

The functional composition of dune nematode communities is structured by both biogeographic region and the local marram grass environment

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- 1 The functional composition of dune nematode communities is
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- 4
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20 Abstract

Nematodes are involved in many important ecosystem functions such as nutrient cycling and plant growth. Nematode communities are thought to be structured at regional scales mainly by abiotic soil characteristics and climatic drivers and at local scales by habitat heterogeneity and biotic interactions. Blond dunes are dominated by marram grass (*Calamagrostis arenaria*), the key duneforming plant species in Western Europe. Consequently, nematode food webs are mainly associated with marram grass in these coastal areas.

We investigated the relative importance of regional biogeographic factors and local biotic drivers, such as the vegetation's spatial structure and the occurrence of an invasive plant species, in determining the functional diversity of belowground nematode communities inhabiting the roots of marram grass and surrounding soil in coastal dune areas.

We found that nematode functional group abundances mainly differed among biogeographic regions, but that abundances could not be linked to plant-associated parameters, such as plant vitality or abundance. Additionally, the abundances of different functional groups seemed to be positively associated within both rhizosphere and bulk soil, an effect that could be the result of ecological filtering or facilitative interactions.

Nematode pressure has been assumed to be an important driver of marram grass degeneration under ceasing sand dynamics. We here show that variation in nematode functional group composition is only weakly related to these local changes in plant vigour, but that large-scale patterns in nematode communities may explain regional variation in marram dynamics in coastal dunes.

41

42 Key words: soil biota, coastal dunes, feeding guilds, co-occurrence, JSDM

43 Introduction

Nematodes are the most abundant animals on the planet, occurring in all ecosystems [1]. Nematode numbers and functional group composition are affected by abiotic factors at different spatial scales. At global scales, total nematode and functional group abundances of soil nematodes were shown to be mainly affected by regional soil characteristics such as soil organic carbon content or soil acidity [2–4]. Climatic drivers, such as precipitation and mean annual temperature, also affect nematode abundances, albeit not as importantly as soil characteristics [2–4].

50 Because nematodes are poor dispersers [1], the current view is that environmental heterogeneity at 51 smaller scales is a more important driver of soil nematode community structure. Nevertheless, 52 passive dispersal seems to enable nematodes to disperse over longer distances [5,6]. Soil disturbance 53 and environmental heterogeneity are examples of small-scale phenomena commonly linked to 54 nematode abundances [3,7,8]. Disturbed soils mainly host opportunistic bacterivorous nematodes, 55 and are poor in predatory and omnivorous species [7,9,10]. An increase in potential niches due to 56 environmental heterogeneity also increases nematode species diversity [8,11,12].

57 The abundance and functional diversity of soil biota is not only driven by abiotic factors. Biotic 58 interactions among nematodes and between nematodes and other taxa, especially host plants, can 59 furthermore influence nematode abundances. The characteristics of the vegetation (plants species 60 composition) will affect the nature and amount of resources available to the food web via root 61 exudates, root turnover, leaf litter return, and water use [7,13]. Moreover, plants can defend themselves against herbivory either directly, e.g., via production of chemical compounds [14], or 62 63 indirectly, e.g., by attracting natural predators of their pests [15,16]. Apart from host plants, invasive 64 plant species can also drastically alter nematode abundances [17,18], for instance, via altering the 65 native plant community [18] or by acidification of the soil [19].

66 One host plant species from which the soil nematode community is already well described is marram 67 grass (*Calamagrostis arenaria* (L.) Roth, formerly *Ammophila arenaria*). This plant received much 68 attention due to its key role in the process of dune formation in Western Europe [20], which is driven 69 by the interaction between vegetation development and aeolian dynamics, the movement of sand by wind. Marram grass not only tolerates high levels of sand burial, it even needs sand burial to survive 70 and it thrives best at intermediate burial rates of about 30 cm of sand per growing season [21]. If 71 72 sand dynamics cease, marram grass slowly decays and is outcompeted by later successional plant 73 species [22]. This phenomenon was already observed more than fifty years ago and coined 'the 74 Ammophila problem' [23]. Marram grass is able to overcome this problem by capturing sand, which 75 in turn positively affects its growth and sand accumulation capacity, causing a positive feedback loop. 76 The reduction in marram grass performance is thought to be caused by the biological component of 77 the soil, in particular the root-feeding nematodes [22,24–27; see 27 for a review].

78 At the regional scale, dune soil characteristics depend strongly on the biogeographic history of the 79 area, which is tightly linked with large-scale differences in soil pH, nutrient concentrations and 80 climate variables [28-30]. Variation in soil characteristics in dune areas within Western Europe is 81 mainly linked with acidity and nutrient concentrations. For example, the Belgian coast consists of 82 lime-rich sand [28], while others are completely decalcified and thus more acidic, such as the 83 Northern part of the Dutch coast [29]. More acidic soils are known to harbour lower nematode 84 numbers [31]. At a local scale, the constant sand burial can be seen as a form of (natural) soil 85 disturbance. If marram grass occurs in a patchy distribution, its sand-trapping efficiency is optimal 86 [27,32,33], and therefore the associated nematode abundances (especially those of predatory and 87 omnivorous nematodes) are expected to be lower.

While marram grass is the dominant plant species in many European coastal dunes, the invasive herb *Senecio inaequidens* D.C. is expanding its range into European coastal dunes [34]. Plants of the *Senecio* family are well-known for their production of pyrrolizidine alkaloids as defence mechanism against herbivory [14,35], with *S. jacobaea* even shown to protect surrounding plants via associational resistance [36]. What the long-term effects of the colonization of coastal dunes by *S.*

93 *inaequidens* will be is largely unknown [34]. However, giving its potent chemical defenses, effects of
94 *S. inaequidens* invasion on dune soil food webs are plausible.

As marram grass seems to mainly rely on a combination of sand overtopping and associations with microorganisms to escape root-feeding nematodes [26,37], small-scale biotic interactions are omnipresent in marram dunes. Interspecific competition among nematodes has been shown to alleviate average declines in marram grass fitness under lab conditions [38]. However, addition of the same species did not influence plant performance in a more natural environment [25]. Facilitating interactions between nematodes received far less attention; nevertheless it has been established in some lab experiments [39–42].

102 We investigated the relative importance of regional biogeographic factors, associated with soil 103 characteristics and climate, and two local biotic drivers: marram grass spatial structure and Senecio 104 inaequidens occurrence, in determining the functional structure of belowground nematode 105 communities inhabiting the roots of marram grass and the surrounding soil in coastal dune areas in 106 Western Europe. We hypothesised that (1) at regional scales, nematode functional abundance is 107 lower in the regions with more acidic coastal dunes. (2) An increasing cover of marram grass 108 positively influences abundances of nematodes found in the roots, while (3) nematode abundances 109 would increase with clustering of the host plant as a consequence of the less efficient sand-capture 110 of these configurations. (4) The fungivorous and bacterivorous nematodes are expected to be more 111 abundant in soil from underneath less vital marram grass tussocks due to the presence of 112 decomposing organic matter and fungus growth, while plant-feeding nematodes are expected to 113 increase in abundance with marram grass vitality. (5) Since Senecio species are known to produce 114 chemical compounds, we expect a decline in all, but especially root-feeding, nematode functional 115 group abundances when *S. inaequidens* is present in the vicinity.

116 Material & Methods

117 Study area

Our study was conducted in the North of France, Belgium, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. Respectively, 124, 39, 19, 30 samples were taken along 19 different transects parallel to the coast line in these countries. The transects were located within the first 100 m from the seaward side of marram-dominated, yellow dunes (Natura 2000 habitat 2120, CORINE biotope 16.21). The number of samples per transect depended on the length of the dune transect, with an average of 11 samples per transect (min 4; max 31). Individual sampling locations were separated by at least 20 m.

We subdivided our study area into five distinct biogeographical districts (Fig. 1), which differ all in climate and soil characteristics because of their geological history [30]. In general, these differences are inherently correlated with a gradient from South to North, with lime richness and mean annual temperature declining from the Boulonnais to the Flemish, Renodunal and Wadden district [28–30]. The temperature in the UK region is similar to regions situated on the same latitude, but the sandy sediments have a higher acidity compared to the French and Belgian dunes, and in general a more species-poor biodiversity compared to continental dunes.

131

132 Data collection

Each sampling location had a central marram grass tussock from which soil and root samples were 133 134 taken at the minimum depth at which live marram grass roots were found during the summer of 135 2018 or 2019. Samples were stored in the field in a box containing cooling elements to slow down 136 nematode metabolism, consequently lowering mortality. In the lab, samples were stored in the 137 fridge until processing for the same reason. Nematodes were extracted from roots and sand 138 separately, using 2 +/- 0.5 and 20 +/- 1 g fresh material respectively, via the Baermann Funnel 139 extraction method [43]. This method ensures that only the active fraction of the nematode soil community is quantified. Roots and soil were sieved (2.0 mm mesh) and roots were gently washed 140 141 before the extractions. 15 mL water was collected every 24 h for three consecutive days. Finding 142 fresh roots was difficult for some sampling locations, resulting in a relatively large difference in the 143 amount of roots used for the extraction. To account for this discrepancy, the number of nematodes 144 per gram dry sand/roots was determined by drying separate portions of substrates in an oven at 70°C 145 for 24h to obtain relative moisture contents, which were consecutively used to calculate dry weights 146 of the portion of the samples used for the extraction. The whole roots were cut up and mixed prior 147 to separating the portions for the extraction and the water content determination. Nematodes were 148 fixed and stored in 5% hot formalin (60-70°C). The vials were sealed with parafilm until they were 149 counted. While counting, nematodes were classified into functional groups, using an inverse 150 microscope (10x40 or 10x100 magnitude), based on characteristics of their mouth apparatus, pharynx, and cuticle. These functional groups differ in their feeding habits: plant feeders, bacterial 151 152 feeders, fungal feeders, omnivores and carnivores [44]. A sixth "Unknown" class was used for 153 nematodes too damaged to classify. When nematodes were very abundant, classification was done 154 until 200 nematodes were counted and numbers were then extrapolated based on the area of the 155 counting dish.

The following variables were used as explanatory variables in the analysis: The proportion of marram grass and its spatial configuration, the vitality of the tussock, the biogeographical district (as described above), and the presence-absence of *Senecio inaequidens*.

159 Within a 10 m radius around each central marram grass tussock, marram grass cover (P, expressed as 160 proportion) and spatial auto-correlation (Moran's I; Moran 1950, Bivand and Wong 2018) were 161 calculated from vegetation maps of the coastal dune areas [27]. Moran's I is negative when the 162 marram grass is regularly distributed in the landscape. If marram grass is randomly distributed, the 163 parameter is close to 0, and it is positive when the marram grass occurs in clusters. As pointed out by 164 Bonte et al. (2021), marram grass distribution is almost always clustered and rarely random. The 165 sample locations were chosen so that they maximised the variety of surrounding marram grass 166 configurations within one dune transect.

Furthermore, small-scale environmental heterogeneity is mainly linked with marram grass vitality in our study: vital tussocks provide mainly fresh plant material while less vital tussocks provide a mixture of both alive and dead plant material. To include this parameter in our analysis, each marram grass tussock was given a vitality score (integer value ranging from 0 to 4) based on the estimated % of green leaves visible in the tussock on a photograph. Finally, occurrence (presence/absence) of *Senecio inaequidens* was mapped within a 5 m radius around the central marram grass tussock.



174

Figure 1: Geographic scope of the study. Transects are indicated and coloured per biogeographical district. The left inset shows an example of the sampling unit locations (orange dots) within the indicated transect (Holkham, UK; satellite image:
© 2023 Google). Figure made with QGIS v3.2.3-Bonn [47].

178

179 Statistics

180 The nematode data were analysed using the HMSC framework, according to the methods described 181 by Ovaskainen & Abrego (2020). For this multivariate analysis, the functional group data (abundance 182 per g of dry root or soil) for both the soil and root sample for each marram grass tussock were (log + 183 1)-transformed. The proportion of marram grass and its spatial configuration, the vitality of the 184 tussock, the biogeographical district and the presence-absence of S. inaequidens were used as 185 explanatory variables. To test for a quadratic effect of the proportion of marram grass (P) and the 186 vitality (V) of tussocks, four JSDMs were fitted with either P and/or V as a quadratic term or not. 187 Among those, the 'best' model was selected using the Widely-Applicable Information Criterion 188 (WAIC; Watanabe 2010, Ovaskainen and Abrego 2020). The random effect structure was 189 implemented to account for the spatial context of our study. A large, regional-scale random effect 190 was modelled on the transect level to correct for possible dependency of data within transects. A 191 local-scale random effect was modelled on the marram grass tussock level. This enables us to infer 192 residual associations between feeding guilds after accounting for the effects of the explanatory 193 variables [48]. Partitioning of the explained variance between all fixed and random effects was used 194 to discern the importance of the different parameters for functional group abundances. The F-195 statistic of the fixed effects was manually calculated in order to account for the varying degrees of 196 freedom when comparing relative importance of the effects. For all models described above, the 197 posterior distribution was sampled with three Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chains. HMSC 198 specifically uses blocked Gibbs sampling [50]. Each chain ran 150 000 iterations, with a burn-in period 199 of 50 000 samples and thinning factor of 100. Each chain ran for 1000 posterior samples per chain for 200 a total of 3000 posterior samples.

R Statistical Software version 4.0.4 [51] was used for all data analyses. Moran's I of marram grass
surrounding the central tussock was calculated using the "moran.test" function from the "spdep"
package [46]. The HMSC was performed using the R package "Hmsc" [52]. Trace plots,
autocorrelation plots and posterior densities were made and calculated using the 'mcmcplots'
package [53].

206 The code is available on GitHub [<u>https://github.com/Ruben-VDW/Marram_nematodes</u>].

207 Results

Total nematode counts varied from 29 to 6800 individuals per gram of dry roots or 0.1 to 92 individuals per gram of dry bulk soil, with means (median) of 1236 (890) and 6 (4.4) respectively. Bacterivorous and plant-feeding nematodes reached, on average, the highest abundances in both the root and soil samples compared to omnivores and predators, while fungal feeders reached densities close to bacterial feeders in the root samples only (see Fig. 2a and 2b). Total nematode abundances were lowest in the Renodunal district, followed by the UK, for both the root and soil portions of the samples (see Fig. 2c and 2d).



215

Figure 2: The log-transformed [In(abundance +1)] number of nematodes found per functional group in (a) the roots and (b)
the soil. Error bars represent standard errors. Functional groups are indicated as follows: Bact: bacterivore nematodes,
Fung: fungivore nematodes, Omn: omnivore nematodes, Plant: root-feeding nematodes, Pred: predatory nematodes; the
last letter of the code indicates the substrate used for the extraction (R = roots, S = soil). The total number of nematodes
found in (c) the roots and (d) the soil per biogeographical district. For c & d, barplots are based on 74 samples for the

221 Boulonnais, 89 samples for the Flemish dunes, 10 for the Renodunal district, 30 for the UK and 9 for the Wadden district.



224 Convergence of the HMSC models was good for all four models. Trace plots of the iterations showed 225 an irregular pattern with similar running means for all chains. Furthermore, the potential scale 226 reduction factors were all below the 1.1 threshold for all models. Based on WAIC, no clear best 227 model could be discriminated, thus the least complex model was chosen for further analysis (also 228 lowest WAIC, see table 1).

Table 1: Summary measures of model fit and model selection. For R2 and RMSE the mean is given over all species with the
 interquartile range between parenthesis. CV stands for cross-validation.

Model	Structure	R	R (CV)	RMSE	RMSE (CV)	WAIC
1	P + Vit	0.545 (0.244)	0.109 (0.131)	0.494 (0.307)	0.711 (0.590)	25.87953
2	P ² + Vit	0.548 (0.251)	0.090 (0.164)	0.492 (0.610)	0.769 (0.788)	25.99523
3	P + Vit ²	0.550 (0.249)	0.081 (0.139)	0.490 (0.611)	0.771 (0.745)	25.96141
4	$P^2 + Vit^2$	0.528 (0.343)	0.075 (0.091)	0.465 (0.544)	0.777 (0.717)	27.21449

231

232 Responses to environmental variables

233 When describing the relationship between the environmental variables and the different functional 234 groups, we focussed only on effects with at least 95% posterior probability (Fig. 3). The proportion of 235 marram grass in the near vicinity was only positively correlated with the abundance of plant-feeding 236 nematodes found in the roots, while it was negatively correlated with the abundance of omnivores 237 found in the bulk soil. The spatial configuration of marram grass only affected the abundance of 238 fungivorous nematodes found in the rhizosphere. Fewer predatory and fungivorous nematodes were 239 found in the bulk soil of more vital marram grass tussocks. The biogeographical regions clearly 240 affected the root and soil nematode functional abundances, with generally more nematodes found in 241 the Boulonnais and the Wadden district, and fewer nematodes in the Renodunal district and in the 242 UK. Finally, the presence of *Senecio* positively influenced all nematode abundances found in the bulk 243 soil, except fungivore nematode abundance.



245

246 *Figure 3:* The responses (β 's) of the species to the environmental variables. Responses that are positive with at least 95% posterior probability are shown in purple and responses that are negative with at least 95% posterior probability are shown in yellow. Functional groups are indicated on the y-axis, codes as in Fig. 2.

Variance partitioning over the fixed effects showed that the explained variation (median) can be 249 attributed for 18.9% ($F_{4,192}$ = 13.8) to large-scale and for 15.6% ($F_{4,192}$ = 11.4) to small-scale 250 251 environmental variables. Among the environmental variables, the explained variation was distributed 252 as follows: the different biogeographical districts explained 18.5 % ($F_{4,192}$ = 13.5), the presence of S. 253 inaequidens 4.3 % ($F_{1,192}$ = 12.5), the proportional cover of marram grass 2.3 % ($F_{1,192}$ = 6.73), marram grass spatial configuration 1.6 ($F_{1,192}$ = 4.68) % and marram grass vitality 1.1 % ($F_{1,192}$ = 3.22) (Fig. 4). 254 255 Finally, the random effect on transect unit scale covered 7.1%, while the residual variance on sample 256 level scale was 59.1%. Most variation is thus associated with single samples, demonstrating that 257 either other unmeasured effects or stochasticity are driving most of the variation in the local 258 nematode functional group composition. From the residual association matrix (Fig. 5), it is very clear 259 that different nematode functional groups extracted from the roots are highly positively associated 260 with each other, and that the same holds true for nematodes extracted from soil. Several weaker

261 positive associations were found among nematode functional groups from bulk and rhizosphere soil.



Figure 4: Variance partitioning of the explained variation among the random and fixed effects in the HMSC model. The two
 random effects are based on the residual variation. Functional groups are indicated on the x-axis, codes as in Fig. 2.

265



Figure 5: Residual species association matrix that shows species pairs with a positive (purple) or negative (yellow) association. Associations are only shown if the association had at least 95 % probability. Functional group-codes as in Fig. 2.

269 Discussion

270 Compared to other terrestrial biomes, we found coastal dune areas to be characterised by 271 intermediate nematode abundances in the bulk soil with an average total of 6 nematodes per gram 272 of soil, as expected [2,54]. With an average of 1200 nematodes per gram of roots, nematode 273 abundances found in marram grass roots and rhizosphere were on the higher end, but still within 274 expectations [55,56].

275 The biogeographical districts differed significantly in terms of nematode abundances, with the lowest 276 abundances in general found in the Renodunal district, while the UK had low nematode counts in 277 bulk soil samples only. The differences between the districts could be related to complex changes in 278 climate and soil characteristics [2,4] or to unmeasured marram grass properties (defensive 279 mechanisms or nutrient composition) possibly covarying with climate or soil characteristics. 280 However, the ameliorating effect of the sea dampens climatic variability [57] while dune ecosystems 281 are homogenously resource-poor [58]. Thus, neither climate nor soil nutrients are likely to explain 282 these results. We consequently expect these differences in nematode numbers to be mainly 283 explained by a difference in soil acidity [31]. However, none of these parameters were measured 284 because of this known association with biogeographical region. Hence, any speculation on the actual 285 cause should be done with caution. The variance partitioning clearly indicated that this large-scale 286 factor greatly influenced nematode functional group abundances. Such a relationship was already 287 known for other groups, i.e., plants and spiders [30,59], and is here confirmed for soil nematodes.

As expected, more plant-feeding nematodes were found in marram grass roots when more marram grass was present in the near vicinity, probably because of more available resources in the form of marram grass roots. Additionally, this may partly be explained by the low plant diversity in marram grass-dominated dunes, where marram grass forms large quasi-monocultures, while diverse plant communities have been shown to decrease belowground herbivore loads [60]. Other functional groups were not correlated with the proportion of marram grass, except for the number of omnivores found in the bulk soil, which declined when there was more marram grass present. 295 Assuming omnivorous nematodes are mainly affected by resource availability [61], our results 296 seemed to indicate that these nematodes are able to find more food in bare sand. Omnivorous 297 nematode species are indeed able to live in bare sand, albeit together with bacterivorous and 298 fungivorous nematodes potentially serving as food source [62]. Next to other nematodes, 299 omnivorous nematodes are known to feed on numerous soil microbes ranging from algal filaments 300 to protists, supplemented with fungal hyphae and bacteria when their primary food sources are 301 unavailable [7]. Increased competition for nutrients of these soil microbes with marram grass roots 302 could decrease their numbers, consequently explaining the decrease in omnivorous nematode 303 abundance when marram grass cover is higher.

304 We hypothesised nematode abundances to increase with an increasing clustering of marram grass 305 because of the lower sand-capture efficiency [27,33,63] and because the captured sand is thought to 306 be largely free of nematodes. This was only true for fungivorous nematodes residing in the 307 rhizosphere, while no correlations were found for other nematode functional groups. These results 308 confirm that fungivorous nematodes are sensitive to disturbances of different origins, but thrive 309 under more stable conditions [7]. The mechanism behind this process is most likely linked to the 310 development of fungi. Fresh wind-blown sand from the beach probably only contains low amounts of 311 fungi [64]. When sand accretion slows down, development of fungi around marram grass roots can 312 be assumed to increase, while fungal development is minimal in bulk soil because it is probably not 313 suitable for most hyphae formation [13]. Hence, fungivore nematode abundance only increased in 314 the rhizosphere. The lack of correlations between other nematode groups and the spatial clustering 315 of marram grass could point towards a relatively quick colonization of marram grass roots by soil 316 nematodes after initial formation, confirming observations of other field studies [55].

Less vital marram grass tussocks are characterized by increasingly more dead stems and leaf litter deposition. This organic material, together with the high microbial biomass they support, provides additional habitat and feeding opportunities for many soil nematode groups [2,12]. Because of this

320 increased resource availability, we expected a decrease in nematode abundances for all nematode functional groups with increasing vitality, except for plant-feeding nematodes. Predatory and 321 322 fungivorous nematodes were found in larger quantities in respectively the rhizosphere and bulk soil 323 from less vital marram grass tussocks, hinting at the indirect importance of dead organic material for 324 these nematode functional groups [7]. Fungivorous nematodes benefit from an increase in fungi due 325 to the availability of decaying organic material while predators might profit from increased prey 326 abundances. On the other hand, predatory nematodes are shown to survive and reproduce better in 327 moist conditions [65,66], thus predators could benefit from increased water retention underneath 328 tussocks with more leaf litter. Since we did not observe a relationship between marram grass vitality 329 and bacterivorous and omnivorous nematode numbers, our results demonstrate that these 330 functional groups were able to persist, even when less resources such as dead plant material are 331 available. Note that marram grass vitality is based on the aboveground part of the marram grass 332 tussock. Including root vitality, which is shown to positively correlate with endoparasitic root-feeding 333 nematode numbers [56], could furthermore help clarify drivers of specific nematode functional 334 groups.

335 Contrary to our hypothesis, the presence of Senecio inaequidens had a positive rather than a 336 negative effect on the abundance of nematodes in bulk soil, except for fungivores nematodes. The 337 most likely explanation for these results is an increase in nutrient concentrations due to the presence 338 of S. inaequidens in soils with initially low resources [67], especially since nematodes are known to 339 positively react to increasing nutrient concentrations [62]. Furthermore, marram grass grew better in 340 sand harvested from underneath S. inaequidens compared to bare sand, which could also be 341 explained by a probable increase in nutrients [34]. These results indicated that chemical compounds, 342 like pyrrolizidine alkaloids, are not able to accumulate and negatively affect soil nematode 343 abundances in sandy environments. Alternatively, Senecio could negatively affect other organisms in 344 the soil, among which the natural enemies of nematodes, indirectly raising nematode numbers. If

nematodes facilitate decomposition of organic matter of *Senecio*, this interpretation could still
 explain the improved marram grass growth in *Senecio*-altered soils [34].

347 The analysis of the residual covariance among nematode functional groups shows that abundances of different functional groups tend to be positively associated within a given compartment 348 349 (rhizosphere or bulk soil), once the effects of local biotic and abiotic factors have been taken into 350 account. This effect is quite likely the result of ecological filtering by compartments: some roots will 351 harbour generally more nematodes of all functional groups while others will be symmetrically 352 impoverished of all functional groups because local conditions affect all groups in the same way. The 353 absence of negative covariances in our study also suggests that the extent of locally good or bad conditions "seeps" to nearby compartments: if a root sample harbours a high abundance of 354 355 nematodes, it is very likely that the nearby bulk soil sample will also do so. This hints at the fact that 356 locally good/bad conditions occur at a scale larger than a single root or soil sample. It has been 357 shown that plant-feeding nematode activity can increase nutrient leakage from roots, which 358 consequently increases microbial populations, in turn providing food for bacterivore and fungivore 359 nematodes and even potentially their predators [68]. Marram grass-associated nematode functional 360 abundances are thus positively covarying in natural foredunes. These results are in line with a global 361 study done on the spatial structure of soil nematode functional groups [2]. We cannot claim that all 362 variables related to bottom-up structuring of nematode communities were included in the model, 363 yet we used variables that can be thought to substantially capture the most important drivers. 364 Variables such as root mass and leaf litter can be argued to correlate with marram grass vitality, 365 while nutrient concentrations are thought to be quite similar among coastal dunes [33]. Assuming that the most important factors structuring nematode abundances were, at least indirectly, included 366 367 in the model, these results hint at the importance of studying the interactions between functional 368 nematode groups if we want to further develop our understanding of soil communities.

369 To conclude, our results indicate that local nematode functional group abundances are variable 370 among biogeographic regions. Within regions there is still much unexplained variation, caused by the 371 spatial clustering of nematode abundances. Hence, if nematode pressure is truly linked to the local 372 performance of marram grass in coastal dunes, this impact will be highly variable across space, which 373 would clarify why the Ammophila problem observed under constant conditions in the lab is still not 374 completely resolved in the field. Unravelling which factors and species interactions structure the 375 clustering at very small spatial scales could help shed light on this matter. In light of the recent 376 climate change, dunes are becoming more and more fixated by marram grass [69], which would lead 377 to an increase in plant-feeding nematodes according to our research. Since these abundances are 378 heterogeneous and highly spatially clustered, so would be their role and impact in dune development 379 and succession.

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- 389

390 Author contributions

- 391 RVDW and DB analysed the data. RVDW conducted the practical work and wrote the first draft of the
- 392 manuscript. All authors contributed substantially to interpretation of the results and revision of the
- 393 manuscript.
- 394

395 Competing interests

- The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.
- 398
- 399 Data availability

400 The script and raw data are available via GitHub [<u>https://github.com/Ruben-</u> 401 VDW/Marram nematodes] and published on Zenodo [70].

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