

1 **Combining nursery techniques and a novel planting tool from seagrass beach-wrack**
2 **for improving the sustainability of coastal habitat restoration practices**

3

4 Elena Balestri^{a,*}, Flavia Vallerini^a, Maurizia Seggiani^b, Patrizia Cinelli^b, Virginia Menicagli^a

5 Claudia Vannini^a, Claudio Lardicci^a

6

7 ^a*Department of Biology, University of Pisa, Italy*

8 ^b*Department of Civil and Industrial Engineering, University of Pisa, Italy*

9

10 **Corresponding authors:*

11 *Elena Balestri; University of Pisa, Pisa, Italy*

12 *Phone: +39 0502211442*

13 *Email: elena.balestri@unipi.it*

14

15 *“Declarations of interest: none.”*

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27 **ABSTRACT**

28

29 One of the major challenges for restoration ecologists is re-establishing vegetation cover in
30 degraded seagrass meadows and coastal dunes. Traditionally, revegetation methods involve the
31 translocation of large amounts of plants from healthy populations to damaged sites, but the
32 sustainability of such practice has recently been questioned. The transplantation of plants
33 propagated in nurseries from seed is a less destructive, alternative approach. However, both
34 methods may lead to high mortality rates and involve the use of structures to avoid plant
35 dislodgment that are generally made of non-biodegradable materials with potential impact on
36 receiving habitats.

37 To improve the environmental sustainability of restoration actions, a novel biodegradable growing
38 container made of beach-cast seagrass wrack and a bio-based polymer was produced. The long-term
39 performance of two seagrasses, *Cymodocea nodosa* and *Zostera noltei*, and two dune plants,
40 *Euphorbia paralias* and *Thinopyrum junceum*, grown in nurseries using the bio-container or a non-
41 biodegradable plastic container of equal size/form was investigated. The feasibility of using *C.*
42 *nodosa* nursery-raised plants with bio-containers for restoration interventions was also evaluated,
43 and the success of this new approach was compared to that of a traditional nursery-based method.
44 The bio-container degraded slowly in seawater and in sand and lost its functionality after about
45 three years. All the study species performed better when grown in bio-containers than in non-
46 biodegradable containers in the nursery. Six months after transplanting into the field, 80% of the *C.*
47 *nodosa* nursery-raised plants with bio-containers were alive and have colonized the surrounding
48 substrate. Most of those raised according to the traditional method was lost. These results indicate
49 that the environmental sustainability of future coastal restoration interventions could be effectively
50 improved by using nursery techniques in combination with the new planting bio-container. This
51 approach would also provide an opportunity for valorizing seagrass beach-cast material.

52

53 *Keywords:*
54 Biodegradable growing container
55 Dune plants
56 Ecological restoration
57 Plant nursery
58 Seagrasses
59 Seagrass beach-cast wrack
60

61 **1. Introduction**
62

63 Seagrass beds and coastal sand dunes are among the most productive and valuable natural
64 habitats, providing a range of goods and ecosystem services on a global scale. However, large areas
65 of these habitats have been lost worldwide due to the combined effect of climate change and
66 anthropogenic pressure (Barbier et al., 2011; Bayraktarov et al., 2016; Nordstrom, 2008), and
67 restoring these areas is one of the greatest challenges for managers and ecologists. A promising
68 approach for promoting the recovery of damaged habitats and facilitating the re-establishment of
69 ecosystem functions is the replanting of native “engineering” species (Christensen et al., 2004;
70 Lithgow et al., 2013; Nordstrom, 2008; Teixeira et al., 2016). To date, a number of revegetation
71 techniques have been established. However, their environmental sustainability has recently been
72 questioned, and some obstacles still limit their application on a large scale (Balestri and Lardicci,
73 2012; Bull et al., 2004; van Katwijk et al., 2016). Indeed, most of these seagrass revegetation
74 techniques involves the removal of adult plants (either shoots with bare roots or with intact
75 sediment) from healthy populations and their translocation (transplanting) to damaged sites (van
76 Katwijk et al., 2016). To avoid the dislodgment of transplants due to abiotic and/or biotic
77 disturbances, they need to be anchored to the substrate with appropriate structures (Balestri and
78 Lardicci, 2012; Balestri and Lardicci, 2014; Bayraktarov et al., 2016; Irving et al., 2010; van

79 Katwijk et al., 2016). Unfortunately, most of the anchoring structures used up to date are made of
80 materials non-biodegradable or extraneous to the receiving ecosystems, such as iron, cement,
81 plastics and geo-textiles, that can potentially impact natural habitats (Short and Coles, 2001). In
82 addition, to ensure an adequate vegetative coverage and replenish plant losses due to transplant
83 shock, i.e., the difficult of plants to adjust their growth once planted in a new environment, large
84 amounts of planting material are necessary (Bessette et al., 2018; van Katwijk et al., 2016),
85 especially for seagrass species with slow growth and low seedling establishment rates (Balestri et
86 al., 1998; Balestri et al., 2015; Holbrook et al., 2002; Seddon, 2004). The removal of this material
87 can cause fragmentation of donor beds making them more vulnerable to storm events, and this in
88 turn can potentially exacerbate the original problem (Balestri et al., 2011; Bull et al., 2004). To
89 minimize the environmental impact, alternative and more ecologically sustainable strategies have
90 recently been developed (Balestri et al., 2010; Balestri et al., 2011; Balestri and Lardicci, 2012; Bird
91 et al., 1994; Dawes and Meads, 2009; Marion and Orth, 2010; Zarranz et al., 2010). One of these
92 strategies, namely nursery seagrass approach, involves the propagation of plants from seeds or
93 cuttings in aquaculture facilities using plastic pots commercially available for terrestrial plants
94 (Balestri and Lardicci, 2012; Balestri and Lardicci, 2014; Balestri et al., 2015). Before transplanting
95 to damaged sites, the plants are removed from their container to allow root growth and fixed to the
96 substrate with anchoring structures.

97 A similar plant nursery-based approach has largely been used in coastal dune stabilization
98 programs. The planting material required for these actions is generally obtained from seeds and
99 cuttings collected from existing populations and grown in nurseries using non-biodegradable
100 containers, such as plastic pots, root trainers, rays/pots, tubes and planter bags, that are removed
101 before out planting (Bachman and Whitwell, 1995; Kidd, 2001; Miller et al., 2018). However, very
102 harsh environmental conditions and recurrent natural disturbances can exacerbate transplant shock
103 causing large plant losses (Balestri and Lardicci, 2013; Maun 2009; Teixeira et al., 2016).

104 Recent studies on crop and ornamental plants have shown that poor root allocation due to pot
105 constraints and transplant shock can be minimized by planting nursery-raised seedlings and adults
106 in soil together with bio-containers (i.e., biodegradable growing containers produced from natural
107 fibers or bio-based polymers, Nambuthiri et al., 2015). To date, some attempts have been made to
108 cultivate seagrasses in pots manufactured with natural fibers such as paper, cloth and peat (Bacci et
109 al., 2014; Bird et al., 1994; Dawes and Meads, 2009; Kirkman, 1998; Seddon, 2004; Short and
110 Coles, 2001), but their quick degradation in water (Bird et al., 1994; Irving et al., 2010) make them
111 not suitable for long-term restoration programs. Instead, the biodegradability in marine
112 environments of most of the bio-based polymers used to manufacturing bio-containers has not been
113 proven or assessed (Nambuthiri et al., 2013; Volova et al., 2010). Given the need for coastal habitat
114 restoration, and in consideration of the global policies recently adopted to reduce marine litter
115 (Nazareth et al., 2019; Xanthos and Walker, 2017), the development of new, environmentally
116 compatible tools for coastal restoration interventions is highly desirable.

117 In the present study, we designed and tested the feasibility of using a novel plant growing bio-
118 container made of a seagrass wrack-based polymer composite (Seggiani et al., 2018) for seagrass
119 meadow and sand dune restoration interventions. Composites of beach-cast seagrasses and bio-
120 based polymers have recently been proven to possess good mechanical properties and to be
121 potentially suitable for applications in marine environments (Seggiani et al., 2018). Moreover, the
122 accumulation of seagrass wrack on beaches of some countries can cause management problems and
123 it is a disposal challenge (Macreadie et al., 2017). For example, in Italy excessive accumulations of
124 wrack of the seagrass *Posidonia oceanica* L. Delile, considered as a waste, are periodically
125 removed from beaches, and part of this material transformed in compost (Legislative Decree no. 75,
126 2010). Specifically, we investigated in nursery experiments (i) the performance of seagrasses with
127 different growth rates, slow (*Cymodocea nodosa* Ucria Asch.) vs. fast rate (*Zostera noltei* Hornem),
128 and dune plants belonging to different classes, monocotyledons (*Thinopyrum junceum* (L.) Á. Löve)
129 and dicotyledons (*Euphorbia paralias* L.), cultivated in the novel bio-container and (ii) the

130 persistence of the bio-container over time. A plastic container of equal size and form, made of a
131 non-biodegradable polymer commonly used for terrestrial pots manufacturing, was also tested. We
132 assessed (i) whether the bio-container would support the growth of different plant species in culture
133 and (ii) how long it would maintain the functionality before to degrade. We also evaluated in a field
134 experiment the success, in terms of plant survival and growth, of the whole new method, i.e.
135 propagating plants in nursery by cutting and planting nursery-raised plants *in situ* with their bio-
136 container, using *C. nodosa* as a model. The success of this method was also compared to that
137 achieved using the previously established nursery-based one to assess potential benefits. Our
138 ecological approach is relevant in the context of environmental management as it would help in
139 improving the sustainability of future coastal restoration interventions and providing a new route for
140 valorizing seagrass beach-cast material.

141

142 **2. Materials and methods**

143

144 *2.1. Bio-container design and manufacturing*

145

146 The newly designed bio-container was a bowl characterized by a height of 75 mm, a bottom
147 diameter of 90 mm, a top diameter of 150 mm, a thickness of 1 mm and 1000 cm³ volume (Fig. 1).
148 The structural geometry of the container was reinforced with a wide curvature radius in the basal
149 part to improve its stability in mobile sediments. Holes in the bottom and along the wall (35 mm
150 below the border) of the container allowed water/nutrient exchanges between the container substrate
151 and the surrounding environment. The small diameter of these holes (2 mm) prevented sand
152 washing out from the container once watered or immersed in seawater. The composite used to
153 manufacture the bio-container is biodegradable both in marine and terrestrial environment (Seggiani
154 et al., 2017a, b; Seggiani et al., 2018), and it is not commercially available. It was produced by
155 injection extrusion (Zefiro, Italy) of a mixture of *Posidonia oceanica* lignocellulosic fibers (10% of

156 the total weight) derived from “egagropili”(i.e. agglomerates of residues of dead rhizomes and
157 leaves, Cannon, 1979) and the thermoplastic matrix PHI002™ consisting of poly(3-
158 hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate) (PHBV, Naturplast®, Caen, France), a polymer synthesized
159 by a variety of microorganisms (Lee, 1996). The plasticizer acetyl tributyl citrate (10% of the total
160 weight, Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MS, USA) and calcium carbonate (4% of total weight,
161 OMNYA® Oftringen, Switzerland) with fine grain size (12 µm) were added to the mix to facilitate
162 composite ductility and processability (Seggiani et al., 2018). The bio-container (thereafter referred
163 to as PHBP container) was designed using computer-aided manufacturing and produced by
164 injection-molding using standard industrial manufacturing machinery (Femto Engineering, Italy). A
165 container with equal characteristics but made of a petroleum-based plastic (polypropylene) and iron
166 oxide pigment (thereafter referred to as PP container) was also produced to serve as a reference
167 since this polymer is used to manufacture most of the pots currently marketed for terrestrial plants.

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

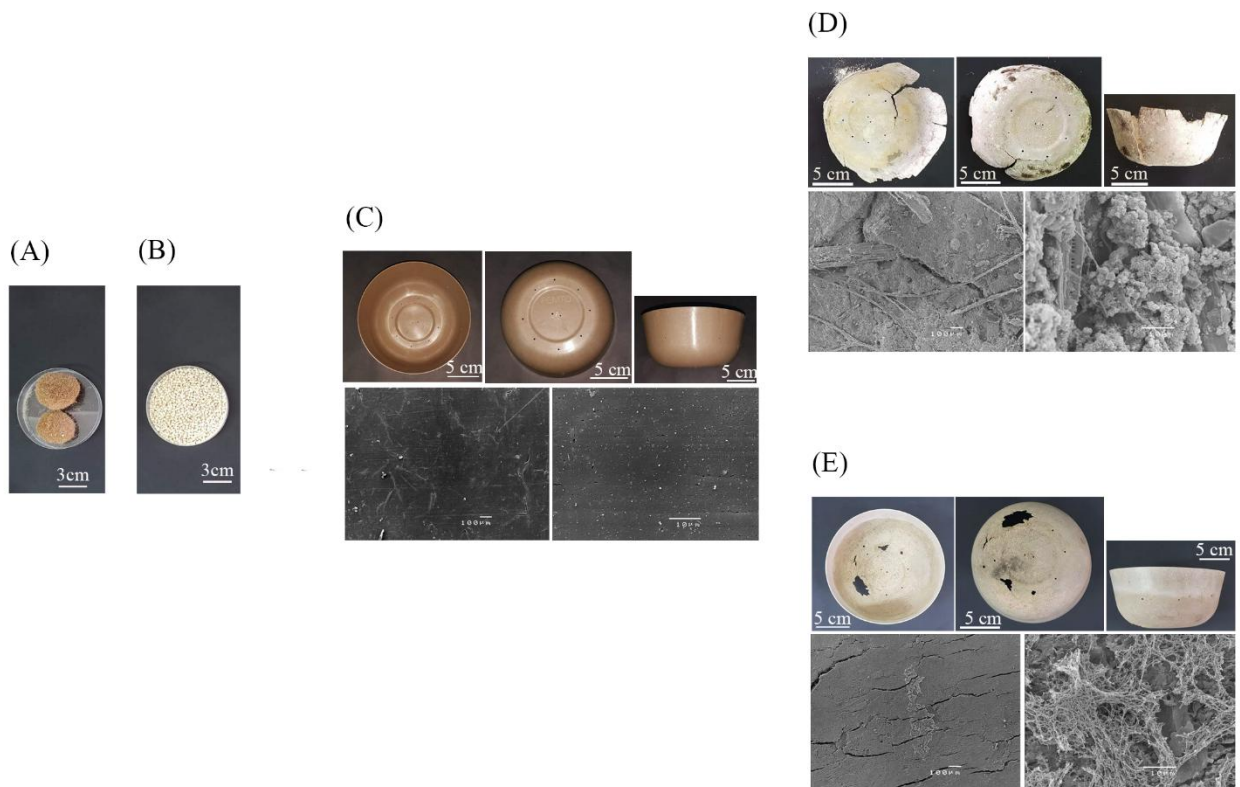
175

176

177

178

179



180 **Fig. 1.** *Posidonia oceanica* “egagropili” (A) and poly(3-hydroxybutyrate-co-3-hydroxyvalerate)
181 (PHBV, B) used to manufacture the bio-container, details and SEM images of the virgin bio-

182 container (July 2016) (C) and the same container 26 months after planting (September 2018) in the
183 seagrass (D) and dune nursery experiments (E).

184 1.5-column fitting image

185

186 Before the start of the experiments, a test was conducted to examine both the buoyancy and the
187 water retention capability of the two types of container. To this end, containers (n = 5 per container
188 type) were weighted and then immersed in distilled water at 25°C. After 24 h of immersion they
189 were extracted from water, dried with paper and weighted. Water retention capability was
190 calculated as difference between final and initial container weight. The PHBP container was
191 negatively buoyant and the average net gain in weight after water immersion was 2.69 g (\pm 0.16
192 SE), corresponding to an increase of about 5% of initial weigh. Instead, the PP container was
193 positively buoyant and did not retain water.

194

195 *2.2. Set up of plant nursery experiments*

196

197 To evaluate the suitability of the bio-container in sustaining seagrass and dune plant growth and
198 the bio-container functionality over time, in terms of maintenance of physical integrity, two
199 separate long-term nursery experiments were conducted at the INVE Aquaculture Research Center
200 located in a back-dune area at Rosignano Solvay (Italy). The seagrass nursery consisted of outdoor
201 tanks (7000 L) equipped following a protocol previously established for growing seagrasses
202 (Balestri and Lardicci, 2012). The seawater level in the tanks was maintained at 0.5 m by providing
203 continuous natural seawater supply. Seawater temperature ranged from 11 to 28 °C, pH was 8.0-8.2,
204 and salinity varied between 37.6 and 38.2 over the experimental period. The dune nursery consisted
205 of an outdoor area with an artificial dune (1.50 x 1.50 m, h 0.30 m) created with local beach sand.
206 Air mean temperature ranged from 4.6 to 29.8 °C during the whole study period. Before the start of
207 the planting experiments, all the containers were weighted and filled with commercially available

208 silica sand (1 mm diameter, organic matter < 0.01%). A controlled-release fertilizer (Cifo Italy,
209 N:P:K 20:10:10; six months) was added (1 g L⁻¹ of sand) in each container to facilitate plant
210 establishment.

211

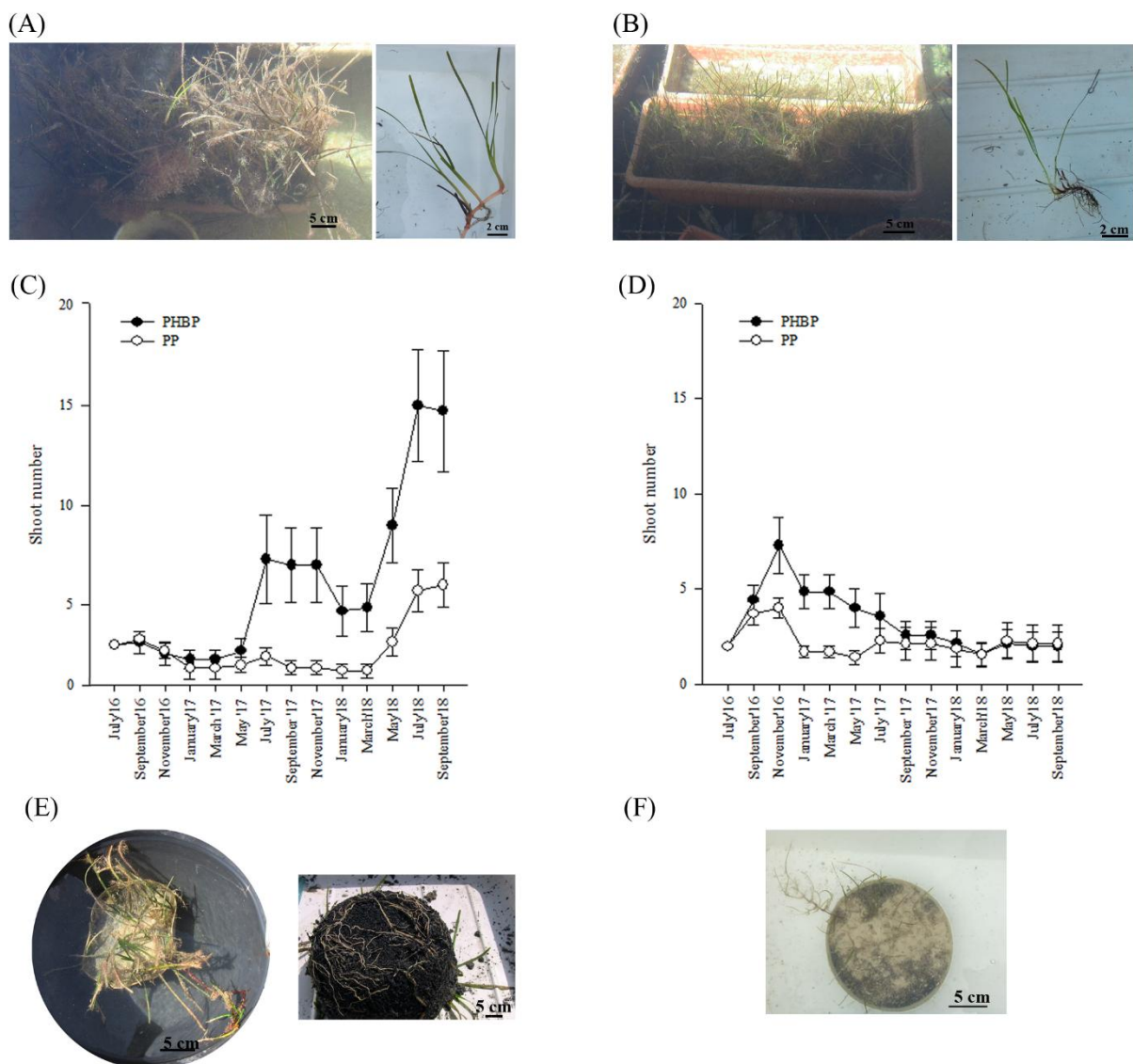
212 2.2.1. Seagrass nursery experiment

213

214 In July 2016, 28 containers (14 PHBP and 14 PP containers) with sand were placed in a
215 completely randomized design in an aquaculture tank and attributed to one of two species,
216 *Cymodocea nodosa* and *Zostera noltei*. Initial planting materials (cuttings) were obtained from two-
217 year old plants grown in a previously established seagrass nursery (Fig. 2, Balestri and Lardicci,
218 2012). For each container type, there were in total 14 cuttings (seven cuttings per species). Each *C.*
219 *nodosa* cutting consisted of a 7.5 cm rhizome fragment and three shoots while each *Z. noltei* cutting
220 consisted of a 4.5 cm rhizome fragment and two shoots. Plants were left undisturbed for 26 months,
221 and the number of alive plants and the number of shoots per plant were recoded every two months.
222 The containers were monthly inspected over the experimental period to detect conformational
223 changes and signs of degradation, such as discoloration and presence of physical openings in the
224 container walls. At the end of the experiment, the plants were extracted from the containers, and all
225 the containers were transferred to the laboratory where they were carefully cleaned, washed with
226 tap water, dried at 30 °C for five days and then weighted to determine the extent of their
227 degradation. Container degradation was determined as weight loss and expressed as a percentage of
228 the initial dry weight. In addition, samples of the PHBP containers were fixed in 2% OsO₄,
229 dehydrated in ethanol and, after critical point drying, coated with gold and observed with a
230 JEOL/JSM-5410 scanning electron microscope to visualize texture alterations of their wall.
231 Samples from virgin PHBP containers were also collected and examined for comparison.

232 To evaluate the performance of plants, the total number of alive vs. dead plants of both the
233 species grown with the PHBP bio-container or the PP container was compared using the Fisher

234 exact one-tailed test. Data on the maximum number of plant shoots were analyzed using two-way
 235 analysis of variance (ANOVA) with container type and species as fixed orthogonal factors to test
 236 for possible variations in plant growth response due to different architecture and growth rate. Prior
 237 to the analyses, data were assessed for normality and homogeneity of variance using Shapiro-Wilk
 238 test and Cochran's C test ($\alpha = 0.05$), respectively. The maximum number of shoots was log x
 239 transformed to meet ANOVA assumptions. All the analyses were run using STATISTICA 6.0
 240 (Statsoft, Inc).



257 **Fig. 2.** Mother plants and cuttings of *Cymodocea nodosa* (A) and *Zostera noltei* (B) before the start of the seagrass nursery experiment, number of alive shoots recorded in *C. nodosa* (C) and *Z. noltei*
 258 (D) plants grown in PHBP and PP containers over the experimental period, and *C. nodosa* (E) and
 259 (F) plants grown in PHBP and PP containers over the experimental period.

260 *Z. noltei* (F) plants with rhizomes extending out the container substrate in the nursery. Data are
261 means \pm SE.

262 2-column fitting image

263

264 2.2.2. Dune nursery experiment

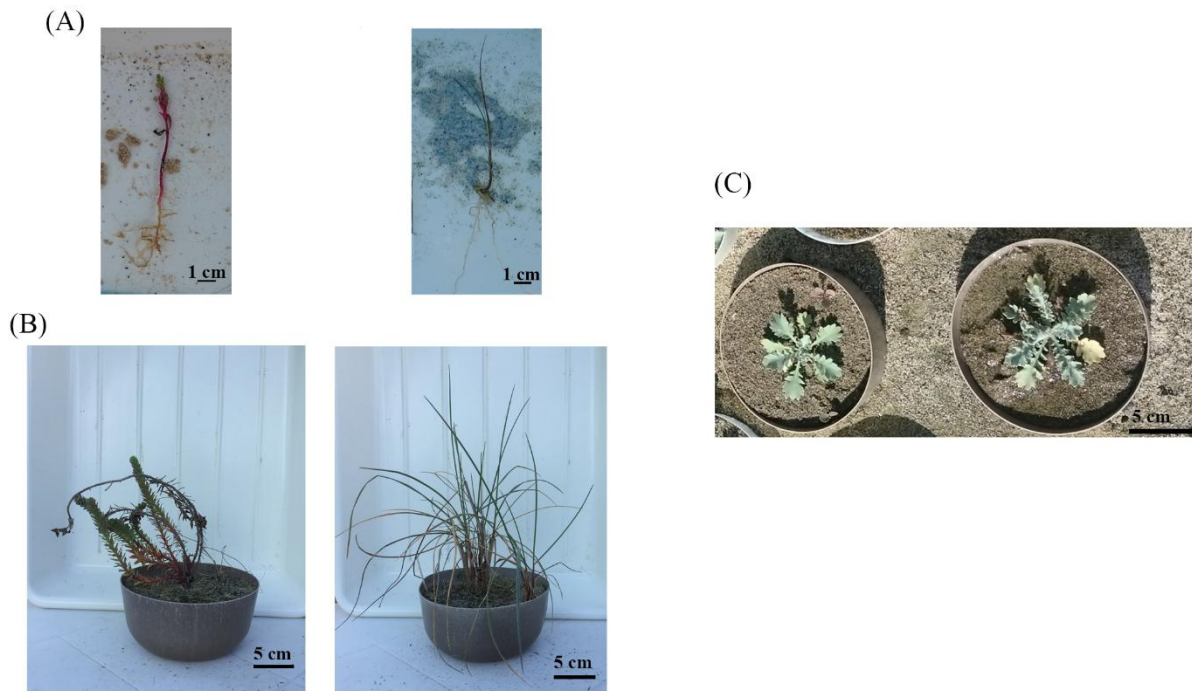
265

266 In July 2016, seeds of *Thinopyrum junceum* and *Euphorbia paralias* were collected from local
267 populations and sown in an outdoor seedbed. In May 2017, one-month-old seedlings (Fig. 3) were
268 individually transplanted into 20 containers (10 PHPB and 10 PP containers). There were five
269 seedlings per species and container type. Seedlings were left to grow in their container for about
270 one year. At the end of the experiment (March 2018), the status of plants (alive vs. dead), the
271 maximum height of aboveground organs and the number of erect stems of *T. junceum* and *E.*
272 *paralias* in each container were recorded.

273 In July 2016, additional (six) PHBP containers were individually inserted into holes made in
274 sand in randomly chosen positions in the artificial dune to investigate their functionality over time.
275 In March 2017, five seeds of the dune plant *Glaucium flavum* Crantz collected from a local
276 population in the previous summer were planted into each container to provide vegetative cover.
277 Only one seedling was left in each container. At the end of this experiment (September 2018), the
278 containers were removed from sand and transferred to the laboratory where they were dried and
279 individually weighted to calculate the percentage of weight loss. Samples of virgin and
280 environmentally exposed PHBP containers were collected and processed as described in the
281 previous section for SEM analyses.

282 To evaluate the performance of plants, the total number of alive vs. dead plants for each
283 container type was analyzed using the Fisher exact one-tailed test. Data on plant height and number
284 of stems of each species were analyzed using two-way ANOVA with container type and species as
285 fixed orthogonal factors to test for species variations in growth response. Prior to the analyses, data

286 were checked for normality and homogeneity of variance using Shapiro-Wilk test and Cochran's C
287 test ($\alpha = 0.05$), respectively, and no transformation was necessary. All the analyses were run using
288 STATISTICA 6.0 (Statsoft, Inc).



301 **Fig. 3.** Seedlings of *Euphorbia paralias* (left side) and *Thinopyrum junceum* (right side) before (A)
302 and one year after planting (B) in the dune nursery. Bio-containers (PHBP) buried in sand (C).

303 1.5-column fitting image

304

305 2.3. Field seagrass experiment

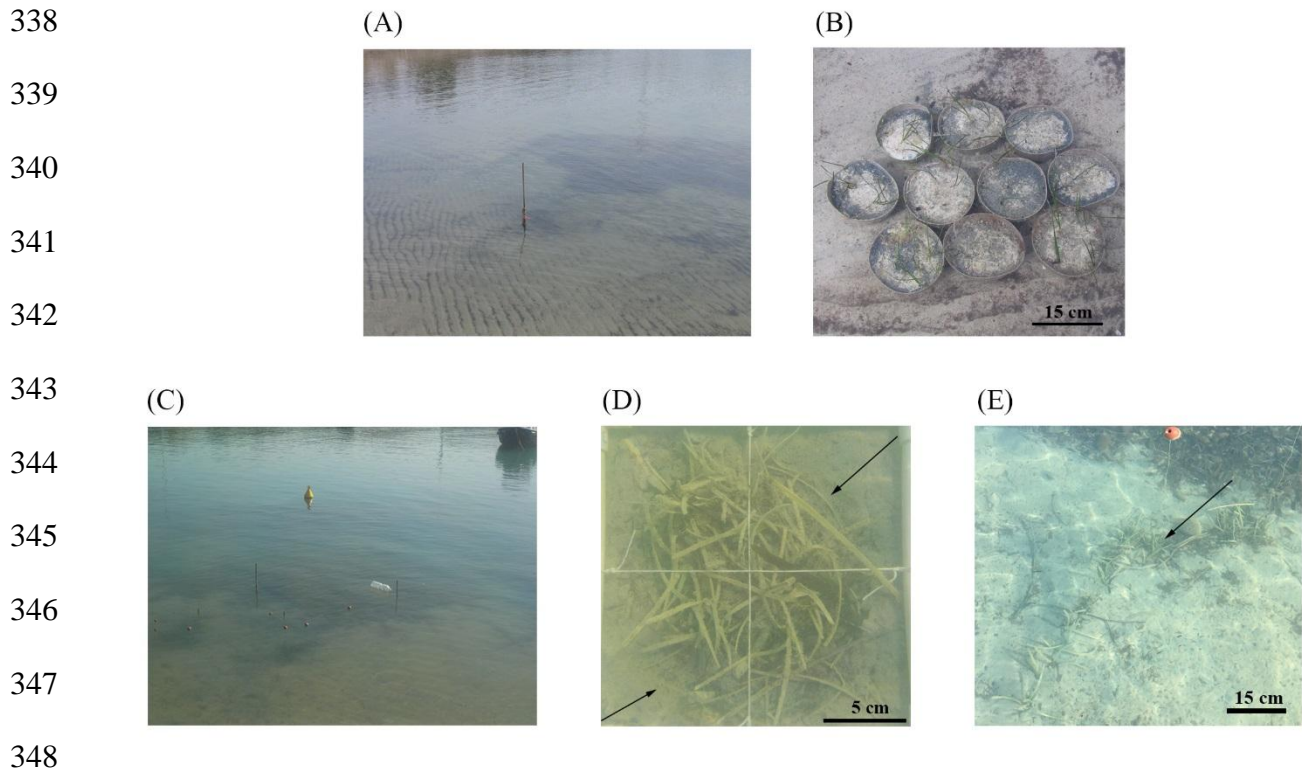
306

307 To evaluate the feasibility of restoring seagrass meadows by using the new nursery/bio-
308 container-approach, the performance of nursery-raised plants transplanted with their PHBP
309 container was examined in the field. The success of this new approach was also compared to that
310 achieved by using the previously developed nursery-based approach, i.e. the out planting of
311 nursery-raised plants removed from non-biodegradable plastic containers (Balestri et al., 2012). In

312 April 2017, similar-sized cuttings (20) of *Cymodocea nodosa*, excised from nursery-grown mother
313 plants (Fig. 3), were individually planted in PHBP and PP containers. Plants were left undisturbed
314 for about one year in the nursery as described above to allow root development. At the start of the
315 second growing season, just prior to the beginning of container degradation (March 2018), the
316 plants with their containers were loaded in trays with seawater covering and transferred to a
317 relatively sheltered coastal area near to Rosignano Solvay. This area had experienced human impact
318 and had a history of having seagrasses; the substrate was composed of fine carbonate sand and
319 recolonized by *C. nodosa* (Fig. 4). The containers with plants were distributed along the edge of the
320 *C. nodosa* meadow (at 0.5 m depth). To place plants at the same substrate level as local naturally
321 established plants, twenty holes were made in the substrate with a spade in randomly positions
322 within an area of about 50 m². PHBP containers were directly inserted into holes, while PP
323 containers were removed and the plants with their growing substrate were inserted into holes and
324 fixed with iron staples as described by Balestri et al. (2014). Containers and plants were weekly
325 monitored over the first transplanting season. At the end of the experiment (October 2018), the
326 number of plants still in place was counted. Seawater temperature ranged from 15 to 29.8 °C during
327 the experimental period. Plant development was non-destructively evaluated by counting *in situ* the
328 number of survived plants and the number of alive shoots per plant. The number of plants with
329 rhizome expanding out of their original growing substrate was also recorded to determine the
330 colonization extent.

331 Data on the recorded number of plants still in place or lost with the new vs. the previous method
332 were analyzed using the Fisher exact one-tailed test. Prior to the analysis, data were assessed for
333 normality using Shapiro-Wilk test. Since most of the seagrasses obtained by using the previous
334 method and transplanted without the container was lost during the experiment, data on shoot
335 number and colonization extent were not analyzed. All the analyses were run using STATISTICA
336 6.0 (Statsoft, Inc).

337



349 **Fig. 4.** Transplantation site (A), one-year old *C. nodosa* plants grown PHBP (B) containers in the
 350 marine nursery before their transplantation, and plants still in place six months after transplantation
 351 with PHBP containers (C, D). Arrows indicate the borders of a buried container (D) and the
 352 rhizomes of plants extended out the original container substrate (E).

353 2-column fitting image

354

355 3. Results

356

357 3.1. Seagrass nursery experiment

358

359 During the experimental period, both seagrass species exhibited the typical growth cycle
 360 observed in the Mediterranean Sea with cessation of rhizome growth and shoot production in winter
 361 (Kraemer and Mazzella, 1992). The number of shoots produced by *C. nodosa* plants grown in the
 362 PHBP container (Fig. 2) increased over time and peaked in the middle of July of the second
 363 growing season (14 ± 2.7 shoots per plant). Instead, the highest number of *Z. noltei* shoots ($7.3 \pm$

364 1.4 shoots per plant) was observed at the end of the first growing season (Fig. 2). Subsequently, the
 365 number of *Z. noltei* shoots decreased due to the detachment of rhizome portions extending out the
 366 substrate container. At the end of the experiment, all *C. nodosa* plants were alive and showed
 367 rhizomes extending out the container substrate (Fig. 2) while some *Z. noltei* plants were died (Table
 368 1). No significant effect of container type was detected on the total number of survivors ($p = 0.50$).
 369 For both species, the maximum number of newly produced shoots was significantly higher in PHBP
 370 containers than in PP containers (Table 2). Plants grown in PHBP containers also showed a well-
 371 developed root system with white actively growing root tips. When extracted from their bio-
 372 container, the root mass held all of the sand (Fig. 2), a behavior typical of healthy root systems.

373

374	Container type	No. alive/dead plants per species		Total number of alive/dead plants
375	a)	<u><i>C. nodosa</i></u>	<u><i>Z. noltei</i></u>	
376	PHBP	7/0	5/2	12/2
377	PP	7/0	4/3	11/3
378	b)	<u><i>T. junceum</i></u>	<u><i>E. paralias</i></u>	
379	PHBP	5/0	5/0	10/0
380	PP	5/0	4/1	9/1
381	c)	<u><i>C. nodosa</i></u>		
382	PHBP	8/2		8/2
383	PP	1/9		1/9

384

385 **Table 1**

386 Number of survived plants grown in the new bio-container (PHBP) and in an equal container made
 387 of a non-biodegradable polymer (PP) in the seagrass (a) and (b) the dune nursery. The number of
 388 survived *C. nodosa* plants in the field (c) using the novel PHBP container-nursery method and the
 389 nursery approach based on PP containers was also reported.

390

391

Source	df	MS	F	P
Container type = C	1	2.0878	10.05	0.004
Species = S	1	0.7364	3.55	0.071
CXS	1	0.0003	0.00	0.968
Residual	24	0.2076		
Total	27			
Log x transformation				
SNK test	PHBP > PP			

Table 2

Results of two-way ANOVA on the maximum number of shoots produced by *Cymodocea nodosa* and *Zostera noltei* plants grown in the novel biodegradable container (PHBP) and in the non-biodegradable container (PP) in the seagrass nursery. Results of SNK test were also reported. Significant values are in bold.

All PHBP containers were still intact and retained their functionality one year after seawater immersion. Conformational changes of the bio-container and signs indicators of undergoing degradation processes, such as discoloration and presence of breaks in container walls, were observed by the start of the second planting year (Fig. 1). The mean weight of virgin PHBP and PP containers was 54.83 g (± 0.03) and 38.56 g (± 0.07), respectively. At the end of the experiment, PHBP containers retained their integrity and did not exhibit any variation of weight as expected. Instead, the wall of PHBP containers was entirely colonized by macroalgae and other marine organisms, and the containers resulted extremely fragile (Fig. 1) making their handling difficult. The extent of their degradation, in term of percentage of weight loss, was 19.42 % (± 1.18). Considerable texture changes also occurred on PHBP containers (Fig. 1). SEM observations revealed that their surface became totally heterogeneous and rough with holes and fissures. The same surface was almost completely colonized by a thick and well-developed biofilm, including diatoms, bacteria and fungi probably involved in the biodegradation process (Fig. 1).

421
422
423
424
425
426
427
428
429
430
431
432
433
434
435
436
437
438
439
440
441
442
443
444
445
446

3.2. Dune nursery experiment

At the end of the experiment, all *T. junceum* plants were still alive and only one out of five *E. paralias* planted was died (Table 1). The total number of survivors was not affected by the type of container ($p = 0.50$). Significant differences in plant height (Table 3) were observed between container types and species (Table 3). On average, plants grown in PHBP containers were significantly taller than those raised in PP ones (Table 3), and *T. junceum* was taller than *E. paralias* (Fig. 3, Table 3) irrespectively of container type. No significant effect of container type, species or their interaction was observed for the number of stems per plant (Table 3).

PHBP containers extracted from sand at the end of the experiment still retained their original shape but showed signs of degradation such as the presence of holes, especially in their basal part (Fig. 3). On average, the containers have lost 9.72 % (± 1.48) of their initial weight. At SEM visualization, the surface of the planted PHBP containers was fissured and deeply uneven. A discontinuous biofilm with a spotted distribution (Fig. 1) was present and bacteria were also singly scattered all over the surface.

447 a)

448	Container type	Plant height (cm)		No. of stems	
449					
450		<i>T. junceum</i>	<i>E. paralias</i>	<i>T. junceum</i>	<i>E. paralias</i>
451	PHBP	35.3 ± 0.8	27.4 ± 3.7	10 ± 2.7	8.4 ± 0.6
452	PP	27.4 ± 3.7	20.2 ± 5.4	11.2 ± 2.1	4.6 ± 1.1

453

454 b)

455	Source	df	MS	F	P	MS	F	P
456			Plant height			Number of stems		
457	Container type = C	1	270.8480	4.53	0.04	11.2500	0.65	0.43
458	Species = S	1	301.0880	5.04	0.03	76.0500	4.40	0.05
459	CXS	1	0.0980	0.00	0.96	36.4500	2.11	0.16
460	Residual	16	59.7793			17.3000		
461	Total	19						
462								
463	SNK test		PHBP > PP					
464			<i>T. junceum</i> > <i>E. paralias</i>					

465

466 **Table 3**

467 Results of two-way ANOVA on plant height and number of stems produced by *Thinopyrum*
 468 *junceum* and *Euphorbia paralias* plants grown in the novel biodegradable container (PHBP) and in
 469 the non-biodegradable container (PP) in the dune nursery. Results of SNK test were also reported.
 470 Significant values are in bold.

471

472 *3.3. Field seagrass experiment*

473

474 During the first month of transplantation, a severe storm caused the dislodgment of some plants
 475 from the substrate. At the end of the first transplanting season, the number of alive plants (Table 1)
 476 raised in PP containers and transplanted with iron tools was significantly lower than that of those
 477 planted with the PHBP container (p = 0.002). These latter plants had produced from 4 to 31 new

478 shoots (mean 14.5 ± 3.3), and five of them showed at least one horizontal rhizome (runner)
479 extending out to the substrate container (Fig. 4). The plant raised in the PP container still present at
480 the end of the study period showed 18 new shoots and two runners.

481

482 **4. Discussion**

483

484 The propagation of seagrasses and dune plants under controlled conditions is a promising
485 alternative method for improving the sustainability of restoration actions, enabling restoration
486 practitioners to achieve large supply of planting material with limited impact on natural populations.
487 However, effective eco-compatible tools for propagating and transplanting plants in restoration sites
488 are not still developed. Indeed, most of the bio-containers currently marketed for long term use in
489 plant nursery and greenhouse production are designed to degrade at the end of the cultivation cycle
490 in industrial facilities (Schrader et al., 2017). Since the polymers used for manufacturing these bio-
491 containers do not degrade or degrade very slowly when planted in aquatic environments (Balestri et
492 al., 2017; Nazareth et al., 2019), they are not recommended for coastal revegetation interventions.
493 Very few types of containers, for example those made of bio-based polymers such as
494 polyhydroxyalkanoates, can degrade in soils and thus can be considered as plantable (Nambuthiri et
495 al., 2013; Schrader et al., 2017).

496 The present study is the first aimed at developing a new plantable bio-container made of natural
497 fibers from marine plants specifically designed for growing and transplanting nursery-raised coastal
498 plants. The released of these fibers during bio-container degradation do not constitute a hazardous
499 material for the receiving ecosystems being themselves a natural coastal habitat component. The
500 polymer polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHBV) was chosen as a matrix because it is one of the few
501 polymers proven to biodegrade both in marine habitats (Nambuthiri et al., 2013; Volova et al.,
502 2010). The incorporation of *P. oceanica* leaf fibers into the PHBV matrix enhanced bio-composite
503 flexibility (Seggiani et al., 2018), and the poor fiber adhesion to the matrix and high cellulose fiber

504 content have found to promote polymer degradation by increasing water uptake (Ferrero et al.,
505 2015; Khiari et al., 2011; Le Duigou et al., 2014; Seggiani et al., 2018).

506 Results of our study demonstrate that the bio-container degraded after about three years in
507 seawater and dune sand, a period long enough to obtain well-developed plants in nurseries. The bio-
508 container also resulted plantable in sandy substrates using standard sediment extracting tools. All
509 the investigated species cultivated in the PHBP containers performed better than those grown in
510 equal containers made of polypropylene, a conventional polymer commonly used to manufacture
511 pots for terrestrial plants. The persistence and the development of *Cymodocea nodosa* plants in the
512 nursery indicates that this species could be maintained in culture for long periods (years) before the
513 transplantation in the field. Instead, the decline in shoot number in *Z. noltei* suggests that this
514 species would be preferentially transplanted during the first months of culture. A decline in *Z. noltei*
515 shoot number over time was also reported in previous experiments (Suykerbuyk et al., 2016). The
516 observed higher survival rate of *C. nodosa* plants recorded in the field using the bio-container-based
517 approach compared to that of the previously established approach, i.e., without the bio-container,
518 and their quick colonization of the surrounding substrate by centrifugal spread, indicates that this
519 method would be effective for restoration interventions. The number of shoots produced by
520 container-grown plants during the first transplanting season was about two folds that recorded in a
521 previous study on bare *C. nodosa* cuttings obtained from nursery-raised mother plants and
522 transplanted in a restoration site with iron anchoring tools (Balestri and Lardicci, 2014). Here, the
523 presence of the bio-container might have favored the establishment and spread of plants in coastal
524 environments by minimizing transplant shock and enhancing the capacity of plants to resist to
525 physical disturbances such as those due to storm events. However, the positive effects of the bio-
526 container on shoot production during the nursery growth period before transplanting could also play
527 an important role. These findings suggest that by applying simple propagation techniques in
528 combination with the bio-container, restoration practitioners could be able to produce seagrasses in
529 nurseries established permanently or temporary, depending upon the biology of target species and

530 duration of the interventions, preferentially close to restoration sites, and then directly planted
531 nursery-grown plants with the bio-container in these sites during the most favorable period.

532 The planting of nursery-raised dune plant species is already an indispensable part of dune
533 stabilization projects (Bachman and Whitwell, 1995; Miller et al., 2018; Siyag, 2014). However,
534 dune plants generally require the application of rooting hormones and fertilizers to grow (Balestri et
535 al., 2012; Thetford and Miller, 2002), and they must be acclimatized to harsh dune conditions for
536 several months before being transplanted into the field to increase the chance of a successful
537 establishment (Miller et al., 2018; Siyag, 2014). In addition, repeated watering is required during
538 and after planting because water is not long retained by sand. Our results suggest that planting of
539 nursery-grown plants directly with our bio-container in the field could not only minimize transplant
540 shock but also reduce the frequency of water applications owing to the capacity of the container to
541 absorb and retain water.

542 Given the relatively small size, our bio-container is probably best suited for transplanting rooted
543 cuttings and seedlings of small or relatively fast-growing species. However, the bio-container could
544 be useful even for sowing seeds of some species. Seeds could be readily germinated in the nursery
545 and grown in the bio-containers before planting, thereby minimizing the negative impacts of
546 harvesting of plants from donor meadows. The design of the bio-container could be also adjusted to
547 achieve greater substrate capabilities and support the growth of larger plants. The lifetime span of
548 the bio-container could be either enhanced by increasing wall thickness to be employed in long-
549 term restoration projects or reduced by increasing the fiber content of the composite up to 20%
550 (Seggiani et al., 2018) for application in short-term restoration projects. In addition, leaf fibers of
551 other seagrasses, and in particular *Zostera marina* L, could be used as an alternative to *P. oceanica*
552 ones as they have been found to be a suitable material for polymer reinforcement (Davies et al.,
553 2007).

554 Overall, the findings of this study indicate that our novel conceptual and methodological
555 approach could be useful for restoring different coastal habitats, such as seagrass beds, foredunes,

556 estuaries and coastal lagoons. Importantly, it could offer considerable ecological and practical
557 benefits by simultaneously alleviating some limitations to the success of current restoration
558 practices, including the impact of plant collection, transplant shock and pollution of receiving
559 natural habitats. Lastly, the bio-container is relatively inexpensive (about 0.20 €-container) and
560 could provide a new opportunity for valorizing seagrass beach-cast material.

561

562 **Acknowledgements**

563

564 The authors wish to thank Zefiro and Femto Engineering for producing the bio-containers. The
565 authors are also grateful to Massimiliano Franceschi, Francesca Braca, Alessia Rossi, Simone
566 Gabrielli, Francesco Lenzi and Tania De Wolf for their contribution to the research. This research
567 was funded by the Tuscany Region, POR FESR 2014-2020 (Grant number:
568 3389.30072014.068000241) and the University of Pisa (PRA and FA projects).

569

570 **References**

571

- 572 Bacci, T., La Porta, B., Maggi, C., Nonnis, O., Paganelli, D., Sante Rende, F., Targusi, M., 2014.
573 Conservazione e gestione della naturalità negli ecosistemi marino-costieri. Il trapianto delle
574 praterie di *Posidonia oceanica*. Manuali e linee guida. ISPRA, Roma.
- 575 Bachman, G.R., Whitwell, T., 1995. Nursery production of *Uniola paniculata* (southern seaoats).
576 HortTechnology. 5, 295-298.
- 577 Balestri, E., Lardicci, C., 2012. Nursery-propagated plants from seed: a tool to improve the
578 effectiveness and sustainability of seagrass restoration. J. Appl. Ecol. 49, 1426–1435.
579 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2664.2012.02197.x>

580 Balestri, E., Lardicci, C., 2013. The impact of physical disturbance and increased sand burial on
581 clonal growth and spatial colonization of *Sporobolus virginicus* in a coastal dune system. PLoS
582 ONE. 8(8): e72598. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0072598>

583 Balestri, E., Lardicci, C., 2014. Effects of sediment fertilization and burial on *Cymodocea nodosa*
584 transplants: implications for seagrass restoration under a changing climate. Restor. Ecol. 22,
585 240–247. <https://doi.org/10.1111/rec.12052>

586 Balestri, E., Piazzini, L., Cinelli, F., 1998. Survival and growth of transplanted and natural seedlings
587 of *Posidonia oceanica* (L.) Delile in a damaged coastal area. J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol. 228, 209–
588 225. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-0981\(98\)00027-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-0981(98)00027-6)

589 Balestri, E., Vallerini, F., Lardicci, C., 2010. Effect of seed density and sediment nutrient
590 heterogeneity on recruitment and early patch growth in the seagrass *Cymodocea nodosa*. Mar.
591 Ecol. Prog. Ser. 417, 63-72. <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps08783>

592 Balestri, E., Vallerini, F., Lardicci, C., 2011. Storm-generated fragments of the seagrass *Posidonia*
593 *oceanica* from beach wrack – A potential source of transplants for restoration. Biol. Conserv.
594 144, 1644–1654. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocon.2011.02.020>

595 Balestri, E., Vallerini, F., Castelli, A., Lardicci, C., 2012. Application of plant growth regulators, a
596 simple technique for improving the establishment success of plant cuttings in coastal dune
597 restoration. Estuar. Coast. Shelf. Sci. 99, 74-84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecss.2011.12.017>

598 Balestri, E., De Battisti, D., Vallerini, F., Lardicci, C., 2015. First evidence of root morphological
599 and architectural variations in young *Posidonia oceanica* plants colonizing different substrate
600 typologies. Estuar. Coast. Shelf. Sci. 154, 205-213. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecss.2015.01.002>

601 Balestri, E., Menicagli, V., Vallerini, F., Lardicci, C., 2017. Biodegradable plastic bags on the
602 seafloor: a future threat for seagrass meadows? Sci. Total Environ. 605–606, 755–763.
603 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.06.249>

604 Barbier, E.B., Hacker, S.D., Kennedy, C., Kock, E.W., Stier, A.C., Silliman, B.R., 2011. The value
605 of estuarine and coastal ecosystem services. *Ecol. Monogr.* 81, 169–193.
606 <https://doi.org/10.1890/10-1510.1>

607 Bayraktarov, E., Saunders, M.I., Abdullah, S., Mills, M., Beher, J., Possingham, H.P., Peter J.
608 Mumby, P.J., Lovelock, C.E., 2016. The cost and feasibility of marine coastal restoration. *Ecol.*
609 *App.* 26, 1055–1074. <https://doi.org/10.1890/15-1077>

610 Bessette, S.R., Hicks, D.W., Fierro-Cabo, A., 2018. Biological assessment of dune restoration in
611 south Texas. *Ocean. Coast. Manage.* 163, 466–477.
612 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2018.06.019>

613 Bird, K.T., Jewett-Smith, J., Fonseca, M.S., 1994. Use of *in vitro* propagated *Ruppia maritima* for
614 seagrass meadow restoration. *J. Coast. Conserv.* 10, 732-737.

615 Bull, J.S., Reed, D.C., Holbrook, S.J., 2004. An experimental evaluation of different methods of
616 restoring *Phyllospadix torreyi* (surfgrass). *Restor. Ecol.* 12, 70–79.
617 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1061-2971.2004.00258.x>

618 Cannon, J.F.M., 1979. An experimental investigation of *Posidonia* balls. *Aquat Bot.* 6, 407-410.

619 Christensen, P., Díaz Almela, E., Diekmann, O., 2004. Can transplanting accelerate the recovery of
620 seagrasses? In: Borum J, Duarte C, Krause-Jensen D. European seagrasses: an introduction to
621 monitoring and management. M&MS Project, Copenhagen; pp. 77–82.

622 Davies, P., Morvan, C., Sire, O., Baley, C., 2007. Structure and properties of fibres from sea-grass
623 (*Zostera marina*). *J. Mater. Sci.* 42, 4850. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10853-006-0546-1>.

624 Dawes, C.J., Meads, M., 2009. A Land-Based *Thalassia testudinum* Nursery Near Tampa Bay,
625 Florida. *Gulf Mex. Sci.* 2, 83–90. <https://doi.org/10.18785/goms.2702.01>

626 Ferrero, B., Boronat, T., Moriana, R., Fenollar, O., Balart, R., 2015. Development of natural fiber-
627 reinforced plastics (NFRP) based on biobased polyethylene and waste fibers from *Posidonia*
628 *oceanica* seaweed. *Polym. Compos.* 36, 1378–1385. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pc.23042>

629 Holbrook, S.J., Reed, D.C., Bull, J.S., 2002. Survival experiments with outplanted seedlings of
630 surfgrass (*Phyllospadix torreyi*) to enhance establishment on artificial structures. ICES J. Mar.
631 Sci. 59, S350–S355. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jmsc.2002.1224>

632 Irving, A.D., Tanner, J.E., Seddon, S., Miller, D., Collings, G.J., Wear, R.J., Hoare, S.L., Theil,
633 M.J., 2010. Testing alternative ecological approaches to seagrass rehabilitation: links to life-
634 history traits. J. Appl. Ecol. 47, 1119-1127. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2664.2010.01852.x>

635 van Katwijk, M.M., Thorhaug, A., Marbà, N., Orth, R.J., Duarte, C.M., Kendrick, G.A., Althuizen,
636 I.H.J., Balestri, E., Bernard, G., Cambridge, M.L., Cunha, A., Durance, C., Giesen, W., Han, O.,
637 Hosokawa, S., Kiswara, W., Komatsu, T., Lardicci C., Lee, K., Meinesz, A., Nakaoka, M.,
638 O'Brien, K. R., Paling, E.I., Pickerell, C., Ransijn, A.M.A., Verduin, J.J., 2016. Global analysis
639 of seagrass restoration: the importance of large-scale planting. J. Appl. Ecol. 53, 567–578.
640 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.12562>

641 Khiari, R., Marrakchi, Z., Belgacem, M.N., Mauret, E., Mhenni, F., 2011. New lignocellulosic
642 fibres-reinforced composite materials: a stepforward in the valorization of the *Posidonia*
643 *oceanica* balls. Compos. Sci. Technol. 71, 1867–1872.
644 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compscitech.2011.08.022>

645 Kidd, R., 2001. Coastal dune management: a manual of coastal dune management and rehabilitation
646 techniques. NSW Department of Land and Water Conservation, Coastal Unit, DLWC,
647 Newcastle.

648 Kirkman, H., 1998. Pilot experiments on planting seedlings and small seagrass propagules in
649 Western Australia. Mar. Pollut. Bull. 37, 460-467. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X(99)00146-0)
650 [326X\(99\)00146-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0025-326X(99)00146-0)

651 Kraemer, G.P., Mazzella, L., 1992. Nitrogen acquisition, storage, and use by the co-occurring
652 Mediterranean seagrasses *Cymodocea nodosa* and *Zostera noltii*. Mar. Ecol. Progr. Ser. 183, 95-
653 103. <https://doi.org/10.3354/meps183095>

654 Lee, S., 1996. Plastic bacteria? Progress and prospects for polyhydroxyalkanoate production in
655 bacteria. *Trends Biotechnol.* 14, 431–438. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-7799\(96\)10061-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-7799(96)10061-5)

656 Le Duigou, A., Bourmaud, A., Davies, P., Baley, C., 2014. Long term immersion in natural
657 seawater of Flax/PLA biocomposite. *Ocean. Eng.* 90, 140-148.
658 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.oceaneng.2014.07.021>

659 Legislative Decree no. 75, 29 April 2010 - Riordino e revisione della disciplina in materia di
660 fertilizzanti, a norma dell'articolo 13 della legge 7 luglio 2009, n. 88.
661 <https://www.politicheagricole.it/flex/cm/pages/ServeBLOB.php/L/IT/IDPagina/10087>

662 Lithgow, D., Martínez, M.L., Gallego-Fernández, J.B., Hesp, P.A., Flores, P., Gachuz, S.,
663 Rodríguez-Revelo, N., Jiménez-Orocio, O., Mendoza-González, G., Álvarez-Molina, L.L., 2013.
664 Linking restoration ecology with coastal dune restoration. *Geomorphology.* 199, 214–224.
665 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2013.05.007>

666 Macreadie, P.I., Trevathan-Tackett, S.M., Baldock, J.A., Kelleway, J.J., 2017. Converting beach-
667 cast seagrass wrack into biochar: A climate-friendly solution to a coastal problem. *Sci. Total.*
668 *Environ.* 574, 90-94. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.09.021>

669 Marion, S.R., Orth, R.J., 2010. Innovative techniques for large-scale seagrass restoration using
670 *Zostera marina* (eelgrass) seeds. *Restor. Ecol.* 18, 514-526. [https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1526-](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1526-100X.2010.00692.x)
671 [100X.2010.00692.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1526-100X.2010.00692.x)

672 Maun, M.A., 2009. *The biology of coastal sand dunes.* Oxford University Press Inc., New York.

673 Miller, D., Thetford, M., Verlinde, C., Campbell, G., Smith, A., 2018. Dune restoration and
674 enhancement for the Florida Panhandle. SGEB-76, Florida Sea Grant College Program,
675 UF/IFAS Extension. <http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/pdffiles/SG/SG15600.pdf>

676 Nambuthiri, S., Fulcher, A., Koeser, A.K., Geneve, R., Niu, G., 2015. Moving toward sustainability
677 with alternative containers for greenhouse and nursery crop production: a review and research
678 update. *HortTechnology.* 25, 8-16. <https://doi.org/10.21273/HORTTECH.25.1.8>

679 Nambuthiri, S., Schnelle, R., Fulcher, A., Geneve, R., Koeser, A., Verlinden, S., Conneway, R.,
680 2013. Alternative containers for a sustainable greenhouse and nursery crop production. HortFact-
681 6000. University of Kentucky.

682 Nazareth, M., Marques, M.R.C., Leite, M.C.A., Castro, I.B., 2019. Commercial plastics claiming
683 biodegradable status: is this also accurate for marine environment? J Hazard Mater. 366, 714-
684 722. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2018.12.052>

685 Nordstrom, K.F., 2008. Beach and dune restoration. Cambridge University Press, New York.

686 Schrader, J.A., McCabe, K.G., Grewell, D., Graves, W.R., 2017. Bioplastics and biocomposites for
687 sustainable horticultural containers: performance and biodegradation in home compost. Acta
688 Hort. 1170, 1101-1108. <https://doi.org/10.17660/ActaHortic.2017.1170.142>

689 Seddon, S., 2004. Going with the flow: facilitating seagrass rehabilitation. Ecol. Manag. Restor. 5,
690 167-176. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1442-8903.2004.00205.x>

691 Seggiani, M., Cinelli, P., Mallegni, N., Balestri, E., Lardicci, C., Lazzeri, A., 2017a.
692 Biodegradability of PHA-based composites in marine and terrestrial environments. J. Chem.
693 Eng. Pro. Technol. 8, 82. <http://doi.org/10.4172/2157-7048-C1-006>

694 Seggiani, M., Cinelli, P., Mallegni, N., Balestri, E., Puccini, M., Vitolo, S., Lardicci, C., Lazzeri,
695 A., 2017b. New bio-composites based on polyhydroxyalkanoates and *Posidonia oceanica* fibres
696 for applications in a marine environment. Materials. 10, 326. <http://doi.org/10.3390/ma10040326>

697 Seggiani, M., Cinelli, P., Balestri, E., Mallegni, N., Stefanelli, E., Rossi, A., Lardicci, C., Lazzeri,
698 A., 2018. Novel sustainable composites based on poly(hydroxybutyrate-co-hydroxyvalerate) and
699 seagrass beach-CAST fibers: performance and degradability in marine environments. Materials.
700 11, 772. <http://doi.org/10.3390/ma11050772>

701 Short, F.T., Coles, R.G., 2001. Global seagrass research methods. Elsevier, Amsterdam-London-
702 New York-Oxford-Shannon-Tokyo. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-444-50891-1.X5000-2>

703 Siyag, P.R., 2014. Afforestation, reforestation and forest restoration in arid and semi-arid Tropics.
704 Springer Dordrecht Heidelberg London New York.

705 Suykerbuyk, W., Govers, L.L., Bouma, T.J., Giesen, W.B.J.T., de Jong, D.J., van de Voort, R.,
706 Giesen, K., Giesen, P.T., van Katwijk, M.M., 2016. Unpredictability in seagrass restoration:
707 analysing the role of positive feedback and environmental stress on *Zostera noltii* transplants. J
708 Appl Ecol. 53, 774–784. <http://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.12614>

709 Teixeira, L.H., Weisser, W., Ganade, G., 2016. Facilitation and sand burial affect plant survival
710 during restoration of a tropical coastal sand dune degraded by tourist cars. Restor. Ecol. 24, 390-
711 397. <https://doi.org/10.1111/rec.12327>

712 Thetford, M., Miller, D.L., 2002. Propagation of four Florida coastal dune species. NPJ. 3, 112-120.

713 Volova, T.G., Boyandin, A.N., Vasiliev, A.D., Karpov, V.A., Prudnikova, S.V., Mishukova, O.V.,
714 et al. 2010. Biodegradation of polyhydroxyalkanoates (PHAs) in tropical coastal waters and
715 identification of PHA-degrading bacteria. Polym. Degrad. Stab. 95, 2350-2359.
716 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.polymdegradstab.2010.08.023>

717 Zarranz, M.E., Gonzalez-Henríquez, N., García-Jiménez, P., Robaina, R.R., 2010. Restoration of
718 *Cymodocea nodosa* seagrass meadows through seed propagation: germination in vitro, seedling
719 culture and field transplants. Bot. Mar. 53, 173–181. <https://doi.org/10.1515/BOT.2010.01>

720 Xanthos, D., Walker, T.R., 2017. International policies to reduce plastic marine pollution from
721 single-use plastics (plastic bags and microbeads): A review. Mar Pollut Bull. 118, 17–26.
722 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.02.048>

723
724
725
726
727
728
729
730