

1 Seed encrusting with salicylic acid: a novel approach to
2 improve establishment of grass species in ecological
3 restoration
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18 process

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24 Abstract

25 To achieve global ambitions in large scale ecological restoration, there is a need for approaches that
26 improve the efficiency of seed-based restoration, particularly in overcoming the bottleneck in the
27 transition from germination to seedling establishment. In this study we tested a novel seed-based
28 application of the plant stress modulator compound, salicylic acid, as a means to reduce seedling
29 losses in seed-to-seedling phase. First-time seed coating technology (encrusting) was developed as a
30 precursor for optimising field sowing for three grass species commonly used in restoration
31 programs, *Aurolstipa scabra*, *Microlaena stipoides*, and *Rytidosperma geniculata*. Salicylic acid (SA,
32 0.1mM) was delivered to seeds via imbibition and seed encrusting with the effects tested on seed
33 germination under controlled conditions (to test for resilience to drought), and in field conditions on
34 seedling emergence, plant survival, and seedling growth. SA did not significantly impact germination
35 under water stress in controlled laboratory condition and did not affect seedling emergence in the
36 field. However, seedling survival and growth was improved in plants from SA treated seeds (imbibed
37 and encrusted) under field conditions. When SA delivery mechanisms of imbibing and coating were
38 compared, there was no significant difference in survival and growth, showing that seed coating has
39 potential to deliver SA. Effect of intraspecific competition as a result of seedling density was also
40 considered. Seedling survival over the dry summer season more than doubled when seed was sown
41 at low density (40 plants/m²) compared to high density seeding (380 plants/m²). Overall, adjustment
42 of seeding rate according to expected emergence combined with the use of salicylic acid is a cost-
43 effective means for improving seed use efficiency in seed-based restoration.

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47 Introduction

48 Almost two-thirds of the world ecosystems are considered degraded or damaged with a lack of
49 restorative effectiveness often unable to compensate for ecosystem loss [1]. Such degradation poses
50 a serious risk to biodiversity, and impacts human communities that rely on ecosystem services for
51 their sustenance and wellbeing [2,3]. Once degradation has occurred, restorative activities can be
52 used to return the functionality, diversity, and structure of healthy, intact, and sustainable
53 ecosystems [4,5]. Grasslands are among the most extensive terrestrial ecosystems in the world,
54 covering over 52.5 million km² [6], and provide fundamental ecosystem services such as sustaining
55 food production (e.g., through rangeland pastoralism and dairy), carbon sequestration and storage,
56 and erosion control [7]. However, almost half of the global grassland estate is considered degraded
57 due to human activities and climate change [8] with important flow-on impacts for human societies
58 whose livelihoods depend upon these grasslands.

59 In cases like of extreme disturbance, like post mining landscape, where spontaneous regeneration
60 may not be feasible or effective, restorative interventions are required [9]. Native seeds of
61 appropriate-local origin are commonly used to reintroduce missing species and to perform ecological
62 restoration when the land has limited natural regenerative capacity [10,11]. However, abiotic factors
63 such as nutrient-impoverishment, chemical and physically-hostile soil conditions [12] and low or
64 unpredictable water availability [13], combined with biotic variables such as seed predation [14] and
65 competition with exotic species, combine to limit the success of traditional seed-based grassland
66 restoration.

67 Generally, less than 10% of sown native seeds become established plants, with significant
68 bottlenecks detected at the seedling emergence phase [15], and in survival through the first summer
69 drought [16]. Given the high cost and often highly limited availability of native seed [17], improving
70 the efficiency in deployment to site is crucial if ecological restoration is to be delivered at the
71 landscape scales expected [18] such as the UN Decade of Ecosystem Restoration. To address issues

72 related to logistical constraints on seed delivery, and seedling establishment, the crop seed industry
73 has developed technologies, such as seed coating, that could be adapted and applied to native seed
74 [19].

75 Seed coating is the practice of covering seeds with external materials, sometimes including active
76 ingredients conferring seeds protection and improved physiological performance [20]. Seed coating
77 has been tested on native seeds in different restoration scenarios to overcome specific limitations
78 such as water repellency [21], soil crusting [22], and seed predation [23]. However, despite
79 promising results in seed coating improving seedling emergence, limited studies have so far
80 attempted to improve native seed germination and seedling resistance to abiotic stresses [24].

81 Resistance to some abiotic stresses could be conferred by exposure of seeds to salicylic acid (SA). SA
82 is a plant hormone, synthesised by many plant species [25]. It is involved in plant growth,
83 developmental regulation [26], signalling [27], thermogenesis and mediating stress response either
84 by providing resistance or triggering apoptosis [28]. Exogenous application of SA through watering,
85 foliar spray, or seed imbibition has shown increased plant resistance and survival to a wide range of
86 abiotic and biotic stresses [29]. SA efficacy in conferring stress resistance is a function of its
87 concentration, with low concentrations failing to deliver resistance and higher concentrations
88 decreasing resistance by activating cell death pathways [30,31]. The effect of SA on seed
89 germination remains unclear; studies using seeds of crop species report improved germination for
90 *Arabidopsis thaliana* under salinity stress [32] and for wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) under drought
91 stress [33], while no effect was reported for maize (*Zea mays*) [34] or barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) [35].
92 Seed coating delivery of SA has shown some promising results when tested on tobacco seeds,
93 improving germination and seedling growth under drought stress [36], and on corn, inducing
94 resistance to chilling [37]. However, it has never been tested on native species for ecological
95 restoration.

96 The goal of this study is to evaluate the effects of SA applied to seed on germination success,
97 seedling emergence, survival and growth on three grass species native to southern temperate
98 Australia, and to compare SA delivery methods via imbibition and coating.

99 The following hypotheses were tested: 1) coating or imbibition of seeds, without inclusion of SA, will
100 not deleteriously impact seed germination success in laboratory trials or seedling emergence in the
101 field, 2) SA will improve germination under conditions of water stress and enhance seed germination
102 and seedling emergence in the field, and 3) plant survival and growth in the field will be improved
103 for plants established from SA treated seeds at low and high intraspecific competition.

104 Material and methods

105 Species selection and seed processing

106 Three species of grasses native to temperate and Mediterranean regions of southern Australia were
107 selected on the basis of their predominance in grassland revegetation and restoration activities and
108 utility as pasture [38], including *Austrostipa scabra* (Lindl.) S.W.L. Jacobs & J.Everett, *Microlaena*
109 *stipoides* (Labill.) R.Br. var. *Griffin* and *Rytidosperma geniculata* (J.M.Black) Connor & Edgar var.
110 *Oxley* (all Poaceae). Seeds were sourced from a commercial provider (Native Seed Pty Ltd,
111 Cheltenham, Victoria) in 2016. To reduce potential for viability loss seeds were stored in paper bags
112 on open shelving in a controlled environment (15°C, and 15% relative humidity, RH) for one year
113 prior to experimentation [39]. Seeds were moved to ambient condition (20–25°C and 40–50% RH)
114 two weeks prior to experimentation to avoid potential seed damage during the cleaning and
115 encrusting process [40].

116 Caryopses of each species were extracted from the husk to allow for more homogeneous encrusting
117 and imbibition treatment. Removal of the palea and lemma was performed for each species using
118 sulphuric acid digestion *sensu* Stevens *et al* 2015 [41], with complete immersion of the caryopsis in a
119 50% sulphuric acid solution (ACS reagent grade H₂SO₄, Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, USA) for an optimal

120 interval allowing for the weakening of floret structures without reducing germination potential.
121 Immersion time for all three species was determined by Pedrini *et al* 2018 [42], and thus immersion
122 intervals were 90 min for *A. scabra*, 60 min for *M. stipoides* and 20 min for *R. geniculata*. Acid
123 immersion was followed by a neutralisation treatment in a 8.4 g L⁻¹ sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃,
124 Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, USA) solution for 5 minutes, before rinsing under tap water for two minutes
125 and drying in a Food Lab™ Electronic Dehydrator at 35° C (Sunbeam, Sydney, Australia). After drying,
126 caryopsis extraction was achieved by gentle rubbing with a rubber mat and sequential sieving and
127 zig-zag air flow separator (Selecta Machinefabriek BV, Enkhuizen, Netherlands).

128 Seed treatments

129 After cleaning, caryopses (hereafter referred to as 'seeds') of each species were subjected to seed
130 imbibition or coating treatments with or without salicylic acid application (Fig 1), resulting in four
131 treatments (imbibed seeds without SA, imbibed seeds with SA, coated seeds without SA, coated with
132 SA) plus an untreated control (uncoated, unimbibed seeds without SA). The coating treatment used
133 in this experiment is defined encrusting, because the size and weight of the seed were increased but
134 the shape of the seed remained evident [24].

135 SA was provided at a concentration of 0.1 mM, a concentration previously shown to be sufficient in
136 conferring stress resistance across various species and delivery methods [31,43,44]. SA solution was
137 prepared by dissolving crystalline SA (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) in deionized water for imbibition,
138 and in a 2% Hydroxyethyl cellulose hydroxyethyl cellulose (cellosize QP 09-L, DOW chemicals)
139 solution for encrusting (mixed with a magnetic stirrer for 30 minutes at 50°C). For imbibition
140 treatments seeds were soaked in either SA solution or deionized water for 24 h at 20°C.

141 Seed encrusting was performed on a 15 cm RRC 150 Lab Coater (Centor Thai, Bangkok, Thailand),
142 *sensu* Pedrini et al. (2018). Liquids were delivered through a compressed air-propelled 0.7 mm
143 airbrush (Ozito tools, Australia). Talc was used as the filler material, dusted onto the seeds with a
144 paint brush. Cleaned seeds (10 g) were placed inside the rotary coater, with rotor speed set at 300

145 RPM, and seeds were initially exposed to liquid spray until moist before powder was dusted onto the
146 rotating seed mass. Wetting and dusting were repeated until 20 g of powder were used. A total of 15
147 ml of liquid were applied. Seeds were routinely checked to visually evaluate the even coverage of
148 the coat, and to assess the formation of multiple seeds or dead balls (agglomerate of coating
149 material not containing a seed). Following imbibition and encrusting treatments, seeds were placed
150 on trays and dried for 3 hours in a in a Food Lab™ Electronic Dehydrator at 35° C (Sunbeam, Sydney,
151 Australia).

152 **Laboratory test**

153 Germination tests were performed in Petri dishes lined with two filter papers moistened with 14 ml
154 water or Polyethylene Glycol (PEG) solution, placed in sealed plastic bags to reduce desiccation. 2 ml
155 of water or PEG solution was added weekly.

156 In order to test whether SA improved germination success under water-limited conditions PEG 8000
157 (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, USA) diluted in deionised water at 24.72, 30.78, and 35.90 g/l was used to
158 obtain solutions of -0.6, -0.9, and -1.2 MPa water potential at 20° C. This value resembles the range
159 of water availability recorded in the field during the winter months. Germination tests were
160 performed on four replicates of 25 seeds for each of the five seed treatments. Petri dishes were
161 placed in a Biosyn incubator 6000 OP (Contherm, Korokoro, New Zealand) at 20°C with a 12 h
162 photoperiod.

163 Germination was scored daily for the first five days and then at 7, 10 and 15 days respectively. On
164 the 21st day, final germination was scored and remaining seed examined via cut test to assess
165 viability. Non-viable seeds were excluded from the total.

166 **Field trials**

167 Field trials were performed at a site east of the town of Waroona in Western Australia (32° 74' 27" S,
168 116° 00' 36" E, 201 m above sea level). The site falls within the native range of all three tested

169 species and offers climatic conditions similar to those of mining operations active in the area likely to
170 require these species in seed-based rehabilitation following mine closure. The field trial area was
171 enclosed by a fence to avoid grazing from native marsupials and rabbits. Three experiments were
172 performed in the field site: 1) seed germination in recoverable porous bags, 2) seedling emergence
173 and survival in precision planted lines, and 3) plant survival and growth in plots. The five treatments
174 previously described were tested in each experiment. For germination experiments in bags and lines,
175 each treatment had four replicates. All experiments were arranged on a randomised complete block
176 design of four blocks for 15 treatments (5 treatments * 3 species). For inline and plot experiments,
177 seed were sown at depths of 0.2 - 0.5 cm, achieved by broadcasting dry soil on top of freshly sown
178 lines and plots. All experiments were established at the commencement of the wet season in May
179 2017.

180 **Germination bags experiment**

181 Field seed germination was tested by placing 50 seeds in 5 cm² sealed mesh bags, over a 2 m² area,
182 and buried on site at 1cm depth. The bags were collected three weeks after sowing and germination
183 recorded for those seeds as indicated by a protruding radicle.

184 **Line experiment – high competition**

185 Seedling emergence was tested by sowing 100 seeds along a meter-long line, 5 cm wide. Seedling
186 emergence was scored after 1, 2, 3, 4 6, 8 and 10 weeks. All emerged seedlings were left to then
187 grow to maturity and resulted in high intraspecific competition. Plant survival was recorded 45
188 weeks after sowing.

189 **Plot experiment – low competition**

190 To evaluate plant survival and growth under low intraspecific competition, 100 seeds were manually
191 broadcasted on a 0.5 x 0.5 m² plot. A month after sowing, the plots were thinned to 10 seedlings
192 randomly selected, with at least 5 cm between seedlings, to limit potential competition resulting in a

193 density of 40 plant/m². The selected seedlings were marked with a pin to avoid confusion with other
194 seedlings that could have emerged at a later stage. 45 weeks after sowing the surviving plants were
195 counted, harvested and their height, wet weight and dry weight recorded.

196 Soil temperature and volumetric moisture content (m³/m³) were recorded for the duration of the
197 germination and emergence experiment (10 weeks) with HOBO Micro Station Data Loggers (Onset
198 Computer Corporation, Bourne, MA, USA). The probes were buried at 1 cm. For the 35 weeks
199 following the end of the emergence experiment (July 2017 – March 2018), minimum and maximum
200 temperature and precipitation data were obtained from the Dwellingup weather station, 10 km from
201 the site [45] (**Fig 2**).

202 Statistical analysis

203 To assess laboratory germination and seedling emergence in the field, non-linear regression models
204 were fitted with the function “drm” of the “DRC” package [13,46,47]. A three parameter log-logistic
205 model was used:

$$206 \quad f(x) = \frac{gmax}{1 + \left(\frac{x}{T50}\right)^b}$$

207 The parameters are: (b) slope curvature, (gmax) final germination and (T50) germination speed,
208 intended as time (days/weeks) required to reach half of the final germination or emergence.

209 Parameter comparison on final germination and germination speed were then performed to assess
210 differences among treatment (significance p <0.05).

211 To test the hypothesis of treatment and compound effect on germination in the field (in buried bags)
212 and plant survival, an exact binomial test on the probability of success in a Bernoulli trial, between
213 each treatment, was performed (confidence level = 0.95).

214 Plant height and biomass data were fitted in a Linear Mixed-Effects Model using the “lmer” function
215 in the lme4 package for R [48], using compounds; untreated control (ctrl) vs treated without SA (NO)

216 vs treated with SA (SA), and treatment; untreated control (ctrl), imbibed (Imb) and Encrusted (Encr)
217 as fixed variables and the replicates (plots) as a random variable.
218 ANOVA (Type II Wald chi square tests) was employed to detect significant treatment effects. If such
219 significance was detected a pairwise t-test was performed to compare the levels within the
220 treatment. All data analysis was performed in the R statistical environment [49].

221

222 **Fig 1. Seeds of the three grass species tested.** In each image are presented the encrusted (blue) and untreated-imbibed
223 seed. Scale bars indicate seed sizes.

224

225 **Fig 2. Climate condition at the field site.** (A) the daily average for day (orange) and night (blue) temperature (B) volumetric
226 water content in the soil at 1 cm depth for the first 10 weeks of the experiment, when germination and emergence were
227 recorded. (C) Weekly maximum (tMax) and minimum (tMin) temperature, and total precipitation (Prec (mm)) for the
228 period between the end of the emergence experiment and the recording of plant survival (July 2017 – March 2018) at a
229 nearby meteorological station.

230

231 Results

232 In the first two sections are reported the results of seed germination under laboratory conditions
233 and seed germination/emergence in the field experiment, with the third section covers plant survival
234 and growth data, collected at the field site.

235 Encrusting and imbibition treatment

236 Encrusting treatment (Encr) had higher or similar germination than the control (Ctrl), whilst
237 imbibition treatment (Imb) at times resulted in lower germination. Final germination of *A. scabra*
238 treated seed, tested in lab conditions, was not significantly different from the untreated control, and
239 only slightly but significantly ($P < 0.001$) increased in germination speed (T50) of 0.5 days, for both
240 imbibed and encrusted seed. When tested in field conditions, the encrusted seed had lower final
241 emergence than the control (Ctrl: $52 \pm 1.6\%$, Encr: $45 \pm 2.4\%$, $P < 0.001$) while imbibed seeds showed
242 no significant difference (**Fig 3**).

243 Under laboratory conditions encrusted *M. stipoides* seeds ($86 \pm 2.1\%$) germination was higher than
244 in the control ($73 \pm 2.2\%$, $P < 0.001$), but 8.9% lower for imbibed seed ($P < 0.05$). Similarly, final
245 emergence in the field was higher for encrusted seed (Encr: $48 \pm 1.0\%$, Ctrl: $35 \pm 1.0\%$) with
246 imbibition increasing emergence by 4% ($P < 0.05$).

247 As with *M. stipoides*, germination of *R. geniculatum* was significantly higher for encrusted seeds (68
248 $\pm 1.5\%$) with the lowest for imbibed seeds ($51 \pm 1.4\%$), (Ctrl: $58 \pm 1.5\%$). However, there was no
249 difference in seeding emergence in response to seed treatment under field conditions.

250 Salicylic acid effects on germination with low water availability and 251 field emergence

252 To assess the effect of SA, seeds that were provided SA (via imbibition and encrusting) were
253 compared to seeds that received the treatments without SA (NO). If a significant difference was
254 detected, SA delivery methods of encrusting (ES) and imbibing (IS) were then compared. The high
255 variability in the results suggested that SA has limited effects on promoting germination and
256 emergence.

257 Final germination at optimal water potentials in *A. scabra* was significantly ($P < 0.05$) reduced by
258 4.3% with SA treatment (**Error! Reference source not found.**). At reduced water availability of -0.6, -
259 0.9, and -1.2 MPa SA treatments generally showed a slight but non-significant improvement in final
260 germination. When tested in the field, SA treatments did not affect germination but reduced final
261 emergence (NO: $51 \pm 1.1\%$, SA: $44 \pm 1.1\%$, $P < 0.001$) with SA encrusted seed emerging 5.6% lower
262 than SA imbibed seeds.

263 Similarly, *M. stipoides* germination at optimal conditions was reduced in SA treated seed by 7.9%
264 ($P < 0.05$). SA delivered through encrusting resulted in better germination ($77 \pm 2.1\%$) than SA
265 imbibed seed ($57 \pm 2.2\%$). Under limiting water potentials of -0.6 MPa, germination for SA treated
266 seed was improved from $77\% \pm 1.9\%$ to $86 \pm 1.9\%$, and encrusting allowed for a 12.7% increase in

267 germination compared to imbibing. However, at lower water potentials, SA treatment reduced final
268 germination by 5.6% ($P < 0.05$) at -0.9 MPa and by 11.2% ($P < 0.01$) at -1.2MPa. In both situations
269 encrusting allowed for better germination than imbibition. Field germination and emergence of *M.*
270 *stipoides* were not significantly affected by SA treatment, but both treatments had higher
271 emergence than the untreated control.

272 When final germination was tested on *R. geniculatum*, no significant difference between seed
273 treated with and without SA was detected at optimal conditions and with reduced water availability.
274 The only effect of SA was a delay in germination at 0.0MPa of 0.4 days. Field germination was no
275 different for seed treated with and without SA, however both treatments had lower germination
276 than the untreated control. Between seeds treated with and without SA, there was no difference in
277 field emergence. However, seed treated without SA had significantly lower germination ($p < 0.05$)
278 than the untreated control. Emergence in SA treated seeds was slightly higher, but not significant.
279 The results of germination and emergence experiment are provided in the supplementary file
280 S1_GerminationEmergenceAnalysisResults.pdf.

281 **Survival and plant growth in field site conditions**

282 Plant survival was examined in situations where intraspecific competition was maintained high (line
283 experiment) or reduced (plot experiment). In both scenarios, SA improved plant survival and growth.
284 In the “line experiment” the survival of plants that emerged from untreated seed was 32.3% for *A.*
285 *scabra*, 41.2% for *M. stipoides* and 42.6% for *R. geniculatum*. Plants emerging from SA treated seed,
286 compared to seeds treated without SA, had a significantly ($P > 0.001$) increased survival by 12.9% in *A.*
287 *scabra*, 13.5% in *M. stipoides* and 11.8% in *R. geniculatum*. In *A. scabra*, SA delivered through
288 encrusting improve survival by 9.8% ($P > 0.001$) compared to SA delivered through imbibing. In *M.*
289 *stipoides* and *R. geniculatum*, no difference was detected between SA delivery systems on plant
290 survival.

291 In the plot experiment, the average survival of seedlings in the untreated control was of 82.5% for *A.*
292 *scabra*, 82.5% for *M. stipoides* and 77.5% for *R. geniculatum*. In SA treated *M. stipoides* and *R.*
293 *geniculatum*, compared treated without SA, survival was significantly improved ($P < 0.01$), by 8.2%
294 and 15% respectively and in *A. scabra*, survival was improved by 6.25%, but the difference was not
295 significant. SA delivered through encrusting provided slightly better but non-significant survival. Both
296 for *M. stipoides* and *R. geniculatum*, SA treatment improve survival by 17.5% and 10% respectively,
297 compared to seed treated without SA (**Error! Reference source not found.**).

298 Plant growth was recorded in term of plant height and above ground dry biomass. In *A. scabra*, no
299 significant difference was detected between SA and non-SA treatments in either measurement. For
300 *M. stipoides*, plant height for SA treated seed was significantly improved ($P < 0.05$) from 41 cm \pm 1.7
301 cm (untreated control) and 43 cm \pm 1.0cm (treated seed without SA), to 46 cm \pm 1.0 cm. Dry above-
302 ground biomass was also higher in SA treatment (3.4 g \pm 0.22g) compared to untreated controls (2.2
303 g \pm 0.25 g) and without SA (2.7 g \pm 0.25 g) (both $P < 0.05$). In *R. geniculatum*, there was no significant
304 difference in height. Dry biomass for SA treatment (1.5 g \pm 0.08g) was significantly higher ($P > 0.05$)
305 than treated without SA (1.2 g \pm 0.10g), but not significant compared to the untreated control (1.3 g
306 \pm 0.09g). No significant difference between SA delivery through imbibing or encrusting, in terms of
307 plant growth, was detected in the study species.

308

309 **Fig 3. Seed treatment germination and emergence curves.** Cumulative germination/emergence percentage curves of the
310 three different seed treatment tested: untreated (ctrl), encrusted (Encr), and imbibed (Imb) across the three species
311 tested. The lines represent the cumulative germination curve over time. Data points are the germination recorded on a
312 specific day/week and the shaded areas represent the 95% confidence intervals. A, B and C germination experiments were
313 in controlled laboratory condition. D, E and F seedling emergence in the field trial.

314

315 **Fig 4. Salicylic Acid final germination and emergence** Final germination and emergence of untreated seeds (Ctrl), seed
316 treated without salicylic acid (No) and seed treated with salicylic acid (SA). A, B and C shows the laboratory germination
317 experiment in petri dishes at 20°C at different water potentials (X axis). D, E shows the germination and emergence results
318 in the field experiment, 3 and 10 weeks after sowing respectively. The species are listed in the X axis (Aus = *Austrostipa*
319 *scabra*, Mic = *Microlaena stipoides*, Ryt = *Rytidosperma geniculatum*). Results followed by the same letter for the Water
320 potential (lab experiment) and species (Field experiment) are not statistically different at $p < 0.05$

321

322 **Fig 5. Survival and plant growth.** Survival and plant growth comparison 40 weeks after sowing, between untreated seeds
323 (Ctrl), seed treated without salicylic acid (No) and seed treated with salicylic acid (SA). (A) plant survival proportion in the
324 plot experiment, where interspecific competition was limited, by removing excess seedlings and leaving 10 seedling per
325 0.25 m² plot. (C) Seeds sown on a 1 m line, without thinning. (C) Average height and (D) biomass of plant collected from
326 the plot experiment. Results followed by the same letter are not statistically different at $p < 0.05$.

327 Discussion

328 Seed treatment effects on germination and emergence

329 Of the three species tested, only *A. scabra* showed no treatment (encrusting and imbibition) effect
330 on germination and emergence as predicted. *M. stipoides* and *R. geniculatum* showed unexpected,
331 significant differences between treated seeds (imbibed and encrusted) and the control. In the
332 germination experiment, the two species behaved similarly, with encrusted seeds performing better
333 than controls, while imbibition had negative effects on both final germination and germination
334 speed. In this study, seeds were imbibed for 24 hours, following previously described methodology
335 for SA delivery to seeds [33,50]. A potential explanation for the reduction in germination of imbibed
336 seed could be anoxic stress due to extended submersion in water and in a water-saturated
337 environment (petri dish). This problem has been reported in seed priming treatments that rely on
338 seed imbibition to trigger pre-germinative metabolic mechanisms [51,52]. Oxygen availability could
339 also explain why encrusted seed performed better than imbibed and untreated seed. During the
340 encrusting process, seed contact with water was limited compared to imbibing. Moreover, the layer
341 of encrusting material could also have acted as a buffer, reducing the water potential at the seed
342 level and allowing for improved gas exchange. Furthermore, the emergence of imbibed seed was
343 unaffected in the moist, but not water-saturated soil conditions. In seed priming treatments, water
344 potential or water oxygenation are usually regulated [53] to avoid anoxic damage. The germination
345 reduction detected in this study for imbibed seed could, therefore, be mitigated by decreasing
346 imbibition time, reducing the water potential, or providing oxygenation to the solution.

347 Salicylic acid effect on seed germination and emergence

348 Contrary to what was initially hypothesised, SA application did not clearly improve seed germination
349 and emergence in the field and in controlled laboratory condition across a water availability gradient
350 on the tested species, with the exception of *M. stipoides* at -0.6 MPa. *M. stipoides* seed treated with
351 SA had significantly lower germination at 0.0, -0.9 and -1.2 MPa, suggesting that this species might
352 be susceptible to the SA concentration tested. Germination response to exogenous SA application is
353 concentration dependent, with inhibition detected at higher concentrations [35]. Reducing SA
354 concentration for *M. stipoides*, could therefore potentially remove the germination impediments.
355 When a difference in germination was detected for seed treated with SA, encrusted seed performed
356 slightly better than imbibed seeds. However, this difference is most likely due to the process itself,
357 as highlighted previously, other than the efficacy in delivering SA.

358 A significant drop in emergence by SA treated seed in *A. scabra* might suggest that the interaction of
359 SA treatment with unidentified variables present in the soil at field site might have triggered a
360 negative response, similar to what was observed in the controlled lab environment. Moreover, the
361 detrimental effect of encrusting could have been determined by the combined effect of SA and the
362 physical constraint of the coatings layer and soil to the emerging seedling. However, this effect was
363 not detected in the other species.

364 Survival and growth

365 In experimental plots where competition was reduced, plants from seed treated with SA resulted in
366 increased height and biomass production in two out of the three species tests. SA also provided a
367 significant improvement in plant survival in both scenarios with and without interspecific
368 competition. Although response among species varied, with the least effects detected in *A. scabra*,
369 the overall trend showed marked benefits in term of survival and plant grown from SA-treated
370 seeds. The improved survival at this stage could be explained by the already described stress
371 resistance properties of SA [44]. A potentially significant, yet unintended, result of this experiment is

372 the great difference in plant survival between the low and high seedling density (line and plot
373 experiment). According to the seedling emergence data, the seedling density in the line experiment
374 was of 520 seedling/m² in *A. scabra*, 430 seedling/m² in *M. stipoides* and 280 seedling/m² in *R.*
375 *geniculatum*, whilst for the plot experiment seedling density was 40 seedling/m² across all species.
376 Based on personal observations, the plants with limited competition were generally more developed
377 before summer than the ones in the lines. This would have allowed for the development of a
378 broader and deeper root system with better access to water during the dry summer months
379 ultimately resulting in higher chances of survival. These results suggest that intraspecific competition
380 within these species could play a major role in seedling establishment rate. This factor needs to be
381 taken in consideration when planning for seeding operation, to avoid overseeding and wastage of
382 valuable and expensive seeds [54].

383 Demographic processes

384 In field experiments, soil conditions at the time of germination and emergence (**Error! Reference**
385 **source not found.**) were suitable for the germination of these temperate grass species. Differently
386 to what was described by James et al. (2011), where the major bottleneck in seedling recruitment
387 was detected at the emergence phase (when germinated seeds failed to push through the soil), in
388 this experiment, the drop between germination and emergence was relatively small with probability
389 of emergence from germinated seed ranging from 0.92 in *A. scabra* to 0.61 in *R. geniculatum* (**Fig 6**).
390 This trend might be due to the favourable climatic and soil conditions during the year the study was
391 conducted, with average night and daily temperature ranging between 10° C and 18° C, and
392 maintained soil moisture content of 0.08-0.18m³/m³ (water potential range between -0.2 and -0.7
393 MPa) during the first month after sowing, when most of the emergence occurred. These conditions
394 have not allowed for the detection of the stress reduction proprieties of SA that were originally
395 hypothesised at the germination and emergence phase. However, the field data, combined with the
396 controlled germination experiment with reduced water availability, suggest that SA might not affect

397 seed performances at the establishment phase, as suggested by [34]. Further studies are needed to
398 test this hypothesis under more severe stress conditions and on different species.

399 Significant effects of SA delivering stress resistance were instead detected on the survival of
400 established plants over the summer when seedlings had to endure prolonged periods with little
401 access to water. Total precipitation between November 2017 and February 2018, removing two
402 major rainy events that happened over a short period (60 mm on December 20th and 147 mm on
403 January 18th) were less than 30 mm (Fig 2). The effects of the summer drought were evident on the
404 experiment where seedlings were not removed, with the probability of plant survival from an
405 emerged seedling being 0.32 for *A. scabra*, 0.41 for *M. stipoides* and 0.42 for *R. geniculatum*. In this
406 case, SA treated seed survived significantly better than the seed treated without SA for the three
407 species. When considering the cumulative survival from the number of seeds initially sown, SA
408 treatment provides a significantly higher number of successful plant establishment events, even for
409 *A. scabra*, when emergence of SA treated seed was lower than the seed treated without SA.

410 **SA effect on survival**

411 In both line and plot experiments, SA treated seeds improved survival, supporting previous evidence
412 that SA exogenous application may deliver drought stress resistance [43]. This improvement in
413 survival might be due to a variety of factors, such as the effect of SA in mediating reactive oxygen
414 species (ROS) and triggering defence-related processes [55], and its effect on productivity and
415 growth [56]. In this study, just one of the three species tested (*M. stipoides*) showed a higher
416 biomass production as a response to SA treatment. A previously published study reported that
417 externally applied SA had increased root development [57], but root growth was not evaluated in
418 this study. Nevertheless, as this study shows, the effects of exogenous SA delivery are still present
419 months after its application. SA absorbed through the seed (imbibing), or through emerging radicle
420 and roots (encrusting) could be converted in SA glucoside and transferred in the vacuole for storage

421 [58]. SA glucoside could be mobilized and moved through the plant after been converted in methyl
422 salicylate, and eventually turned back to SA when needed [27].

423 Encrusting and imbibition

424 When SA delivery mechanisms of imbibing and encrusting were compared in terms of improving
425 plant survival, a significant difference was rarely detected, suggesting that seed encrusting could be
426 used to deliver SA and its stress resistance inducing proprieties. The advantage of using SA in the
427 seed coating processes over imbibition lies in the capability of storing seed after treatment. Seed
428 imbibition can trigger a seed priming effect that could improve germination speed and synchronicity
429 in the short term [59], but, such imbibition could accelerate seed ageing processes, reducing seed
430 shelf-life and storability [60]. Another advantage of seed coating over imbibition is that while it
431 delivers SA stress resistance, it can also improve seed handling and sowability, along with a wide
432 variety of active ingredients, such as protectants, micronutrients, germination promoters and
433 microorganism [24]. Most of these coating treatments still need to be tested on native species for
434 restoration, but their combined impact on seed germination, emergence, growth and plant
435 establishment could improve the successful deployment of native seed onto degraded landscapes,
436 ultimately allowing for a more cost-effective seed-based restoration.

437

438 **Fig 6. Cumulative survival proportion.** Demographic process through various life stages for the three species tested
439 without treatment, treated without SA and treated with SA. On the top of each graph, in red, are reported the probability
440 of transitioning between life stages. This demographic data are based on the “in line’ experiment whereas seedling were
441 not removed after emergence and intraspecific competition affected plant survival.

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610 Supporting information

611 **S1_GerminationEmergenceAnalysisResults.pdf**. Final germination and T50 value of germination
612 experiments of the three test species at full and reduced water potential and emergence in the field
613 experiment. Statistics obtained with parameter comparison of DRM model comparing treatment, SA,
614 and combination of treatment and SA against the untreated control.

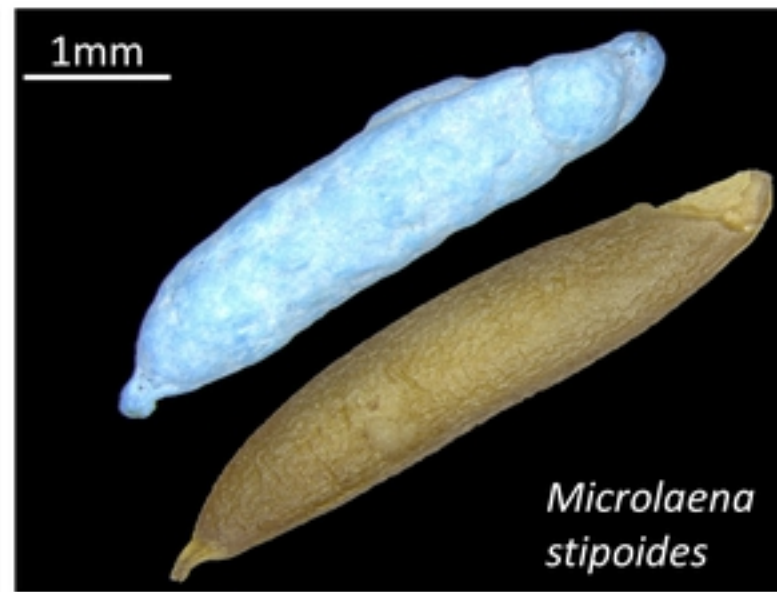
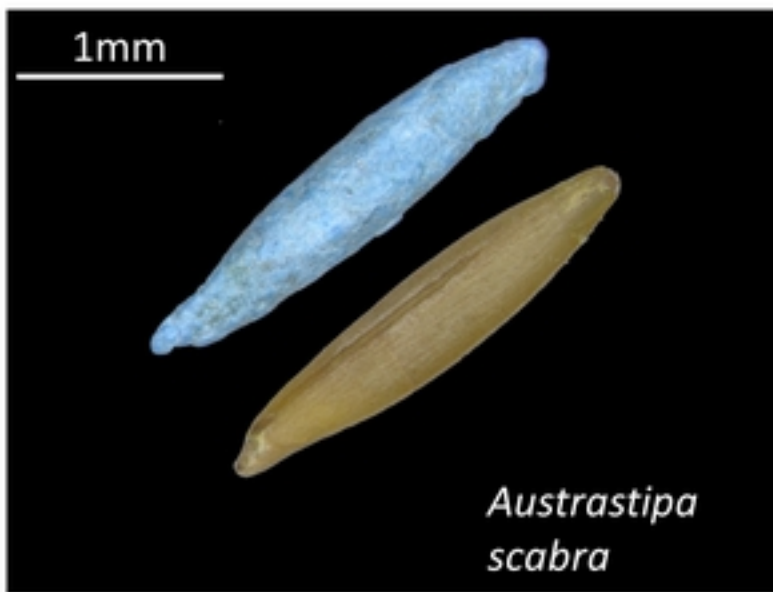


Figure 1

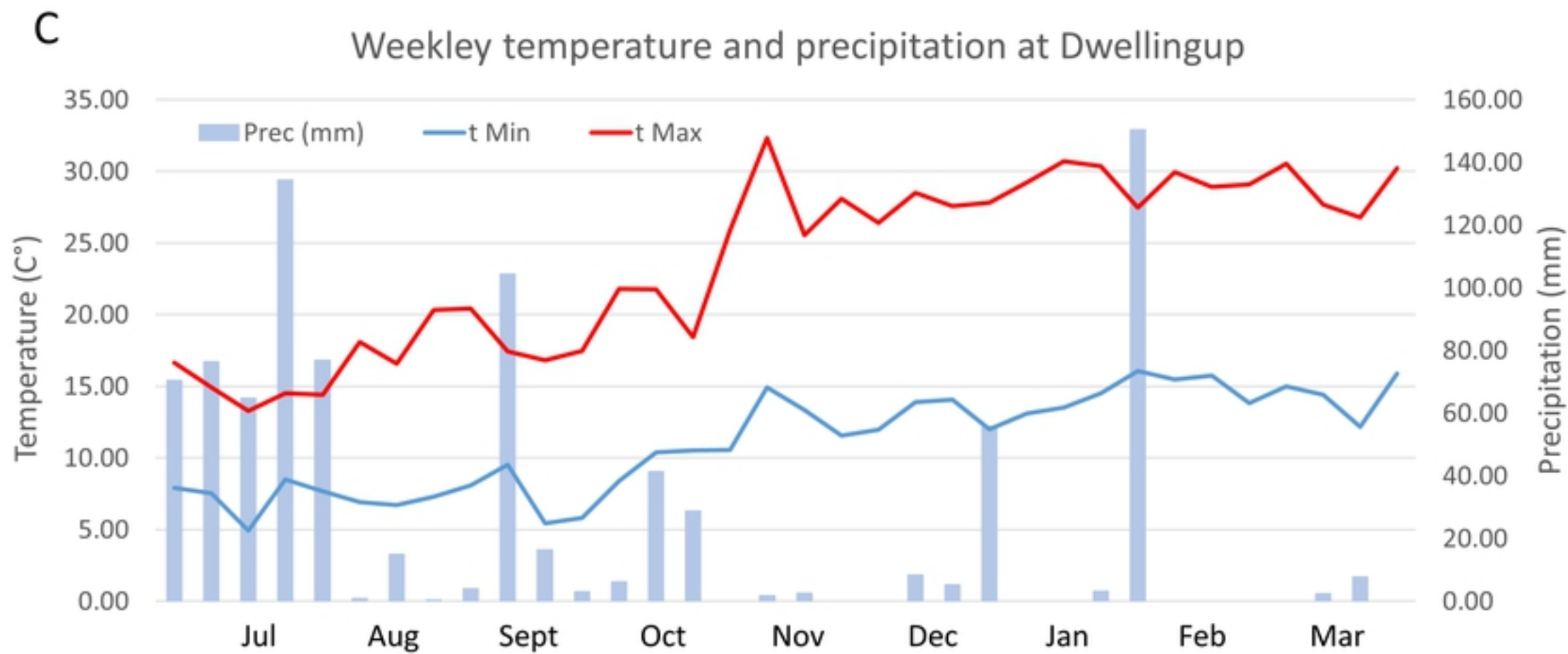
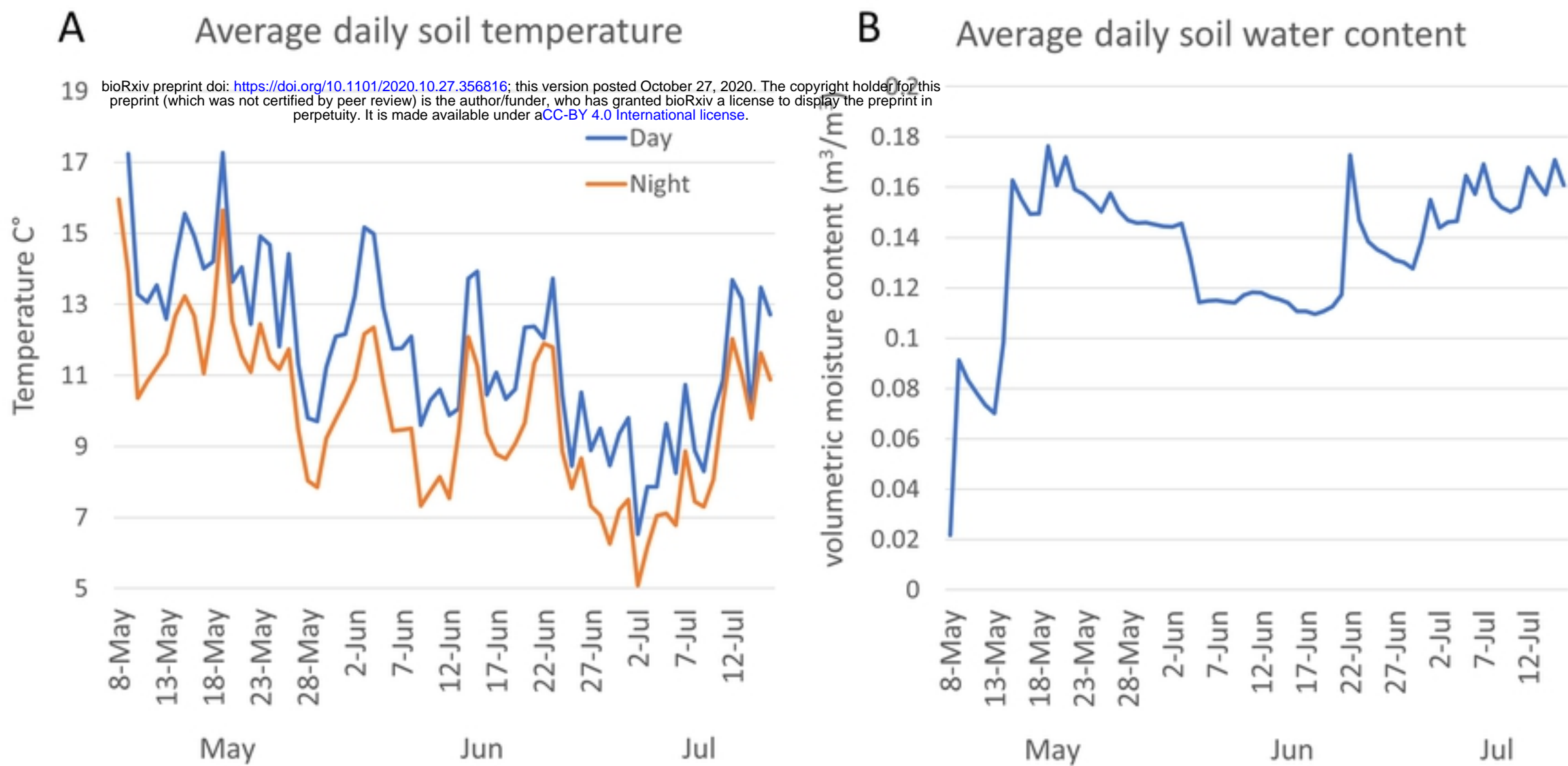
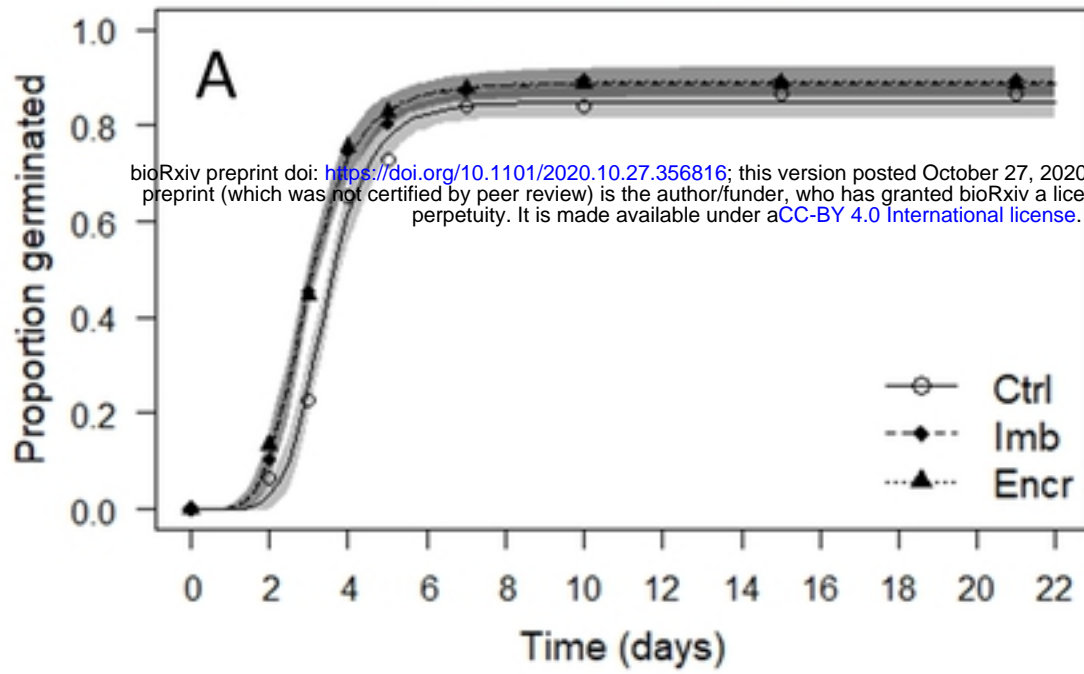


Figure 2

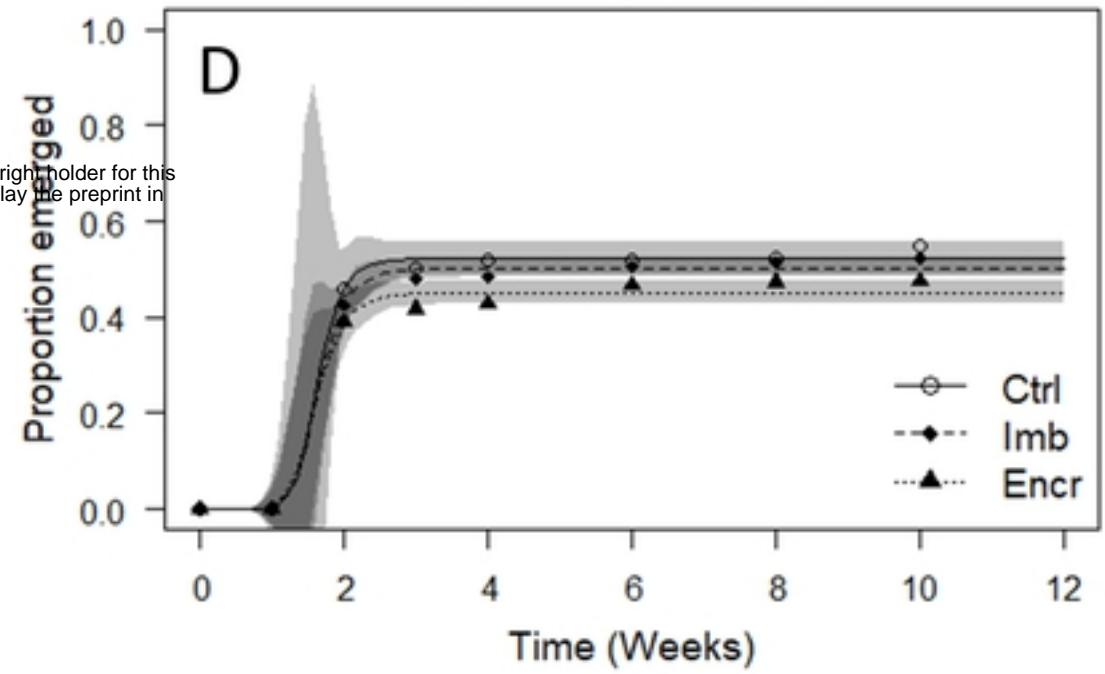
LAB GERMINATION

FIELD EMERGENCE

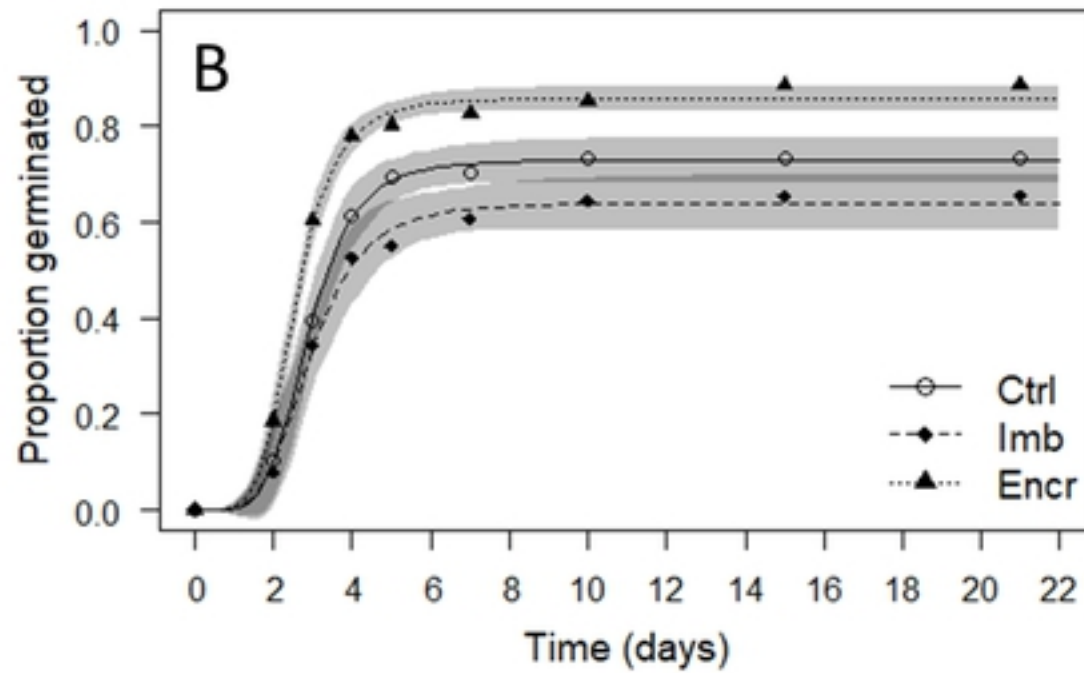
Austrostipa scabra



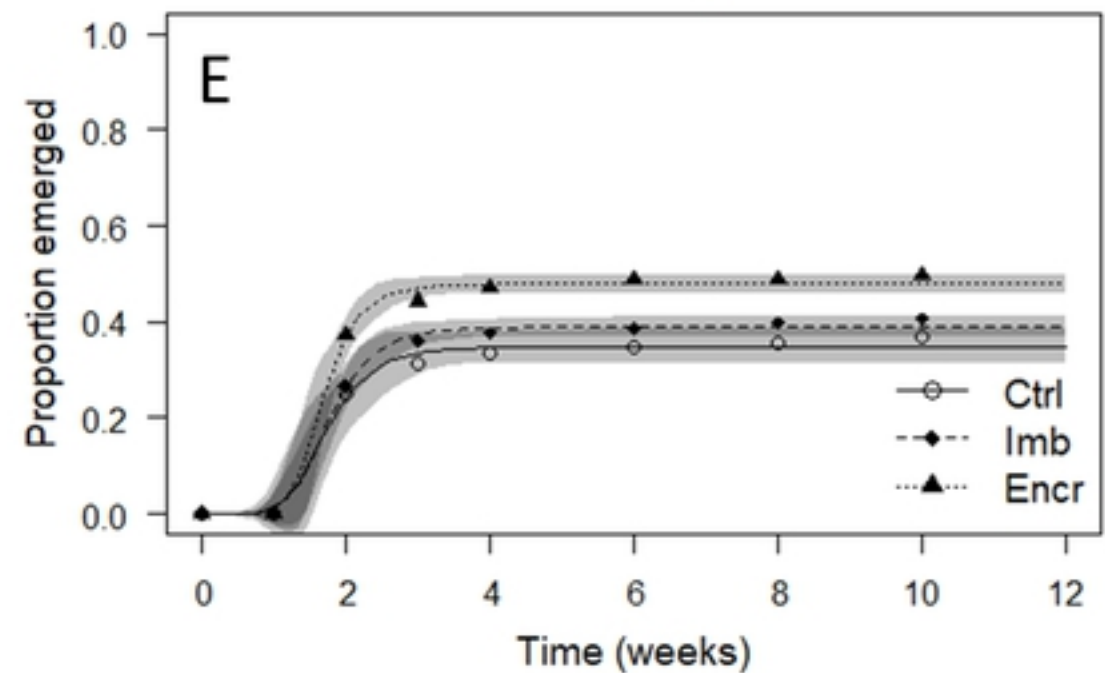
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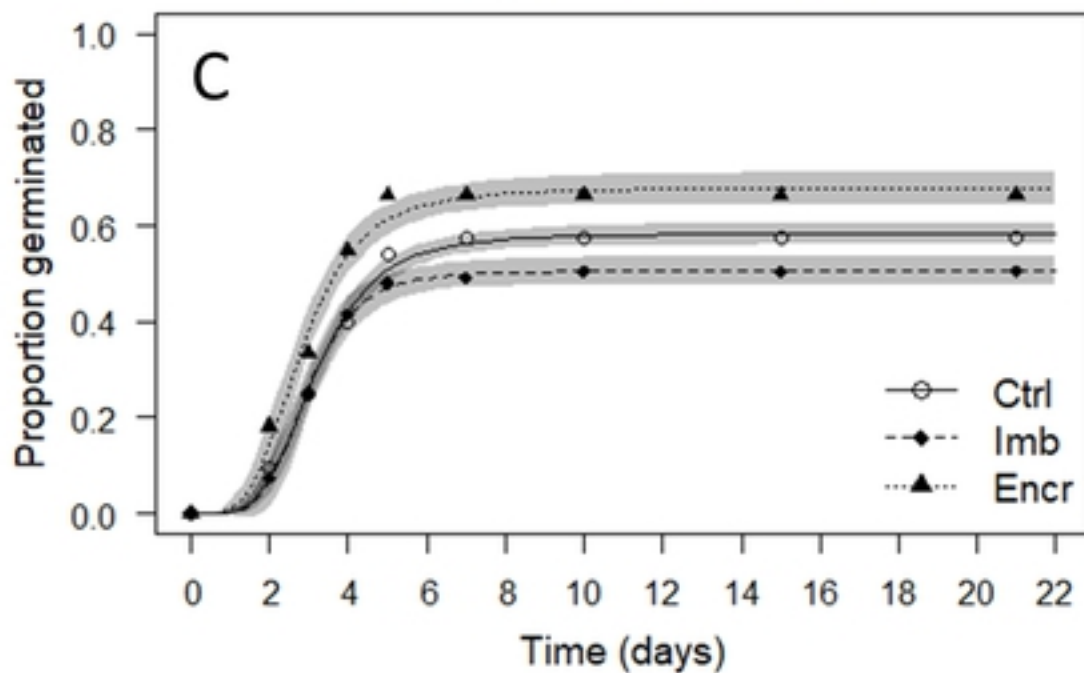
Microlaena stipoides



Microlaena stipoides



Rytidosperma geniculatum



Rytidosperma geniculatum

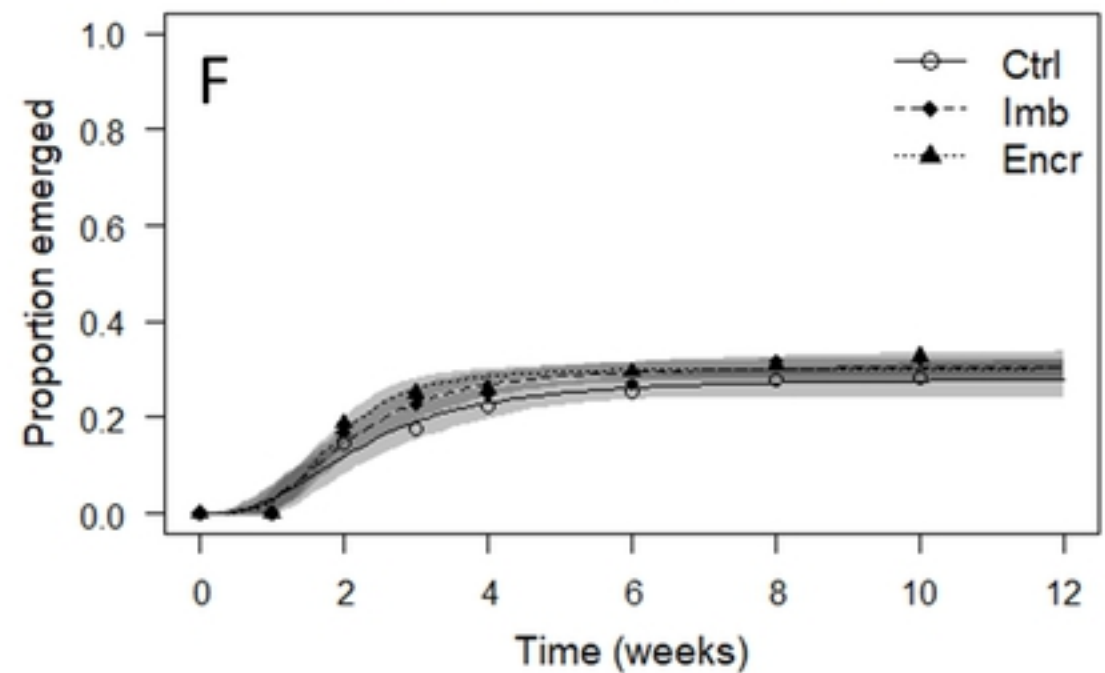


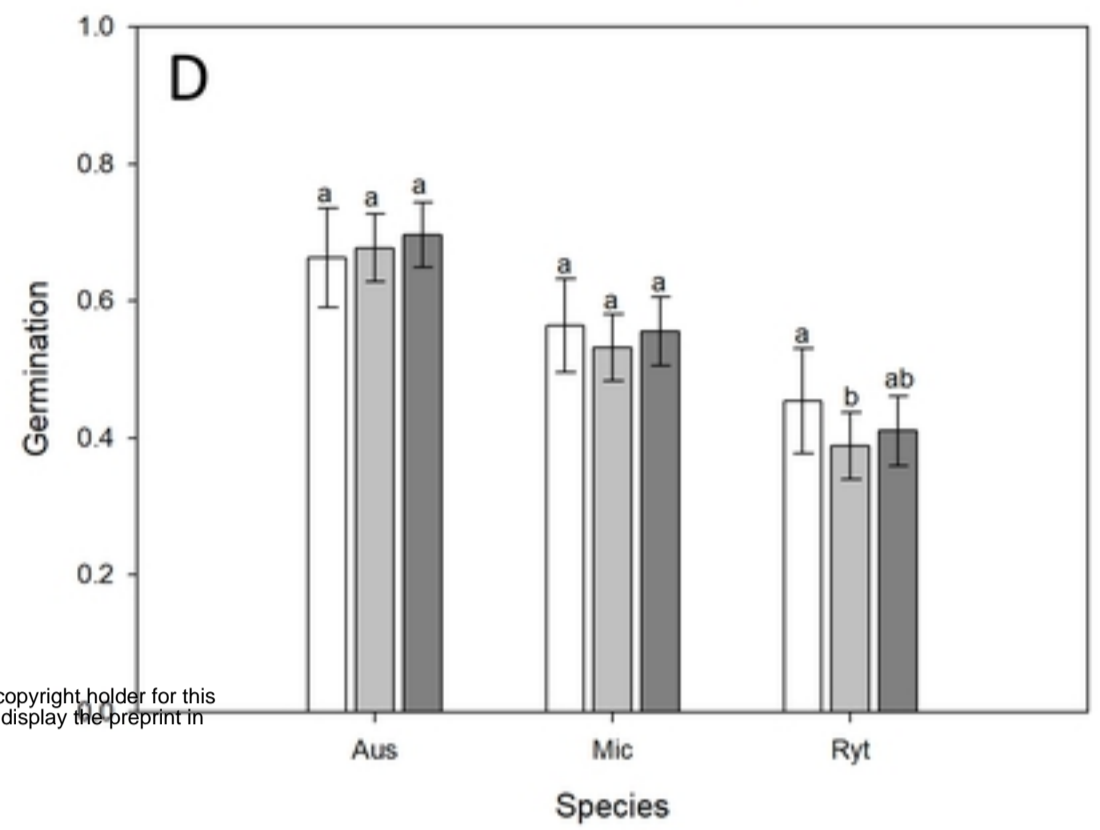
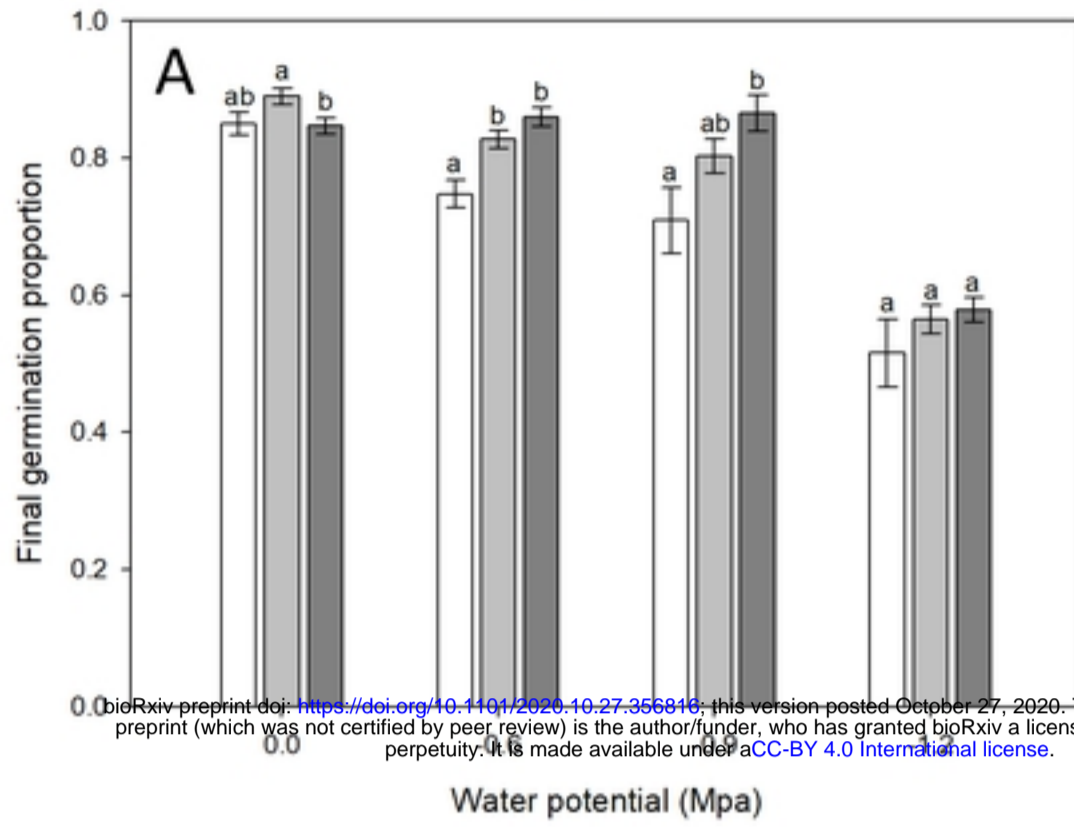
Figure 3

Lab experiment

Field experiment

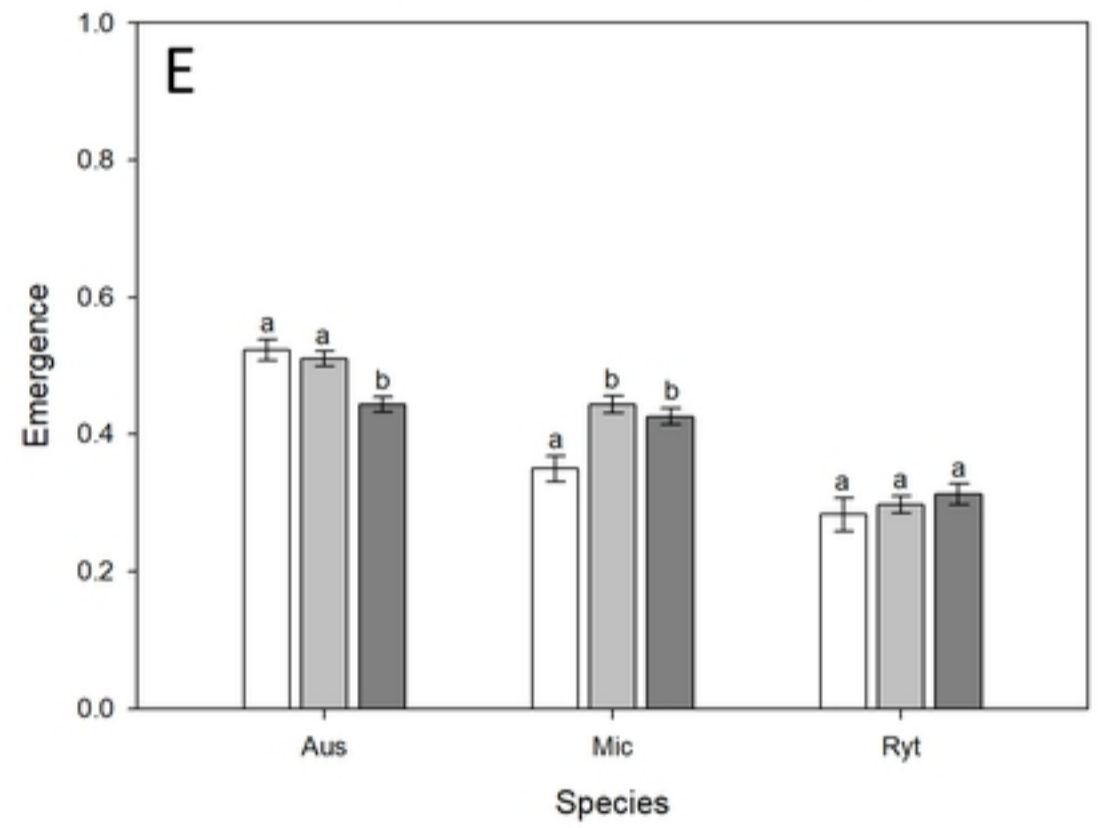
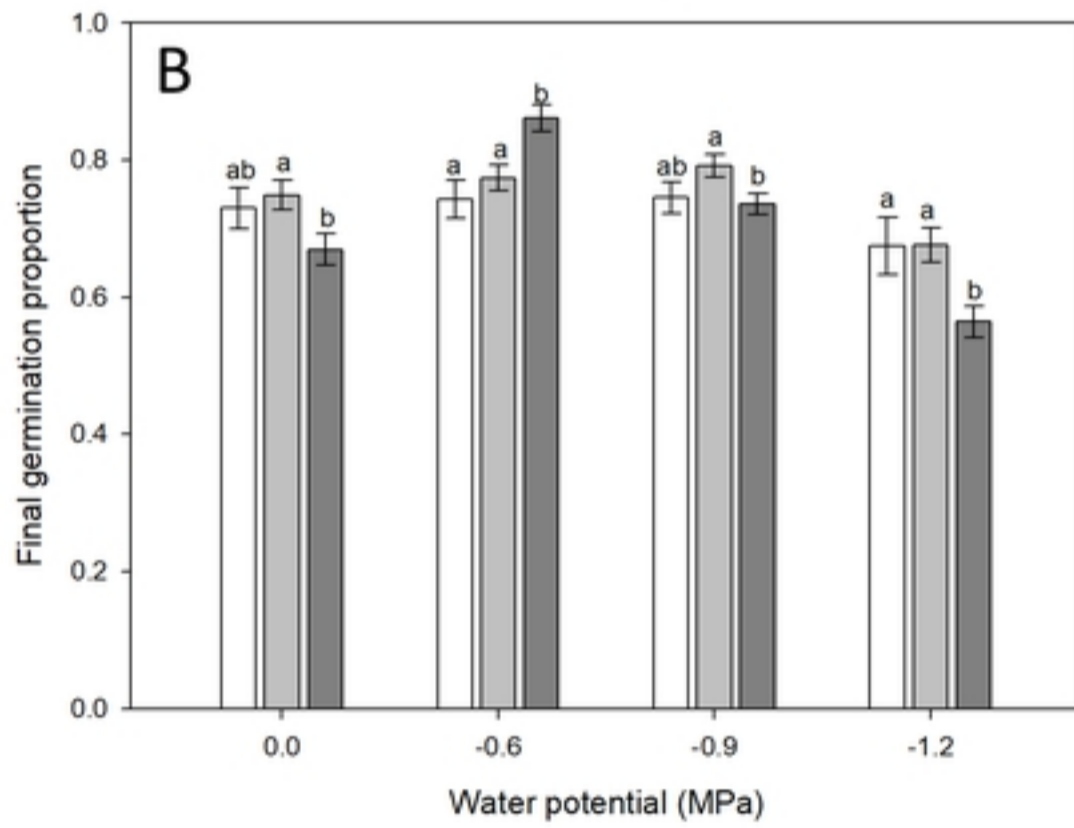
Austrastipa scabra

Germination in the field (3 weeks)



Microlaena stipoides

Emergence in the field (10 weeks)



Rytidosperma geniculatum

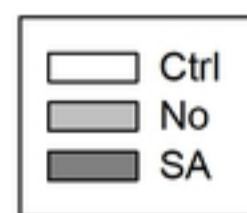
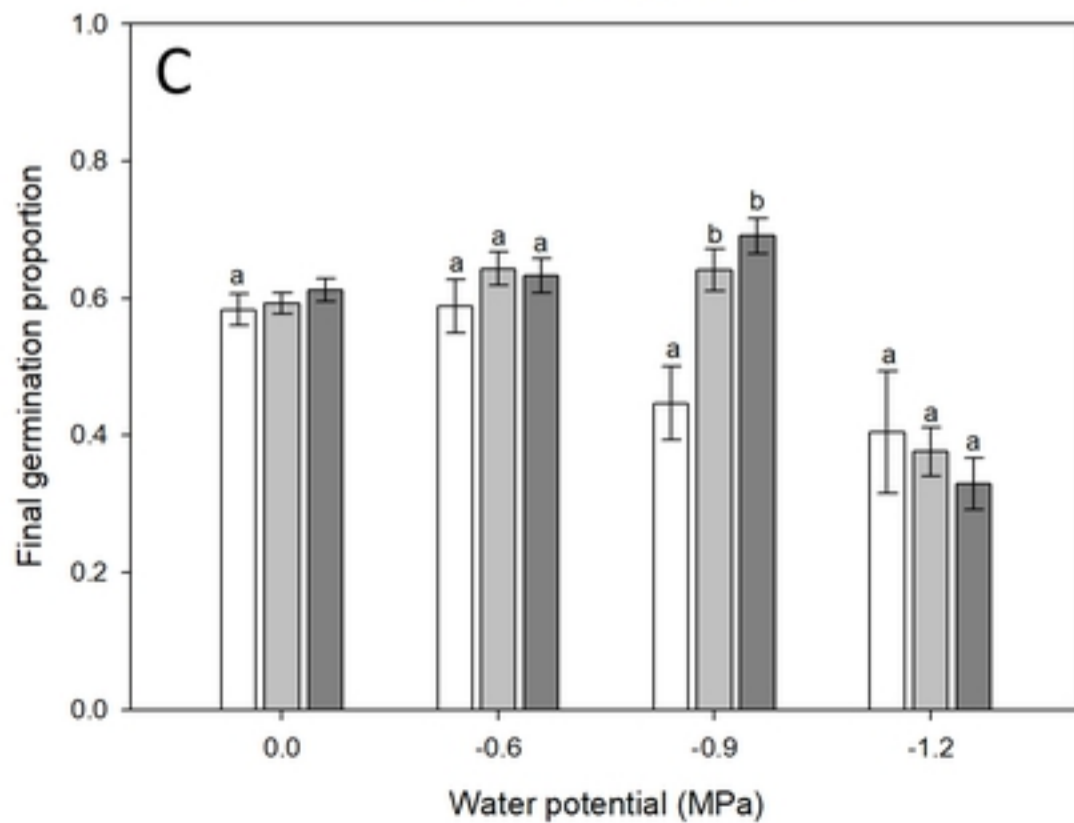


Figure 4

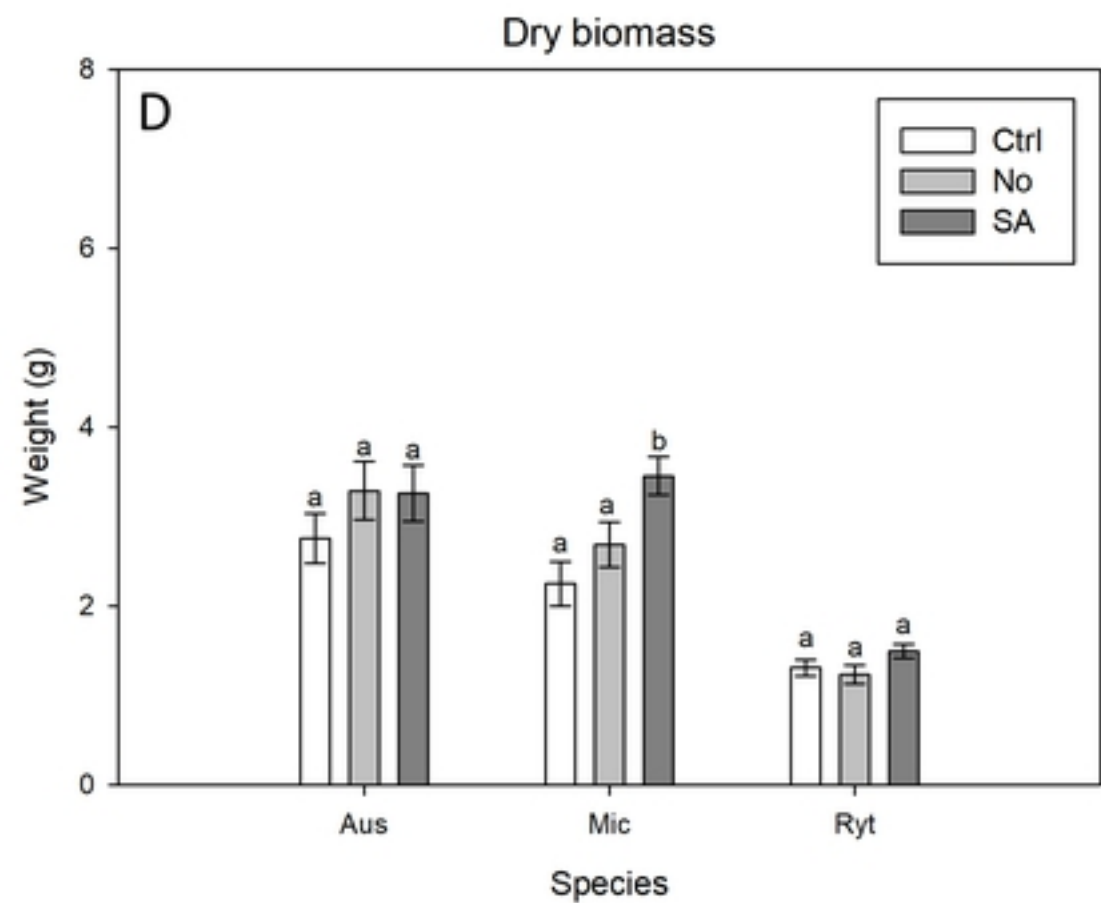
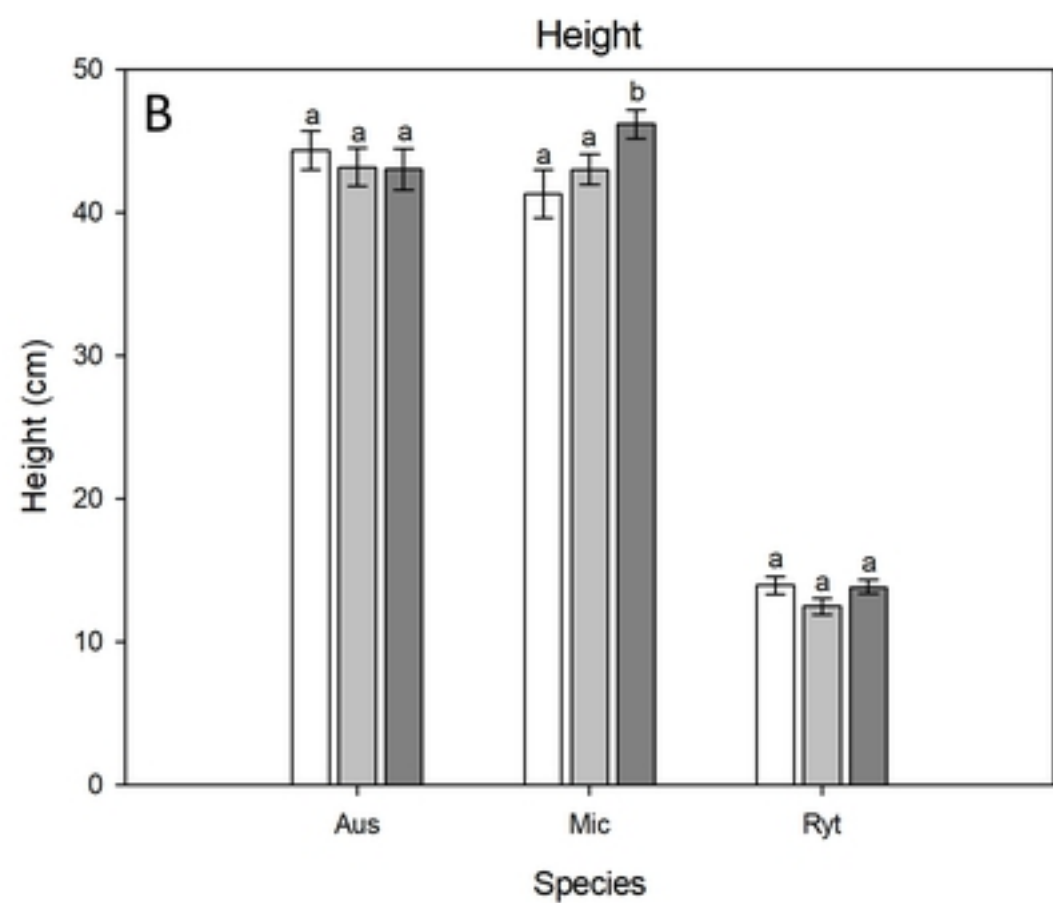
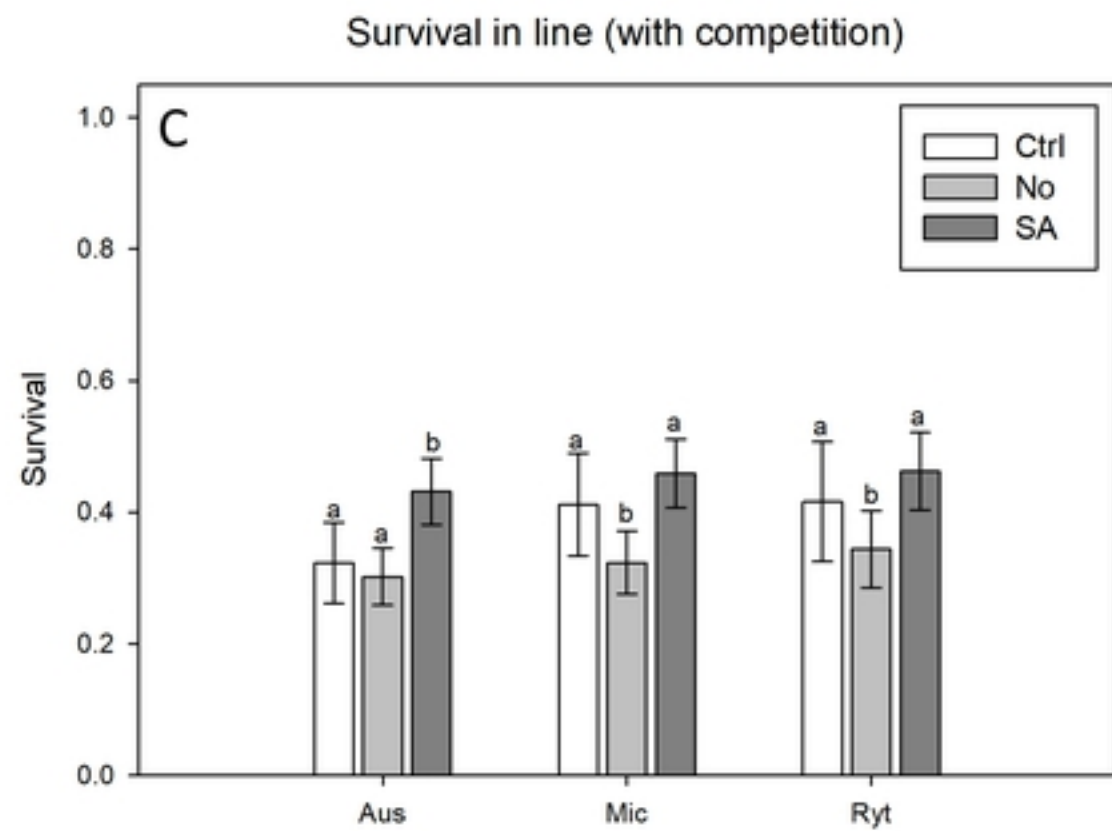
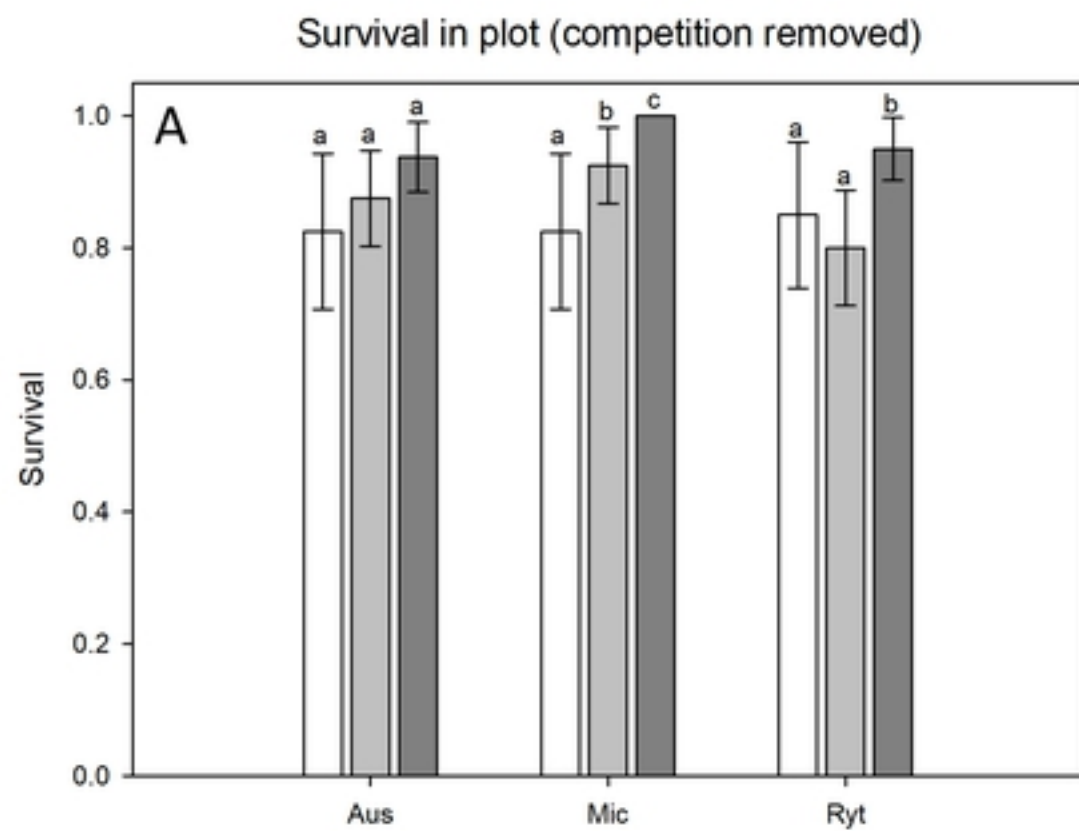


Figure 5

Cumulative survival proportion

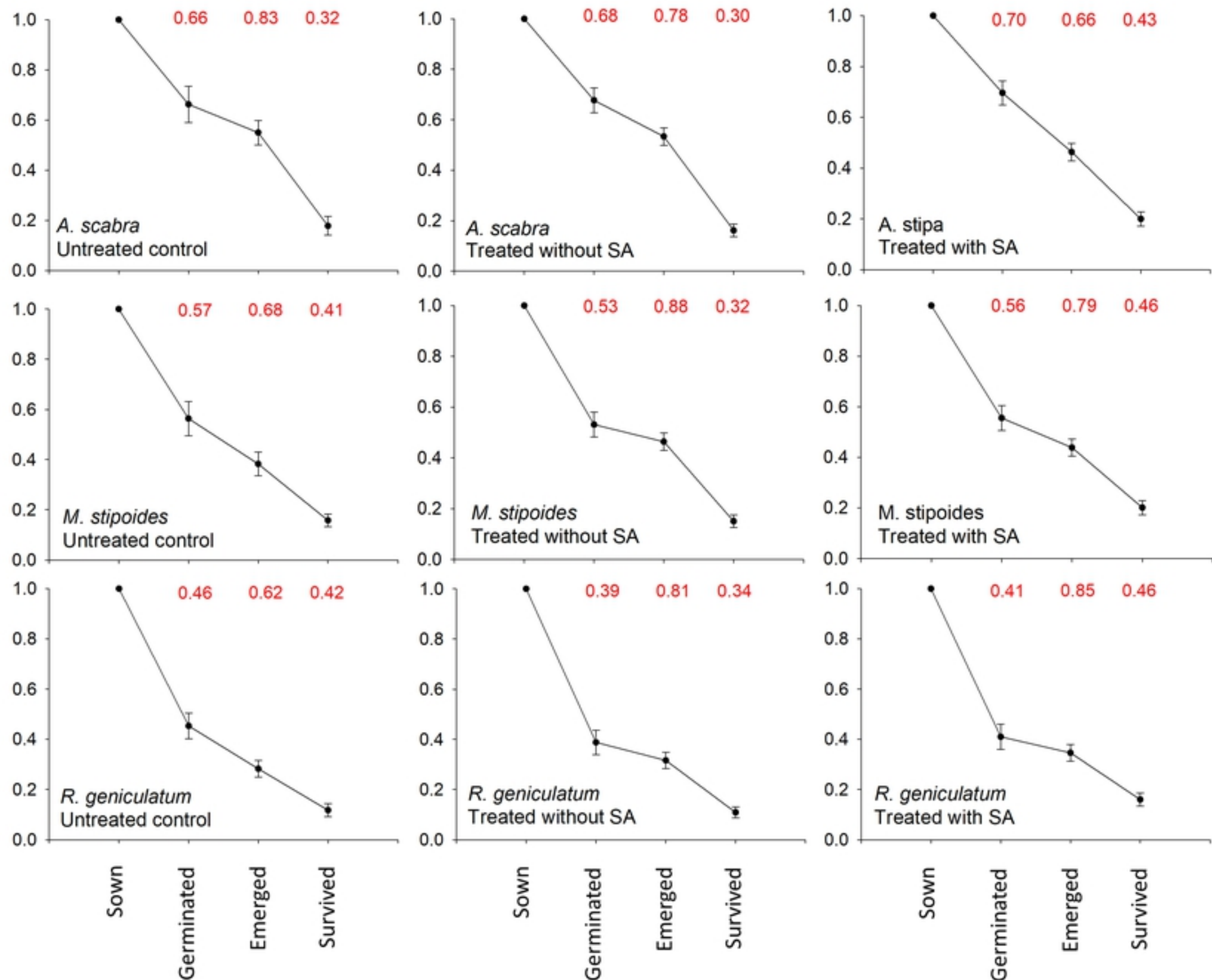


Figure 6