled, and is classified as having sandy clay loam soil. The climate is Mediterranean, with most precipitation typically falling between November and May, during which the majority of seedling emergence and subsequent growth occurs. Where not weeded, the site is typically dominated by exotic annual species including *Hordeum murinum* (Poaceae), *Erodium cicutarium* (Geraniaceae), and *Malva parviflora* (Malvaceae).

#### *Seed collection*

 We collected seeds of both species in April 2015. We collected *Stipa pulchra* seeds in Sedgwick Reserve from a naturally occurring population on the Byrne observatory mesa (34.692° N 120.043° W) and *Bromus diandrus* seeds in Elliott Chaparral Reserve from a naturally occurring population several hundred yards west of the Nutrient Network site (32.889° N, 117.091° W). *S. pulchra* can reproduce clonally, with distances of 30 cm between clones having been reported (Hull and Muller 1977). Therefore, we collected from maternal plants spaced at least 5m apart to avoid collecting from closely related plants or 50 clones. We stored all seeds in a refrigerator at  $4^{\circ}$  C until use.

#### *Neighbor metrics*

53 We monitored the emergence of neighbor seeds in a  $20 \times 20$  cm quadrat in the center<br>54 of each plot daily between 20 February – 14 March 2017 (Season 1) by which point no new of each plot daily between 20 February  $-14$  March 2017 (Season 1) by which point no new germinating seedlings were recorded for 3 days in all but [two plots]. In the mixed species treatments, we recorded the total number of emerged individuals for the three constituent species combined. We calculated the number of days to emergence from 16 February, the date on which we first watered plots. For each plot, we calculated the number of days to reach 50% of total neighbor emergence, and the peak density of emerging neighbor seedlings per square meter (i.e., prior to the onset of mortality). We were unable to monitor any emergence on 27 February due to a rainstorm; therefore, some individuals that we recorded as having emerged on 28 February may have emerged a day earlier.

 To characterize soil water availability, we measured volumetric water content (VWC) from 0-15 cm depth using a FieldScout 150 soil moisture probe (Spectrum Technologies Inc., Aurora, IL USA) at five points in each plot (each corner and the center) over four consecutive days following a rain event on 8 May 2017 (Season 1). We calculated mean soil VWC for each plot using all measurements from across the four days. To characterize light interception in each plot, on the afternoon of 18 May 2017 (Season 1) , when the sky was clear, we recorded photosynthetic active radiation (PAR) above the canopy and at ground level along both diagonals of each plot using an AccuPAR LP-80 PAR Ceptometer (Decagon Devices Inc., Pullman, WA USA) We calculated the percentage of PAR intercepted in each plot by subtracting the mean of the two ground-level measurements from the mean of the two above-canopy measurements and dividing this by the above-canopy mean.

 At the end of Season 1, we harvested all neighbor aboveground biomass in plots around surviving *S. pulchra* plants from 31 July - 2 August 2017. We dried neighbor biomass for each plot at 40 °C for three days before weighing. We did not repeat any measurements of community context in remaining plot halves during Season 2.

#### *Watering and weeding*

 At the start of each season of the experiment (16 February 2017 in Season 1, 18 81 January 2018 in Season 2), we gently applied 3 l of water across each plot  $\left(\sim 3 \text{ mm}$ , which represents half the weekly rainfall at the site [prism.oregonstate.edu/]) to settle sown seeds into the soil and to initiate germination. In Season 2, because of low neighbor germination after the first rain event, we gently applied 3 l of water daily across each plot from 29 January 2018 until the next rain event on 21 February 2018. In Seasons 1 and 2, we watered plots to avoid the risk of mass mortality due to prolonged drought. Except for weeks in which there was forecasted rain event, we supplied 3 l of water evenly across each plot twice a week, two days apart, until 13 May 2017 in Season 1 and until 20 April 2018 in Season 2.

 Throughout the experiment, we carefully pulled all weeds from neighbor-absent treatment plots and all non-grass weeds from plots of all other treatments. We only removed non-grass weeds from neighbor-present treatments because these could be confidently distinguished from sown neighbors.

#### *Statistical analyses*

#### *Neighbor metrics*

 We tested whether neighbor metrics, (emergence time, peak seedling density, light interception, soil water availability, total aboveground biomass), were influenced by each of the following fixed effects: neighbor treatment, origin, and diversity using PERMANOVAs fit using the adonis2 function in the package vegan (Oksanen et al. 2022). We excluded the neighbor-absent treatment from these analyses because it did not have associated data for emergence time, peak seedling density, and total aboveground biomass. To test the effect of neighbor treatment, we used the Euclidean distance metric on plot-level values of neighbor metrics, standardized to a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1, and performing 999 permutations and including block as a blocking factor. In the case that PERMANOVA for neighbor treatments were statistically significant, we fit separate univariate linear mixed models (LMMs) with random intercepts for block for each neighbor metric using the package lme4 (Bates et al. 2015). To test the effects of neighbor origin and neighbor diversity, we used the Euclidean distance metric on mean neighbor treatment values across all blocks of each metric (to avoid pseudo-replication from non-independence of plot-level values within each neighbor treatment), standardized to a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1, and performing 999 permutations. In the case that PERMANOVA for neighbor origin or neighbor diversity were statistically significant, we fit separate univariate linear models with the lm function for each neighbor metric.

*Emergence of focal individuals*

 To test whether and how each focal individual's seed mass, neighbor treatment, neighbor origin, and neighbor diversity influenced the probability of emergence, we fit binomial generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) with a logit link using the glmmTMB function in the package glmmTMB (Brooks et al. 2017). To test whether and how each factor influenced mean emergence time, we fit LMMs using the lmer function in the package lme4 (Bates et al. 2015). In these models, emergence probability/time was predicted by neighbor treatment, seed mass, and their interaction, with block and plot as random intercepts. In the case of significant neighbor treatment effects, we carried out two post hoc tests using the emmeans function in the package emmeans (Lenth et al. 2022): first, we tested the effect of neighbor presence vs. absence by comparing the neighbor-absent treatment to the average of neighbor-present treatments; second, we tested the effect of neighbor identity with pairwise

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- comparisons among the eight neighbor-present treatment levels. To test the effects of
- neighbor origin and diversity on emergence probability and emergence time, we fit separate
- GLMMs (glmmTMB package; Brooks et al. 2017) and LMMs (lme4 package; Bates et al.
- 2015) in which emergence probability/time was predicted by either neighbor origin/diversity,
- seed mass, and their interaction, with neighbor treatment, block, and plot as random
- intercepts.

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# 151 **Table S1. Significance of fixed effects in generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs)**

# 152 **testing effects of neighbor treatment, neighbor origin, and neighbor diversity on**

### 153 **emergence percent.**



154 Notes: *P*-values < 0.05 are highlighted in bold.



### 155 **Table S2. Significance of fixed effects in linear mixed models (LMMs) testing effects of**  156 **neighbor treatment, neighbor origin, and neighbor diversity on emergence time.**

157 Notes: Emergence time was log-transformed. *P*-values < 0.05 are highlighted in bold.



### 158 **Table S3. Standardized selection gradients (with SE) in neighbor treatments and across**  levels of neighbor origin and neighbor diversity.





 Biomass was harvested at the end of Season 2; total fecundity is the sum of fecundity in 188 Seasons 1 and 2.  $n = 690$ , the total number of seeds that germinated.







*pulchra***.** *P*-values are for the seed mass term from generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) testing the effects of neighbor treatment, seed mass, and neighbor treatment

192 (GLMMs) testing the effects of neighbor treatment, seed mass, and neighbor treatment  $\times$  seed 193 mass interaction on emergence.

mass interaction on emergence.







196 *P*-values are for the seed mass term from linear mixed models (LMMs) testing the effects of neighbor treatment, seed mass, and neighbor treatment  $\times$  seed mass interaction on emergence 197 neighbor treatment, seed mass, and neighbor treatment  $\times$  seed mass interaction on emergence.<br>198 We were unable to monitor any emergence 11 days after initial watering due to a rainstorm;

198 We were unable to monitor any emergence 11 days after initial watering due to a rainstorm;<br>199 therefore, any plants emerging on this day were recorded as having emerged 12 days after

199 therefore, any plants emerging on this day were recorded as having emerged 12 days after

watering.



**Figure S4. Estimated marginal mean emergence probability ± SE in neighbor** 

 **treatments in (A)** *B. diandrus* **and (B)** *S. pulchra***.** *P*-values are for the neighbor treatment term from generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) testing the effects of neighbor

205 treatment, seed mass, and neighbor treatment  $\times$  seed mass interaction on emergence

probability. Two types of post hoc tests are shown: 1) neighbor presence vs. absence

207 (indicated above neighbor absent treatment; significance:  $\dot{\tau}P < 0.1$ , \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ , 208 \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ ); 2) pairwise comparisons among the eight neighbor-present treatments (letterments)  $***P<0.001$ ; 2) pairwise comparisons among the eight neighbor-present treatments (letters

indicate significant differences). Dark grey and light grey bars represent native and non-

native neighbor treatments, respectively; striped and non-striped bars represent mixed species

and single species treatments, respectively; blue represents the neighbor-absent treatment.

Neighbor treatment codes: ABS = Neighbor-absent; BRCA = *Bromus carinatus*; FEMI =

*Festuca microstachys*; HOBR = *Hordeum brachyantherum*; NAMIX = Native mixture;

BRHO = *Bromus hordeaceus*; FEMY = *Festuca myuros*; HOMU = *Hordeum murinum*;

NONMIX = Non-native mixture.





217 **Figure S5. Estimated marginal mean emergence time ± SE in neighbor treatments in**<br>218 **(A)** *B. diandrus* **and (B)** *S. pulchra. P***-values are for the neighbor treatment term from lin** 

218 **(A)** *B. diandrus* **and (B)** *S. pulchra***.** *P*-values are for the neighbor treatment term from linear

- 219 mixed models (LMMs) testing the effects of neighbor treatment, seed mass, and neighbor treatment  $\times$  seed mass interaction on emergence time. Dark grey and light grey bars repres
- 220 treatment  $\times$  seed mass interaction on emergence time. Dark grey and light grey bars represent 221 native and non-native neighbor treatments, respectively; striped and non-striped bars
- 221 native and non-native neighbor treatments, respectively; striped and non-striped bars<br>222 represent mixed species and single species treatments, respectively; blue represents the
- 222 represent mixed species and single species treatments, respectively; blue represents the<br>223 neighbor-absent treatment. Neighbor treatment codes: ABS = Neighbor-absent; BRCA
- 223 neighbor-absent treatment. Neighbor treatment codes: ABS = Neighbor-absent; BRCA = 224 *Bromus carinatus*; FEMI = *Festuca microstachys*; HOBR = *Hordeum brachyantherum*;
- 224 *Bromus carinatus*; FEMI = *Festuca microstachys*; HOBR = *Hordeum brachyantherum*; 225 NAMIX = Native mixture; BRHO = *Bromus hordeaceus*; FEMY = *Festuca myuros*; HOMU
- 226 = *Hordeum murinum*; NONMIX = Non-native mixture.



 $\frac{227}{228}$ 

**Figure S6. Estimated marginal mean fitness**  $\pm$  **SE in neighbor origin status in**  $(A, B)$ *B***.** *adiandrus* **and**  $(C - F)$ *S. pulchra. P***-values are from hurdle generalized linear mixed models** 

229 *diandrus* and (C – **F**) *S. pulchra*. *P*-values are from hurdle generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) testing the effects of neighbor origin on fitness components. (GLMMs) testing the effects of neighbor origin on fitness components.





**Figure S7. Estimated marginal mean fitness ± SE in neighbor diversity level in (A, B)** *B.* 

- *diandrus* **and (C – F)** *S. pulchra***.** *P*-values are from hurdle generalized linear mixed models
- (GLMMs) testing the effects of neighbor diversity on fitness components.





 **Figure S8. Seed mass selection coefficients ± SE from hurdle GLMMs in neighbor origin status in (A, B)** *B. diandrus* **and (C – F)** *S. pulchra***.** *P*-values are for the seed mass (SM) 238 and seed mass  $\times$  neighbor origin interaction (SM  $\times$  O) terms in hurdle GLMMs testing the 239 effects of seedling traits (seed mass and emergence time), neighbor origin, and the trait  $\times$ neighbor origin interactions.



**Figure S9. Emergence time selection coefficients ± SE from hurdle GLMMs in neighbor** 

**origin status in (A, B)** *B. diandrus* **and (C – F)** *S. pulchra***.** *P*-values are for the emergence

244 time (ET) and emergence time  $\times$  neighbor origin interaction (ET  $\times$  O) terms in hurdle

GLMMs testing the effects of seedling traits (seed mass and emergence time), neighbor

246 origin, and the trait  $\times$  neighbor origin interactions.





**diversity level in (A, B)** *B. diandrus* **and (C – F)** *S. pulchra***.** *P*-values are for the seed mass

250 (SM) and seed mass  $\times$  neighbor diversity interaction (SM  $\times$  D) terms in hurdle GLMMs testing the effects of seedling traits (seed mass and emergence time), neighbor diversity, and

252 the trait  $\times$  neighbor diversity interactions.







255 **diversity level in (A, B)** *B. diandrus* **and (C – F)** *S. pulchra.**P***-values are for the emergence time (ET) and emergence time**  $\times$  **neighbor diversity interaction (ET**  $\times$  **D) terms in hurdle** 

256 time (ET) and emergence time  $\times$  neighbor diversity interaction (ET  $\times$  D) terms in hurdle<br>257 GLMMs testing the effects of seedling traits (seed mass and emergence time), neighbor 257 GLMMs testing the effects of seedling traits (seed mass and emergence time), neighbor<br>258 diversity, and the trait  $\times$  neighbor diversity interactions.

diversity, and the trait  $\times$  neighbor diversity interactions.







**biomass) and** *B. diandrus* **in neighbor-present treatments for (A) seed mass and (B) 262 emergence time. Selection gradients in the neighbor-absent treatment are shown for** 

**emergence time.** Selection gradients in the neighbor-absent treatment are shown for 263 reference (blue points). Neighbor treatment codes: BRCA = *Bromus carinatus*; FEM

reference (blue points). Neighbor treatment codes: BRCA = *Bromus carinatus*; FEMI =

 *Festuca microstachys*; HOBR = *Hordeum brachyantherum*; NAMIX = Native mixture; BRHO = *Bromus hordeaceus*; FEMY = *Festuca myuros*; HOMU = *Hordeum murinum*;

NONMIX = Non-native mixture.