

1 **Within population variation in germination response to smoke cues: convergent**
2 **recruitment strategies and different dormancy types**

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19 **Abstract**

20 *Aims* Maintaining variation in germination response provides a selective advantage, by
21 spreading risk during recruitment. In fire-prone regions, physically dormant (PY) species vary
22 their response to dormancy-breaking fire-related heat cues at the intra-population level.
23 However little is known about physiologically dormant (PD) species, which respond to smoke
24 cues. These contrasting dormancy types reflect different evolutionary developmental pathways
25 and we considered whether intra-population variation in germination of *Boronia floribunda*
26 (PD) occurs in response to smoke.

27 *Methods* Seeds were collected from individual plants. We assessed germination magnitude and
28 rate of seeds from each individual in response to a single aerosol smoke treatment, and three
29 concentrations of smoke water, using replicate seed lots in temperature-controlled incubators.

30 *Results* The magnitude and onset of germination differed significantly among individuals in
31 response to the same smoke treatment. Seeds from different individuals varied in their
32 sensitivity to smoke water concentration, with some responding to very low doses, and others
33 obligated to high doses.

34 *Conclusions* Variation in germination response to smoke highlights a mechanism by which PD
35 species spread risk, by allowing some seeds to emerge quickly, while others remain dormant
36 in the soil seed bank. The similarity to heat-cued variation displayed by PY species suggests
37 that this could represent a convergent functional response.

38 **Keywords:** convergent evolution; fire; physiological dormancy; Rutaceae; smoke; soil seed
39 bank

40 **Introduction**

41 Fire drives plant population dynamics and community diversity in a range of ecosystems
42 around the world ([Bond and Keeley 2005](#); [Pausas and Keeley 2009](#); [Wilgen et al. 2010](#)).
43 Recruitment from seeds is an important life-history stage for many species from such systems,
44 and seedlings take advantage of post-fire conditions which are conducive to establishment and
45 growth, ensuring that those individuals killed by the passage of fire are replaced and
46 populations can persist. Dormancy and germination of soil-stored seeds are therefore linked to
47 fire cues, including heat and smoke, so that seedling emergence coincides with fire ([Auld and](#)
48 [O'Connell 1991](#); [Dixon et al. 1995](#); [Ooi et al. 2014](#)). There is a selective advantage to
49 maintaining high levels of variability in germination timing, to spread risk during recruitment
50 ([Donohue et al. 2005](#)), however there are few studies identifying the mechanisms by which this
51 is achieved in fire-prone species, and functional similarities of species with different seed
52 dormancy mechanisms have not been compared.

53 A key function of seeds of species from fire-prone ecosystems is to maintain variation in
54 response to fire cues, to enable risk-spreading. Fire-related germination cues are inherently
55 variable, and maintenance of within-population variation in germination response has
56 previously been identified as an important characteristic contributing to population persistence
57 in fire-prone regions ([Bradstock et al. 1992](#); [Liyanage and Ooi 2015](#)). Furthermore, studies
58 investigating both heat- and smoke-responsive species have found that variability is higher
59 within compared to between regions (e.g. [Moreira et al. 2012](#)). A mechanism for maintaining
60 variation in response to fire cues has been identified for species with physical seed dormancy
61 ([Ooi et al. 2015](#)). Seeds can vary in the heat shock temperature thresholds they require (i.e. heat

62 shock that can range from 40°C to > 80°C) to break the impermeable seed coat (Auld and
63 O'Connell 1991; Liyanage and Ooi 2015). This is well studied, and hypothesised to contribute
64 towards species coexistence (inter-specific variation), ensuring that some germination can
65 occur in response to the variation of heat in the soil produced by fire (Auld 1986; Bradstock et
66 al. 1992; Penman and Towerton 2008). This is enabled by a proportion of seeds committing to
67 germinate under either high or low soil temperatures (Trabaud and Oustric 1989; Moreno and
68 Oechel 1991; Ooi et al. 2014). However, the majority of plant species have physiological seed
69 dormancy (Ooi 2007; Baskin and Baskin 2014), and smoke is an important germination cue
70 once this type of dormancy is overcome by seasonal cues (Ooi et al. 2006; Merritt et al. 2007;
71 Ooi 2010; Thompson and Ooi 2010, 2013). Smoke responsive species are found within key
72 physiologically dormant family groups, including the Asteraceae, Bruniaceae, Ericaceae,
73 Restionaceae and Rutaceae (Dixon et al. 1995; Brown and Botha 2004; Ooi et al. 2006;
74 Mackenzie et al. 2016; Moreira and Pausas 2016).

75 Physiologically dormant seeds have been shown to vary in the period of after-ripening or
76 stratification required to overcome dormancy at the intra-specific level (e.g. Hume 1994; Cruz
77 et al. 2003; Baskin and Baskin 2014; Lu et al. 2017). However, in many physiologically
78 dormant species from fire-prone habitats, seeds still require smoke to cue germination. In some
79 cases, species are obligated to such cues which include chemicals such as the butenolide KAR₁
80 (karrikinolide) (Flematti et al. 2004; Chiwocha et al. 2009), cyanohydrins (glyceronitrile)
81 (Flematti et al. 2011), and nitrates (Keeley and Fotheringham 1997) present in smoke, after
82 sufficient after-ripening or stratification (Mackenzie et al. 2016; Collette and Ooi 2017). Unlike
83 variation in soil heating during fire, relatively few studies have identified how smoke cues may

84 vary in the field. The germination-promoting compounds in smoke, including KAR₁ and
85 glyceronitrile (Flematti et al. 2004, 2011; Downes et al. 2013), are water soluble (Keeley and
86 Pizzorno 1986; van Staden et al. 2000; Stevens et al. 2007). This means that the timing and
87 magnitude of rainfall, as well as soil depth, will have a strong effect on the concentration of
88 smoke cues that can reach seeds post-fire, in addition to the variation in the amount of smoke
89 produced during fire (Stevens et al. 2007; Ghebrehiwot et al. 2011, 2013). Thus, like physically
90 dormant species and heat shock response, it would be advantageous for physiologically
91 dormant species to maintain variability in their response to smoke, with this range of
92 sensitivities contributing to population persistence by allowing some germination even in the
93 presence of low smoke concentrations. There is also an identified pattern of increasing
94 germination response with increasing smoke cue concentration, with inhibitory effects possible
95 at high concentrations (Soós et al. 2012; Downes et al. 2013). Maintaining some seeds which
96 can respond to higher concentrations, and not be inhibited, would therefore similarly contribute
97 to recruitment under this variable germination cue. This would contribute to a populations'
98 ability to spread germination or bet-hedge against the failure of a seedling cohort.

99 Variation in germination response to smoke has been identified at the inter-population level
100 for several species including the agricultural weed *Brassica tournefortii* (Stevens et al. 2007)
101 and the Western Australian native endemic, *Anigozanthos manglesii* (Tieu et al. 2001).
102 However intra-population variation could occur between individuals and, along with intra-
103 individual variation, contribute to persistence of plant populations in fire-prone systems and
104 promote species coexistence, as has been described for physically dormant species (Moreira et
105 al. 2012; Tavşanoğlu and Çatav 2012; Liyanage and Ooi 2015). The vastly different

106 mechanisms of heat-responsive physically dormant and smoke-responsive physiologically
107 dormant species reflect the different evolutionary pathways followed during the development
108 of these dormancy types (Vandelook et al. 2012; Baskin and Baskin 2014). We hypothesise that
109 similar functional responses to fire cues by physiologically dormant species would represent
110 convergent evolution, but it is currently unknown whether within-population variation in
111 germination response to smoke, at the individual level, occurs for species in fire-prone systems.

112 Recent work by Mackenzie et al. (2016) identified a native Australian species, *Boronia*
113 *floribunda*, with a clear smoke response. This species is suitable for use as a case study to
114 investigate variation in germination response to smoke, both between individuals and under
115 different smoke concentrations. Previously, model species used for bioassay assessment, such
116 as ‘Grand Rapids’ lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*), have been used to ascertain the effects of smoke.
117 The use of a native species from a fire-prone plant community provides a more direct link to
118 understanding the potential variation in response and its ecological consequences. *Boronia* sits
119 within the cosmopolitan Rutaceae and represents the largest genus within this family in
120 Australia. The Rutaceae has representatives in fire-prone systems around the world (Roche et
121 al. 1997; Auld 2001; Brown and Botha 2004). *Boronia* seeds are physiologically dormant (PD)
122 and have persistent soil seed banks (Auld 2001; Mackenzie et al. 2016). Fire-related cues are
123 required for germination for several species, with smoke being the dominant cue (Dixon et al.
124 1995; Roche et al. 1997; Mackenzie et al. 2016). The shrub *Boronia floribunda* occurs in heath
125 and dry sclerophyll forest on sandstone, chiefly in the Sydney region of south eastern Australia
126 (Auld 2001), and responds to smoke primarily when incubated at winter seasonal temperatures
127 (Mackenzie et al. 2016). Using *B. floribunda* as our model species, we set out to address several

128 key questions regarding variation of the smoke-cue response. These were: 1) Do individuals
129 from the same population differ in their sensitivity to smoke as a germination cue? 2) Does
130 germination increase with greater concentrations of smoke? 3) How can variation in smoke
131 response at the intra-population level contribute to persistence? 4) Do similarities in functional
132 responses by different dormancy types represent convergent evolution?

133

134 **Methods**

135 **Seed collection**

136 Mature seeds of *Boronia floribunda* were collected from 12 individual plants in February 2014,
137 within a single population occurring on well-drained sandstone-derived soils in Heathcote
138 National Park (34° 07'S, 150° 58'E). All individuals were located on the same gentle south-
139 facing slope covering an area 60 m by 50 m, with each individual approximately 10 m from
140 any other study plant, to minimise microclimatic differences. *Boronia floribunda* is a shrub of
141 0.5–1.0 m high and seeds are ballistically dispersed. Mesh bags were therefore placed on
142 multiple branches of each individual plant after flowers had been pollinated via natural
143 mechanisms. After maturation, bags were collected and seed lots from each of the 12
144 individuals kept separately. Seeds were stored in paper bags in laboratory conditions (~22°C)
145 until experiments commenced in July 2014. Seed mass was weighed with a digital balance
146 using approximately 30 replicate seeds (each weighed separately) per individual.

147

148 **Comparison of germination response to aerosol smoke between individuals**

149 Six individuals produced sufficient seeds to conduct intra-population germination experiments.

150 Six replicates of 20 seeds per seed lot were each placed in 9-cm Petri dishes. Half the replicates
151 were then assigned to a smoke treatment, which was applied by putting opened dishes in a
152 100cm × 50cm × 40cm polyethylene box. Smoke was generated by burning green and dry
153 native vegetation in a bee smoker, and was pumped into the box for 10 min, as this period of
154 time is reported to enhance germination for species from the region (Ooi et al. 2006). During
155 this time, the box was filled with thick smoke. This process was repeated three times, so that
156 each replicate of each individual received a separate smoke treatment. After 10 min, seeds were
157 removed and each replicate placed in new Petri dishes containing one layer of filter paper
158 (Double Ring® qualitative 101 paper). Distilled water was added to all of the 36 replicates [6
159 individuals × 2 treatments (control and smoke) × 3 replicates] to moisten the filter paper, and
160 water was added when necessary throughout the experiment. Petri dishes were kept in a
161 temperature controlled incubator at 17/6°C with a 12/12 h dark/light diurnal cycle for 56 days.
162 Germination was checked every two days and scored on emergence of the radicle. Viability of
163 seeds was assessed using a cut test, was uniformly high, and did not differ significantly among
164 the six individuals ($df = 5$, $\chi^2 = 9.333$, $p = 0.097$) (see Supplementary Figure).

165

166 **Germination response to different smoke water concentrations**

167 Smoke-water was prepared by burning green and dried leaf litter in the bee smoker, and
168 pumping the smoke through 1 L of distilled water for 30 min (Jäger et al. 1996). This solution
169 was then used at full-strength (100%), or in diluted form (10% v/v). Distilled water was used
170 for the control. For this experiment, sufficient numbers of seeds were only available for four
171 individuals and the mixed seed lot. For each individual, 20 seeds were placed in each of three

172 replicate Petri dishes for each treatment. The treatments comprised of two smoke water
173 concentrations (10% and 100%) and a water control. Approximately 2 mL of smoke solution
174 was added to each Petri dish for the corresponding treatments, and seeds were incubated as
175 described above. Germination was checked every two days for eight weeks and scored on
176 emergence of the radicle.

177

178 **Statistical analyses**

179 Mean germination time (MGT) was calculated for each *B. floribunda* individual using the
180 formula:

181

$$182 \text{ MGT} = \frac{\sum nT}{\sum n}$$

183

184 (Ellis and Roberts 1980), where n is the number of seeds newly germinated at time T , and T is
185 the days from the beginning of the germination test. Onset of germination was recorded as the
186 number of days to the first germinant in each replicate.

187 Seed mass among different individuals were compared by one-way analysis of variance
188 (ANOVA). Final germination was calculated based on the number of viable seeds. Generalized
189 linear models (GLMs) with a binomial error structure and logit link function were used to
190 compare the proportional data for the final germination of individuals for both smoke
191 experiments. The MGT and onset of germination were analysed using GLMs with a Poisson
192 error structure and log link function. Tukey's test was used for multiple comparisons when the
193 final germination among individuals was significant. We used linear regression to examine the

194 relationship between seed mass and germination parameters.

195

196 **Results**

197 **Seed mass of different individuals**

198 Seed mass of *B. floribunda* showed significant differences among individuals ($F = 11.537$, df
199 $= 11$, $p < 0.001$). The highest median mass was found for Individuals 1, 4 and 6 (>1.3 mg) and
200 the lowest (< 1 mg) for Individuals 2, 7 and 11. Within each individual, seed mass also showed
201 considerable variation (Fig. 1).

202

203 **Comparison of germination response to aerosol smoke between individuals**

204 After six weeks, seeds that were not treated with smoke (control seeds) had not germinated,
205 except for negligible germination for seeds from Individual 9 ($\sim 2\%$) and were excluded from
206 further analysis. Germination of smoked seeds differed significantly among the six individuals
207 treated with the same smoke treatment ($df = 5$, $\chi^2 = 37.723$, $p < 0.001$). For Individuals 1 and
208 6, germination was lower than 10% and significantly less than the other four individuals, which
209 showed germination of 30% or more (Fig. 2).

210 For seeds treated with aerosol smoke, the MGT did not differ significantly among
211 individuals ($df = 5$, $\chi^2 = 6.823$, $p = 0.234$), although the mean of Individual 11 (34.5 ± 1.2 days)
212 was approximately 13 days shorter than that of Individual 1 (Fig. 3a). The onset of germination
213 did differ significantly among individuals ($df = 5$, $\chi^2 = 8.819$, $p = 0.117$), with Individuals 1
214 and 6 significantly slower than all other individuals (Fig. 3b).

215 There was a strong negative correlation between seed mass and the proportion of seeds
216 germinating ($n = 6$, $p = 0.018$, $r^2 = 0.736$), with the two individuals producing the heaviest
217 seeds germinating to the lowest proportions. There was no relationship between seed mass and
218 MGT ($p = 0.507$), but a strong positive relationship with the number of days to the onset of
219 germination ($n = 6$, $p = 0.003$, $r^2 = 0.882$), where the individuals with the heaviest seeds were
220 slowest to germinate (Fig. 4).

221

222 **Germination response to different smoke water concentrations**

223 Seed germination of *B. floribunda* was positively affected by the application of smoke-water,
224 with all individuals producing significantly greater response compared to the control seeds (Fig.
225 5). A significant interaction between smoke-water concentration and individual ($df = 6$, $\chi^2 =$
226 28.323 , $p < 0.001$) indicated that the pattern of response differed within the population. Two of
227 the four Individuals (9 and 12) produced their highest germination at 100% smoke-water
228 concentrations, however there were no significant differences between the 10% and 100%
229 concentrations for Individuals 3 and 11 (Fig. 5).

230 The speed of germination, as demonstrated by MGT and onset of germination, also differed
231 significantly among smoke-water concentrations (Table 2), with higher concentrations leading
232 to much faster rates of germination. The mean germination time was significantly affected by
233 smoke-water concentrations ($df = 1$, $\chi^2 = 5.746$, $p = 0.017$), but not by individuals ($df = 4$, $\chi^2 =$
234 3.090 , $p = 0.543$). The onset of germination day was significantly different among individuals
235 ($df = 4$, $\chi^2 = 10.199$, $p = 0.037$) and the smoke-water concentration ($df = 1$, $\chi^2 = 12.885$, $p <$
236 0.001).

237

238 **Discussion**

239 Variability in germination stimulation by both heat and smoke has previously been identified
240 to be higher within, than between regions (Moreira et al. 2012). In our study, we found clear
241 differences among individuals, providing evidence that this variability can be driven, at least
242 in part, by varying response to smoke at the intra-population level. Variation occurred in the
243 magnitude and timing of onset of germination, despite seeds being treated with the same smoke
244 cues. Similarly, seeds from different individuals displayed varying sensitivity to smoke, with
245 some obligated to germinate only in response to higher smoke doses. The patterns observed
246 highlight a mechanism by which populations of smoke-responsive species may function during
247 the recruitment phase, with different individuals producing seeds that would allow for variation
248 in the magnitude of seed bank response. The depth from which seeds could potentially emerge
249 would also vary between individuals, as those with more smoke-sensitive seeds could respond
250 to the lower smoke concentrations that reach greater depths. The intra-population variation of
251 germination response to smoke is functionally similar to that displayed by physically dormant
252 species, which respond to heat cues (Liyanage and Ooi 2015), suggesting that this is an example
253 of convergent evolution in response to the selective pressure of fire.

254 Variation in germination response to smoke provides species with some capacity to
255 regenerate under the variable cues resulting from fire. This theory has been developed
256 primarily from observations of variation in temperature thresholds of heat responsive
257 physically dormant species, at the inter-specific (Trabaud and Oustric 1989; Auld and
258 O'Connell 1991; Moreno and Oechel 1991), inter-population (Moreira and Pausas 2012; Ooi

259 [et al. 2012](#)), and intra-population ([Moreira et al. 2012](#); [Tavşanoğlu and Çatav 2012](#); [Liyanage](#)
260 [and Ooi 2015](#)) levels, and has been proposed to contribute to species co-existence and
261 community assembly ([Jiménez-Alfaro et al. 2016](#)). Variation in the magnitude of germination
262 in response to smoke within a population could be a form of bet-hedging, with some seeds
263 able to take advantage of the one fire event, while other seeds are maintained in the seed
264 bank. Spreading the onset of emergence (i.e. temporal variation) is another key risk-spreading
265 strategy, where some seeds are able to emerge later on in case of failure of the initial post-fire
266 cohort.

267 Smoke-responsive species are primarily physiologically dormant ([Merritt et al. 2007](#); [Ooi](#)
268 [2007](#)) and several studies have identified within- and between-plant differences for this
269 dormancy type (e.g. [Cruz et al. 2003](#); [Lu et al. 2017](#)). However, while sensitivity to smoke
270 cues is functionally analogous to dormancy-breaking temperature threshold variation in
271 species from fire-prone regions, there have been surprisingly few studies investigating this
272 variation in species from fire-prone systems. One of the few studies is from Western
273 Australia, where [Tieu et al. \(2001\)](#) found inter-population differences in smoke response of
274 *Anigozanthos manglesii* seeds, but no difference at the intra-population level. The authors
275 noted that further testing was required, and it is possible that any effects could have been
276 masked by the bulking of seeds from multiple individuals within stands. It is highly likely
277 that variation between individuals in their response to smoke is common to many
278 physiologically dormant species, but further work is required to confirm this.

279 The differing sensitivity of seeds to smoke is an important finding for understanding how
280 populations respond to the variable concentrations of smoke produced during fire ([Stevens et](#)

281 [al. 2007](#); [Ghebrehiwot et al. 2011](#)). Maintaining individuals that produce highly sensitive
282 seeds would allow some germination post-fire, even if smoke concentrations produced during
283 the fire were low. The water soluble nature of many of the active smoke compounds ([Keeley
284 and Pizzorno 1986](#); [Stevens et al. 2007](#)) also means that being able to respond to low
285 concentrations would vary the depth at which seeds in the seed bank could respond, with
286 more sensitive seeds cued to germinate from greater depths. This again may represent a form
287 of risk-spreading, with seedlings from deeper within the soil profile less susceptible to
288 desiccation.

289 Seed size is often considered to be an important general determinant of colonisation and
290 recruitment ([Eriksson 1999](#)). The extent to which the patterns observed in our study is driven
291 by seed mass was highlighted by strong correlations with germination onset and magnitude
292 (Fig. 4). While some care in interpretation has to be taken because of the small sample size, it
293 was the two individuals with the heaviest mean seed mass that produced the lowest amounts
294 and slowest germination. These results are similar to those found for the physically dormant
295 *Cistus salviifolius* (Cistaceae) in the Mediterranean Basin ([Tavşanoğlu and Çatav 2012](#)), and
296 for a mixed group of species in southeastern Australia ([Moles and Westoby 2004](#)). Small
297 seeds are likely to benefit from faster germination and quick establishment because they have
298 less resources available within their seed reserves. However, opposing hypotheses have been
299 developed based on the idea that larger seeds are more at risk from predation and need to
300 germinate quickly in order to reduce this threat ([Norden et al. 2009](#)). Results from studies
301 investigating seed size and germination speed are inconsistent ([Moles and Westoby 2004](#)),

302 and it is clear that further work is required to understand the evolutionary basis of this
303 relationship.

304 There was little difference in maternal environmental conditions during seed development
305 between the individuals used here, and studies of physiologically dormant species from other
306 regions have found similar results (Donohue et al. 2005; Bischoff and Müller-Schärer 2010;
307 Lu et al. 2017). While maternal environment effects have been shown to clearly influence seed
308 dormancy (Fenner 1991; Gutterman 2000; Galloway 2001; Bischoff and Müller-Schärer 2010),
309 our results and other studies suggest that genetic differentiation can play a part in determining
310 both the depth of physiological dormancy and the individual's sensitivity to smoke.

311 Similarities in germination behaviour across different fire-prone vegetation communities
312 have been described as convergent evolution (Keeley and Bond 1997). The variation in
313 germination response found in our study highlight a mechanism by which physiologically
314 dormant species spread risk, contributing to maintenance of populations by allowing some
315 seeds to take advantage of a fire event more quickly, or of the one fire event, while other
316 seeds are maintained in the seed bank. The similarity that these smoke-responsive species
317 display in recruitment patterns to their physically dormant heat-responsive counterparts
318 suggests that there has been convergent evolution in this functional strategy, by species with
319 disparate dormancy mechanisms.

320

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331

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- 463

464 **Figure captions**

465 Figure 1. Seed mass (mg) for each of the 12 individuals originally collected. Boxplots show
466 median mass.

467

468 Figure 2. Germination proportions of seeds from six different *Boronia floribunda* individuals
469 in response to aerosol smoke treatment, after incubation at 17/6 °C for 56 days.

470

471 Figure 3. (a) Mean germination time (MGT) and (b) time to onset of germination of six
472 different *Boronia floribunda* individuals treated with aerosol smoke, after incubation at 17/6 °C
473 for 56 days.

474

475 Figure 4. The linear relationship between the mean seed mass (mg) of the six different *Boronia*
476 *floribunda* individuals treated with aerosol smoke and (a) Proportion of seeds germinated after
477 incubation at 17/6 °C for 56 days, (b) mean germination time (MGT), and (c) time to onset of
478 germination.

479

480 Figure 5. Germination proportions of seeds from four different *Boronia floribunda* individuals
481 in response to smoke-water treatments (100%, or 10% dilution), after incubation at 17/6 °C.

482 NB SW=smoke water

483