

Generalized pollination system provides protection for the invasion of *Solidago canadensis*

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Abstract:

Sexual reproduction underlies plant invasion and spread, but the mechanism underlying reproductive success remains unclear. We tested the hypothesis that a plant's generalized pollination system promoted its invasion by using field experiments to investigate aspects of the pollination biology of *Solidago canadensis*, such as species, visit frequency and visit behaviour, in different populations in Xuzhou, Hefei, Nanchang and Ji'an. The field experiments supported the hypothesis that the plant's generalized pollination system is beneficial to its invasion. *S. canadensis* has a complex floral syndrome that facilitates the acceptance of different types of pollinators, strongly promoting its reproductive success. We found large numbers of visiting insects on *S. canadensis*, and the main pollinator species were relatively stable within habitats, although the main pollinator species differed among the geographical populations. In terms of time, insect visits were observed from morning to afternoon, mainly from 9:00 to 11:00. The pollination biology results showed that *S. canadensis* has a generalized pollination system that could ensure successful sexual reproduction by attracting insects in different habitats and provide a basis for reproduction after invasion.

Keywords: *Solidago canadensis*; Pollination behaviour; Visiting insects; Invasion; Generalized pollination

1. Introduction

Invasion biology has been the focus of ecological research since it was proposed in 1958 (Pino *et al.*, 2005), and invasion is becoming a worldwide problem. Studies have shown that successful invasive plant species compete for local resources (e.g., ecological niches (Vanbergen *et al.*, 2018), nutrients (Skurski *et al.*, 2014), and pollinators (Anna & Richardson, 2006; Bjercknes *et al.*, 2007)) and are more influential in invaded habitats than in their natural systems (Callaway & Aschehoug, 2000; Goodell & Parker, 2017). In fact, the ability of invasive plants to settle in new habitats depends on their fecundity, and the number and behaviour of pollinators can greatly affect the reproductive success of invasive plants (Baker, 1955; Baker, 1967). At the same time, large studies have indicated that invasive plants are dependent on pollinators for sexual reproduction (Gross *et al.*, 2010; Hong *et al.*, 2010; Yan *et al.*, 2016), and a lack of pollinator services may limit the reproductive success and spread of invasive plants (Parker, 1997; Bufford & Daehler, 2014).

45 Pollination is an important part of sexual reproduction, providing an important
46 opportunity for the cross-pollination and invasion of plants (Dong M *et al.*, 2006).
47 Approximately 87.5% of flowering plants rely on animals to carry pollen in order to
48 reproduce sexually (Ollerton *et al.*, 2011). The rich species diversity of plants and
49 pollinators and their interrelationships lead to complex interactions in the ecosystem
50 (Gong Y.B. & Huang S.Q., 2007); for instance, insects act as a vehicle for cross-
51 pollination and promote successful sexual reproduction, and the nectar, pollen and fruit
52 of plants serve as food sources for insects to ensure their survival and reproduction
53 (Chen *et al.*, 2017). The mutually beneficial relationship between plants and insects is
54 conducive to species diversity maintenance and ecosystem stability. In general, invasive
55 plants may provide abundant nectar and pollen to attract pollinators (Chittka &
56 Schürkens, 2001). Insufficient pollinators limit sexual reproduction (Ashman *et al.*,
57 2004; Tiffany M *et al.*, 2005) and population structure dynamics (Bascombe *et al.*,
58 2006; Lundgren *et al.*, 2015). However, invasive plants may disrupt the interaction
59 between native plants and their pollinators by competing with the native plants for
60 pollinators (Moragues & Traveset, 2005; Bjercknes *et al.*, 2007; Mitchell *et al.*, 2009;
61 Yang *et al.*, 2011; Shi-Guo *et al.*, 2013), in turn affecting the reproduction of native
62 species and thus the species diversity of the native habitat (Shi-Guo *et al.*, 2013).

63 Pollination systems of plants are divided into specialized and generalized systems.
64 Plants have gradually evolved generalized pollination systems in habitats rich in
65 pollination resources (Qitao, 2019). According to the hypothesis of the most effective
66 floral pollinator principle, plants will specialize on insects with the highest pollination
67 efficiency or abundance when pollinators are abundant (Stebbins, 1974). However,
68 flowering plants tend to generalized in pollination when pollination resources are scarce
69 in the environment (Jocque *et al.*, 2010), in which case the plants can reproduce only
70 by attracting existing pollinating insects. Plants with generalized pollination systems
71 may be more invasive than plants with specialized pollination systems (Rodger *et al.*,
72 2010), as the former can "find" pollinators after invading new places to ensure sexual
73 reproduction.

74 *Solidago canadensis* is a perennial herb of Asteraceae that is native to North
75 America and has become a weed worldwide, as it is widely distributed in Europe, Asia
76 and Oceania (Weber, 2010). Since its introduction as an ornamental plant in 1935, *S.*
77 *canadensis* has gradually escaped and become one of the most serious invasive plants
78 in China, and it is now widely distributed in eastern China (Jianzhong *et al.*, 2007).
79 After its invasion, it quickly became the dominant species, inhibiting the growth of
80 local species (Tang *et al.*, 2012) and seriously affecting the local ecological
81 environment. *S. canadensis* is mainly pollinated by insects (Hao *et al.*, 2009), and a
82 single plant can produce 6000~20000 seeds (Werner P A, 1980; Hua *et al.*, 2007). It
83 has a strong reproductive capacity and a wide diffusion range and can be found on both
84 sides of rivers, in wastelands, and along roads and railways. With the passage of time
85 since invasion and evolution, *S. canadensis* obtains genetic variations conducive to
86 population establishment and propagation (Zhao *et al.*, 2015), and artificial control of
87 its invasion and spread consequently becomes more difficult. In recent years, a large
88 number of studies on *S. canadensis* have been carried out. Dong *et al.* found that the

89 sexual reproduction of *S. canadensis* is the main factor underlying its successful
 90 invasion (Dong *et al.*, 2006), and pollination by insects was the key factor for
 91 successful sexual reproduction. Therefore, by analysing the pollination biological
 92 characteristics of *S. canadensis*, the reason for its strong invasion ability can be revealed.
 93 In this study, we focused on pollination biology to explain why *S. canadensis* has such
 94 an invasion ability and answered two questions: 1) What are the characteristics of the
 95 pollination of *S. canadensis* in different habitats? 2) What are the effects of generalized
 96 pollination on its invasiveness?

97

98 2. Materials and Methods

99 2.1 Location and study sites

100 This study was conducted from October 20 to November 24, 2018, at four sites
 101 along a latitudinal gradient in China: Xuzhou, Hefei, Nanchang, and Ji'an. At each site,
 102 a sampling quadrat with a total area of 200 m² was established (Table 1). The sample
 103 plot was guaranteed to be free from human interference during the investigation.
 104 Xuzhou has a temperate monsoon climate, with a mean annual rainfall of 88.66 mm
 105 and a mean annual temperature of 11.94 to 20.65 °C from 2017 to 2018. Hefei,
 106 Nanchang, and Ji'an have a subtropical monsoon climate. The mean annual rainfall in
 107 these three areas was 155.73 mm, 116.64 mm and 135.48 mm and the mean annual
 108 temperature was 13.10 to 21.75 °C, 16.22 to 23.15 °C and 16.48 to 24.17 °C from 2017
 109 to 2018, respectively. Weather data were obtained from the China Meteorological Data
 110 Service Centre (www.data.cma.cn).

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Table 1 Basic characteristics of the experimental site

Site	Longitude and Latitude	Habitat	Other flower plant
Xuzhou	34°14'24" N, 117°26'20" E	Lakeside	<i>Lagedium sibiricum</i> , <i>Inula japonica</i> , <i>Kalimeris indica</i> , <i>Conyza canadensis</i> , <i>Bidens frondosa</i> and <i>Phragmites communis</i>
Hefei	31°47'42" N, 117°17'7" E	Abandoned land	<i>Bidens pilosa</i> , <i>Humulus scandens</i> , <i>Lagedium sibiricum</i> , <i>Mosla scabra</i> and <i>Bidens frondosa</i>
Nanchang	28°45'34" N, 115°49'32" E	Abandoned land	<i>Lagedium sibiricum</i> , <i>Dendranthema indicum</i> , <i>Bidensalba</i> , <i>Aster tataricus</i> , <i>Solanum nigrum</i> and <i>Ageratum conyzoides</i>
Ji'an	27°6'61" N, 115°1'15" E	Abandoned land	<i>Polygonum hydropiper</i> , <i>Hibiscus mutabilis</i> and <i>Camellia sp.</i>

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114 2.2 Pollinator surveys

115 In this experiment, the entire inflorescence of the composite was treated as a single
 116 flower. The experiment was carried out in the full-bloom stage (when 80% of the
 117 flowers were in bloom) of *S. canadensis*. Pollinators were investigated on an hourly
 118 basis (from 8:00 to 16:00) and on two consecutive days of observation. The pollination
 119 frequency of pollinators was observed directly, and the insect starts from touching the
 120 flower and ends after flying away. This process is recorded as a visit to the flower; that
 121 is, the number of all insect species visiting each 30 flower per unit time (20 min) at each

122 site was observed and recorded from 8:00 to 16:00 on sunny days, and then the
123 frequency was calculated (Yan *et al.*, 2016). The pollinators were caught in insect nets
124 and placed in 75% alcohol for laboratory identification (Zeng *et al.*, 2021), and the
125 number of pollinators was recorded.

126 2.3 Pollinator behaviour

127 We sought to observe and record the single-flower residence time and the visiting
128 behaviour of pollinators. When an insect touched the flower, the residence period began,
129 and when it flew away, the residence time ended. This period of time was considered
130 the single-flower residence time. Pollinator behaviour was also recorded.

131 3. Results

132 3.1 Pollinators

133 Field investigation of the four sites revealed concentrated areas of *S. canadensis*
134 invasion in China. Here, 94 different species of visiting insects of *S. canadensis* were
135 recorded along the four transects, including insects from 7 orders and 34 families (Fig.
136 1 and Table S1). We analysed flower-visiting insects in China and found that the
137 dominant pollinator group was Diptera, accounting for 45.89% of the total pollinators,
138 mainly including *Stomorhina obsoleta*, *Eristalinus aeneus* and *Chrysomya*
139 *megacephala*. Hymenoptera, mainly Apidae, accounted for 22.6%. Lepidoptera, mainly
140 butterflies, accounted for 20.55% of all pollinating insects. *Celastrina argiola* (Tonggeia)
141 and *Polygonia c-aureum* (Nymphalidae) were the most commonly observed insects,
142 but the number of individual insects was relatively small. True bugs (Hemiptera) and
143 Coleoptera (primarily ladybugs) accounted for only 6.16% and 4.79% of the total
144 pollinators, respectively (Table 2). As shown in Table S1, *S. obsoleta*, *E. aeneus*, *C.*
145 *megacephala*, *Eristalis cerealis*, *Apis cerana* and *P. c-aureus* were the main pollinators
146 of *S. canadensis*.



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148 1. *Stomorhina obsoleta* 2. *Chrysomya megacephala* 3. *Eristalinus aeneus*
149 4. *Eristalis cerealis* 5. *Apis cerana* 6. *Polygonia c-aureum*

150 Figure 1. Main flower-visiting insects of *S. canadensis*

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Table 2. Number of species in each order and their percentages of total number of *S. canadensis* in China

Order	Species	Percent
Diptera	16.75±1.09 ^{aA}	45.89%
Hymenoptera	8.25±1.92 ^{bB}	22.6%
Lepidoptera	7.5±3.84 ^{bBC}	20.55%
Hemiptera	2.25±1.09 ^{cC}	6.16%
Coleoptera	1.75±1.3 ^{cC}	4.79%

156 (abc represents $P \leq 0.05$, ABC represents $P \leq 0.01$)

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3.2 Comparison of flower-visiting insects among geographic populations

159 The insects visiting *S. canadensis* differed among areas (Table S1). Along the
160 latitudinal gradient, we investigated the pollinators of *S. canadensis* in four cities. The
161 main pollinators of *S. canadensis* in different areas were Diptera, Hymenoptera and
162 Lepidoptera (Fig. 2), but the main pollinators varied among the populations. As shown
163 in Table 3, *S. obsoleta* was the most abundant in all populations except that in Hefei. *C.*
164 *megacephala* was observed at every location, with Nanchang having the largest share.
165 However, *E. aeneus* mainly appeared in Xuzhou, with a few individuals in southern
166 Xuzhou and none in Nanchang and Ji'an. The observed species of bees differed among
167 locations; Xuzhou, Nanchang, and Ji'an had only *A. cerana*, and Hefei was dominated
168 by *Apis mellifera*. Among butterflies, *P. c-aureum* was found in all geographic
169 populations except that in Ji'an. Although the number of individuals differed among
170 areas, the proportions of pollinators were not different. This shows that *S. canadensis*
171 can adapt to different regions, and even if there are differences between pollinators, it
172 can attract enough pollinators to be pollinated. In summary, the main pollinators of *S.*
173 *canadensis* differ among geographic populations, with flies as the main pollinators at
174 high and low latitudes and bees as the main pollinators at middle latitudes.

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178 Table 3. The number of main flower-visiting insects of *S. canadensis* in each experimental sample

Main flower-visiting insects	Xuzhou	Hefei	Nanchang	Ji'an
<i>Stomorhina obsoleta</i>	55±3.5 ^{aA}	8.5±4.5 ^{ab}	65.5±9.5 ^{aA}	63.5±1.5 ^{aA}
<i>Chrysomya megacephala</i>	9±0 ^{cC}	10.5±6.5 ^{ab}	22.5±11.5 ^{bB}	11±4 ^{bB}
<i>Eristalinus aeneus</i>	26.5±1.5 ^{bB}	1.5±0.5 ^b	0	1±1 ^{bB}
<i>Apis cerana</i>	5.5±1.5 ^{cC}	1±1 ^b	3±0 ^{bB}	2.5±1.5 ^{bB}
<i>Apis mellifera</i>	0	19±7 ^a	0	0
<i>Polygonia c-aureum</i>	4.5±0.5 ^{cC}	6.5±3 ^b	1.5±0.5 ^{bB}	0

179 (abc represents $P \leq 0.05$, ABC represents $P \leq 0.01$)

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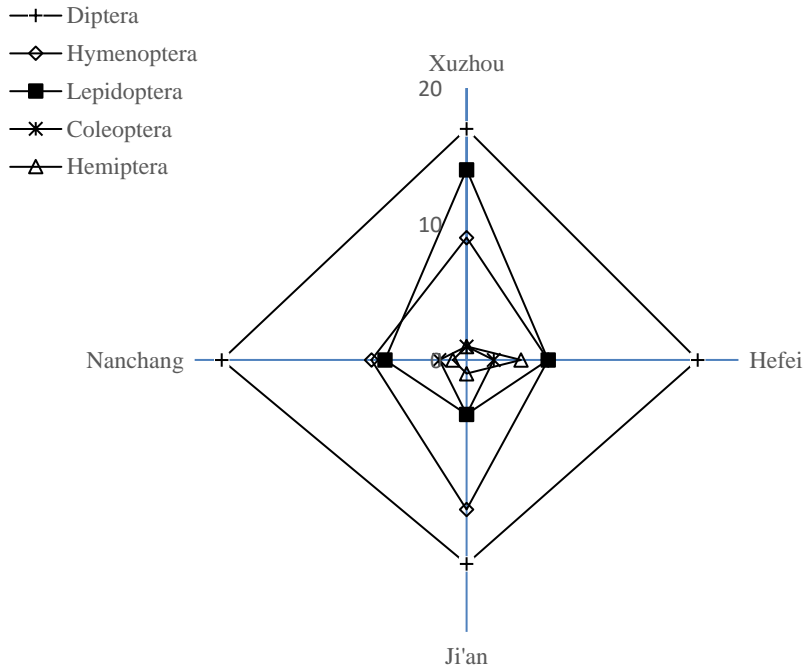


Figure 2. Composition of flower-visiting insects of *S. canadensis* in the different population

3.3 The duration of each visit and visit frequency

During the peak flower stage of *S. canadensis*, the residence time of visiting insects on each flower was determined (Table 4). The longest residence time of 18~300 s was observed for *S. obsoleta* of Calliphoridae (Diptera), and the average residence time was 98.11 ± 97.25 s. The residence time of *C. megacephala* was 6~120 s, with an average of 42 ± 32.78 s. The residence time of *E. aeneus* of Syrphidae was 3~103 s, with an average of 30 ± 24.96 s. The visit time of *A. cerana* of order Hymenoptera was between 3 and 16 s, with an average of 7.25 ± 3.24 s. The single-flower residence time of *S. obsoleta* on *S. canadensis* was significantly longer than that of *C. megacephala* and *E. aeneus* and much longer than that of *A. cerana*, while there were no significant differences among *C. megacephala*, *E. aeneus* and *A. cerana*.

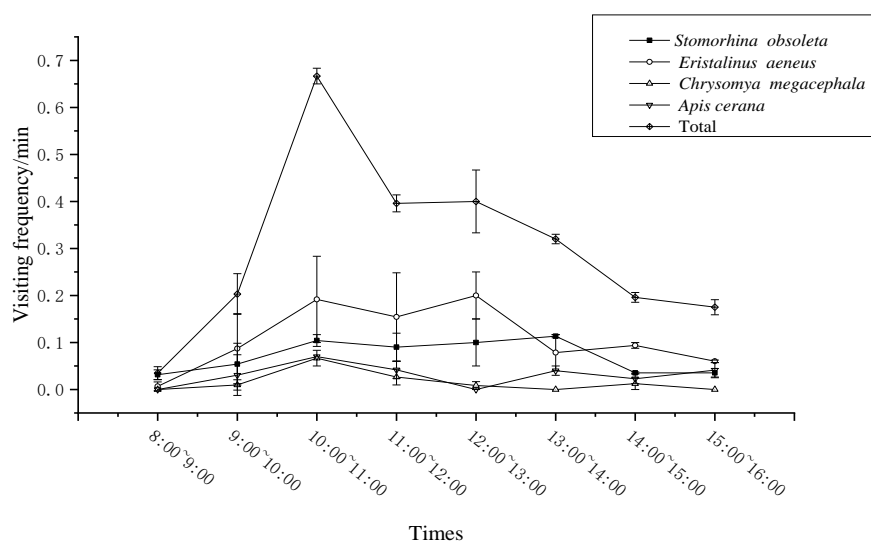
Table 4. The visiting times of main insects of *Solidago canadensis* single flower

Main insects	Visiting times of single flower/s
<i>Stomorphina obsoleta</i>	98.11 ± 97.25^{aA}
<i>Chrysomya megacephala</i>	42 ± 32.78^{bAB}
<i>Eristalinus aeneus</i>	30 ± 24.96^{bAB}
<i>Apis cerana</i>	7.25 ± 3.24^{bB}

(ab represents $P \leq 0.05$, AB represents $P \leq 0.01$)

For insect-pollinated plants, the visit frequency of insects directly affects pollination efficiency, while the activities of pollinators are affected by environmental factors, such as temperature, humidity, and wind speed. The frequency of flower-visiting insects on *S. canadensis* was continuously observed and recorded from 8:00 to

205 16:00 (Fig. 3). Only a few insects were active between 8:00 and 9:00 due to the low
 206 temperature and high humidity. After 9:00, the temperature rose and the humidity
 207 decreased, and most insects began to visit the flowers. The visit frequency peaked
 208 between 10:00 and 11:00. At 12:00, the temperature was higher, which affected the
 209 visiting behaviour of flies and bees, and the visit frequency decreased. From 9:00 to
 210 13:00, the pollination frequency of *E. aeneus* was the highest, followed by that of *O.*
 211 *obsoleta*, and *C. megacephala* and *A. cerana* showed the same pollination frequencies.
 212 Although there were twice as many *S. obsoleta* as *E. aeneus*, the visit frequency of *S.*
 213 *obsoleta* was lower due to its longer residence time on a single inflorescence. From
 214 8:00 to 16:00, *S. canadensis* showed stable insect visitation, which facilitated its
 215 reproduction.



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217 Figure 3. The frequency of main flower-visiting insects of *S. canadensis* in Xuzhou

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220 The visit frequencies of insects on *S. canadensis* differed among the geographic
 221 populations (Fig. 4). Figure 5 shows that the frequency of flower-visiting insects was
 222 significantly higher in Xuzhou than in the other three regions. The visit frequency of *S.*
 223 *obsoleta* in Xuzhou was significantly higher than that in Nanchang, and its visit
 224 frequency in Ji'an was significantly higher than that in Hefei and Nanchang. The
 225 number of flower visits of *C. megacephala* did not differ significantly from that of *A.*
 226 *cerana* or *A. mellifera* among the four samples.

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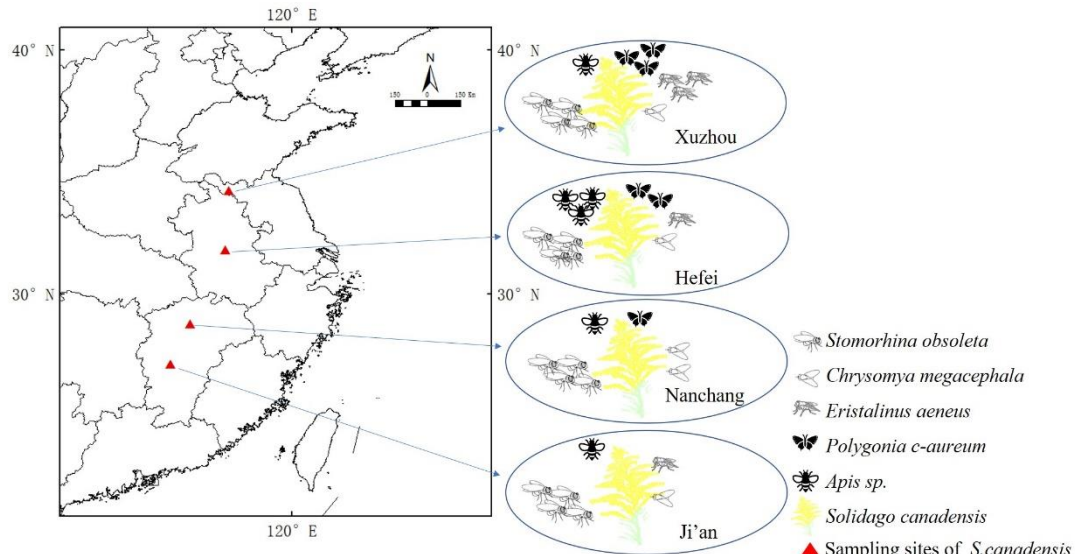


Figure 4. Differences of pollinators in different geographic populations of *S. canadensis*

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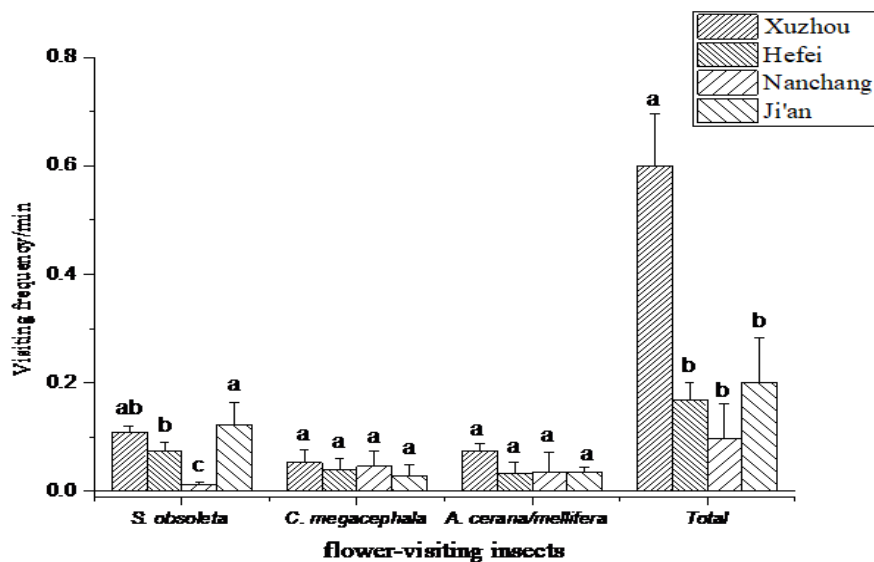


Figure 5. The frequency of main flower-visiting insects of *S. canadensis*

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3.4 Flower-visiting insects' behaviour

234 On *S. canadensis* flowers, flies mainly use their mouthparts to lick nectar. As they
 235 move up the inflorescence, their sternum and abdomen touch the pollen of a single
 236 flower in the inflorescence, thus helping the plant complete pollination. When visiting
 237 flowers, *S. obsoleta* usually holds the pistil with its forefoot and licks the stigma or the
 238 nectar of the flower with its mouthparts. During this period, it stays for a long time,
 239 which helps extend the pollination time. During a visit, *C. megacephala* usually visits
 240 a small flower in the middle part of the inflorescence and then visits the whole
 241 inflorescence by moving counter clockwise along the edge. When visiting *S. canadensis*,
 242 *E. aeneus* supports its body with its middle feet, using its hind feet to lick the nectar. A

243 large amount of pollen adheres to hairs on the sternum, completing the pollination
244 process as the insect moves on the inflorescence.

245 The hymenopteran flower-visiting insects include more efficient pollinators, such
246 as bees. *A. cerana* is usually selective when visiting *S. canadensis*, visiting the whole
247 inflorescence only once and rarely visiting the same inflorescence repeatedly. The
248 mouthpiece of *A. cerana* is used to suck nectar from the flower. After a short stay, the
249 bee flies to the next flower. During this time, the head, sternum and abdomen of the bee
250 is in constant contact with the pollen on the inflorescence. In addition, its pollen basket
251 also collects pollen, which plays a role in pollination.

252 The pollination efficiency of butterflies is lower than that of flies and bees. Most
253 butterflies did not appear until approximately 10:00. During flower visits, they usually
254 visit the top of the inflorescence and suck nectar with their mouthparts from bottom to
255 top, as observed in *Graphium sarpedon*. However, hemipterans, coleopterans and other
256 insects are rare; they generally visit flowers occasionally and may have low pollination
257 efficiency.

258

259 **4. Discussion**

260 *S. canadensis* is a self-incompatible plant that requires insects for pollination
261 (Zhang *et al.*, 2015). We recorded more than 94 species of flower-visiting insects along
262 the four transects, and each site had more than 33 species, mainly belonging to Diptera
263 (*S. obsoleta* was prominent), Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera, which shows that *S.*
264 *canadensis* is essentially a generalist species in terms of pollination. Its floral syndrome
265 conforms to a generalized pollination syndrome, showing typical characteristics such
266 as yellow flowers, rich nectar (Wang *et al.*, 2009), a capitulum and conical
267 inflorescences that are favourable for attracting visiting insects. *S. canadensis* may
268 provide rich nectar as a rich food source for flower visitors. Ward, M. and Johnson, S.D.
269 found that three alpine species of milkweed attract pollinators by rich nectar in Australia
270 (Ward *et al.*, 2013). Large areas of yellow flowers help attract bees that are sensitive to
271 yellow (Corbet & Sarah, 1989; Pereira *et al.*, 2011). The characteristic capitulum of *S.*
272 *canadensis* attracts at least 25 species (Johnson, 2000), and inflorescences consisting
273 of small flowers are single-sided, forming a conical shape with peripheral
274 inflorescences and expanding the surface area of the inflorescences, while bright yellow,
275 clustered pollen (Wang *et al.*, 2009) increases the number and frequency of visitors.
276 The generalized pollination of *S. canadensis* might be conducive to overcoming
277 competition for insects with local plants and might be helpful in ensuring sexual
278 reproduction success. The findings of recent studies also supported this hypothesis
279 (Vanparys *et al.*, 2008; Yan *et al.*, 2016).

280 The main pollinators differed among the geographical populations studied. We
281 found that the *S. canadensis* pollinators in different regions were mainly Diptera,
282 Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera, but there were differences in the main pollinators
283 among regions. Flies were the main flower-visiting insects in the *S. canadensis*
284 populations at high and low latitudes. Flies may appear at temperatures greater than 13 °C
285 (Ye & Liu, 2005); they feed on nectar and move around the inflorescence, and their
286 body parts move between different flowers, greatly increasing pollen transmission.

287 Bees (*A. mellifera*) occupied a dominant position at the middle latitudes. *A. mellifera* is
288 mainly farmed, with few wild populations in China, and there may be a high proportion
289 of bees in the middle-latitude area due to the relatively well-developed beekeeping
290 industry. This finding of differences among geographic populations is consistent with
291 those of some previous studies, such as a study on *Changnienia amoena* (Sun, 2005).
292 In addition, spatial differences in pollinators have been reported (Duan 2006; Arnold *et*
293 *al.*, 2009; Qitao, 2019), and as altitude increases, pollinators tend to shift from bees to
294 flies (Arnold *et al.*, 2009). On the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, flies were the main pollinators
295 in high-altitude areas, while ants were the main pollinators in low-altitude areas (Duan,
296 2006). *S. canadensis* blooms in autumn, when the ambient temperature is low, and
297 generalized pollination ensures enough pollinators in different geographical areas,
298 which is beneficial for sexual propagation and increases the invasion capability of *S.*
299 *canadensis*.

300 The pollination biology results for *S. canadensis* show that it has a generalized
301 pollination system and that there are enough pollinators in different geographic areas,
302 which helps reduce the limitation of pollinating resources. We found that *S. canadensis*
303 attracted dozens of insects, and the visit frequencies of different insects varied. Xuzhou
304 had more *E. aeneus* than other places, so the total flower visit frequency of this species
305 was higher. Despite differences in the visit frequencies of pollinators, the similar
306 visiting behaviours of pollinators among different geographical locations of *S.*
307 *canadensis* may favour adaptive generalization (Nadia *et al.*, 2013), which is conducive
308 to adaptation to the new environment and increases invasiveness. In addition, the same
309 floral structure bears different attractions for different insects (Gegear & Laverty, 2005).
310 For example, in *Trollius ranunculoides*, stamens and sepals can increase the visit
311 frequency of bees but have no obvious attraction effect on ants (Liu *et al.*, 2013). In *S.*
312 *canadensis*, butterflies mainly visit the top of the inflorescence, while other
313 lepidopterans and hymenopterans mainly visit other parts, which reduces competition
314 among different insects.

315 In summary, the invasion of *S. canadensis* has become a global problem, and thus
316 far, effective solutions have not been found. In this paper, we found that *S. canadensis*
317 has a generalized pollination system that attracts a large number of insects, and
318 populations in different areas have different visiting insects. This guarantees its sexual
319 reproduction after invasion, is conducive to its dispersal in the natural state and
320 increases its adaptability to invasion sites.

321

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443
 444 Table S 1. The flower-visiting insects of *S. canadensis* in China

Order	Family	Species	Xuzhou	Hefei	Nanchang	Ji'an
Diptera	Calliphoridae	<i>Stomorphina obsoleta</i>	59	13	56	65
		<i>Stomorphina sp.1</i>	9			11
		<i>Stomorphina sp.2</i>				3
		<i>Lucilia sericata</i>			3	2
		<i>Lucilia sp.1</i>			3	
		<i>Chrysomya megacephala</i>	9	17	34	15
		<i>Sarcophaga sp.</i>	4	1	3	3
		<i>Boettcherisca peregrina</i>		2		
		<i>Sarcophaga sp.1</i>		3		1
		<i>Sarcophaga sp.2</i>			1	4
	<i>Sarcophaga sp.3</i>		2		4	6
	<i>Sarcophaga sp.4</i>					4
	Tachinidae	<i>Peletina sp.</i>			1	
		<i>Carcelia sp.1</i>			1	1
		<i>Carcelia sp.2</i>			2	
	Syrphidae	<i>Syrirta orientalis</i>				1
		<i>Eristalinus aeneus</i>	25	2	1	

		<i>Helophilus affinis</i>	2	3		
		<i>Melanostoma</i>		1	2	1
		<i>Phytomia zonata</i>	3	4	3	
		<i>Eristalis cerealis</i>	7	1		
		<i>Eristalinus arvorum</i>	2		2	2
		<i>Eristalinus sp.1</i>	1		1	2
		<i>Sphaerophoria sp.</i>		1		
		<i>Ischiodon scutellaris</i>	1		1	
		<i>Eristalinus sp.2</i>			1	
		<i>Zyistrophe balteata</i>	2	2	8	10
		<i>Syrphidae sp.1</i>		1		
		<i>Syrphidae sp.2</i>				1
	Tabanidae	<i>Tabanus sp.</i>	1			
		<i>Limonia</i>	1			
	Tipulidae	<i>Tipulidae sp.1</i>	1			
	Keroplastidae	<i>Macrocera sp.</i>				1
	Oestridae	<i>Gymnosoma sp.</i>	2		1	
		<i>Nomia chalybeata</i>			1	
	Apidae	<i>Apis mellifera</i>		26	3	1
		<i>Apis cerana</i>	7			
	Tenthredinidae	<i>Arge xanthogaster</i>				1
	Megachilidae	<i>Megachilidae remota</i>		1		
		<i>Megachile dinura</i>		1		
	Polistinae	<i>Polistes gallicus</i>	1			
		<i>Potistes hebraeus</i>				1
		<i>Halictus simplex</i>				1
	Halictidae	<i>Halictidae sp.1</i>				
		<i>Sphecodes sp.</i>	2			1
	Scoliidae	<i>Campsomeris grossa</i>	2			
Hymenoptera		<i>Scolia sp.1</i>	3		4	7
		<i>Dirhinus bakeri</i>			1	
		<i>Chalcidoidea sp.1</i>		1		4
		<i>Chalcidoidea sp.2</i>	2			1
	Chalcidoidea	<i>Chalcidoidea sp.3</i>				2
		<i>Chalcidoidea sp.4</i>				5
		<i>Chalcidoidea sp.5</i>	1			
		<i>Chalcidoidea sp.6</i>			8	
		<i>Vespa velutina nigrithorax</i>	1	2	5	
	Vespoidea	<i>Ropalidia sp.2</i>			1	
		<i>Vespula flaviceps</i>	1			
		<i>Rhynchium sp.</i>				1
	Formicidae	<i>Camponotus selene</i>		2		
Lepidoptera	Tongeia	<i>Plebeiiinae sp.</i>	2		3	
		<i>Lycaena phlaeas</i>				

		<i>Lampides boeticus</i>		4	6	
		<i>Tongeia fischeri</i>	1			
		<i>Tongeia sp.1</i>	1			
		<i>Tongeia sp.2</i>	1			
		<i>Tongeia sp.3</i>	1			
		<i>Tongeia sp.4</i>	1			
		<i>Celastrina argiola</i>	5		2	
		<i>Aricia agestis</i>	2			
	Papilionidae	<i>Graphium sarpedon</i>		1		
	Pieridae	<i>Pieris canidia</i>	2	4	6	1
		<i>Eurema blanda</i>		2	2	2
	Hesperiidae	<i>Parnara guttata</i>	1	1		
	Nymphalidae	<i>Polygonia c-aureum</i>	4	10	1	
		<i>Vanessa indica</i>	1			
	Sphingidae	<i>Haemorrhagia radians</i>	1			
	Noctuidae	<i>Noctuidae sp.1</i>				1
	Crambidae	<i>Palpita inusitata</i>	1			
		<i>Hymenia recurvalis</i>				1
	Coccinellidae	<i>Oenopia sauzei</i>				1
		<i>Hyperaspis sp.</i>		2	2	1
Coleoptera		<i>Harmonia axyridis</i>	1	1		
	Chrysomelidae	<i>Aulacophora sp.1</i>				1
		<i>Colaphellus bowvingi</i>				5
	Cercopidae	<i>Aphrophora costalis</i>		1		
		<i>Clovia sp.</i>		1		
	Reduviidae	<i>Epidaus sexpinus</i>				2
Hemiptera	Lygaeidae	<i>Nysius ericae</i>		1	1	
		<i>Tropidothorax elegans</i>		2		
	Urostylidae	<i>Urostylis spectabilis</i>	1			
	Thomisidae	<i>Misumena sp.1</i>				1
Araneae	Salticidae	<i>Salticidae sp.1</i>				1
		<i>Salticidae sp.2</i>				
Orthoptera	Tettigoniidae	<i>Tettigoniidae sp.1</i>		2		

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