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2 **Title**

3 **When is Open-endedness Desirable in Restoration Projects?**

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5 **Running title**

6 Open-ended restoration

7

8 **Key Words**

9 ecological trajectories, forward-restoration, landscape-scale, non-equilibrial systems,
10 novel ecosystems, dynamic ecosystem processes.

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15 **Authors**

16 Francine M.R. Hughes^{1,2}, William M. Adams³ and Peter A. Stroh¹

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18 1. Animal and Environment Research Group, Department of Life Sciences, Anglia

19 Ruskin University, East Road, Cambridge. UK CB1 1PT, UK.

20 2. Address correspondence to: Francine.hughes@anglia.ac.uk

21 3. Department of Geography, University of Cambridge, Downing Place, Cambridge

22 UK. CB2 3EN, UK.

23

1 **Abstract**

2 A low-intervention approach to restoration that also allows restoration outcomes to be
3 framed as trajectories of ecosystem change can be described as ‘open-ended’ restoration.
4 It is an approach that recognizes that long-term ecosystem behavior involves continual
5 change at small and large spatial and temporal scales. There are a number of situations in
6 which it is appropriate to adopt an open-ended approach to restoration including: in
7 remote and large areas; where ecological limiting factors will be changed by future
8 climates; where antecedent conditions cannot be replicated; where there are novel starting
9 points for restoration; where restoration relies strongly on processes outside the
10 restoration area; in inherently dynamic systems; where costs are high and where the
11 public demands ‘wildness’. Where this approach is adopted managers need to explain the
12 project and deal with public expectations and public risk. Monitoring biotic and abiotic
13 components of the project are very important as an open-ended approach does not equate
14 to ‘abandon and ignore it’.

15

16 **Key Words**

17 ecological trajectories, forward-restoration, landscape-scale, non-equilibrium systems,
18 novel ecosystems, open-ended restoration.

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1 **Introduction**

2 Higgs and Roush (2011) explore options for restoration in response to the indirect effects
3 resulting from climate-driven changes in mountain ecosystems in remote locations. They
4 set out 13 criteria for assessing the appropriateness of active attempts at ecological
5 restoration in remote landscapes. The alternative management option (and the default
6 without intervention) is to allow ecosystems to adapt on a new trajectory, even if this lies
7 outside historical-reference conditions (Throop and Purdom 2006). Following Throop
8 and Purdom (2006), Higgs and Roush (2011) consider that a non-intervention approach,
9 is appropriate when 1) there is equal uncertainty about the trajectory of change with and
10 without intervention, and 2) where the trajectory of change without intervention provides
11 equal or greater benefits for the landscape.

12
13 Higgs and Roush’s non-intervention or low-intervention approach has much in common
14 with the open-ended approach to restoration described by Hughes et al. (2011). Many
15 restoration projects are target-driven, with specific goals derived from reference systems.
16 More open-ended approaches to restoration recognise that habitat change is continual,
17 following unpredictable ecological trajectories, requiring restoration to be ‘directed
18 forwards’ (Perrow and Davy 2002, p. xv). Hughes et al. (2011) describe the application
19 of an open-ended approach to restoration in a lowland ex-arable fenland site in the UK.
20 Restoration outcomes are expressed in terms of future trajectories of change (from dry
21 species-poor ex-arable land to wetter, more species-rich and dynamic landscapes) rather
22 than as specified restoration targets defined in terms of a historical fen reference system
23 or its contemporary analogue.

1

2 The benefits of target-driven restoration are well proven and appropriate under many
3 circumstances, particularly as a response to declining species or habitats, or particular
4 anthropogenic impacts. However, this approach may not be appropriate in all
5 circumstances. Here we identify some contexts in which a more open-ended approach to
6 restoration may be justified.

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9 **What is Open-Ended Restoration?**

10 An open-ended approach to restoration follows the approach outlined by Higgs and
11 Roush (2011) in its emphasis on minimal intervention, and acceptance of future
12 trajectories of ecological change. Projects might emphasise reducing or removing human
13 influence and allowing habitats to form through both autogenic processes such as
14 vegetation regeneration and succession and allogenic processes such as plant propagule
15 dispersal and river flooding. Contemporary (and future) ecosystem processes dictate
16 ecological outcomes. The new ecosystem's trajectory into the future will be influenced by
17 its ecological inheritance and by species colonisation and extinction rates, and will thus
18 form novel species assemblages. Management approaches may be low intensity, but
19 should comply with the necessary minimum legal requirements (for example control of
20 designated noxious weeds).

21

22 Because an open-ended approach to restoration is not predicated on an *a priori* vision for
23 the ecological outcomes, it mirrors long-term ecosystem behavior with disturbance and

1 change at small and large spatial and temporal scales (Willis and Birks 2006). Change
2 may not always be gradual but stepwise, sudden and irreversible (Eppinga et al. 2009)
3 and species may come and go over short or long time frames (Seppä et al. 2008).
4 Relationships between biotic and abiotic components and processes in a locale change
5 over time. An open-ended approach fits with recent trends in ecosystem science that
6 conceive of ecosystems as integrated sets of processes operating over different spatial
7 scales in non-equilibrium systems, rather than as particular organisational levels within a
8 geographically delimited area (Currie 2011; Mori 2011).

9

10

11 **When is Open-Ended Restoration Appropriate?**

12 Following Higgs and Roush (2011), we offer a simple model to indicate when open-
13 endedness is likely to be appropriate (Table 1) and then explore each factor in turn.

14

15 *1. In Remote Areas*

16 This is the context described by Higgs and Roush (2011). They conclude that an
17 important goal of remote landscape restoration is to maintain remoteness and that
18 allowing trajectories of change, whether or not they already incorporate identifiable
19 elements of degradation, is an appropriate approach. This is highly relevant to contexts
20 such as alpine environments facing the prospect of changing temperature regimes and
21 altitudinal zonation under anthropogenic climate change (e.g. remnant arctic-alpine
22 communities on Scottish mountains).

23

1 2. *In larger restoration areas*

2 An open-ended approach to restoration becomes more appropriate as the spatial scale of
3 restoration projects increases because there is more scope to adopt lower levels of
4 management intervention and to allow ecological processes to dictate outcomes. The
5 levels of uncertainty in terms of which habitats will develop and where and which species
6 will occur will also increase as a wider range of biophysical conditions and ecological
7 processes become included (Hilderbrand et al. 2005) and due to the stochastic nature of
8 processes. This is especially true if projects involve the re-mobilization of disturbance
9 regimes such as flooding regimes following the removal of dams or weirs. The diversity
10 of habitats produced (including novel habitats) will increase the chances of species
11 finding a suitable functional niche to use, an increasingly valuable feature as species
12 move in response to climate change.

13

14 3. *Where future climate is predicted to change ecological limiting factors*

15 The impact of human interventions on biogeochemical processes, especially in changing
16 climatic patterns, is large and difficult to predict at the scale of most restoration projects.
17 These challenges will increase in future. In response to anthropogenic climate change,
18 species will adjust their range as they have done in the past or become locally, regionally
19 or globally extinct. We can thus anticipate novel species assemblages at different spatial
20 scales (Hobbs et al. 2006) moderated by novel competitive relationships with new species
21 sometimes performing familiar functions (Davis et al. 2011). However, while these
22 uncertainties will affect all restoration projects, they are most significant where future
23 climate impacts are expected to most affect ecologically limiting factors. For example, in

1 the East Anglian region of the UK it is predicted that rainfall will be reduced by 30%
2 under both low and high emissions scenarios by 2050 (Hulme et al. 2002) leading to
3 water deficits for wetland restoration.

4

5 *4. Where conditions that gave rise to an apparent reference system cannot be repeated*

6 Contemporary ecosystems are strongly influenced by antecedent environmental
7 conditions. For example, the legacies of Holocene climatic change are still visible in
8 forest and peatland habitats in NW Europe (Godwin 1939) and North America
9 (MacDonald 1987) as are the more recent variations in precipitation and growing season
10 of the Little Ice Age (Grove 1988). Restoration outcomes framed in terms of either
11 contemporary or past reference systems are thus unlikely to be attainable under current
12 environmental conditions (Hughes et al. 2005) even if anthropogenic climate change did
13 not exist. Chosen reference habitats may even reflect past human degradation events, for
14 example, floodplain woodlands on the Red Deer River, Canada, greatly expanded in
15 extent following floods with high rates of sediment delivery associated with upstream
16 logging in the late nineteenth century (Cordes et al. 1997). Where human management
17 has played a role in the evolution of reference systems and species niches, it may be
18 impossible to replicate the exact land management practices that formed the reference
19 system because these may have varied over the last several centuries e.g. the grazing and
20 regeneration patterns in wood pastures in the UK, or are not sustainable e.g. peat cutting.
21 The plausibility of reference systems as a template for restoration thus decreases the more
22 their contemporary state owes to previous environmental conditions or to previous human
23 land-use practices that can no longer be replicated.

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2 *5. Where starting points are human-derived and novel*

3 Where the starting point for restoration is novel, novel ecosystems can again be expected
4 to develop (Seastedt et al. 2008). Thus derelict industrial sites or land used for intensive
5 agricultural production may be so profoundly transformed in soil conditions that they can
6 never support an ecosystem similar to any past reference state. Continuing levels of
7 ambient pollution (e.g. airborne nitrogen or high levels of phosphorus in groundwater)
8 may make re-establishment of key features of reference systems impossible. There are
9 numerous urban or post-industrial restoration situations (e.g. industrial spoil tips or land
10 contaminated with radioactive elements) where essentially an open-ended approach has
11 been taken with no expectations of a return to previous conditions, although specific
12 restoration interventions can reduce the level of pollution (Dobson et al. 1997). The
13 presence of many alien species, for example on ex-agricultural land is now so widespread
14 that it is unrealistic to exclude them from future habitat scenarios (Stroh et al. 2012).

15

16 *6. Where restoration is strongly dependent on processes outside the restoration area*

17 Many restoration projects depend on conditions and processes occurring outside the
18 immediate restoration site. An open-ended approach may be appropriate where these
19 processes cannot be predicted or controlled with sufficient accuracy that restoration to a
20 specific target condition is achievable; for example in wetland restoration the quantity
21 and quality of water may depend on conditions in the wider water catchment over which
22 restoration managers have no influence. Other external influences may have more wide-
23 reaching sources such as climate change or atmospheric pollution (Parker 1997).

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2 *7. In systems that are naturally very dynamic*

3 Dynamic systems are often best restored by restoring the geomorphological or ecological
4 processes that drive habitat change (e.g. in more physically active systems such as coastal
5 and floodplain systems). However, the associated uncertainty suggests that an open-
6 ended view of likely ecological outcomes has necessarily to be taken. For example, in
7 the field of riparian forest restoration, considerable progress has been made with
8 restoration of hydrological and sedimentological processes on which many floodplain
9 forest species depend for their regeneration. Such restoration has been carried out both at
10 a catchment-scale, in the form of planned flood releases from dams on regulated rivers
11 (e.g. Rood et al. 2003), and at individual floodplain sites whose river embankments have
12 been breached to enable localized flooding processes (e.g. Scheimer et al. 1999). This has
13 been seen as a self-sustainable but less predictable approach to restoring riparian habitats,
14 especially in terms of where along the river forest regeneration may take place and
15 recognizes that riparian systems are often strongly non-equilibrial and therefore
16 inherently open-ended in their evolution. In many cases it is technically difficult to do
17 more than partially re-instate biophysical processes, e.g. Hall et al. (2011) describe
18 restoration of a down-scaled flood regime on the Bridge River in British Columbia,
19 Canada and partial restoration of river function and riparian forest regeneration. Here an
20 open-ended approach to conceiving of restoration outcomes is appropriate since the scale
21 of biophysical processes is novel.

22

23 *8. Where cost of intensive restoration and ongoing management is high*

1 Where the cost of highly prescriptive restoration is high it may be better value for money
2 to use an open-ended approach. Although the uncertainty of the ecological outcomes
3 under an open-ended approach will be higher it may prove more sustainable both in terms
4 of providing habitat for a wide range of species and financially. In general, taking an
5 open-ended approach involves low levels of initial habitat engineering and low levels of
6 ongoing habitat management.

7

8 *9. Where the public demands 'wildness'*

9 While some restoration projects involve successful public education, most restoration
10 projects reflect the views of government and public about what species and habitats are
11 desirable. The general public is often conservative, desiring certainty of outcomes (often
12 in the form of charismatic species) rather than changing outcomes. However, public
13 perceptions of the relationships between humans and ecosystems change. In both Europe
14 and the USA there is some public demand for a lack of management intervention and a
15 sense of 'naturalness' or 'wildness' (e.g. Taylor 2005), notwithstanding the complexity
16 of these terms (Ridder 2007). Projects that have responded to this public need, such as
17 Oostvaardesplaasen in the Netherlands and the Wicken Fen Vision in the UK, are, by
18 their philosophy, open-ended in their approach to restoration. They may offer a robust
19 approach to the challenges of future climate change. Such projects also introduce a series
20 of parallel questions about how far public, government and other actors are willing to
21 accept environmental variability and risk (e.g. introduced birds of prey or predators, or
22 flooding)

23

1 *10. Where there is limited knowledge of existing ecosystem patterns and processes*
2 Many restoration projects have been developed in countries such as the UK or USA or
3 Australia with a long history of ecological research, extensive current capacity for
4 palaeoenvironmental research, survey and modeling, and a large and highly trained
5 amateur naturalist sector. These countries are often mapped at a small scale, and there is
6 extensive knowledge available to plan restoration strategies. Where restoration is
7 attempted in countries without these advantages, conventional strategies based on specific
8 targets and reference systems may not be possible, and an open-ended approach may be
9 more appropriate. This may be particularly true where the system being restored is
10 extensive or poorly understood. An example is the attempt to grow back 700 km² of
11 tropical dry forest at Guanacaste in Costa Rica (Allen 2001; Calvo-Alvaradoa 2009).

12

13 **Discussion**

14 In this paper, we have outlined contexts in which we consider an open-ended approach to
15 restoration to be appropriate. It might perhaps be argued that an open-ended approach
16 should not be considered a form of ecological restoration at all. However, we believe it
17 falls within standard definitions of restoration (e.g. SER 2004, p.1: an ‘intentional activity
18 that initiates or accelerates the recovery of an ecosystem with respect to its health,
19 integrity and sustainability’), focused on recovery of ecological processes rather than of
20 some pre-disturbance state. We would emphasize that an open-ended approach to
21 restoration should not be used as an excuse to replace target-driven restoration where
22 such an approach is necessary or desirable.

23

1 The uncertainties associated with an open-ended approach to restoration present
2 challenges to project managers. First, there is likely to be a need for managers to explain
3 the project and deal with public expectations and perceptions of risk. This is particularly
4 necessary at the outset but remains an important ongoing activity. Second, it may be
5 harder to obtain finance from conservation funders used to project proposals that specify
6 predictable ecological outcomes. Third, monitoring and periodic project assessments are
7 particularly important in open-ended restoration projects so that change is measured and
8 understood: open-ended restoration does not mean 'abandon and ignore it'. Monitoring
9 should involve 'status assessment' (Stem et al. 2005), focused on keeping track of
10 changing biophysical processes, species arrivals (and extinctions) and changing provision
11 of ecosystem services (Hughes et al. 2011).

12

13 **Implications for practice**

- 14 • Open-ended approaches to ecological restoration are appropriate in some contexts
15 but care should be used when choosing this approach over target-driven
16 approaches.
- 17 • Open-ended restoration project aims should be framed in terms of change rather
18 than achievement of specified species or habitat targets. Management plans and
19 monitoring programmes should reflect this.
- 20 • Open-ended restoration needs to be carefully explained to all stakeholders,
21 especially in the light of public expectations and perceptions of risk.

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23

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1 **Table 1 Factors Demanding Open-Endedness in Restoration**

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3

Open-endedness less appropriate	Factor	Open-endedness more appropriate
Low	1. Remoteness	High
Small	2. Size of Area	Large
Low	3. Uncertainty over impact of anthropogenic climate change to ecological limiting factors	High
High	4. Plausibility of reference system	Low
Low	5. Novelty of starting point	High
Low	6. Dependence on processes external to restoration site	High
Low	7. Level of ecosystem dynamism	High
Low	8. Restoration and management costs	High
Low	9. Human acceptance of ecosystem change	High
Good	10. Knowledge of existing ecosystem patterns and processes	Poor

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