

Fruit size and shape: allometry at different taxonomic levels in bird-dispersed plants

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Introduction

Fruits have evolved to promote seed dispersal by a variety of means. A fruit's form can often

reflect whether its seeds are dispersed by wind, water, or animals. In this study we examined

the allometric relationships between fruit size and shape in bird-dispersed plants.

We chose bird-dispersed plants because they represent a large group of plants with

widely differing fruit morphologies and dispersal syndromes. We also chose bird-dispersed

plants because they are often found in tropical forests, which are characterized by high

species richness and high rates of endemism (Harley & Bazzaz 1988; Bazzaz & Harley 1990).

Because of their high species richness and high rates of endemism, tropical forests are

ideal for examining the evolution of fruit traits in bird-dispersed plants.

Previous studies have shown that fruit size and shape are often correlated (e.g. Bazzaz &

Harley 1988; Bazzaz & Harley 1990; Mazer & Wheelwright 1991; Mazer et al. 1992).

For example, Bazzaz & Harley (1990) found that fruit size was negatively correlated with

fruit width in bird-dispersed plants from a variety of families.

However, it is not clear whether this relationship is consistent across all taxonomic

levels. For example, Mazer & Wheelwright (1991) found that fruit size was negatively

correlated with fruit width in bird-dispersed plants from a variety of families.

affiliation. Fruits of bird-dispersed plants tend to be characterized by small size, rounded shape, soft and nutritious pericarp, conspicuous colour, obvious and accessible presentation, persistence on the plant and the absence of a seed coat. These features are often associated with a low

dispersal potential in woody plants from arid zones (Shmida & Evenari 1974).

It has been suggested that the relationship between fruit size and seed size is

influenced by the cost of producing a large seed.

What adjustments in fruit or seed shape are favoured in order to reduce the relative investment per unit size on seed dispersal?

We explore the idea that much of the variation in fruit form so frequently noted

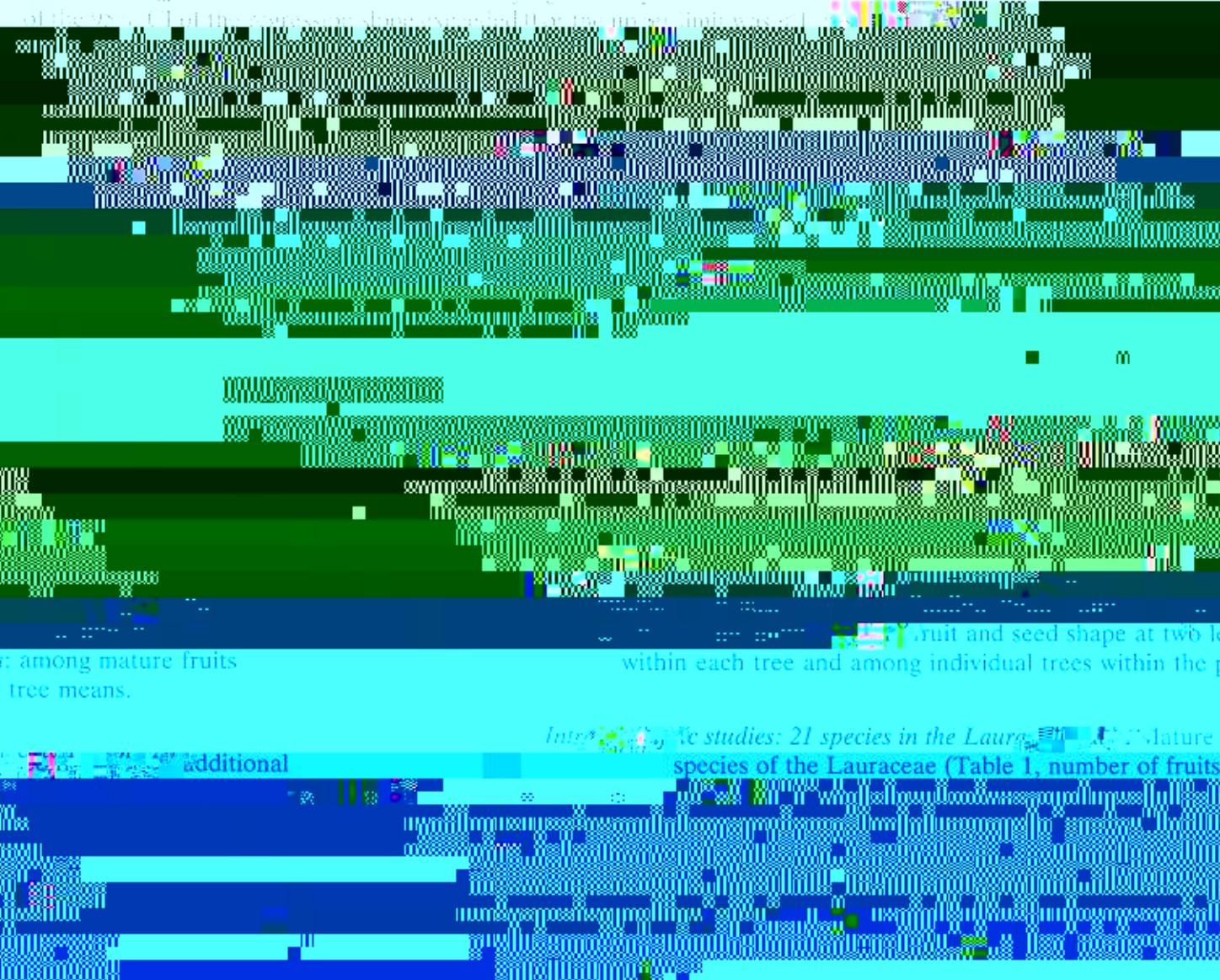
(Shmida 1971)

interspecific variation in fruit shape, and that fruit length and diameter of vertebrate-dispersed plants of the Ontario Flora are correlated with seed mass (Fig. 2). This emphasizes the importance of considering alternative hypotheses (see also, e.g., Hewitt 1992). For example, Hewitt (1992) demonstrated that phylogeny (taxonomic membership) was more highly correlated with fruit shape than dispersal mode and seed mass.



and the rationale for preferring major axis regression in studies of allometry; see Harvey and Pagel (1991).

In geometric morphometric analyses, we used the first two principal components (PCs) of all landmarks (all length) as I indicated negative allometry. We used the 95% confidence interval (CI) of the regression slope (β_1) to evaluate whether geometric coefficients were statistically significantly different from 0 or 1 (the lower limit of the CI of the first PC of the shape of all landmarks and the upper limit was 1).

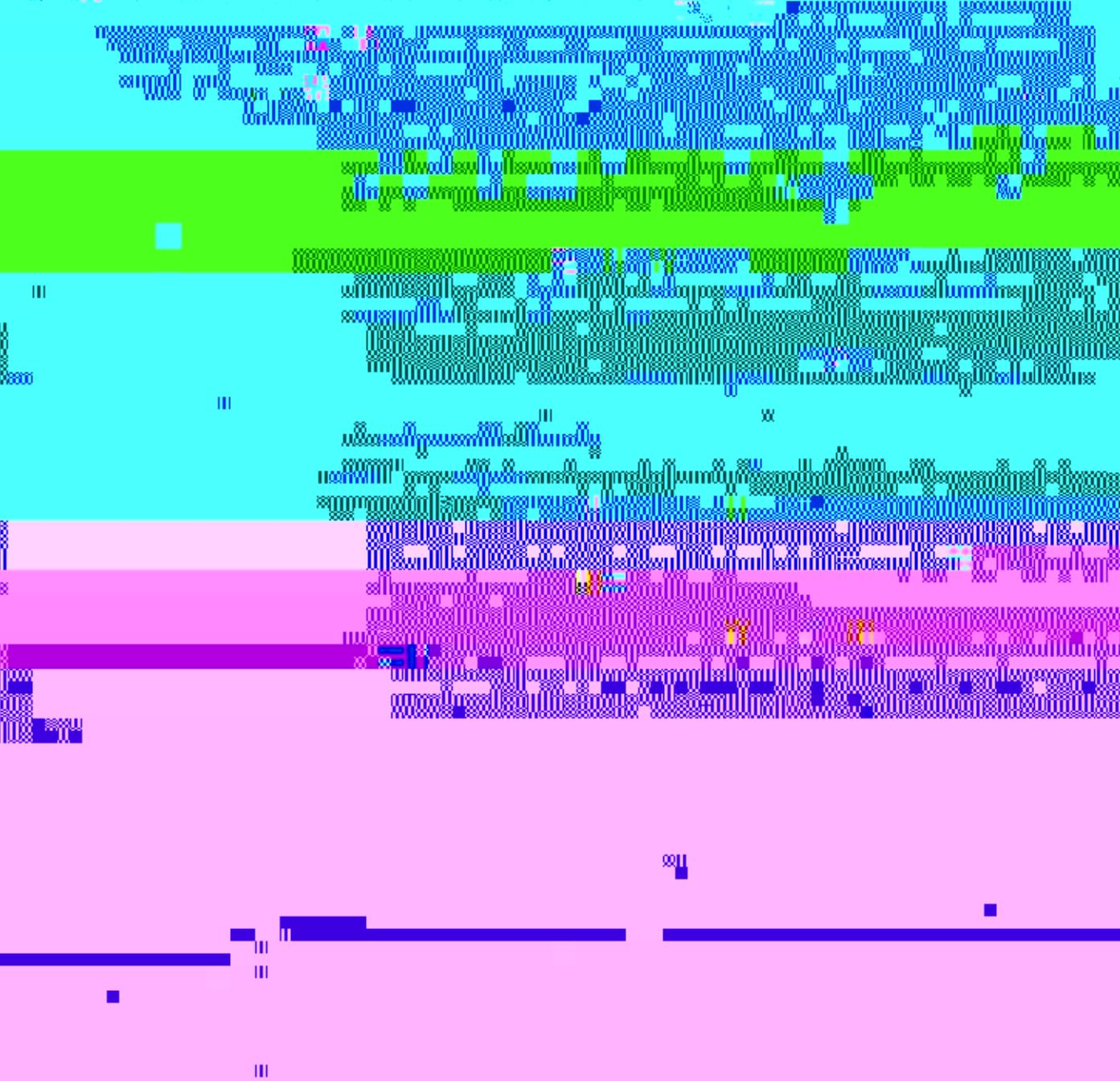


els in *O. tenera*; among mature fruits population, using tree means.

within each tree and among individual trees within the plot.

Table 1. Mean (± 1 SD) fruit and seed dimensions for 21 bird-dispersed tree species in the Lauraceae

	Fruit length <i>n</i> (cm)	Fruit diameter (cm)	Fruit slope (cm)	Seed length (cm)	Seed diameter (cm)	Seed slope (cm)
<i>Aitonella costaricensis</i>	12 (1.5)	1.2 (0.1)	-0.02 (0.08)	1.7 (0.7)	0.7 (0.2)	-0.28 (0.07)
<i>Betacarpus guineensis</i>	27 (1.5)	0.8 (0.1)	-0.02 (0.05)	2.2 (0.4)	0.5 (0.1)	-0.32 (0.04)



decreases the cost of harvesting developing fruits and seeds required for destructive sampling. Instead we measured hanhazard samples to estimate the relationship between fruit length and seed mass.

Sampling was conducted at three stages of fruit development. The first stage corresponded to the time when fruits were less than 3.7 mm in length; the second stage corresponded to the time when fruits were 3.7–10.0 mm in length and the third stage corresponded to the time when fruits were greater than 10.0 mm in length. The first two stages were combined into one sample because the number of fruits in the third stage was small.

For each sample, we randomly selected 100 fruits from the population. We measured the length of each fruit to the nearest millimeter and weighed each fruit to the nearest 0.01 g. We recorded the mean fruit length and mean seed mass for each sample.

Results

Relationships among Chardónnay vines

The relationship between fruit length and seed mass, the calculated slope of the major axis



Figure 1. The relationship between fruit length and seed mass for Chardónnay vines.

considered significantly negatively allometric in only seven species.

Proportion of trees with negatively allometric seed shapes than would be expected by chance

The proportion of trees with negatively allometric seed shapes than would be expected by chance (χ^2) was calculated for each tree species. The mean slope (omitting two trees in which high variance in seed shape precluded calculation) was used to calculate the expected proportion of trees with negatively allometric seed shapes.



Fig. 2. The proportion of trees with negatively allometric seed shapes than would be expected by chance (χ^2) plotted against the mean slope of seed shape. The mean slope (omitting two trees in which high variance in seed shape precluded calculation) was used to calculate the expected proportion of trees with negatively allometric seed shapes.



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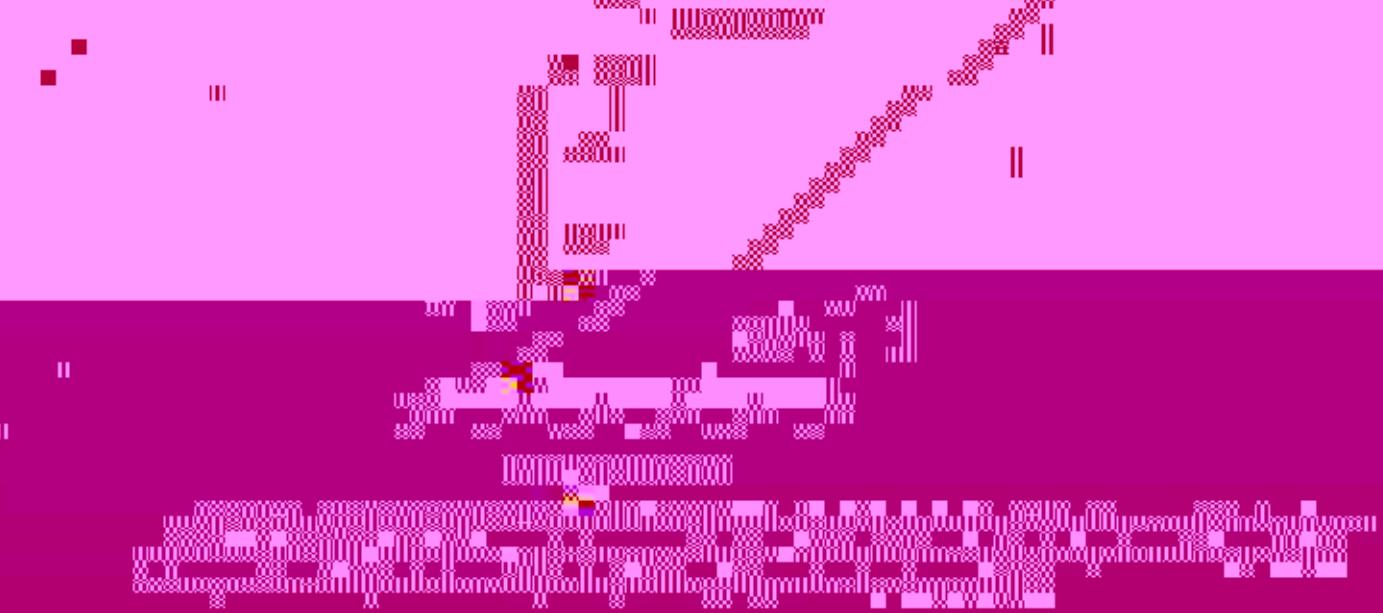


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Intraspecific studies: 21 species in the Lauraceae

Within individual species in the Lauraceae, the degree of morphological variation may be more

'elongated'



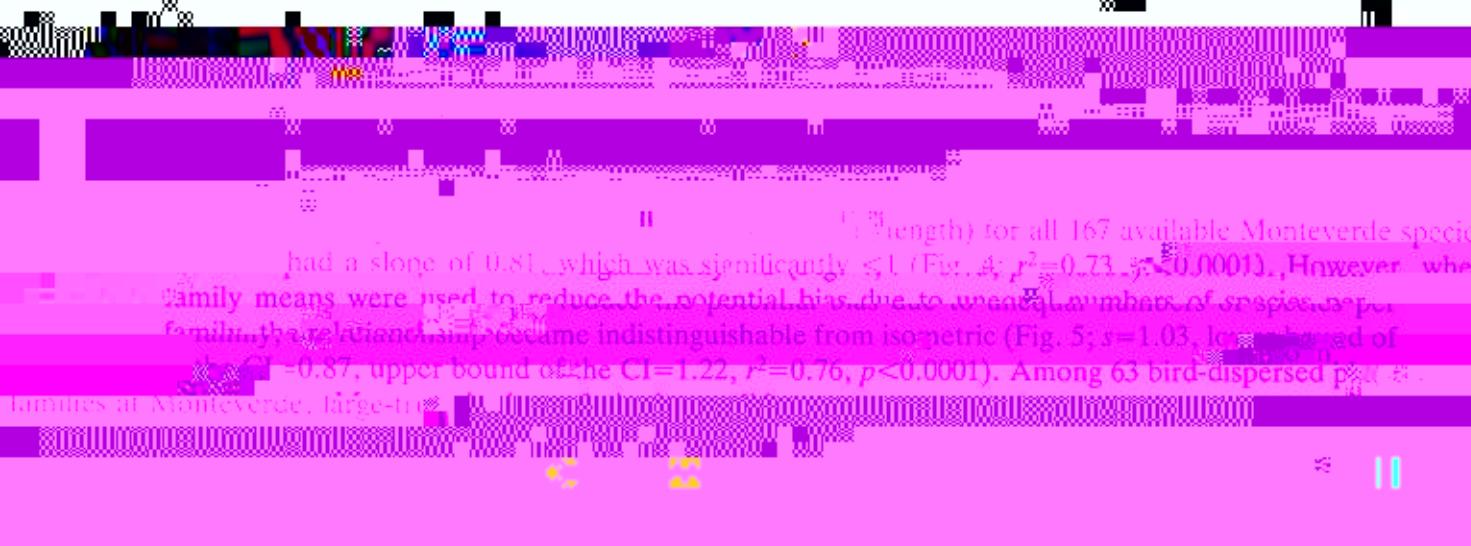


Fig. 4. Scatter plot of fruit width (mm) versus fruit length (mm) for all 167 available Monteverde species. The regression line had a slope of 0.81, which was significantly ≤ 1 (Fig. 4; $r^2=0.73$, $p<0.0001$). However, when family means were used to reduce the potential bias due to unequal number of species per family, the relationship became indistinguishable from isometric (Fig. 5; $s=1.03$, lower bound of the CI=0.87, upper bound of the CI=1.22, $r^2=0.76$, $p<0.0001$). Among 63 bird-dispersed species, families at Monteverde, large-tit

species eaten piecemeal had a mean fruitwidth:diameter ratio of 1.17 ± 0.09 , which was significantly smaller than that of fruits swallowed whole (1.25 ± 0.07 ; Mann–Whitney U -test, $p<0.01$).

Ingestion distance, bird-dispersed plants from Monteverde

Fig. 6. Box plot of the distance (km) from the nearest tree to the nearest bird-dispersed plant.



Fig. 6. Box plot of the distance (km) from the nearest tree to the nearest bird-dispersed plant. The distribution is highly right-skewed, with a median around 1.5 km and a range from 0 to 10 km. The plot shows a significant spread and several outliers extending up to 10 km. The distribution is highly right-skewed, with a median around 1.5 km and a range from 0 to 10 km. The plot shows a significant spread and several outliers extending up to 10 km.

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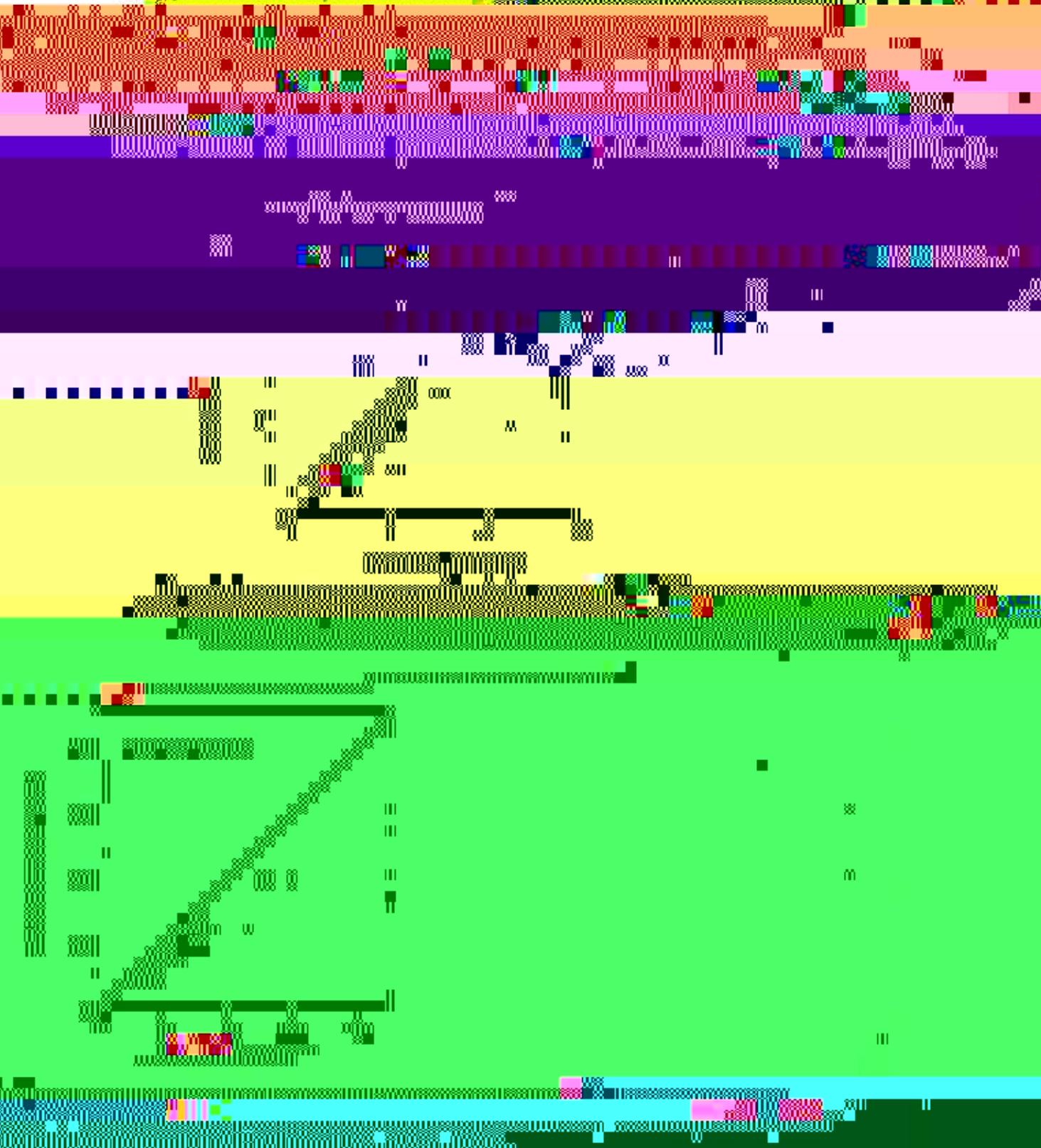
Developmental allometry: within- and between-species comparisons

Fig. 2. Developmental allometry: within- and between-species comparisons. Phylogenetic trees and trait evolution for each species. The traits are represented by colored bars at the nodes of the tree, indicating discrete character states.

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<1 in all trees, indicating a period of elongation (mean $s = 0.71$, $p < 0.0001$, $n = 46$ fruits). Late in development, when fruit length was > 10 mm, the slope of the regression was slightly > 1, significantly so in two trees (mean $s = 1.16$, $p < 0.0001$, $n = 17$ fruits; Fig. 7). There was a significant association between fruit size and elongation but no tree effect on fruit elongation (two-way ANOVA, $p < 0.0001$).

Although seeds tended to be elongated when they were spherical early in development (mean seed length: $\ln(\text{seed length}) = 1.55$), nonetheless, the slope of the regression of $\ln(\text{seed diameter})$ on $\ln(\text{seed length})$ was not significant ($p = 0.31$), suggesting that the relationship between seed diameter and seed length did not differ from the relationship between seed length and diameter.

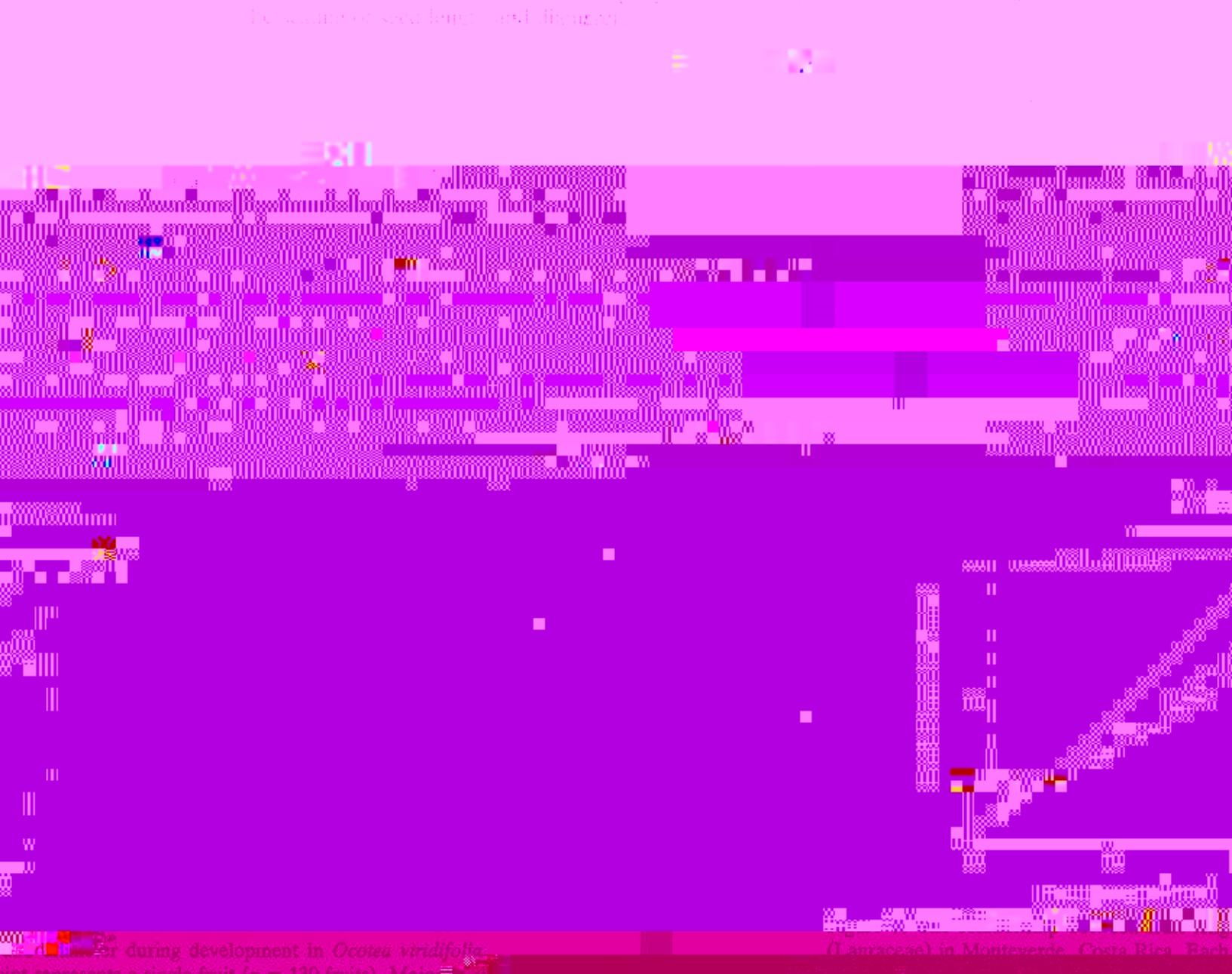


Fig. 7. Scatter plot of seed diameter (mm) against seed length (mm) during development in *Ocotea viridifolia*.

Each point represents a single fruit ($n = 130$ fruits). Mean \pm 1 s.e.m. are shown for each tree.

(Lauraceae) in Monteverde, Costa Rica. Bachman et al.

simply reaching maturity and stopping growth at different points along an ontogenetic curve. On the other hand, if fruit size choice among fruits is the primary selective force influencing the shape of mature fruits, we might expect to find distinct allometric relationships between fruit size and shape.

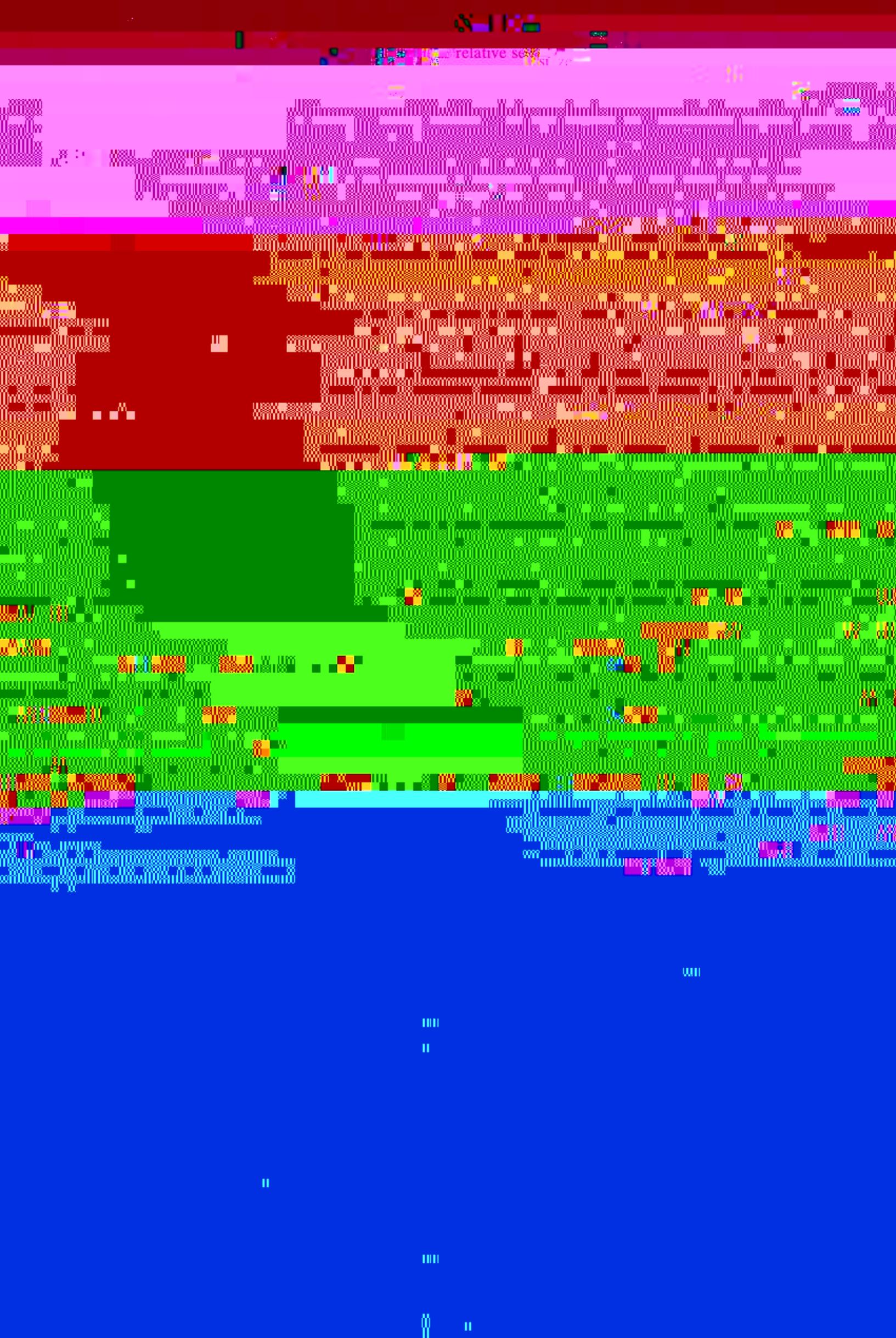
relative growth rates of fruit diameter and length

Watanabe (1981) and Daniel and Harvey (1988) have suggested that the taylorine effect may be a statistical artifact, resulting chiefly when there are substantial differences

in strength or changed direction as one considered progressively less ecologically similar taxa, such as distinct families. The degree of negative allometry between fruit diameter and length is also likely to depend on the degree to which individual plants or species share seed dispersers. For example, if large-fruited species within a plant family are dispersed chiefly by large-gaped birds and small-fruited species are dispersed mainly by small-gaped birds, allometric scaling may be negative within each species but isometric among them (Fig. 8). Because different

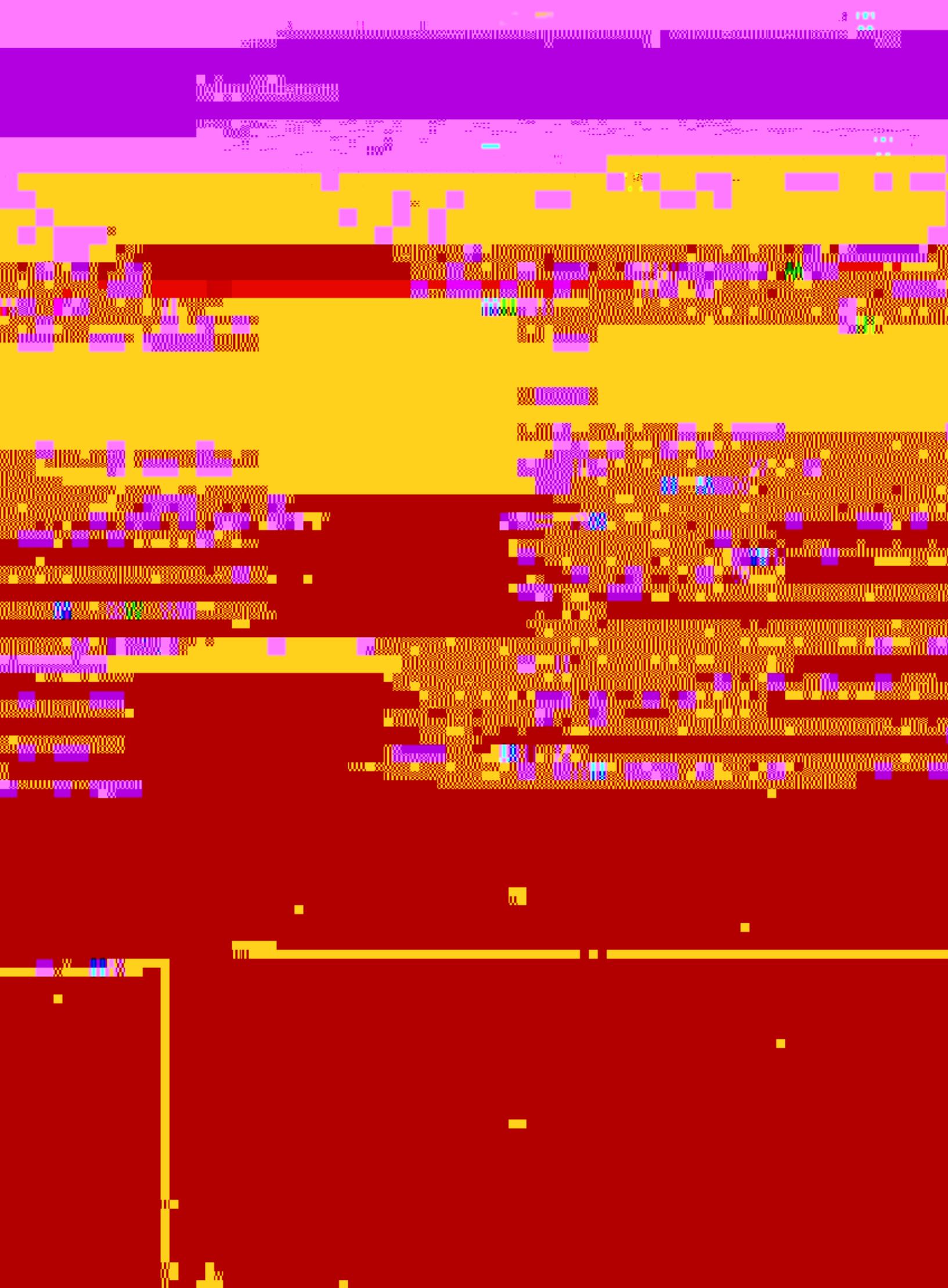


gape-limited seed dispersers. Moreover, birds can immediately evaluate fruit diameter but not seed diameter (except in the rare case of translucent fruits), so their discrimination of fruit shape should have a more important effect on seed dispersal.

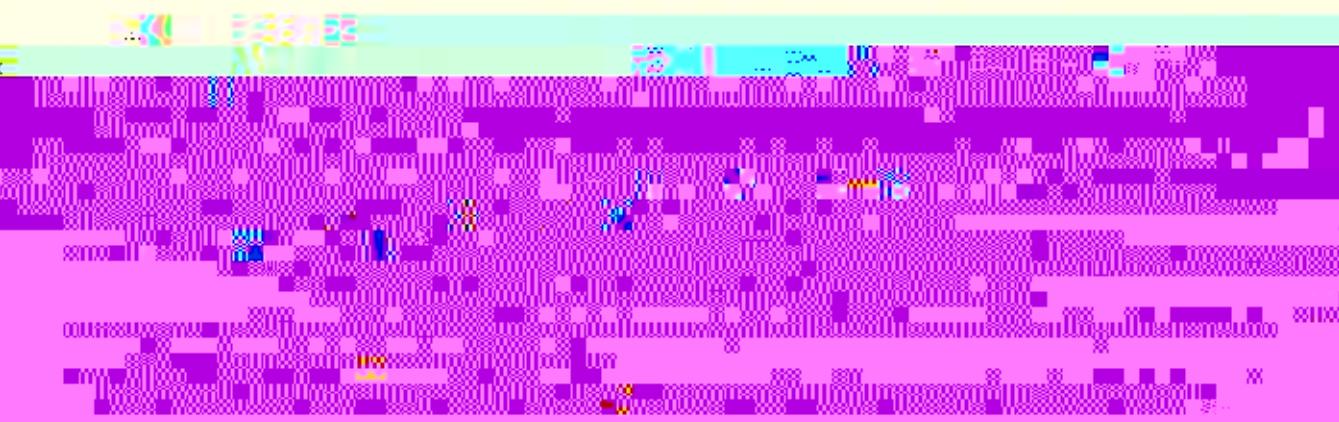


an under studied aspect of fruits, their shape and to suggest that fruit shape may in fact bear a predictable relationship to fruit size in bird-dispersed species.

Given the diversity in fruit shape and the exclusion of many species from our study, we propose several specific hypotheses to test the relationship that fruit shape reflects adaptation to different dispersers. We also wish to encourage the application of allometry in comparative studies in plant biology, where it has long been neglected. Traditionally reserved for describing morphological relationships among plant parts and crop yields (Bidabe, 1978; Hamid,



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