

1 Going native, going local: revegetating eroded soils on the Falkland Islands using
2 native seeds and farmland waste

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4 Running head: Revegetating remote islands using native seeds

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23 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

24 SWS, BB, RU, AD conceived and designed the study; SWS, KR, SK established
25 trials and collected data; BB and SWS analyzed the data; SWS and SK wrote the first
26 draft of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final
27 approval for publication.

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35 **ABSTRACT**

36 Remote island ecosystems are vulnerable to human disturbance and habitat
37 destruction, yet they often have limited capacity to revegetate degraded habitats,
38 especially with native species. To revegetate degraded island habitats practitioners
39 often rely on importing non-native species, thereby increasing the number of
40 introduced species on islands. In this study, we investigated the effectiveness of
41 sowing wild collected native seeds and locally sourced treatments for revegetating
42 different eroded soil types (clay, peat and sand) across the Falkland Islands. A seed
43 mixture of 15 native species was sown with different supportive treatments (sheep
44 dung, sheep dags (woolly off-cuts) and geotextile matting (coir)) and their
45 combinations. After one year, native seeds provided up to 70% plant cover and
46 accrued 1.98 kg m⁻² in biomass. Three key native species *Elymus magellanicus*, *Poa*
47 *flabellata* and *Poa alopecurus* occurred in 64, 50 and 50% of all sown plots.
48 However, supportive treatments equally facilitated the colonization and establishment
49 of non-native species. At the same time, there was no difference in native plant cover
50 and biomass across different treatments or soil types, although in the absence of
51 supportive treatments there was little to no revegetation. Thus, locally sourced
52 treatments (i.e. sheep dung and dags) may provide an equally effective but low-cost
53 alternative to imported treatments (i.e. geotextiles). We further discuss challenges of
54 integrating revegetation using native seeds and livestock grazing on the Falkland
55 Islands. Our study demonstrates that native species and local treatments can provide a
56 rapid approach to revegetating degraded island habitats.

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58 Keywords: Falkland Islands, introduced species, revegetation, seeds, sheep grazing,
59 soil erosion

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69 **IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE**

- 70 - Sowing native seeds can provide rapid plant cover across major eroded soil
- 71 types (clay, peat and sand) on the Falkland Islands
- 72 - Sown native seeds do not establish without supportive treatments
- 73 - Local farmland waste (i.e. sheep dung and dags) provides low-cost treatments
- 74 that are as effective as imported treatments (i.e. geotextiles)
- 75 - Use of farmland waste facilitates colonization and establishment of non-native
- 76 species, thus this approach may be inappropriate on oceanic islands where
- 77 mitigating the spread of non-native species is important
- 78 - Using native seeds is limited by seed supply. However, large tussock-forming
- 79 grasses were the most successful colonizers and may potentially be sown at
- 80 lower seeding densities, thus optimizing wild collected seed supply

81

82 **INTRODUCTION**

83 Island ecosystems are biodiversity hotspots of global significance, yet they are also
84 highly vulnerable to human disturbance and habitat destruction. In recent decades
85 habitat loss on islands has exceeded that of adjacent mainlands (Sax & Gaines 2008).
86 In addition, many remote island communities have limited capacity to restore
87 degraded or eroded habitats, whether, for example, by planting seedlings or sowing
88 local or native seeds (Ruiz-Jaen & Aide 2005; CBD 2010; RGB KEW 2016). Due to
89 this, practitioners have commonly relied on the use of imported non-native plant
90 species at the cost of developing local restoration approaches (Hobbs et al. 2006;
91 Schlaepfer et al. 2011). Some practitioners may view non-natives as an effective tool
92 to restore degraded habitats, because seeds are readily available and typically strong
93 colonizers and competitors with high growth rates (Grant et al. 2011; Hagen et al.
94 2014). Alternatively, practitioners could perceive the use of non-natives for
95 restoration as problematic because introduced species could endanger local nature and
96 the economy (Chapin et al. 2000; Van der Wal 2015). At the same time, many native
97 species have similar colonizing and invasibility traits as non-natives (Thompson et al.
98 1995; Vilà & Weiner 2004; Kuester et al. 2014) and thus may present an underutilized
99 tool for habitat restoration. This may be particularly true for native species on islands,
100 which typically are adapted to recolonizing frequently disturbed habitats, for example
101 following tidal surges. Against this background, in our study we trialed revegetation

102 approaches that use native seeds and locally sourced treatments on degraded habitats
103 in a remote island system.

104

105 The Falkland Islands is an archipelago in the South Atlantic Ocean consisting of two
106 mainlands, East Falkland and West Falkland, and several hundred smaller islands.

107 Due to historic and current land use practices, mainly livestock rearing, the islands
108 have been subject to widespread soil erosion (Strange et al. 1988; Wilson et al. 1993).

109 Natural recovery of eroded habitats on the islands is further hindered by strong winds
110 that quickly remove topsoil and are also likely to remove the buried seed bank. Loss
111 of topsoil is common, exposing underlying mineral clay and sand-rich soil horizons
112 (Wilson et al. 1993). Clay soils on the islands are particularly dense, often above 40%
113 clay and occasionally over 60% clay with no internal structure (Cruickshank 2001).

114 Heavy clays are vulnerable to further disturbance via compaction, prone to
115 waterlogging and drying and have limited pore spaces for plants to root and access
116 water and nutrients. Given the extent of erosion, the harsh soil environment and the
117 climatic conditions, human assistance is often required to restore eroded habitats. Yet,
118 problematically, there is a limited number of effective approaches to address this issue
119 on the islands. The main method using a local species to restore habitats is to plant
120 grass tillers of *Poa flabellata* (Tussac). This approach has been successful only on
121 peat and sand soils, and establishment rates even on these soil types have been
122 inconsistent (Cris et al. 2011; Smith & Karlsson 2017). Using non-natives has
123 rendered similar results on peaty and sandy soils, with, for example, *Ammophila*
124 *arenaria* widely used to stabilize sand dunes (Davies 1939; Kerr 1994), yet non-
125 natives have also been unsuccessful in revegetating clay-rich soils. Thus, in order to
126 be effective, any approach to restoration on the islands would need to establish across
127 multiple soil types and in challenging climatic conditions.

128

129 In 2013, a pilot study was established on a single eroded clay patch on East Falkland
130 to test establishment rates of different sown native species. A mixture of 15 native
131 species was selected based on observational evidence that in some locations these
132 species successfully colonize eroded sites across the archipelago (A. Davey, R Upson
133 unpublished). As part of the pilot, seeds rather than plantlets were used for several
134 reasons including: inconsistent rates of establishment of grass tillers, to establish
135 multiple species simultaneously and increase genetic heterogeneity. Furthermore,

136 seeds were applied in combination with locally sourced treatments, namely sheep
137 dung and dags (woolly off-cuts) and wood pallets, thus avoiding importing material
138 that could otherwise be sourced locally. Importing materials has logistical difficulties
139 such as in the 1930s large-scale pasture improvement trials across the islands
140 involved shipping sheep dung – with embedded non-native seeds – 8,000 miles from
141 the UK to the Falklands (Davies 1939). Additionally, any imported organic material
142 typically involves biosecurity risks and increased likelihood of introducing alien
143 species. Overall results from the pilot were promising with the most successful
144 treatment increasing plant cover by 70% after one year. Nevertheless, to
145 comprehensively test the effectiveness of sowing native species with local treatments
146 required a larger trial across multiple soil types and microclimatic conditions on the
147 Falkland Islands.

148

149 Building on the pilot, in this study we established an island-wide restoration trial
150 sowing a mixture of 15 native plant species to restore three major eroding soil types
151 (clay, peat and sand) across the Falkland Islands. Using the trial we aimed to (1)
152 identify the most effective revegetation approach across soil types when sowing
153 native species in combination with local treatments (sheep dung, dags and geotextile
154 matting); (2) identify the most successful native species within the mixture; (3)
155 quantify colonization by non-native species across treatments and soil types; and (4)
156 determine whether the effectiveness of specific treatments is due to alteration of the
157 soil surface microclimate (soil moisture, temperature, surface windspeed and soil
158 movement rates). By undertaking this trial we aimed to provide information for land
159 managers on the most effective approach to revegetating different eroded soil types
160 with native seeds on the Falkland Islands.

161

162 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

163 **SITE SELECTION**

164 We established a revegetation trial across the mainland of East Falkland on the
165 Falkland Islands, between December 2014 and January 2015 (Fig 1). The islands have
166 a southern cool-temperate oceanic climate with mean summer (January) and winter
167 (July) temperatures of 9.4°C and 2.2°C respectively, and annual precipitation of 640
168 mm (1961-1990 averages from Stanley; see Jones et al. 2013). The islands have a
169 windy climate with average wind speeds of 8.5 m s⁻¹ (16.5 knots) and frequent gale

170 force winds over 70 days per year (Jones et al. 2013, 2015). The underlying geology
171 of the islands is comprised of mudstone, quartzite and sandstone (Aldiss & Edwards
172 1999) overlain predominantly by organic soil types, dominated by histosols, podzols
173 and stagnosols (Cruickshank 2001; HWSO 2015; Table S1). Wildfires are a
174 component of the island ecology and are present throughout the palynological record
175 (Barrow 1978). Human land-use, mainly livestock rearing and land clearance, has
176 reduced and removed vegetation cover leading to the extensive soil erosion across the
177 islands (Davies 1939; Wilson et al. 1993).

178

179 The majority of our revegetation sites were surrounded by grazing-tolerant native
180 species that dominate the islands, namely tussock-forming grass *Cortaderia pilosa*
181 (Whitegrass) and dwarf-shrub species *Empetrum rubrum* (Diddle-dee) and
182 *Baccharis magellanica* (Christmas bush) (Broughton & McAdam 2005). These native
183 species are often intermixed with non-native species introduced to “improve”
184 pastures, notably grasses *Agrostis capillaris* (Bent grasses), *Festuca rubra* (Red
185 fescue) and *Holcus lantanus* (Yorkshire fog) and forb *Rumex acetosella* (Sheep
186 sorrel) (Davis 1939; Broughton & McAdam 2005). Currently the island flora is
187 comprised of 249 non-native taxa compared to 181 native taxa (“non-native” defined
188 as introduced by European settlers since the 1700s; Upson & Lewis 2014).

189

190 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

191 Sixteen experimental sites were established across three major exposed soil types
192 (clay, peat and sand) on East Falklands (Fig 1: Table S1). The sites were selected to
193 represent severely degraded habitats with limited natural vegetation recovery since
194 2010. All sites had little to no vegetation cover and were similar in other
195 characteristics (e.g. geology, climate, slope, aspect and altitude; Table S1). Sites
196 differed in exposed soil type defined by soil texture; eight sites were on clay, six on
197 peat and two on sand (Table S1). All sites had previously been extensively grazed all-
198 year-round at low-stocking densities of Polwarth-Merino sheep (0.5 - 0.9 sheep ha⁻¹)
199 and cattle (0.001 - 0.013 cows ha⁻¹) apart from at Cape Pembroke that had been
200 fenced for restoration since 2010 and previously grazed by horses (0.6 horses ha⁻¹) in
201 the winter between July-September. To encourage vegetation establishment, fences
202 were erected around all sites to exclude grazing by livestock and small herbivores,

203 namely European hares (*Lepus europaeus*); however, it was not possible to prevent
204 grazing by upland geese (*Chloephaga picta leucoptera*).

205

206 To revegetate the eroded sites we sowed native seeds in combination with locally
207 sourced treatments. We applied three treatments and their combinations as a full
208 factorial: sheep dung, sheep dags (woolly off-cuts) and geotextile (coir matting).

209 Including sowing native seeds, there were eight treatment combinations: (1) seeds +
210 no treatments, (2) seeds + sheep dung, (3) seeds + sheep dags, (4) seeds + geotextile,
211 (5) seeds + sheep dung and dags, (6) seeds + sheep dung and geotextile, (7) seeds +
212 sheep dags and geotextile, and (8) seeds + sheep dung, dags and geotextile. As part of
213 a split-plot design, these treatments were spread across paired sites of the same soil
214 type on a given farm i.e. all combinations in the full factorial were applied to paired
215 sites. Additionally, there were two control plots at each site: one with no seeds or
216 treatments (herein referred to as ‘control’) and another without seeds but with all
217 treatments (dung, dags and geotextile) (herein referred to as ‘treatment control’).

218 Paired sites on the same soil type were a minimum of 1 km apart. We had two paired
219 sites that deviated from this design and that were grouped into a single site: one on
220 Fitzroy Farm due to an inability to find a paired sand soil type and the other on Cape
221 Pembroke due to issues with landowner permission to establish paired sites (Table
222 S1). At the sand site on Fitzroy Farm there were several tidal storm surges that
223 flooded plots, but no similar natural disturbances occurred at other sites.

224

225 As part of the trial we used a mixture of 15 native species collected from wild
226 populations across East Falkland in 2013. Seeds were dried to 15% equivalent relative
227 humidity in drums containing silica gel; cleaned at Millennium Seed Bank, Kew
228 following standard procedures; and, finally stored at -20°C prior to use (see protocols:
229 MSB 2015). The native seed mixture contained: *Acaena magellanica* (forb), *Carex*
230 *fuscula* (sedge), *Deschampsia flexuosa* (grass), *Elymus magellanicus* (grass), *Festuca*
231 *contracta* (grass), *Festuca magellanica* (grass), *Gunnera magellanica* (forb),
232 *Hierochloa redolens* (grass), *Juncus scheuchzerioides* (rush), *Leptinella scariosa*
233 (forb), *Luzula alopercurus* (wood rush), *Poa flabellata* (grass), *Poa alopercurus*
234 (grass; both peat and sand ecotypes) and *Trisetum phleoides* (grass). This mixture was
235 designed to investigate the establishment rates of different species rather than restore
236 a specific wild plant community. Germination of seeds collected from the wild was

237 highly variable (Table S2). Thus, in order to improve germination success quantities
238 of seeds within the mixture were adjusted for empty, infested and immature seeds. For
239 each species 400 'viable' seeds were included in the mixture (200 seeds m⁻²) apart
240 from *E. magellanicus* that was represented by 260 seeds due to limited stock. For
241 germination trials *in situ* we were unable to successfully germinate *G. magellanica*
242 seeds; nevertheless, seeds germinate *ex situ* so this species was retained within the
243 native seed mixture (Table S2).

244

245 The majority of treatments were obtained from local sources on the islands. Sheep
246 dung was collected from Fitzroy Farm shearing shed, while the sheep dung and dags
247 and dag treatments were collected from Goosegreen Farm. Both farms are on East
248 Falkland near to restoration sites (Fig 1). Dung treatments had been mulched for one
249 growing season to reduce the number of viable seeds in dung. Dags were not treated
250 to remove adhering seeds, yet visible inspection showed a low number of seeds in the
251 wool. Locally sourced wooden pallets were a successful treatment in the pilot study,
252 but they were deemed impractical for a wider trial due to transportation costs of
253 moving material. Instead, we imported coir geotextile matting, derived from coconut
254 husks (0.9 kg m⁻¹ with mesh size of 1 × 1 cm). Although a non-local treatment,
255 geotextile matting is commonly used to restore degraded habitats. Furthermore, if
256 successful, an equivalent local product could be manufactured on the islands using
257 native grass fibers. Geotextile matting was shipped from the UK at a cost of 4.90
258 USD per m² (incl. shipping costs), for this study there was no cost for sheep dung and
259 dag treatments.

260

261 ESTABLISHMENT PROCEDURE

262 Each trial site was approximately 6 × 12 m in size and contained eight marked out
263 experimental plots, including: four treatment plots (sown seeds, dung, dags, geotextile
264 and combinations), two control plots (control and treatment control) and two
265 additional harvestable plots. Each plot was 2 × 2 m in size and plots were spaced 0.5
266 m apart to reduce cross contamination of treatments and seeds. Applied treatments
267 were designated randomly using a random number generator. Harvestable plots were
268 sectioned into four 0.5 × 0.5 m subplots that matched the main treatments found
269 within the plot. Separate harvestable plots were created to avoid hindering

270 revegetation of treatment plots. We did not create harvestable plots for the control
271 treatments. All plots were hand raked twice to a depth of 3 cm to decompact the soil
272 surface, first in the direction of the prevailing wind and then perpendicularly to the
273 wind direction. During raking any large rocks (>10 cm) were removed. For seeded
274 plots, the native mixture was sown at a density of 10.32 g seed per plot (or 2.6 g m⁻¹),
275 similar to seed densities used for non-native agricultural grassland sowing on the
276 islands (Jo Tanner, Head Dep. Agriculture, Falkland Island Government, pers.
277 comm.). This sowing density was within guidelines of between 1-4 g seed m⁻¹
278 suggested to restore semi-natural grasslands (Stevenson et al. 1995; Wells 1999;
279 Kiehl et al. 2014); yet it is important to note that little is known about the rates of seed
280 production by grasslands on the Falklands. Prior to hand broadcasting, seeds were
281 mixed with 50 g of wet sand to facilitate equal dispersal of the seeds and to reduce
282 seed loss to the strong winds. After sowing seeds, treatments were applied at rates of
283 4.5 kg m⁻¹ dags, 11.5 kg m⁻¹ dung and 7.5 kg m⁻¹ dung and dags (average fresh
284 weight). These treatment quantities were selected to ensure full coverage of the plot.
285 Weights differed between treatments as dung was heavier and dags lighter. Geotextile
286 was always the final treatment applied to plots with mats being pegged to the soil. All
287 treatments used in the trial had low nitrogen contents with 0.149 kg N m⁻¹, 0.077 kg N
288 m⁻¹, 0.101 kg N m⁻¹ and 0.003 kg N m⁻¹ for dag, dung, combined dung and dags and
289 geotextile.

290

291 MONITORING

292 *Vegetation monitoring*

293 To assess the effectiveness of the revegetation, plots were surveyed prior to applying
294 treatments and a year later between December and January in 2015 and 2016. Within
295 each plot, total plant cover was estimated using a randomly placed 1 × 1 m quadrat.
296 The quadrat was divided into 361 smaller squares (19 × 19 squares, each ca. 5 × 5
297 cm) and we recorded the total number of squares containing green plant tissue
298 whether from sown or unsown species. Following the same protocol, individual
299 species cover was recorded for all species within a plot. We divided the recorded
300 number of squares by the total number of quadrat squares to generate total plant cover
301 and species-specific cover. For each species within a plot we recorded the presence or
302 absence of flowers, including dead inflorescence as evidence of earlier flowering

303 within the season. Maximum plant height was recorded at three locations within each
304 plot using the drop-down method (Barthram 1986).

305

306 Plant biomass per plot was determined from a randomly selected harvestable plot.
307 Before harvesting a plot, total plant cover and each species cover were determined to
308 ensure plant cover for harvestable plots mirrored the larger treatment plots within
309 each site. We found no differences in the statistical analysis for total cover or species
310 cover for treatment plots compared to harvestable plots (below). All plant biomass
311 was clipped within the 1×1 m area to 1 cm from the ground surface and separated by
312 species *in situ*. Biomass was oven dried for 48 hours at 70°C and weighed (± 0.001 g;
313 Oertling GC42, Orpington, Kent, UK) and expressed as kg m^{-2} .

314

315 *Microclimate and sediment movement*

316 To understand how microclimate potentially influences plant establishment and
317 growth across treatments and soil types we monitored soil temperature, soil moisture
318 and ground surface windspeed at the plot-scale each month. Plot-scale microclimate
319 was monitored by spot measurements between January 2014 and January 2015. We
320 used handheld probes to monitor soil temperature (°C) to a depth of 10 cm (HI 98501
321 Checktemp, Hanna instruments, Woonsocket, Rhode Island, USA) and soil moisture
322 (%) to a depth of 5.5 cm (ML3, Delta-T, Cambridge, UK) at three random points in a
323 plot every month. Maximum ground surface windspeed on each day of monitoring
324 was taken from a height of 10.5 cm from the center of the plot and expressed as m s^{-1} .
325 However, on two months, July and November 2015, we were unable to visit all trial
326 sites due to exceptionally challenging weather conditions (e.g. ice and persistent
327 severe gales) thus these have been omitted from the data analysis. Additionally at the
328 site-scale, cumulative monthly ground surface sediment movement (or ‘surface
329 creep’) was measured using buried sediment traps ($7 \times 7 \times 7$ cm) (see Koyama &
330 Tsuyuzaki 2012). Traps were monitored every two to four weeks throughout the year.
331 Sediment was oven-dried at 105°C for 48 hours, sieved to 2 mm to remove any stones
332 and weighed (± 0.001 g). We calculated both the mean and range in soil temperature
333 and moisture, average wind speed and sediment accumulation per week.

334

335 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

336 To identify the most effective revegetation approach we investigated difference in
337 sown treatments in terms of total plant cover, total biomass, maximum height and
338 number of species native and non-native species. Only 11 out of 92 plots contained
339 self-seeding native species not found in our species mixture, comprising on average
340 0.03 % total plant cover. Thus, these species were dropped from the analysis and all
341 non-sown species reported here are non-native. All parameters were analyzed using
342 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) models with residual maximum likelihood (REML)
343 to account for the slight imbalance of the design of the trial. For the main analysis we
344 compared all treatments with sown native seeds using fixed component structure of
345 dung, dag, geotextile treatments, treatment interactions, soil type, soil type and
346 treatment interactions, region (i.e. farm) and region and treatment interactions. The
347 random component of the model was trial site nested within paired block (i.e. split-
348 plot design). Both total biomass and maximum height were log transformed to comply
349 with model assumptions. The same model structure was used to analyze number of
350 species in flower but following a poisson distribution. The total plant cover model
351 used an offset of 1/361 (reciprocal of the total number quadrat of squares i.e. the
352 smallest possible positive response) as the logit transformation cannot be performed
353 on a zero response. Similar but simpler model structures outlined above were used to
354 contrast plots sown with native seeds without treatments to control plots: both,
355 without seed or treatment and no seeds but all treatments. There were no harvestable
356 plots for control plot treatments so we did not compare native sown and controls in
357 terms of biomass accrual. Separate ANOVA models with REML were also used to
358 determine the effect of treatments on average soil surface wind speed, soil moisture
359 and temperature and annual range in soil moisture and temperature. Models were
360 analyzed using either Genstat version 18.1.0.17005 (VSN International Ltd., Hemel
361 Hempsted, UK) or R version 3.3.1 Mavericks build 7238 (R Foundation for Statistical
362 Computing, 2016).

363

364 Reduced models were fitted to the data, based on the statistical significance of factors
365 in the full model. P-values were obtained using the F-distribution comparing variation
366 of the treatment being tested against the appropriate random variation. The reduced
367 model had the same random effects as the full model but only fixed effects with
368 $p < 0.05$ in the full model were included. Lower order effects of statistically significant
369 interactions were also kept in the reduced model regardless of their statistical

370 significance. Predicted means from the reduced model were extracted along with
371 appropriate standard errors for any statistically significant treatment, soil type and
372 region. The difference between relevant terms and the significance of the difference
373 along with a 95% CI for the difference were calculated. No adjustments were made
374 for multiple comparisons as a pre-specified subset of possible comparisons were used.
375 P-values generated from the differences within treatment, soil type and region are
376 shown in parentheses.

377

378 **RESULTS**

379 REVEGETATION APPROACHES DUNG, DAGS AND GEOTEXTILES

380 Sowing native seeds in combination with sheep dung, sheep dags and geotextile and
381 their combinations increased total plant cover, total plant biomass, number of
382 flowering species and maximum height across all eroded soil types (Fig 2; Table S3).
383 Importantly, in the absence of supportive treatments sowing native seeds alone
384 resulted in little revegetation (Fig 2a). Plots with seeds only had on average 1.4%
385 plant cover, which was not significantly different from control plots (no seeds or
386 treatments), which averaged 1.0% cover ($p=0.389$).

387

388 Dung treatments increased plant cover (sown and non-sown) on average by 55.1%,
389 sheep dags 35.2% and geotextiles 19.5% (ANOVA; $F_{1,47}=105$, $p<0.001$). Similarly,
390 within a year treatments accrued total plant biomass averaged 1.88 kg m^{-2} , 1.40 kg m^{-2}
391 and 0.54 kg m^{-2} for dung, dag and geotextile alone treated plots (Fig 2b, Table S3).
392 The number of species flowering was enhanced by dung ($X^2 = 50.09$, $df=1,13$,
393 $p<0.001$) and dags ($X^2 = 7.20$, $df=1,13$, $p=0.007$), but not by the addition of
394 geotextiles ($X^2 = 0.46$, $df=1,12$, $p=0.499$) (Fig 2c). Swards on dung and dag treated
395 plots were significantly taller than those with seeds only, reaching 19.4 cm and 11.19
396 cm, respectively (ANOVA; dung $F_{1,46}=87$, $p<0.001$; dags $F_{1,46}=39$, $p<0.001$).
397 However, swards underneath geotextile were short, averaging 1.75 cm, and did not
398 significantly differ from seed only plots (Table S3). Nevertheless, the low stature of
399 plants under geotextiles did not impact total plant cover or biomass accrual.

400

401 Plant cover, biomass and height were not enhanced by combining treatments, except
402 for the addition of dung in the presence of dags for both total cover from 49.1% to

403 86.1% (37% increase) and biomass from 4.89 kg m⁻² to 10.1 kg m⁻² (106% increase;
404 Table S3). When dung was already present adding dags resulted in only a small
405 increase in plant cover or biomass. The positive impact of dung on revegetation
406 differed across soil types (ANOVA; F_{2,48}=4.4, p=0.017): dung increased plant cover
407 on peat by 81.3% (p<0.001) and on clay 73.7% (p<0.001), but only 26.7% cover on
408 sand (p=0.28) in contrast to plots without dung. Likewise, the presence of dung
409 significantly increased plant biomass (ANOVA; F_{2,41}=27, p<0.001): on peat
410 (p<0.001) and clay (p<0.001), but not on sand (p=0.059). The impact of geotextiles
411 was also dependent on soil type (ANOVA; F_{2,41}=10, p=0.012) and matting
412 significantly increased plant biomass from 0.03 kg m⁻² without to 5.43 kg m⁻² with
413 geotextiles (p<0.001) on sand, yet there was no significant additional benefit of
414 geotextiles for total plant biomass on clay (p=0.097) or peat soils (p=0.075).
415 Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that all interactions between treatments and soil type
416 were driven by sand soil type, of which there was only one site.

417

418 NATIVE VS. NON-NATIVE SPECIES ACROSS TREATMENTS AND SOIL 419 TYPES

420 A total of 13 out of 15 sown native species were surveyed across all sites. Three
421 native species grew consistently across all sown treatments and soil types: *E.*
422 *magellanicus*, *P. flabellata* and *P. alopecurus* occurring in 64.1, 50 and 50% of all
423 sown plots. Moreover, these three species individually accounted for between 10 to
424 45% of plant cover on average, while other sown native species typically covered less
425 than 5%. *G. magellanica* and *C. fuscus* were not detected across all sites and both of
426 these species had negligible germination rates prior to the trial (Table S2). *Juncus*
427 *scheuchzerioides* only occurred on peat soil at Cape Pembroke, while the majority of
428 other native species were found across multiple sites and soil types (Fig 3). *Juncus*
429 *scheuchzerioides* was present in low abundance prior to establishing the trial and is
430 thus likely to have established from rhizomes rather than sown seeds.

431

432 Dung treatments supported greater numbers of sown native species averaging 7.0
433 native species (ANOVA; F_{1,46}=73, p<0.001) followed by 4.6 species for dags
434 (ANOVA; F_{1,46}=15, p<0.001) but not geotextiles with 2.3 species compared to
435 treatment controls (Table S3). Although the use of geotextile matting facilitated the
436 establishment of total plant cover (both natives and non-natives), geotextiles did not

437 significantly increase the number of native species compared to sowing seeds without
438 treatments (Table S3). Sown native species cover was detected in control plots
439 indicating movement of seeds across plots during hand broadcasting, but sown
440 species cover was low averaging 0.36% in controls and 7.9% in treatment control
441 plots (Fig 2a). Soil-specific establishment of native species was limited: *Festuca*
442 *magellanica* established slightly better on clay, *Festuca contracta* on peat and
443 *Leptinella scariosa* on sand (Fig 3). Because some regions only had a single soil type
444 and only one region had sand soil, we were unable to differentiate effects of soil type
445 and region in our species analysis. Thus, soil-specific establishment rates could
446 alternatively be region-specific (Fig 3).

447

448 Treatment control plots without the native seeds had similar total plant cover, number
449 of flowering species and sward heights to native sown treatments (Fig 2a,c).

450 Treatment control plots had significantly higher plant cover ($p < 0.001$; Fig 2a) and
451 plant height ($p < 0.001$) than control plots. Yet, treatment control plots were dominated
452 by non-native species rather than native species, non-natives comprising 76.8% of the
453 plant cover. The number of non-native species occurring in treatment controls was
454 significantly higher than control plots without treatments, which comprised an
455 average of 52.8% of the cover ($p = 0.002$). Non-native species occurrence in native
456 sown plots was low, averaging 1.1 species on dung and dags and 0.63 species in
457 geotextile plots (Fig 2a; Table S3). In general, the common non-native species had
458 lower rates of occurrence than native species throughout the trial with highest being
459 33.7% for *Aira praecox*, 27.2% for *Poa annua* and 12.0% for *Holcus lanatus*. In
460 addition, other non-natives species accounted for less than 7% plant cover across all
461 treatments. There was no significant relationship between native species and non-
462 native species cover (linear model: $F_{1,91} = 0.442$, $p = 0.508$) or biomass (linear model:
463 $F_{1,61} = 0.523$, $p = 0.4071$) across all plots, suggesting neither a negative or positive
464 relationship between native and non-native species.

465

466 Non-native species showed associations both with soil type and region with *Agrostis*
467 *stolonifera* and *Festuca rubra* occurring primarily on sand at Fitzroy, while *Aira*
468 *praecox* occurred on peat and *Cerastium fontanum* on clay (Fig 3). Due to
469 confounding effects of soil type and region we were unable to ascertain the source of
470 the non-native species: whether they were derived from treatments themselves (i.e.

471 weak regional effects) or whether they were colonized by dispersed seeds from
472 nearby vegetation (i.e. strong regional effects) after the treatments were applied. If
473 non-natives were derived from treatments themselves, then organic sources such as
474 dung or dags would likely support greater numbers and cover of non-native species
475 compared to geotextile. While non-native diversity was low on geotextile only
476 treatments, this treatment had the highest non-native cover compared to dung or dags
477 treatments only (Fig 2a). Nevertheless, it is also possible that non-native species
478 germinated from treatments, but were outcompeted by native species, particularly on
479 dung that strongly supported native species (Fig 2a). Moreover, during monitoring
480 non-native seeds were observed covering treatments in the summer months. There
481 were a higher number of flowering non-native species compared to native species
482 suggesting that non-natives were more ruderal in the short-term (Fig 2c).

483

484 IMPACT OF TREATMENT AND SOIL TYPE ON MICROCLIMATE AND 485 REVEGETATION

486 Average soil moisture and temperature significantly differed between treatments but
487 the differences were small, varying on average in soil moisture by 1% and in
488 temperature 0.1°C between dung, dags, and geotextile. Instead, microclimatic
489 differences between soil types were much greater with 11% for moisture and 1.2°C
490 for temperature (Fig 4). On average, peat soils were cooler and wetter with a larger
491 range in the maximum and minimum soil moisture, while sand was warmer with a
492 high variability in temperature and clay warm and dry with a low variability (Fig 4).
493 There was greater treatment-induced variability in soil moisture on peat and
494 temperature on sand (Fig 4). Geotextile matting significantly reduced soil moisture on
495 peat soils but not on sand or clay, yet these did not influence total plant cover,
496 biomass or the ratio of natives to non-natives (Table S4). During the trial soil surface
497 windspeed across all sites averaged 9.5 ms⁻¹ (18.5 knots) and the highest recorded
498 windspeeds was 32 ms⁻¹ (62.2 knots). Average annual soil movement rates were 60.3
499 kg m⁻² on peat, 86.4 kg m⁻² on clay and 155.2 kg m⁻² on sand, but annual soil
500 movement was unrelated to site-scale plant cover or biomass accrual. Across our
501 study sites both native and non-native species were able to establish in challenging
502 climatic and soil movement conditions.

503

504 DISCUSSION

505 In this study, we demonstrate that sowing native seeds in combination with locally
506 sourced treatments can be an effective approach to revegetating severely eroded
507 habitats on remote islands. Trialing different revegetation approaches on the Falkland
508 Islands, native species were able to establish across multiple soil types and in
509 challenging edaphic and climatic conditions. As part of this trial, we were able to
510 revegetate degraded habitats previously viewed as impossible (e.g. clay) when
511 planting tillers of native species or sowing non-native species (Kerr 1994; Cris et al.
512 2011). Yet, we stress that revegetating was limited in the absence of effective
513 supportive treatments. For this study, supportive local treatments such as sheep dung
514 and dags were freely available, and local treatments may be preferable to incurring
515 costs by importing treatments for habitat restoration on islands (e.g. geotextile
516 matting) (Holl & Howarth 2000; Smith 2006). All treatments supported native species
517 establishment, although they also facilitated establishment of non-native species.
518 Therefore, this approach may be inappropriate for ungrazed oceanic islands that are
519 managed to mitigate the spread of introduced species (Chapin et al. 2000; FIG 2016;
520 Sax & Gaines 2008; Van der Wal 2015). Nevertheless, within the first year of this
521 trial, plant cover, biomass and the number species was dominated by native rather
522 than non-native species. Thus, in the short-term our approach can provide rapid native
523 plant cover on degraded soil on remote oceanic islands.

524

525 From this study the mechanisms underlying how treatments enhance plant
526 establishment remain unclear. Treatments are often applied to ameliorate
527 microclimatic and edaphic conditions altered due to the loss or degradation of organic
528 topsoil (Allen 1995); yet, contrary to our hypothesis, treatment effectiveness seemed
529 unrelated to changes in soil microclimate. Similarly the greatest revegetative effects
530 of the treatments were not observed on the most challenging soils on the island, that
531 is, heavy clays. Instead, soil type dependent treatment effects occurred on peat and
532 sand. On peat, dung had a greater impact than on clay or sand soils. This could have
533 been due to stimulation of the microbial community that has been shown to underpin
534 successful revegetation (Harris 2009; Wubs et al. 2016) and is likely to be more
535 developed in peat than clay or sand. However, Leiber-Sauheitl et al. (2015) found no
536 evidence that the addition of sheep excreta stimulated pristine peat microbial
537 community, although results may be different on degraded peat with differing
538 microbial communities (Anderson et al. 2013; Elliott et al. 2015). On sand, we found

539 that geotextiles enhanced plant biomass compared to other soil types. Our sand site
540 had the greatest rates of soil movement and the success of this treatment could have
541 been due to a stabilizing effect that facilitated plant establishment (Koyama &
542 Tsuyuzaki 2012). Nevertheless, neither soil microbes nor soil movement satisfactorily
543 explains the effectiveness of all treatments across all soil types. Alternatively, perhaps
544 treatments did still operate via amelioration of soil microclimatic and edaphic
545 conditions but within the initial days or weeks after sowing during seedling
546 emergence (Koyama & Tsuyuzaki 2012; Madsen et al. 2016) and this was not
547 detected over our coarser monthly (to annual) measurement intervals. For example,
548 there was significant cover and biomass on dung only plots, yet for most of these
549 plots a significant quantity of dung had dried and been blown away after the first few
550 months.

551

552 Prior to this study little was known about the autoecology of many Falkland Island
553 plant species in order to optimize their application. We found that species used in this
554 trial had few specific soil associations or microclimatic requirements and were
555 therefore typically generalist colonizers. Three native species dominated the trial: *Poa*
556 *flabellata* (tussac), *Elymus magellanicus* (Fuegian couch grass) and *Poa alopecurus*
557 (Bluegrass, sand ecotype). Of these species, *P. flabellata* (Tussac) is the most well
558 studied and similar to our results Smith (1985) on South Georgia found that planted
559 two-leaf *P. flabellata* seedlings established across soil types and under challenging
560 climatic conditions (*sensu* exposure), yet seedling biomass production was
561 significantly increased by nutrient solution addition. On the Falkland Islands, the
562 successful native species in our trial are predominantly coastal and often receive
563 significant nutrient inputs from marine mammal and sea bird colonies and the plant
564 productivity benefits of such allochthonous (marine-derived) nutrient inputs has been
565 observed on other island ecosystems (Bergstrom et al. 2001; Ellis 2005). Furthermore,
566 anecdotal evidence suggests that allochthonously nutrients can enhance planted *P.*
567 *flabellata* tiller establishment and growth (Kerr 1994; Smith & Karlsson 2017). Thus,
568 a nutrient source, however small in quantity (i.e. sheep dung), may play an important
569 role in ensuring establishment and growth of Falkland Island plant species.

570

571 A major drawback with using native seeds for revegetation is collecting and/or
572 generating sufficient quantities of seeds to address the large spatial scales of degraded

573 habitats (Mijnsbrugge et al. 2010; Merrit & Dixon 2011). In order to attain sufficient
574 seeds for this trial required 59 seed collections involving 47 people harvesting seeds
575 over four months and additional hours of seed processing and cleaning. However, the
576 quantity of seeds required to revegetate Falkland grasslands could potentially be
577 significantly reduced. We sowed seeds at densities of 200 seeds per species m⁻², yet
578 many of the successful species form large tussocks (Broughton & McAdam 2005;
579 Moore 1968). For example, individual *P. flabellata* tussocks can reach sizes of 1.5 m²
580 area and 3 m tall (Gunn 1976; Smith & Karlsson 2017). Potentially only a handful of
581 seeds would be necessary to revegetate each square meter. Yet, it is not known
582 whether at the seedling stage sown individuals facilitate one another enhancing rates
583 of plant establishment on bare soil. Additionally, little is known about undisturbed
584 native plant community seed production and seed bank activity and such knowledge
585 could be used to better estimate seed densities required for restoring native
586 communities on degraded soil. Further long-term research is required to test the
587 establishment rates of sown large-tussock species at different densities to optimize the
588 use of sowing native seeds. Equally, the longevity of these plants must be monitored,
589 as species may not persist once the original treatment is exhausted or outgrown.

590

591 A second challenge to the wider reintroduction of native species for revegetation in
592 the Falkland Islands is livestock grazing. Extensive soil erosion on the islands can be
593 attributed to over grazing (Wilson et al. 1993) with many of the native species used in
594 this trial having been largely ‘grazed out’ of the archipelago’s mainlands (Strange et
595 al. 1988; Brought & McAdam 2005). In our study, in order to revegetate soil we
596 excluded livestock and there is a strong likelihood that without fencing many of our
597 native species would be intensely grazed thereby hindering revegetation. Thus, it is
598 questionable whether farmers and landowners would readily exclude livestock in
599 order to revegetate eroding soil as ceasing grazing and fencing represents a financial
600 and labour cost, and excluding livestock diverges from the cultural and historic norms
601 of free-ranging livestock (Davies 1939). As we did not tailor the seed mixture, a
602 potential avenue for further work may be to investigate the use of a seed mixture that
603 contains both strong native colonizers as well as native species tolerant to livestock
604 grazing such as *Cortaderia pilosa* (White grass) and dwarf-shrub species (McAdam
605 1986). Sowing our successful native species could be integrated with alternative
606 grazing practices that are increasingly being adopted across the islands. For example,

607 seeds and treatments could be applied within rotational livestock grazing
608 management, during the period of ‘rest’ when a paddock is ungrazed. Nevertheless,
609 for our approach to be adopted and gain widespread traction across the islands
610 requires better integration of sowing native seeds with livestock grazing.

611

612 Many remote island communities have a limited capacity to undertake revegetation of
613 degraded habitats. Here we demonstrate that sowing wild collected native species in
614 combination with local treatments can be an effective approach to revegetating eroded
615 soils. However, the main disadvantage of this approach is that many of the native
616 species have been ‘grazed out’ of islands. Without temporary cessation of grazing or
617 integration with new grazing regimes sowing native species may be ineffective at
618 revegetating eroded soil. The Falkland Islands Biodiversity Framework aims to find
619 solutions to environmental issues that consider environmental sustainability,
620 economic prosperity and social wellbeing (FIG 2016). In this study, we identify an
621 environmentally sustainable approach using native seeds and local treatments that
622 addresses widespread soil erosion across the islands. Yet, further work is necessary to
623 explore if this approach of sowing native species can be integrated with grazing
624 management; whether by tailoring a seed mixture with grazing tolerant species or
625 sowing seeds as part of rotational livestock grazing practices.

626

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638

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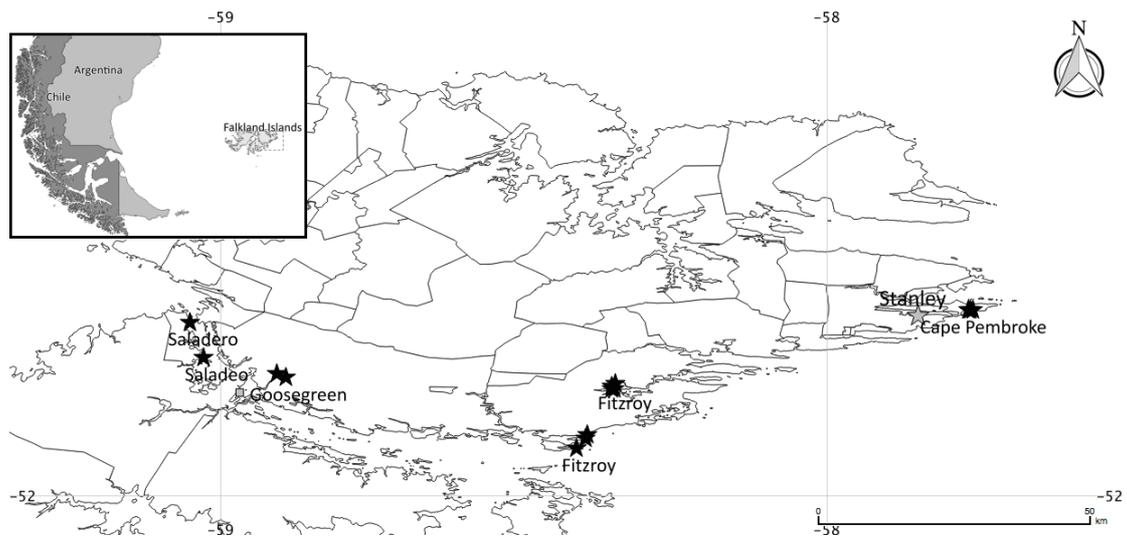
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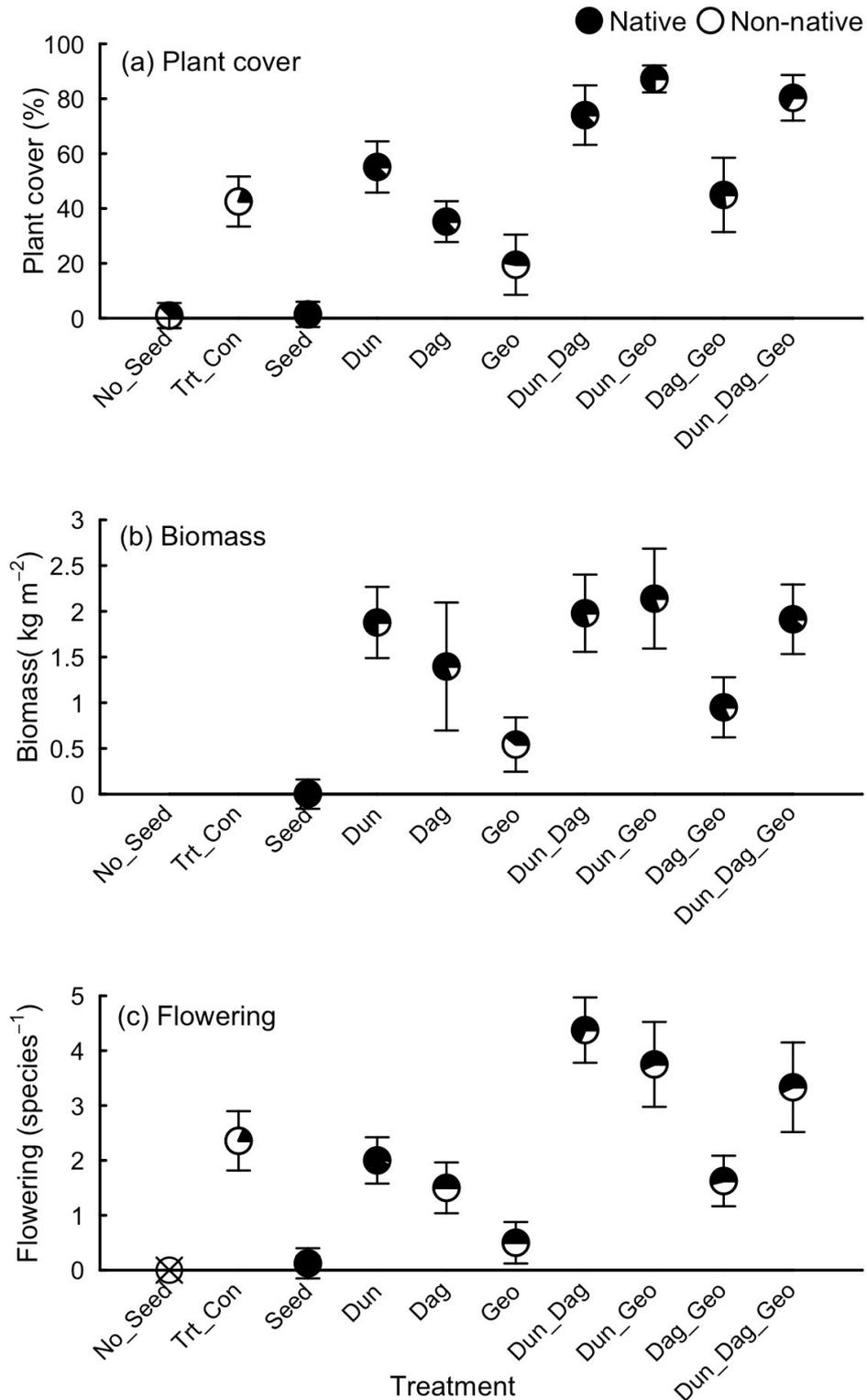
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839 **FIGURES**

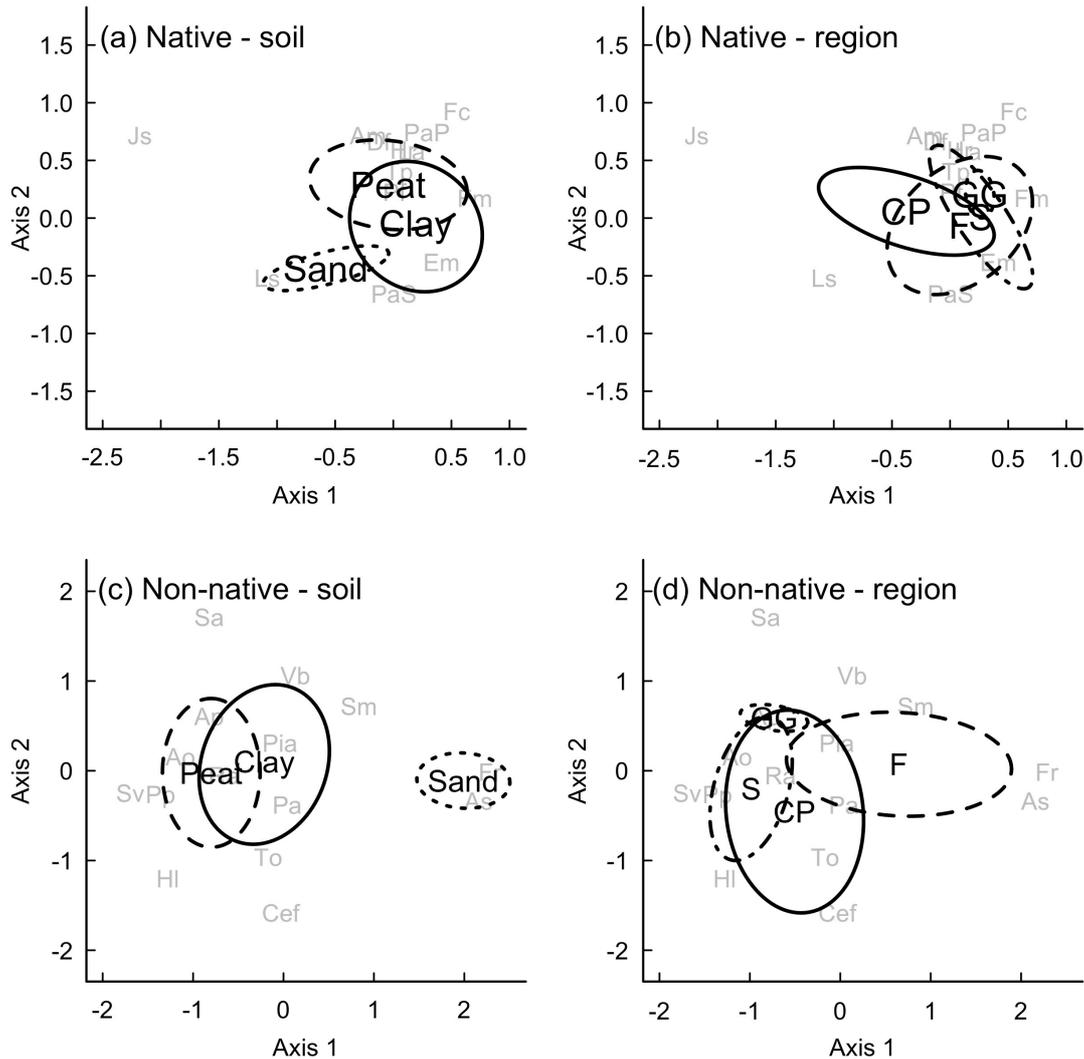


840

841 Figure 1. Native seed restoration trial sites on eroded soil established across East
842 Falkland mainland in 2014. A total of 16 sites are shown as black stars, although
843 within farms some are less than 1 km apart. Farms boundaries are shown as well as
844 major settlements, including: the capital Stanley and Goosegreen.



845
 846 Figure 2. Average (a) plant cover, (b) biomass and (c) flowering for revegetation
 847 treatments and their combinations. The proportion of total plant cover, biomass and
 848 number of species flowering with native species shown in black and non-native
 849 species in white. A crossed symbol represents a zero value. All error bars are ± 1 SE.
 850



851
852 Figure 3. Non-metric dimensional scaling ordination using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity
853 of native species plant cover in relation to (a) soil type and (b) region and non-native
854 species plant cover in relation (c) soil type and (d) region for all revegetation plots.
855 Associations with soil type and region are shown using different line types with 95%
856 confidence intervals. Soil types are labeled as clay, peat and sand, while regions are
857 abbreviated as follows 'CP' is Cape Pembroke, 'F' is Fitzroy Farm, 'GG' is
858 Goosegreen Farm and 'S' is Saladero Farm. Plant species are in light grey and have
859 been abbreviated as follows for native species: Am = *Acaena magellanica*, Cf =
860 *Carex fuscus*, Df = *Deschampsia flexuosa*, Em = *Elymus magellanicus*, Fc = *Festuca*
861 *contracta*, Fm = *Festuca magellanica*, Gm = *Gunnera magellanica*, Hr = *Hierochloe*
862 *redolens*, Js = *Juncus scheuchzerioides*, Ls = *Leptinella scariosa*, La = *Luzula*
863 *alopecurus*, PaP = *Poa alopecurus* Peat, PaS = *Poa alopecurus* Sand, Pf = *Poa*
864 *flabellata*, Tp = *Trisetum phleoides* and non-native species: As = *Agrostis stolonifera*,

865 Ac = *Agrostis capillaris*, Ap = *Aira praecox*, Ao = *Anthoxathum odouratum*, Cef =
866 *Cerastium fontanum*, Fr = *Festuca rubra*, H = *Holcus lanatus*, Md = *Matricaria*
867 *discoidea*, Pia = *Pilosella aurantiaca*, Pa = *Poa annua*, Pp = *Poa pratensis*, Ra =
868 *Rumex acetosella*, Sa = *Spergula arvensis*, Sv = *Senecio vulgaris*, Sm = *Stellaria*
869 *media*, To = *Taraxacum officinale* and Vb = *Vulpia bromoides*.

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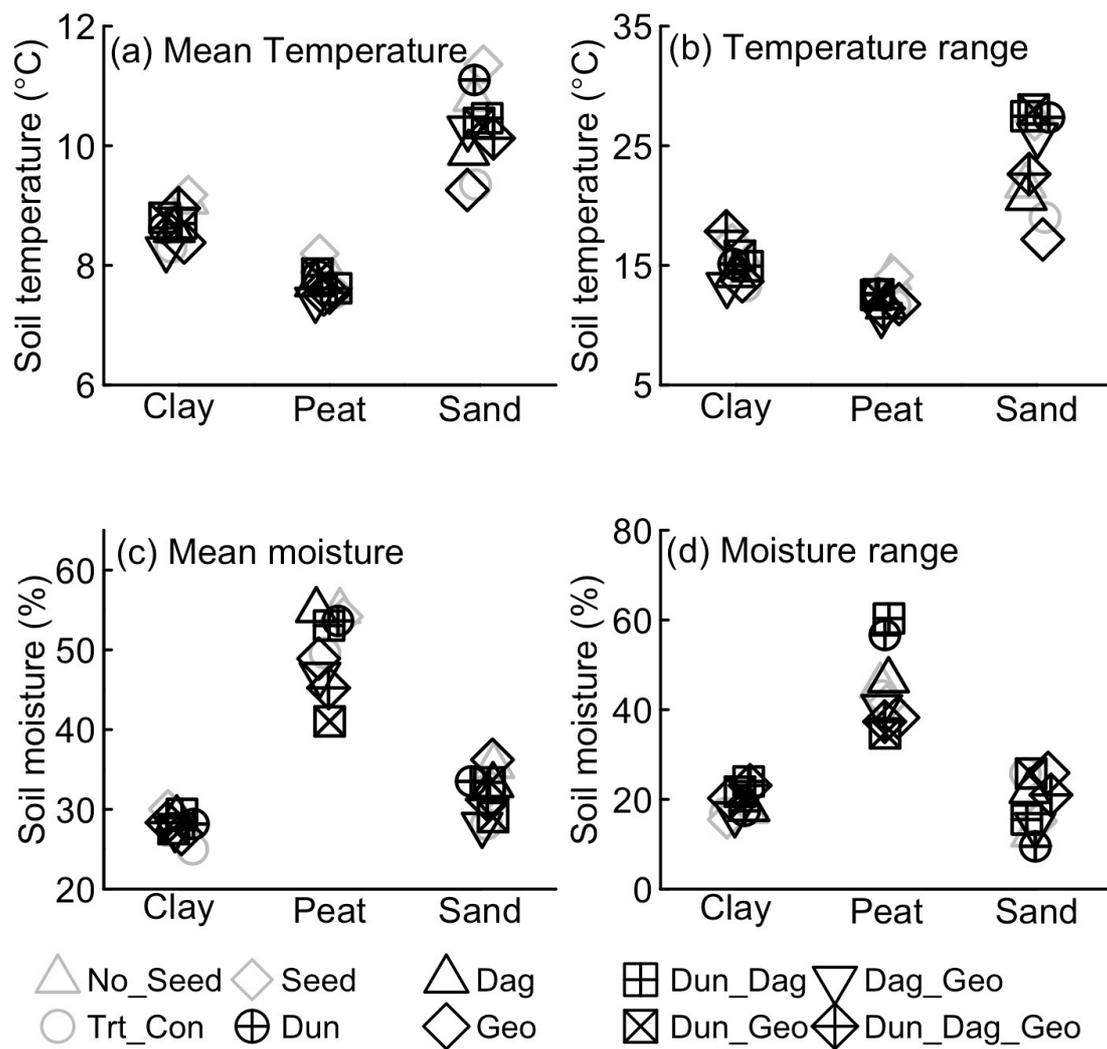
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880 Figure 4. Annual (a) average temperature, (b) temperature range (maximum minus
 881 minimum), (c) average moisture and (d) moisture for revegetation treatments and
 882 their combinations across three soil types (clay, peat and sand).