



**RESTORING LIMESTONE QUARRIES: HAYSEED,  
COMMERCIAL SEED MIXTURE OR SPONTANEOUS  
SUCCESSION?**

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1 **Abstract:** The main goal of quarry restoration is to convert degraded,  
2 unproductive areas into new, self-sustaining ecosystems that develop into highly  
3 natural environments. With the aim to individuate the best practices for restoring  
4 limestone quarries, we investigated the short-term effects on vegetation features  
5 and economic advantages of three restoration approaches. These approaches  
6 included tree and shrub planting, no herb layer, or a commercial seed mixture or  
7 hayseed. The different approaches were tested in a limestone quarry within the  
8 Botticino extractive basin (N-Italy). A donor grassland area of hayseed and a  
9 quarry area that had undergone spontaneous revegetation over a decade were used  
10 as control areas. We surveyed the vegetation plots to investigate the structure and  
11 the productivity of the herbaceous layers; collecting data on plant species cover,  
12 the mean plant height, the tree and shrubs mortality and biomass enabled us to  
13 perform gradient analysis. The main differences between the sites were due to  
14 biotic factors; specifically, vegetation cover was affected quite differently by the  
15 different restoration approaches. Restoration with commercial seed mixture  
16 resulted primarily in dense stands of *Lolium perenne* that caused an increase in  
17 shrub and tree mortality. Cost-benefit analyses showed that despite hayseed being  
18 the most expensive approach in terms of cost and time, it ensured higher species  
19 diversity, vegetation structure and greening. Our results highlighted that  
20 autochthonous plant materials can improve excavation-area restoration by both  
21 contrasting the colonisation of non-native species and increasing natural  
22 regeneration and biodiversity levels.

23 **Keywords:** hayseed; commercial seed mixture; hydroseeding; transplantation;  
24 cost-benefit analysis

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4 INTRODUCTION  
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7 Over the last thirty years, great efforts have been made all over the world to  
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9 rehabilitate stone quarries including improving environmental conditions, removing  
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11 impacts and damages on ecosystems, by ensuring the reuse of the degraded areas and  
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13 increasing sustainable development (Neri & Sánchez, 2010; Abakumov *et al.*, 2011;  
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15 Porqueddu *et al.*, 2013).

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18 Where a naturalistic endpoint is desired, spontaneous succession is often incapable of  
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20 recovering the ecosystem and its natural self-regulatory processes. Abiotic limits, such  
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22 as water and nutrient deficiency, soil erosion and water contamination and the risk of  
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24 landslides typically give rise to this failure. In addition, the critical distance from  
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26 valuable natural areas and human-induced disturbance due to quarry activities together  
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28 discourage the natural vegetation succession (Duan *et al.*, 2008; Gentili *et al.*, 2011;  
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30 Ballesteros *et al.*, 2012). Other environments are affected by similar problems (high  
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32 erosion rates, poor soils and the need of vegetation recovery: minespoils (Martín-  
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34 Moreno *et al.*, 2013), badlands areas (Cerdà, 1999), roads and railways embankments  
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36 (Cerdà, 2007) and agriculture lands (Li *et al.*, 2013). In such cases, technical measures  
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38 are required to increase the speed of the regeneration process and the earlier  
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40 development of site-specific and self-sustaining plant communities and ecosystems  
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42 (e.g., Khater & Arnaud, 2007; Prach & Hobbs, 2008).

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47 The ecological recreation of valuable semi-natural habitats from highly disturbed  
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49 ecosystems is not a simple process, and quarry restoration is an even greater challenge  
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51 because the starting area is generally bare and comprises a low-fertile substrate  
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53 (Tischew & Kirmer, 2007). Thus, the identification of optimal approaches is  
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55 fundamental to plan a successful restoration and involves detailed quantitative case  
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1 studies, field experiments and comparative studies over wide geographical areas (Yundt  
2 & Lowe, 2002; Prach, 2003). Modelling the spontaneous successional dynamics will  
3 enable restorations for specific ecosystems that will be based on precise, successional  
4 phases and on the level of environmental complexity (e.g., Prach *et al.*, 2001; Tischew  
5 & Kirmer, 2007). Following the identification of a target ecosystem and a successional  
6 phase, quarry restoration can commence using key steps, such as landform modelling,  
7 substrate preparation, plant species selection, revegetation *sensu stricto* (i.e., plant  
8 translocation) and post-plantation interventions (e.g., Warman, 1988; Bernini *et al.*,  
9 2003).

10 With respect to revegetation, which begins on bare substrates, different approaches  
11 have been developed including the use of diasporas-rich plant clipping material, the  
12 dumping of overburden with seed bank and vegetative propagules, mulch seeding, and  
13 shrub and tree planting (e.g., Muzzi & Rossi, 2003; Tischew & Kirmer, 2007). In  
14 particular, hayseeding involves mowing plant stalks carrying mature seed heads (i.e.,  
15 infructescences) in species-rich meadows and scattering the product over the site to be  
16 restored (Cottam, 1987). Hydroseeding is a useful sowing technique that could  
17 significantly increase biodiversity and plant cover within a few years after its  
18 application (Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 2007; Prats *et al.*, 2013). It is typically performed  
19 using commercial seed mixtures. With respect to the tree and shrub layers, seeding  
20 generally do not regenerate rapidly from seeds or may be subjected to other factors such  
21 as climatic conditions or the germination process (Bullard *et al.*, 1992; Madsen & Löff,  
22 2005). Transplantation requires more intensive efforts but fresh plant clippings may  
23 accelerate the development of vegetation (Kirmer & Mahn, 2001).

1 Although many studies have reported on a single restoration method, only a few  
2 experimental studies have thus far tested the efficacy of different restoration  
3 approaches, in particular, hayseed. We hypothesised that different restoration  
4 approaches would result in different biodiversity levels and ecological functions. Thus,  
5 the principal aim of this study was to report on short-term results on the effectiveness of  
6 three different restoration techniques that were based on the transplantation of trees and  
7 shrubs and the use of hydroseeding for the herb layer. These three different conditions  
8 were no herb layer, a commercial seed mixture and hayseed. To identify the optimal  
9 approach we investigated the test areas at different levels: 1) ecological suitability  
10 (compared with natural conditions); 2) short-term monitoring of tree/shrub mortality  
11 and biomass productivity; 3) comparative economic advantages (cost-benefit analysis).

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### *Study area and experimental site*

15 The experimental site was located on the “Botticino extractive basin” (Brescia,  
16 Lombardy, Italy), which is the second biggest Italian extractive basin after the Carrara  
17 quarries and it is famous worldwide for the extraction of the limestone, commercially  
18 known as “Botticino marble”. The vegetation in the hills around the extractive basin is  
19 dominated by *Quercus pubescens* and *Ostrya carpinifolia* woodlands and by  
20 natural/semi-natural arid grassland with high biodiversity (*Festuco–Brometalia*  
21 community; Gilardelli *et al.*, 2013).

22 We selected an area of about 600 m<sup>2</sup> (ATE 13; Municipality of Nuvolento;  
23 coordinates: N 1606633, E 5044874; altitude: 394 m a.s.l.; aspect: 225°), that was

1 previously remodeled (June 2011) so that the final abandonment profile was made by  
2 three terraces of about 200 m<sup>2</sup> almost horizontal (slope between 2-5°) and connected by  
3 two small areas with slope of 45° and 32°, respectively (Figure 1). An homogeneous  
4 topsoil with an average thickness of 50 cm was created by use of waste material  
5 deriving from quarry activities (i.e. a mixture of soil removed during the quarry opening  
6 and limestone debris deriving from extraction) of a working quarry close to the  
7 experimental site (quarry “Marmi Spinetti S.r.l.”; ATE 13), according to the Provincial  
8 Quarry Plan. Thus, topographic and environmental conditions of the three adjacent  
9 terraces were the same.

11 We characterised the soil according to the parameters of the Italian legislation  
12 (regional law “D.G.R. 21.12.2000, n. VI/120”; Supplementary Material S1). During the  
13 site preparation (October 3<sup>rd</sup> 2011), we removed superficial stones >50 cm in diameter.  
14 Topsoil displayed a “clayey” texture and had a skeleton of heterogeneous limestone  
15 fragments. The soil received no further treatments to ameliorate its characteristics. Thus,  
16 we reduced both, the risk of contamination of groundwater resources in the karst area  
17 and the cost of the restoration actions. Shrubs and trees and the sowing of the herb layer  
18 was carried out October 4<sup>th</sup> 2011.

### 19 *Experimental design*

20 We tested three different approaches on three terraces:

- 21 1. *No herb layer*. This approach comprised the manual planting of young  
22 individuals (1-2 years) of shrub and tree species randomly distributed over the  
23 same surface (about 180 m<sup>2</sup>) on the three terraces; we did not sow any herb layer

1 and we evaluated only spontaneous vegetation recovery. We had previously  
2 determined the species composition and the optimal density of trees and shrubs  
3 based on a semi-quantitative procedure (see Supplementary material S2). Such  
4 procedure took the limiting environmental site characteristics and the type and  
5 density of woodlands growing on the areas surrounding quarries into account.

6 The species composition and number of woody plants that were manually  
7 transplanted in each of the three terraces are reported in Table 1.

8 2. *A commercial seed mixture*. The approach comprised the hydroseeding of a  
9 commercial seed mixture followed by the manual planting of shrubs and trees as  
10 in no herb site. To reproduce a widely used restoration technique, we used a  
11 commercial seed mixture made by *Poaceae* (*Festuca rubra*, *Lolium perenne*, *Poa*  
12 *pratensis*, etc.) and *Fabaceae* (*Lotus corniculatus* and *Trifolium hybridum*) that is  
13 suited to a wide range of environmental conditions (see Supplementary material  
14 S3, for the complete species list). We added 40 g/m<sup>2</sup> of the seed mixture to the  
15 mixture for “potentiated hydroseeding”, which is usually used in adverse site  
16 conditions (Full Service, 2008; see Supplementary Material S4).

17 3. *Hayseed*. This comprised the hydroseeding of hayseed (Poschlod &  
18 WallisDeVries, 2002) to establish a calcareous grassland followed by manual  
19 planting of shrubs and trees as in no herb site. We selected as a donor grassland  
20 an annually mowed semiarid grassland (belonging to *Festuco-Brometalia*; see  
21 Supplementary Material S5) located in a clearing of a woodland dominated by  
22 *Quercus pubescens* that was close to the experimental site (Municipality of Serle;  
23 coordinates: 1606045 – 5046163; altitude: 438 m a.s.l.; mean aspect: 147°; mean  
24 slope: 15°). We collected 8.2 kg of hayseed during May 2011 using a brush



1 harvester. Once dried, it was characterised from a floristic point of view (i.e. the  
2 list of species from seeds) and for seed density. Following the preparation of the  
3 experimental site, we spread the hayseed manually on terrace C at a density of  
4  $36.28 \text{ g/m}^2$  (i.e., approximately 50% of the optimal calculated sowing density;  
5 see Supplementary Material S5). Thus, we sowed the mixture using “potentiated  
6 hydroseeding” as in the commercial seed site.

### 7 *Post-plantation interventions*

8 We watered the soil on the day of transplantation. Subsequently, “help irrigations”  
9 took place in the following year based on rainfall distribution (see Supplementary  
10 Material S6 for rainfall dates). In order to favour plant establishment, the frequency of  
11 irrigations was high in the post-plantation phase (Gilman, 2002): October 10<sup>th</sup>, 13<sup>th</sup> and  
12 17<sup>th</sup> 2011. During prolonged periods without rainfall in dry periods (i.e. summer) further  
13 irrigations took place: June 28<sup>th</sup> 2012. Each treatment received the same amount of  
14 water over the course of the experiment:  $5 \text{ l m}^2$  on each terrace.

### 15 *Reference sites*

16 To test the suitability of the three tested restoration techniques, we selected two areas  
17 as reference sites: the donor grassland where the hayseed was collected and an  
18 abandoned area with an homogeneous topsoil (thickness of about 50 cm) very similar to  
19 those of the experimental site, and subjected to spontaneous revegetation from about 9  
20 years (natural revegetation site): mean slope  $10^\circ$ , aspect  $222.5^\circ$ , soil cover 27.5% and  
21 surface stoniness 32.5%.

### 22 *Data collection and analysis*

1 We collected data based on the protocol recommended by the regional administrative  
2 authority for monitoring the success of restoration interventions in natural areas  
3 (Regione Lombardia, 2011), with some modifications. Specifically, we surveyed 3  
4 vegetation plots of 3 x 3 m in each experimental site and reference area randomly  
5 distributed, but avoiding the edges of the terraces. To detect differences that were linked  
6 to environmental heterogeneity, we recorded or estimated abiotic factors in June 2012  
7 when vegetation productivity shows the highest levels, such as: a) elevation (m a.s.l.;  
8 recorded by GPS), b) aspect ( $^{\circ}$ ; recorded by clinometer), c) slope ( $^{\circ}$ ; recorded by  
9 clinometer), d) stoniness (%; visually estimated by the first author), e) rockiness (%;  
10 visually estimated by the first author) and f) maximum stone dimension (cm; measured  
11 by ruler). In addition, we collected biotic factors by estimating visually the following  
12 parameters (%): g) tree cover, h) shrub cover, i) herb cover and l) moss-layer cover. We  
13 also recorded species richness. We estimated plant species cover based on the Braun-  
14 Blanquet scale (Braun-Blanquet, 1928) as modified by Pignatti (1953). With the aim of  
15 estimating competition, we measured the mean plant height of the herbaceous and the  
16 low shrub layers using a ruler. Inside each plot, we also identified four subplots of 20 x  
17 20 cm randomly distributed. These subplots were used to assess the effectiveness of the  
18 different restoration techniques by collecting or estimating a) the number of individuals  
19 or stems (i.e., species diversity), b) cover (%), c) maximum height (as an indicator of  
20 competition), and d) the presence of flowers and fruits (as an indicator of self-  
21 propagation) for each species.

22 To estimate biomass production of the herbaceous layer, we sampled each terrace of  
23 the experimental site in July 2012 (3 plots of 1 x 1 m in each terrace). We cut plants at  
24 one cm above the ground and oven dried them for almost one week at 60°C. We then

1 weighed the biomass. We also counted the number of live or dead individuals (i.e.,  
2 mortality) of the planted trees and shrubs in each experimental site.

3 To explore the existence of significant differences in survival rates of woody plants  
4 between treatments we used contingency table and chi-square analysis. During analysis  
5 we retained high frequency species (*Quercus pubescens*, *Cotinus coggyria*, *Fraxinus*  
6 *ornus* and *Ostrya carpinifolia*) and grouped the other species with low frequency (less  
7 than 5%)

8 We investigated ecological gradients dependent on the different restoration  
9 approaches and plant species patterns in the 3 x 3-m plots with respect to biotic and  
10 abiotic factors using Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA), which was performed  
11 by the CANOCO software.

12 We calculated and estimated the cost and benefit of the three different restoration  
13 approaches of limestone quarries based on three types of indicators: a) economic:  
14 including costs for site preparation, herb layer characterization, hydroseeding, and  
15 irrigation; to calculate costs, we summed up all the expenses for materials used and for  
16 rental of equipment; we then calculated the mean cost per square metre; b) time:  
17 considering the time period for restoration actions, monitoring, to have a landscape  
18 benefit, to reach the complete site recovery; c) ecosystemic: considering biodiversity  
19 and types of species involved in the restoration.

20 All parameters listed in the cost benefit analysis are self-explanatory with the  
21 exception of the “naturalistic value” that refers to the origin of the plant material: high =  
22 autochthonous plant material; medium = autochthonous/allochthonous material; low =  
23 allochthonous material. The use of this last parameter is in accordance with Yokomizo *et*

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4 1 *al.* (2012) that highlighted cost benefit analysis for the introduction of non native  
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6 2 species.  
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10 RESULTS  
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12 4 *Ecological trends*  
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15 With respect to abiotic factors, we recorded differences between sites for slope, soil  
16 cover, maximum stone dimension and stoniness (Figure 2a). With regard to biotic  
17 factors (Figure 2b), we recorded the highest height of the herbaceous layer in the  
18 commercial seed site (100 cm), the second highest in the hayseed (93.3 cm) and the  
19 lowest height in the no herb site (16.3 cm). The greatest species richness (Figure 2c)  
20 was found in the donor grassland (28 species) followed by the natural revegetation site  
21 (20 species) and hayseed site (16 species). The lowest value was recorded in the  
22 commercial seed site (10 species). No herb site showed the lowest vegetation cover and  
23 the lowest herb layer cover (15% and 10%, respectively). With the exception of the  
24 natural revegetation site, all sites showed very high vegetation and herb cover of over  
25 80% (see Supplementary Material S7). We recorded the highest maximum stone  
26 dimension in the natural revegetation site (46 cm) whereas no stoniness was observed in  
27 the donor grassland and the experimental site showed similar values (23 cm in the  
28 hayseed site, 19.3 cm in the no herb site, 18.7 cm in the commercial seed site).  
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49 The CCA analysis plotted species distribution and experimental/references sites  
50 according to biotic factors of vegetation structure and abiotic factors (Figure 3; Table 2).  
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52 The CCA resulted in medium eigenvalues and high cumulative percent variances for the  
53 species data (73.8 for the first three axes). The four eigenvalues were canonical,  
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1 corresponding to axes that were constrained by the environmental variables. Among the  
2 abiotic factors maximum stone dimension was significant ( $\Lambda = 0.26$ ;  $F = 3.29$ ;  $p$   
3  $= 0.020$ ). Among biotic factors, the following ones were significant: herb layer  
4 ( $\Lambda = 0.49$ ;  $F = 0.17$ ;  $p = 0.001$ ), species richness ( $\Lambda = 0.38$ ;  $F = 3.40$ ;  $p =$   
5  $0.013$ ), and moss layer ( $\Lambda = 0.21$ ;  $F = 2.14$ ;  $p = 0.048$ ). As expected, plots  
6 surveyed in the same site (experimental or reference) grouped together or along the  
7 same trend. Hayseed site and donor grassland plotted towards an increase of species  
8 richness (16 and 20 species, respectively); main species reference were *Anthyllis*  
9 *vulneraria*, *Dactylis glomerata*, *Medicago lupulina*, *Sanguisorba minor* and *Trifolium*  
10 *pretense* (Figure 4). Commercial seed site plotted along a decrease of species richness  
11 (6 species; Figure 4); main reference species were *Festuca rubra* and *Lolium perenne*.  
12 *Lolium perenne* showed the highest cover in commercial seed site, reaching also 100%  
13 of the total (Figure 4). No herb site plotted toward a strong decrease of herb layer; main  
14 reference species were *Setaria viridis* and *Senecio inaequidens*, two ruderal invasive  
15 non-native species in Italy. Natural revegetation site plotted toward an increasing of  
16 maximum stone size and moss layer and toward a decreasing of herb layer; main  
17 reference species were *Arenaria serpyllifolia*, *Lotus corniculatus*, and ruderal and/or  
18 invasive non-native species such as: *Daucus carota*, *Picris hieracioides*, *Setaria viridis*  
19 and *Senecio inaequidens*. The detailed analysis of species mainly contributing to the  
20 percent cover and abundance on the subplots is shown in Figure 4.

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22 *Short term monitoring of the restoration approaches*

1 We recorded the highest number of dead trees and shrubs on commercial seed site  
2 (74.49% in mean) for all the planted species; in particular, *Corylus avellana*, *Quercus*  
3 *pubescens* and *Ostrya carpinifolia* showed mortality over 80% in commercial seed site  
4 (Figure 5). No herb site showed the lowest mortality, that was lower than 20% for most  
5 species (4.08% in mean). We recorded intermediate values of mortality on hayseed site  
6 (18.37% in mean). Contingency table analysis found that different restoration  
7 approaches have a significant influence on tree survival (Chi-square = 39.17 df = 8,  $p <$   
8 0.0001).

9 The biomass production was higher in commercial seed site (355.23 g; at about the  
10 same mean plant height of the herbaceous layer for commercial seed site and hayseed  
11 site: 100 cm and 93.33, respectively). We recorded lower values in hayseed site (190.19  
12 g) and no herb site (30.70 g).

### 13 *Cost-benefit analysis*

14 Hayseed site showed the highest cost (Table 3), while no herb site was the less  
15 expensive technique. Main differences among techniques were due to the collection and  
16 characterization of the hayseed, both regarding cost and time required. However, both  
17 hayseed and commercial seed sites showed an immediate green effect and an expected  
18 lower term for restoration. Qualitative ecosystem indicators such as number of species  
19 (biodiversity), and the number and cover of non-native species showed that hayseed site  
20 was the most advantageous in term of naturalistic value, similar to the natural or semi-  
21 natural surrounding areas.

## 22 23 DISCUSSION

1 An evaluation of success can only be conducted after several years because future  
2 vegetation dynamics are not always easy to predict due to, among other reasons, the  
3 varying influence of the surrounding vegetation over time and the possible deterioration  
4 of commercial species, that only become obvious many years after seeding (SER, 2004;  
5 Zhang *et al.*, 2006; Martínez-Ruiz *et al.*, 2007; Tischew & Kirmer, 2007; Prach &  
6 Hobbs, 2008). However, preliminary short-term considerations, when compared with  
7 reference sites, are very useful when monitoring the restoration and in the determination  
8 of whether post-transplantation treatments are required (Hobbs & Norton, 1996; Hobbs  
9 & Harris, 2001; Mendez & Maier, 2008).

10 With the exception of the semi-natural reference donor grassland, the abiotic  
11 conditions in each site were similar. In particular, the soil in each experimental area was  
12 homogeneous and only the abiotic factor “maximum stone dimension” was statistically  
13 significant between areas. However, this finding was incidental because it is very  
14 difficult to completely normalise this factor during site preparation. Consequently, and  
15 as hypothesised, biotic factors influenced by the three different techniques directly  
16 affected the species composition and thereby the vegetative structure, such as herb layer  
17 percent cover and the number of species. Thus, differences in vegetation features  
18 between the experimental sites primarily depended upon the restoration approach used.  
19 Vegetation parameters are very useful to characterise the state of the restoration: for  
20 example, vegetation structure provides information on the habitat characteristics,  
21 ecosystem productivity and vegetation succession, whereas species composition and  
22 diversity are indicators of the susceptibility to invasions and ecosystem resilience (Ruiz-  
23 Jaén & Aide, 2005).

1 Our experiment showed that, in general but in particular in the commercial seed site,  
2 the use of an artificial herbaceous layer that was too dense resulted in competition with  
3 the transplanted shrubs and trees and caused high mortality of the latter, especially the  
4 light-demanding species, such as *Quercus pubescens*. Our findings are consistent with  
5 those of Davis *et al.* (1998) and Gakis *et al.* (2004). The competition between  
6 herbaceous plants and tree seedlings for water and light especially in the early stages of  
7 their establishment, represents a limiting factor for tree survival and growth. It is likely  
8 that this trend is also due to micro-climatic site conditions where higher temperatures  
9 and humidity are noted in the dense herbaceous layers (Zhang & Chu, 2011; Mantilla-  
10 Contreras *et al.*, 2012). For this reason the simultaneous application of tree planting and  
11 high density seeding approaches seems few compatible. To overcome this issue  
12 different strategies could be adopted: a) tree and shrub planting could be carried out in  
13 different times than herbaceous layer, so that they are more developed when the herb  
14 layer is individuals sown; b) to transplant older and more resistant tree and shrub  
15 individuals at least 5 years old; c) no planting of trees and shrubs; and, d) the sowing  
16 density of the herbaceous layer could be modified, i.e. significantly reduced.

17 In particular, both no planting of trees and shrubs, or applications of significantly less  
18 seeds when trees or shrubs are planted (point c and d), might provide significant savings  
19 from an economical point of view, yet still satisfactory results from an ecological point  
20 of view. In any case, simultaneous application of tree planting and high density seeding  
21 approaches should be optimised and better modelled. Based on previous technical  
22 studies (Bernini *et al.*, 2003), 20-30 g/m<sup>2</sup> is an optimal sowing density for hydroseeding  
23 to ensure a rapid establishment of vegetation, to control erosion, to rebuild soil, to  
24 maintain biodiversity and ecosystem functions, to provide wildlife habitats and to



1 improve the aesthetic appeal of the quarry (Burton *et al.*, 2006). This sowing density  
2 was lower than we used for the commercial seed site but higher than the hayseed site,  
3 which comprises vegetative parts other than seeds in the last.

4 Nevertheless, we found that species density and, indirectly, the “immediate green  
5 effect” and the minimisation of short-term erosion, should not be considered as an  
6 indicator of the success of the restoration, by itself. The creation of an overly  
7 monotonous, dense and compact herb layer dominated by a few competitive grasses, as  
8 in the case of commercial seed site, could divert or arrest the succession over the long-  
9 term because of the unsuitable specific composition (Prach, 2003). Indeed, artificially  
10 introduced species could compete with the valuable autochthonous colonising species  
11 from the quarry surroundings, thereby resulting in very low levels of biodiversity in the  
12 long-term and impeding the recovery of a valuable target ecosystem (Bernini *et al.*,  
13 2003; Hodačová & Prach, 2003; Moreno-de las Heras *et al.*, 2008; Ballesteros *et al.*,  
14 2012). Moreover, commercial seed site was dominated by artificially selected genotypes  
15 of foreign origin that could be a potential threat, i.e., genetic pollution, for the local  
16 flora. In contrast, no herb and natural revegetation sites showed high frequencies of  
17 ruderal and invasive non-native species.

18 The height and the cover of the herbaceous layers were very similar between the  
19 hayseed and commercial seed sites and were higher when compared with no herb and  
20 natural revegetation sites, as also demonstrated by the high, fast biomass production  
21 with values dependent on the sowing density. The rapid establishment of a continuous  
22 herb layer in the hayseed site may depend upon the sowing technique, i.e., the  
23 “potentiated hydroseeding”. Indeed, the mulch insulates heat, absorbs and retains  
24 water, reduces soil evaporation and plant transpiration and represents a “buffer layer” on

1 the beating action of the meteoric water (Cook *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, it favours the  
2 infiltration of water drops in the soil, reduces the superficial water runoff, protects soil  
3 and the seedbed from wind and water erosion, thereby creating an ideal microclimate  
4 for seed germination (Kirmer & Mahn, 2001; Muzzi & Rossi, 2003). Data from the  
5 literature indicate that in addition to sowing technique, the time of sowing and post-  
6 plantation irrigation could be critical for successful restoration (Glenn *et al.*, 2001;  
7 Brofas & Karetos, 2002). We selected to transplant in autumn, which is typically  
8 recommended in areas where summers are characterised by soil-water deficiency and  
9 precipitation is low and erratic. Indeed, high precipitation at the beginning of spring and  
10 autumn, supported by artificial irrigation for at least 3-6 months after the restoration  
11 could be fundamental for plant establishment and for maintaining suitable temperature  
12 above ground (Muzzi & Rossi, 2003; Mendez & Maier, 2008).

13 Cost-benefit analyses showed that despite the fact that the hayseed site involved the  
14 most expensive approach with respect to cost and time, it resulted in a higher species  
15 richness, vegetative structure and green effect. Thus, the expected time to recovery of a  
16 valuable ecosystem was lower than the other techniques. With respect to ecosystem  
17 indicators, native species typically evolve survival mechanisms suited to local  
18 conditions, are resistant or resilient to fluctuations and/or sudden changes in  
19 environmental conditions, thus a plurispecific autochthonous mixture harvested on  
20 quarry natural surroundings, e.g., the hayseed, is recommended to facilitate the  
21 colonisation by a self-sustaining valuable plant community, provide a more diversified  
22 soil layer, maintain local species diversity and minimise human efforts over the  
23 medium-long term (Chosa & Shetron, 1976; Khater *et al.*, 2003; Mendez & Maier,  
24 2008). Previous authors have emphasised that native species richness is positively

1 correlated with both soil microbial and invertebrate communities (Wheater & Cullen,  
2 1997; Zhang & Chu, 2011). Moreover, the deliberate introduction of native plant  
3 species could overcome the lack of suitable local plants capable of colonising the quarry  
4 site and could supply food for wildlife thereby avoiding the massive colonisation of  
5 ruderal or non-native species (Chosa & Shetron, 1976). In contrast, in the case of  
6 Botticino quarries, spontaneous succession such as no herb and natural revegetation  
7 sites, should be avoided for the establishment of the herbaceous layer. At approximately  
8 a decade after abandonment, the natural revegetation reference site showed a very  
9 scattered vegetative cover (Angiolini *et al.*, 2005) and a high frequency of ruderal/non-  
10 native species such as *Senecio inaequidens* and *Setaria viridis*. Thus, the use of  
11 autochthonous hayseed resulted in the most favourable restoration of the limestone  
12 quarry of the Botticino extractive basin.

### CONCLUSION

14 The use of a commercial seed mixture created a monotonous and compact herb layer  
15 that competed with the shrub and tree layers; in contrast, the mere planting of shrub and  
16 tree species was the most economical technique but discouraged biodiversity. Although  
17 the use of hayseed resulted in the highest cost in both economic price and time, it  
18 ensured the highest biodiversity, vegetative structure and green effect.

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4 support on hayseeding.

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## 1 TABLES

2 **Table 1.** Species and number of plants planted in each terrace

No. of plants	Species
35	<i>Quercus pubescens</i>
15	<i>Cotinus coggygria, Fraxinus ornus, Ostrya carpinifolia</i>
5	<i>Sorbus torminalis</i>
3	<i>Corylus avellana, Prunus mahaleb</i>
1	<i>Acer campestre, Celtis australis, Cornus sanguinea, Crataegus monogyna, Cytisus scoparius, Rosa canina, Ulmus minor</i>

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1 **Table 2. (a)** Eigenvalues of the CCA and **(b)** Significance of the environmental  
 2 variables

3 **(a)**

Axes	1	2	3	4	Total inertia
Eigenvalues	0.626	0.461	0.363	0.126	1.966
Species-environment correlations	0.996	0.984	0.997	0.968	
Cumulative % variance of species data	31.9	55.3	73.8	80.2	
Cumulative % variance of species- environment relation	33.4	58.0	77.3	84.1	
Sum of all eigenvalues					1.966
Sum of all canonical eigenvalues					1.876

4 **(b)**

Variable	Marginal Effects		Conditional Effects	
	Lambda1	LambdaA	P	F
Herb layer_cover	0.49	0.49	0.001	3.69
Species richness	0.39	0.38	0.013	3.40
Maximum stone dimension	0.13	0.26	0.02	3.29
Moss layer cover	0.33	0.21	0.048	2.14
Stoniness	0.45	0.06	0.474	0.97
Soil cover	0.42	0.09	0.277	1.25
Slope	0.31	0.12	0.116	1.68
Mortality	0.25	0.08	0.454	1.27
Aspect	0.22	0.07	1.000	0.00
Shrub layer	0.21	0.07	0.473	0.99
Rockiness	0.15	0.06	0.523	0.84
Diameter at the base of the stem	0.10	0.08	0.334	1.16

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**Table 3.** Cost-benefit analysis of the tested approaches; economic costs are expressed as net price/m<sup>2</sup> and are based on our practices; \*calculated on 100 m<sup>2</sup>

Economic indicator	Cost - benefit	Commercial		
		Hayseed	1 seed	No herb
Direct cost	Mechanical ground preparation	€ 1.67	€ 1.67	€ 1.67
	Tree and shrubs plantation			
	Cost of plant material	€ 0.59	€ 0.59	€ 0.59
	Plantation	€ 0.50	€ 0.50	€ 0.50
	Herb layer			
	Collection and characterization of the hayseed	€ 2.50	-	-
	Cost of commercial seed mixture	-	€ 0.20	-
	Hydroseeding	€ 1.20	€ 1.20	-
	Irrigation for the first year	€ 1.77	€ 1.77	€ 1.77
	Total cost	€ 8.22	€ 5.92	€ 4.52
Time	Monitoring	almost 5 years	almost 5 years	almost 5 years
	Time required for restoration actions	~ 30-45 days	~ 5-10 days	~ 5 days
	"Green effect" on landscape	immediate	immediate	medium/long term
	Expected time for recovery	short/medium	medium	Long
Ecosystemic	Naturalistic value	High	Low	Medium
	No. of herbaceous species*	6	4	5
	No. of herbaceous non-native species or commercial varieties*	2	3	2
	Invasion rate by non-native species	Low	Very low	High

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4 **1 FIGURES**  
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9 **3 Figure 1.** Study area and experimental site (data from: Geoportale della Regione  
10 Lombardia, <http://www.cartografia.regione.lombardia.it/geoportale/> and  
11 Geoportale della Provincia di Brescia, <http://sit.provincia.brescia.it/PTCP>).  
12 Experimental site is located in the “Ambito Territoriale Estrattivo” ATE 13  
13 (indicated with o13) that is an area where the extractive activity is allowed. In the  
14 right boxes the geographical location (upper box) and the geometry of  
15 experimental terraces (lower) are shown.  
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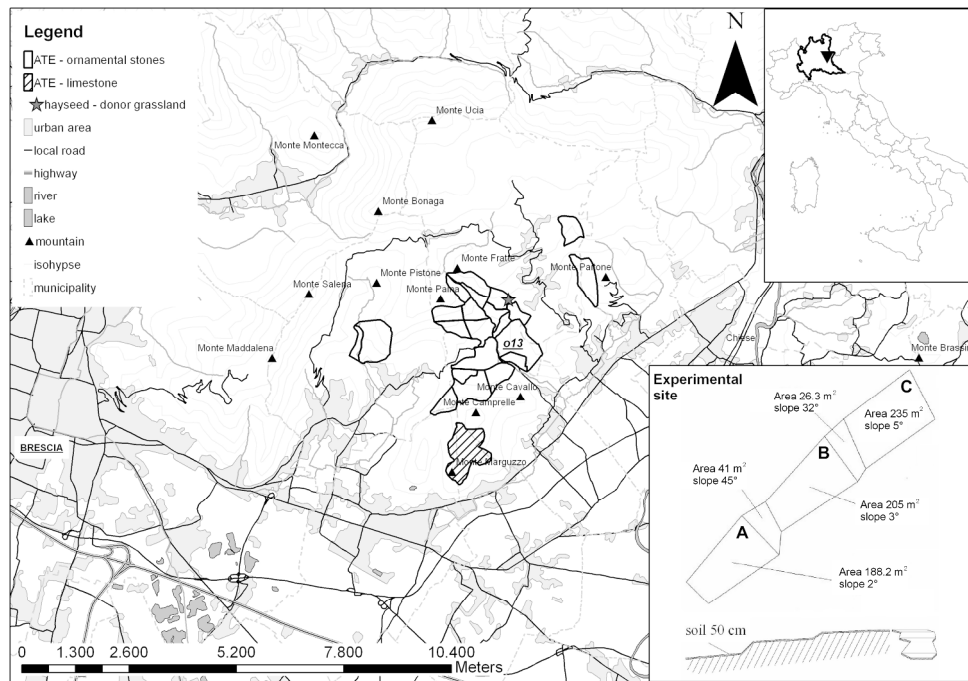
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22 **11 Figure 2. a)** Relative percent cover (mean) of the abiotic and biotic factors  
23 recorded within plots; **b)** mean species richness (No) and **c)** mean height of the  
24 herbaceous layer (cm)  
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29 **15 Figure 3.** CCA according to biotic and abiotic factors.  
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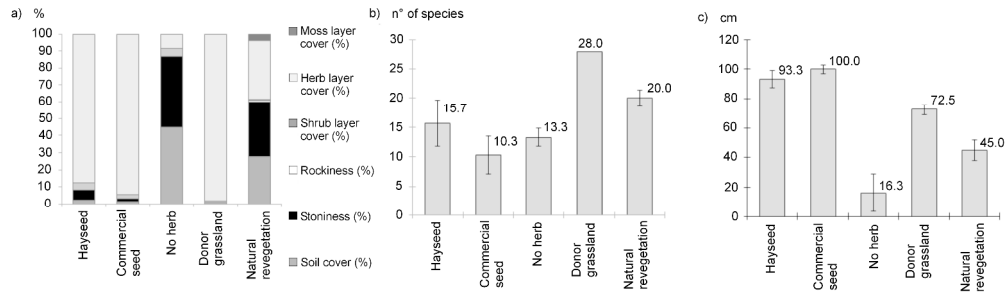
34 **17 Figure 4.** Means of plants species cover (%) on the subplot (20x20 cm). Error bar  
35 represents standard deviation.  
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40 **20 Figure 5. a)** Survival of tree and shrub species (%) on the experimental site  
41 recorded on the whole terraces. Contingency table statistics (Chi-square) revealed  
42 significant differences among the three restoration approaches ( $p < 0.0001$ ).  
43 Legend: black: hayseed site; gray: no herb site; pale gray: commercial seed site;  
44 **b)** amount of standing biomass during the most productive season (g) and mean  
45 plant height of the herbaceous layer (cm) recorded on plots of 1 x 1 m  
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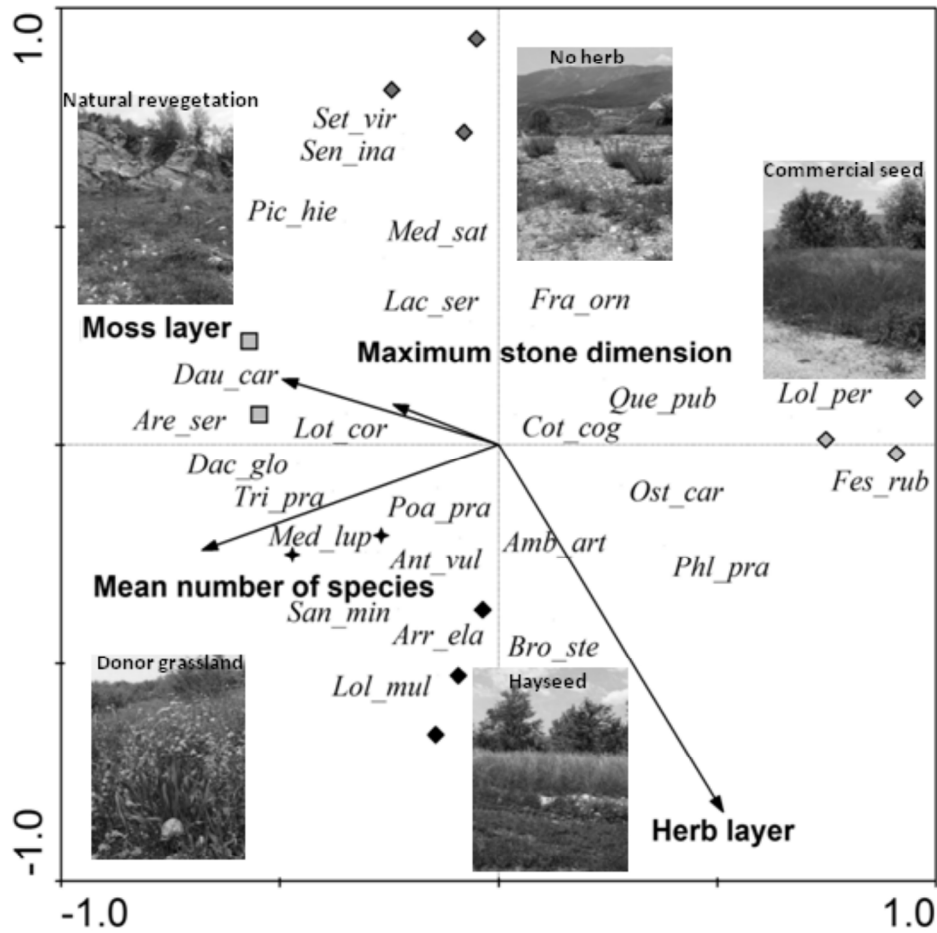
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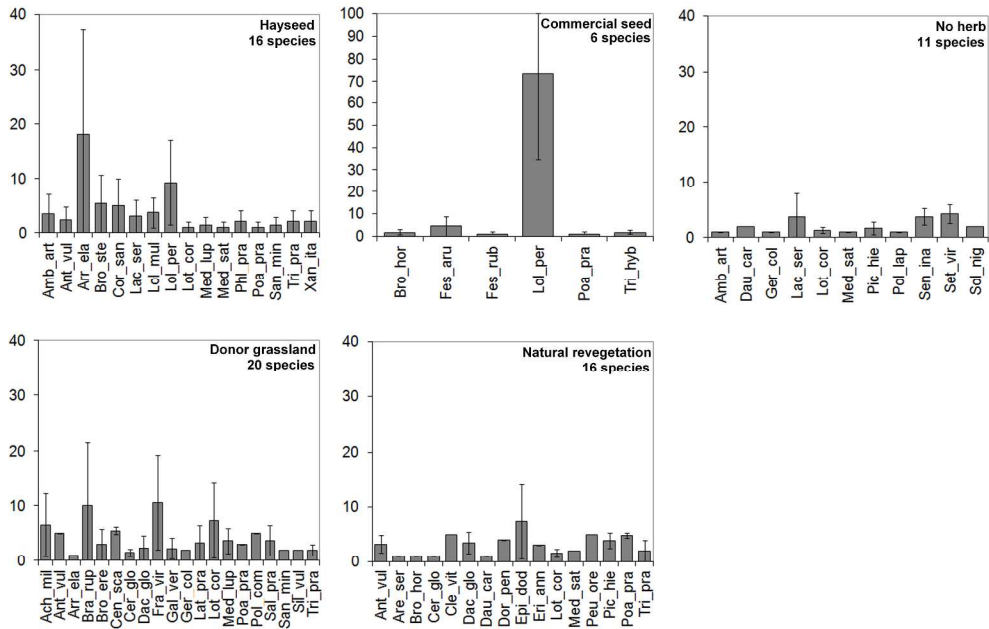


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