Document downloaded from:

http://hdl.handle.net/10251/201418

This paper must be cited as:

Fos Causera, M.; Sanz Vidal, FDB.; Sanchís Duato, EJ. (2022). The use of glyphosate for Carpobrotus eradication in sand dune ecosystems: evaluation of the potential effects on the reintroduction of native plants. Plant Biosystems - An International Journal Dealing with all Aspects of Plant Biology. 156(2):480-489. https://doi.org/10.1080/11263504.2021.1884621



The final publication is available at

https://doi.org/10.1080/11263504.2021.1884621

Copyright Taylor & Francis

Additional Information

The use of glyphosate for Carpobrotus eradication in sand dune ecosystems: evaluation of the potential effects on the reintroduction of native plants

Mariano Fos, Borja Sanz and Enrique Sanchis

QUERY SHEET

This page lists questions we have about your paper. The numbers displayed at left are hyperlinked to the location of the query in your paper.

The title and author names are listed on this sheet as they will be published, both on your paper and on the Table of Contents. Please review and ensure the information is correct and advise us if any changes need to be made. In addition, please review your paper as a whole for typographical and essential corrections.

Your PDF proof has been enabled so that you can comment on the proof directly using Adobe Acrobat. For further information on marking corrections using Acrobat, please visit https://journalauthors.tandf.co.uk/production/acrobat.asp; https://journalauthorservices.taylorandfrancis.com/how-to-correct-proofs-with-adobe/

The CrossRef database (www.crossref.org/) has been used to validate the references.

AUTHOR QUERIES

- Q1 Please provide complete details for (Travaset et al. 2008) in the reference list or delete the citation from the text
- Q2 Please provide editors name and page range for Castroviejo et al. (1990).
- Q3 Please provide the publisher location.
- Q4 Please check the page range for "Lechuga-Lago et al. (2016)".





56 57

59

60 61

62

64

65

66

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76 77

79

81

83

85

87

90

91

92

94

96

98

102

103

104

105

106

The use of glyphosate for *Carpobrotus* eradication in sand dune ecosystems: evaluation of the potential effects on the reintroduction of native plants

Mariano Fos, Borja Sanz and Enrique Sanchis

Departamento de Producción Vegetal, Universitat Politècnica de València, Valencia, Spain

ABSTRACT

10

11

12

13

15

16

17

19

20

21

22

23

24 25 26

27

28

29

30

32

33

34

35

37

38

39

40

41

43

45

47

49

50

51

52

53

Glyphosate application avoids some problems associated with manually controlling Carpobrotus. However, before it can be extended, we must understand whether residual glyphosate affects the restoration of natural vegetation by sowing or planting. Thus, we sprayed glyphosate on plots with 100% Carpobrotus coverage at 10 times the maximum recommended dose (4g/m²) and directly on sand at 0.3 and 4g/m². Sand, sifted sand without Carpobrotus litter and sand with Carpobrotus litter were subsequently collected 15, 30, and 60 days after applications, and were used as substrates to evaluate seedling emergence of four native dune species sown in travs. We also assessed the development of two species when grown in pots. Seedling emergence of M. marina, L. creticus and O. ramosissima was not affected in sand without Carpobrotus litter; A. arenaria emergence was reduced by 35%. Seedling emergence of four dune species was inhibited when glyphosate had been directly sprayed on sand. Effect of dose and time after spraying was observed. The presence of Carpobrotus litter reduced the emergence of L. creticus, O. ramosissima and A. arenaria, and inhibition seemed be caused by the allelopathic properties of the Carpobrotus litter. No significant effects of glyphosate spraying were observed in growth tests.

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received 19 May 2020 Accepted 19 January 2021

KEYWORDS

Carpobrotus; chemical control; dune restoration; glyphosate; native plant reintroduction

Introduction

The Mediterranean Basin is more sensitive to the problem of invasive species because of its rich biodiversity and narrow endemism, especially in terms of plant species. Moreover, climatic conditions in the Mediterranean Basin favour the establishment of subtropical plants introduced as ornamental species or for other purposes (Brunel et al. 2013). The succulent genus, Carpobrotus N. Br. (Aizoaceae), includes some of the main invasive species now present in Mediterranean coastal ecosystems (Hulme 2004; Andreu et al. 2010; Campoy et al. 2018; Chenot et al. 2018; Lazzaro et al. 2020). In Spain, Carpobrotus is present in all coastal peninsular and insular provinces (Castroviejo et al. 1990, Sanz-Elorza et al. 2004). Invasive Carpobrotus sp. pl. is native to South Africa, but has now been introduced into five different continents and has become widely naturalised in many coastal habitats (Campoy et al. 2018). In the past, Carpobrotus was widely used as an ornamental species and to stabilise dunes or to control erosion. However, this species has now dispersed from these planted areas into natural ecosystem such as dunes, coastal scrub and rocky coast. Carpobrotus grows horizontally and radially in all directions and forms zones of monospecific carpets in which it attains near-dominance (D'Antonio 1990, 1993; Sanz-Elorza et al. 2004; Suehs et al. 2004a, 2004b; Travaset et al. 2008; Roiloa et al. 2014; Campoy et al. 2018).

Numerous studies have shown that Carpobrotus affect native plant and animal species and also influence soil characteristics (D'Antonio and Mahall 1991; D'Antonio 1993; Palmer et al. 2004; Moragues and Traveset 2005; Vilà et al. 2006; Zedda et al. 2010; Santoro et al. 2011; Chenot et al. 2014; Novoa and González 2014; Campoy et al. 2018; Chenot et al. 2018; Souza-Alonso et al. 2020). Furthermore, Carpobrotus branches and leaves decompose slowly and form a thick litter (Conser and Connor 2009) that can prevent the germination of native species (Novoa et al. 2012).

Several Carpobrotus management and eradication programmes have been implemented all around the world and in different European countries (Ruffino et al. 2015; Campoy et al. 2018). Indeed, Spanish environmental administrations have developed different strategies for Carpobrotus management, including direct control and/or complete eradication, as well as prevention, education or communication activities (Campoy et al. 2018). Mechanical removal by pulling out individual plants by hand is the most commonly used method for Carpobrotus eradication (Andreu et al. 2010; Brunel et al. 2013; Ruffino et al. 2015; Campoy et al. 2018; Chenot et al. 2018). This method is generally effective, but the reappearance of new individuals has been observed (Chenot et al. 2014, 2018) and long-term monitoring of cleaned areas may be necessary to prevent reintroduction (Ruffino et al. 2015). Of note, this mechanical removal

generates large amounts of plant material that retain the potential to act as asexual propagules (Souza-Alonso and González 2017; Souza-Alonso et al. 2019, 2020), and moreover, the transport and disposal of this plant material can also create logistical problems (Campoy et al. 2018).

A chemical method based on glyphosate application has also been employed for Carpobrotus eradication in California (Albert 1995), Spain, Portugal, Ireland (Campoy et al. 2018) and Italy (Lazzaro et al. 2020). Glyphosate-based herbicides are among the most widely used broad spectrum herbicides in the world (Henderson et al. 2010; Myers et al. 2016). Glyphosate, or N-(phosphonomethyl) glycine, is a non-selective herbicide that inhibits plant growth by interfering with the production of essential aromatic amino acids which do not share biosynthetic pathways with members of the animal kingdom (Henderson et al. 2010). Glyphosate is assimilated by leaves and other green plant tissue, and is then rapidly translocated via the phloem through the entire plant, including to the roots (Henderson et al. 2010). The large-scale use of glyphosate is currently restricted or banned by legislation in many European countries (Lazzaro et al. 2020) but the context and scale must be considered when applying such bans on a small scale, such as for the purposes of invasive plant control (Pergl et al. 2020).

Glyphosate was recently used for Carpobrotus eradication in a natural protected area of local interest on the Tuscan coast in Italy (Lazzaro et al. 2020). These reported results confirmed that glyphosate application is an efficient method to decrease Carpobrotus cover, which also promotes the rapid recovery and increased richness and diversity of native species. However, to extend the use of glyphosate as a general method for the eradication of invasive plants, and in particular, for the eradication of Carpobrotus in coastal areas, the potential negative effects after its application must first be identified and understood. For this purpose, we studied in laboratory conditions the emergence of seedling from four native Mediterranean dune species using dune sand collected after glyphosate spraying on Carpobrotus or on sand under different doses and time conditions. We also evaluated the effect of glyphosate on the survival and development of two species of adult native Mediterranean dune plants grown in pots with sand collected after glyphosate spraying. The application of this herbicide simulated different conditions of glyphosate spraying during eradication or control campaing.

Materials and methods

Glyphosate application assays and substrate collection

The natural area for glyphosate applications was located on the coast in two locations in the province of Valencia in Spain: Oliva (38° 55′10″ N, 0° 07′16″ W) and Tavernes de La Valldigna (39° 04′18″ N, 0° 16′04″ W). These areas are included in 'Dunes of *La Safor'* listing in the Sites of Community Importance in the Valencian Community (July 19, 2006, European Commission). The natural habitats at this site include the following: (1) embryonic shifting dunes 2110, (2) shifting dunes along the shoreline with *Ammophila arenaria*

2120, (3) Crucianellion maritimae fixed beach dunes 2210, (4) Malcolmietalia dune grasslands 2230 and (5) Cisto-Lavenduletalia dune sclerophyllous scrubs 2260. The coastal areas for study were selected with the supervision of environmental officers from the Government of the Valencian Region and the Spanish Ministry of Environment.

The glyphosate applications were carried out under controlled conditions on 1-m² experimental plots (Figure 1, D0). Glyphosate was applied on plant leaves in six plots with 100% *Carpobrotus* coverage and on beach sand in three plots without vegetation in each locality. Glyphosate (200-ml per plot) was applied using a hand-held spray bottle at a height of 50 – 60 cm above the *Caprobrotus* plants or sand. Glyphosate (36 g/l, as ammonium salt) was sprayed on the *Carpobrotus* at doses of 4g/m² or 0.3 g/m² and on the beach sand at a dose of 0.3 g/m² (Table 1). A non-ionic surfactant was added at 0.1% v/v in all cases. The concentration of 4g/m² is around 10 times the maximum recommended dose while 0.3 g/m² falls within the recommended dose range (European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) 2017). The glyphosate applications started in May 2007 and continued until January 2008.

Either 15 or 60 days after the glyphosate spraying (at 4g/m²), dry and decomposed *Carpobrotus* leaves, branches and litter were removed, and beach sand without *Carpobrotus* litter was sifted with a 1-mm pore size (Table 1). Dry and decomposed *Carpobrotus* leaves and together with beach sand were also collected 60 days after glyphosate application (at 4g/m²) (Table 1). Finally, beach sand was collected and sifted 30 days after glyphosate spraying (at 0.3 g/m²) on plots without vegetation (Table 1). A sand layer approximately 5 cm deep was collected in every case.

Glyphosate was also sprayed (as previously described) under laboratory conditions on trays containing one litre of sifted, washed and sterilised beach sand at the equivalent of either at 4 or 0.3 g/m² (Table 1).

Seedling emergence test to evaluate the effect of glyphosate applications on dune species

We evaluated the effect of glyphosate application on seedling emergence for four native species of Mediterranean dune ecosystem: Medicago marina L., Lotus creticus L., Ononis ramosissima Desf. (Fabaceae) and Ammophila arenaria (L.) Link. (Poaceae). These species are very common and abundant among the natural vegetation of the Valencian coast. Seeds were supplied by the seed bank at the Centre for Forest Research and Experimentation (CIEF, Generalitat Valenciana). Laboratory emergence tests were performed in trays with one litre of different sand substrates, obtained as described above (Table 1) and using sterilised beach sand as a control. The substrates used for the tests were obtained with equivalent parts of the samples collected in both locations. One hundred seeds were sown per tray (with three repetitions per dune species and substrate). The seeds of L. creticus and O. ramosissima were sown either non-scarified or previously scarified (15 minutes in H₂SO₄) (Table 2). The seedling emergence tests were carried out in a chamber under controlled conditions (16 h light/8 h darkness, 20° C, 60% relative



Figure 1. Effects of glyphosate application at a dose of 4g/m² on Carpobrotus plants 8, 15 and 60 days after manual spraying in experimental plots.

humidity). The emergence of the aerial part of seedlings was monitored for at least 60 days (Figure 2).

Growth tests to evaluate the effect of glyphosate application

For the growth tests, glyphosate was sprayed at a concentration of 0.3 g/m² in experimental plots with 100% coverage of Carpobrotus and in plots without vegetation (Table 1). Glyphosate applications (as previously described) were carried out in December 2007 and January 2008. About 15, 30 and 60 days after the glyphosate spraying, beach sand without Carpobrotus litter was collected, sifted and used as a potting substrate (Table 1). One-litre plastic pots were filled with sand and used to plant L. creticus and A. arenaria plants. The glyphosate was also applied in the pots (with 1 litre of sterilised beach sand) under laboratory conditions (at 0.3 g per one m² equivalent surface area; Table 1). Theses sprayed pots were used in the growth tests 15 days after the glyphosate application. Pots filled with autoclave sterilised beach sand were used as the control (Table 1), and 12 plants per species for treatment were tested. Lotus creticus and A. arenaria plants used in these tests were supplied by Cultidelta nurseries (Amposta, Tarragona and Spain). Vegetative development was evaluated 4, 9 and 13 weeks after planting.

Table 1. Substrates used to evaluate the effect of prior glyphosate spraying on seedling emergence and growth assays with native Mediterranean dune species.

Glyphosate spraying	Glyphosate doses (g/m²)	Substrate collected and used after spraying	Evaluation assays after glyphosate spraying	Evaluated effect	Evaluated species
Carpobrotus on experimental plot	4.0	Sifted sand without Carpobrotus litter	Seedling emergence 15 and 60 days after	Total emergence	Mm-Lc-Or-Aa
Carpobrotus on experimental plot	4.0	Sand with <i>Carpobrotus</i> litter	Seedling emergence 60 days after	Total emergence	Mm–Lc–Or–Aa
Beach sand on experimental plot	0.3	Sifted sand	Seedling emergence 30 days after	Total emergence	Mm-Lc-Or-Aa
Trays with sterilised sand–laboratory spraying	4.0	Trays 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate	Seedling emergence 15 and 60 days after	Total emergence	Mm–Lc–Or–Aa
Trays with sterilised sand–laboratory spraying	0.3	Trays 0.3 g/m ² glyphosate	Seedling emergence 30 days after	Total emergence	Mm–Lc–Or–Aa
Unsprayed trays with sterilised sand	0.0	Trays control	Seedling emergence 15, 30 and 60 days after	Total emergence	Mm–Lc–Or–Aa
Carpobrotus on experimental plot	0.3	Sifted sand without Carpobrotus litter	Plantation 15, 30 and 60 days after	Survival and growth	Lc–Aa
Beach sand on experimental plot	0.3	Sifted sand	Plantation 15, 30 and 60 days after	Survival and growth	Lc–Aa
Pots with sterilised sand–laboratory spraying	0.3	Pot 0.3 g/m ² glyphosate	Plantation 15 days after	Survival and growth	Lc–Aa
Unsprayed pots with sterilised sand	0.0	Pot control	Plantation 15, 30 and 60 days after	Survival and growth	Lc–Aa

Mm – Medicago marina; Lc – Lotus creticus; Or – Ononis ramosissima; Aa – Ammophila arenaria.

Table 2. Seedling emergence of *Medicago sativa, Lotus creticus, Ononis ramosissima* and *Ammophila arenaria* seeds in laboratory conditions with substrates collected after glyphosate spraying under different conditions, days (D) and doses.

Medicago marina								
	Start date of 15 D after spraying		f laboratory seedling er 30 D after spraying		nergence trials 60 D after spraying			
Substrate evaluated	Emergence	%	Emergence	%	Emergence	%		
Control tray 0 glyphosate	49±8 a	100	46±5 a	100	46±5 a	100		
Sifted sand without litter 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate	55 ± 12 a	112			$43 \pm 5 a$	94		
Sand with Carpobrotus litter 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate					43 ± 12 a	94		
Tray 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate	$0 \pm 0 b$	0			$8\pm3b$	17		
Tray 0.3 g/m ² glyphosate			16 ± 3 b	35				
Sifted sand 0.3 g/m ² glyphosate			$24 \pm 7 b$	52				

Lotus creticus

Start date of laboratory seedling emergence trials 60 D after

	15 D after spraying		30 D after spraying*		spraying*	
Substrate evaluated	Emergence	%	Emergence	%	Emergence	%
Control tray 0 glyphosate	4±2 ab	100	53 ± 12 a	100	53 ± 12 ab	100
Sifted sand without litter 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate	8±0 a	200			71±9 a	134
Sand with Carpobrotus litter 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate					$35 \pm 11 b$	66
Tray 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate	$0\pm0b$	0			0 ± 0 c	0
Tray 0.3 g/m ² glyphosate			2 ± 2 b	4		
Sifted sand 0.3 g/m ² glyphosate			40 ± 10 a	75		

Ononis ramosissima

Start date of laboratory seedling emergence trials 60 D after

	15 D after spraying		30 D after spraying*		spraying*	
Substrate evaluated	Emergence	%	Emergence	%	Emergence	%
Control tray 0 glyphosate	2±1 a	100	16±5 a	100	16±5 a	100
Sifted sand without litter 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate	6±1b	300			13 ± 3 ab	81
Sand with Carpobrotus litter 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate					8 ± 2 ab	50
Tray 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate	0 ± 0 a	0			$3\pm1b$	19
Tray 0.3 g/m ² glyphosate			$3\pm1b$	19		
Sifted sand 0.3 g/m ² glyphosate			4±1b	25		

Ammophila arenaria

	Start date of laboratory seedling emergence trials							
	15 D after spraying		30 D after spraying		60 D after spraying			
Substrate evaluated	Emergence	%	Emergence	%	Emergence	%		
Control tray 0 glyphosate	34±2 a	100	14±5 a	100	14±5 a	100		
Sifted sand without litter 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate	$22 \pm 3 b$	65			9±3 a	64		
Sand with Carpobrotus litter 4.0 g/m ² glyphosate					1 ± 1 b	7		
Tray 4.0 g/m ²	0 ± 0 c	0			$0\pm0b$	0		
Tray 0.3 g/m ² glyphosate			6±3b	43				
Sifted sand 0.3 g/m ² glyphosate			8±2 ab	57				

Final seedling emergence (mean \pm SD) and percentage emergence compared to the control (%) after 60 days. One hundred seeds per tray and three trays per substrate were studied. *Seeds scarified prior to sowing. In each column, different letters denote statistically significant differences according to Tukey multiple comparison test (p < 0.05).

521

522

523

525

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

538

540

542

543

544

545

546

547

549

550

551

553

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

564

565

566

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

Statistical analysis

461

462

463

464

466

468

469

470

472

473

476

477

479

480

481

483

484

485

486

487

488

490

491

492

494

495

496

498

499

500

501

502

503

505

507

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

The seedling emergence of four native species under laboratory conditions with different substrates collected after the application of glyphosate was analysed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) via Statgraphics plus software (5.1 for Windows, 1994, Statistical, Corporation, Warrenton, VA). The statistical analysis of the data was performed independently for each species and for each substrate collection time point after the glyphosate application (15, 30 and 60 days). For each species and for each time, we carried out a simple factorial ANOVA using the type of substrate collected after application of glyphosate as the main factor. Tukey multiple comparison test was used for each ANOVA to determine the significance of any differences in the seedling emergence between the different substrates collected on the same day (15, 30 or 60 days) after glyphosate application with respect to the control substrate (p < 0.05).

The vegetative development of two native species in plastic pots with different substrates collected after the application of glyphosate was also analysed by ANOVA using the previously mentioned statistical software. The statistical analysis of the data was performed independently for each species and each week after planting (4, 9 and 13 weeks). For each species and each week after planting, a simple factorial ANOVA was carried out using the type of substrate collected after application of glyphosate as the main factor. Tukey multiple comparison test was used for each ANOVA to determine the significance of any differences in vegetative development between the substrates collected after glyphosate application with respect to the control substrate (p < 0.05).

Results

The effectiveness of glyphosate at a dose of 4 g/m² for the eradication of Carpobrotus

Eight days after glyphosate spraying (4 g/m²), the experimental plots had clearly been affected. Although the leaves and branches still maintained the typical appearance of a succulent, the Carpobrotus plants presented a yellowish-brown colouration and all the flowers had been affected (Figure 1, D8). In addition, the *Carpobrotus* plants about 15 cm outside of the plots had also been slightly affected and showed a light yellowish-green colouration (Figure 1, D8). The plants on complete experimental plots showed a dark brown colour, and some Carpobrotus plants even showed grey colouration. Most of leaves and branches had a dry appearance 15 days after the glyphosate application (Figure 1, D15), and by 60 days after glyphosate application, the plants were a grey-black, and the leaves and branches appeared dry, were completely fragmented and were broken (Figure 1, D60).

Seedling emergence tests in trays

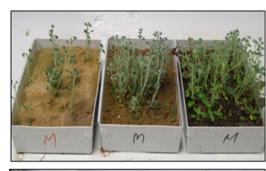
There was around 50% emergence of *M. marina* seedlings in control trays (Figure 2, M trays; Table 2), and their emergence in sand without Carpobrotus litter after glyphosate spraying (4 g/m², 15 and 60 days) and in sand with Carpobrotus litter after glyphosate spraying (4 g/m², 60 days) was also not significantly different from the control (Table 2). The emergence of seedlings was completely inhibited when glyphosate (4 g/m²) was applied directly onto the trays (15 days), but it was only partially inhibited 60 days after glyphosate application (Table 2, tray 4 glyphosate). Emergence was also significantly reduced by spraying glyphosate directly on sand, both in experimental plots and under laboratory condition (0.3 g/m², Table 2).

Emergence of L. creticus seedlings (Figure 2, L trays) in sand without Carpobrotus litter after glyphosate spraying (4 g/m², 15 and 60 days) was not significantly different from the control (Table 2). However, their emergence was significantly reduced in sand with Carpobrotus litter after glyphosate application (4 g/m², 60 days; Table 2). Glyphosate spraying (4 g/m²) directly into the trays completely inhibited the emergence of L. creticus seeds even 60 days after the application (Table 2) and when applied on sand in the travs (0.3 g/m²) it significantly inhibited L. creticus seed germination. In contrast, seedling emergence was not significantly affected when the same dose of glyphosate was sprayed on sand in the experimental plots (Table 2).

Emergence of O. ramosissima seedlings (Figure 2, O trays) was not decreased in sand without Carpobrotus litter after glyphosate application (4g/m², 15 and 60 days; Table 2), and emergence in sand with Carpobrotus litter after glyphosate application (4g/m², 60 days) was not significantly different from the control. However, glyphosate spraying on sand (4g/m², trays) completely inhibited O. ramosissima emergence after 15 days, although after 60 days the inhibition was not 100% (Table 2). Similar results were obtained for O. ramosissima seedling emergence at the lower dose of glyphosate dose (0.3 g/m²) when applied directly on sand (Table 2).

The overall emergence rate of A. arenaria seedlings (Figure 2, A trays) in sand without Carpobrotus litter after glyphosate spraying (4 g/m², 15 and 60 days) decreased by 35% compared to the control, but no significant difference was observed 60 days after spraying (Table 2). Moreover, the presence of Carpobrotus litter in the sand (4g/m², 60 days) significantly decreased the emergence of A. arenaria seeds, and their emergence was completely inhibited when glyphosate (4g/m²) was applied directly on the trays (15 and 60 days), although it was only partially inhibited after application at lower doses (0.3 g/m², 30 days). Nonetheless, the emergence was not significantly affected when glyphosate was applied at the lower dose on the sand plots (Table 2, sifted sand, 0.3 g/m² glyphosate).

Additionally, we also observed seedlings from nine native species in emergence test trays when we used sand without Carpobrotus litter (Figure 2, centre trays) and sand with Carpobrotus litter (Figure 2, right trays) collected 60 days after glyphosate spraying as substrates. The native species identified were Ammophila arenaria, Centaurea seridis L., Euphorbia paralias L., Lotus creticus, Malcolmia littorea (L.) W.T.Aiton, Senecio vulgaris L., Scabiosa atropurpurea L., Sonchus oleraceus L. and Sonchus tenerrimus L. In addition, Carpobrotus seedlings were mainly detected in trays with sand without Carpobrotus litter (Figure 2, centre trays).







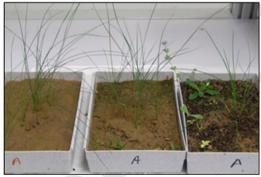
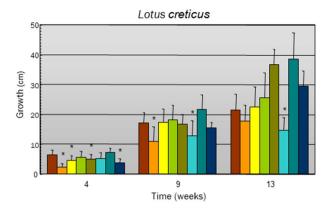


Figure 2. Seedling emergence in trays sown under laboratory conditions to evaluate the effect of glyphosate application on four native species. M – Medicago marina, L – Lotus creticus, O – Ononis ramosissima and A – Ammophila arenaria. Left – control trays. Centre – sifted sand without *Carpobrotus* litter collected 60 days after glyphosate spraying (4 g/m²). Right – sand with *Carpobrotus* litter collected 60 days after glyphosate spraying (4 g/m²).

Growth tests

The survival of L. creticus and A. arenaria plants was 100% in all the substrates used in the growth tests after glyphosate application (0.3 g/m²). Mortality was only observed in one of L. creticus plants when glyphosate was sprayed directly onto the pot under laboratory conditions.

Four weeks after planting, the growth of the *L. creticus* plants was significantly lower with respect to the control in four of the seven substrates tested (Figure 3). Nine weeks after planting, the lower growth of *L. creticus* plants could only be observed in the two substrates used 15 days after



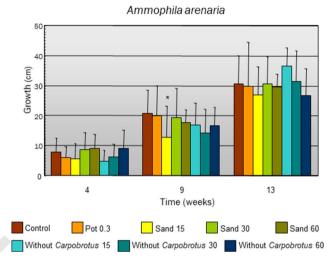


Figure 3. Average growth of *Lotus creticus* and *Ammophila arenaria* plants 4, 9 and 13 weeks after transplanting them to pots. ($X \pm SE$, *significant differences compared to the control p < 0.05).

glyphosate spraying (Figure 3, Pot 0.3 and sifted sand without *Carpobrotus* litter); 13 weeks after planting, poorer growth was only observed in *L. creticus* plants cultivated in sifted sand without *Carpobrotus* litter collected 15 days after glyphosate spraying (Figure 3).

At 4 and 13 weeks after planting, no significant differences in the growth of *A. arenaria* plants were observed between the control substrate and all the substrates on which glyphosate had been applied (Figure 3). Finally, at 9 weeks after planting, poorer growth was only detected in *A. arenaria* plants cultivated in sifted sand collected 15 days after glyphosate spraying on beach sand (Figure 3).

Discussion

The results obtained describe the effects and symptoms exhibited over time by *Carpobrotus* plants after glyphosate spraying (Figure 1). They also show the rapid and high effectiveness of glyphosate application in *Carpobrotus* eradication. Targeted spraying reduced the damage to the surrounding areas, and only *Carpobrotus* plants directly sprayed by the glyphosate solution were affected, even when using a dose 10 times higher than the maximum recommended concentration (Figure 1). These observations show that the effect of this herbicide was therefore limited to direct foliar

757

758

759

761

762

763

764

765 766

767

768

769 770

771

772

773

774

775

776

777

778

779

780 781

782

783

784

785

786

787

789

791

792

793

794

795 796

797

798

799

800

801

802

804

805

806

807

808

809

810 811

812

813

814

contact (Henderson et al. 2010). Targeted glyphosate spraying has been reported to cause significant reductions in the invasive plant Sarracenia purpurea, without adversely affecting the surrounding vegetation (Walker et al. 2016). The data we present here confirm that the use of glyphosate is an efficient method for Carpobrotus eradication, in agreement with previous descriptions (Albert 1995; Campoy et al. 2018; Lazzaro et al. 2020). Glyphosate-derived herbicides have also been successfully employed in the management and control of other invasive plant species in protected areas. Indeed, glyphosate applications have recently been used in eradication campaigns against Opuntia dillenii Haw. and Agave americana L. (Arevalo et al. 2015), Pennisetum purpureum Schumach. (Grey et al. 2015), Andropogon gayanus Kunth. (Luck et al. 2019), Brachypodium pinnatum (L.) P.Beauv. (Redhead et al. 2019), Poa annua (L.) (William et al. 2019) and Oxalis pes-caprae L. (Lazzaro et al. 2019).

697

698

700

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

709

711

712

713

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

723

724

725

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

735

736

737

738

739

741

742

743

745

746

747

748

749

750

751

752

753

754

755

In the case of Carpobrotus, the most widely used method in restoration projects is mechanical removal while the most efficient way was the carpet rolling technique in which the Carpobrotus mat is rolled up from one side and the roots are severed underneath with shovels (Andreu et al. 2010; Brunel et al. 2013; Ruffino et al. 2015; Campoy et al. 2018; Chenot et al. 2018), although some drawbacks have been reported for this latter method (Ruffino et al. 2015; Souza-Alonso and González 2017; Campoy et al. 2018; Chenot et al. 2018; Souza-Alonso et al. 2019, 2020). Glyphosate application avoids some problems derived from manually controlling Carpobrotus. First, it prevents accumulation of large amounts of fresh material generated by mechanical methods in the surroundings which would otherwise have to be removed. Second, glyphosate application causes complete drying and breaking of plants (Figure 1), thereby preventing their possible vegetative regrowth via stem fragments. For example, C. edulis rapidly emits adventitious roots after fragmentation, regardless of oxygen availability (Lechuga-Lago et al. 2016; Roiloa et al. 2016; Roiloa and Retuerto 2016). Third, the effectiveness of glyphosate spraying in coastal areas circumvents the movement of sand-soil associated with manual extirpation of roots and rhizomes thereby avoiding its potentially erosive effect in protected areas (Chenot et al. 2018). Fourth, as opposed to the usual massive emergence of Carpobrotus seedlings and opportunist species after mechanical control interventions (Magnoli et al. 2013; Novoa et al. 2013; Fried et al. 2014; Novoa and González 2014), glyphosate application results in extremely limited emergence of Carpobrotus seedlings in invaded areas (Lazzaro et al. 2020). Fifth, the chemical control of Carpobrotus would minimise the post-eradication and monitoring activities that usually accompany the manual management of Carpobrotus in invaded areas (Ruffino et al. 2015; Chenot et al. 2018, Lazzaro et al. 2020). Taken together, all these factors suggest that the chemical control of Carpobrotus will require less logistical planning and clearly has a lower economic cost and execution time than mechanical eradication.

However, the use of glyphosate has also been guestioned because of its possible effect on both environmental and human health. Glyphosate-based herbicides are the most heavily applied herbicide in the world, and usage continues to increase because they are highly efficacious, cost-effective, practically non-toxic and degrade readily in the environment (Henderson et al. 2010). But, glyphosate is now authoritatively classified as a probable human carcinogen in the United States and the European Union (Myers et al. 2016; European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) 2017). Nonetheless, the current consensus statement indicates that the regulatory estimate of tolerable daily intakes is based on outdated science and so new epidemiological, biomonitoring and toxicology studies are required (Myers et al. 2016).

Nevertheless, the rapid establishment recovery of native dune species similar to that observed after the manual eradication (Vilà et al. 2006) was recently detected after using glyphosate in a Carpobrotus eradication campaign (Lazzaro et al. 2020). Six months after glyphosate application, 17 species (including Carpobrotus) were sampled in a Carpobrotus-invaded area, and a total of 32 species were detected after three years of glyphosate application (Lazzaro et al. 2020). In this current work, we detected the emergence of seedling from a total of nine native species (plus Carpobrotus) collected along with the sand used as the substrate for the emergence tests. The presence of seedlings was mainly observed in sand with Carpobrotus litter (Figure 2, right trays). Of note, viable seeds from different native species were present even though glyphosate had been sprayed at a dose ten times higher than the maximum recommended concentration. Thus, these results reinforce the idea that the application of glyphosate for Carpobrotus eradication does not affect subsequent recovery of native vegetation in invaded coastal dunes.

Although complete restoration of invaded areas will always not be possible, creating an ecosystem with features that resemble the original habitat should be beneficial (Marchante et al. 2011). Simply removing invasive species does not seem to be sufficient to completely restore ecosystems and so additional interventions are likely to be required (King and Hobbs 2006). Proposal for such beneficial activities includes planting desirable species, removing the litter created by invasive species and depleting their seed banks, and the introduction of seeds from native species in order to increase biological competition (Holmes 2002; Luck et al. 2019). Importantly, the success of these actions can be affected by the previous management of invasive species, and therefore, it is a key to evaluate the possible negative effects of the application and herbicide must also be evaluated.

Our results indicate that overall seedling emergence was not significantly affected for three native plant species when using sand without Carpobrotus litter collected 15 or 60 days after glyphosate spraying at 10 times the maximum recommended dose (European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) 2017). In contrast, dramatic seedling emergence inhibition (80% to 100%) was observed in all the tested species when glyphosate was sprayed directly on sand under laboratory conditions at the same dose (Table 2). Carpobrotus plants form dense mats (up to 50 cm deep) with prostrate nodes and internodes (Campoy et al. 2018) that prevent the glyphosate reaching

816

818

819

820

822

823

824

825

826

827

828

829

830

831

833

835

837

838

839

840

841

842

843

844

845

846

848

849

850

852

853

855

856

857

859

861

863

864

865

866

867

868

869

870

871

872

873

the sand and therefore from inhibiting seed emergence. These results reflect the importance of meticulousness in herbicide application tasks in order to avoid spraying outside the area occupied by *Carpobrotus* plants, as previously observed in the eradication of the invasive plant *S. purpurea* (Walker et al. 2016).

In addition, the inhibitory effect of glyphosate on seeding emergence seemed to decline over time. Total inhibition of M. marina and O. ramosissima seeds was observed after 15 days after spraying versus 20% emergence 60 days after spraying on sand under laboratory conditions at 10 times the maximum recommended dose (Table 2). The median half-life of glyphosate in soil has been widely studied and values between 2 to 197 days have been reported, but a typical field half-life of 47 days has been suggested for field conditions (Henderson et al. 2010). As expected, the inhibition of seedling emergence by glyphosate was clearly associated with the application dose. The emergence of M. marina, L. creticus and A. arenaria seeds was higher at the 0.3 g/m² dose (after 30 days) with respect to 4 g/m² dose (after 60 days; Table 2). Moreover, the seedling emergence of four native species was superior in sand collected in experimental plots (0.3 g/m²) than under laboratory conditions (0.3 g/m²) for the same time after glyphosate spraying (Table 2). These results suggest that climate conditions (wind, solar radiation, rain, etc.) reduce glyphosate persistence in soil (Henderson et al. 2010), therefore reducing glyphosate toxicity in sand collected from experimental plots.

Seedling emergence was reduced in the case of two native species (L. creticus and O. ramosissima), while in A. arenaria, it only reached 7% of the control levels (Table 2) when the substrate was collected 60 days after glyphosate spraying (4 g/m²) and contained Carpobrotus litter. This inhibitory effect on seedling emergence could have been caused by residual glyphosate present in the Carpobrotus litter. Nevertheless, it has been reported that glyphosate had a median half-life of eight to nine days in leaf litter from red alder (Alnus rubra Bong.) and salmonberry (Rubus spectabilis Pursh) (Henderson et al. 2010). In this case, sand with Carpobrotus litter was collected 60 days after glyphosate spraying. Thus, another potential cause of this inhibitory effect on seedling emergence might have been the allelopathic properties of Carpobrotus litter. The high production and accumulation of Carpobrotus litter and its slow decomposition (Conser and Connor 2009) might have been sufficient to ensure the accumulation of high levels of secondary metabolites with allelopathic potential that could be inhibited the germination and early root growth of other species, as previously described for Malcolmia littorea seeds (Novoa et al. 2012).

Planting of native species is an alternative strategy aimed at the reintroduction of original vegetation in invaded areas (Hartman and McCarthy 2004; Galatowitsch and Richardson 2005). Planting will probably be the most successful strategy because these introduced plants will have a height advantage over the invasive seedlings. However, such actions entail elevated costs associated with plant production, transport and manual labour, and therefore, it is important to

understand the possible effects of the previous application of herbicides in the planting area. The experiments described in this current work simulated native plant reintroduction by planting into Carpobrotus-invaded coastal dunes after chemical eradication by glyphosate spraying. Our results indicate that the survival rates and development of L. creticus and A. arenaria native coastal dune plants were not affected when they grew in pots with sand collected at different times after glyphosate applications at the recommended dose of 0.3 g/m² (Figure 3), even before reaching the median half-life of glyphosate in soil (Henderson et al. 2010). Similar survival rates of Acacia holosericea A.Cum. ex. G.Don plants were observed when they were planted in experimental plots three months after the application of herbicides including glyphosate to eradicate Andropogon gayanus (Luck et al. 2019). In this case, it is interesting to note that direct glyphosate application onto the sand affected the emergence but not the survival of transplanted plants.

874

875

876

877

878

879

881

883

884

885

886

887 888

889

890

891

892

893

894

896

897

898 899

900

901

902

903

904

905

907

909

910

911

912

913

914

915

916

917

918 919

920

921

922

923

924

925

926

927

928

929

930

931

932

In conclusion, targeted glyphosate spraying has been shown to be an efficient method for *Carpobrotus* eradication that could be implemented as an alternative to manual removal. The use of glyphosate was also a suitable method for *Carpobrotus* eradication when active management actions are directed towards the promotion of original vegetation in protected areas like coastal dunes. Thus, seed sowing and planting of native dune species are potential methods to ensure recolonisation with native plants after glyphosate-mediated eradication of invasive species.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank of the Valencian Region Government environmental officers, Gabriel Ballester and Vicente Deltoro for their logistic support, as well as the seed bank at the Centre for Forest Research and Experimentation (CIEF, Generalitat Valenciana) for supplying the native species seeds. Finally, we thank Dr. Eduardo Rojas and Dr. Rafael Sirera for their critical review of this manuscript.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

Funding

This study was made possible through significant support from the Conselleria de Territori i Habitatge, Generalitat Valenciana (grant Number T621700) and from the Conselleria d'Educació, Generalitat Valenciana (project GVPRE/2008/134).

References

Albert ME. 1995. Portrait of an Invader II: The ecology and management of *Carpobrotus edulis*. *CalEPPC News*. 3:4–6.

Andreu J, Manzano-Piedras E, Bartomeu I, Dana ED, Vilà M. 2010. Vegetation response after removal of the invasive *Carpobrotus* hybrid complex in Andalucía. *Spain Ecol Rest.* 28(4):440–448.

Arevalo JR, Fernández-Lugo S, Mellado M, De la Concepción T. 2015. Experimental management control of *Opuntia dillenii* Haw. and *Agave*

993

995

996

997

999

1001

1002

1003

1004

1005

1006

1007

1008

1010

1011

1012

1014

1015

1016

1017

1018

1019

1020

1021

1022

1023

1024

1025

1026

1027

1029

1030

1031

1032

1033

1034

1035

1036

1037

1038

1039

1040

1041

1042

1043

1044

1045

1046

1047

1048

1049

1050

americana L. in Teno Rural Park, Canary Islands. Plant Species Biol. 30(2):137-146

933

934

935

936

937

938

940

941

942

943

944

945

947

948

949

951

952

953

955

956

957

958

959

960

962

963

964

966

967

968

970

971

972

973

974

975

977

978

979

981

982

983

985

986

988

989

990

- Brunel S, Brundu G, Fried G. 2013. Eradication and control of invasive alien plants in the Mediterranean basin: towards better coordination to enhance existing initiatives. EPPO Bull. 43(2):290-308.
- Campoy JG, Acosta ATR, Affre L, Barreiro R, Brundu G, Buisson E, González L, Lema M, Novoa A, Retuerto R, et al. 2018. Monographs of invasive plants in Europe: Carpobrotus. Bot Lett. 165(3-4):440-475.
- Castroviejo S, Lainz M, López-González G, Montserrat P, Múñoz-Garmendía F, Paiva J, Villar L. 1990. Flora ibérica. In: Plantas vasculares de la Península Ibérica e Islas Baleares. Vol. II. Real Jardín Botánico CSIC, Madrid: Platanaceae-Plumbaginaceae.
- Chenot J, Affre L, Gros R, Dubois L, Malecki S, Passetti A, Aboucaya A, Buisson E. 2018. Eradication of invasive Carpobrotus sp.: effects on soil and vegetation. Restor Ecol. 26(1):106-113.
- Chenot J, Affre L, Passetti A, Buisson E. 2014. Consequences of iceplant (Carpobrotus) invasion on the vegetation and seed bank structure on a Mediterranean island: response elements for their local eradication. Acta Bot Gallica. 161(3):301-308.
- Conser C, Connor EF. 2009. Assessing the residual effects of Carpobrotus edulis invasion, implications for restoration. Biol Invasions. 11(2):349-358.
- D'Antonio CM. 1990. Seeds production and dispersal in the non-native invasive succulent Carpobrotus edulis (Aizoaceae) in coastal strand communities of Central California. J Appl Ecol. 27:693-702.
- D'Antonio CM. 1993. Mechanisms controlling invasion of coastal plant communities by the alien succulent Carpobrotus edulis. Ecology. 74:83-
- D'Antonio CM, Mahall BE. 1991. Root profiles and competition between the invasive, exotic perennial Carpobrotus edulis, and two native shrub species in California coastal scrub. Am J Bot. 78(7):885-894.
- European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) 2017. Conclusion of peer review of the pesticide risk assessment of the potential endocrine disrupting properties of glyphosate. EFSA J. 15:4979.
- Fried G, Laitung B, Pierre C, Chaqué N, Panetta FD. 2014. Impact of invasive plants in Mediterranean habitats: disentangling the effects of characteristics of invaders and recipient communities. Biol Invasions. 16(8):1639-1655.
- Galatowitsch S, Richardson DM. 2005. Riparian scrub recovery after clearing of invasive alien trees in headwater streams of the Western Cape, South Africa. Biol Conserv. 122(4):509-521.
- Grey TL, Webster TM, Li X, Anderson W, Cutts GS. 2015. Evaluation of control of Napiergrass (Penisetum purpureum) with tillage and herbicides. Invasive Plant Sci Manag. 8(4):393-400.
- Hartman KM, McCarthy BC. 2004. Restoration of a forest understory after the removal of an invasive shrub, Amur honeysuckle (Lonicera maackii). Restor Ecol. 12(2):154-165.
- Henderson AM, Gervais JA, Luukinen B, Buhl K, Stone D, Strid A, Cross A, Jenkins J. 2010. Glyphosate Technical Fact Sheet; National Pesticide Information Center, Oregon State University Extension Services. http:// npic.orst.edu/factsheets/archive/glyphotech.html. Accessed 2 March 2020.
- Holmes PM. 2002. Depth distribution and composition of seed-banks in alien invaded and uninvaded fynbos vegetation. Austral Ecol. 27(1):110-120.
- Hulme PE. 2004. Islands, invasions and impacts: a Mediterranean perspective. In: Fernández-Palacios JM, Morici S, editors. Ecología insular. Asociación Española de Ecología Terrestre. Cabildo Insular de la Palma, p. 359-383.
- King EG, Hobbs RJ. 2006. Identifying linkages among conceptual models of ecosystem degradation and restoration: towards an integrative framework. Restor Ecol. 14(3):369-378.
- Lazzaro L, Ferretti G, Bianchi E, Benesperi R. 2019. Treatment by glyphosate-based herbicide allowed recovering native species after Oxalis pes-caprae L. invasion: indications from a Mediterranean island. Plant Biosyst. 153(5):651-659.
- Lazzaro L, Tondini E, Lombardi L, Giunti M. 2020. The eradication of Carpobrotus spp. in the sand dune ecosystem at Sterpaia (Italy, Tuscany): indications from a successful experience. Biologia. 75(2):199-208.

- Lechuga-Lago Y, Sixto-Ruiz M, Roiloa SR, González L. 2016. Clonal integration facilitates the colonization of drought environments by plant invaders. AoB Plants. 8:plw023.
- Luck L, Bellairs SM, Rossiter-Rachor NA. 2019. Residual herbicide treatments reduce Andropogon gayanus (Gamba Grass) recruitment for mine site restoration in northern Australia. Ecol Manag Restor.
- Magnoli SM, Kleinhesselink AR, Cushman JH. 2013. Responses to invasion and invader removal differ between native and exotic plant groups in a coastal dune. Oecologia. 173(4):1521-1530.
- Marchante H, Freitas H, Hoffmann H. 2011. The potential role of seed bans in the recovery of dune ecosystems after removal of invasive plant species. Appl Veg Sci. 14(1):107-119.
- Moragues E, Traveset A. 2005. Effect of Carpobrotus spp. on the pollination success of native plant species of the Balearic Islands. Biol Conserv. 122(4):611-619.
- Myers JP, Antoniou MN, Blumberg B, Carroll L, Colborn T, Everett LG, Hansen M, Landrigan PJ, Lanphear BP, Mesnage R, et al. 2016. Concerns over use of glyphosate-based herbicides and risks associated with exposures: a consensus statement. Environ Health. 15:19.
- Novoa A, González L. 2014. Impacts of Carpobrotus edulis (L.) N.E.Br. on the germination, establishment and survival of native plants: a clue for assessing its competitive strength. PloS One. 9(9):e107557.
- Novoa A, González L, Moravcová L, Pyšek P. 2012. Effects of soil characteristics, allelopathy and frugivory on establishment of the invasive plant Carpobrotus edulis and a co-occurring native, Malcolmia littorea. PloS One. 7(12):e53166.
- Novoa A, González L, Moravcová L, Pyšek P. 2013. Constrains of native plants species establishment in the coastal dune communities invaded by Carpobrotus edulis: implications for restoration. Biol Conserv. 164:1-9.
- Palmer M, Linde M, Pons GX. 2004. Correlations patterns between invertebrate species composition and the presence of invasive plants. Acta Oecol. 26(3):219-226.
- Pergl J, Härtel H, Pyšek P, Stejskal R. 2020. Don't throw the baby out with the bathwater - ban of glyphosate use depends on context. NeoBiota. 56:27-29..
- Redhead JW, Nowakowski M, Ridding LE, Wagner M, Pywell RF. 2019. The effectiveness of herbicides for management of tor-grass (Brachypodium pinnatum s.l.) in calcareous grassland. Biol Conserv. 237:280-290.
- Roiloa SR, Retuerto R. 2016. Effects of fragmentation and seawater submergence on photochemical efficiency and growth in the clonal invader Carpobrotus edulis. Flora. 225:45-51.
- Roiloa SR, Retuerto R, Campoy JG, Novoa A, Barreiro R. 2016. Division of labor brings greater benefits to clones of Carpobrotus edulis in the non-native range: evidence for rapid adaptive evolution. Front Plant Sci. 7:349.
- Roiloa SR, Rodriguez-Echeverria S, Freitas H. 2014. Effect of the physiological integration in self/non-self genotype recognition on the clonal invader Carpobrotus edulis. J Plant Ecol. 7(4):413-418.
- Ruffino L, Krebs E, Passetti A, Aboucaya A, Affre L, Fourcy D, Lorvelec O, Barcelo A, Berville L, Bigeard N, et al. 2015. Eradications as scientific experiments: progress in simultaneous eradications of two major invasive taxa from a Mediterranean island. Pest Manag Sci. 71(2):189-198.
- Santoro R, Jucker T, Carranza M, Acosta A. 2011. Assessing the effects of Carpobrotus invasions on coastal dune soil. Does nature of the invaded habitat matter. Community Ecol. 12(2):234-240.
- Sanz-Elorza M, Dana ED, Sobrino E. 2004. Atlas de las Plantas Invasoras en España. Madrid: Dirección General para la Biodiversidad.
- Souza-Alonso P, González L. 2017. Don't leave me behind: viability of vegetative propagules of the clonal invasive Carpobrotus edulis and implications for plant management. Biol Invasions. 19(7):2171-2183.
- Souza-Alonso P, Guisande-Collazo A, Lechuga-Lago Y, González L. 2019. The necessity of surveillance: medium-term viability of Carpobrotus edulis propagules after plant fragmentation. Plant Biosyst. 153(5):736-739.

- Souza-Alonso P, Lechuga-Lago Y, Guisande-Collazo A, Pereiro D, Rosón G, González L. 2020. Drifting away: seawater survival and stochastic transport of the invasive Carpobrotus edulis. Sci Tot Environ. 712:135518.
- Suehs CM, Affre L, Médail F. 2004a. Invasion dynamics of two alien Carpobrotus (Aizoaceae) taxa on a Mediterranean island: I. Genetic diversity and introgression. Heredity (Edinb). 92(1):31-40.
- Suehs CM, Affre L, Médail F. 2004b. Invasion dynamics of two alien Carpobrotus (Aizoaceae) taxa on a Mediterranean island: II. Reproductive strategies. Heredity (Edinb). 92(6):550-556.
- Vilà M, Tessier M, Suehs CM, Brundu G, Carta L, Galanidis A, Lambdon P, Manca M, Médail F, Moragues E, et al. 2006. Local and regional assessments of the impacts of the plant invaders on vegetation struc-

ture and soil properties of Mediterranean islands. J Biogeogr. 33(5):853-861.

- Walker KJ, Auld C, Austin E, Rook J. 2016. Effectiveness of methods to control the invasive non-native pitcherplant Sarracenia purpurea L. on an European mire. J Nat Conserv. 31:1-8.
- William LK, Sindel BM, Kristiansen P, Wilson SC, Shaw JD. 2019. Assessing the efficacy and impact of management of an invasive species in a protected area: Poa annua on sub-Antarctic Macquarie Island. Weed Res. 59(3):180-190.
- Zedda L, Cogoni A, Flore F, Brundu G. 2010. Impacts of alien plants and man-made disturbance on soil-growth bryophyte and lichen diversity in coastal areas of Sardinia (Italy). Plant Biosyst. 144(3):547-562.