

1 **Growing degree day measurement of cyst germination rates in the toxic dinoflagellate**

2 *Alexandrium catenella*

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12 KEYWORDS: dinoflagellate cyst; germination rate; temperature; *Alexandrium*; degree day;

13 population comparison; oxygen exposure; cumulative distribution function; resting stage

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15 RUNNING TITLE: Dinocyst degree day-based germination rates

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24 ***Abstract***

25 Blooms of many dinoflagellates, including several harmful algal bloom (HAB) species, are  
26 seeded and revived through germination of benthic resting cysts. Temperature is a key  
27 determinant of cysts' germination rate, and temperature–germination rate relationships are  
28 therefore fundamental to understanding species' germling cell production, cyst bed persistence,  
29 and resilience to climate warming. This study measured germination by cysts of the HAB  
30 dinoflagellate *Alexandrium catenella* using a growing degree day (*DD*) approach that accounts  
31 for time and intensity of warming above a critical temperature. Time courses of germination at  
32 different temperatures were fit to lognormal cumulative distribution functions for estimation of  
33 the median days to germination. As temperature increased, germination times decreased  
34 hyperbolically. *DD* scaling collapsed variability in germination times between temperatures after  
35 cysts are oxygenated. A parallel experiment demonstrated stable temperature–rate relationships  
36 in cysts collected during different phases of seasonal temperature cycles *in situ* over three years.  
37 Selective pressure for different germination rates is suggested by *DD* scaling of results from  
38 prior *A. catenella* germination studies that show consistent differences between populations  
39 across a wide range of temperatures. The *DD* model provides an elegant approach to quantify  
40 and compare the temperature dependency of germination among populations, between species,  
41 and in response to changing environmental conditions.

42

43 ***Importance***

44 Blooms of many dinoflagellates, including several harmful algae species, are initiated by  
45 germination of resting cysts, a process whose rate is temperature dependent. This study outlines a  
46 growing degree day (*DD*) approach for comparison of rates measured at different temperatures

47 and through different studies. Germination by cysts of *Alexandrium catenella*, a species that  
48 causes paralytic shellfish poisoning, is shown to require a defined amount of warming, measured  
49 in *DD*, after cysts are aerated. Scaling by *DD*, the time integral of temperature difference from a  
50 critical threshold, enables direct comparison of rates measured at different temperatures and  
51 between populations. The approach is used widely in horticulture and is likely to have many  
52 other applications for understanding phenology in diverse aquatic microorganisms.

53

54 ***Introduction***

55 During the termination phase of many dinoflagellate blooms, new resting cysts are  
56 formed and accumulate in bottom sediments (1). Blooms are revived through cyst germination, a  
57 process that produces single diploid planomeiocytes that undergo meiosis to yield new bloom-  
58 forming haploid vegetative cells (2). The timing and extent of germination are both critical for  
59 bloom initiation by many of these cyst-forming species (3–6).

60 Several conditions must co-occur for resting cysts to germinate: cysts must be quiescent,  
61 a nondormant state in which they will germinate if environmental conditions are favorable (3, 7,  
62 8); oxygen must be present (9, 10); and temperature must be within a suitable range (11, 12). In  
63 some species, light is also needed (13). When these prerequisites are met, temperature is the  
64 primary determinant of germination rate (14, 15). Temperature–germination rate relationships  
65 are therefore fundamental to understanding cyst bed persistence because they control the rate of  
66 cyst loss to germination during periods of quiescence. These relationships are also critically  
67 important to the timing and success of new bloom initiation.

68 Cyst to cyst variability in germination rate can be measured within natural populations by  
69 synchronizing germination through aeration of quiescent cysts collected from anoxic sediment

70 (Fig. 1). The distribution of germination times (i.e., the period from a cyst's activation by oxygen  
71 exposure to production of a planomeiocyte) reflects the distribution of germination rates within a  
72 population. One common measurement method is replicate time course sampling of diluted cyst-  
73 rich natural sediments (“slurries”). Anoxic natural sediment samples containing large quantities  
74 of quiescent cysts are collected, then aerated through sediment processing and dilution. The  
75 resulting slurry is aliquoted to replicate vessels (e.g., flasks, tubes), which are incubated under  
76 controlled light and temperature conditions. Individual replicates are removed at defined time  
77 intervals and their remaining, ungerminated cysts are counted to reconstruct the germination time  
78 course (4, 10, 16) (Fig. 2a). Another method is repeated observation of single cysts. Single cysts  
79 are isolated into microwells of a tissue culture plate and each cyst is inspected for germination at  
80 regular intervals by microscopy (8, 14, 17) (Fig. 2b). Despite the common use of both slurry- and  
81 cyst isolation-based approaches, comparisons of their results from application to a single  
82 experimental population had not yet been reported when this study was begun.

83 Here, germination rates at different temperatures are measured using both the slurry and  
84 isolation approaches by cysts of *Alexandrium catenella*, a HAB species that causes paralytic  
85 shellfish poisoning (PSP), collected from the Nauset Marsh (Orleans, MA USA). The study  
86 applies growing degree days (*DD*) to characterize and compare temperature–germination rates.  
87 *DD* are a common heuristic used to predict the phenology and development of terrestrial plants  
88 and insects, zooplankton, and even finfish (18–21), and have previously been used to accurately  
89 predict the phenology of inshore *A. catenella* blooms (22) and dormancy cycling of *A. catenella*  
90 cysts (5, 8). *DD* scaling is further shown to produce strong overlap in median germination rates  
91 across several other previously-studied and widely-dispersed cyst populations, demonstrating  
92 highly similar temperature–rate relationships for this species. The analytical approach described

93 here provides a framework to characterize temperature dependence of germination as a trait that  
94 can be quantified and compared among globally-dispersed populations, potentially including the  
95 resting stages of many other organisms whose germination processes are also synchronized by  
96 release from anaerobiosis like *A. catenella* cysts.

97

98 **Methods**

99 **Cyst collections from Nauset Marsh**

100 To isolate the effect of temperature on germination rate, *A. catenella* cysts need to be  
101 both quiescent and anaerobically inhibited prior to the start of experiments. These conditions  
102 were met by collecting buried cysts and storing them in undisturbed sediment until experiments  
103 were begun. The proportion of cysts that were quiescent in each collection was assessed over the  
104 course of the rate measurement experiments and through isolation type assays as described by  
105 Fischer et al. 2018 (8).

106 All cysts were collected via sediment coring in Roberts Cove, a shallow area immediately  
107 adjacent to the southernmost of three drowned kettle holes within Nauset that host annual *A.*  
108 *catenella* blooms (23). Surficial cyst concentrations in this area are relatively high (typically  
109  $>10^3$  cysts  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  in the 0–3 cm sediment layer) due to heightened export of sexual stage cells  
110 during the termination of blooms (1). Bottom water temperature at the collection site was  
111 monitored for the duration of the study by a moored, internally-recording HOBO logger (Onset  
112 Computer Corporation; Fig. 3a). Sediment cores were capped after collection and brought to our  
113 laboratory in Woods Hole, MA in an upright orientation, shielded from light, and maintained  
114 near their in situ temperature.

115 After sediment cores were brought to the laboratory, headwater was aspirated and the  
116 cores were extruded. Cysts were collected from the sediment-water interface down to 3 cm.  
117 Because cyst concentrations within the 0–3 cm layer are generally greater subsurface (24, 25)  
118 and only a fraction of cysts from the top surface mm germinate from undisturbed sediment (25),  
119 the overwhelming majority of cysts collected for these experiments were presumed to be  
120 inhibited by anaerobiosis (10). The collected cysts were from several different year classes due  
121 to physical mixing and bioturbation processes in this environment.

122

### 123 **Germination rate measurements across different temperatures**

124 Rate measurements across temperatures were first evaluated through a large slurry  
125 experiment. In this design, the time course of germination is reconstructed from the loss of cysts  
126 observed in replicate cyst samples removed and counted at different timepoints (Fig. 2a). All  
127 cysts for the experiment were taken from a total of seven sediment cores, collected on 05 March  
128 2014. These cores provided approximately 150 cm<sup>-3</sup> of anoxic sediment, which was brought to a  
129 total volume of 1.2 L through addition of f/2 medium. The resulting slurry was homogenized and  
130 aliquoted in 10 mL volumes to 250-mL glass flasks (106 total), then diluted further through  
131 addition of 50 mL of f/2 medium and swirled to mix and aerate as described by Anderson et al.  
132 2005 (16). All manipulations were carried out inside a 4°C walk-in refrigerator to maintain the  
133 temperature observed in Nauset at the time of collection.

134 After aliquoting, a total of six flasks were immediately processed for counting to estimate  
135 the mean initial number of cysts in each of the aliquots. The remaining one hundred flasks were  
136 arrayed in sets of 20 in five different incubators set to 2, 4, 8, 10, and 12°C on a 14:10 light:dark  
137 cycle (150  $\mu$ E m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> photon flux density). These temperatures approximate the range of Nauset

138 bottom water temperatures in the winter and spring when cysts are quiescent, and therefore  
139 germinable (8) (Fig. 3). Sampling intervals varied between incubation temperatures to ensure  
140 adequate coverage of the germination time course, e.g., from 3 to 12 days at the coldest  
141 temperatures from 2 to 4 days at the warmest. At each sampling timepoint, flasks were removed  
142 from the experiment for counting. For most timepoints (~80%), flasks were removed and  
143 counted in duplicate, but occasionally only single flasks were taken to conserve samples.  
144 Remaining, uncounted slurry-filled flasks were thoroughly mixed once per week to provide  
145 comparable light exposure to all cysts.

146 The contents of slurry flasks were prepared for counting by primulin staining as  
147 described by Yamaguchi et al. 1995 (26). Cyst samples were fixed with formalin (5% v/v) at 4°C  
148 for at least 30 min, and centrifuged (3000 x g, 5 min) before formalin was exchanged with cold  
149 methanol and stored at 20°C for at least 48 h for pigment extraction. Next, samples were  
150 centrifuged (3000 x g, 5 min), then methanol exchanged with 10 mL distilled-deionized water.  
151 Samples were centrifuged again and pellets resuspended in 2 mL staining solution (2.0 mg  
152 primulin mL<sup>-1</sup> in distilled-deionized water). After staining for 1 hr at 4°C on a laboratory shaker  
153 (Barnstead Thermolyne Labquake), samples were centrifuged, decanted, and the total volume  
154 was brought to either 5 or 10 mL with distilled-deionized water – the 5 mL resuspension volume  
155 was used for flasks processed at the end of the experiment that had fewer cysts. For each flask  
156 sample, all of the cysts in a 1 mL subsample were counted under a Zeiss Imager microscope  
157 using blue light epifluorescence at 100x magnification with Zeiss filter set 09 (excitation 450–  
158 490 nm, dichroic 510 nm, emission 515 nm long pass). *A. catenella* cysts were identified by the  
159 “lime-green” fluorescence of their primulin-stain and their characteristic pill or capsule shape  
160 (55–60  $\mu$ m long and 20–25  $\mu$ m in diameter; Fig. 4). The fraction of cysts that germinated during

161 each time interval was estimated as the difference between the mean initial cysts per flask and  
162 the mean cysts per flask remaining cysts at each sampling time.

163

164 **Effect of temperature conditioning on the germination rate**

165 The question of whether differences in the recent environmental history (e.g.,  
166 temperature) might affect the observed distribution of cysts' germination rates was addressed  
167 through isolation type experiments conducted over three years during months when Nauset cyst  
168 beds were nearly fully quiescent. In these experiments, smaller samples of cysts were isolated  
169 from sediment samples and their germination monitored through weekly inspections at  
170 temperatures that were similar to those observed in situ during the same period.

171 Sediment for isolation experiments was collected in 2013, 2014, and 2015 during the first  
172 weeks of February, March, April, and May when cysts were known to be quiescent (Fig. 3b). A 5  
173 cm<sup>3</sup> subsample of anoxic surface sediment was disaggregated by sonication (Branson Sonifier  
174 250; 1 min at 40%), and then passed through a series of Nitex sieves to isolate the cyst-  
175 containing 20–80 µm size fraction (27). The resulting sample was resuspended in 0.2 µm filtered  
176 seawater for further enrichment via density gradient centrifugation using a method described by  
177 Schwinghamer et al. 1991 (28). *A. catenella* cyst densities range from approximately 1.15 to 1.30  
178 g cm<sup>-3</sup> so a heavy cushion solution was prepared from colloidal silica (Nalco 1060, Nalco  
179 Chemical Co., Chicago, IL) and combined with sucrose to achieve a final density of 1.40 g cm<sup>-3</sup>.  
180 Cyst suspensions were underlaid with the colloidal silica suspension then centrifuged 1600 x g  
181 for 15 min at room temperature. Cysts were collected from the cushion/sediment suspension  
182 interface by pipette, then washed over a 20 µm Nitex sieve with 0.2 µm filtered seawater. Sieve  
183 contents were backwashed into a 15 mL centrifuge tube and 1 mL aliquots were pipetted into a

184 Sedgewick-Rafter counting chamber from which cysts could be easily identified under a Zeiss  
185 Axioskop upright microscope at 100x magnification.

186 For each monthly germination assay, clutches of approximately 30 cysts with a healthy  
187 appearance (starch granules present, visible red eyespot, golden to brown coloration; Fig. 4a–c)  
188 were transferred by micropipette to individual wells of 96-well tissue culture plates and  
189 incubated at two temperatures: the approximate in situ bottom water temperature at the time of  
190 collection (2–12°C) and 15°C, an optimum control temperature at which most cysts will  
191 germinate within one week if viable and quiescent (Fig. 3) (8). In 2013–2014, the incubators  
192 used in April and May were discovered to be warmer than their nominal set points – ~9°C  
193 instead of 7°C, and ~12°C instead of 11°C – but this was resolved by 2015. Our analysis was  
194 adjusted to reflect the true temperature experienced by cysts during the respective incubations.

195 Microwell plates were preloaded with 200  $\mu$ L of modified f/2-Si medium and plates were  
196 sealed after cyst isolation to limit evaporative loss of media (29). In all incubations, cysts  
197 experienced a 14:10 light:dark cycle (150  $\mu$ E  $m^{-2}$   $s^{-1}$  photon flux density). Individual cysts were  
198 inspected for germination on a weekly basis under 100x magnification and scored as having  
199 germinated based on the presence of vegetative *A. catenella* cells or an empty cyst cell wall. As  
200 with the slurry experiment, the isolation experiment was terminated once no new germination  
201 had been observed for 2 consecutive weeks and a minimum of 4 weeks had elapsed. A small  
202 number of ungerminated cysts remained in the microwell plate at the termination of all isolation  
203 experiments. In comparison to the healthy appearances of cysts at the start of experiments, these  
204 remaining ungerminated cysts had unhealthy appearances (Fig. 4), and were therefore  
205 determined to have died. “Unhealthy” visual cues included blebbing, blackened coloration, and  
206 eyespots that were difficult to distinguish. Germinated cysts were divided by the total isolated

207 cysts to calculate the maximum cumulative germination,  $G_{\max}$ , for each experiment. Results were  
208 compared to cumulative germination observed in the subset of slurry incubations in which no  
209 new germination was observed over at least the last two weeks of their incubation (temperatures  
210  $>2^{\circ}\text{C}$ ).

211

## 212 **Fitting germination time course curves**

213 In analyzing germination time course data, it is important to consider sources of  
214 measurement uncertainty. For the slurry approach, data take the form of counts and observational  
215 units (cyst samples/timepoints) are independent (Fig. 2a). In the isolation approach, the same  
216 cyst is repeatedly inspected at successive times, producing “time-to-event” type data that are  
217 commonly considered in survival analyses (Fig. 2b). In both approaches, the exact germination  
218 time of an individual cyst is not observed or recorded but instead occurs at some time prior to a  
219 final observation timepoint. Isolation experiments better constrain individual cyst germination  
220 times but exact intervals are only known to be sometime between an experiment’s final and  
221 penultimate observations (i.e., interval-censored data).

222 Cumulative germination by slurry and isolation samples is sigmoidal with time and were  
223 fit to several, common cumulative distribution functions (CDFs). Maximum likelihood  
224 estimation was used to fit Nauset time course data to several probability distribution models  
225 including gamma, loglogistic, lognormal, and Weibull distributions. Of these, lognormal  
226 distributions best described cumulative germination data and were used to interpolate median  
227 germination times where required for subsequent analyses.

228 For the slurry dataset, cumulative germination proportions at each timepoint were  
229 determined by dividing the remaining number of cysts by their initial number. For each

230 experiment, cumulative germination was fit to a lognormal distribution using maximum  
231 likelihood estimation of the median with the nonlinear solver function *fminsearch* in MATLAB  
232 (MathWorks, Natick, MA).

233 Because cyst isolation data are interval censored, a slightly different maximum likelihood  
234 model was applied that accounted for both minimum and maximum estimates of each cysts' time  
235 to germination (30). Ideally, the status of each cyst at each timepoint would have been tracked  
236 with regard to four possible outcomes: viable-germinated, viable-ungerminated-quiescent,  
237 viable-ungerminated-dormant, or dead-ungerminated. However, cyst death was only recorded at  
238 the end of experiments, in part because the timing of cyst death is unclear. Visual cues of  
239 unhealthiness may develop some unknown time before or after a cyst expires (Fig. 4d). In other  
240 cases, no visual cue may be present that allows differentiation of viable, dormant cysts from  
241 those that have died. Some fraction of cysts collected from environmental samples inevitably  
242 expire due to their handling. We noted substantially higher cumulative germination in slurry  
243 experiments than in isolation experiments undertaken with material from the same set of  
244 sediment cores (05 March 2014) and consistently lower cumulative germination in isolation  
245 experiments overall. Based on these observations, we concluded that processing steps unique to  
246 the isolation experiment (e.g., sonication) likely injured a portion of the cysts. For this reason,  
247 cysts that had not germinated at the end of isolation trials were assumed to be dead and were  
248 discounted in estimates of cumulative germination. Censored data were then fit to a lognormal  
249 CDF distribution based on maximum likelihood with the *lognfitc* function in MATLAB (31).

250

251 **Degree day-scaling of the temperature–germination rate relationship**

252 As expected, warmer incubation temperatures drove faster germination. This was  
253 quantified by the median germination time or  $t_{50}$ , which was estimated from lognormal fits of the  
254 respective temperature incubations. Because the relationship between temperature and  $t_{50}$  was  
255 hyperbolic, scaling by  $DD$  was explored as a means to compare experiments performed at  
256 different incubation temperatures.

257 For each experimental timepoint,  $DD$  were calculated as the integral over time ( $t$ ) of  
258 temperature above a threshold ( $T_{crit}$ ):

$$DD(t) = \sum_{i=t_0}^t (T_i - T_{crit})\Delta t$$

259 Eq. 1

260 where  $t_0$  is the starting time of the experiment,  $T_i$  is the daily temperature, and  $T_{crit}$  is the lower  
261 critical temperature below which germination does not occur. For each independent temperature  
262 experiment, the median degree days to germination ( $DD_{50}$ ) was considered the most  
263 representative measure of a cyst cohort's central tendency and was calculated as:

264

$$DD_{50} = (T_i - T_{crit})t_{50} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

266

267 Because the lower physiological limit below which germination does not occur was unknown for  
268 the Nauset *A. catenella* cyst population, we explored  $T_{crit}$  values between -1 and 1°C. Values near  
269 0°C minimized variance in  $DD_{50}$  across all temperatures tested in both slurry and isolation  
270 experiments. This temperature was therefore used for  $T_{crit}$  in all  $DD$  estimates from experiments  
271 conducted through this study.

272

273 **Preliminary application of *DD* scaling to other populations**

274 As an initial assessment of whether *DD* scaling could be used to quantify temperature–  
275 germination rate relationship in other *A. catenella* populations, the same mathematical approach  
276 was applied to the previously-published slurry experiments of Anderson et al. 2005 and Moore et  
277 al. 2015. The former study assessed germination rates at temperatures between 2 and 15°C by  
278 cyst from the open coastal regions of the western and eastern Gulf of Maine (GOM) (16), and the  
279 latter at temperatures between 10 and 20°C by cysts from Bellingham Bay (Puget Sound, WA)  
280 (4). *DD* were calculated using  $T_{\text{crit}}$  of 0°C and results were fit to lognormal CDF distributions just  
281 as for Nauset to estimate  $t_{50}$  and  $DD_{50}$  values for the GOM and Puget Sound populations.

282

283 **Results**

284 **Slurry-based assessment of temperature-germination rate relationship**

285 Across all slurry experiments, germination rates increased with temperature through the  
286 full range tested (2, 4, 8, 10, 12°C). This was most evident through comparisons of cumulative  
287 germination at early timepoints (Fig. 5a). For example, within the initial 8 days, cysts incubated  
288 at 8°C attained 15% cumulative germination, whereas cysts incubated at 12°C attained 87%  
289 cumulative germination. There was also an initial lag, or time delay, before cysts began to  
290 germinate that scaled with temperature; i.e., there was a shorter lag at warmer temperatures and a  
291 longer lag at colder temperatures. For all temperature experiments, cysts had a mean  $G_{\text{max}}$  of  
292 99% ( $SD = 0.6$ ), demonstrating that essentially all cysts collected in March 2014 were viable and  
293 quiescent.

294 Fits of cumulative germination curves to lognormal CDFs accurately predicted  
295 cumulative germination of all but the fastest cysts that germinated during the initial lag phase,

296 which tended to be underestimated (Fig. 5). Curves were better defined in the lower temperature  
297 experiments than at higher ones due to a larger number of observations at intermediate levels of  
298 cumulative germination. For example, in the 2°C experiment, 9 timepoints recorded less than  
299 90% cumulative germination, but in the 12°C experiment, only 2 timepoints were less than the  
300 90% threshold. Median germination times ( $t_{50}$ ) estimated from all fits were hyperbolically related  
301 to incubation temperature with values ranging from 6 days at 12°C to 44 days at 2°C (Fig. 6).

302 Differences in procession toward complete germination collapse after  $DD$  scaling (Fig.  
303 5b) with remarkably low variance among  $DD_{50}$  estimates across individual temperature  
304 experiments (mean  $\pm$  SD,  $77 \pm 8$  DD). Similarly, lognormal fitting of all  $DD$ -scaled data  
305 produced a  $DD_{50}$  estimate of 78 DD. Analyses of residuals of the  $DD$ -scaled data to the  
306 respective lognormal distributions (individual and combined) also showed strong agreement with  
307 the lognormal CDF model, except at the lowest levels of cumulative germination where models  
308 tended to underestimate observed cumulative germination levels.

309

### 310 **Assessment of temperature–germination rate dependence on in situ conditioning**

311 Isolation experiments measured germination rates of cysts collected from Nauset over  
312 three years during months when they were typically quiescent (February–May, 2013–2015) to  
313 assess whether recent environmental history might affect observed distributions of germination  
314 rates. Much like slurry experiments, time to germination was inversely proportional to  
315 temperature but the maximum levels of cumulative germination were notably lower overall  
316 (mean  $G_{\max} \pm$  SD,  $76 \pm 9\%$ ). As further comparison, the isolation experiment conducted with the  
317 same March 2014 sediment as the slurry experiments only reached a  $G_{\max}$  of 62%. Cysts that did  
318 not germinate during isolation experiments frequently turned black, displayed blebbing, and/or

319 produced green autofluorescence at the end of experiments, all of which are morphological  
320 indicators of cyst death (Fig. 4d). Effects of the year and month of a cyst cohort on their  $G_{\max}$   
321 were tested through application of a Pearson chi-squared test to data from 15°C control  
322 incubations. Neither differences between years ( $X^2 = 24, n = 12, p = .35$ ) nor months ( $X^2 = 36, n$   
323 = 12,  $p = .33$ ) were significant and therefore all monthly cyst collections were considered to have  
324 equivalent viabilities.

325 No effects from different months or years of cyst collection were apparent after  $DD$   
326 scaling of isolation experiment results. Estimates of cumulative germination generally  
327 overlapped those from the slurry-based temperature experiments (Fig. 7) and the  $DD_{50}$  from  
328 fitting to a single lognormal CDF distribution was 77 DD ( $SD = 19$ ), essentially identical to  
329 estimates derived from slurry experiment data (Fig. 5). Given this consistency between slurry  
330 and isolation time courses, it was concluded that distributions in germination rates were  
331 insensitive to seasonally changing environmental conditions experienced in Nauset.

332 Likewise, slurry-derived germination times from Puget Sound and the eastern and  
333 western GOM were highly similar to those from Nauset after  $DD$  scaling. In each case,  
334 germination time courses were well approximated using lognormal CDF functions, and derived  
335  $t_{50}$  values were hyperbolically related to incubation temperatures (Fig. 6). From application of a  
336 common  $T_{\text{crit}}$  of 0°C, Puget Sound cysts appeared to require the fewest  $DD$  to germinate,  
337 followed by Nauset, western GOM, and eastern GOM cysts.

338

### 339 ***Discussion***

340 This study successfully demonstrated a  $DD$ -based analytical approach for comparison of  
341 germination rates by *A. catenella* cysts measured at different temperatures and using different

342 experimental approaches. Differences between respective temperature incubations were  
343 eliminated after *DD* scaling, revealing a highly-consistent distribution of germination times  
344 among natural *A. catenella* cysts from Nauset throughout quiescent periods and over multiple  
345 years (Figs. 5 & 7). Likewise, *DD* scaling collapsed variability in cyst germination times from  
346 previously published studies of populations from Puget Sound and the Gulf of Maine (Fig. 6).  
347 Consistent differences between the Nauset Marsh, Puget Sound, and GOM populations show  
348 how *DD* frameworks may facilitate comparison of different populations, studies, and perhaps  
349 even different species. The results further show how *DD* relationships can improve  
350 characterization of germination processes for better understanding the timing and magnitude of  
351 germination fluxes across different cyst habitats and in response to changing ocean bottom  
352 conditions.

353

#### 354 **Stability of germination rates in a natural population**

355 The strong similarity of germination rates measured from quiescent *A. catenella* cysts  
356 sampled from Nauset in different months and years indicates that the rate distribution is a fixed  
357 characteristic of the population that does not respond to conditioning *in situ* (Figs. 5 & 7). Cysts  
358 measured through isolation experiments were different mixtures of year classes, experiencing  
359 different conditions at the time of their formation, and different temperature histories leading up  
360 to their collection for isolation experiments. Yet, the distribution of germination rates, once  
361 scaled by *DD*, appears to have barely been impacted (if at all).

362 Also noteworthy is the strong similarity of estimates from the slurry- and isolation-based  
363 methods (Fig. 7). To our knowledge, this is the first study that has directly compared slurry- and  
364 isolation-based approaches for measuring germination rates in a microbial eukaryote. The slurry

365 design has several practical advantages relative to the isolation approach. These include the  
366 ability to more easily record germination at high frequency and to maintain consistent incubation  
367 temperatures through the duration of an experiment. In contrast, isolation-based measurements  
368 require repeated inspections of individual cysts which involves removal from incubators for  
369 observation in many laboratories. These inspections can drive deviations from nominal  
370 incubation temperatures, a significant concern especially for the coldest incubations which can  
371 extend for several months.

372 This type of temperature stress may have contributed to observed differences in  
373 maximum cumulative germination observed between slurry and isolation experiments. Other  
374 notable differences between these approaches include sonication, density gradient enrichment,  
375 and micropipette manipulation of individual cysts. Prior applications of isolation type methods to  
376 cysts from coastal GOM beds have yielded cumulative maximum germination levels exceeding  
377 90% (7, 32), but these samples generally consist of much finer sediment than is present in Nauset  
378 (33). Higher fractions of coarse sand grains in Nauset cores may have injured cysts during the  
379 initial sonication step of the isolation procedure, leading to reductions in their viability relative to  
380 slurry experiments (mean  $G_{\max} \pm \text{SD}$ , slurry =  $99 \pm 0.6\%$ , isolation =  $76 \pm 9\%$ ). The significantly  
381 greater mortality in isolation experiments precluded a rigorous statistical comparison of the two  
382 methods, but they still produced nearly equivalent estimates of median germination time (77 and  
383 78 DD for isolation and slurry approaches, respectively; Fig. 7). Future experiments applying  
384 repeated measures designs (like the isolation approach) should take care to document the timing  
385 and extent of cyst death through the full course of incubations or take steps to eliminate viability  
386 differences between methods because these have the potential to bias estimates of cumulative  
387 processes like germination (30). Limited divergence between the two methods was apparent only

388 among the fastest germinating fraction of cysts. Specifically, a higher proportion germinated in  
389 the earliest stages of slurry experiments than was observed in the isolation experiments (Figs. 5  
390 & 7).

391 Prior studies have observed sigmoid-type (S-shaped) time course patterns of cumulative  
392 germination in other *A. catenella* cyst populations (4, 10, 14, 16) and in many terrestrial plant  
393 seeds (34). Past *A. catenella* studies pointed out the initial lag in germination (visible in the first  
394 part of the time course curve) and attributed its presence to a cyst acclimation period associated  
395 with rapid changes in temperature or storage conditions (4, 16). It is clear from the present study  
396 that the initial lag simply reflects the combined effects of germination being initiated through  
397 oxygenation and the variance of rates within a population. The initial lag shape is produced  
398 because only the fastest cysts germinate at the start of an experiment, as they require the fewest  
399 *DD* to germinate. *DD* scaling also enables consideration of the complete set of recorded  
400 germination times to extract estimates of mean or median germination rates. This is in contrast to  
401 past studies that extracted linear segments of cumulative germination time courses (4, 16) or fit  
402 first-order exponential functions (10, 14) to estimate rates at different temperatures.

403 The current study fits lognormal CDFs to time course data to estimate median  
404 germination times, but the *DD* framework also enables explicit description of the distribution of  
405 germination rates found in natural populations of cysts. Accounting for the full range of  
406 germination responses, from the fastest to the slowest cysts, can inform future studies that aim to  
407 quantify the *in situ* germling flux and the potential resilience of cyst populations faced with  
408 rapidly-changing ocean bottom water conditions. Future work will be aimed at more rigorously  
409 fitting slurry data for pairwise statistical comparisons and for more accurate estimation of the full  
410 distribution of germination rates in different populations. The latter enables direct estimation of

411 mean germination times expressed in *DD*, which is a more typical summary statistic for  
412 investigations of cyst bed behavior across a range of bottom water temperatures.

413

414 **Initial population comparisons**

415 Blooms of *A. catenella* occur in a variety of habitats ranging from temperate to the  
416 Arctic, and from estuarine embayments to open coastal waters, so temperature–germination rate  
417 relationship comparisons across populations can have broad implications for species ecology and  
418 biogeography. These comparisons may also provide insights into how different populations will  
419 respond to a changing climate. Germination rate differences within and between populations can  
420 underlie a population’s ability to adapt and/or acclimate. However, at the time of this study, an  
421 approach to quantitatively compare cyst germination rates of different dinoflagellate populations  
422 did not exist, thus the framework provided by this study represents an important step forward.

423 The stability of germination rate distributions observed across experiments with Nauset  
424 *A. catenella* cysts suggests that the distribution of this trait is shaped by environmental selection  
425 on populations. In habitats that have periods of favorable conditions typically associated with  
426 highly seasonal temperature shifts, such as a warmer spring following a cold winter, selection  
427 may favor slower germination as this could ensure that germlings emerge when conditions are  
428 more consistently favorable for bloom development. Thus, cysts would respond more slowly to  
429 short, unseasonable fluctuations in temperature, such as an anomalous warm spell during winter.  
430 Alternatively, in habitats with less seasonality that have shorter or irregular windows of  
431 favorable conditions for bloom development, selection may favor rapid germination, as this  
432 would enable cysts to respond quickly to ephemeral conditions.

433            *DD* scaling of germination time course data from other populations also demonstrates  
434            how this analytical approach may be used to compare results from different laboratories and  
435            choices of incubation temperature. The selected germination studies by Anderson et al. 2005 and  
436            Moore et al. 2015 were conducted over a decade apart, targeted different *A. catenella*  
437            populations, and investigated different incubation temperatures (4, 16). Cumulative germination  
438            by all of these populations and at all temperatures was well described by lognormal CDFs.  
439            Estimates of  $t_{50}$  were also hyperbolically related to incubation temperature (Fig. 6), such that  
440            Puget Sound cysts appear to require the fewest *DD* to germinate, followed by Nauset and then  
441            GOM cysts. Faster germination of Puget Sound cysts may reflect the relatively modest  
442            temperature seasonality of this system compared to Nauset and GOM. Habitats with weaker  
443            seasonality do not synchronize dormancy cycles to the same extent (5) and are associated with a  
444            long season of PSP risk (i.e., potential for blooms) (35).

445            It remains to be shown if germination differences are statistically significant, and if so,  
446            how differences in germination rates reflect differences in physical, chemical, or biological  
447            conditions across these and other globally-distributed *A. catenella* habitats. Nauset and Puget  
448            Sound are both relatively shallow, inshore habitats where benthic cyst beds experience direct  
449            environmental signals associated with the onset of conditions supporting bloom development. In  
450            contrast, GOM cyst beds are located in open coastal waters at depths that isolate them from  
451            conditions in overlying euphotic waters (14). Germling fluxes from each of these cyst beds are  
452            critical for initiation of new blooms, and bloom timing and duration vary in ways that suggest  
453            linkage to cyst bed activity (5, 6).

454            In many regions, warming ocean waters are increasingly impacting bottom water  
455            temperatures that can drive dramatic changes in germling production from cyst beds (36).

456 Therefore, several important questions that remain to be addressed include: (1) How may faster  
457 germination convey advantages in one habitat but not another? (2) Which mechanisms drive  
458 selection for germination rates in different habitats and over what time scale can populations  
459 shift in the face of rapidly-changing coastal conditions? and (3) How and to what extent do  
460 populations retain diversity and variance among cysts with respect to their germination rates? To  
461 effectively connect populations' germination physiology to biogeography, future work is needed  
462 to quantify population variance, to determine an approach to derive a population's  $T_{crit}$  value for  
463 *DD* calculations, and to develop statistical approaches to compare derived parameters.

464

#### 465 **Synchronization reveals degree day relationships**

466 Synchronization through aeration of cysts was key to revealing the distribution of times  
467 required for individual cysts to germinate. Typical precautions were taken throughout sample  
468 collections for this study to prevent oxygen exposure prior to all cyst incubations. These included  
469 transport of cysts from the field in sediment cores and removal of any material that may have  
470 been exposed to air before creation of sediment slurries or isolation of cysts to microwell plates.  
471 Because cysts only start the germination process after exposure to air, these precautions ensured  
472 that initiation of germination was synchronized.

473 Inhibition of germination by anaerobiosis is by no means unique to *A. catenella* cysts.  
474 Diverse microbes and even aquatic animals produce similar resting stages and in many cases  
475 their germination or hatching requires oxygen. These include many species of dinoflagellates (9,  
476 10), diatoms (37), cyanobacteria (38), and zooplankton (39, 40). For those species that are  
477 activated through oxygen exposure, a similar experimental approach may synchronize natural  
478 samples and enable recording of germination or hatching response time distributions.

479        Many but not all species also experience dormancy, a physiological state that inhibits  
480    germination even when conditions are otherwise favorable. Synchronization of *A. catenella* cyst  
481    dormancy cycles revealed that the passage from quiescence into dormancy is well described by  
482    *DD* (5). Similarly, passage from dormancy into quiescence follows a comparable, chilling-unit  
483    relationship (8). When cysts experience annual cycles of seasonal temperatures, intervals of  
484    dormancy and quiescence are increasingly phased such that inshore regions that experience the  
485    largest differences between peak summertime and minimum wintertime temperatures, like  
486    Nauset, are essentially synchronized (5). Seasonally-induced synchronization of the Nauset cyst  
487    population also enables *DD*-based prediction of bloom phenology in the Nauset system (22).  
488    Future experiments investigating the applicability of *DD* to physiological processes and  
489    phenology of other species should consider population synchronicity in their design and analysis.  
490    *DD*-type relationships will be obscured in processes that are not gated or otherwise synchronized  
491    in some way. Likewise, dormancy (in species where it occurs) may obscure or prevent  
492    measurements of germination time or other processes.

493

#### 494    **Application for estimating in situ germling flux**

495        Germination is one of several temperature- and season-influenced processes that drive  
496    germling cell production from cyst beds. Other important processes include microbial  
497    respiration, sediment mixing, resuspension, and bioturbation, all of which control the exposure of  
498    buried cysts to oxygen and therefore the initiation of germination. Microbial respiration can be  
499    described by *DD* relationships in some systems (41), and increases in response to seasonal  
500    detrital inputs (42). Mixing processes, such as bioturbation and resuspension (by waves and  
501    currents), influences the vertical distribution of cysts within sediment and the tortuosity of paths

502 that germling cells must navigate to reach the water column (6, 33). Accurate estimation of  
503 fluxes must consider each of these processes and is therefore complex (43). Dinoflagellate  
504 germling fluxes are also challenging to measure in situ, so only a small number of observations  
505 have been reported to date (44, 45). This lack of data limits efforts to constrain the interacting  
506 effects of temperature on mixing, resuspension, and oxygen consumption within sediments on  
507 germination and germling flux.

508 It is still possible to hypothesize cyst beds' response to changing bottom water conditions  
509 under the assumption that fluxes are driven primarily by germination. Through application of *DD*  
510 scaling, changes in the timing, intensity, and duration of cyst germination were recently  
511 estimated for a massive *A. catenella* cyst bed across the Chukchi Sea (36). The authors applied a  
512 generalized temperature–germination rate relationship from observations of several North  
513 American cyst populations. Due to observed changes in bottom water temperatures over the last  
514 two decades, total germling production may have increased nearly two-fold and advanced up to  
515 three weeks earlier in the year. The latter phenological shift would represent a substantial  
516 expansion of the window for blooms to develop in this high latitude region. Still, other  
517 interacting effects of temperature could mitigate or magnify the direct effects of warming on  
518 germination rates. The potential scale of Chukchi blooms and danger posed by PSP to human  
519 and animal populations calls for further investigations that link temperature change to cyst bed  
520 activity.

521 Uncertainty regarding how changing water temperatures may affect bioturbation,  
522 microbial respiration, and other benthic processes underscores the need for more studies that  
523 quantify their relationships with temperature. Each of these processes has direct impacts on the  
524 activity of many benthic resting stages that seed and shape the diversity and structure of plankton

525 communities in overlying waters. The *DD* framework used in this study has already been shown  
526 to be useful in characterizing a wide range of biological phenomena. Many new applications are  
527 yet to be described in marine systems.

528

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648

649

650 **Figure legends**

651 **Figure 1.** Schematic of how to measure germination rates of a natural polyclonal population of  
652 *A. catenella* cysts. Aeration initiates the germination process, spurring quiescent cysts to  
653 germinate at their individual rates.

654

655 **Figure 2.** Observation schemes used in sediment slurry and cyst isolation-based germination rate  
656 measurements. (a) In sediment slurry experiments, replicate flasks are filled with approximately  
657 the same number of cysts at time 0. Flasks are incubated until removed for counting at a planned  
658 time  $a_i$ . The difference between the number of cysts observed at time 0 and  $a_i$  reflects the  
659 cumulative number of cysts that have germinated by time  $a_i$ . (b) Isolation experiments track  
660 germination of individuals through repeated observations by microscopy. Actual germination  
661 times are indicated by open circles but observations only constrain germination time as occurring  
662 between times  $b_{i-1}$  and  $b_i$  (rectangles).

663

664 **Figure 3.** (a) Seasonal bottom water temperature in relation to (b) the quiescent fraction of the *A.*  
665 *catenella* cyst bed in Roberts Cove within Nauset from 2012 through 2015. *A. catenella* cysts  
666 cycle between states of quiescence (when they will germinate if exposed to oxygen and favorable  
667 temperatures) and dormancy (when they will not). In situ dormancy data are republished from  
668 cyst isolation experiments conducted by Fischer et al. 2018 (8). Each month, cohorts of freshly-  
669 collected cysts were isolated and incubated under optimal conditions (oxygen, 15°C, light) and  
670 the quiescent fraction of the cyst bed was assessed from the cumulative fraction of cysts that  
671 germinated after one week. Grey shading demarcates the time period when experiments in this  
672 study were conducted.

673

674 **Figure 4.** Example images of *A. catenella* cysts (a–c) with healthy appearances that were  
675 isolated at the beginning of isolation experiments and (d) a cyst that died during experimental  
676 incubation.

677

678 **Figure 5.** Cumulative germination of *A. catenella* cysts incubated in sediment slurries at  
679 different temperatures plotted as a function of (a) observation days and (b) *DD*. Data were fit to a  
680 lognormal CDF (black line) using maximum log-likelihood estimation.

681

682 **Figure 6.** Days needed for *A. catenella* cysts to germinate at laboratory incubation temperatures.  
683 Data from Nauset cyst populations are shown alongside previously-published data for cyst  
684 populations from Puget Sound (WA) and the western and eastern Gulf of Maine (GOM) (4, 16).  
685 All germination experiments were conducted with quiescent, subsurface (presumed anoxic) cyst

686 populations that were aerated through the creation of slurries. The lines depict the degree days to  
687 median germination ( $DD_{50}$ ) for each population. A similar plot was originally published in  
688 Anderson et al., 2021, but not fully explained (36).

689

690 **Figure 7.** Cumulative germination of individually-isolated *A. catenella* cysts incubated in  
691 different months and years at the in situ temperature. Different grayscale shades reflect the  
692 month and different shapes reflect the year that clutches of cysts were collected. For comparison,  
693 the range of cumulative germination observed in March 2014 by slurry experiments (Fig. 5b) is  
694 marked in orange, and the datapoints corresponding to the isolation experiment conducted at the  
695 same time is outlined in red.

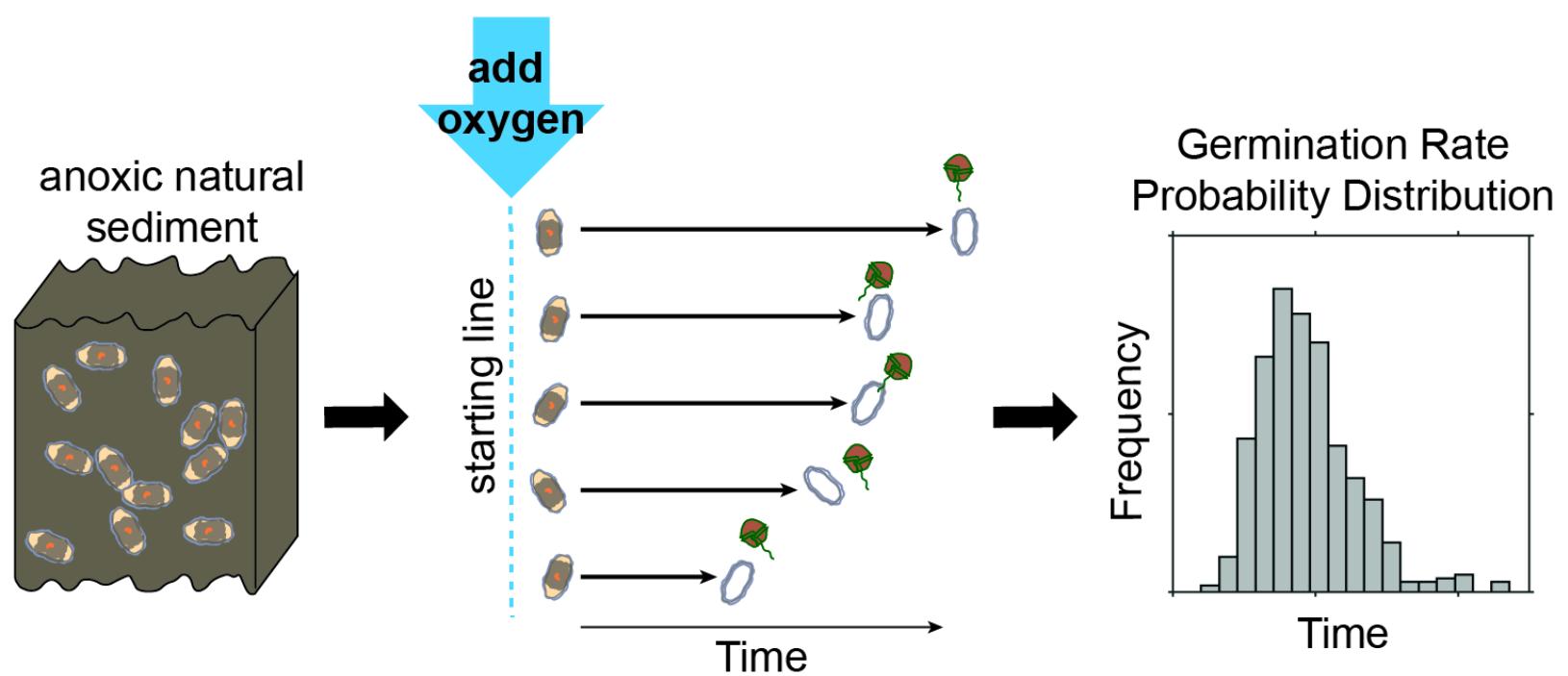
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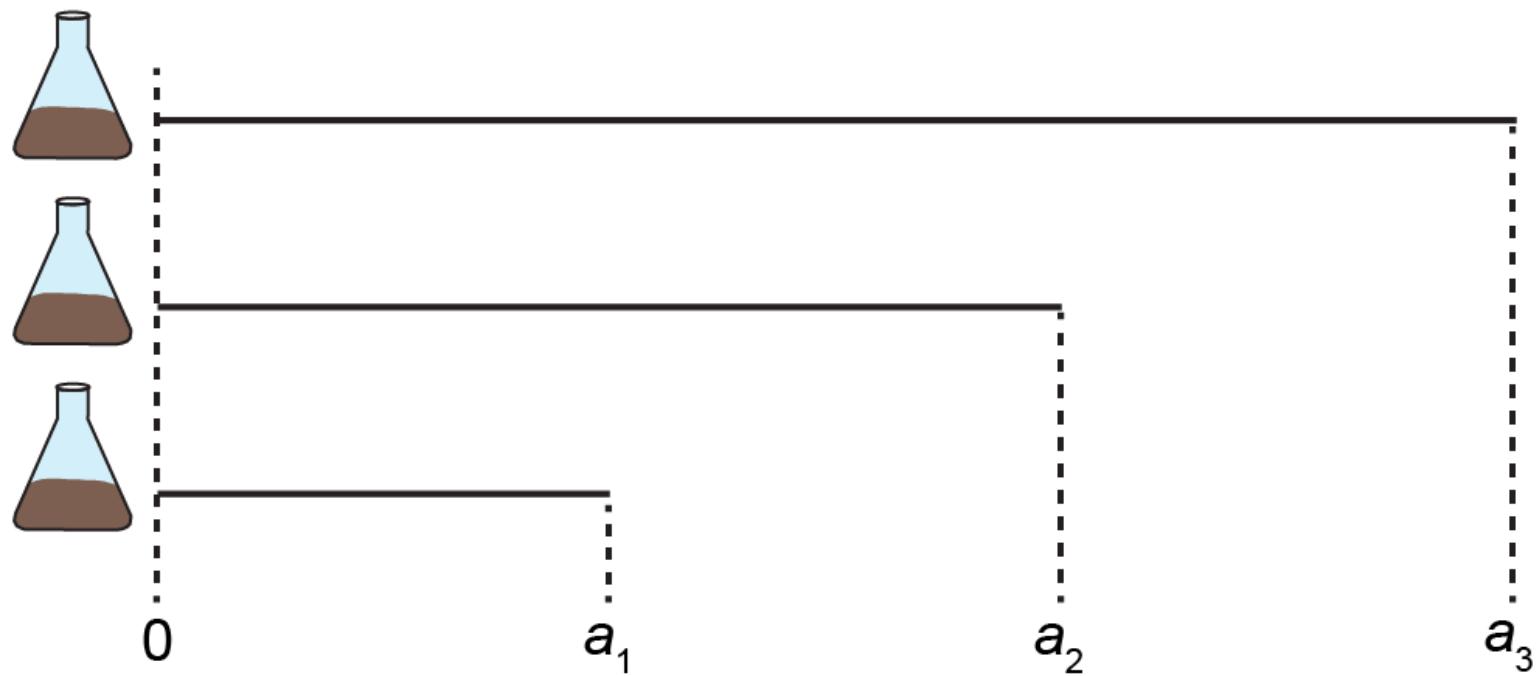
698 ***Acknowledgements***

699 We thank Donald Anderson for helpful discussions in designing these experiments, for making  
700 germination data from his 2005 publication available for reanalysis, and for providing laboratory  
701 space. We also thank Stephanie Moore for making germination data from her 2015 publication  
702 available for reanalysis, David Kulis for technical assistance during the development of this  
703 work, Taylor Sehein for counting cysts in the sediment slurry experiment, and Finn Morrison for  
704 assistance with sampling trips to Nauset. We gratefully acknowledge support to A.D.F. and  
705 M.L.B. through the Woods Hole Center for Oceans and Human Health (National Science  
706 Foundation grants OCE-0430724, OCE-0911031, OCE-1314642, and OCE-1840381 and  
707 National Institutes of Health grants NIEHS-1P50-ES021923-01 and P01ES028938).

708



### a) Sediment Slurries



### b) Cyst Isolations

