

Seed ecology of European mesic meadows

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1 **RESEARCH IN CONTEXT: Seed ecology of European mesic meadows**

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16 **ABSTRACT (300 words)**

17 • **Background and Aims** European mesic meadows are semi-natural open habitats of
18 high biodiversity and an essential part of European landscapes. These species-rich
19 communities can be a source of seed mixes for ecological restoration, urban greening

1 and rewilding. However, limited knowledge of species germination traits is a
2 bottleneck to the development of a competitive native seed industry. Here, we
3 synthesize the seed ecology of mesic meadows.

- 4 • **Methods** We combined our own experimental data with data obtained from databases
5 to create a combined dataset containing 2,005 germination records of 90 plant species
6 from 31 European countries. We performed a Bayesian meta-analysis of this dataset to
7 test the seed germination response to environmental cues including scarification,
8 stratification, temperature, alternating temperature and light. We also used multivariate
9 ordination to check the relationship between seed traits (germination and morphology)
10 and species ecological preferences, and to compare the seed ecology of mesic
11 meadows with that of other herbaceous plant communities from the same area.
- 12 • **Key Results** The seed ecology of mesic meadows is characterized by (1) high seed
13 germinability when compared to other herbaceous plant communities; (2) low
14 correspondence between seed traits and species ecological preferences; and (3) a deep
15 phylogenetic separation between the two major families, Poaceae and Fabaceae.
16 Poaceae produce many light seeds which respond to gap-detecting germination cues
17 (alternating temperatures and light); Fabaceae produce fewer heavy seeds, which need
18 scarification to break their physical dormancy.
- 19 • **Conclusions** High germinability of meadow seeds will reduce their capacity to form
20 persistent seed banks, resulting in dispersal limitations to passive regeneration. For
21 centuries, human activities have shaped the regeneration of meadows, leading to a loss
22 of seed dormancy and decoupling seeds from seasonal cycles, as has been found in

1 many domesticated species. The same anthropic processes that have shaped semi-
2 natural mesic meadows have left them dependent on continued human intervention for
3 their regeneration, highlighting the importance of active restoration via seed supply.

4 **KEYWORDS**

5 *Arrhenatheretalia*, *Arrhenatherion*, Asteraceae, Fabaceae, domestication, hay meadows,
6 mesic grasslands, Poaceae, seed germination, seed morphology, semi-natural, species-rich
7 meadows

8 **INTRODUCTION**

9 The mesic meadows of Europe are semi-natural open habitats that occupy clearings created
10 by human intervention over a temperate wooded landscape (Poschlod *et al.* 2009; Hejcmán
11 *et al.* 2013), in sites with moderately fertile and well-drained soils (Mucina *et al.* 2016).
12 Once, these were novel plant communities, with a composite flora made up of species from
13 different ecological backgrounds. During historical times, their species composition further
14 evolved following changes in human society and management practices (Chytrý 2012;
15 Hejcmán *et al.* 2013). Mesic meadows are thus the result of a process of habitat
16 domestication that is characteristic of Europe's natural history (Flannery 2018). Nowadays,
17 mesic meadows maintained by agricultural practices are an essential aspect of European
18 landscapes, both real (Finck *et al.* 2002) and fictional (Judd and Judd 2017).

19 Traditional classification of mesic grasslands emphasises the separation between meadows
20 used for hay making versus pastures maintained by grazing, but a recent revision at the

1 European level showed that the main driver of variation in species composition is the
2 intensity rather than the type of management (Rodríguez-Rojo *et al.* 2017). Indeed, changes
3 in the intensity of management, including land abandonment and agricultural
4 intensification, are threatening the maintenance of mesic meadows in large parts of Europe
5 (Carboni *et al.* 2015). For this reason, the European Habitats Directive (92/43/EEC) lists as
6 habitats of conservation interest those species-rich meadows that are traditionally managed
7 by one or two annual cuts and light grazing.

8 One of the reasons for the high conservation interest of traditional mesic meadows is their
9 high species richness, and for this same reason they have been highlighted as a valuable
10 source of natural seed material to be used in ecological restoration, rewilding and urban
11 greening (Krautzer *et al.* 2013; Haslgrübler *et al.* 2014; Golińska *et al.* 2017). However, a
12 lack of knowledge about species germination traits has already been identified as a
13 bottleneck (Ladouceur *et al.* 2018) hampering the development of a competitive native seed
14 industry (De Vitis *et al.* 2017) in Europe. Understanding seed germination is part of the
15 practical scientific framework needed to tackle large-scale ecological restoration challenges
16 (Merritt and Dixon 2011) and to maintain *ex situ* collections of plant genetic resources (Li
17 and Pritchard 2009). When such knowledge is available, ambitious regional schemes of
18 seed-based landscape restoration can be designed (Jiménez-Alfaro *et al.* 2020).

19 Mesic meadows are dominated by mesophilous grasses of the family Poaceae, which make
20 up most of the biomass in the community and define the structure of the vegetation. The
21 dispersal unit in Poaceae is generally the floret (**Fig. 1a**), a composite structure made up of
22 the caryopsis or grain (a dry, indehiscent and monospermic fruit) and its surrounding bracts

1 (i.e. modified leaves): the lemma and the palea. Removal of the lemma and palea, as well as
2 puncturing the pericarp, can aid in seed germination (Probert *et al.* 1985). The dispersal
3 unit often carries awns or hairs (**Fig. 1b**) that are assumed to aid dispersal, although it is not
4 always the case that they do (Schonfeld 1983). Several genera of Poaceae that grow in
5 European meadows show seed heteromorphism (see e.g. *Aegilops*, *Avena*, *Dasypirum*, *Poa*)
6 (Guzzon *et al.* 2018). They produce different seed morphs characterized by different seed
7 traits in terms of dormancy, longevity, morphology, phenology, tolerance to abiotic stresses
8 and susceptibility to predation. This is connected to bet hedging ecological strategies,
9 typical of ruderal/disturbed habitats. Regarding germination, meadow Poaceae seeds have
10 been reported as having physiological seed dormancy in various degrees (Sprague 1940;
11 Dixon 1995; Baskin and Baskin 2014), but germinability is usually high even without
12 treating the seeds with cold stratification (Grime *et al.* 1981; Schonfeld 1983; Williams
13 1983a; Bean 1984; Froud-Williams *et al.* 1984, 1986; Froud-Williams 1987; Dixon 1995;
14 Pérez-Fernández and Rodríguez-Echeverría 2003; Pérez-Fernández *et al.* 2006;
15 Stanisavljevic *et al.* 2011, 2015; Oliveira *et al.* 2012; Wille *et al.* 2013). Freshly harvested
16 seeds are comparatively more dormant than stored seeds, but dormancy tends to disappear
17 quickly in dry storage (Sprague 1940; Dixon 1995). Germination has been reported to occur
18 at temperatures ranging from 5 to 30 °C (Grime *et al.* 1981; Williams 1983b; Pannangpatch
19 and Bean 1984; Froud-Williams *et al.* 1986; Probert *et al.* 1986; Dixon 1995). Most
20 Poaceae species have also been reported to germinate better in light than in darkness
21 (Williams 1983b; c; Froud-Williams *et al.* 1984; Probert *et al.* 1985, 1986; Probert 1986;
22 Thompson 1989; Dixon 1995) and even to be unable to germinate in darkness (Froud-
23 Williams *et al.* 1986). Nonetheless, species of *Bromus* have been reported as germinating

1 better in darkness (Thompson 1989) and *Cynosurus cristatus* as being indifferent to
2 light/darkness (Williams 1983b; c). In *Poa trivialis*, germination is promoted by light but
3 not by diurnal alternating temperatures (i.e. germination conditions where different
4 temperatures are applied during the day and the night, in diurnal cycles) (Froud-Williams
5 1987), although alternating temperatures do encourage some germination in darkness
6 (Froud-Williams *et al.* 1986). Wild Poaceae ecotypes usually have a germination response
7 to alternating temperatures (Schonfeld 1983; Williams 1983b; c; Pannangpatch and Bean
8 1984; Probert *et al.* 1985, 1986; Probert 1986; Thompson 1989), although this response is
9 missing in some wild ecotypes and in the domesticated cultivars (Pannangpatch and Bean
10 1984), and some species such as *Lolium perenne* have been reported as insensitive to
11 temperature alternation (Thompson 1977; Williams 1983c).

12 Next in abundance to Poaceae are the legumes of the family Fabaceae. Fabaceae species
13 contribute to the nutritional value of meadow fodder, as thanks to their N-fixating
14 capabilities they have high N contents (Reiné *et al.* 2020; Álvarez *et al.* 2021). The
15 dispersal unit of most Fabaceae is the seed itself (**Fig. 1c**) but in some species dispersal
16 units are more complex, including indehiscent monospermic fruits (e.g. *Onobrychis*, **Fig.**
17 **1d**) or indehiscent monospermic fruit fragments, i.e. loments (e.g. *Ornithopus*, **Fig. 1e**).
18 Fabaceae are generally hard-seeded: they have a water-impermeable seed coat which needs
19 to become permeable before germination can happen (i.e. physical seed dormancy) (Grime
20 *et al.* 1981; Jones 1986; Ehrman and Cocks 1996; Kupferschmid *et al.* 2000; Baskin and
21 Baskin 2014). In *Medicago*, seeds that have not reached full maturity can germinate before
22 they become impermeable, but the completion of maturation imposes coat impermeability,

1 and thereafter the seed must be scarified to allow water imbibition and germination (Gresta
2 *et al.* 2007). Buried Fabaceae seeds can track the seasons, and in some species, germination
3 seems to be promoted by cold stratification and alternating temperatures (Van Assche *et al.*
4 2003); some of these species have been described as having combinational dormancy
5 (i.e. physical + physiological) (Van Assche and Vandelook 2010). However, Fabaceae
6 seeds have also been reported to germinate without any previous treatment (Marchiol *et al.*
7 2000; Nikolic *et al.* 2007; Kabouw *et al.* 2010; Oliveira *et al.* 2012), and to lose dormancy
8 during storage (Van Assche and Vandelook 2010). As in Poaceae, seeds of Fabaceae have
9 been reported to germinate in high numbers across a range of temperatures from 5 to 25 °C
10 (Grime *et al.* 1981; Gresta *et al.* 2007). Fabaceae seeds have been described as not being
11 responsive to light and as capable of germinating in darkness (Silvertown 1980; Grime *et*
12 *al.* 1981).

13 Poaceae and Fabaceae are accompanied by a diversity of other families which, even if
14 present in lower abundances, contribute to the high biodiversity of the system and increase
15 the aesthetic value of the meadows as perceived by people (Southon *et al.* 2017; Chollet *et*
16 *al.* 2018). They also add nutritional scope for livestock, being richer than Poaceae and
17 Fabaceae in specific elements (Reiné *et al.* 2020; Álvarez *et al.* 2021). In many of these
18 families (e.g. Asteraceae, Cyperaceae, Dipsacaceae, Lamiaceae, Polygonaceae,
19 Ranunculaceae) the dispersal unit is the achene: dry, indehiscent and monospermic fruits.
20 The morphology of these achenes is varied: cypselae with a hairy pappus in *Centaurea*
21 (Asteraceae, **Fig. 1f**); beaked in *Ranunculus* (Ranunculaceae, **Fig. 1g**); hardened nutlets in
22 *Prunella* (Lamiaceae, **Fig. 1h**); hairy and with an elaiosome in *Knautia* (Dipsacaceae, **Fig.**

1 **1i**); surrounded by a perigynium which aids in dispersal by water in *Carex* (Cyperaceae,
2 **Fig. 1j**). In the genus *Sanguisorba* (Rosaceae), the dispersal unit is the urn-shaped
3 receptacle containing one to three achenes (**Fig. 1k**). In Apiaceae, it is the mericarp (**Fig.**
4 **1l**), an indehiscent monospermic fragment of the fruit. In some other minor families, the
5 dispersal unit is the seed itself, such as in Caryophyllaceae (**Fig. 1m**), Plantaginaceae (**Fig.**
6 **1n**), Juncaceae or the hemiparasitic species of *Rhinanthus* (Orobanchaceae) (**Fig. 1o**). In
7 Asteraceae, high germination without previous treatments has been reported in *Taraxacum*
8 *officinale* (Mezynski 1974; Washitani 1984; Noronha 1997; Benvenuti and Pardossi 2016;
9 Masin *et al.* 2017), *Hypochaeris radicata* (Oomes 1976; Benvenuti and Pardossi 2016) and
10 *Achillea millefolium* (Oomes 1976). *Taraxacum officinale* germinates between 5 and 30 °C
11 (Mezynski 1974; Washitani 1984; Masin *et al.* 2017) and has higher germination in light
12 (Thompson 1989; Letchamo 1996; Noronha 1997) and in alternating temperatures
13 (Mezynski 1974). In *Stachys officinalis* (Lamiaceae), seeds need either cold stratification,
14 light or alternating temperatures to germinate (Wagner 2011; Kolodziejek *et al.* 2017).
15 Underdeveloped embryos that need to grow inside the seed before germination
16 (i.e. morphological dormancy) are widespread in Ranunculaceae and Apiaceae (Jauzein and
17 Mansour 1992; Baskin and Baskin 2014). *Ranunculus repens* (Ranunculaceae) germinates
18 between 10 and 25 °C, but the germination percentages have been reported to be low
19 (Harris 1998); the same species has been reported to respond to alternating temperatures,
20 which can promote its germination even in darkness (Thompson and Grime 1983). In
21 Polygonaceae, *Rumex acetosa* can germinate immediately after dispersal and between 7 and
22 27 °C, while the congeneric *Rumex acetosella* does not: this difference is due to the former
23 being able to germinate at constant temperatures in the darkness (Grime *et al.* 1981; Van

1 Assche *et al.* 2002), while the latter has an absolute requirement for light (Van Assche *et al.*
2 2002). In *Heracleum sphondylium* (Apiaceae), growth of the embryo only occurs below 10
3 °C, in moist conditions (Jauzein and Mansour 1992). *Sanguisorba minor* (Rosaceae)
4 increases its germination after abrasion of the seeds with bleach (Tavşanoğlu *et al.* 2015;
5 Benvenuti and Pardossi 2016), although germination without previous treatment has also
6 been reported (Ludewig *et al.* 2014; Tavşanoğlu *et al.* 2015). Seeds of the hemiparasitic
7 species *Rhinanthus angustifolius* and *Rhinanthus minor* (Orobanchaceae) require relatively
8 long periods of cold stratification to germinate (Ter Borg 2005) and can germinate in the
9 dark (Marin *et al.* 2019).

10 Although a wealth of studies has accumulated, a synthesis of the seed ecology of European
11 mesic meadows is still missing. In this article, we review for the first time this topic to
12 provide an overview of traits related to plant regeneration by seed, as a knowledge basis to
13 expand our understanding of meadow communities and assist in their management by
14 conservation and restoration practitioners. We combine newly generated data on seed
15 morphology and germination with records from existing databases (Kleyer *et al.* 2008;
16 Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew 2017; Fernández-Pascual 2021). The resulting dataset
17 contains 2,005 germination records of 90 plant species from 31 European countries. We use
18 this dataset to test the seed germination response to environmental cues including
19 scarification, stratification, temperature, alternating temperature and light, applying
20 Bayesian meta-analysis (Pappalardo *et al.* 2020). Further, using well-preserved meadows of
21 the Iberian Peninsula as a study system, we analyse the covariation between seed traits and

1 species environmental preferences, and compare the germination ecology of mesic
2 meadows with that of other herbaceous plant communities from the same geographic area.

3 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

4 *Data sources*

5 Selection of mesic meadow species

6 To create a list of representative European mesic meadow species for inclusion in our
7 analysis, we used the list of species provided by Chytrý et al. (2020) as dominant, constant
8 and diagnostic species of the EUNIS habitats “low and medium altitude hay meadows” and
9 “mountain hay meadows.” This list included 120 species and was used to test the response
10 to germination cues at the European level (see below).

11 To conduct further analyses at the Iberian level, we constructed a second species list based
12 on a dataset comprising 118 vegetation relevés (i.e. records of plants species co-occurring
13 in sampling plots) from three Iberian regions with well-maintained mesic meadows: 43
14 relevés from Northern Portugal, 25 from the Cantabrian Mountains of Spain and 50 from
15 the Pyrenees. These relevés were used to assess variation in seed responses along
16 environmental gradients (i.e. the relationship between species seed traits and species
17 ecological requirements, see below), as they were recorded along a major stress gradient
18 related to summer drought (Rodríguez-Rojo *et al.* 2014): the Pyrenees and Cantabrian
19 Mountains have a temperate macroclimate, whereas Northern Portugal is transitional
20 between the temperate and Mediterranean macroclimates. Furthermore, meadows from the

1 Pyrenees are closest to the European optimum of mesic meadow vegetation while the
2 Portuguese ones are in suboptimal areas at the limit of the European distribution of
3 temperate meadows (Rodríguez-Rojo *et al.* 2017). Finally, the traditional management of
4 meadows (i.e. mowing for haymaking once or twice per year plus light grazing) is
5 relatively well preserved in these three regions compared to their European context (Prince
6 *et al.* 2012; Guadilla-Sáez *et al.* 2019).

7 The Iberian meadows were maintained by traditional agricultural practices: mowing for
8 haymaking once or twice per year plus light grazing. Each vegetation sampling plot was
9 placed in a square area (25-100 m² area) situated in the central part of the meadow,
10 avoiding the margins. Vegetation sampling took place in 2016-2017, at the peak of plant
11 development, just before mowing. All vascular plant species in the plots were recorded and
12 given a cover value using the transformation of the Braun-Blanquet scale to coverage (+ =
13 0.1%, 1 = 5%, 2 = 17.5%, 3 = 37.5%, 4 = 62.5% and 5 = 87.5%). All plant names were
14 assigned following the nomenclature of Euro+Med (2006), which is used throughout this
15 article. As expected, the vegetation of the sampled meadows was dominated by Poaceae
16 and Fabaceae: these two families represented 47% and 17%, respectively, of the total plant
17 cover recorded in all the plots. Other 20 families were recorded, the largest of which was
18 Asteraceae; each of these other families represented less than 10% of the total cover.

19 Using all the relevés, we calculated the cumulative cover of each species in the entire area.
20 To perform the calculation, first we standardized the cover values of the plots by dividing
21 the cover of each species in each plot by the total plant cover in that plot. Then, for each
22 species, we calculated its total cover in the dataset, by summing its standardized cover

1 values from all the plots. Finally, we rescaled the values of all species to a 1-100 scale to
2 obtain the cumulative cover values. From the resulting list of species, we removed 208
3 species with cumulative cover values below 2%, considering them to be transient species
4 (Mariotte 2014) that might have been recorded by chance and may not represent the core
5 mesic meadows flora. We used the remaining 116 species as the core list of Iberian
6 meadow species. Most of these species were hemicryptophytes (78%), with some
7 therophytes (16%) and a few chamaephytes and geophytes (3% of each). The family with
8 more species in the list was Poaceae (22%), with another 17% belonging to Fabaceae, 15%
9 to Asteraceae, 8% to Apiaceae, and the rest of the families representing less than 5% each.

10 Species ecological requirements

11 We also used the Iberian relevés as a basis to characterize the preferences of the selected
12 species for three environmental factors (cold, summer drought and soil reaction) which
13 have been found to be major ecological drivers of mesic meadow plant diversity
14 (Rodríguez-Rojo *et al.* 2014). For cold and drought, we used the coordinates of the plots to
15 retrieve from CHELSA (Karger *et al.* 2017) the bioclimatic variables bio06 (minimum
16 temperature of the coldest month) and bio14 (precipitation of the driest month). For soil
17 reaction (pH), we took from each plot five soil samples from between 0 and 20 cm depth
18 with a Dutch auger and combined them to make a bulk soil horizon, which we subsequently
19 air-dried, crumbled, finely crushed and sieved with a 2 mm screen, to finally measure the
20 pH in H₂O with a glass electrode in a suspension of soil:water (1:2.5). With each of these
21 three environmental variables (bio06, bio14, pH) measured at the plot level we calculated
22 the species niche centroids (SNCs). The SNC for any given species and variable is the

1 mean of the environmental variable in all the plots where the species occurs, weighted by
2 species cover in each plot (Zelený 2018).

3 Seed morphology

4 From the vegetation plots described above, we collected dispersal units (hereafter called
5 seeds) during the dispersal seasons of 2016, 2017 and 2018. Seed collection followed the
6 methodology of ENSCONET (2009). To describe seed morphology, we acquired images of
7 100-seed samples of each species using a flatbed scanner (Brother LC985) with a resolution
8 of 200 dpi and a scanning area of 1024 x 1024 pixels (Bacchetta *et al.* 2008). We
9 distributed the seeds on the transparent glass of the scanner, in a 10 x 10 grid. For each
10 sample, and without moving the seeds, we repeated the scan with black and white
11 backgrounds. In the case of the black background, we covered samples with a black box to
12 avoid interference from environmental light. For the white background, we used the
13 scanner cover. We digitized the obtained images and stored them in JPEG format (Joint
14 Photographic Experts Group). We processed the scanned images using *ImageJ*, an open-
15 source image processing program designed for scientific multidimensional images
16 (Schneider *et al.* 2012). The program calculates several biometric parameters for each seed
17 on the sample, and among those we chose seed length and width. Additionally, we retrieved
18 species values of seed mass from the Seed Information Database (Royal Botanic Gardens,
19 Kew 2017) and of seed number at the individual/ramet level from the LEDA database
20 (Kleyer *et al.* 2008). The dataset with the length and width measures is available at GitHub
21 (see Data Availability Statement).

22 Seed germination

1 We constructed a germination dataset by combining the results of our own germination
2 experiments with Iberian seeds, and records of seed germination of meadow seeds from
3 across Europe.

4 We germinated the collected Iberian seeds using three germination treatments to determine
5 the germination response to temperatures that are representative of the study area: 14/4 °C
6 representing the capacity of freshly-dispersed seeds to germinate at cool temperatures of
7 spring and autumn, 22/12 °C as summer temperature, and 30/20 °C as sun-heated soil,
8 e.g. soil exposed to sun after hay cutting. Additionally, we compared, for each of these
9 temperature regimes, the germination of fresh seeds versus seeds subjected to a dormancy-
10 breaking treatment. This treatment was adjusted to the most probable dormancy type per
11 taxonomic group (Baskin and Baskin 2014). In the case of Fabaceae and other families that
12 might present physical dormancy (Baskin and Baskin 2014), the treatment consisted in
13 scarification by chipping the seed coat with a scalpel. For the rest of the families, we used
14 gibberellic acid GA₃ (0.0645 mM) in darkness during 24h, as a treatment to remove
15 potential physiological seed dormancy (Blandino *et al.* 2019). For each species and
16 treatment, we sowed four Petri dishes with 25 seeds each. The germination substrate was
17 1% distilled water - agar. We sealed dishes with Parafilm to prevent desiccation. Trials took
18 place in a germination chamber (KBW 400, Binder GmbH, Tuttlingen, Germany) with a
19 12/12-hour photoperiod (the light period corresponding to the higher temperature).
20 Experiments lasted for four weeks, with germination scoring once per week. The
21 germination criterion was 2 mm radicle emergence. After four weeks, we cut the seeds that
22 failed to germinate and examined them under a magnifying glass. We classified them as

1 normal when the embryo was visible and firm, empty when they lacked an embryo, and
2 contaminated when they were mouldy. We only considered normal seeds when calculating
3 germination proportions and conducting subsequent analyses.

4 In addition to this experimental germination data, we retrieved European seed germination
5 records for the European list of study species from ENSCOBASE, the seed germination
6 database of the European Native Seed Conservation Network
7 (<http://enscobase.maich.gr/index.tml>); and the *SylvanSeeds* database of seed germination
8 records for the nemoral biome (Fernández-Pascual 2021). These new records included
9 additional records of species in our experimental dataset, plus records of new species absent
10 from our experimental dataset, and in all cases corresponded to seed lots originally
11 collected within Europe. The combined dataset, including our own experimental data and
12 the records from ENSCOBASE and *SylvanSeeds*, contained 90 species (i.e. 90% of the core
13 list of meadow species was covered) and 2,005 germination records (i.e. germination
14 proportions for a given seed lot of a species, recorded in a set of laboratory experimental
15 conditions) from 31 European countries. Overall, 156,252 seeds had been used in the
16 experiments. The range of experimental germination temperatures (weighted average of the
17 daily thermoperiod) which had been used in the experiments spanned from 2 to 31 °C, with
18 1,226 records of constant temperatures (i.e. experiments that used the same temperature
19 during all their duration) and 779 of alternating temperatures (i.e. experiments where
20 different temperatures were applied during the day and the night, in diurnal cycles). Seeds
21 had been exposed to light during some part of the diurnal cycle in 1,907 records or kept in
22 total darkness in 98 records. Experiments had been performed with unstratified seeds

1 (i.e. not subjected to a previous dormancy-breaking incubation) in 1,726 records and with
2 stratified seeds (i.e. subjected to previous incubation in dormancy-breaking conditions,
3 including treatments of wet incubation under cold, warm and combinations of cold and
4 warm conditions) in 279 records. There were 262 records where GA₃ had been applied, and
5 369 records where seeds had been scarified.

6 Finally, to compare the germination of mesic meadow species with that of other herbaceous
7 communities, we retrieved data from previous works on the seed germination ecology of
8 bogs and fens (Fernández-Pascual *et al.* 2013; Fernández-Pascual 2016), alpine and
9 subalpine grasslands (Fernández-Pascual, Jiménez-Alfaro, *et al.* 2017), and coastal plant
10 communities of rocky cliffs and sand dunes (Fernández-Pascual, Pérez-Arcoiza, *et al.*
11 2017). These additional germination records had been obtained using the same
12 experimental methodology as the one employed for some of the germination experiments of
13 this study: recently collected seeds, untreated for physiological dormancy (but scarified in
14 the cases of families known for having physical dormancy), had been subjected to three
15 germination thermoperiods (14/4, 22/12, 30/20 °C). All seeds had been collected in the
16 Cantabrian Mountains of Spain or the neighbouring coast. We combined these records with
17 the records with matching experimental conditions from the meadows germination dataset
18 to create a Cantabrian dataset.

19 *Statistical analysis*

20 We conducted all analyses in R (R Core Team 2020), and the code for analysis and creation
21 of the figures and manuscript is available at GitHub (see Data Availability Statement).

1 Seed responses to germination cues

2 We used the European germination dataset (available at GitHub, see Data Availability
3 Statement) to test the effect of germination treatments on seed germination proportions.
4 The used dataset included 2,005 germination records of 90 species; of these, 222 records
5 came from our own experimental data and the rest from the databases. We performed a
6 meta-analysis (Pappalardo *et al.* 2020) of the germination dataset by fitting binomial
7 generalized mixed models with Bayesian estimation (Markov Chain Monte Carlo
8 generalized linear mixed models, MCMCglmm) (Fernández-Pascual *et al.* 2021) using the
9 R package *MCMCglmm* (Hadfield 2010). We fitted four models: (1) to the entire dataset;
10 and separately for each of the three botanical groups of mesic meadows: (2) Poaceae, (3)
11 Fabaceae, and (4) a third group including the rest of the families. To account for the effect
12 of a shared phylogenetic history in species traits, models included as a random effect a
13 reconstructed phylogenetic tree of the study species. We created the phylogeny using the R
14 package *VPhyloMaker* (Jin and Qian 2019) which contains an updated mega-tree of the
15 seed plants based on Smith & Brown (2018). We placed taxa absent from the mega-tree at
16 the genus-level basal node. The phylogenetic tree is available at GitHub (see Data
17 Availability Statement). The response variable of the models was the proportion of
18 germinated seeds. The fixed effects were the germination treatments (scarification,
19 stratification, GA₃, temperature, alternating temperature and light). Random effects
20 included the phylogenetic tree, species identity, seed lot and source of the data. In all
21 models, fixed effect variables were scaled so their contribution to the effect sizes could be
22 compared. We used weakly informative priors in all models, with parameter-expanded

1 priors for the random effects. Each model was run for 500,000 MCMC steps, with an initial
2 burn-in phase of 50,000 and a thinning interval of 50 (De Villemereuil and Nakagawa
3 2014), resulting, on average, in 9,000 posterior distributions. From the resulting posterior
4 distributions, we calculated mean parameter estimates and 95% Highest Posterior Density
5 (HPD) and Credible Intervals (CI). We estimated the significance of model parameters by
6 examining CIs, considering parameters with CIs overlapping with zero as non-significant.
7 To estimate the phylogenetic signal in the models we used Pagel's lambda (λ) (Pagel
8 1999), estimated simultaneously with the models by calculating the mean of the posterior
9 distribution and the 95% CI of λ as indicated by De Villemereuil et al. (2014). When $\lambda = 0$,
10 related taxa are no more similar than expected by chance, while when $\lambda = 1$, the trait is
11 evolving following a constant variance random walk or Brownian motion model;
12 intermediate values of λ indicate a phylogenetic correlation in trait evolution that does not
13 fully follow a Brownian motion model (Pagel 1999). The detailed output of the models is
14 available at GitHub (see Data Availability Statement).

15 Seed traits vs. species environmental preferences

16 We used the Iberian dataset (available at GitHub, see Data Availability Statement) to check
17 whether seed traits and plant ecological preferences were related. The used dataset
18 contained 76 species with complete trait data for seed germination, seed morphology and
19 ecological requirements. We did a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of seed traits and
20 species SNCs for cold, drought and pH. We performed the PCA ordination at the species
21 level, i.e. calculating a series of continuous seed traits for each species. We transformed the
22 final germination proportions to create a continuous variable for the germination cues

1 (i.e. stratification, scarification, temperature, alternating temperatures and light). To do so,
2 for each cue and species, we calculated a weighted average of the cue levels (in the case of
3 temperature, cue levels were the temperature treatments; for the other cues, the levels were
4 0 = absence and 1 = presence), weighting by the germination proportion at each level. This
5 approach underrepresents the importance of the levels that had not been tested for a given
6 species, but can serve as a proxy of the response to the germination cues when visualized
7 across the whole dataset. We also included seed mass and seed number in the ordination
8 (species average values). We left GA₃ out of the PCA because its ecological interpretation
9 is subordinated to stratification (as both cues break physiological seed dormancy). We also
10 left seed length and width out because these values were not available for enough species.
11 We calculated the PCA with the package *FactoMineR* (Lê *et al.* 2008).

12 Germination in meadows vs. other habitats

13 We used the Cantabrian dataset (available at GitHub, see Data Availability Statement) to
14 compare the germination of mesic meadows with that of other herbaceous communities
15 from the same region. The Cantabrian dataset included 131 plant species. We analysed this
16 dataset by PCA.

17 **RESULTS**

18 *Seed morphology*

19 Poaceae had lower values of seed mass and higher values of seed number, while Fabaceae
20 had heavier but fewer seeds (**Fig. 2**). The other families covered the range of values showed

1 by Poaceae and Fabaceae, but their median values were high for both traits: their median
2 seed mass was close to that of the Fabaceae, while their median seed number was higher
3 than that of the Poaceae (**Fig. 2**). Seed shape also showed a divergence between Poaceae
4 and Fabaceae, with seeds being elongated in the former and round in the latter (**Fig. 2**). The
5 other families covered the full range of variation, with both elongated and round seeds (**Fig.**
6 **2**).

7 *Seed germination*

8 When considering the full set of mesic meadow species, all the studied germination cues
9 except for stratification had a significant effect on final germination proportions (**Fig. 3**).
10 The germination of meadow seeds was positively associated with scarification, GA₃,
11 alternating temperatures, and light. Average temperature had a negative effect, indicating a
12 trend towards higher germination at lower temperatures. Averaging the whole dataset, the
13 highest germination proportions were achieved at 20 °C. Between 0 °C and 20 °C,
14 germination proportions increased steadily with increasing temperatures. Above 20 °C,
15 germination declined more sharply, and meadow seeds rarely germinated at 30 °C.

16 Some differences became apparent when dividing the dataset in the three floristic groups
17 that compose mesic meadow vegetation. In Poaceae (**Fig. 3**), no effect was found for
18 scarification, GA₃ or temperature. Stratification had a negative effect on germination. The
19 major drivers of Poaceae germination appeared to be alternating temperatures and light,
20 with both having a positive effect. In Fabaceae (**Fig. 3**), the largest positive effect on
21 germination was produced by scarification, with no effect of stratification, GA₃, alternating
22 temperatures or light. Temperature had a negative effect, and in fact Fabaceae species had

1 higher germination proportions at temperatures under 20 °C. Finally, in the remaining
2 families (**Fig. 3**), the main cues having a positive effect on germination were GA₃,
3 alternating temperatures and light. These species did not respond to scarification,
4 stratification or average temperatures.

5 To describe the effects of the random factors, we will refer only to the full model that
6 included all species in the dataset. The strongest effect was that of the phylogeny (mean =
7 5.42, CI = 2.91 - 8.2), followed by the source of the data (mean = 3.06, CI = 1.43 - 5.13)
8 and the seed lot (mean = 1.28, CI = 0.94 - 1.64). The phylogenetic signal in the germination
9 responses was relatively high ($\lambda = 0.68$, CI = 0.57 - 0.79).

10 *Seed traits and species ecological preferences*

11 PCA indicated a clear separation between environmental preferences and seed traits, with
12 each set of variables contributing to different axes (**Fig. 4**). The first PCA axis explained
13 29% of the variation and was related to environmental preferences. The variables with the
14 largest contribution to this first axis were soil reaction (pH), winter cold (bio06) and
15 summer rainfall (bio14). This horizontal axis separated (i, left) species with preferences for
16 sites with warm winter temperatures from (ii, right) species with preferences for sites with
17 high summer rainfall and less acidic soils. Axis 2 explained 17% of the variability, mostly
18 related to seed traits. The main contributing variables were seed mass, seed number and the
19 germination response to scarification. This axis separated (iii, bottom) Poaceae species that
20 produce many seeds with a positive germination response to alternating temperatures from
21 (iv, top) Fabaceae species that produce heavy seeds with a positive response to
22 scarification.

1 *Comparison with other habitats*

2 Ordination resulted in a separation of mesic meadow species from plant species belonging
3 to natural herbaceous communities of the same region (**Fig. 5**). Axis 1 explained 78% of
4 the variance and was positively associated with high germination at all three temperature
5 treatments. This horizontal axis separated (i, left) species with low germination across
6 treatments from (ii, right) species with high germinability across treatments. The second
7 axis explained 17% of the variation and separated (iii, bottom) species that responded more
8 to the cool germination temperature from (iv, top) species that responded more to the warm
9 germination treatment. Meadow species tended to be situated in the right sector of the
10 ordination, indicating high germinability; and at the centre of the vertical axis, indicating a
11 neutral response to temperature. On the other hand, species from the other communities
12 were positioned at the left of the horizontal axis, indicating a lower germinability; and were
13 more separated along the vertical axis, indicating a preference for either warmer (bogs and
14 fens) or cooler (alpine grasslands, coastal communities) germination treatments.

15 **DISCUSSION**

16 Our meta-analysis of germination records showed that the seed ecology of mesic meadows
17 is characterized by (1) high germinability when compared to other herbaceous plant
18 communities; (2) low correspondence between seed trait variability and the natural
19 environmental drivers of mesic meadow diversity; and (3) a deep phylogenetic separation
20 between the two major families, Poaceae and Fabaceae.

1 We found that alternating temperatures and light are the two most influential factors
2 triggering germination in all taxonomic groups except for Fabaceae. Alternating
3 temperatures and light are usually considered to be micro-environmental cues that indicate,
4 at a fine scale, the existence of safe sites for regeneration (Jumpponen *et al.* 1999). The
5 diurnal alternation of temperature decreases with burial depth in the soil, and by the
6 presence of vegetation cover (Thompson 1977; Van Assche and Vanlerberghe 1989;
7 Saatkamp *et al.* 2011). Thus, a positive germination response to alternating temperatures
8 could detect the depth of seed burial and prevent the germination of seeds that are buried
9 too deep for seedlings to survive before emerging from the ground (Bond *et al.* 1999).
10 Perhaps more importantly in mesic meadows, alternating temperatures could also indicate
11 that the vegetation cover has been diminished by either mowing or grazing, marking an
12 appropriate time for seedling regeneration, when the competition by the established plants
13 is lessened. Similar functions can be ascribed to the germination response to light, as
14 physiologically-active light in significant amounts only travels the uppermost millimetres
15 of soil (Tester and Morris 1987) and the quality of light will be affected by vegetation cover
16 (Jankowska-Blaszcuk and Daws 2007). Therefore, the germination response to alternating
17 temperatures and light indicates conditions that are found immediately after mowing for
18 haymaking, a predictable perturbation that occurs approximately at the same time every
19 year, and which forces meadow plants to establish, grow and reproduce in a regular time
20 frame (Grime 2006; Klimešová *et al.* 2010). Theoretically, these germination traits would
21 also promote the formation of a transient soil seed bank (Williams 1983b; Venn and
22 Morgan 2010). But it is worth mentioning that Poaceae, which show the germination
23 response to alternating temperatures and light, also have the more elongated seed shape, a

1 trait that is thought to reduce the capacity of seeds to enter the soil seed bank in temperate
2 meadows (Thompson *et al.* 1993; Funes *et al.* 1999).

3 The strong effect of scarification was specifically related to the hard-seeded Fabaceae. In
4 this family, physical dormancy as a result of an impermeable seed coat works as a
5 mechanism to detect seasonal cycles of temperature and humidity (Van Assche *et al.* 2003).

6 It has been also proposed that physical dormancy can avoid seed predation, by preventing
7 the emission of olfactory cues that are elicited by seed imbibition and that can be perceived

8 by seed predators (Paulsen *et al.* 2013). In the case of this study, Fabaceae seeds are
9 amongst the heaviest, and they clearly follow a separate regeneration strategy from that of

10 the other families. While other groups rely on alternating temperatures and light as gap-
11 detecting mechanisms, Fabaceae seeds are regulated instead by scarification, while they

12 also respond to cooler temperatures than the rest of the families. This suggests that
13 Fabaceae seeds would tend to germinate when temperatures are cooler, and thus before or

14 after the summer haymaking season. Their larger size, and the related larger reserves, could
15 allow Fabaceae seedlings to emerge from greater depths (Bond *et al.* 1999), e.g. when the

16 meadow grass is still high before mowing. Furthermore, larger seed size also increases seed
17 survival in cattle dung (Peco *et al.* 2006) and thus improves the capacity of being dispersed

18 by animal depositions (Traba *et al.* 2003).

19 Seed germination responses to average temperatures and stratification are understood to be
20 a mechanism to track seasonal climatic cycles (Finch-Savage and Leubner-Metzger 2006).

21 Apart from the response to cool temperatures in Fabaceae, the rest of the families did not
22 show a response to average temperatures, further highlighting their reliance on micro-

1 habitat and short-term cueing. Moreover, the dominant family Poaceae showed a negative
2 response to cold stratification. The less frequent families, however, showed a divergence
3 from the Poaceae strategy: their positive response to GA₃. GA₃ is a phytohormone which
4 can work as a substitute of cold stratification to overcome physiological dormancy (Bewley
5 *et al.* 2013). The response to GA₃ indicates that the non-dominant species have a degree of
6 physiological dormancy, which could postpone their germination until overwintering has
7 occurred (Baskin and Baskin 2014).

8 The strong phylogenetic signal in germination responses highlights the phylogenetic
9 clustering of regeneration strategies that we have described so far: (1) The dominant family
10 Poaceae shows a lack of response to seasonal cues (average temperature and cold
11 stratification). Instead, Poaceae rely on large amounts of propagules and on detecting
12 micro-niche cues (alternating temperatures, light) that can be associated to the yearly
13 perturbation of mowing. (2) The second most-dominant family, Fabaceae, does not respond
14 to micro-niche cues, and regulates germination timing through scarification and cooler
15 germination temperatures. Possibly, because their larger size and reserves allow their seeds
16 to decouple their emergence timing from the mowing disturbance. (3) The minor families
17 respond to micro-cues in a similar way than Poaceae, but are differentiated from them by
18 showing a positive response to GA₃, indicating that they rely on physiological seed
19 dormancy to track seasonal cycles. This third strategy would allow to fine-tune their
20 germination to the micro-environmental conditions plus the inter-annual climatic variation.
21 Phylogenetic clustering is also apparent regarding seed shape, mass and number, with
22 Poaceae producing many elongated and light seeds, and Fabaceae producing fewer, rounder

1 and heavier seeds. The shape of Poaceae seeds could make them particularly successful in
2 attaching to hay and dispersing with it, and Poaceae seeds tend to be overrepresented in
3 seed mixes obtained via haymaking (Scotton *et al.* 2009; Haslgrübler *et al.* 2014).
4 Asteraceae and Apiaceae, some of the most abundant among the minor families, also tend
5 to have shapes resembling those of Poaceae.

6 As we have seen, the regeneration strategy of high germinability appears to be general in
7 meadow species, across regional environmental gradients. Seed traits usually show
8 variation along environmental gradients; some examples include warm-cued germination in
9 species from colder sites (Rosbakh and Poschlod 2015) or smaller seeds in species from
10 higher elevations (Wang *et al.* 2014). Such relationships are missing in the hay meadows of
11 the Iberian Peninsula, highlighting the semi-natural character of this vegetation,
12 conditioned by human management as much as by environmental constraints. To some
13 extent, the lower germinability that we found in coastal habitats, mires and alpine
14 grasslands could be a result of the stressors imposed by salinity, waterlogging and
15 temperature extremes. At the same time, the seed ecology of meadow species could be a
16 response to the potential selective force that is the predictable perturbation by yearly
17 mowing. Past research supports the relationship between mowing and germination timing.
18 In an abandoned meadow of the Swiss Prealps, resuming mowing promoted germination
19 and emergence, although natural regeneration was limited due to a lack of seed dispersal to
20 the site (Kupferschmid *et al.* 2000). Mowing also promoted autumn germination in a dry
21 grassland of northern Germany (Kahmen and Poschlod 2008). Past studies also agree with
22 the lack of dormancy and the high germinability of meadow seeds that we have found. For

1 example, meadow seeds of *Poa trivialis* were less dormant than seeds of the same species
2 collected in an arable field (Froud-Williams *et al.* 1986). Ten Brink *et al.* (2013), when
3 comparing congeneric herbaceous species from open grasslands or forest habitats, found
4 that species from the open grasslands needed less cold stratification. Similarly, seeds
5 collected from a hay meadow germinated better when left untreated, rather than when being
6 exposed to dormancy-breaking treatments (Haslgrübler *et al.* 2014). The high-germinability
7 syndrome as a response to artificial selection by mowing is indeed an intriguing hypothesis,
8 and future work should be designed to test it.

9 The high-germinability strategy, however, has the practical consequence of greatly limiting
10 the long-term seed bank persistence of mesic meadow species: the soil seed bank has been
11 reported as being transient in hay meadows and related grasslands (Milberg 1992;
12 McDonald 1993; Hutchings and Booth 1996). In Poland, the soil bank of a hay meadow
13 was dominated by arable and weedy forbs, with low representation of Poaceae and
14 Fabaceae (Janicka 2017). The inability to form persistent seed banks leads to dispersal
15 limitations to passive natural regeneration (Kupferschmid *et al.* 2000), making mesic
16 meadows quite sensitive to land use change, and stressing the importance of active actions
17 of meadow restoration via seed supply.

18 Understanding the germination requirements of the different plant groups that coexist in
19 mesic meadows can help to manage, conserve and restore their biological diversity. For
20 centuries, human activities have shaped the regeneration of hay meadows, and apparently
21 this has led to a loss of seed dormancy, decoupling seeds from seasonal cycles, as has been
22 found in many domesticated species (Dürr *et al.* 2015). The same anthropic processes that

1 have shaped semi-natural mesic meadows may have left them dependent on continued
2 human intervention for their regeneration. The high germinability of meadow seeds makes
3 them relatively easy to use in restoration projects. But it also creates a fascinating dilemma
4 to the restoration practitioner: instead of sourcing seed from existing – and seemingly
5 domesticated – meadows, it could be advisable to also source seeds from related wild
6 populations of meadow species, which may hold the genetic variability and phenotypic
7 plasticity to cope with the threats posed by new environmental challenges (Parmesan and
8 Hanley 2015).

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14 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

15 All authors contributed data. E.F.P. conceived the study and performed the analyses. E.F.P.
16 wrote the manuscript with help from A.C. All authors revised the manuscript and approved
17 the final version.

1 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

2 The original data, R code for the analysis and creation of the manuscript can be accessed at
3 the GitHub repository <https://github.com/efernandezpascual/meadows>. Upon publication, a
4 version of record of the repository will be deposited in Zenodo.

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12 **FIGURES**

- 13 *Figure 1: Diversity of dispersal units in plant species from mesic meadows: (a) Floret of*
14 *Cynosurus cristatus (Poaceae); (b) floret of Arrhenatherum elatius (Poaceae); (c) seed of*
15 *Lathyrus pratensis (Fabaceae); (d) legume of Onobrychis viciifolia (Fabaceae); (e) loment*
16 *fragment of Ornithopus perpusillus (Fabaceae); (f) achene with pappus of Centaurea*
17 *scabiosa (Asteraceae); (g) achene of Ranunculus acris (Ranunculaceae); (h) nutlet of*
18 *Prunella grandiflora (Lamiaceae); (i) achene of Knautia nevadensis (Dipsacaceae); (j)*
19 *perigynium of Carex binervis (Cyperaceae); (k) receptacle of Sanguisorba minor*
20 *(Rosaceae); (l) mericarp of Carum verticillatum (Apiaceae); (m) seed of Cerasium*

1 *fontanum* (*Caryophyllaceae*); (n) seed of *Plantago lanceolata* (*Plantaginaceae*); (o) seed of
2 *Rhinanthus angustifolius* (*Orobanchaceae*).

3

4 *Figure 2: Morphology of mesic meadow seeds. The two panels on the left show the*
5 *probability densities of species values for seed mass and seed number, log-transformed for*
6 *ease of visualization. The three horizontal lines within the probability densities represent*
7 *the first quartile, the median and the third quartile of the values. The panel on the right*
8 *shows values of seed length and width obtained by image analysis, with each point being a*
9 *seed. In all cases, data is divided between the grasses (Poaceae), legumes (Fabaceae) and*
10 *the other plant families.*

11

12 *Figure 3: Germination cues in mesic meadows. Effect of germination cues simulated in the*
13 *laboratory over the final germination proportions of mesic meadow seeds. Dots indicate*
14 *the posterior mean of the effect size for each cue, and whiskers the 95% credible interval of*
15 *the effect size. The line of zero-effect is shown: when a credible interval overlaps with the*
16 *zero-effect line, the effect can be regarded as non-significant. In separate panels, the figure*
17 *shows the results of a general model including data for all species, plus specific models for*
18 *the three main botanical groups of mesic meadows: grasses (Poaceae), legumes*
19 *(Fabaceae) and the other families.*

1

2 *Figure 4: Environment and seed traits are separate axis of variation in mesic meadows.*
3 *Principal Component Analysis ordination of mesic meadow species considering their*
4 *environmental preferences and their seed traits. Each point is a species, coloured by the*
5 *three main botanical groups of mesic meadows: grasses (Poaceae), legumes (Fabaceae)*
6 *and the other families. Labels indicate the contribution of the variables to the axes: grey-*
7 *background labels for environmental preferences, and white-background labels for seed*
8 *traits. Environmental preferences were calculated as species niche centroids (SNCs) for the*
9 *minimal temperature of the coldest month (bio06), precipitation of the driest month*
10 *(bio14), and soil pH. To calculate the SNCs, a vegetation dataset of mesic meadows of the*
11 *Iberian Peninsula was used. The seed traits are seed mass and the germination relative*
12 *indices for the response to scarification, stratification, average germination temperature*
13 *(temperature), alternating temperature (alternating) and light. All environmental*
14 *preferences aligned to the first axis, while seed traits aligned to the second axis, showing*
15 *that environment and seed traits are separate axis of variation in mesic meadows.*
16 *Stratification and average germination temperature showed very low variation, in*
17 *accordance with their small effect on Figure 2.*

18

19 *Figure 5: Higher germinability in mesic meadows compared to other herbaceous plant*
20 *communities. Principal Component Analysis ordination of species responses to three seed*
21 *germination treatments (fresh seeds germinated at 30/20, 22/12 and 14/4 °C in a 12/12h*
22 *light-darkness photoperiod). Species are grouped by their habitat, with points showing the*

1 centroid for each habitat group, and rays linking the centroid with the position of each
2 species in the group. Labels indicate the contribution of the germination treatments to the
3 axes. All species had been collected in herbaceous vegetation types of the Cantabrian
4 Mountains of Spain and the neighbouring coast. All seeds were untreated, except for
5 scarification, which was applied routinely to all botanical families presenting physical
6 dormancy. Germination treatments consisted in 12/12 h periods with a warmer phase in
7 light and a cooler phase in darkness. The position of mesic meadows compared to the other
8 habitats indicates that their species tended to have higher germinability even if untreated
9 (i.e. less seed dormancy) and were more neutral in their thermal requirements.









