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Climatic Variation and Seed Persistence: Freeze-Thaw Cycles Lower Survival via the Joint Action of Abiotic Stress and Fungal Pathogens

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**Climatic variation and seed persistence: freeze-thaw cycles lower survival
via the joint action of abiotic stress and fungal pathogens**

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1 Abstract: Global climate change is altering thermal cycles in soils during late winter, a transition
2 that may directly threaten seed survival via abiotic stress, facilitate infection by soil-borne
3 pathogens, or both. Using field-collected soil and seeds of the perennial bunchgrass *Elymus*
4 *canadensis*, we tested the hypothesis that soil freeze-thaw events limit survival within the soil
5 through direct effects on seed persistence and amplification of soil pathogen attack using a
6 factorial experiment that manipulated freeze-thaw cycles (constant-freeze vs. freeze-thaw) and
7 fungicide addition. Freeze-thaw treatment resulted in lower seedling emergence and delayed
8 emergence time relative to constant-freeze controls. Fungicide-treated soils had greater
9 emergence relative to un-treated soils; the lowest seedling emergence was observed in no
10 fungicide, freeze-thaw treated soils (<1%). The strong effects of thermal variability and fungi on
11 seeds were mitigated through interactions at the seed-soil interface, as subsequent experiments
12 showed fungicide and freeze-thaw treatments alone do not influence dormancy. Our work
13 demonstrates that changes in freeze-thaw events directly limit seedling emergence, delay
14 seedling phenology, and provide opportunities for fungal pathogens to limit seed persistence. As
15 recruitment from seeds is a key determinant of plant population dynamics, these results suggest
16 climatic variation may generate unique consequences for populations under changing climate
17 regimes.

18

19 *Keywords:* climate change, soil pathogens, *Elymus canadensis*, phenology, emergence

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23

24 INTRODUCTION

25 Given that rates of current biodiversity loss and plausible scenarios regarding future climate
26 emphasize increasing climatic variation (Easterling et al. 2000), it is imperative to identify the
27 role that projected climatic variation may play in affecting plant species performance and
28 persistence (Gu et al. 2008; Inouye 2008; Kreyling 2010; Pauli et al. 2013). Climatic variability
29 may alter persistence by increasing abiotic stresses (e.g., Bigler et al. 2006) or by amplifying
30 deleterious biotic interactions, such as parasitism and herbivory (Harvell et al. 2002; Tylianakis
31 et al. 2008). Abiotic and biotic stresses may also interact, exacerbating the influence of climatic
32 variation on plant survival and phenology. For example, in a recent meta-analysis, Jactel et al.
33 (2012) demonstrated that trees experiencing drought stress as a result of increased variability in
34 precipitation suffered greater damage from insects and pathogens than unstressed individuals. As
35 a result, predicting the dynamics of survival or shifts in species phenology under future climate
36 scenarios requires evaluating how climatic variability alters abiotic stress, biotic stress, and the
37 interaction between the two factors.

38

39 The effect of climate change on the persistence of seeds and plant recruitment from seeds may
40 have widespread effects on plant populations and communities (Walck et al. 2011). In particular,
41 changes in winter and spring conditions are a primary mechanism whereby climate change is
42 expected to affect sustained plant recruitment in northern temperate ecosystems (Cannell and
43 Smith 1986; Kreyling 2010; Kreyling et al. 2012a). In addition to changes in mean winter
44 temperature and decreasing snow depth (Dyer and Mote 2006), the number of late winter or early
45 spring soil freeze-thaw cycles that occur annually is expected to increase for many temperate and
46 arctic regions (Henry 2008; Sinha and Cherkauer 2010).

47 Freeze-thaw cycles and frost events have well-documented wounding and physiological stress
48 effects on mature plants (e.g., Mayr et al. 2003; Cleavitt et al. 2008; Inouye 2008) and may alter
49 species phenology (Inouye 2008). Although less studied, similar abiotic stresses are likely to
50 reduce survival, recruitment, and the timing of life history transitions at early life stages, i.e.,
51 seeds and seedlings (e.g., Regehr and Bazzaz 1979; Gu et al. 2008). Climatic variability may also
52 affect biotic stress on seeds and seedlings by providing additional opportunities for soil
53 pathogens, as large metabolic plasticity and rapid generation times may allow pathogens to
54 exploit brief periods of favorable climatic conditions that are functionally inaccessible to seeds
55 and seedlings (Harvell et al. 2002). Additionally, there is considerable potential for variation in
56 freeze-thaw regimes to exacerbate attack by fungal pathogens. Just as direct mechanical damage
57 resulting from ice formation or physiological stress from exposure to extreme cold events
58 influences susceptibility to infection for mature plants (Kreyling et al. 2012b), seeds or seedlings
59 physiologically taxed or mechanically damaged by multiple freeze-thaw cycles may be more
60 susceptible to pathogen infection relative to individuals maintained in more stable thermal
61 conditions. Despite the widespread relevance of climatic variability, the importance of fungal
62 pathogens for affecting seed survival, and the potential for thermal variability to amplify the
63 effect of fungal pathogens on seeds, we lack experimental studies that evaluate the role of
64 thermal variability on pathogen-mediated seed mortality.

65

66 We couple an experimental freeze-thaw regime and fungicide treatment to evaluate the
67 potentially interactive effects of climatic variation and fungal seed pathogens on the dynamics of
68 seedling emergence. We focus on a geographic region where repeated soil freeze-thaw events are
69 rare and where the number of annual freeze-thaw events is expected to significantly increase in

70 the future (Sinha and Cherkauer 2010), as these may be conditions experienced by many
71 temperate systems under future climate scenarios. Specifically, we evaluated the effects of soil
72 freeze-thaw cycles and soil-borne pathogen attack on seedling emergence and the timing of
73 emergence for a native perennial bunchgrass, *Elymus canadensis*. *Elymus canadensis* is
74 distributed across temperate North America and is a common understory component in open
75 forests. *Elymus canadensis* is well suited for our objectives because *Elymus* spp. are typical
76 indicators of the effect of generalist soil pathogens on native seed survival (e.g., Blaney and
77 Kotanen, 2001; Beckstead et al. 2010; Meyer et al. 2014) and the persistence of native plant
78 populations (Mordecai 2013). By examining the effect of freeze-thaw cycles on *E. canadensis*
79 emergence and emergence timing, we expect to gain insight into how warming winter conditions
80 may influence recruitment dynamics in forest understories. We hypothesize that *E. canadensis*
81 seeds exposed to multiple freeze-thaw cycles will display lower total emergence and delayed
82 emergence timing. We also hypothesize that pathogenic fungi will exacerbate limitation on
83 emergence and have the greatest effect on emergence in soils exposed to freeze-thaw cycles.

84

85 METHODS

86 Soil was collected on 16-Jan-2014 at three sites within the Lakeshore Nature Preserve near
87 University of Wisconsin, Madison. The collection area is open, mixed-deciduous forest with
88 *Tilia americana* (basswood) and *Quercus rubra* (northern red oak) as prevalent tree species. Soil
89 collection sites were selected at random and were > 50 m apart to ensure soil collection captured
90 site spatial variability. Soil collection site locations are summarized in Appendix 1. At each site,
91 snow and leaf litter cover were removed from one 1 x 1-m plot. Frozen mineral soil was then
92 exhumed to a depth of 3 cm using a hand shovel, broken apart to remove large rocks and roots,

93 homogenized at each site, and then bulked across all three sites in large paper bags. Although
94 visibly frozen, soil temperature was not recorded at the time of collection. Soil temperatures
95 recorded at 5.1 cm soil depth on 16-Jan-2014 at the University of Wisconsin Agricultural
96 Research Station in Arlington, Wisconsin (~35 km north of fields sites) averaged -0.85°C (range:
97 -1.34 to -0.27°C , <http://agwx.soils.wisc.edu>) suggesting soils at our collection depth and in this
98 region were frozen during this period in January 2014. To ensure soil did not thaw, soil was
99 stored immediately at -25°C in a chest freezer (W. C. Wood Company, Ottawa, Ohio). Storage
100 of soil at -25°C provided a thermally stable environment that limited water loss from the soil and
101 ensured frozen soil integrity was maintained until treatments were applied.

102

103 We evaluated the interaction of freeze-thaw cycles and soil pathogen attack within the mineral
104 soil with a 2×2 factorial experiment that crossed a freeze-thaw treatment (i.e. constant freeze vs.
105 freeze-thaw treatments) and fungicide application treatment (fungicide + vs. fungicide -). Soil
106 was handled in small batches (~200 mL per batch) and processed quickly in a room maintained
107 at 16 - 18°C to help ensure soils remained cold before the treatments were applied. However, if
108 soils warmed sufficiently to thaw and this influenced soil structure or the composition or activity
109 of the microbial communities we expect the effect to be consistent across treatment levels. Each
110 soil batch was passed through a 4-mm sieve to remove large organic material (e.g. leaves, roots,
111 large rocks, seeds). Eighty aliquots of 35 mL of frozen soil (21.9 ± 1.2 g dry soil mass; mean \pm
112 SE, $n = 3$) were put into separate, sterile 50 mL centrifuge tubes (Fisherbrand®, Thermo Fisher
113 Scientific Inc.). Half of the soil tubes were treated with 1-mL 0.5% Captan fungicide solution
114 (dosage recommended by manufacturer for field application); the other half received 1-mL water
115 control. Altering soil water content towards saturation can influence plant-pathogen dynamics

116 (Cook and Papendick 1972); soils collected for this study were at approximately 56% of their
117 total moisture holding capacity (B. Connolly, *unpublished data*; calculated following Brudvig
118 and Damschen 2011) suggesting the addition of 1-mL of aqueous solution would not approach or
119 exceed the soil's saturation threshold. Captan is a non-systemic fungicide used in ecological
120 studies to exclude major families of soil-borne, seed-decaying fungi (e.g., Blaney and Kotanen
121 2001), but this fungicide has little effect on endomycorrhizal fungi (Vyas 1988). Other
122 pathogenic agents in the soil (e.g., bacteria, viruses) may also adversely influence seed survival
123 (Agrios 1997), but we did not evaluate the effect of these microorganisms in this study.

124

125 Seeds of *Elymus canadensis* were purchased in 2012 from Agrecol Native Nursery (Evansville,
126 WI). The natural seed source for the seeds used in this experiment was in Waushara County,
127 Wisconsin indicating the source *E. canadensis* population was adapted to winter climate
128 conditions in south-central Wisconsin. Ten seeds were placed into each 50 mL tube and the
129 tubes were gently inverted 5 times (~10 seconds per tube) to thoroughly mix frozen soil and
130 seeds. Seeds were chilled on moist saturation blotters at 1°C for approximately 8 hours prior to
131 use in order to mimic the naturally cold, imbibed state these seeds are likely to be in during
132 winter. All tubes, now with seeds, were returned to -25°C to simulate soil freezing. Centrifuge
133 tubes assigned to freeze-thaw treatments were removed from the freezer after 15 hours and
134 placed in a refrigerator set at 1°C for 9 hours to simulate a soil thaw event. After 9 hours the
135 centrifuge tubes were then returned to -25°C and this cycle was repeated twice more for a total of
136 three freeze-thaw cycles. There were 20 replicates of each fungicide-freeze treatment
137 combination (*see* Appendix 2 for summary of soil temperature regime).

138 Realistic and biologically relevant soil temperature amplitude and rates of temperature change
139 are important experimental considerations when conducting soil freeze-thaw studies (Henry
140 2007). The temperature amplitude and the rate of temperature shifts selected for this experiment
141 represent observed values for March and early-April conditions for shallow soils without snow
142 cover in mid- to upper-latitude temperate systems (Geiger 1965; Henry 2007). This temperature
143 is also consistent with other soil freeze-thaw studies, i.e., over 30% of reviewed studies evaluated
144 freeze-thaw effects with similar temperature minima (-18°C or below) and similar ranges in
145 experimental soil temperature amplitude (Henry 2007). Applying comparable experimental
146 conditions to these studies permits evaluation of our results within the context of freeze-thaw
147 effects on microbial communities and activity in field-collected soils (e.g., Sharma et al. 2006).
148 The timing of soil collection is also an important experimental consideration for freeze-thaw
149 studies (Henry 2007). We collected soils in mid-January to ensure that the physical composition
150 and microbial communities accurately reflect the status of regional soils prior to the annual
151 transition from winter into spring and the onset of natural freeze-thaw cycles. Our treatments
152 reflect two possible spring soil temperature conditions, one in which soils remain constantly
153 frozen until thawed during spring (i.e. constant freeze) and one similar to projected winter
154 climate conditions in which the seed-soil interface is exposed to multiple rapid freeze-thaw
155 cycles before staying thawed indefinitely (i.e. freeze-thaw treatment).

156

157 We focus our analysis primarily on the emergence timing and total proportion emergence of *E.*
158 *canadensis*, as these are critical determinants of long-term persistence in perennial grasses
159 (Seabloom et al. 2003). After the conclusion of freeze-thaw treatments, all centrifuge tubes were
160 removed from -25°C and placed in the refrigerator at 1°C for 8 hrs. Greenhouse trays lined with

161 greenhouse tray inserts (cell dimensions: 4.9 cm long by 5.7 cm wide by 5.7 cm deep) were filled
162 $\frac{3}{4}$ full with Sunshine Redi-Earth peat moss-vermiculite mix (Sun Gro Horticulture, Agawam,
163 Massachusetts). Potting media was homogenized prior to addition to trays in order to standardize
164 the effect of any pathogens resident in the media. Experiments in progress, however, indicate the
165 addition of Captan to similar Sunshine Redi-Earth media does not influence timing of emergence
166 or total emergence for tree species native to northern Wisconsin (B. Connolly, *unpublished data*)
167 suggesting little to no contribution to seed loss by soil pathogens found in the potting soil. Each
168 centrifuge tube of soil-seed mixture was transferred to an individual cell and covered with 0.5 cm
169 of soil mix. Trays were watered as needed and drained freely to a collection tray to prevent
170 cross-contamination with fungicide and to mimic water infiltration through the soil profile. Trays
171 were incubated (18/12°C temperature regime, 10 hour photoperiod) in a Percival plant growth
172 chamber (Model: E-41L2, Percival Scientific, Perry, Iowa). Seedling emergence was recorded 2-
173 4 times daily for 20 days. Seedlings were removed once recorded to eliminate competitive
174 inhibition on ungerminated seeds. After 20 days we evaluated the viability of ungerminated
175 seeds and characterized the physical status of seeds to inform possible effects of freeze-thaw
176 treatment and fungi on seed condition (*see* Appendix 3 for seed viability protocol).

177

178 Germination trials using untreated seeds maintained on saturated germination blotters ($n = 20$)
179 were conducted concurrently with seedling emergence trials within the growth chamber to
180 estimate the germination fraction and dormancy of the test seed stock. To evaluate whether
181 freezing treatments affected dormancy, we conducted another germination trial on *E. canadensis*
182 seeds exposed to the two temperature regimes in the absence of soil (*see* Appendix 4).

183

184 We used generalized linear mixed effects models with a binomial response distribution to
185 evaluate whether freeze-thaw treatments and fungicide treatments influence the proportion of *E.*
186 *canadensis* emergence and the proportion of flaccid, apparently dead *E. canadensis* seeds.
187 Calculations of total *E. canadensis* germination included only counts of emerged seedlings and
188 exhumed germinants as no seeds germinated following exhumation (i.e., no exhumed seeds
189 germinated in viability tests). Consistent with the binomial model structure, germination was
190 analyzed as a two-vector response variable where the number of seeds that germinated and the
191 number of seeds that did not germinate were paired for each observation. In all models, freeze-
192 thaw treatment, fungicide application, and the interaction between these treatments were treated
193 as fixed effects. The identity of greenhouse trays holding individual cells was treated as a
194 random effect to accommodate random variation in growth chamber conditions. In order to
195 account for slight over-dispersion within total *E. canadensis* germination data, each cell within
196 each tray was also treated as a random effect (Harrison 2014).

197
198 Time to emergence for all *E. canadensis* seedlings was evaluated with a linear mixed effects
199 model to determine pairwise effects of fungicide treatment and freeze-thaw treatment on mean
200 germination time. However, because only a single seedling in the freeze-thaw, no fungicide
201 treatment combination emerged in the course of our experiment, we restricted our analysis to the
202 three treatment combinations that had replication (i.e., the linear mixed model contained one
203 fixed factor with each of the remaining treatment combinations serving as independent levels).
204 Tray identification and insert cell location within tray were treated as random factors. Although
205 our time to emergence data were censored (i.e., not all seeds had emerged at the cessation of the
206 study), high rates of germination led to normally distributed data that satisfied the assumptions

207 for linear models (although our results also do not differ if survival analysis is used, *see*
208 Appendix 5). All analyses were conducted in R (R Core Team 2014) using the “lme4” package
209 for mixed effects model analysis (Bates et al. 2014), the “lsmeans” package for means
210 comparisons (Lenth and Hervé 2014), the “car” package to construct analysis of deviance tables
211 (Fox and Weisberg 2011), and the “survival” package for survival analysis (Therneau 2014, *see*
212 Appendix 5). All mixed models used the Kenward-Rogers method of approximation to estimate
213 appropriate degrees of freedom.

214

215 RESULTS

216 Fungicide application to soils resulted in greater emergence relative to untreated controls ($\chi^2 =$
217 25.71, $df = 1$, $P < 0.001$, FIG. 1A, *see* Appendix 6), and a greater proportion of seeds germinated
218 from constant freeze soils than soils exposed to freeze-thaw cycles ($\chi^2 = 116.01$, $df = 1$, $P <$
219 0.001). We found a significant interaction between fungicide addition and freeze-thaw treatment
220 on the proportion of seeds that germinated ($\chi^2 = 6.622$, $df = 1$, $P = 0.010$): fungicide addition to
221 the soil resulted in a greater increase in germination under constant freeze (68.7% [no fungicide]
222 to 90.1% [fungicide addition]) compared to freeze-thaw treatments (0.5% [no fungicide] to
223 17.1% [fungicide addition]).

224

225 The germination fraction of untreated *E. canadensis* seed stock was $91.00 \pm 1.21\%$ under our
226 growth chamber conditions (FIG. 1A [dashed line]), suggesting up to 1 in 10 *E. canadensis* seeds
227 was either dead or dormant prior to initiation of our study. However, because no seeds
228 germinated following exhumation and few exhumed seeds displayed signs of apparent viability
229 (e.g., less than 18% of individuals in freeze-thaw treatments) we conclude that the majority of

230 ungerminated seeds were non-viable. This conclusion is further supported by the findings of our
231 ancillary experiments: freeze-thaw treatments in the absence of soil did not affect the proportion
232 of seeds that germinated after 20 ($\chi^2 = 2.320$, $df = 1$, $P = 0.128$) or 31 days ($\chi^2 = 0.125$, $df = 1$, P
233 $= 0.724$; Appendix 4), or affect mean germination time ($\chi^2 = 0.673$, $df = 1$, $P = 0.412$; Appendix
234 4). The frequency of flaccid seeds differed between treatments; significantly fewer seeds were
235 flaccid in constant freeze treatments than freeze-thaw treatments ($\chi^2 = 8.92$, $df = 1$, $P = 0.003$)
236 and in fungicide addition cells relative to no fungicide addition cell ($\chi^2 = 8.70$, $df = 1$, $P = 0.003$),
237 but the frequency of flaccid seeds was not influenced by any interaction between these factors (χ^2
238 $= 0.934$, $df = 1$, $P = 0.334$).

239

240 Captan fungicide can delay the germination of some species (Mitschunas et al. 2009), but we
241 saw no indication that Captan fungicide application significantly delayed *E. canadensis*
242 emergence relative to no fungicide controls (FIG. 1B). Mean time to emergence was affected by
243 the treatment levels ($\chi^2 = 19.27$, $df = 2$, $P < 0.001$); time to emergence was significantly shorter
244 in constant freeze, fungicide application treatments relative to either constant freeze, no
245 fungicide application ($t = 3.99$, $df = 39$, $P < 0.001$) or freeze-thaw treatments with fungicide ($t =$
246 2.84 , $df = 72$, $P = 0.016$). Average emergence times did not differ between constant freeze
247 controls without fungicide and freeze-thaw treatments with fungicide ($t = 0.14$, $df = 78.7$, $P =$
248 0.989).

249

250 DISCUSSION

251 The persistence of plant populations depends upon successful survival and reproduction despite
252 adverse winter and early spring climates brought about by global warming (Inouye 2008). Here,

253 we demonstrate that one direct physical effect of winter warming—the increase in soil
254 temperature variability—delays the timing of seedling emergence and lowers total seedling
255 emergence for a common native perennial bunchgrass, *E. canadensis*. Additionally, our work
256 suggests that variability in soil temperature may provide increased opportunities for fungal
257 pathogens to additively limit *E. canadensis* emergence (FIG. 1). Our work suggests that, through
258 the joint action of abiotic stress and fungal pathogens, changes in climatic variability, in addition
259 to changes in mean climatic conditions, may be an important consideration for understanding
260 seed persistence and plant recruitment in northern temperate plant communities.

261

262 In our study, *E. canadensis* seedling emergence was 78.9% lower in freeze-thaw treatments
263 relative to constant freeze in fungicide addition treatments, indicating projected increases in
264 freeze-thaw cycle frequency may directly reduce seed germination fraction. Because *E.*
265 *canadensis* is a common component of forest and prairie systems in temperate regions and *E.*
266 *canadensis* recruitment may be strongly limited by seed survival (Tilman 1997), our findings
267 suggest that the thermal variability within the soil is a strong abiotic stress capable of severely
268 restricting the establishment of this widespread species in temperate plant communities. Our
269 results also show that the timing of emergence for *E. canadensis* seedlings was affected by the
270 freeze-thaw treatment. In fungicide addition pots, freeze-thaw treated *E. canadensis* seeds
271 displayed a pronounced lag in mean time to emergence relative to seedlings in constant-freeze
272 controls (i.e., 37 hour delay, FIG. 1B). These results corroborate recent studies showing that
273 shifts towards extremes in climate variability, particularly during winter or early spring, can alter
274 plant phenology (Inouye 2008). Shifts in seedling germination and emergence time, even for
275 periods as short as 24 hours, can alter the order in which individual seedlings access available

276 resources and influence biomass accumulation (Ross and Harper 1972, Verdú and Traveset 2005,
277 Orrock and Christopher 2010) and winter-mediated shifts in phenology may directly lower
278 individual survival, productivity, and reproductive capacity (e.g., Inouye 2008). Collectively, our
279 results suggest that climatic variability may have unappreciated consequences on the dynamics
280 of recruitment from seeds in *E. canadensis* populations within temperate regions through direct
281 effects on individual seed survival and by altering the timing of critical life history transitions. In
282 particular, seed dispersal and subsequent survival will be important for plant populations to track
283 shifting climate regimes (Hampe 2011), but greater seed loss due to novel and deleterious abiotic
284 conditions may increase the importance of other slower and more spatially restricted methods of
285 recruitment (i.e., vegetative propagation), possibly placing severe reproductive constraints on
286 plant populations under novel climate conditions.

287

288 Our results provide an important perspective on the potential role of climatic variability,
289 compared to changes in mean climate, to affect pathogen-mediated plant mortality. Specifically,
290 we found that projected increases in one expression of climatic variability (i.e., freeze-thaw
291 cycles) work additively with soil pathogen attack to generate significant reductions in total *E.*
292 *canadensis* emergence (FIG. 1A). Our finding that more flaccid, apparently dead, seeds were
293 collected from freeze-thaw treatments than freeze controls suggests that the additive effect of
294 freeze-thaw treatments and fungi arose because freeze-thaw events may compromise seed coat
295 integrity (e.g., Bell and Amen 1970). Physical forces exerted on seeds by proximate soils during
296 freeze-thaw cycles (e.g., expansion, contraction, shearing, heaving) or ice crystals nucleated
297 around soil particles or within the seed may fracture or rupture the seed coat and generate
298 avenues of infection for soil pathogens. Future experiments that explicitly evaluate these

299 mechanisms will be critically important for understanding the mechanistic links between freeze-
300 thaw treatments and attack by fungal pathogens.

301

302 Warming trends and increased climate variability may favor plant pathogen growth (Harvell et
303 al. 2002) and microbial activity can increase following soil freeze-thaw regimes (Sharma et al.
304 2006), suggesting there is a greater likelihood that microbes, possibly plant pathogens, will
305 interact with seeds in the soil under new climate conditions. Additionally, pathogenic fungi can
306 respond quickly to nearby hosts. For example, sporangial germination of some plant pathogens
307 found in the soil (e.g., *Pythium ultimum*) can occur rapidly (1.5-4 hrs.) with extensive mycelia
308 growth and infection of seeds occurring in less than 24 hours (Stanghellini and Hancock
309 1971ab). Consequently, delayed germination times caused by thermal variability (FIG. 1B) may
310 also increase seed mortality by providing a longer period of time for rapidly growing fungal
311 pathogens to act (Baskin and Baskin 1998; Dalling et al. 2011).

312

313 Attack by fungal pathogens in the soil can influence plant population dynamics (Kirkpatrick and
314 Bazzaz 1979; Crist and Friese 1993) and community structure (Olf et al. 2000) and current
315 empirical efforts to characterize the effect of climate change on plant pathogen interactions and
316 seed persistence in natural systems rely primarily on testing average increases or decreases in
317 one or more environmental parameters (e.g., Leishman et al. 2000). However, shifts in climatic
318 variation are hypothesized to play a predominant role in promoting plant pathogen infections in
319 agricultural systems (Coakley et al. 1999; Scherm 2004) and our study suggests that increases in
320 climatic variability, in addition to average changes in climatic conditions, may also regulate
321 plant-pathogen interactions in natural plant communities.

322 *Implications and future directions*

323 Entire plant populations are likely to be affected by winter climate change (Inouye 2008;
324 Kreyling 2010). Consequently, accurate predictions of climate change effects—in particular the
325 role of climatic variability—on plant demography require a thorough understanding of how both
326 abiotic stressors and the severity of biotic interactions will influence plant survival, recruitment
327 potential, and the timing of critical life history stages. Our work may have important implications
328 beyond the population dynamics of *E. canadensis*, since many terrestrial plant species are limited
329 by seed recruitment (Turnbull et al. 2000), temperate plant species vary widely in their
330 susceptibility to fungal seed pathogens (Leishman et al. 2000; Blaney and Kotanen 2001;
331 Beckstead et al. 2010), and germination timing influences individual performance, population
332 persistence and community composition (Dyer et al. 2000, Orrock and Christopher 2010). The
333 potential for increased seed mortality and changes in germination timing we observed in *E.*
334 *canadensis* may be important in the context of climate change, as successful dispersal and
335 subsequent recruitment from seeds will be required for populations of native plants to track
336 changing climatic conditions. Large-seeded, perennial grasses (such as *E. canadensis*) are often
337 common, influential components of plant communities. Because these species often have short-
338 lived or transient seed banks (Thompson and Grime 1979; Baskin and Baskin 1998), seed
339 survival and germination within the first year following dispersal is an important demographic
340 transition in establishment of perennial grass populations (Seabloom et al. 2003). Other
341 pathogenic agents (e.g., bacteria, viruses) may likewise lower perennial grass fitness (e.g., Egli et
342 al. 1975, Malmstrom et al. 2005), but it is currently unclear how these microorganisms will
343 influence seed survival under changing climate conditions. Future work characterizing how the
344 viability and germination timing of multiple species is affected by climatic variability in the

345 presence and absence of different soil pathogens (i.e., fungi, bacteria, viruses) and under field
346 conditions will help 1) identify how these factors will influence community structure, 2) increase
347 the potency of land management plans (such as assisted migration) focused on mitigating the
348 effects of global climate change by identifying key abiotic and biotic contributors to seed loss,
349 and 3) parameterize species distribution models that incorporate both abiotic and biotic
350 determinants of natural recruitment.

351

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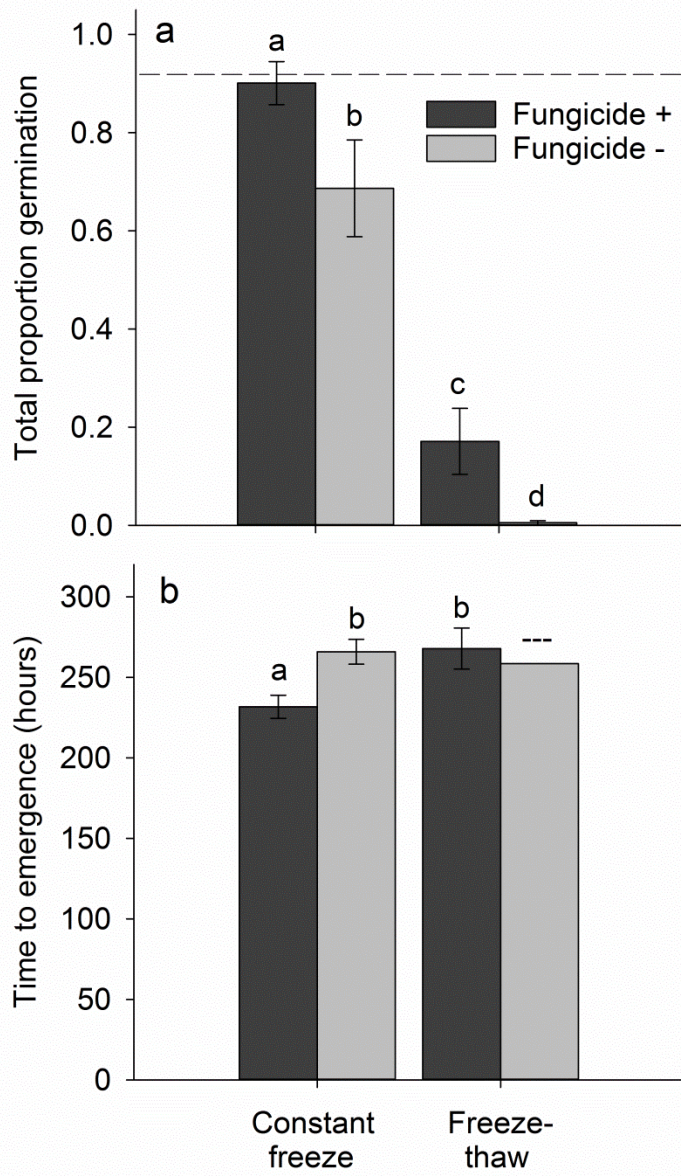
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Figure Legend

FIG. 1 Effect of freeze-thaw treatment and fungicide application on a) total proportion germination of *Elymus canadensis* seeds (n = 20 for each freeze-thaw and fungicide combination) and b) time to emergence of *E. canadensis* seeds sown in field-collected soil under the four treatment combinations: constant freeze, fungicide present (n = 152), constant freeze, no fungicide (n = 117), freeze-thaw, fungicide present (n = 32), and freeze-thaw, no fungicide (n = 1). Bars are mean values \pm SE. The dashed line in panel (a) indicates the proportion germination of untreated test seed stock. Only one individual emerged in the freeze-thaw, no fungicide treatment combination, and so this treatment combination was not included in the analysis (---). The other treatment combinations were analyzed as independent levels. Different lowercase letters above bars indicate significant differences at a Type I error $p=0.05$



Connolly and Orrock, Figure 1

