

1 **Harnessing spatial nutrient distribution and facilitative intraspecific interactions to enhance**  
2 **coastal dune restoration**

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27 **Abstract**

28 Planting engineer species is widely used to restore coastal dune ecosystems. However, this  
29 approach needs to be improved to reduce plant mortality due to environmental stresses.

30 Applying fertilizers and using designs promoting positive plant-plant interactions is  
31 increasingly advocated to enhance restoration of stressful coastal habitats. However, how  
32 the sign of plant interactions is affected by soil nutrient distribution pattern and varies  
33 depending on species architecture is poorly understood, and thus neglected in designing  
34 dune restoration interventions.

35 We conducted a one-year field-mesocosm experiment assessing the effects of homogeneous  
36 and heterogeneous nutrient distributions on functional traits and intensity of interactions in  
37 two common dune species with contrasting architecture. Clonal fragments of *Calamagrostis*  
38 *arenaria* (phalanx architecture) and *Sporobolus virginicus* (guerrilla architecture) were  
39 grown in monoculture either at low density or at high density with the same total supply of  
40 fertilizer applied either patchily or uniformly.

41 *Calamagrostis arenaria* allocated less biomass below- than aboveground under homogenous  
42 than heterogeneous nutrient conditions and generally produced more shoots when grown at  
43 high than at low density. Intraspecific interactions based on aboveground biomass, root  
44 biomass and total biomass shifted from positive to neutral under heterogeneous conditions  
45 while those on rhizome biomass switched from neutral to negative. *Sporobolus virginicus*  
46 produced shorter shoots under heterogeneous than homogeneous conditions, and  
47 intraspecific interactions on all biomass variables shifted from neutral to negative.

48 Our results demonstrate that nutrient distribution can affect functional traits and change the  
49 nature of intraspecific interactions differentially in phalanx and guerrilla species. Notably,  
50 they suggest that in nutrient homogenous substrates and high planting density could  
51 considerably increase the performance of phalanx species but reduce that of guerrilla species  
52 due to severe competition. Instead, in heterogenous substrates both species could perform

53 similarly when planted at low and high density. These findings may significantly help  
54 restoration practitioners in choosing more effective planting designs and fertilization  
55 schemes for dune restoration.

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57 **Keywords:** *Ammophila arenaria*, clonal plant, nature-based solution, plant-plant  
58 interaction, *Sporobolus virginicus*

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60 **Highlights**

- 61 1. Revegetating degraded dune ecosystems is a critical step in coastal restoration.
- 62 2. Phalanx species grow better at high density in nutrient uniform substrate.
- 63 3. Guerrilla species grow better at low density in nutrient uniform substrate.
- 64 4. Plants performed similarly at low and high density under nutrient heterogeneity.
- 65 5. Promoting facilitation and manipulating nutrients enhance coastal restoration.

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## 79 **1. Introduction**

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81 The combination of climate change-driven factors, like sea level rise and flooding associated with  
82 intense storm events, poses a major threat to coastal ecosystems and services ( ). Naturally  
83 vegetated coastal dune systems act as a natural protective structure providing a physical barrier to  
84 flooding and wave attack (Defeo et al., 2009; Barbier et al., 2011). Dune vegetation plays a critical  
85 role in maintaining dune stability and promoting dune recovery after disturbances by facilitating  
86 incipient dune development, a role mediated by plant traits (Maun, 2009; Long et al., 2013; Feagin  
87 et al., 2015; De Battisti and Griffin, 2020; Edge et al., 2020). Severely damaged dune systems,  
88 however, may require re-establishment to provide an effective coastal defense. This process  
89 involves a series of interventions, including beach nourishment, installation of fences and planting  
90 of ecosystem engineers (i.e., species that fundamentally influence their community and ecosystem  
91 by creating or altering the physical structure of habitats, Jones et al. 1994, Wright and Jones 2006),  
92 or pioneer species that facilitate the colonization of later species through their beneficial effect on  
93 the environment (Bruno 2000; Calloway 1995; Bertness and Callaway 1994). The integration of  
94 this “soft” engineering nature-based practice and hard engineering structures may provide a  
95 realistic, cost-effective strategy to protect coastline and re-establish the multiple valuable services  
96 provided by coastal ecosystems (Hanley et al., 2020). However, the main problem in implementing  
97 the soft natural defense approach is the high rates of plant mortality caused by harsh dune habitat  
98 conditions (i.e., low soil moisture, sand burial, and sea spray) and improper planting (Wilson and  
99 Sykes 1999; Hesp 1991; Maun ....; Franks and Peterson, 2003; Martínez and García-Franco, 2008;  
100 Maun, 2009; Brown and Zinnert, 2018). Therefore, new planting strategies are needed to increase  
101 the effectiveness of coastal restoration.

102 Currently, the reconstruction of damaged or nourished dunes typically consists of planting dominant  
103 native species in monoculture, with plants normally spaced from 30-90 cm apart to minimize plant  
104 competition (Feagin et al., 2015; Silliman et al., 2015; Wootton et al., 2016; Miller et al., 2018). A

105 fertilizer is usually added after planting to ensure satisfactory plant growth and accelerate  
106 restoration of dune communities, but this practice requires careful attention as it may damage dune  
107 communities favoring the growth of opportunistic grass species (Long et al., 2013; ). However,  
108 planting designs and fertilization schemes are generally based more on practitioner experience  
109 rather than on ecological theories, and they neglect for example the nature (positive or negative) of  
110 the interactions occurring among individuals of the same species or of different species. A new  
111 method that has recently gained interest among coastal restoration ecologists, is the harnessing of  
112 positive (facilitative) plant-plant interactions by planting target species at high density or in an  
113 aggregated configuration (Halperm et al., 2007; Silliman et al., 2015; Renzi et al., 2019). This  
114 approach is inspired by ecological theories, which predict that in stressful environments positive  
115 interactions among plants are critical for plant survival (Bertness and Callaway, 1994; Franks and  
116 Peterson, 2003). Plants may facilitate each other through a variety of mechanisms, such as  
117 increasing water retention, protection from solar radiation or leaching of nutrients from decayed  
118 plant materials, ameliorating the harsh abiotic conditions ( ). However, recent attempts to restore  
119 coastal dunes have shown that the effectiveness of using facilitation-maximizing planting designs  
120 depends on abiotic conditions. Indeed, in more physically stressful dune zones, such as slopes, this  
121 planting design may increase transplant survival but fail to promote plant growth (Fischman et al.,  
122 2019). Instead, competition-minimizing designs may increase both transplant survival and growth  
123 in low-stress high dune areas, outperforming facilitation-maximizing designs (Fischman et al.,  
124 2019). However, the potential role of other factors such as the spatial distribution of soil nutrients in  
125 restoring sites in influencing the outcome of plant interactions and other measures of ecosystem  
126 functioning has been largely neglected.

127 Studies have demonstrated that in natural environments the availability of nutrients varies  
128 significantly, even at spatial scales detectable by individual plants (Ehrenfeld et al., 1997; Cain et  
129 al., 1999). Nutrients are usually scarce in dune systems, but a variety of factors such as the  
130 accumulation of beach wrack and litter and chronic atmospheric deposition of nitrogen can

131 influence their spatial distribution (Maun, 2009;     ). Even the addition of fertilizers in restoring  
132 areas to relieve extreme nutrient limitation and allow the spread of dune plants (Long et al., 2013;  
133 Wootton et al., 2016; Miller et al., 2018) has the potential to influence nutrient distribution. Indeed,  
134 when dispersed uniformly across the whole planted area the fertilizer can lead to a uniform nutrient  
135 distribution while when added around the base of each plant can generate a patchy nutrient  
136 distribution. There is evidence that in nutrient heterogeneous substrate some plants can concentrate  
137 their nutrient-acquiring organs in high nutrient areas relative to low nutrient areas (Birch and  
138 Hutchings, 1994; Day et al., 2003; McNickle et al., 2009). This foraging capacity enables these  
139 plants to benefit more, in terms of whole growth, from nutrient heterogeneous environments rather  
140 than homogeneous ones (Birch and Hutchings, 1994; Hutchings and Wijesinghe, 2008; Zhou et al.,  
141 2012). At the same time, the proliferation of nutrient acquiring organs in nutrient-rich patches may  
142 increase the intensity of competition among neighbor plants (Fransen et al., 2001; Day et al., 2003;  
143 Mommer et al., 2012). However, large variability in plant response exists among species.

144     In traditional restoration programs, one or two dune-building species are used, i.e., *Ammophila*  
145 *arenaria* and *Elymus farctus* in Europe; *Ammophila breviligualta* and *Uniola paniculata* in North  
146 America;     in Australia ). Pioneer species such as *Sporobolus virginicus*     are also used. These  
147 plants are clonal and spread vegetatively by rhizomes. Clonal species differ in their spatial  
148 architecture; phalanx plants produced densely packed ramets connected by short spacers (Lovett-  
149 Doust, 1981; Saiz et al., 2016), and thus they possess relatively poor ability to spread in a horizontal  
150 space across patches with different levels of nutrients. Guerrilla plants, by contrast, produced  
151 widely spaced ramets connected by long spacers (Lovett-Doust, 1981; Saiz et al., 2016), and  
152 therefore they may colonize quickly patches with different levels of nutrients. According to  
153 modelling and empirical studies, phalanx plants would monopolize locally abundant nutrients and  
154 thus would be favored in nutrient homogeneous environments whereas guerrilla plants would have  
155 an advantage in exploiting nutrients in heterogeneous environments by means of their foraging  
156 organs (Humphrey and Pyke, 1998; Ye et al., 2006; Saiz et al., 2016; Xue et al., 2018).

157 We conducted a one-year field-mesocosm experiment designed to develop more efficient  
158 planting methods to restore foredunes. Specifically, we investigated how the planting design (low  
159 and high plant density) and spatial nutrient distribution pattern (heterogeneous and homogeneous)  
160 affected plant traits and the intensity of intraspecific interactions in phalanx and guerrilla species  
161 widely used in dune restoration. To do this, clonal fragments of each of species were grown in  
162 monoculture either as single individual or with a conspecific individual with a fertilizer distributed  
163 patchily or homogeneously in the substrate. For each species, we measured a suite of functional traits  
164 potentially related to ecosystem functioning and service provision ( ). These are plant height and  
165 number of shoots (both have been linked to wave attenuation potential), above-ground biomass (a  
166 proxy for productivity and related to wave attenuation potential, and below-ground biomass (linked  
167 to productivity and to sediment stability). The research hypothesis assumes that the spatial  
168 distribution of nutrients may influence the relationships among transplants in opposite direction in  
169 guerrilla and phalanx species. Planting at high density (i.e., using maximizing-facilitation designs)  
170 is expected to promote the growth of phalanx species but only in nutrient homogenous substrates  
171 and favor the growth of guerrilla species but only in heterogenous substrates. This assessment  
172 would improve coastal ecosystem restoration by assisting practitioners in determining under what  
173 conditions and for which type of species applying planting designs that maximize facilitation or  
174 alternatively that minimize competition.

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## 176 **2. Materials and methods**

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### 178 *2.1 Study species and experimental design*

179 Both selected species are perennial rhizomatous grasses. *Calamagrostis arenaria*  
180 subsp. *arundinacea* (Husn.) Banfi, Galasso & Bartolucci ex *Ammophila arenaria* *Calamagrostis*  
181 *arenaria* is a tall late successional species that generally colonizes embryonic dunes leading to the  
182 formation of high foredunes (van Puijenbroek et al., 2017; Reijers et al., 2019). *Sporobolus*

183 *virginicus* (L.) Kunth is a pioneer species that rapidly colonizes beaches to form wide and low  
184 embryonic dunes (Hitchcock, 1971; Blits and Gallagher, 1991; Frosini et al., 2012; Balestri and  
185 Lardicci, 2013). Similar sized clonal fragments of the two species (two shoots and a rhizome  
186 portion approximately 2 cm long) were cut from local natural populations along the dune system of  
187 Rosignano Solvay (Italy, 43° 22' 21.73" N, 10° 26' 24.32" E) in early October. Before the start of  
188 the experiment, mesocosms consisting of plant growing containers (42 cm long, 18 cm wide, and 21  
189 cm deep) were filled with pre-washed commercially available sand (silica sand 0.5 mm size, pH 8,  
190 organic matter < 0.01%).

191 For each of the two species as the target, the experimental design involved a factorial  
192 combination of two levels of spatial nutrient distribution (heterogeneous and homogenous) and two  
193 levels of planting density (low or 1 transplant per mesocosm corresponding to about 10 transplants  
194 m<sup>2</sup> and high or 2 transplants per mesocosm corresponding to about 20 transplants m<sup>2</sup>). The low  
195 density was chosen as it has been used in previous restoration experiments (Gallego-Fernández et  
196 al., 2011; ). Each treatment combination was replicated four times. In total, 32 mesocosms were  
197 established (2 species × 2 nutrient distributions × 2 planting density × 4 replicates). To generate  
198 the different nutrient distribution patterns, nutrients were supplied in the form of a slow-release  
199 fertilizer (Pluscote, 16%:8%:16% NPK, Orvital, Italy) and distributed either patchily or uniformly  
200 over the substrate. Total fertilizer supply (9 g) was the same in the two nutrient treatments to avoid  
201 confounding between the effects of nutrient concentration and spatial nutrient distribution. In the  
202 heterogeneous treatments, the fertilizer was concentrated in three patches (6 cm diameter); one patch  
203 was in the middle of the mesocosm, and the other two patches were located laterally on opposite  
204 sides of the mesocosm (Fig. 1). Thus, each patch contained 3 g of fertilizer. In the homogeneous  
205 distribution treatments, the same total amount of fertilizer was distributed evenly into the surface of  
206 sand across the mesocosm (Fig. 1).

207 In all treatments, one rhizome fragment of the target species (either *C. arenaria* or *S. virginicus*)  
208 was planted on one side of the mesocosm in the space between the lateral nutrient-rich patch and



209 the central nutrient-rich patch in the heterogenous treatments or in an equivalent position in the  
210 homogeneous treatments (Fig. 1). In the low planting density treatment, no other fragment was  
211 planted on the opposite side. This treatment mimicked a dispersed planting arrangement. In the high  
212 planting density treatment, a second fragment of the same target specie was planted on the opposite  
213 side of the mesocosm, in the space between the central nutrient-rich patch and the lateral nutrient-  
214 rich patch in the heterogenous treatments or in an equivalent position in the homogeneous  
215 treatments (Fig. 1). The distance between two transplants were about 15 cm, mimicking a clumped  
216 planting arrangement. In total, 48 rhizome fragments were planted. Mesocosms were randomly  
217 allocated in a foredune area (100 m<sup>2</sup>) of Rosignano Solvay about 1 m each other and buried in the  
218 substrate. In order to protect plants against damage from herbivores and trampling the experimental  
219 area was fenced. Plants were watered once a day with tap water for the first week of the experiment  
220 and then left under natural weather conditions for one year. Total annual precipitation varied from  
221 490.3 and 1324 mm, and mean annual temperature ranged from 15.1 to 16.3°C in this area during  
222 the experimental period.

223

## 224 *2.2 Plant measurements*

225 One year after planting, the survival of plants in each mesocosm was assessed. Aboveground parts  
226 of each plant in each mesocosm were cut where they emerged from the substrate. Shoot number and  
227 height were measured prior to plant collection. Then, belowground parts were carefully extracted by  
228 hand from sediment and separated into roots and rhizomes. All plant parts were cleaned from  
229 adherent sediment particles by using tap water, oven-dried at 70°C to constant weight and weighted.  
230 For each species grown at low density (i.e., alone), belowground biomass was calculated by  
231 summing root biomass and rhizome biomass. Total plant biomass was determined by summing the  
232 biomass of above- and belowground portions. Below- to aboveground biomass ratio was also  
233 calculated as changes in biomass allocation in dune plants can affect ecosystem functioning and

234 service (Poorter et al., 2012). In the high planting density treatments, biomass measures were  
235 averaged between two plants.

236 Finally, the relative interaction index (RII, Armas et al., 2004) based on biomass variables of each  
237 species was calculated to quantify the intensity of intraspecific interaction:

$$238 \text{ RII} = (P_1 - P_0) / (P_1 + P_0) \quad (1)$$

239 where  $P_1$  represents the average biomass of plants grown at high density, and  $P_0$  is the biomass of  
240 the plant grown alone. RII values range from  $-1$  to  $1$ , with positive values indicating facilitation,  
241 negative values indicating competition, and a zero-value indicating the absence of a significant  
242 interaction between plants. RIIs were calculated separately for each level of the factor nutrient  
243 distribution (heterogenous and homogeneous). This allowed us to assess how the effects of high  
244 planting density and nutrient distribution interacted in determining positive or negative interactions  
245 and plant cover.

246

### 247 2.3 Statistical analysis

248 All statistical analyses were conducted with R software (v. 3.5.1; R Core Team, 2018). Before  
249 performing the analyses, data were checked for normality and homoscedasticity using Shapiro–  
250 Wilk and Cochran  $C$  tests, respectively. For each species, the effects of treatments on plant response  
251 variables (number of shoots, shoot height, and biomasses) were analyzed separately using a two-  
252 way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with nutrient distribution, planting density, and their  
253 interactions as fixed factors (GAD package; Sandrini-Neto and Camargo, 2020). Data on shoot  
254 number of *C. arenaria* were square root transformed, and data on root biomass of *S. virginicus* were  
255 log transformed to meet the requirements for normality and homoscedasticity. Since no  
256 transformation improved normality of data for *C. arenaria* rhizome biomass, root biomass, below-  
257 to aboveground biomass ratio, and for *S. virginicus* shoot number, these variables were analyzed  
258 using a univariate two-way PERMANOVA based on the Euclidean distance of the data using 9999  
259 permutations of the residuals under the reduced model (vegan package; Oksanen et al., 2019).

260 When in *posteriori* pairwise comparisons there were not enough permutable units to get a  
261 reasonable test by permutation, *P*-values were obtained by using a Monte Carlo random sample  
262 from the asymptotic permutation distribution (Anderson et al., 2008). Statistically significant terms  
263 were checked for differences in multivariate group dispersion with the permutational analysis of  
264 multivariate dispersion. Where appropriate, Student Newman-Keuls (SNK) test in ANOVAs and  
265 pairwise comparison test in PERMANOVAs were used to distinguish among levels of significant  
266 factors. Significant deviations of mean RII values from zero at the  $P = 0.05$  level were assessed  
267 using a two-sided single mean *t* test. The effects of nutrient distribution treatment on RIIs were  
268 investigated using one-way univariate PERMANOVAs based on the Euclidean distance of the data  
269 since some RII data violated the assumption of normality. Significance levels were calculated from  
270 9999 permutations of unrestricted permutation of raw data as this permutation method provides an  
271 exact test for one-way design (Anderson et al., 2008).

272

### 273 **3. Results**

274

275 One year after planting, all plants were still alive. *Calamagrostis arenaria* plants grown at low  
276 density had less shoots than those grown at high density regardless of nutrient distribution (Fig. 2;  
277 Table 1). Overall, the below- to aboveground biomass ratio was higher under heterogeneous than  
278 homogeneous conditions due to decreased root biomass (Fig. 2; Table 1). No difference among  
279 treatments was found for the remaining examined variables (Fig. 2; Table 1). Relative interaction  
280 intensity indices based on aboveground biomass, root biomass, and total biomass were positive and  
281 differed significantly from zero in the nutrient homogenous treatment indicating intraspecific  
282 facilitation while they were close to zero in the heterogenous treatment revealing no consistent  
283 plant-plant interaction (Fig. 3; Table 2). Instead, the RII index on rhizome biomass was negative  
284 and significantly different from zero in the heterogenous treatment suggesting a competitive  
285 interaction (Fig. 3; Table 2).

286 On average, *Sporobolus virginicus* plants had shorter shoots under nutrient heterogeneous than  
287 homogeneous conditions (Fig. 4; Table 1). There was a significant effect of the interaction between  
288 nutrient distribution and planting density for root biomass and total plant biomass (Fig. 3; Table 1).  
289 Plants grown at low density in the heterogeneous substrate had lower root biomass and total plant  
290 biomass than those grown in the homogenous substrate, and in this latter condition plants grown at  
291 low density had greater biomasses than those grown at high density (Fig. 4; Table 1). RIIs on all  
292 biomass variables were negative and significantly different from zero in the homogenous treatment  
293 indicating plant competition (Fig. 3; Table 2) while they did not significantly differ from zero in the  
294 heterogenous treatment suggesting no plant interaction (Fig. 3; Table 2). For both species, RIIs on  
295 root biomass and total biomass of plants grown under homogeneous and heterogeneous conditions  
296 differed significantly (Table 3). Significant differences between the two nutrient treatments were  
297 also observed for RII on aboveground biomass and rhizome biomass but only for *S. virginicus*  
298 (Table 3).

299

#### 300 **4. Discussion**

301

302 The results of this study partially support the predictions that phalanx species would be favored  
303 under nutrient homogeneous conditions while guerrilla species would benefit from heterogeneous  
304 conditions (Humphrey and Pyke, 1998; Ye et al., 2006; Saiz et al., 2016; Xue et al., 2018). Our  
305 study indeed reveals that both phalanx and guerrilla species do not respond to nutrient heterogeneity  
306 by increasing their total plant biomass. There are several possible non-exclusive explanations for  
307 the lack of growth responses of clonal plants to nutrient heterogeneity. A first explanation is that in  
308 nutrient-poor habitats like dunes the costs of producing new nutrient-acquiring organs might be not  
309 compensated by benefits gained by a plant from those organs when it encounters nutrient-rich  
310 patches within heterogenous environments (Crick and Grime, 1987; Fransen and de Kroon, 2001).  
311 A second explanation is that plants respond to the establishment in a favourable patch by supporting

312 ramet growth in bad patches at the expense of ramet growth in good patches (de Kroon et al., 1998;  
313 Wang et al., 2020). Here, we found that under nutrient heterogenous conditions, *C. arenaria* plants  
314 allocated comparatively more biomass in below- than aboveground organs compared to those  
315 grown under homogeneous conditions. This suggest that the species probably relies on the shift in  
316 biomass allocation to maximize nutrient acquisition and to cope with soil nutrient heterogeneity.  
317 Instead, *S. virginicus* did not show any shift in biomass allocation, even if produced shorter shoots  
318 in heterogeneous than homogenous substrate, suggesting that this species can rely on physiological  
319 integration to cope with heterogenous nutrient conditions.

320 Our study also confirms the hypothesis that nutrient distribution differently affected the intensity  
321 of interaction in phalanx and guerrilla species. Indeed, in nutrient heterogenous substrate *C.*  
322 *arenaria* exhibited less horizontal spread ability when planted at high than at low density likely due  
323 to increased competition for available space as suggested by the significant negative RII values  
324 observed for rhizome biomass. Instead, in nutrient homogeneous substrate intraspecific interactions  
325 were generally positive indicating that plants growing at high density produced more biomass and  
326 spread faster than those planted at low density. Many previous studies have documented the  
327 occurrence of negative interspecific plant interactions, while few studies have provided evidence of  
328 positive intraspecific interactions in highly stressful habitats like dunes (Harley and Bertness, 1996;  
329 Chu et al., 2008; Martínez and García-Franco, 2008; Fajardo and McIntire, 2011). Intraspecific  
330 facilitation can occur when the positive effects of conspecific neighbors, in terms of improved  
331 resources and microclimate conditions or reduced abiotic stresses, are greater than negative effects  
332 due to competition for resources (Harley and Bertness, 1996; Liancourt et al., 2005; Martínez and  
333 García-Franco, 2008). Here, the greater production of biomass observed for plants grown at high  
334 density than at low density could be attributed to self-facilitating mechanisms reducing abiotic  
335 stresses such as increasing water retention, protection from solar radiation or leaching of nutrients  
336 from decayed plant material. Instead, under homogeneous conditions *S. virginicus* plants performed  
337 less when grown at high than at low density due strong competition between conspecifics as

338 suggesting by the negative RII values observed for intraspecific interactions. By contrast, the lack  
339 of relevant intraspecific interactions under heterogenous conditions suggests that this species may  
340 perform similarly when planted at high and low density.

341 The contrasting effects of heterogeneous and homogeneous nutrient distributions on functional  
342 traits and outcome of intraspecific interactions observed in this study can have important practical  
343 implications in coastal restoration. Notably, they indicate that planting rhizomes of *C. arenaria* at  
344 high density in nutrient homogenous areas could involve greater efforts, but it could result in  
345 enhancing sand trapping and accumulation efficiency and substrate binding. Planting *S. virginicus*  
346 at high density in nutrient homogenous substrate could lead to opposite effects. Instead, planting at  
347 high density in heterogenous substrates could not provide increased ecosystem benefits regardless  
348 of the architecture of the planted species.

349

## 350 **5. Conclusions**

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352 This study reveals that both the performance and spread ability of dune plants varied  
353 significantly depending on their spatial architecture, planting density, and spatial distributions of  
354 soil nutrients. Notably, our results show that planting phalanx species such as *C. arenaria* in  
355 homogenous substrates at high density or clumped pattern rather than spaced apart or at low density  
356 resulted in total plant biomass up to four times greater. This suggests that in dune areas where  
357 nutrients are naturally distributed or supplied homogeneously in the form of fertilizers restoration  
358 efforts involving these species could benefit from using facilitation-maximizing planting designs,  
359 resulting in faster dune colonization and recovery of ecosystem services. However, planting guerrilla  
360 species like *S. virginicus* at high density rather than at low density resulted in decreasing plant  
361 biomass up to two times. Therefore, for these species a dispersed planting design that minimize  
362 plant competition could be a more efficient strategy. Instead, in dune areas where nutrients are  
363 distributed or supplied heterogeneously using low or high planting density could provide similar

364 results in terms of total biomass regardless of species architecture. These findings are highly  
365 important for improving future coastal restoration based on soft natural defense interventions,  
366 enabling practitioners to select appropriate planting designs and fertilization scheme according to  
367 specific plants and environmental conditions.

368

### 369 **Author contribution**

370 Elena Balestri: Conceptualization, Validation, Investigation, Formal Analysis, Writing- Reviewing  
371 and Editing. Flavia Vallerini: Investigation, Visualization. Virginia Menicagli: Formal Analysis,  
372 Visualization. Claudio Lardicci: Conceptualization, Validation, Investigation, Supervision, Writing-  
373 Reviewing and Editing.

374

### 375 **Declaration of competing interests**

376 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships  
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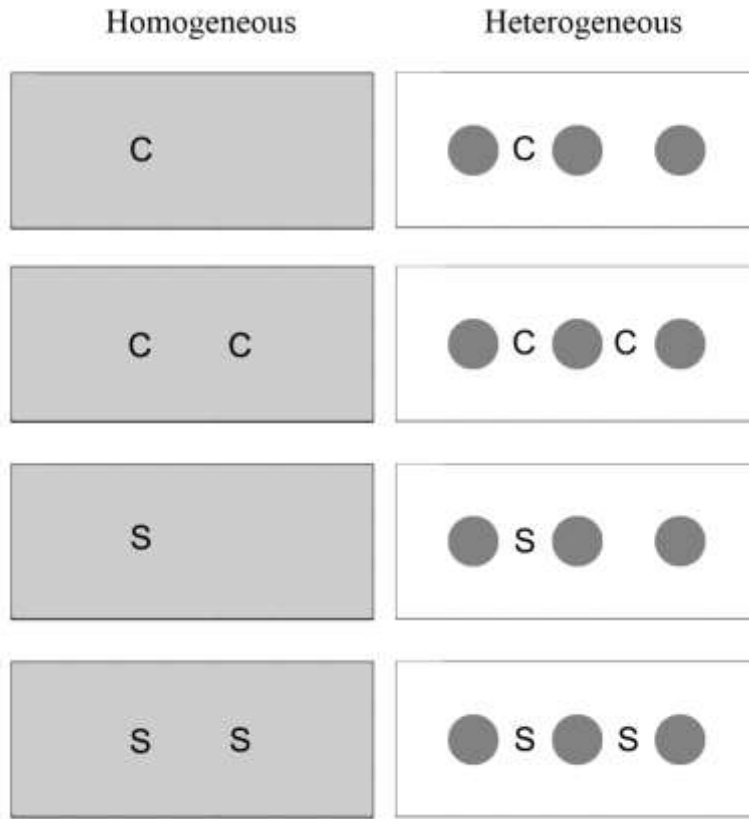
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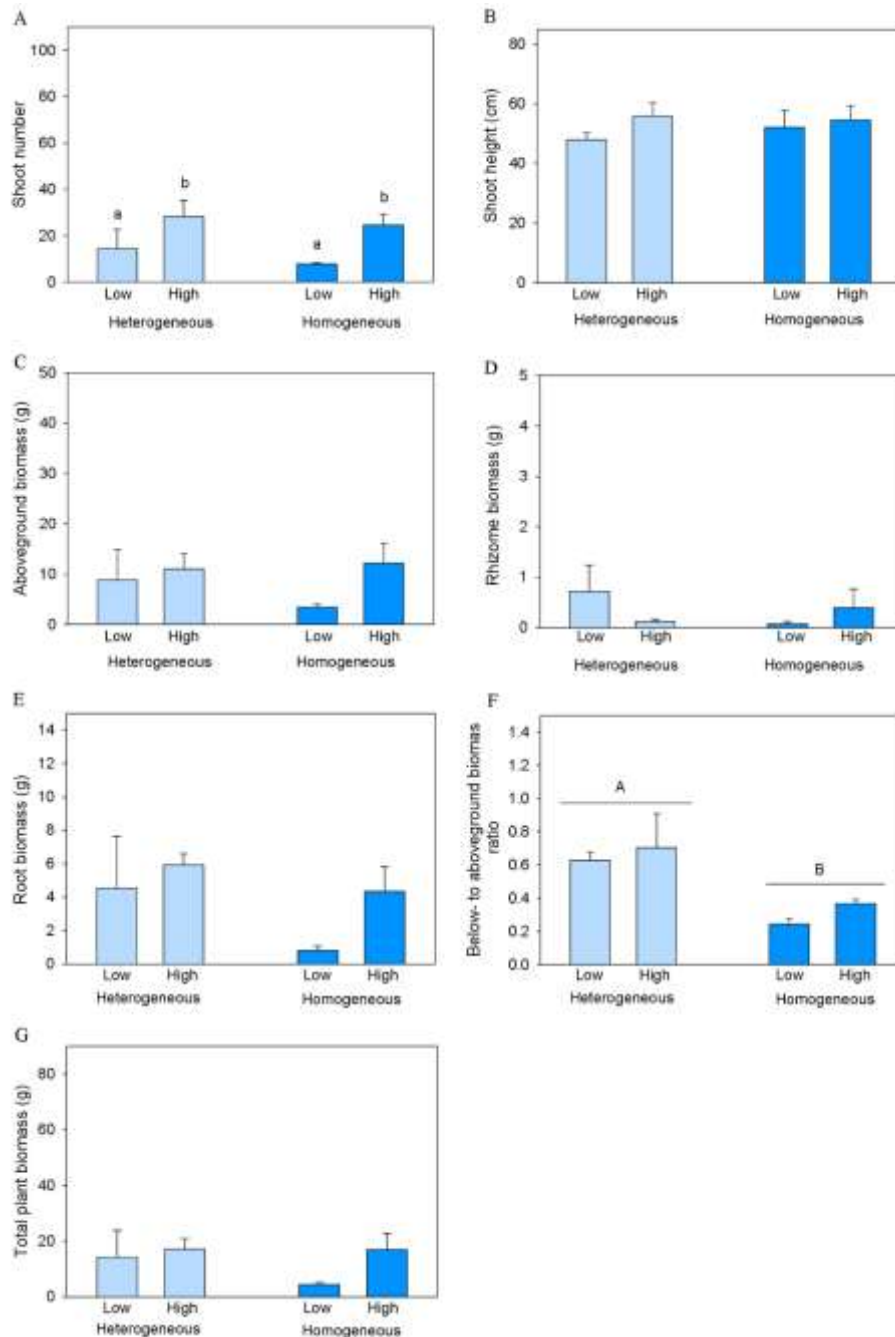
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553 **Fig. 1.** Experimental layout showing the spatial distribution of nutrients (homogenous and  
554 heterogenous) and the initial position of transplants of *Calamagrostis arenaria* (C) and *Sporobolus*  
555 *virginicus* (S) in mesocosms. Transplants of each of the two species were grown either alone (low  
556 density) or with a conspecific neighbor (high density). Light grey indicates homogenous nutrient  
557 distribution in soil (i.e., all patches contained the same quantity of fertilizer). Black squares indicate  
558 nutrient-rich patches containing the fertilizer and white squares indicate cells without the fertilizer  
559 in the nutrient heterogeneous treatments. Total nutrient availability was the same in all treatments.  
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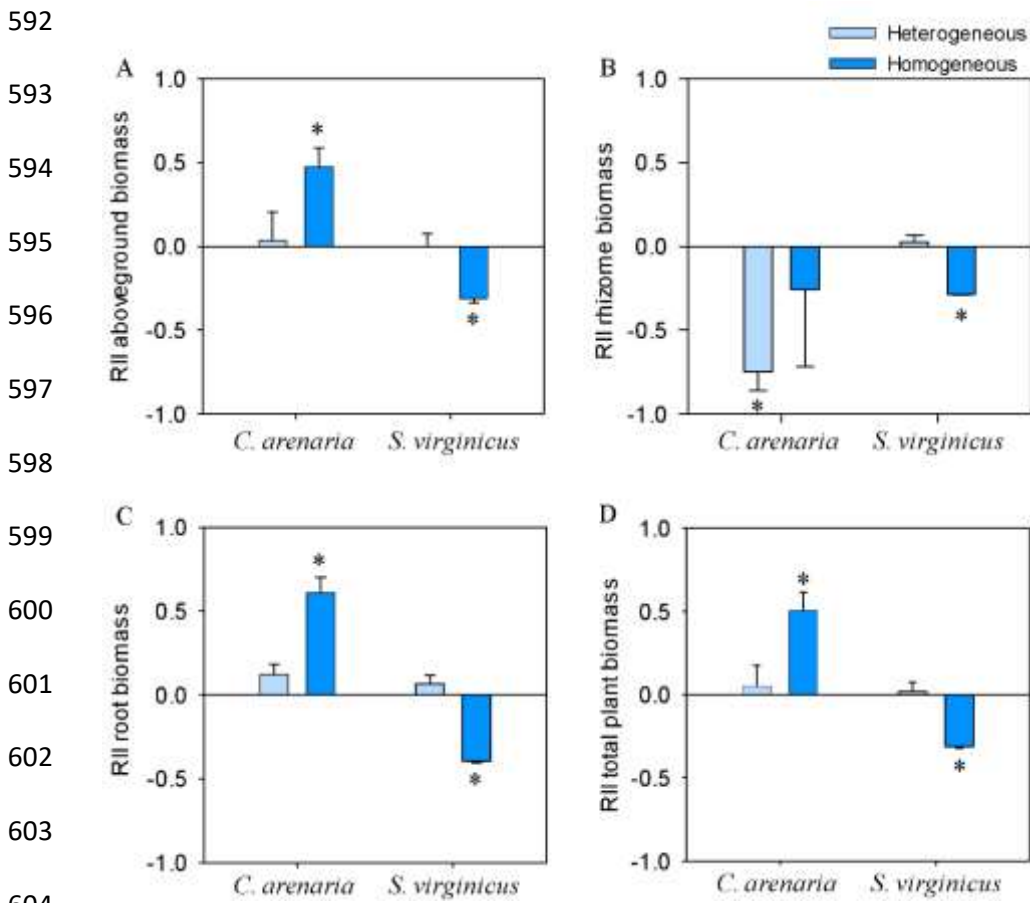
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585 **Fig. 2.** *Calamagrostis arenaria* (phalanx species). Effects of the nutrient distribution pattern  
586 (homogenous and heterogenous) and planting density (low density or single transplant, high density  
587 or with a conspecific transplant) on (A) shoot number, (B) shoot height, (C) aboveground biomass,  
588 (D) rhizome biomass, (E) root biomass, (F) below- to aboveground biomass ratio, and (G) total

589 biomass. Different letters above bars denote significant differences between treatments. Values are  
590 means  $\pm$  SE.  $n = 4$

591 2 column-fitting image, color in online version only



605 **Fig. 3.** Relative intraspecific interaction index (RII) based on plant biomass variables of the phalanx  
606 species *Calamagrostis arenaria* and the guerrilla species *Sporobolus virginicus* grown under  
607 different nutrient distribution conditions (heterogeneous and homogeneous). The symbol \* on  
608 individual bars indicates values significant ( $P < 0.05$ ). Values are means  $\pm$  SE.  $n = 4$

609 1.5 column-fitting image, color in online version only

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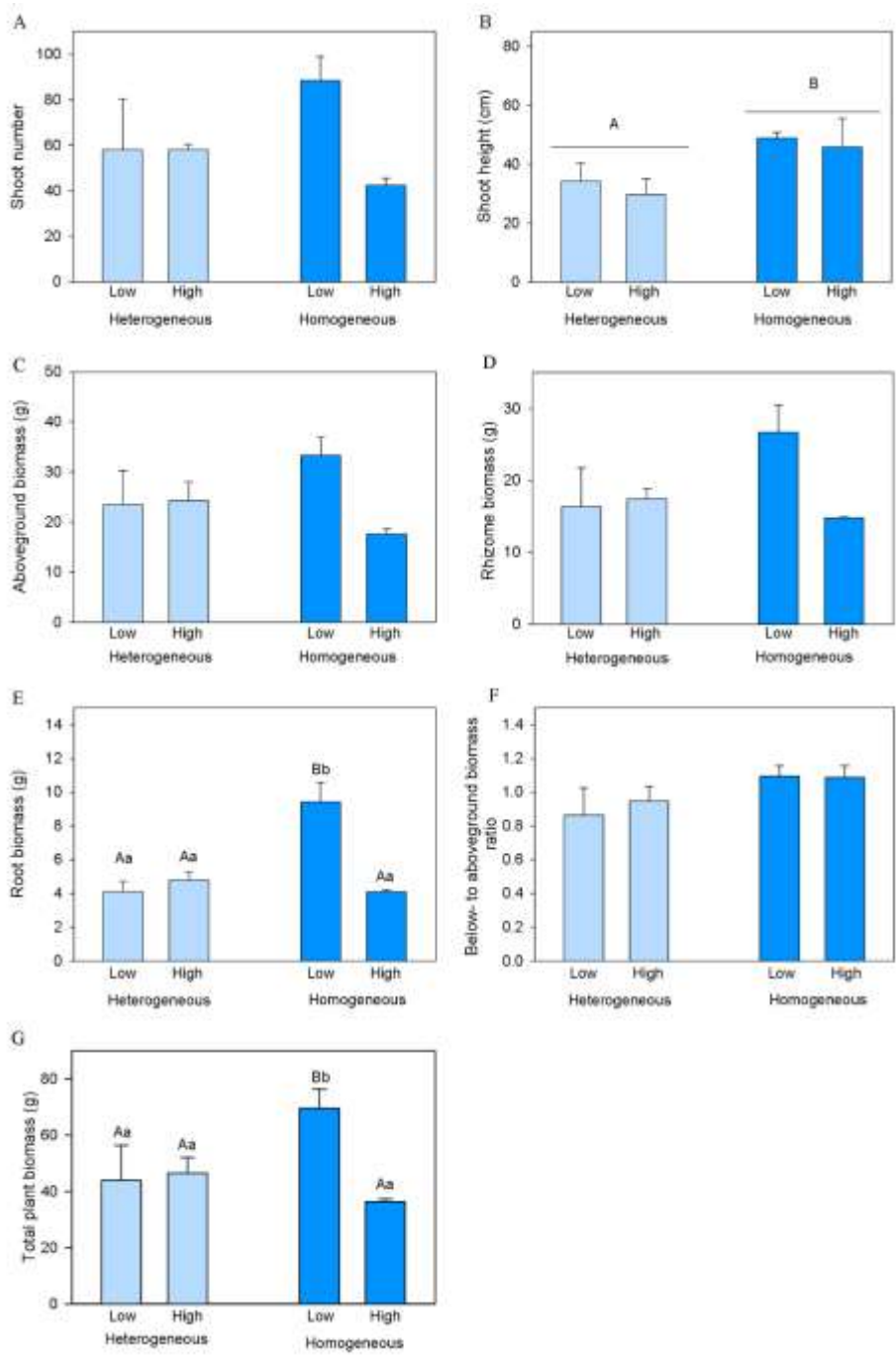
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637 **Fig. 4.** *Sporobolus virginicus* (guerrilla species). Effects of the nutrient distribution pattern  
 638 (homogenous and heterogenous) and planting density (low density or single transplant, high density  
 639 or with a conspecific transplant) on (A) shoot number, (B) shoot height, (C) aboveground biomass,  
 640 (D) rhizome biomass, (E) root biomass, (F) below- to aboveground biomass ratio, and (G) total

641 biomass. Different letters above bars denote significant differences between treatments. Values are  
642 means  $\pm$  SE.  $n = 4$   
643 2 column-fitting image, color in online version only

644 **Table 1.** Results of ANOVAs and PERMANOVAs on the effects of nutrient distribution pattern (homogeneous vs. heterogeneous) and planting  
645 density (low vs. high) on plant variables of *Calamagrostis arenaria* (phalanx species) and *Sporobolus virginicus* (guerrilla species). Values of  $P <$   
646 0.05 are in bold. Results of post-hoc comparison SNK and pairwise test are showed. LD: low density or alone; HD: high density or with a  
647 conspecific neighbor; Hom: homogeneous nutrient distribution; Het: heterogeneous nutrient distribution.

	Shoot number		Shoot height		Aboveground biomass		Rhizome biomass		Root biomass		Below to above biomass ratio		Total plant biomass			
650	<i>Calamagrostis arenaria</i>															
651	Source	df	F	P	F	P	F	P	Pseudo-F	P	Pseudo-F	P	Pseudo-F	P	F	P
652	Nutrient (Nu)	1	0.31	0.584	0.10	0.753	0.29	0.600	0.31	0.585	2.26	0.155	11.30	<b>0.001</b>	0.69	0.420
653	Density (D)	1	8.14	<b>0.014</b>	1.36	0.265	1.93	0.189	0.18	0.675	1.94	0.192	0.85	0.431	1.72	0.213
654	Nu x D	1	0.03	0.864	0.34	0.570	0.70	0.418	2.04	0.178	0.36	0.562	0.00	0.867	0.66	0.432
655	Residual	12														
656																
657	Shapiro test		$P = 0.361$		$P = 0.069$		$P = 0.052$								$P = 0.051$	
658	Cochran's test		$P = 0.112$		$P = 0.893$		$P = 0.156$								$P = 0.067$	
659	Post-hoc test		LD < HD										Hom ≠ Het			
660																
661	<i>Sporobolus virginicus</i>															
662	Source	df	Pseudo-F		F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
663	Nutrient (Nu)	1	0.35	0.561	5.80	<b>0.032</b>	0.13	0.717	1.32	0.272	10.70	<b>0.006</b>	3.22	0.097	1.02	0.332
664	Density (D)	1	3.34	0.092	0.35	0.563	2.95	0.111	2.63	0.130	8.87	<b>0.011</b>	0.13	0.719	3.90	0.071
665	Nu x D	1	3.38	0.090	0.01	0.898	3.67	0.079	3.72	0.077	20.90	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.18	0.676	5.33	<b>0.039</b>
666	Residual	12														
667																
668	Shapiro test				$P = 0.220$		$P = 0.076$		$P = 0.105$		$P = 0.125$		$P = 0.126$		$P = 0.093$	
669	Cochran's test				$P = 0.178$		$P = 0.105$		$P = 0.084$		$P = 0.352$		$P = 0.114$		$P = 0.063$	
670	Post-hoc test				Het < Hom						Hom: HD < LD				Hom: HD < LD	
671											LD: Het < Hom				LD: Het < Hom	
672																
673																

674 **Table 2.** Results of one sample *t* test for significant difference from zero (i.e., no interaction) of the  
675 relative interaction index (RII) based on aboveground biomass, rhizome biomass, root biomass, and  
676 total biomass of the phalanx species *Calamagrostis arenaria* (a) and the guerrilla species  
677 *Sporobolus virginicus* (b) grown under different spatial nutrient distribution conditions,  
678 homogeneous and heterogenous. Values of *P* < 0.05 are in bold.

(a)		RII Aboveground biomass			RII Rhizome biomass		RII Root biomass		RII Total plant biomass	
	df	t	<i>P</i>	t	<i>P</i>	t	<i>P</i>	t	<i>P</i>	
Homogeneous	3	4.27	<b>0.023</b>	-0.55	0.615	6.58	<b>0.007</b>	4.57	<b>0.019</b>	
Heterogeneous	3	0.19	0.859	-6.56	<b>0.007</b>	1.97	0.143	0.42	0.698	
(b)		RII Aboveground biomass			RII Rhizome biomass		RII Root biomass		RII Total plant biomass	
	df	t	<i>P</i>	t	<i>P</i>	t	<i>P</i>	t	<i>P</i>	
Homogeneous	3	-11.97	<b>0.001</b>	-68.53	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	-36.55	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	-29.69	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	
Heterogeneous	3	0.009	0.992	0.64	0.565	1.42	0.250	0.32	0.768	

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707 **Table 3.** Results of one-way PERMANOVA testing the  
 708 effects of nutrient distribution pattern (homogeneous vs.  
 709 heterogeneous) on relative interaction index (RII) values for  
 710 intraspecific interactions on biomass variables of  
 711 *Calamagrostis arenaria* (phalanx species) and *Sporobolus*  
 712 *virginicus* (guerrilla species). Values of  $P < 0.05$  are in  
 713 bold.

Variable	RII		
	df	Pseudo-F	P (MC)
<b><i>Calamagrostis arenaria:</i></b>			
Aboveground biomass	1,6	4.73	0.070
Rhizome biomass	1,6	1.05	0.342
Root biomass	1,6	19.27	<b>0.003</b>
Total plant biomass	1,6	7.50	<b>0.033</b>
<b><i>Sporobolus virginicus:</i></b>			
Aboveground biomass	1,6	16.04	<b>0.007</b>
Rhizome biomass	1,6	61.25	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Root biomass	1,6	89.21	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Total plant biomass	1,6	33.48	<b>0.001</b>

727 df are degrees of freedom for the numerators and denominators of the  
 728 PseudoF-statistic

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