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# **Bateman's Principle and Plant Reproduction: The Role of Pollen Limitation in Fruit and Seed Set**

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#### **I. Abstract**

Bateman's principle states that male fitness is usually limited by the number of matings achieved, while female fitness is usually limited by the resources available for reproduction. When applied to flowering plants this principle leads to the expectation that pollen limitation of fruit and seed set will be uncommon. However, if male searching for mates (including pollen dissemination via external agents) is not sufficiently successful, then the reproductive success of both sexes (or both sex functions in hermaphroditic plants) will be limited by number of matings rather than by resources, and Bateman's principle cannot be expected to apply. Limitation of female success due to inadequate pollen receipt appears to be a common phenomenon in plants. Using published data on 258 species in which fecundity was reported for natural pollination and hand pollination with outcross pollen, I found significant pollen limitation at some times or in some sites in 159 of the 258 species (62%). When experiments were performed multiple times within a growing season, or in multiple sites or years, the statistical significance of pollen limitation commonly varied among times, sites or years, indicating that the pollination environment is not constant. There is some indication that, across species, supplemental pollen leads to increased fruit set more often than increased seed set within fruits, pointing to the importance of gamete packaging strategies in plant reproduction. Species that are highly self-incompatible obtain a greater benefit relative to natural pollination from artificial application of excess outcross pollen than do self-compatible species. This suggests that inadequate pollen receipt is a primary cause of low fecundity rates in perennial plants, which are often self-incompatible. Because flowering plants often allocate considerable resources to pollinator attraction, both export and receipt of pollen could be limited primarily by resource investment in floral advertisement and rewards. But whatever investment is made is attraction, pollinator behavioral stochasticity usually produces wide variation among flowers in reproductive success through both male and female functions. In such circumstances the optimal deployment of resources among megaspores, microspores, and pollinator attraction may often require more flowers or more ovules per flower than will usually be fertilized, in order to benefit from chance fluctuations that bring in large number of pollen grains. Maximizing seed set for the entire plant in a stochastic pollination environment might thus entail a packaging strategy for flower number or ovule number per flower that makes pollen limitation of fruit or seed set likely. Pollen availability may limit female success in individual flowers, entire plants (in a season or over a lifetime), or populations. The appropriate level must be distinguished depending on the nature of the question being addressed.

# **II. Introduction**

An important question in plant reproductive ecology is whether female reproductive success is frequently limited by insufficient receipt of pollen. The adequacy of pollen deposition is expected to affect selection for floral traits relating to male and female function (Bawa & Beach, 1981; Queller, 1987; Waser, 1983; Willson, 1979), the potential for microgametophyte competition (Snow, 1986; Walsh & Charlesworth, 1992), the evolution of breeding systems (Jain, 1976; Stebbins, 1957), the potential for plant-animal coevolution (Feinsinger, 1983), the packaging strategy for ovules (Burd, 1994), and the demography of plant populations.

It is sometimes thought that flowering plants commonly receive sufficient pollen to fertilize all ovules, and only the availability of resources for flower production and for fruit and seed maturation limits female reproductive success. Bateman's (1948) principle is often invoked as the theoretical basis for this supposition. A strict dichotomy between resource and pollen limitation may seldom occur (Haig & Westoby, 1988; Campbell & Halama, 1993), but the assumption that pollen limitation is infrequent appears often in theoretical and empirical work on plant reproduction (Burd & Head, 1992; Charnov, 1979; Kunin, 1992; Stanton & Preston, 1988b; Willson & Burley 1983). In this article I wish to reconsider Bateman's principle and examine the empirical evidence for pollen limitation of fruit and seed set.

There is no doubt that resources are sometimes insufficient to mature all fertilized ovules, while in other cases resources are adequate but pollen deposition is not (and that in other cases seed set is limited by predation or damage from weather). The question of pollen limitation is one of relative frequency. I suggest in this article that pollen limitation of female reproductive success is common, and that we should expect this as the outcome of optimal resource investment strategies in a stochastically fluctuating pollination environment. Insufficient fertilization may affect individual ovules, flowers or inflorescences on a plant, the whole plant (in a single season or during a lifetime), or enire populations (that is, different sites may differ in pollinator activity). The modular gamete packaging characteristic of plants leads to different consequences of pollinator limitation at the different levels. No single scale is the true scale, and the appropriate level or levels depend on the question being asked.

Support for a revised understanding of pollen limitation comes from a compilation of published data comparing reproductive performance under natural pollination and artificial selfing and outcrossing. The data come from 258 species in 77 families. Although it is difficult to assess how representative this sample is of angiosperms in general, the large sample size and the taxonomic, morphological, and habitat diversity of the species in the sample provide confidence that pollen limitation is not an occasional phenomenon of unusual circumstances.

I will review Bateman's (1948) paper on sexual selection and argue that resource limitation of female success does not follow necessarily from Bateman's principle, because males may not find all available females or female gametes. I then consider how Bateman's principle applies to plants, and argue that it may not be a safe assumption that male and female gametes are highly effective in locating each other.

Next I describe the compilation of published data on female reproduction under natural and artificial pollination. I then analyse these data to extract the among-species patterns of overall pollen limitation, the variability of pollen limitation from site to site or year to year, and the differences between fruits and seeds in the degree of pollen limitation. By using data on self-compatibility I consider the hypothesis that low rates of ovule success in some plants may be due to high mutational or recombinational load.

Finally, I consider the implications of the trends identified in the analysis. When pollen receipt is highly variable, the fitness-maximizing allocation of resources may be one that involves an over-stocking of flowers, or ovules within flowers, relative to the average levels of pollination. As a result, we would expect that fitness through both sex functions would often be limited by mating success. Pollen limitation may occur at many levels, and has been well demonstrated at some but not at other levels.

# **III. Theoretical Considerations**

## A. BATEMAN'S PRINCIPLE

Bateman's principle has been restated often, in ways that give emphasis to different features of the argument. Bateman himself provided two summaries of his main point. He first gives what might be called the "resources *versus* access" argument: "In most animals the fertility of the female is limited by egg production which causes a severe strain on their nutrition... In the male, however, fertility is seldom likely to be limited by sperm production but rather by the number of inseminations or the number of females available to him" (Bateman, 1948, p. 364). He also states a"numerical excess" principle: "The primary cause of intra-masculine selection would thus seem to be that females produce much fewer gametes than males. Consequently there is competition between male *gametes* for the fertilisation of the female *gametes"* (Bateman, 1948, pp. 364-365, italics in original).

These two components of Bateman's principle coincide particularly well in animal species in which the male invests little beyond sperm in the production of offspring. Nonetheless, the differences between the two components reflect genuinely separate features of sexual reproduction, and these differences are important for interpreting the nature of sexual reproduction in plants.

Bateman was interested in showing that mating systems resulted from intra-masculine sexual selection, rather than, as Darwin supposed, that sexual selection occurred because of the mating system. Bateman sought a cause of sexual selection acting on males that was "independent of mating system and probably inherent in the mechanics of sexual reproduction" (1948, p. 352). The numerical superiority of small, usually motile sperm relative to larger eggs is a matter of common observation. Then in sexually reproducing species some males could, in principle, achieve vastly more fertilizations than any female. Only access to eggs limits the success a male realizes, and competition and high variance in success among males follows readily. Anisogamy provided the inherent cause of sexual competition that Bateman sought.

Anisogamy is not a guarantee that female fitness will be limited by resources, however. Competition of three different kinds may occur among males: (1) to locate receptive females, (2) to exclude other males from access to mates, and (3) to be accepted by choosy females. Resources can limit female success only if available female sex cells are found by the searching males. The "resources versus access" argument depends on the outcome of this first kind of competition. Bateman recognized that the motility of male gametes and the searching behavior of males may be due to competition among males (1948, p. 365), but did not consider the potential for failure in searching. If the densities of males and females are chronically low, or if the searching is inefficient for other reasons, then some female gametes may remain unfertilized for want of being found. Fewer than sufficient encounters between eggs and sperm makes the fertility of each sex limited by availability of the other sex (cf. Queller, 1987). It is important to note that availability refers to "effective" or "functional" access, since the numerical difference argument still holds, in principle.

The failure to locate available females or female gametes might be rare in animals, which are usually mobile and can respond behaviorally to sensory cues concerning female location (but see Levitan, 1993). It would also be unusual in animals for only a portion of a female's eggs to be fertilized for want of sperm once she has accepted a male and copulation has occurred. But flowering plants are sessile organisms that ordinarily rely on external agents for export and receipt of pollen from many, often multi-ovulate flowers. Thus some flowers might remain unpollinated, or underpollinated. In plants the adequacy of male "search" for females is not certain. This is an indication that additional nuance may be required when applying Bateman's principle, and particularly the resources-access argument, to plants.

Bateman's principle was extended and modified in an influential paper by Trivers (1972) in which he considered the effect of parental investment on sexual selection. Ecological circumstances may provide greater ultimate reproductive success to males if they invest in parental care of offspring rather than invest in additional matings. Male parental care may even become a limiting resource for female reproductive success in some species (Clutton-Brock, 1991), accompanied by the evolution of competitive mating behaviors on the part of females and discrimination by males among potential mates (Gwynne, 1991).

Male parental care does not obviate the numerical excess principle, which is based on anisogamy, but it can clearly moderate or eliminate the resources-access argument. Likewise in many flowering plants, the need to invest resources in pollinator attraction (and the imperfect control over pollen transfer that such investment brings) may require a modification of the resources-access component of Bateman's principle.

#### B. THE TRANSFER OF BATEMAN'S PRINCIPLE TO PLANTS

Bateman worked with *Drosophila* but suggested that his argument would apply to plants as well. He noted the tendency for microspores to far outnumber megaspores, and suggested that the brightly colored male catkins and inconspicuous female catkins of insect-pollinated *Salix caprea* resulted from sexual selection (1948, p. 366).

An enormous amount of data indicates that pollen donors compete to fertilize ovules, and there seems little reason not to attribute this to Bateman's numerical excess principle. As noted above, three types of competition can occur among males: competition to locate females, to exclude other males, and to be accepted by females. Bateman's principle does not provide that all three mechanisms of competition are equally likely to occur, however.

Seed abortion or style-pollen tube interactions can result in differential success of individual pollen donors (Bertin, 1988a; Cruzan, 1990; Marshall & Ellstrand, 1988; Stephenson & Winsor, 1986), and this corresponds in some ways to female choice of mates in animals (Willson, 1990) [although Queller (1987) has pointed out the limits to the analogy]. But sometimes ovule fertilization seems to be random with respect to pollen donors (Sork & Schemske, 1992).

Similarly, faster growth of pollen tubes may give some males access to ovules while others are excluded (Snow & Spira, 1991), an analogy to male behavioral contests in animals. However, differences in pollen tube growth rate need not have a genetic basis (Young & Stanton, 1990) or at least need not be heritable (Snow & Mazer, 1988), and the evolutionary interpretation of pollen tube competition is unclear at present (Queller, 1987; Walsh & Charlesworth, 1992).

Competition for pollinator service is analogous to mate searching in animals. Numerous reproductive traits have been interpreted as evidence of male competition to export pollen, including the size of floral displays (Sutherland & Delph, 1984; Queller, 1983; Willson & Price, 1977; Wyatt, 1982; but see Broyles & Wyatt, 1990), duration and floral rewards of male flowers or staminate phases of perfect flowers

# Table I

Species	Stigmatic Pollen		
	$\overline{x} \pm s$	Range	Reference
Besleria triflora	$3375 \pm 7807$ <sup>a</sup>	$(0, 78000^4)$	Feinsinger et al. 1986
Cassia reticulata		(0, 300)	Snow & Roubik 1987
Daphne kamtchatica		(0, 40)	Kikuzawa 1989
Drymonia rubra	$1366 \pm 3361^{\circ}$	$(0, 22500^a)$	Feinsinger et al. 1986
Hansteinia blepharorachis	$11.1 \pm 18.6^a$	$(0, 140)^{a}$	Feinsinger et al. 1986
Ipomoea trichocarpa	$90.7 \pm 51.8$	(8, 292)	Murcia 1990
Jepsonia heterandra	$215.6^{b}$	$(73, 503)^b$	Ornduff 1971
Passiflora vitifolia		$(<25$ , $>1000$	Snow 1982
Pavonia dasypetala		(1, 104)	McDade & Davidar 1984
Psiguria warscewiczii	1029 <sup>c</sup>	$(20, 5000)^c$	Murawski 1987
Razisea spicata	$5.9 \pm 12.6^{\rm a}$	$(0, 83)^{a}$	Feinsinger et al. 1986
Staberoha banksii	$18.3 \pm 22.6$	(0, 196)	Honig et al. 1992
Trichanthera gigantea		(0, > 8)	McDade 1983

Variation in stigmatic pollen loads reported in the literature

a Conspecific pollen only.

b Pin pollen on thrum stigmas.

c Pollen tetrads.

(Bell et al., 1984; Delph & Lively, 1992), corolla size (Bell, 1985; Stanton & Preston, 1988a) and other aspects of floral morphology (Campbell et al., 1991 ; Cruzan et al., 1988; Galen & Stanton, 1989; Harder & Thomson, 1989; Stanton et. al., 1986; Young & Stanton, 1990) (but see Wilson et al., 1994, for an interpretation of floral traits based on selection for female function).

The numerical excess principle seems to explain why competition to locate ovules (through a pollen vector) occurs, but Bateman's principle is silent concerning the outcome of this competition. In a particular population pollinators may deposit a superfluity of pollen grains on stigmas or they may not (or, most likely, there will be variation among flowers and plants such that some have adequate pollen and others not, and the pattern may vary from year to year).

Table I presents distributional statistics for stigmatic pollen loads in species having a variety of pollination vectors. Variation over several orders of magnitude is common within populations (see also Bertin & Sholes, 1993; Cruzan et al., 1988; Elam & Linhart, 1988; Garwood & Horvitz, 1985; Koptur, 1984). These data, especially the regular occurrence of stigmatic loads of zero, reveal the difficulties and inefficiencies in the search for mates. Whether resource limitation of female reproduction occurs depends, of course, on the outcome of male competition to locate ovules through pollen vectors.

# **IV. Compilation of Data**

Artificial pollination is frequently used to assess self-compatibility or other aspects of the mating system as well as to examine pollen limitation. Thus a large literature

involving a wide variety of plants, habitats, and geographical locations is available. Hand pollination experiments are not the only means by which pollen limitation might be assessed. Low stigmatic pollen loads relative to ovule number (Snow, 1986), or correlations of seed set with number of pollinator visits (Real & Rathcke, 1991) may indicate pollen limitation. However, in order to compile a cohesive data set obtained by similar methods, I relied solely on studies using hand pollination.

To locate relevant studies, I consulted initially my own collection of literature on plant reproduction and the studies used by Young and Young (1992). I also surveyed the titles of articles appearing from 1980 through 1992 in *American Journal of Botany, Bulletin of the Torrey Botanical Club, Ecology, Plant Species Biology,* and *Plant Systematics and Evolution,* and checked all articles that seemed likely, judging from the title, to involve hand pollination as an experimental technique. When authors in the sample cited other studies involving hand pollination, I consulted the cited articles.

I located articles containing usable data on 258 species in 77 families. The complete data set is presented in Appendix I. It is impossible to know how well this sample represents angiosperm populations in general. Young and Young (1992) suggest that experiments in which hand pollination had no significant effect on fecundity often go unreported in the literature. However, Wilson et al. (1994) suggest that most tests occur in the plant populations least likely to experience pollinator limitation, so that non-significant effects of hand pollination would be over-represented in the literature. Many of the studies cited in Appendix I were investigations of self-compatibility rather than pollen limitation per se, which would tend to ease any reporting bias.

Objectives of the various studies and their techniques and manner of reporting data differed. I excluded from consideration data on cultivated plants or on greenhouse experiments. I required that data be presented from unmanipulated control flowers and from artificial outcrossings with (at least ostensibly) excess pollen addition to receptive stigmas. Although I did not require it for inclusion of a study, I recorded data from artificial self-pollinations or the authors' indications that a plant was self-compatible, self-incompatible, or dioecious. The data used were the mean effects of each treatment.

When hand outcross pollinations were made to both open flowers (supplemental pollination) and bagged flowers in a single experiment, I used the data from open flowers (e.g., Gross & Werner, 1983). However, in some studies only bagged outcrosses were employed, so among the various studies contributing to the data set, I did not distinguish between bagged and open flowers. Bagging is, nonetheless, an additional difference between experimental and control flowers that may affect reproductive performance.

Data from outcrossings among patches were preferred over "outcrossings" within a patch, especially in clonal species for which intra-patch pollinations may actuallly be selfings within a genet (e.g., Anderson & Beare, 1983). When multiple outcross treatments were used, I took the results from the least manipulative [e.g., treatments not involving emasculation were preferred over emasculation (Kevan, 1972)], or from the one corresponding most closely to natural pollination [e.g., nocturnal hand pollinations were preferred in the nocturnally moth-pollinated trees *Luehea candida*  and *L. seemannii* (Haber & Frankie, 1982)].

Various measures of female success were reported. The most common was percent fruit set, followed by seed number per fruit. Other commonly used measures were percent seed set (the fraction of ovules maturing to seeds) and number of seeds per

flower (similar to seed number per fruit but accounting for aborted flowers as well). Multiple measures were sometimes given for a single experiment. In such cases the data provide an indication of how supplemental pollen affects fruit set vs. seed number within fruits. In total I identified nine standard types of data, along with some ideosyncratic measures (see Appendix I). Even within a standard type there may exist variation. For example, percent fruit set may refer to the fraction of all flowers in a treatment setting fruit (taking each flower as a replicate of the experiment), or to the mean of fruit set from several plants (taking plants as replicates). Distinctions such as this were not always made clear (even implicitly, as by the inclusion of standard deviations), so I have not attempted to further divide the categories. When initial fruit development was distinguished from final maturation (e.g., Rathcke, 1988), I used only the data for final fruit set.

When multiple sites, years, or other samples were used, I preserved the subsets of the authors. This provides a valuable indication of the variability of pollen limitation. Most studies reported data from samples of entire populations for entire growing seasons. For seven species in Appendix I percent fruit set data were given for individual plants or population subsets such as morphs in a way that allowed totalling for the entire population. For these seven species I calculated the totals [A *rgyroxiphium sandwicense* (Compositae), *Raphanus sativus* (Cruciferae), *Andira inermis*  (Leguminosae), *Leptospermum scoparium* (Myrtaceae), *Oncidium variegatum* (Orchidaceae), *Eichornia crassipes* (Pontederiaceae), *Mitchella repens* (Rubiaceae)]. Thus, to the extent possible the data in Appendix I are population samples for a reproductive season. Where data represent my totalling, this is indicated.

I employed the taxonomic nomenclature of the authors, and I have largely preserved the format in which data were given in the original references.

Appendix I indicates the results of statistical tests contrasting female success from natural pollination and hand outcrossing treatments. When the authors of a study performed a test, I used their result. When no test was made, but data were presented as percent fruit based on individual flowers as replicates, I performed a  $\chi^2$  test of independence between treatment (natural vs. hand outcrossing) and outcome (fruit vs. no fruit), using a continuity correction due to a single degree of freedom in the test (Steel & Torrie, 1960). Often no statistical test was performed and the reported data were not appropriate for my test of independence, but the author(s) concluded that pollen limitation did or did not occur based on the magnitude of the difference between natural and hand pollination. Results based on these conclusions or on my test are distinguished in the Appendix and in all figures.

#### **V. Analysis**

#### A. PATTERNS AMONG SPECIES

A breakdown of results by type of data reported is presented in Table II. For all measures of female performance, pollen limitation seems common, involving at least a third of the species in the sample. Pollen limitation is especially apparent in the overall sample and in the percent fruit set data (which make up most of the overall data).

Of 258 species in the sample, 159 (62%) were significantly pollen limited in female reproductive success at some times or sites. Nine of the 159 species showing some pollen limitation presented data for morphs within a population or periods within a

#### POLLEN LIMITATION 91

#### Table II



Summary of the data in Appendix I. Entries give the number of species showing each pattern of natural pollination vs. hand outcrossing, categorized by the type of data reported.

<sup>a</sup> NS indicates a non-significant difference between natural pollination and hand outcrossing. The other two categories are for significant differences in the direction indicated. Species contributing to the "Outcross > Natural" category showed significant pollen limitation at some times or sites, but not necessarily in every experimental test performed.

b Notation is the same as that used in Appendix I.

c Includes *Allium tricoccum* (Liliaceae), which also contributes to the "Outcross > Natural" category from results in a second year (see data in the Appendix).

growing season (e.g., Copeland & Whelan, 1989; Dudash, 1993) for which I could not calculate results for the whole population or season from the data given. This does not imply that the combined data would not indicate pollen limitation, merely that the data, as presented, could not be directly totalled to give results for the whole season or whole population. Nonetheless, even if one excludes all nine ambiguous species, there still remain 150 species, or 58% of the total sample, having pollen-limited fruit or seed set at the whole-population level in some sites or years.

The magnitude of differences between natural and hand pollination is displayed in Figs. 1-3. In each figure, the result of natural pollination is given on the abscissa and of hand outcrossing on the ordinate. Each plotted symbol represents the outcome for a population in a growing season. Symbols in the upper left indicate that supplemental outcross pollen increased female reproduction over natural levels, while symbols in the lower right indicate the opposite.

The fruit set data in Fig. 1 reveal that the magnitude of pollen limitation is often large. Not only is fruit set enhanced by hand outcrossing in the great majority of cases, the output is often many times greater than that obtained under natural pollination. Data for percent seed set or seed number per fruit in Figs. 2 and 3 are less dramatic, but still show occasional large effects of supplemental pollen.

Hand outcrossing resulted in significantly reduced female performance relative to controls in I 1 species in the sample. *[Cfintonia borealis* (Lileaceae) is not included in this category in Table II because percent fruit set increased (significantly) by 41% even though seed number per fruit declined (significantly) by 23%, relative to controls.] For some species the data showing a decline are ambiguous. *Clintonia borealis* seems to benefit overall from extra pollen, even though seed number per fruit



**Percent Fruit Set from Natural Pollination** 

Fig. 1. Comparison of natural pollination and hand outcrossing for 207 species in 70 families with data reported as percent fruit set. Each plotted symbol  $(N = 278)$  represents the outcome of an experiment for a population in a single growing season. The  $x = y$  line is given for reference. Points above the line indicate that hand outcrossing yielded higher fruit set than natural pollination. Points below the line indicate the opposite. Open symbols indicate statistically non-significant differences; filled symbols indicate statistically significant differences. *Circles:* statistical test given by author(s) of study. *Squares:* tests of independence calculated when appropriate data were given and authors(s) do not provide a test (see Compilation of Data for further explanation). *Triangles:* author(s) did not perform a test and data are not appropriate for a test of independence, but pollen limitation (filled triangles) or absence of pollen limitation (open triangles) is assumed based on the magnitude of the difference between natural and hand pollination treatments.

declined. In *Allium tricoccum* (Liliaceae), a significant decrease in fecundity from hand outcrossing in 1984 was followed by a significant increase in 1985 (Nault & Gagnon, 1987). In *Saxifraga oppositifolia* (Saxifragaceae), an emasculation, outcross treatment (not reported in Appendix I) did not produce lower fruit set, even though the non-emasculation treatment did (Kevan, 1972). In *Espeletia neriifolia* (Corn-



**Percent Seed Set from Natural Pollination** 

Fig. 2. Comparison of natural pollination and hand outcrossing for 29 species in 16 families with data reported as percent seed set. Interpretation of symbols  $(N = 38)$  is as in Figure 1.

positae), the significance of the decrease is surmised, and the reported values are medians from distributions the authors describe as highly skewed (Berry & Calvo, 1989). It is not clear that the appropriate non-parametric test would indicate a significant decline.

A potential explanation of apparently detrimental effects of extra pollen is statistical Type I error. Even with the ambiguous cases noted above, only 4% of the species show significant declines in fecundity from pollen addition. Spurious significance may be expected by chance in 5% of all experiments when a 5% significance level is used. This generalization does not demonstrate that any particular result is erroneous, but Appendix I does not support the idea that detrimental effects from pollen addition are common.



Fig. 3. Comparison of natural pollination and hand outcrossing for 84 species in 36 families with data reported as number of seeds per fruit. Note the logarithmic scale on both axes. Interpretation of symbols (N  $= 110$ ) is as in Figure 1.

This conclusion differs from that of Young and Young (1992), who suggest that maximal reproductive success might frequently occur at intermediate pollination levels (although two examples of a detrimental effect of hand pollination in that paper, *Katmia latifolia* and *Viscaria vulgaris,* were misclassified, H. Young pets. comm.). The discrepancy stems in part from different criteria for incorporating data. For example, many studies employ statistical techniques that control experiment-wide Type I error when analysing, say, comparisons from multiple dates (e.g., Gross & Werner, 1983), and I use these original results in Appendix I. Post-hoc selection and statistical testing of individual comparisons isolated from larger tables of data, as in Young and Young (1992), can draw attention to patterns overlooked by the original authors, but may inflate the statistical significance because of selection bias. More thorough experimental techniques of the sort recommended by Young and Young (1992) are necessary to determine experimentally whether adverse effects of high pollen loads are common in nature.

#### POLLEN LIMITATION 95



Variation in pollen limitation within a season and among sites or years. Each entry indicates the number of species with the corresponding pattern of pollen limitation

#### B. PATTERNS WITHIN AND AMONG SEASONS AND SITES

Thirteen species in the sample were explicitly tested at multiple times within a growing season. Table III shows that most species experienced fluctuating levels of pollen limitation within a season.

Thirty-eight species had data from more than one site or year. Of these, 15 species showed consistent pollen limitation in all sites and years, 6 showed consistently non-significant differences between natural and hand pollination, and 17 species showed both significant and non-significant results among years or sites (Table III). In addition, one species not included in Table III, *Allium triccocum,* had a significant increase one year and a significant decrease the following year, as previously noted.

# c. PATTERNS OF FRUIT AND SEED MATURATION

Fruit abortion has received more attention than seed abortion within fruits (Stephenson, 1981; Sutherland & Delph, 1984). This may reflect a genuine biological effect of modular gamete packaging in plants. Seed maturation requires fruit maturation, and the most efficient use of reproductive resources in a multi-ovulate fruit may be to mature as full a complement of seeds as possible. Thus, ovules might usually be matured or aborted as packages. If this is true, we would expect pollen limitation to show more strongly in patterns of fruit set than in number of seeds per fruit.

Seventy-three species had data on both percent fruit and seed number per fruit from the same experiment. With these data the effect of additional pollen on fruits set can be compared with the effect on seed set. Table IV shows the pattern of effects on fruit and seed production of hand outcrossing. Each entry in this table represents the results for a population in a growing season. A single species can be represented multiple times if multiple sites or years were used, and, inasmuch as results sometimes varied among sites and years, a single species may contribute to more than one cell of the table.

In only seven cases did hand pollination produce any significant increase in seed number per fruit without an increase in the rate of fruit set. In contrast, four times as many cases occurred in which fruit set increased significantly but seed set per fruit did not. Eleven instances in which both fruit set and seed number per fruit increased significantly occurred, while the most common outcome was to have no significant change in either measure. The data in Table IV suggest that variation in fecundity in

#### **Table** IV

Effect of hand outcrossing on fruit vs. seed maturation for experiments reporting both fruit and seed data. Each entry in the table is the number of experiments having the results for that cell. A species may contribute more than once (and to more than one cell) if experiments occured in multiple sites or years (multiple tests within a season were not used).



a Data for some species could not be totalled to give results for a whole population. These cases are resolved as follows: *Agalinis strictifolia* (Scrophulariaceae): FM 1985 is entered as "NS" for fruit production and "Outcross > Natural" for seed set, because four of the five weeks showed this result; all other site-year combinations are entered as "NS" for both fruit and seed set. *Ipomopsis aggregata*  (Polemoniaceae): entered as "Outcross > Natural" for fruit production and "NS" for seed set, because 2 of the three test periods showed this result. *Physalis long!lolia* (Solanaceae) and *Sabatia angularis*  (Gentianaceae): small and large plants are entered separately because they showed different patterns.

most species is more often due to maturation or abortion of whole fruits rather than of individual seeds within fruits.

Using only those studies containing data on both fruit and seed maturation could involve a reporting bias. However, a bias is likely to underrepresent the importance of fruit set relative to seed set within fruits. Fruit set may commonly be the only type of data reported because it is the "obvious" or"natural" measure (i.e., because variance of fruit set or the effect on fruit set from experimental treatments is many times larger than that of seeds per fruit). Nonetheless, effects of pollen loads on seed number occur with reasonable frequency, and are not to be discounted.

#### D. GENETIC LOAD HYPOTHESIS

It has been noted that percent seed set tends to be higher in annuals than perennials, and in selfing than in outcrossing species (Wiens, 1984). There is considerable overlap in these categories, with perennials commonly being outcrossers and annuals often selfing.

Genetic load in outcrossers has been suggested as a source of these low fertility rates (Wiens, 1984; Wiens et al., 1987, 1989; cf. Charlesworth, 1989). A higher genetic load in perennials might arise from the maintenance of genetic polymorphisms under the selective pressure imposed by parasites and pathogens, and from less frequent purging of harmful recessive mutations than occurs in self-fertilizing plants (but see Dole & Ritland, 1993). The zygotes of outcrossers would more frequently suffer the lethal selective effects of genetic load, leading to low rates of seed set.

Another explanation of patterns of low seed set involves pollen limitation. A self-incompatible (SI) plant cannot make use of pollen transfers inside a single flower or among flowers on the same plant, while a self-compatible (SC) plant can benefit from such pollinator visits, since geitonogamous pollen will produce zygotes. Thus SC plants might have higher rates of seed set largely because they receive pollen from an additional source--themselves--not available to SI plants. Indeed, any incompatibility system reduces the pool of potential pollen donors, and this should increase the probability of inadequate fertilization. Incompatible pollen might also clog stigmas or trigger stigmatic reactions that further reduce the chances of ovule fertilization (Ockendon & Currah, 1977; Shore & Barrett, 1984).

Both genetic load and pollen limitation might simultaneously reduce a plant's fertility and, as with pollen limitation generally, the question is one of relative importance. The question can be addressed with the data in Appendix I, because the two explanations make different predictions about the effect of supplemental outcross pollen. If receipt of compatible pollen is the main limit on seed set, then supplemental outcrossing should increase female success (relative to natural pollination) far more in SI than in SC species. However, if genetic load is the more important cause of low fertility, addition of outcross pollen should have similar (and small) effects relative to natural pollination for both SI and SC species. If anything, SC species would tend to benefit somewhat more than SI species if a past history of selfing means that outcross pollen carries fewer deleterious alleles as a result of purging the mutational load.

I compared the effect of hand outcrossing in SI and SC species using percent fruit set data, because that is the most common measure of fecundity. In the studies I consulted, authors sometimes performed experimental selfings, which provides a quantitative measure of compatibility, but in other cases reported only a classification of a species as SI or SC. I created three different measures of compatibility: (1) When experimental self-pollinations were performed, I used percent fruit set to provide a continuous metric of compatibility. (2) Using the same data, I designated populations as SI if female success was zero upon hand selfing, and as SC otherwise. This converts measure 1 to a categorical measure of compatibility. (3) Still using the same data, I created a broader definition of incompatibility by categorizing a species as SI if fruit set was 0-5% in selfing experiments, and as SC if fruit set was greater than 5%. That is, a species could be labelled SI if it showed some, but slight, fruit set upon selfing. To these data I then added species that were designated SI or SC in studies that did not employ experimental selfings.

The relative benefit from addition of outcross pollen was measured by the ratio of mean success from hand outcrossing to mean success from natural pollination. Thus, when natural rates of ovule fertilization are high, additional pollen can provide only a small relative benefit. Relative benefit of hand outcrossing is plotted against percent fruit set from selfing (compatibility definition 1 above) in Fig. 4. The pattern conforms more closely with the expectations of a pollen limitation hypothesis than of the genetic load hypothesis. Highly self-incompatible species sometimes improved female reproductive success more than 10-fold upon hand outcrossing, while more compatible species seldom benefited so greatly from pollen additions. The Spearman rank correlation for these data is negative and highly significant ( $R = -0.38$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ).

When compatibility is classified by the second criterion above (zero or non-zero reproductive success from selfing) the relative benefit from supplemental outcross pollen can be compared between SI and SC species using the U-test of Mann and Whitney (1947). Self-incompatible species tend to receive a greater relative benefit from hand outcrossing ( $U = 1687$ ;  $N_{SI} = 46$ ,  $N_{SC} = 117$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ). Using the third criterion above to classify compatibility also shows that SI species benefit more from additional outcross pollen than SC species ( $U = 5159.5$ ; N<sub>SI</sub> = 111, N<sub>SC</sub> = 117; p < 0.01).

These patterns cast doubt on the overriding importance of genetic load for low rates



**Fig.** 4. Test of the genetic load vs. pollen limitation hypotheses for low female fecundity in outcrossers. Compatibility is measured by the percent fruit set from hand selfing. Plotted points on the left-hand side of the graph represent more self-incompatible species, while points on the right-hand side represent more self-compatible species. Ordinate values represent the ratio of fruit set under hand outcrossing to fruit set from natural pollination, that is, the relative benefit of additional outcross pollen. The Spearman rank correlation for the plotted data is negative and highly significant  $(R = -0.38; p \ 0.001)$ , supporting the pollen limitation hypothesis. Interpretation of symbols is as in Figure I.

of ovule success. Difficulties in the pollen limitation hypothesis remain, however. For species having more than about 15% fruit set from selfing the relative benefit of hand outcrossing is low (Fig. 4). One might expect the decline to be more linear with increasing self-compatibility if higher levels of self-compatibility produce equivalently higher rates of natural ovule fertilization. Much would depend on the frequency of geitonogamous pollinations in any population. An additional difficulty is that neither genetic load nor actual selfing rates (as distinct from self-compatibility) were measured. Only detailed information of this sort can resolve the issue.

# **VI. Discussion**

The prevalence of pollen limitation among the species in Appendix I might seem surprising, if, following Bateman, we expect female reproduction to be limited by resources and not by access to males. For flowering plants, however, the search component implicit in Bateman's argument seems frequently to be unsatisisfied, due to the vagaries of pollen dissemination and pollen receipt using external agents.

Investments in pollinator attraction are frequently a large fraction of a flower's

biomass investment (Pleasants & Chaplin, 1983; Southwick, 1984), an indication, perhaps, of the difficulty in acquiring adequate pollinator service. Even large floral rewards provide incomplete control over pollinators, and considerable resource expenditure on male competition to locate ovules frequently results in incomplete success (Table I). This evidence reinforces the impression that lack of success in "searching" for each sex by the other is a factor that frequently obviates Bateman's resource limitation argument in flowering plants.

Chronic pollen limitation is expected to create selective pressures that would alter resource allocations and other features of reproduction (Charnov & Bull, 1986; Stanton & Preston, 1988b), leading to a reduction in pollen limitation. Why, then, is pollen limitation so common? Can pollen limitation represent a selective equilibrium? I suggest that pollen limitation may often be the consequence of adaptive resource allocation strategies in a pollination enviroment characterized by large stochastic variation in pollen delivery and ovule fertilization.

# A. ALLOCATION STRATEGIES AND POLLEN LIMITATION

Haig and Westoby (1988) presented a graphical model proposing that at an evolutionary equilibrium female fecundity would be limited by both pollen and resources. When pollen limits seed set, selection would favor increased allocation to pollinator attraction at the expense of ovule investment, but in species receiving excess pollen, a shift from attractive investment to ovules would be favored. An equilibrium is achieved when both pollinator attraction and ovule investment limit seed output to the same degree.

The argument of Haig and Westoby implicitly divides a plant's mating effort into what may be called spore investment (pollen and ovule production) and pollination investment. Evolutionary stable strategy models (cf. Maynard Smith, 1982) of allocation involving a trade-off between male, female, and attractive investments have been well studied (e.g., Charlesworth & Charlesworth, 1987; Lloyd, 1987; Lloyd & Venable, 1992). In general, these models make predictions corresponding to the Haig and Westoby argument: at equilibrium, any benefit from small shifts in allocation that increase, say, the number of pollinator visits are balanced by a decrement in some other component of fitness--number of ovules available to be fertilized, for example.

Viewing mating effort as both spore investment and pollination investment makes clear why some nuance is required in any botanical application of statements like "male fitness should be limited by access to females and not by resources." Since access to females requires the investment of resources in pollinator attraction, male fitness could be limited by resource investment even when microspores vastly outnumber megaspores. At an evolutionary stable equilibrium, increased investment in pollinator visitation might be expected to require a loss in fitness from having fewer pollen grains to export when the pollinators arrive (cf. Lloyd, 1987; Lloyd & Venable, 1992).

The argument thus far suggests only that a plant should produce just enough ovules and invest just enough in pollinator attraction so that all ovules are fertilized (Haig  $\&$ Westoby, 1988). Chronic or even frequent pollen limitation of seed output is not predicted by this view. However, if the effect of attractive investment on fertilization is stochastic, a plant cannot adjust the complement of zygotes each flower will have with such precision. In a random pollination environment one expects pollen limitation

to occur often. Haig and Westoby (1988) made this suggestion, and models of stochastic pollination confirm it. Cohen and Dukas (1990) model a situation in which greater floral investment produces an increase (but with diminishing marginal effect) in the probability that a flower will be pollinated. Given a trade-off between attractive investment in individual flowers and the total number of flowers that can be made, the fitness-maximizing strategy occurs with fewer than all flowers being pollinated.

The model of Cohen and Dukas (1990) assumes that individual flowers are unpollinated or completely pollinated. I have modelled pollination intensity as a stochastic variable that allows partial fertilization of multi-ovulate flowers (Burd, 1994). This model suggests that the optimal ovule number per flower will often be above the mean number of successful pollen tubes per flower. This counter-intuitive result occurs because of variance among flowers in pollination intensity. Flowers that are "oversupplied" with ovules have a non-zero probability of achieving very high seed set because they may, by chance, fall in the upper end of natural variation in pollen receipt. The greater the variance, the more likely some flowers are to achieve very high seed set, although a plant cannot predict which of its flowers will be successful. In such circumstances, the expected number of ovule fertilizations on a plant is greater if many ovules are present in each flower than if additional costly flowers must be produced with fewer ovules in each.

These arguments suggest that pollen limitation of female success should be common. Many other components of plant reproduction may obviate the selective pressures assumed above. For example, the need to disperse seeds effectively may favor low ovule numbers (and therefore infrequent pollen limitation) in order to maintain a low seed-to-pulp ratio or low wing loading in the fruits (cf. Augspurger & Hogan, 1983; Lee, 1984). Thus, "excess" flowers and "excess" ovules need not be universal among angiosperm species. But the prevalence of pollen limitation in the data set suggests that among-flower variance in pollination might frequently shape floral strategies in a way that results in chronic pollen limitation.

#### B. MULTIPLE SCALES OF POLLEN LIMITATION

Explicit consideration of the scale of ecological entitites and processes is becoming common (e.g., Allen & Hoekstra, 1992; O'Neil, 1989), and it is useful to apply this perspective to pollen limitation.

# *1. Individual Ovules*

At the most fundamental level, pollen limitation occurs when individual ovules go unfertilized. Packaging of ovules in flowers may make the individual ovule an unrewarding level of analysis in most cases, but ovule position effects are known (Mazer et al., 1986; Rocha & Stephenson, 1991) and serve as a reminder that interesting phenomena may be associated with differences among ovules within a flower.

# *2. Individual Flowers*

As noted above, among-flower variation in stigmatic pollen deposition can be great, and from this we can infer that inadequate pollination at the level of individual flowers is even more common than Table I would suggest. That is, the least pollinated flowers tend to be the ones aborted when abortion occurs (Stephenson, 1981), so that end-ofseason measures of reproductive success may not reveal the low end of the amongflower distribution in pollen receipt.

If a plant must abort some fertilized ovaries, the total female success of an entire plant need not be affected by having some flowers less thoroughly pollinated. The whole plant is often the level of greatest interest to pollination ecologists because of the evolutionary significance of individual fitness. But variation among individual flowers is nonetheless of evolutionary importance because it can affect whole plant fitness by affecting such things as the optimal ovule packaging (Burd, 1994). Variation among flowers in pollen limitation could also be relevant for microgametophyte competition in styles. Even when overall seed output is pollen limited in a plant, some proportion of flowers may have unusually heavy stigmatic pollen loads and selection among pollen tubes could occur (Snow, 1986). If these seeds are of higher quality than in fruits where no competition occurred, flowers from the upper end of a pollination distribution may contribute disproportionately to fitness.

#### *3. Whole Plants*

Pollen limitation of whole plant fitness has been difficult to assess. Zimmerman and Pyke (1988) argue that the methods typically used to test for pollen limitation are inadequate at the whole plant level. Improved performance by experimentally pollinated flowers may come at the expense of other flowers, due to reallocation of resources for fruit and seed maturation. Total female success may not increase even if additional pollen increases seed set in any flower receiving it.

Zimmerman and Pyke (1988) found just such an effect in *Polemonium foliosissimum.* However, observing this effect is not sufficient to establish that whole plant female success was not pollen limited: the decrease in unmanipulated flowers must be greater than the increase brought about in hand pollinated flowers. In *P.foliosissimum*  whole-plant seed set averaged about 7% higher on experimental plants than on unmanipulated, naturally pollinated plants, despite the reduced performance of some flowers on the experimental plants. This increase was statistically significant.

Zimmerman and Pyke then estimated the seed contribution of flowers that had opened and whithered before, between, or after experimental pollinations, and for which seed set was not directly counted. Including these estimates, experimental plants had about 9% higher seed set, although now the increase was not statistically significant. Although their experiment is not conclusive, as Zimmerman and Pyke (1988) note, their data tend to suggest some degree of pollen limitation in *P. foliosissimum* (even though they conclude that resources probably limit female output, an indication, perhaps, of the common expectation of resource limitation.)

#### *4. Lifetime Fitness*

A similar problem confronts investigators over the effect of pollen limitation on lifetime fitness in iteroparous plants. Female reproductive output may increase dramatically upon supplemental pollination, but years of high reproductive investment are frequently followed by reduced vegetative and reproductive performance in subsequent seasons (e.g., Snow & Whigham, 1989, and references therein). A reduced output in following years does not itself establish that lifetime reproductive output is resource limited. The fitness decrease must be greater than the benefit provided by additional pollen in the initial season for pollen limitation of lifetime fitness to be ruled out (Calvo, 1993).

Primack and Hall (1990) compared hand-pollinated plants with unmanipulated controls of the orchid *Cypripedium acaule.* Supplemental pollen produced fruit set from 8496%, compared with 06% in controls, but imposed a growth and flowering cost over the four years of the study. However, the 64 experimental plants in one site produced 158 fruits in four years, while an equal number of control plants produced 7 fruits, and similar results occurred in a second site (Primack & Hall, 1990, Table 7). It seems possible that hand-pollinated plants had higher average fitness than controls, despite the apparent low growth rates and possibly higher mortality that ensued.

Calvo (1993) used a matrix stage model with data on growth and reproduction in the orchid *Tolumnia variegata* to assess the fitness consequences of increased pollination. His analysis suggests that the benefit of high fruit set from additional pollen receipt (about 88 times higher than natural rates of fruit set) would outweigh the cost to future growth and reproduction.

Thus, although pollen limitation may not be conclusively demonstrated in any study using iteroparous plants, it is equally true that resource limitation has not been demonstrated. Both empirical and theoretical work in this direction would be useful.

# **VII. Conclusion**

The very showiness of flowers might suggest that pollinator service is not obtained easily. If it were, advertising resources would be better spent on microspores and megaspores, or on fruit and seed maturation. Even with a large investment in pollinator attraction, it is not surprising that the vagaries of the environment or natural behavioral stochasticity of the pollinators themselves often produce pollen-limited seed set.

Even when resources are not sufficient to mature all flowers, it is likely that many aborted flowers are incompletely pollinated (Stephenson, 1981). Thus, inadequate pollinator service to individual flowers is probably more common than indicated by the data in Appendix I, which represent post-abortion female success.

Our theoretical understanding of plant reproductive strategies probably should not rely on the assumption that only resource investment limits female success. Incorporating randomness into models of female mating success (e.g., Cohen & Dukas, 1990) is likely to describe more fully the pollination environment of flowering plants. Long-term experiments are needed to fully assess the role of pollen limitation on lifetime reproductive success, including attention to the magnitude of immediate gains from additional pollen vs. the magnitude of costs in subsequent years.

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POLLEN LIMITATION



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# THE BOTANICAL REVIEW





Appendix 1

# THE BOTANICAL REVIEW







Appendix 1

POLLEN LIMITATION

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POLLEN LIMITATION



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POLLEN LIMITATION 123



Appendix I





**Appendix 1**<br>Continued

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# THE BOTANICAL REVIEW







Appendix I



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# THE BOTANICAL REVIEW



Appendix 1



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# THE BOTANICAL REVIEW





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# THE BOTANICAL REVIEW



POLLEN LIMITATION



**Appendix 1**<br>Continued



Appendix I



Site, time, morph, and treatment notation correspond to the usage of the authors. Parentheses indicate my summary when data were presented in a manner that allowed totalling. æ

flower; s/fr = number of seeds per mature fruit; s/pl = number of seeds per plant; f/pl = number of fruits per plant; fr/i = number  $\%f$  = percent fruit set;  $\%s$  = percent seed set;  $\%i$  = percent of inflorescences setting fruit; s/fl = number of seeds per original of fruits per inflorescence;  $s/i$  = number of seeds per inflorescence; م

<sup>c</sup> When self pollination treatments were not performed, I indicate if authors report a species as self-compatible (SC), self-incompatible (SI), or dioecious (D).



- d Test of difference between Natural and Outcross treatments.
- (), Parentheses indicate my  $x^2$  test of independence (see Compilation of Data). ns,  $p > 0.05$ ; \*,  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $p < 0.001$
- $\bullet$ ,  $\diamond$ , Statistical test not performed by author(s), but pollen limitation is assumed to occur ( $\bullet$ ) or not to occur ( $\diamond$ ) based on the
	- magnitude of difference between natural pollination and hand outcrossing.
		- Value estimated from Figure 1 of the corresponding reference.
			- Value estimated from Figure 2 of the corresponding reference.
				- Value estimated from Figure 3 of the corresponding reference.
- Value estimated from Figure 4 of the corresponding reference.
- Value estimated from Figure 5 of the corresponding reference.
- Means for hand outcrossing treatment calculated from Table 4 of the corresponding reference.
	- Value is a median, not mean. ¥
- m Values not reported, but "[s]eed number per flower showed a slight, but significant increase when pollen was added (G = 14.18; df = 4;  $P < 0.025$ )" (Stanton 1987, p. 193)
	- Control mean calculated from all flowers in MF, MB, and HL sites for 1978 + 1979. ø
		- In mature fruits only.
- Experiment performed on 5 weeks. Only one week's results shown, but no differences were significant on any week.
	- Experiment performed on 5 weeks. All differences were significant except for week 4.
		- Experiment performed on 5 weeks. Only the week 4 difference was significant.
			- Approximate value given in text of article.
- Difference is referred to in text of article as significant, but statistical test and significance level not given.
	- number of seeds/carpel (multiple carpels per flower)
		- percent of locules in which seed formed
- percentage difference in mean s/fr for hand outcrossing relative to mean s/fr for natural pollination