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# **Review Paper**

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# How much influence does the paternal parent have on seed germination?

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# Abstract

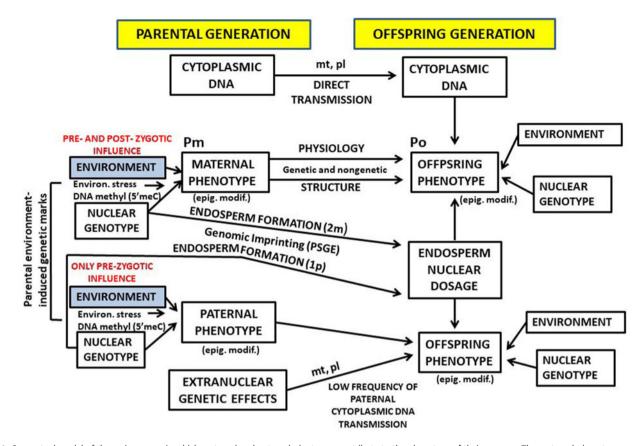
It is well documented that the mother plant has much more influence than the father on seed dormancy/germination, especially of the  $F_1$  offspring, primarily by providing all material (maternally derived tissue) to the diaspore coat(s); by maternal environmental effects and provisioning of nutrient resources, mRNA transcripts, protein, the hormone abscisic acid and nitrate to the seed during its development; and by determining progeny environment via dispersal and phenology. There is some evidence that the paternal influence on seed dormancy/ germination of the offspring (seeds) can be mediated through multiple paternity (including mate number and diversity), non-nuclear (cytoplasmic) and nuclear (genotypic) inheritance and paternal environmental effects. Our primary aim was to determine via a literature review the influence (or not) of the paternal parent on seed germination. Altogether, 37 of 59 studies (62.7%) indicated a positive influence of the father on seed germination, although not all of them were statistically significant. In general, however, results of studies reported in the literature do not offer strong support for the paternal parent having a major role in seed germination (or seed size) of his  $F_1$  offspring.

## Introduction

Offspring traits in plants come from the mother and father, but the mother has more influence on these traits, especially seed dormancy/germination, than the father. Thus, the mother contributes to the traits of her offspring via nuclear and cytoplasmic genetic effects; maternal environmental (including epigenetic) effects; provisioning seeds with nutrient resources, mRNA transcripts, protein, abscisic acid (ABA), which has a positive influence on seed development and can inhibit viviparous germination, and nitrate, which can lower the level of ABA in the seed and act as a signalling molecule in decreasing/overcoming seed dormancy; regulating transfer and distribution of nutrient resources from endosperm to embryo; controlling nutrient storage in and growth of the perisperm, a maternal sporophytic (2n) tissue for embryo growth in seeds of some angiosperms; providing two-thirds of the genetic contribution to the triploid endosperm; and supplying 100% of materials for development of seed coat and diaspore structures external to the seed (Fig. 1). In short, then, the mother plant plays the major role in determining, via diaspore dormancy and dispersal characteristics, maternal architecture (including growth form and height) and seasonal effects (phenology), when and where the seed germinates (Roach and Wulff, 1987; Donohue, 1999, 2009; Raz et al., 2001; Finkelstein et al., 2002; Frey et al., 2004; Alboresi et al., 2005; Kucera et al., 2005; Kanno et al., 2010; Matakiadis et al., 2009; Herman and Sultan, 2011; Thomson et al., 2011; Costa et al., 2012; Jacobs and Lesmeister, 2012; Rubio de Casas et al., 2012; Tamme et al., 2014; Vu et al., 2015; Piskurewicz et al., 2016; Yan and Chen, 2017; Augspurger et al., 2017; Povilus et al., 2018).

Furthermore, evidence is accumulating that the store of active hydrolytic enzymes, antimicrobial substances and nutrient elements in the dry, dead cells of the maternally derived seed coat, pericarp and floral bracts, which can be released upon rehydration, play a role in seed persistence in the seed bank, seed germination and seedling establishment and vigour (Godwin *et al.*, 2017; Raviv *et al.*, 2017a,b). Finally, in seeds of weedy holoparasitic species of *Orobanche* the perisperm is involved in reception of the simulant from the host plant that is required for the parasite to germinate (Plakhine *et al.*, 2012).

Influence of the father on the traits of his offspring may occur via nuclear (genotype) and non-nuclear genetic material [i.e. mostly plastids transmitted to the progeny by pollen at a low frequency (Corriveau and Coleman, 1988; Azhagiri and Maliga, 2007)] and paternal environmental (including epigenetic) effects (Schmid and Dolt, 1994; Lacey, 1996; Galloway, 2001a,b; Herman and Sultan, 2011) (Fig. 1). In the gynodioecious species [coexistence of male-sterile (female) and hermaphrodite plants in the same natural interbreeding population] *Silene vulgaris* and *S. acaulis*, parental leakage of mitochondrial DNA can result in biparental or strictly paternal inheritance of the mitochondrial genome (Welch *et al.*, 2006; McCauley and Olson,



**Fig. 1.** Conceptual model of the various ways in which maternal and paternal plants can contribute to the phenotype of their progeny. The maternal phenotype portion of the diagram is modified from Roach and Wulff (1987), and paternal phenotype portion is based on information from various sources. Not shown are the various interactions among the maternal environment (Em), maternal nuclear genotype (Gm), offspring environment (Eo) and offspring nuclear genotype (Go), such as Gm × Em in determining maternal phenotype (Pm) and Gm × Eo, Em × Eo and Gm × Em × Eo in determining offspring phenotype (Po) (e.g. see Rossiter, 1996). DNA methyl (5'meC), DNA methylation; epige medif., epigenetic modification; mt, mitochondrion; pl, plastid; PSGE, parent (maternal or paternal) specific gene expression; 2m, 2x (where x = base chromosome number), contribution of maternal parent to endosperm; 1p, 1x, contribution of paternal parent to endosperm. The contributions of P<sub>m</sub> to P<sub>o</sub> via physiology and structure can be found in the Introduction.

2008; Pearl *et al.*, 2009). In most angiosperms, the contribution of the father to the embryo of sexually produced offspring via nonnuclear genetic material is generally minimal compared with that of the mother. In gymnosperms, plastid inheritance is paternal in the conifers, whereas mitochondrial inheritance is paternal in some (taxonomic) families and maternal in others, including the largest family Pinaceae (Mogensen, 1996).

In their highly-cited review of 'Maternal effects in plants', Roach and Wulff (1987) included a very short section on paternal effects. However, although the authors refer to several studies on paternal cytoplasmic inheritance, other non-nuclear *per se* paternal environmental effects on offspring performance are not mentioned. The primary purpose of this paper is to review the literature on the influence of the paternal parent on germination of  $F_1$  seeds. We also briefly discuss the influence of the pollen parent on seed size and development.

## Influence of paternal parent on seed germination

Multiple paternity in plants, which encompasses the number of pollen donors and the non-random ability of the donors to sire offspring (Snow and Spira, 1991a,b), is thought to be common and to be caused by (1) sequential visits by several pollinators, each carrying pollen from a different single male; (2) deposition on the stigma of a mixed pollen load by a single pollinator; and

(3) deposition on the stigma of a mixed pollen load by several pollinators; and to have fitness consequences (Ellstrand, 1984; Marshall and Ellstrand, 1985, 1986; Brown *et al.*, 1986; Ellstrand and Marshall, 1986; Marshall, 1988, 1990, 1991; Marshall and Whittaker, 1989; Karron and Marshall, 1990; Dudash and Ritland, 1991; Ibarra-Perez *et al.*, 1996; Campbell, 1998; Bernasconi, 2003; Mitchell *et al.*, 2005; Karron *et al.*, 2006; Teixeira and Bernasconi, 2007; Llaurens *et al.*, 2008). Using microsatellite DNA markers, Reusch (2000) also demonstrated multiple paternity in *Zostera marina*, a marine angiosperm with hydrophilous (subaqueous) pollination.

The rank order of one, two, three and five pollen parents for seed germination of the  $F_1$  offspring of the tropical herb *Costus allenii* was three (76.6%) > two (72.9%) > one (67.0%) > five (63.0%) and not statistically significant; standard deviations ranged from 11.5 to 16.9% (Schemske and Paulter, 1984). Mean germination percentage across pollen donors was higher (but not significantly so) for seeds of *Vaccinium corymbosum* flowers pollinated by three pollen donors than for those of flowers pollinated by a single donor (Vander Kloet and Tosh, 1984). In a study of single *vs* mixed donor crosses in *Chamaecrista fasciculata*, an annual legume with physical dormancy, germination (*ca* 38–47% for single-donor progeny and *ca* 34–37% for three-donor progeny) did not differ significantly among selfed, near-crossed and far-crossed seeds (not scarified, overwintered outside) from

single-donor and three-donor pollen loads. For all crosses (singleand three-donor pollen donors), the range of relative performance (RP) for inbreeding depression (see Appendix) was narrow, i.e. – 0.04 to 0.09 (Sork and Schemske, 1992). In general, multiple pollinations did not increase germination percentage in seeds of *Vaccinium elliotii* (Wenslaff and Lyrene, 2001).

Seed germination percentage of the rare endemic *Cochlearia bavarica* did not increase with number of pollen donors, i.e. one, three and nine from the same population and nine from a neighbouring population. However, pollen recipient (maternal parent) had a significant effect on germination percentages (Paschke *et al.*, 2002). In another study, *C. bavarica* germination percentage did not differ statistically between seeds of one pollen donor hand-cross pollinated plants (47.4%) and those of open-pollinated plants (40.8%), '...which likely involves less similar or even several pollen donors' (Fischer *et al.*, 2003). However, assuming several pollen donors for open-pollinated plants, RP was -0.14 (see Appendix). In which case, seeds from a single-pollen donor single-pollen donors (see Appendix).

The results of comparisons by Himes and Wyatt (2005) of selfsterile and self-fertile multiple and (a) single pollen donor(s) on seed germination percentage of Asclepias exaltata were as follows: (1) self-sterile single donor > self-sterile multiple donors; (2) selfsterile single donor = self-fertile single donor; (3) self-sterile single donor = self-fertile multiple donors; (4) self-fertile single donor > self-sterile multiple donors; and (5) self-fertile single donor = selffertile multiple donors. Thus, germination percentages of seeds sired (fathered) by single donors were equal to or greater than those of seeds sired by multiple donors. In weedy Raphanus sativus, pattern of seed germination (days to emergence of each seedling) differed (P < 0.0001) among maternal plants but not among the three pollen donors; altogether 97.1% of 450 seeds planted germinated (Marshall et al., 2007). However, pollen donor did have a significant effect on some aspects of fitness, i.e. growth and reproduction (Marshall et al., 2007; see also Marshall and Whittaker, 1989; Karron and Marshall, 1990). Maternal, but not paternal, parent had a significant effect on germination percentage of the wind-pollinated tree Betula pendula (Pasonen et al., 2001).

In a study of the effect of pollen load size and donor diversity on Mirabilis jalapa, days to seedling emergence did not differ significantly among five pollination treatments: (1) large load/multiple donors; (2) large load/single donor; (3) small load/multiple donors; (4) small load/single donor; and (5) single outcross pollen grain. Neither was there a maternal effect on days to emergence (Niesenbaum, 1999). Thus, there was no effect of donor diversity on days to seedling emergence. Also, there was no effect of donor diversity on seed mass. The number of donors did not have a significant effect on proportion of seeds of Collinsia heterophylla that germinated. However, proportion of seeds that germinated was significantly affected by pollen recipient × paternity diversity, showing that seeds of some maternal plants germinated better when sired by multiple donors (Lankinen and Madjidian, 2011). Neither germination percentage of seeds of the weedy annual mustard Raphanus raphanistrum (Snow, 1990) nor those of the bignoniaceous woody vine Campsis radicans (Bertin, 1986) differed significantly between progeny of single- and multiple-donor pollinations. Furthermore, neither germination nor number or mass of seeds from fruits sired by one, three and five pollen donors differed significantly in C. radicans (Bertin, 1986). However, the best pollen donors of this species

gave rise to statistically more and heavier seeds than the donor mixtures, and although percentage germination was higher for seeds sired by the best donors (46 vs 41%) the difference was not significant.

Seeds of Swertia perennis from open-pollinated (i.e. natural, not supplemented by hand pollination, multiple-pollen donors assumed) flowers germinated to 40.83%, whereas those from flowers whose stigmas were saturated with hand-crossed pollen from one donor germinated to 32.24% (P < 0.05) (Lienert and Fischer, 2004). Thus, the RP was 0.21, showing that seeds from multiplepollen donors outperformed those from a single-donor (see Appendix). The authors suggested that the difference might be due to pollen quality, i.e. lower pollen quality representing the single donor than that of open pollen, which they suggested was '... most likely from several donors'. In a pollen competition experiment with Dalechampia scandens, there was no evidence for paternal (or maternal) effects on seed germination. Furthermore, paternal effects on seed maturation time, seed mass and seedling vigour at 1 month were limited and not statistically significant (Pélabon et al., 2016).

Emergence (germination) of all seedlings of *Asclepias speciosa* from crosses by three donors in a pollen competition experiment (84.8%) was significantly higher than that of seedlings in the single donor experiment (74.8%) (Bookman, 1984). The author stated that, 'Donors which are superior competitors, therefore, father more seedlings with a higher percentage of emergence than seedlings fathered by all donors'. However, when other results of her study also were considered, Bookman suggested that the differences in seedling emergence were not due to higher pollen vigour of the competitors that fathered the seedlings with the highest emergence percentages but to sperm quality or fertilizing ability.

In Crepis tectorum subsp. pumila, an alvar species on the Baltic island of Öland (SE Sweden), pollen donor had a significant (P < 0.05) effect on seed mass and width and a marginally significant (P = 0.053) effect on seed length, and seeds that germinated had a significantly greater mass, length and width than those that did not germinate (Andersson, 1990). Thus, the author concluded that genetic variance among the pollen donors was responsible for these differences. However, Mazer and Gorchov (1996) questioned this claim. They suggested that maternal effects, extranuclear genes, environmentally induced gene expression acting differently among the pollen donors or gametophytic selection within different pollen donors before pollen maturation could rule out additive genetic variation as being responsible for these differences. Recently, Marshall and Evans (2016) presented strong evidence that the ability of pollen donor families of Raphanus sativus to sire seeds in mixed pollinations under competition (i.e. with other pollen donors) is heritable and can respond to selection.

Pollen donor had a significant effect on seed germination rate (speed) but not on germination success (%) in *Iris hexagona*. The variation in germination rate of seeds of this species among pollen donors indicated '... a potential for a paternal contribution to seed quality'. Pollen donor × parental population was significant for both germination rate and germination success (Van Zandt and Mopper, 2004). In a study of cryptic self-fertility in *Campsis radicans* by Bertin *et al.* (1989), days to germination of seeds sired by (1) pollen recipient/pollen donor 12 (maternal and paternal parent selfed) and pollen donor 1 (outcross paternal parent), and (2) pollen recipient/pollen donor 12 and pollen donor 3A were: self – 24.2, cross – 25.3; and self – 36.6, cross – 33.7, respectively. Self and cross seeds sired by 12/1 did not differ

significantly in days to germination, whereas self seeds sired by 12/3A germinated in significantly fewer days than outcrossed seeds. Bertin (1990) tested the effect of different pollen ratios of two donors (paternal parents) on germination percentage of seeds produced on two pollen recipients (maternal parents) of *C. radicans*. For pollen recipient 8, germination percentage of seeds from four pollen combination ratios (amount) of two pollen donors were [(2:3A) = (2:1)] < [(1:10) = (10.3)]. For pollen recipient 10, germination percentage of seeds from two pollen donor identity *per se* but also the ratio of the amount of pollen from different donors in a multiple-donor pollen load may affect seed germination.

In nature, plants can be limited in the number of seeds produced due to low pollinator activity. Experimentally, pollen limitation is shown to occur when plants that are open-pollinated plus hand-cross pollen supplemented (Ps, treatment) produce more seeds than those that are open-pollinated only (Po, control), i.e. no pollen supplementation (Burd, 1994; Larson and Barrett, 2000; Ashman et al., 2004; Knight et al., 2005). Only a small percentage of the numerous studies on pollen limitation have measured the germination responses of seeds from treatment vs control, and some of them showed that pollen supplementation increased seed germination percentage. Of 30 cases (18 species) reviewed by Baskin and Baskin (2018) that compared germination of seeds produced by  $P_s$  and  $P_o$  plants,  $P_s > P_o$  in 12,  $P_s = P_o$  in 11 and  $P_s < P_o$  in 7. Thus, based on relative performance (see Appendix), in 40% of the cases pollen supplementation enhanced germination percentages/rate (speed). In these 12 cases, pollen supplementation may have been equivalent to an increase in number/quality of pollen donors.

For seeds of *Eschscholzia californica*, dormancy in interpopulation crosses '... seems to have been maternally inherited, although in a few cases (828-4, 873-2) the pollen parent may have had some effect' (Cook, 1962). In a study of the quantitative genetics of life history and fitness components of *Raphanus raphanistrum*, Mazer (1987a) found no effect of pollen parent on seed germination date or on seed mass. Twelve of 15 paternal genotypes of *Raphanus sativus* exhibited higher rates of germination (1/days to germinate) at high than at low or medium planting densities (Mazer and Schick, 1991a). In another study by these authors on *R. sativus* (Mazer and Schick, 1991b), paternal genotype had a significant effect on germination rate in medium planting density plots, but not in low and high planting density plots.

A study of the dark germination of reciprocal hybrid 6-mo afterripened seeds from light-requiring (R) and indifferent (I) tobacco (Nicotiana tobacum) selections (Kasperbauer, 1968) showed that both parents contributed to light sensitivity of the seeds, but the contribution of the seed parent was greater [or slightly greater sensu Karssen et al. (1983)] than that of the pollen parent, i.e. germination percentage of R [seed (maternal) parent]  $\times$  I [pollen (paternal) parent] in darkness was < (I  $\times$  R). Overall,  $(R \times R) < (R \times I) < (I \times R) < (I \times I)$  (uninterrupted darkand  $(R \times R) = (R \times I) = (I \times R) = (I \times I)$ ness) (illuminated). Interestingly, in a much earlier study than that of Kasperbauer, Honing (1930) reported that the light requirement for germination of tobacco seeds was influenced by both parents, with the maternal parent predominating. The results of a diallel cross between five sugar beet (Beta vulgaris) plants showed that genotype of the maternal parent controlled germination to a large extent (Battle and Whittington, 1971). Reciprocal hybrid seeds of lettuce (Lactuca sativa) showed paternal control over seed dormancy. Genotype MQS was more dormant than 466, and 466 (seed parent) × MQS (pollen parent) was more dormant than MQS × 466 (Rideau *et al.*, 1976). Seed dormancy in the annual weedy mustard *Sinapis arvensis* had both a maternal and an embryo component, but there was an '... overriding importance of the maternal genotype in seed dormancy ...' (Garbutt and Witcombe, 1986). Reciprocal crosses of the most dormant (Th<sub>7</sub>) and least dormant (M<sub>30</sub>) lines of *Petunia hybrida* showed paternal control over seed dormancy (Girard, 1990). The order of seed dormancy of parents and reciprocal hybrids was Th<sub>7</sub> > (M<sub>30</sub> × Th<sub>7</sub>) > (Th<sub>7</sub> × M<sub>30</sub>) > M<sub>30</sub> for primary dormancy and for the ability of the seeds to enter secondary dormancy. Thus, dormancy is predominantly under paternal control.

In a diallel cross using five parental plants  $(A \rightarrow E)$  of *Lupinus texensis*, maternal and paternal effects on germination percentage were similar in A, C, D and E. For parental plant B, however, seeds of the paternal outcross geminated to a considerably higher percentage than those of the maternal outcross and self, which were similar. Both maternal and paternal parents and their interaction significantly affected seed mass, and seeds that germinated had significantly more mass than those that did not germinate (Helenurm and Schaal, 1996). The paternal parent had significant effects on germination time of the progeny in two of three sets of reciprocal diallel crosses in the monocarpic perennial species *Aster kantoensis*, whose seeds are non-dormant at maturity (Kagawa *et al.*, 2011).

For the grass Anthoxanthum odoratum, paternal genotype did not have an overall effect on germination percentage, but in two of six randomized blocks in the experimental design it did have a significant effect on germination percentage. Also, germination percentage differed significantly for seeds sired by different fathers in four of the six blocks for maternal genotype D2 (Schmitt and Antonovics, 1986). For Lychnis flos-cuculi, Biere (1991a,b) found significant differences for germination among paternal offspring within families of female progeny and significant variation in time to emergence of progeny of maternal and of paternal parents with different genotypes. Male parents had a significant influence on seed germination in within-population crosses of Lobelia cardinalis (Schlichting and Devlin, 1992). Germination of seeds from crosses between the weedy Silene vulgaris and the narrow Swedish alvar endemic S. uniflora var. petraea was strictly determined by the pollen parent. Thus, hybrid seeds germinated to the same percentage and rate as outcrossed (non-hybrid) seeds of the paternal species rather than to a percentage and rate intermediate between those of the parental species (Andersson et al., 2008). The authors hypothesized '... that the germination behavior of Silene seeds is affected by nonnuclear (cytoplasmic) factors inherited from the male parent or that nuclear genes from the maternal parent are "silenced" during germination'.

Days to emergence in seeds of *Campanula americana* did not differ between high and low pollen loads, but there were significant maternal and paternal effects on this trait. Seed mass had no effect on days to emerge (Richardson and Stephenson, 1992). Pollen parent had a significant effect on germination percentage in *Purshia tridentata* seed progeny in response to 2 weeks of chilling (cold stratification). Among-year variation in maturation environment was not significant, indicating no paternal environmental effect (Meyer and Pendleton, 2000). Paternal genotype of *Eucalyptus globulus* had a significant effect on six measures of proportion and rate (speed) of seed germination (Rix *et al.*, 2012). In red (R, *Morus rubra*) and white (W, *M. alba*) mulberry, progeny of W mothers had the highest cumulative fitness (Burgess and Husband, 2004). Offspring (seeds) of W mothers germinated to a significantly higher percentage than those of R and hybrid ( $R \times W$ ) mothers, which did not differ. However, the paternal parent did not have an effect on cumulative fitness or germination, and paternal × maternal interactions were not significant. Thus, the authors attributed the strong influence of the mother and lack of influence of the father on fitness to non-nuclear (maternal) effects.

Sire (paternal parent) had a significant effect on percentage and time to germinate and on dormancy in seeds of Nemophila menziesii (Platenkamp and Shaw, 1993). However, in a follow-up study on this species, Byers et al. (1997) found that the paternal effect on time to germinate (and on seed mass) was weak and inconsistent. In both studies, the dam (maternal parent) had a greater effect on time to germinate than the sire. In Brassica campestris, percentage germination of F<sub>1</sub> (high pollen load HF<sub>1</sub>) was greater than that of  $F_1$  (low pollen,  $LF_1$ ), but there were no second generation effects, i.e. no difference in percentage germination of HF<sub>1</sub> and LF<sub>1</sub> progeny using the same amount of pollen. However, there was a paternal influence on plant fitness, including germination (Palmer and Zimmerman, 1994). Lassere et al. (1996) found no effect of pollen competition on seedling emergence time in Silene latifolia. However, paternal parents had a significant effect on days required for seedling emergence.

In Campanula rapunculoides, strength of self-incompatibility (weak, intermediate, strong) of neither the father nor the mother had a significant effect on seed germination (Good-Avila and Stephenson, 2003). Germination percentage of seeds of Silene latifolia was strongly influenced by the population of origin of the female parent but not by that of the male parent (Jolivet and Bernasconi, 2007). For S. latifolia, number of pollen donors (one vs two) had no effect on percentage or rate (speed) of germination, whereas paternal family had a significant effect on both measures of germination (Teixeira et al., 2009). Many studies have shown the effects of the environment of the maternal plant during seed formation/maturation on germination, but very little attention has been given to paternal environmental effects, which can be prezygotic only (Fig. 1). However, although paternal environmental effects are considered to be minimal they do occur. Raphanus raphanistrum seeds sired by pollen of low- vs highnutrient stressed plants did not differ in number of days to germination (Young and Stanton, 1990). In a growth chamber experiment on Plantago lanceolata, paternal (prezygotic) temperature influenced seed germination more than maternal (prezygotic or postzygotic) temperature (Lacey, 1996). However, in a follow-up combined growth chamber-field experiment on this species there was essentially no prezygotic paternal or maternal temperature effect on germination, whereas postzygotic (maternal) temperature strongly influenced germination (Lacey and Herr, 2000). Seeds of male parents of Solidago altissima grown in soil germinated faster than seeds of male parents grown in sand (Schmid and Dolt, 1994). The authors suggested that this positive effect on germination, as well as that on post-germination growth, was probably due to differences in pollen quality than in pollen quantity. In studies by Galloway (2001a,b) and Etterson and Galloway (2002), the (prezygotic) light environment of the pollen parent had significant effects on seed germination in the winter annual/strict biennial Campanula americana. However, the expression of paternal effects on germination percentage and rate, and also on seed mass, depended on the maternal light (high, medium, low) environment. In animals, environmentally (level of competition) induced (adaptive) paternal effects

Androdioecy refers to the coexistence of males (female-sterile, thus produce only pollen) and hermaphrodites (produce both pollen and ovules/seeds) in a breeding population (Pannell, 2000). We have found only three cases in which germination percentages of male-sired seeds (MS) were compared with those of (outcross) hermaphrodite-sired seeds (HS). In *Datisca glomerata* MS = HS (Riesberg *et al.*, 1993), *Fraxinus ornus* MS = HS (Verdu *et al.*, 2004) and *Laguncularia racemosa* Ms > HS (Landry and Rathcke, 2007). In the trioecious (population consisting of males, females and hermaphrodites) cactus *Pachycereus pringlei*, germination percentage of seeds of females pollinated by males was higher than that of seeds in the other pollination treatments, i.e. seeds of females × males germinated to higher percentages, but not significantly (Sosa and Fleming, 1999).

To summarize, in 37 of the 59 studies (62.7%) discussed above on the influence of the paternal parent on seed germination, we conclude that the father had a positive influence on germination, whereas in the other 22 studies it did not (Table 1, see footnote to table).

#### Influence of paternal parent on seed size and development

As with seed dormancy/germination, most studies on the parental effects on seed size have shown that the paternal influence on seed development and seed mass is small or non-existent, and when there is a paternal effect on seed size it is usually considerably smaller than that of the maternal parent (e.g. Antonovics and Schmitt, 1986; Marshall and Ellstrand, 1986; Mazer et al., 1986; Mazer, 1987b; Marshall, 1988, 1991; Nakamura and Stanton, 1989; Pittman and Levin, 1989; Fenster, 1991; Richardson and Stephenson, 1991; Lyons, 1996; Lacey et al., 1997; Shaw and Byers, 1998; de Jong and Scott, 2007; Holland et al., 2009; Diggle et al., 2010; de Jong et al., 2011; Li et al., 2015; Pélabon et al., 2016). However, although maternal genotype explained 29.3% of the variation in seed size in reciprocal crosses among four accessions of Arabidopsis thaliana, the paternal genotype explained '... a substantial proportion of the variation (10.4%)' (House et al., 2010). A recent study by Pires et al. (2016) showed that paternal effects on the control of seed development in Arabidopsis thaliana exists but are buffered by the maternal genome, i.e. genomic imprinting, an epigenetic mechanism for the parent-of-origin-specific [female or male (monoallelic)] expression of alleles that, in plants, occurs mostly in the endosperm of the developing seed (Vinkenoog et al., 2003; Köhler et al., 2012; Gehring, 2013; Pires, 2014; Rodrigues and Zilberman, 2015; Pires et al., 2016).

More specifically, *MEDEA* (*MEA*) is an imprinted maternally expressed gene essential for normal seed development. Thus, seeds of *Arabidopsis thaliana* that maternally inherit a loss-of-function *mea* allele exhibit excessive cell proliferation and abort when the pollen parent is accession *Ler* (Grossniklaus *et al.*, 1998; Pires *et al.*, 2016). Pires *et al.* (2016) have shown that when *mea* ovules are pollinated by some other accessions of *A. thaliana* the paternal effect is released and the seeds develop normally, i.e. *mea* seed abortion can be paternally suppressed. They suggest that *MEA* acts as a maternal buffer against the paternal genome on seed development and conclude that this provides support of the (intragenomic) parental conflict theory in angiosperms whose seeds are sired by multiple donors.

Species	Family	Influence on seed germination*	References
Anthoxanthum odoratum	Poaceae (M)	+	Schmitt and Antonovics, 1986
Asclepias exaltata	Apocynaceae	0	Himes and Wyatt, 2005
Asclepias speciosa	Apocynaceae	+	Bookman, 1984
Aster kantoensis	Asteraceae	+	Kagawa et al., 2011
Beta vulgaris	Amaranthaceae	0	Battle and Whittington, 1971
Betula pendula	Betulaceae	0	Pasonen et al., 2001
Brassica campestris	Brassicaceae	+	Palmer and Zimmerman, 1994
Campanula americana	Campanulaceae	+	Richardson and Stephenson, 1992
Campanula americana	Campanulaceae	+	Galloway, 2001a
Campanula americana	Campanulaceae	+	Galloway, 2001b
Campanula americana	Campanulaceae	+	Etterson and Galloway, 2002
Campanula rapunculoides	Campanulaceae	0	Good-Avila and Stephenson, 2003
Campsis radicans	Bignoniaceae	+	Bertin, 1986
Campsis radicans	Bignoniaceae	+	Bertin et al., 1989
Campsis radicans	Bignoniaceae	+	Bertin, 1990
Chamaecrista fasciculata	Fabaceae	0	Sork and Schemske, 1992
Cochlearia bavarica	Brassicaceae	0	Paschke et al., 2002
Cochlearia bavarica	Brassicaceae	0	Fischer et al., 2003
Collinsia heterophylla	Plantaginaceae	+	Lankinen and Madjidian, 2011
Costus allenii	Costaceae (M)	0	Schemske and Pautler, 1984
Crepis tectorum subsp. pumila	Asteraceae	+	Andersson, 1990
Dalechampia scandens	Euphorbiaceae	0	Pélabon <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Datisca glomerata	Datiscaceae	0	Riesberg et al., 1993
Eschscholzia californica	Papaveraceae	+	Cook, 1962
Eucalyptus globulus	Myrtaceae	+	Rix <i>et al.</i> , 2012
Fraxinus ornus	Oleaceae	0	Verdu <i>et al.</i> , 2004
Iris hexagona	Iridaceae (M)	+	Van Zandt and Mopper, 2004
Lactuca sativa	Asteraceae	+	Rideau et al., 1976
Laguncularia racemosa	Combretaceae	+	Landry and Rathcke, 2007
Lobelia cardinalis	Campanulaceae	+	Schlichting and Devlin, 1992
Lupinus texensis	Fabaceae	+	Helenurm and Schaal, 1996
Lychnis flos-cuculi	Caryophyllaceae	+	Biere, 1991a
Lychnis flos-cuculi	Caryophyllaceae	+	Biere, 1991b
Mirabilis jalapa	Nyctaginaceae	0	Niesenbaum, 1999
Morus alba and M. rubra	Moraceae	0	Burgess and Husband, 2004
Nemophlia menziesii	Boraginaceae	+	Platenkamp and Shaw, 1993
Nemophlia menziesii	Boraginaceae	0	Byers et al., 1997
Nicotiana tobacum	Solanaceae	+	Honing, 1930
Nicotiana tobacum	Solanaceae	+	Kasperbauer, 1968
Pachycereus pringlei	Cactaceae	+	Sosa and Fleming, 1999
Petunia hybrida	Solanaceae	+	Girard, 1990
Plantago lanceolata	Plantaginaceae	+	Lacey, 1996
	riantaginaceae		Lacey, 1990

**Table 1.** Positive (+) or no positive (0) influence of the paternal parent on seed germination [percentage and/or rate (speed)] of F<sub>1</sub> offspring (seeds) in 59 studies on 45 species of angiosperms [3 monocots (M) and 42 eudicots] in 38 genera and 27 families

(Continued)

#### Table 1. (Continued.)

Species	Family	Influence on seed germination*	References
Purshia tridentata	Rosaceae	+	Meyer and Pendleton, 2000
Raphanus raphanistrum	Brassicaceae	0	Mazer, 1987a
Raphanus raphanistrum	Brassicaceae	0	Snow, 1990
Raphanus raphanistrum	Brassicaceae	0	Young and Stanton, 1990
Raphanus sativus	Brassicaceae	+	Mazer and Schick, 1991a
Raphanus sativus	Brassicaceae	+	Mazer and Schick, 1991b
Raphanus sativus	Brassicaceae	0	Marshall <i>et al</i> ., 2007
Silene latifolia	Caryophyllaceae	+	Lassere <i>et al.</i> , 1996
Silene latifolia	Caryophyllaceae	0	Jolivet and Bernasconi, 2007
Silene latifolia	Caryophyllaceae	+	Teixeira et al., 2009
Silene uniflora var. petraea and S. vulgaris	Caryophyllaceae	+	Andersson et al., 2008
Sinapis arvensis	Brassicaceae	0	Garbutt and Witcombe, 1986
Solidago altissima	Asteraceae	+	Schmid and Dolt, 1994
Swertia perennis	Gentianaceae	+	Lienert and Fischer, 2004
Vaccinium corymbosum	Ericaceae	+	Vander Kloet and Tosh, 1984
Vaccinium elliotii	Ericaceae	0	Wenslaff and Lyrene, 2001

\*Several of the studies (e.g. Schmitt and Antonovics, 1986; Bertin et al., 1989; Helernum and Schaal, 1996) had more than one outcome for a taxon, i.e. positive influence versus no positive influence of paternal parent on seed germination. In those cases, even if only one of the outcomes was positive we show a positive influence for the paternal parent.

According to the parental conflict theory (Haig and Westoby, 1989, 1991; Moore and Haig, 1991) [the predominant theory of several (theories) on genomic imprinting, for example see Rodrigues and Zilberman, 2015], the maternal parent has equal interest in all of her sib and half-sib progeny, and thus it would be to her best interest to devote equal resources to all of them (maternal family). On the other hand, for plants that receive pollen from more than one father, it would be in the best interest of each of the multiple paternal parents, who do not father all sibs and half-sibs of the maternal family, to get preferential treatment (i.e. relatively more resources) for the progeny he sires, i.e. to have more than an equal share of the resources devoted to his offspring. Thus, there is conflict between maternal and paternal genes within offspring over how the resources from maternal tissue via the endosperm are devoted to the developing embryos. The results of a study on seeds of Arabidopsis thaliana by Scott et al. (1998) provide support for the parental conflict theory. Thus, seeds with a double dose of paternal genes  $[2x \times 4x (1m :$ 2p endosperm) produce large endosperms and embryos, while maternal plants with a double dose of genes  $[4x \times 2x (2m : 1p)]$ endosperm)] produce small endosperms and embryos. According to Pires et al. (2016), MEA activity buffers the paternal effects from maximizing growth '... suggesting that they were likely shaped by parental conflict'. In sum, then, the study by Pires et al. (2016) shows that paternal effects on seed development do exist but are buffered by the maternal genome.

## **General conclusion**

Although undoubtedly the mother has much more influence than the father on dormancy and germination (and development and size-mass) of offspring seeds produced, the pollen parent sometimes can have an effect on variation in these life history traits. However, in general, the influence of the father on these stages of the plant life cycle is minimal compared with that of the mother.

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# Appendix. Relative performance

A meaningful way to compare the effect of one-pollen donor *versus* multiplepollen donors on seed germination is to use a measure of relative performance (RP):

$$RP = (W_{\rm m} - W_{\rm s})/W_{\rm max}[W_{\rm m}, W_{\rm s}]$$

where  $W_{\rm m}$  is mean germination percentage of seeds (progeny) resulting from multiple-donor pollinations, and  $W_{\rm s}$  is the mean germination percentage of seeds resulting from a single-donor pollination.

Using this equation, values will be equidistant from 0, i.e. they are bound between -1.0 and +1.0, when  $W_s > W_m$  (to -1) and  $W_s \le W_m$  (to +1). Thus, a positive value indicates that seeds from multiple-donor pollinations

germinated better than those from a single-donor pollination, and the closer the value is to 1.0 the greater the difference in performance. A negative value indicates that seeds from a single-donor pollination germinated better than those from multiple-donor pollinations, and the more negative the value the greater the single-donor benefit.

Relevant to the study by Sork and Schemske (1992) discussed in the present paper, the above equation can be used to calculate inbreeding depression of seed germination by substituting  $W_0$  (germination of outcrossed seeds) for  $W_m$  and letting  $W_s$  be germination of selfed seeds instead of germination of a single-donor pollination.