

1 **Title:** An objective-based prioritization approach to improve trophic complexity through  
2 ecological restoration

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4 **Running Head:** Prioritizing plant species for restoration

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46 **Abstract**

- 47 1. Reassembling ecological communities and rebuilding habitats through active  
48 restoration treatments requires curating the selection of plant species to use in  
49 seeding and planting mixes. Ideally, these mixes should be assembled based on  
50 attributes that support ecosystem function and services, promote plant and animal  
51 species interactions and ecological networks in restoration while balancing project  
52 constraints. Despite these critical considerations, it is common for species mixes  
53 to be selected opportunistically. Reframing the selection of seed mixes for  
54 restoration around ecological objectives is essential for success but accessible  
55 methods and tools are needed to support this effort.
- 56 2. We developed a framework to optimize species seed mixes based on prioritizing  
57 plant species attributes to best support different objectives for ecosystem  
58 functions, services, and trophic relationships such as pollination, seed dispersal,  
59 and herbivory. We compared results to approaches where plant species are  
60 selected to represent plant taxonomic richness, dominant species, and at random.  
61 We tested our framework for 176 plant species found in European alpine  
62 grasslands and identified 163 associated attributes affiliated to trophic  
63 relationships, ecosystem functions, and services.
- 64 3. In all cases, trophic relationships, ecosystem functions, and services can be  
65 captured more efficiently through objective-based prioritization using the  
66 functional identity of plant species. Solutions (plant species lists) can be compared  
67 quantitatively, in terms of costs, species, or objectives. We confirm that a random  
68 draw of plant species from the regional plant species pool cannot be assumed to  
69 support other trophic groups and ecosystem functions and services.
- 70 4. *Synthesis and Applications.* Our framework is presented as a proof of concept  
71 to help restoration practitioners better apply quantitative decision–support to plant  
72 species selection in order to meet ecological restoration outcomes. Our approach  
73 may be tailored to any restoration initiative and habitat where seeding or planting  
74 mixes will be applied in active treatments. As global priority and resources are  
75 increasingly placed into restoration, this approach could be advanced to help make  
76 efficient decisions for many stages of the restoration process.

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## 89 **Introduction**

90         The specific objectives of terrestrial ecological restoration will vary, but generally aim  
91 to return a habitat to a naturally functioning and stable state. Restoration is often  
92 operationalized through the planting or seeding of mixtures of plant species as an active  
93 treatment meant to re-establish plant communities in degraded sites, usually informed by the  
94 plant species composition at reference sites (Brudvig & Mabry, 2008; Zobel et al., 1998).  
95 This begins by defining a species pool for the ecosystem of interest (the regional species  
96 pool, Zobel et al., 1998), and by taking stock of what species can be sourced from the wild or  
97 from commercial native seed producers (the restoration species pool) (Ladouceur et al., 2018;  
98 Zobel et al., 1998). However, seed and planting mixes used for restoration are often a low  
99 diversity subset of the relevant species pool, and are composed opportunistically (Barr et al.,  
100 2016). Species selection must be balanced within project constraints (eg. budgets, labour,  
101 time), and within other project targets (eg. increase plant cover, prevent erosion). These  
102 species mixes have a major impact on restoration success and have an impact on the multi-  
103 taxa functionality of the restored ecosystems (Guiden et al., 2021). How species mixes can be  
104 optimized to maximise restoration goals efficiently within project constraints remains an  
105 open question and an urgent task for implementing the United Nations Decade on Ecosystem  
106 Restoration.

107         It is widely recognized that rebuilding habitats requires the consideration of  
108 ecosystem services and functions, fauna, and plant-animal relationships (Kollmann et al.,  
109 2016; McAlpine et al., 2016). Integrating these relationships in ecological restoration is a  
110 complex task that remains largely unaddressed despite increased calls for consideration  
111 (Cross et al., 2020; Dixon, 2009; Lindell, 2008; Majer, 1989, 2009; Menz et al., 2011). Plant  
112 functional traits can help identify ecosystem services or functions facilitated by plant species,  
113 and can lead to favourable restoration outcomes (Brudvig & Mabry, 2008; Zirbel et al.,  
114 2017). Fauna also contribute crucial ecosystem functions to plants, such as seed dispersal  
115 (regeneration), pollination (seed production), herbivory (reduction of competitive dynamics),  
116 and patchy nutrient return (Olf & Ritchie, 1998). Optimizing plant species mixes to facilitate  
117 multiple ecosystem services and functions, including those performed by other trophic levels,  
118 could thus enhance restoration success, as shown by the establishment of fruit bearing trees to  
119 facilitate dispersal from other diverse patches by frugivores in tropical rainforests  
120 (Heelemann et al., 2012; Lamb et al., 1997).

121         However, the restoration of ecosystem services, functions, and animal communities is  
122 challenging due to complex processes, life cycles, and dependence on plants as well as other  
123 trophic levels (Chan et al., 2006; Guiden et al., 2021). Plant-animal interaction networks,  
124 both mutualistic (pollination and frugivory) and antagonistic (herbivory) are highly non-  
125 random (Bascompte & Jordano, 2007; Lewinsohn et al., 2006; Rezende et al., 2007), and a  
126 disruption in these interactions can lead to trophic cascades across and within systems  
127 (Knight et al., 2005; Valiente-Banuet et al., 2015). Plant-animal interaction networks are  
128 often nested, that is, some species have many interactions in their networks, and many  
129 species have few (Bascompte et al., 2003). When considering balancing project constraints

130 and restoration targets in a relatively low-diversity species mix for restoration, it is unlikely  
131 that a random draw from the regional plant species pool will provide resources to optimize  
132 trophic networks and other ecosystems services and functions. Systematic decision-making  
133 can quantitatively support complex multivariate decision-making problems such as this (Chan  
134 et al., 2006; Hill et al., 2014; M’Gonigle et al., 2016).

135 Here, we present a proof-of concept for the optimization of active restoration species  
136 mixtures (for seeding or planting treatments) for supporting different objectives. We used  
137 species-rich European subalpine and alpine calcareous grasslands as a case study. These  
138 habitats are sensitive to disturbance, and impacted by ski resorts and other tourism activities,  
139 making them a target system for ecological restoration across European Natura 2000 sites  
140 (Garcia-Gonzalez, 2008, p.). We identified 176 plant species that frequently occur in the  
141 target ecosystem on a biogeographical scale as the potential regional and restoration species  
142 pool of interest (Ladouceur et al., 2018; Zobel et al., 1998). We used trait databases and  
143 literature to compile traits related to regeneration and relationships between the 176 plant  
144 species in our species pool and the insects, birds and mammals that are typical of these  
145 habitats and depend on particular plant species for various life stages. Hereafter, we refer to  
146 the traits and aspects of plant species that represent these relationships and characteristics of  
147 interest, as plant attributes.

148 Our primary aim is to develop and evaluate a quantitative decision-making  
149 framework to assist in species selection for seeding and planting mixes for restoration  
150 projects. To do so, we designed five objectives for prioritizing plant attributes that support  
151 ecosystem functions, services and trophic dependencies. We optimized for these objectives  
152 by finding the smallest number of plant species needed to deliver all of the attribute targets  
153 set within each objective (Possingham et al., 2000). We then developed four plausible species  
154 selections to compare with prioritized selections including a focus on dominant species,  
155 random draws from the plant species pool to represent different taxonomic resolutions, and  
156 completely random draws from the plant species pool. We used our study system to  
157 investigate whether optimized species pools deliver objectives for ecosystem functions or  
158 services more efficiently than selecting dominant plant species, for taxonomic richness, or  
159 randomly.

160

## 161 **Methods**

162 We designed and tested an optimization approach to prioritize species mixes for  
163 planting or seeding in restoration projects based on ecological objectives. Below, we describe  
164 how we 1) selected plant species from a defined regional species pool; 2) identified plant  
165 attributes; 3) constructed objectives and optimized attributes; and 4) evaluated across  
166 approaches.

### 167 ***Species selection***

168 We compiled a list of the most frequent native species occurring in alpine calcareous  
169 grassland habitat types on a continental scale, using a synthesis of >1 million field surveys  
170 (Schaminée et al., 2016), reporting species frequencies in the habitat types of the European  
171 habitat classification system (EUNIS, [www.eunis.org](http://www.eunis.org)), directly assigned to habitat types of

172 conservation concern (Table S1). We identified native plant species that occur above a  
173 particular frequency (>5% of total occurrences) in calcareous alpine grassland habitat types  
174 on a European-wide scale. Expert opinion suggests that species below this frequency were  
175 found to be more typical of other habitat types. This resulted in a list of 176 native plant  
176 species that occur frequently in the calcareous alpine grasslands of continental Europe. We  
177 considered this to be the species pool of this habitat and we assumed all species can co-occur  
178 or can co-exist. Further, we consider all species in the pool as equal candidates for inclusion  
179 in seed mixes to meet prioritization objective targets.

180

### 181 ***Attribute selection***

182 For the 176 plant species that were of interest for our goals, we collated traits related  
183 to dispersal, phenology, and nitrogen fixation available from the TRY plant trait database  
184 (Kattge et al., 2011), as well as associations with mammals, birds, and herbivorous and  
185 pollinating insects from additional sources (see Table 1). The list of associated faunal species  
186 was refined to keep only species that occur in this habitat. Plant species frequency of  
187 occurrence values were used to rank plant species' relative abundance within the habitat type  
188 on a biogeographic scale, which we used to classify plant species dominance for a fixed  
189 species list for comparison with prioritized objectives (Table 1, Table S1).

190 We then grouped the 163 plant attributes into nine broad categories based on the  
191 ability to support specific ecosystem functions or services (Table 1): bird trophic diet, bird  
192 herbivory, bird shelter, seed dispersal syndrome, Lepidoptera relationships (species specific-  
193 pollination, herbivory), pollination syndrome, mammal herbivory, nitrogen fixation, and  
194 flowering month. The range of attributes supported by plant species varied greatly, with some  
195 highly specialized plant species supporting only one attribute (e.g., *Galium estebanii*) while  
196 others support many attributes (e.g., *Poa alpina*, alpine meadow grass (56 attributes) and  
197 *Sedum album*, white stonecrop (58 attributes)) (Table S1).

198 To assign attributes to species we used a binary classification scheme, where a value  
199 of 1 was used when an attribute was present in a given plant species. In some instances, the  
200 presence of an attribute is dependent on the connection between the plant species and a  
201 species of other trophic groups, such as birds or butterflies (Lepidoptera). Some Lepidoptera  
202 species depend on different plant species at different life stages (larval herbivory vs adult  
203 pollination/visitation), which we accounted for (Table 1). For birds, we connected trophic  
204 dependencies between attributes. For example, the plant species *Aster alpinus* (alpine aster)  
205 has a beetle pollination syndrome, and the bird *Turdus torquatus* (ring ouzel) feeds on beetles  
206 as part of its diet, so alpine aster is potentially an important habitat component for beetles,  
207 and the ring ouzel (see Table S1).

208

### 209 ***Objective Construction, Comparison lists and Prioritization***

210 We constructed five objectives for prioritizing species based on setting targets which  
211 deliver: 1) representation of all attributes present in the species pool ("Comprehensive"  
212 (N=163 attributes)); 2) specific processes and taxa that play key roles in ecosystem  
213 regeneration, specifically, species-specific seed dispersal and pollination for birds ("Bird",

214 N= 48 attributes) and 3) Lepidoptera Relationships (pollination and herbivory) (“Lepidoptera  
215 Relationship”, N= 82 attributes), 4) representation of both levels of taxonomic plant richness  
216 in combination with Lepidoptera relationships (“Pairwise Lepidoptera + Plant Rich Family”,  
217 N=116 attributes including plant families counted as an attribute), 5) (“Pairwise Lepidoptera  
218 + Plant Rich Genus”, N= 197 attributes). We compared these five objectives to four  
219 comparison lists - plant species selections meant to serve as plausible opportunistic  
220 approaches for creating species mixes. These include; 1) a fixed list of the most frequent  
221 species occurring in these habitats at a biogeographic scale, as a proxy for dominant species  
222 (“Dominants”, N= a fixed list of 37 plant species), 2) a representation of plant diversity  
223 through taxonomic richness at the 2) family (“Plant Rich Family”, N= 34 families), and 3)  
224 genus level (“Plant Rich Genus”, N= 115 genera); and 4) selecting plant species at random  
225 (“Random”) (see Table 2). To compare a species-mix of dominant species to prioritized  
226 objectives, we sorted dominant species by frequency of occurrence values, and created a  
227 fixed list of ‘dominant’ species equal to the number of species in the Comprehensive  
228 solutions for direct comparison between the performance of the two species lists in terms of  
229 representing attributes that potentially support particular ecosystem functions and services.  
230 We consider a single presence to be sufficient to capture the attributes.

231 To efficiently find the smallest number of plant species that met the target based-  
232 objectives (Table 1), we used the ‘minimum-set’ problem formulation which is commonly  
233 applied to spatially-explicit decision making that cost-efficiently meet targets for  
234 conservation features (e.g. habitats, species ranges, or ecological processes) (Possingham et  
235 al., 2000). We adapted inputs to apply it to our non-spatial problem (Hill et al., 2014) (see  
236 Supporting Information Appendix 1). To do so, we replaced geographic spatial units with  
237 individual plant species, and replaced the features found in those geographic units with the  
238 functional attributes assigned to each species, resulting in a plant species-attribute matrix  
239 (Figure 1). Each plant species had a unique set of attributes, each attribute with a binary value  
240 of ‘0’ or ‘1’, and these values were summed to produce a ‘attribute sum’ for every plant  
241 species; that is - the number of attributes that characterise each plant species. For each  
242 objective, complementary sets of plant species were identified where collective attributes  
243 achieved the minimum targets set (where we considered a minimum target of 1) (Table 2).  
244 We set equivalent costs across species (value of 1) so that we could test the outcomes of  
245 prioritizing plant species across different objectives independent of costs.

246 Once objectives were set, all problems were solved using the R package prioritizr  
247 (Hanson et al., 2019), with Gurobi 9.0 as an algorithmic solver (Gurobi Optimization Inc.,  
248 2018). For each prioritized objective, we set problems in prioritizr with an optimality gap of  
249 zero, and the ‘add\_gap\_portfolio’ function to produce a portfolio of 100 different solutions,  
250 where the first solution is the optimal solution to the original data formulation, and every  
251 solution thereafter meets targets within the pre-specified optimality gap. This relative gap  
252 specifies a threshold worst-case performance for solutions in the portfolio, so in this case, we  
253 chose to accept 100 solutions no matter the performance relative to the optimal (gap=0). For  
254 all random solutions for comparison, we used ‘add\_shuffle\_portfolio’ (instead of the gap

255 portfolio). This randomly reordered data prior to solving problems, so plant species were  
256 selected under different data formulations to produce a random selection process.

257

### 258 **Evaluation**

259 In comparing and evaluating approaches to plant species selections for species mixes,  
260 prioritizr produces two important outputs: optimal solutions to meet targets for objectives (in  
261 this case, a plant species list); the feature representation indicating the number of plant  
262 attributes represented by a solution, relatively (to possible maximums) or absolutely (total  
263 number). We used the first optimal solution of each objective to compare the attribute sum of  
264 the plant species selected (Table S1). We compared the mean values of the attribute sum  
265 using a Kruskal-Wallis chi-square test to assess differences in the total number of attributes  
266 (attribute sum).

267 We calculated the selection frequency of plant species across all 100 solutions  
268 generated to identify the relative irreplaceability of each plant species within a species mix to  
269 meet targets for each objective. Where a plant species had a selection frequency of 100 across  
270 solutions, we categorised it as '*irreplaceable*'. Irreplaceability can be interpreted as an index  
271 of the likely overall value of a feature, or in this case a plant species, in achieving an  
272 objective (Smith et al., 2018). Where a species was chosen between 1 and 99 times, we  
273 categorized it as '*variable*', and where it was chosen zero (0) times it was categorized as  
274 '*redundant*'.

275 We evaluated each objective's ability to capture the nine broad ecosystem functions  
276 and service categories defined in Table 1. To do so, we took the species identified in all 100  
277 solutions for each objective (see supporting information), identified the full list of attributes  
278 present (Table S1) and calculated the percentage of attributes captured compared to the total  
279 number of attributes possible for selection in each broad attribute category (Table 1).

280 We compared our results to an ad-hoc selection of species that we approximated using a  
281 random species selection process. We selected plant species at random in intervals of 5  
282 (ranging from 5 to 125 plant species) and calculated the proportions of attribute provision  
283 captured across the same nine broad ecosystem function categories. We considered the mean  
284 (50%), upper (75%) and lower quantiles (25%) of each random species selection across all  
285 solutions for comparison across objectives.

286 All prioritizations, figures and analyses were conducted using the R Studio version  
287 1.3.1056 and R version 4.0 environment and language for statistical computing and graphics  
288 (R Core Development Team, 2019).

289

### 290 **Results**

291 Across the five ecological objectives, the number of plant species needed to meet each  
292 objective's targets varied widely. For example, the targets for the "Bird" objective were met  
293 with only five plant species, targets for the "Pairwise Lepidoptera + Plant Rich Genus"  
294 objective required 119 plant species (Figure 2). We also found high variability in the number  
295 of attributes (the attribute sum) captured by the individual plant species selected in the  
296 solutions (max:59; min:2) (Table S1). The plant species selected in the "Comprehensive" and

297 the “Lepidoptera Relationship” objective had a significantly higher attribute sum overall  
298 (Kruskal-Wallis  $s^2= 146.68$ ,  $P= <0.001$ , Table S3, Figure 2, Figure S1) than found in the  
299 other objectives.

300 This prioritization approach favours plant species with a high attribute sum, yet also  
301 prioritizes plant species that supports unique or rare attributes, as these species may be  
302 considered irreplaceable (Figure 3). In the case of the Comprehensive and the Lepidoptera  
303 Relationship objective, many plant species were irreplaceable. In contrast, in the bird  
304 objective, many plant species were of variable importance, and thus could be interchangeable  
305 (Figure 3, Table S4).

306 Figure 4 illustrates the number of plant species selected across the first solutions for  
307 each objective and the percentage of the attributes captured relative to the total number of  
308 attributes in each ecosystem function category. This demonstrates the trade-off between the  
309 number of plant species selected and the provision of minimum sets of attributes. It also  
310 examines how well a single objective captures broad ecosystem function and services  
311 compared to the performance of other objectives.

312 Objectives that did not set out to prioritize a specific category of ecosystem function  
313 had variable performance. For example, the “Bird” objective performed poorly for all plant-  
314 pollinator related ecosystem functions, capturing <25% of the attributes needed to support  
315 plant- pollinator, nectar, and larval functions (Figure 4). This is unsurprising given the “Bird”  
316 objective only needed five plant species to achieve the targets. Alternatively, the  
317 “Comprehensive” objective, which aimed to represent each of the 163 attributes found across  
318 the entire species pool once (and did so with 37 plant species), met 100% of targets set (1 of  
319 every attribute). However, the species prioritized in this objective performed no better than  
320 the random species selection for representing Genus and Family levels of plant diversity  
321 representation (Fig 4).

322 Overall, the random selection of plant species performed well for ecosystem functions  
323 that are supported by common attributes across plant species (e.g., bird trophic, bird herb,  
324 bird shelter), but worse than our prioritization when the ecosystem function is supported by a  
325 highly specialized attribute (e.g., plant-pollinator relationships) (Figure S2). In general, the  
326 smaller the number of randomly selected plant species, the worse the performance for  
327 providing ecosystem functions and services. Even when large numbers of randomly selected  
328 plant species are considered, provision of some trophic relationships, or ecosystem function  
329 and service groups were found to be low (Fig. S2).

330

## 331 **Discussion**

332 Plant species have a unique combination of functional attributes that contribute to  
333 important ecosystem processes and trophic relationships in different ways. Here, for the first  
334 time, we have developed and tested an approach for prioritizing plant species in order to  
335 represent multiple plant attributes that potentially support trophic complexity and ecosystem  
336 services and functions in species mixes for active restoration treatments. Our results show  
337 that species selection approaches targeting for taxonomic richness, dominant species and/or  
338 with a random approach may not support higher trophic levels and the ecosystem functions



339 and services they provide as efficiently as our objective-based approaches. Critically, our  
340 results illustrate that higher trophic levels and ecosystem functions can, in some instances, be  
341 supported well when plant species richness is relatively low. Conversely, trophic  
342 relationships and ecosystem functions can in some cases be unsupported and low while plant  
343 species richness is high. We confirm that a random draw of plant species from the regional  
344 plant species pool cannot be assumed to support other trophic groups and ecosystem  
345 functions and services. This has important implications for the design and implementation of  
346 species mixes for restoration projects which aim to reach multiple restoration objectives such  
347 as plant diversity, higher trophic levels and certain ecosystem functions and services tied to  
348 plant species identities.

349

### 350 **Prioritizing functional attributes**

351 Some ecosystem functions and services are captured by plant species selections  
352 easily, even when these are not the targets of the objective. In these cases, the functional plant  
353 attribute is abundant (eg. wind dispersal syndrome) within the plant species pool. For  
354 example, bird diets are often generalised to a plant genus or family (eg. Asteraceae), so  
355 minimum diet requirements for the bird species represented here do not require many plant  
356 species to meet minimum provisional targets. By randomly selecting species from the species  
357 pool, these attributes are often captured in a minimum amount of plant species. The bird  
358 objective only represents five plant species to provide a minimum diet for twenty-eight  
359 species of alpine birds, and in practice a species mix designed for birds would benefit from  
360 higher representation of these plant functional attributes and diet options.

361 In other cases, where a specialist relationship between an attribute and a plant species  
362 exists, targets are not captured well, unless an objective is prioritized for such. For example,  
363 relationships between plants and insect herbivores are often specialised, making many plant  
364 species irreplaceable when optimizing the plant community for herbivores. The objectives for  
365 plant taxonomic richness, for dominant species and for randomly selecting species do not  
366 meet minimum targets for plant-pollinator relationships, even when up to 125 plant species  
367 are selected. The fewer plant species that are selected, the higher the risk that resources for  
368 herbivores and pollinators will not be provided within the plant species mix. However, when  
369 targeted, all Lepidoptera species relationships with particular plant species in terms of larval  
370 herbivory or pollination (82 Lepidoptera relationships total) can be represented at least once  
371 within a species mix with 35 targeted plant species. Negative changes within ecosystems can  
372 lead to trophic cascades (Knight et al., 2005), and in restoration, there is the opportunity to  
373 directly support these connections between organisms positively facilitate regeneration  
374 processes and ecological networks (Harvey et al., 2017; Valiente-Banuet et al., 2015)  
375 through this framework. When considered this way, one can ask if the species pool used in  
376 restoration is providing adequately for the species pool of other trophic levels within that  
377 habitat while balancing multiple targeted outcomes.

378 Conversely, depending on how plant taxonomic diversity is defined (representing one  
379 species from every taxonomic Family or Genus), it is not always represented well by  
380 objectives prioritized for attributes, or by randomly selecting species, but can be captured

381 efficiently through targeted selection. Additionally, both attributes and plant biodiversity can  
382 be captured efficiently together when both are set as targets (Pairwise objectives). Seed mixes  
383 matter for restoration success and can be optimized according to many factors (Barr et al.,  
384 2016), but require the balancing of multiple targets which is a complex multivariate decision-  
385 making task that can make use of decision-support tools as demonstrated here.

386 Additionally, seeding and planting treatments for restoration are restricted by many  
387 confounding constraints including budgets, labour, and project size and so restoration species  
388 mix treatments are often quite low (Barr et al., 2016). Where constraints are present,  
389 prioritizing plant species to optimise particular targets can be a potentially beneficial method  
390 to decide which species to include in low diversity treatments. This method has similarities to  
391 methods for filtering plant species lists based on particular targets (Brudvig & Mabry, 2008),  
392 but offers the unique advantage of optimising targets according to constraints, and offers  
393 quantitative support for comparing different options easily both in terms of targets and cost.

394

### 395 **Indications and Further Development**

396 In order to test this proof of concept, it was necessary to make some simplifying  
397 assumptions. Focusing on a study system with relatively good knowledge on frequently  
398 occurring plant species, we selected attributes based on available data in the target system.  
399 Rare plant species, which have not been thoroughly studied, are often documented as having  
400 few attributes, resulting selection bias towards representing common species. A prioritized  
401 solution can only be as good as the data available, and the prioritization objectives set out  
402 here are limited by the available data. Generalised data on pollination syndromes or seed  
403 dispersal syndromes of plant species can be limiting, as these relationships can be habitat  
404 specific. Although we used the best data available from a trait database and field guides, we  
405 recognise that next steps should include an improvement on data used. These data include  
406 plant-insect associations for additional insect taxa (e.g., wild bees as pollinators or plant-and  
407 leafhoppers as herbivores), and of improved occurrence data (for our work, no data on the  
408 altitudinal occurrence of moths was available). Local entomological specialists can help to  
409 compile realistic lists of plant-insect interactions, and we postulate that this method could  
410 also make excellent applied use of pollinator networks or food web data across trophic levels.

411 Here, targets were set to ensure a minimum of one attribute was present in solutions,  
412 to allow for direct comparison between objectives, but this means other species were  
413 categorized as redundant when not selected. In practice, including an abundance of targeted  
414 attributes within solutions is desirable and likely beneficial for restoration outcomes, and  
415 these targets can be adapted for various needs.

416 Similarly, we assume that the cost of including a plant species is the same to test our  
417 questions independent of costs, but the approach can and should account for cost variation to  
418 acquire, store and reproduce seeds as this will likely hold great influence on prioritized  
419 solutions in practice (Jiménez-Alfaro et al., 2020). Reporting on the costs of conservation and  
420 management actions is largely inadequate and non-standardized (Iacona et al., 2018), and we  
421 know from previous research that only a small proportion of seeds are usually available for  
422 purchase (Ladouceur et al., 2018). Prioritization approaches could also guide future efforts

423 for seed supply and policy by informing collection, farming and storage for an expanded  
424 restoration species pool. Further, including these real costs in decision-making frameworks  
425 can help to plan efficient projects.

426

### 427 **Ways forward and Conclusions**

428 This proof of concept is the first step towards framing future empirical research in  
429 ecological restoration of natural ecosystems. We call for empirical field tests for this  
430 approach to take place, which will require bringing together interdisciplinary collaboration  
431 across subfields of ecology and conservation. We provide a transparent and robust approach  
432 that could move restoration efforts towards prioritizing plant species to maximise targets and  
433 minimise costs offering quantitative decision-making support. This approach could be  
434 applied to any system and/or targets which could also contribute to many stages of restoration  
435 decision-making and could play an important role in delivering efficient, targeted solutions.  
436 However, similar approaches will need robust ecological data to be applied to specific cases  
437 studies and restoration targets, preferably at regional or local scales.

438

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447

### 448 **Data Availability**

449 All data used for these analyses will be made available open access at FigShare and Code to  
450 reproduce analyses will be made available on GitHub/Zenodo.

451

### 452 **Author Contributions**

453 P.H., H.P. and E.L. conceived the idea. E.L. and B.J.A designed the case study, defined the  
454 species pool, and made a data collection plan. E.L., D.S., and R.vK. collected and requested  
455 data. P.P. and J.H.C. donated plant trait data. E.L. performed the analysis. J.M., H.P. and P.H.  
456 provided guidance on analyses and interpretation. E.L. and J.M. wrote the manuscript. All  
457 authors contributed to editing and shaping the manuscript into the final version.

458

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632

633 **Table 1:** Plant species attributes, ecological role and data source of each attribute used, grouped by broad ecosystem function or service  
 634 category. Complete list in Table S1.

635

Broad Attribute Category	Plant Attributes	Ecological significance and explanation of objective approach	Source
Attributes related to trophic, dependencies, ecosystem functions and services			
Bird shelter (1)	Shrub plant growth form.	Seed dispersal services.	(Cramp, 1978; del Hoyo et al., 2016)
Herbivorous Bird Diet (20)	20 species of alpine bird that occur in these habitats (by expert opinion and available data). The herbivorous diet of each bird was identified, and connected with the plant species pool, each bird species is treated as an attribute.		
Insectivorous Bird Diet (28)	28 species of alpine bird that occur in these habitats (by expert opinion and available data). The insectivorous diet of each bird was identified, and connected with the insectivorous pollination syndrome attribute of the plant species pool, each bird species is treated as an attribute.		



Dispersal syndrome (8)	Wind, endozoochory, exozoochory, humans, insects, water, explosive, unassisted.	Natural dispersal mode related to self-regeneration.	From (Kattge et al., 2011) via (Diaz et al., 2004; Fitter & Peat, 1994; Gachet, n.d.; M. Kleyer et al., 2008; Michael Kleyer, n.d.; Moretti & Legg, 2009; Paula et al., 2009; Poschlod et al., 2003; Royal Botanic Gardens Kew, 2008)
Lepidoptera Pollinator (18)	18 species of European butterflies and moths (Lepidoptera) that are recorded as being a pollinator of a plant species in the plant species pool of this habitat.	Specific Lepidoptera species-plant relationships, representing the use of different plants throughout life cycles (larval and adult).	(German Federal Office for Nature Conservation., n.d.; Leraut, 2016; Paolucci, 2013; Steiner et al., 2014; Willner, 2016, 2017; Ziegler, 2019)
Lepidoptera Herbivory (64)	64 species of European butterflies and moths (Lepidoptera) that have been recorded as feeding directly on a plant species at the larval stage in the plant species pool of this habitat.		
Pollination syndrome (11)	Main mode of pollination of each plant species, and the insect taxon considered to be most important for pollination: Ants, bees, beetles, bumblebees, flies, Hymenoptera, self, Syrphidae, Thysanoptera, wasps, Orthoptera, wind.	Pollination syndrome for broad insect taxons, representing general plant-pollinator relationships.	From (Kattge et al., 2011) via (Diaz et al., 2004; Fitter & Peat, 1994; Gachet, n.d.; Moretti & Legg, 2009; Poschlod et al., 2003)
Mammal Herbivory (4)	Ingested by mammals generally, and specifically herbivory by marmots, ibex, and chamois, key herbivores of this system.	Seed dispersal and grazing services.	(Andreoli et al., 2016; Bassano et al., 1996; Parrini et al., 2009)

Nitrogen Fixation (1)	Leguminous plant species.	Soil quality improvement.	(Schaminée et al., 2016)
Flowering month (9)	Represents every month February-October	Provision of seasonal resources for pollinators.	(Aeschinmann, 2004; Plantarum, n.d.)
Attributes used for comparison objectives			
Taxonomic Diversity/ Biodiversity by Genus (115)	One plant species is selected from each taxonomic genera (115 genera total) within the defined regional species pool.	For this objective, a species from each taxonomic genus is selected randomly to represent a null representation of taxonomic richness.	( <i>The Plant List</i> , 2013)
Taxonomic Diversity/ Biodiversity by Family (34)	One plant species is selected from each taxonomic Family (34 total) within the defined species pool.	For this objective, a species from each taxonomic family is selected randomly to represent a null representation of taxonomic richness.	( <i>The Plant List</i> , 2013)
Frequency (1)	Here, we use frequency of occurrence values obtained from the European Vegetation Archive to estimate which species are the most frequently occurring within these habitats on a European-wide scale, we then use this as a proxy for species 'Dominance' here. Frequency of occurrence values were used to rank species, and then the top n frequent species were selected to match the n of species required for the Comprehensive objective (Table2).	Dominance is associated with a contribution to carbon, nutrient and water cycling (Grime 1998). Dominant species are often selected in plant species mixes for restoration, as they are known to represent key species of habitats or be helpful facilitators. We use this as another 'null' model for comparison with prioritized objectives.	(Chytrý et al., 2016; Schaminée et al., 2016)

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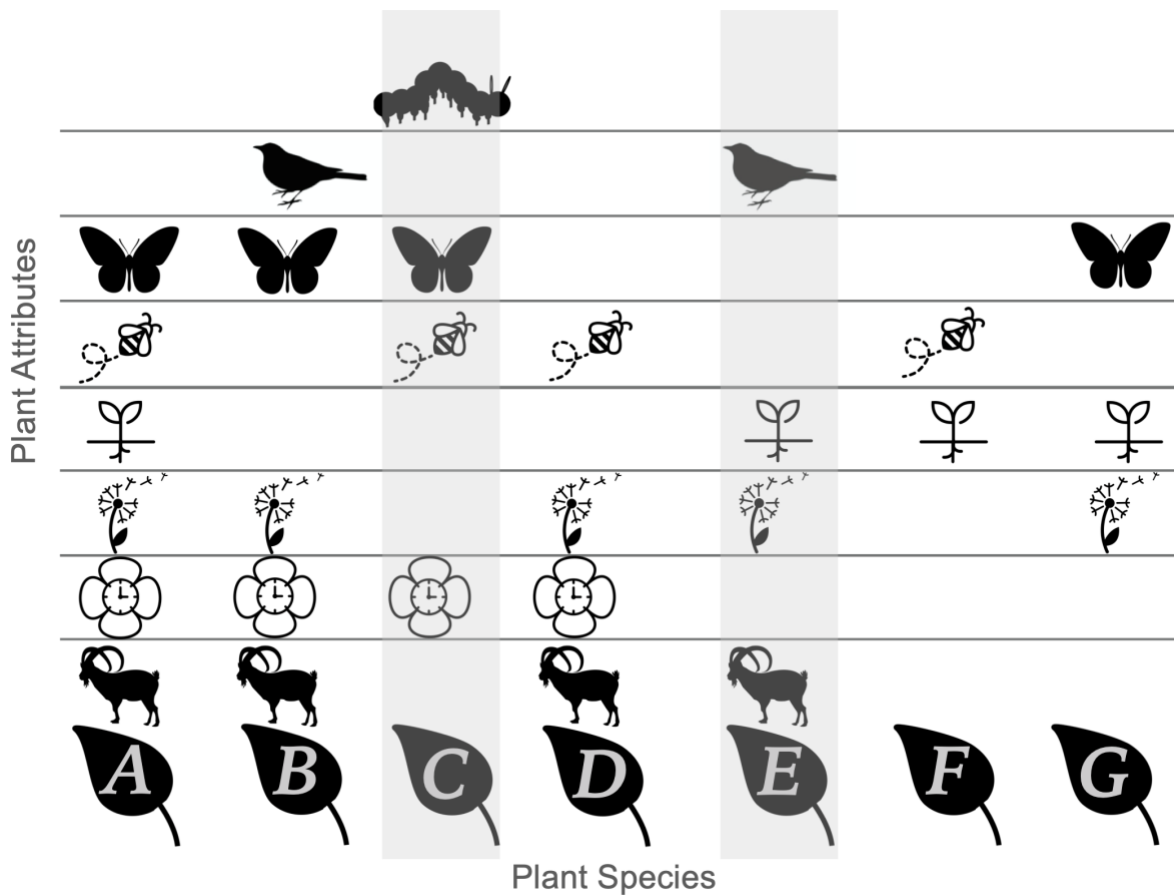
638 **Table 2:** Summary of how the nine ecological restoration prioritization objectives were implemented in the decision support software  
 639 prioritizr, showing the details of the attributes within each objective, and the number of attributes targeted to be included in the selection of  
 640 plant species for each objective. Each prioritized objective (Comprehensive, Bird, Lepidoptera Relationship, Pairwise Lepidoptera + Plant  
 641 Rich Family, Pairwise Lepidoptera + Plant Rich Genus) aims to select the fewest number of plant species, while meeting all objective  
 642 targets. These five prioritized objectives are then compared to four species selections that can serve as a null comparison (Dominants, Plant  
 643 Rich Family, Plant Rich Genus, Random).

644

Objective	Attributes Description	Objective targets
Prioritized Objectives		
Comprehensive	163 attributes, including all attributes from Table 1 specified to the species level.	Ensure all 163 single species-specific attributes are represented at least once
Bird	49 attributes representing 28 species of alpine grassland birds, under three broad ecosystem function categories: herbivores (20 bird sp.), insectivores (28 bird sp.), and bird shelter (1attribute)	Ensure all 49 bird related attributes are represented at least once
Lepidoptera Relationship	82 attributes representing 76 unique species of butterflies and moths (Lepidoptera) under two broad ecosystem function categories: pollinators (18), larval (64). 6 Lepidoptera species have multiple life-stage requirements represented in the dataset.	Ensure all 82 species-specific Lepidoptera relationship related attributes are represented at least once

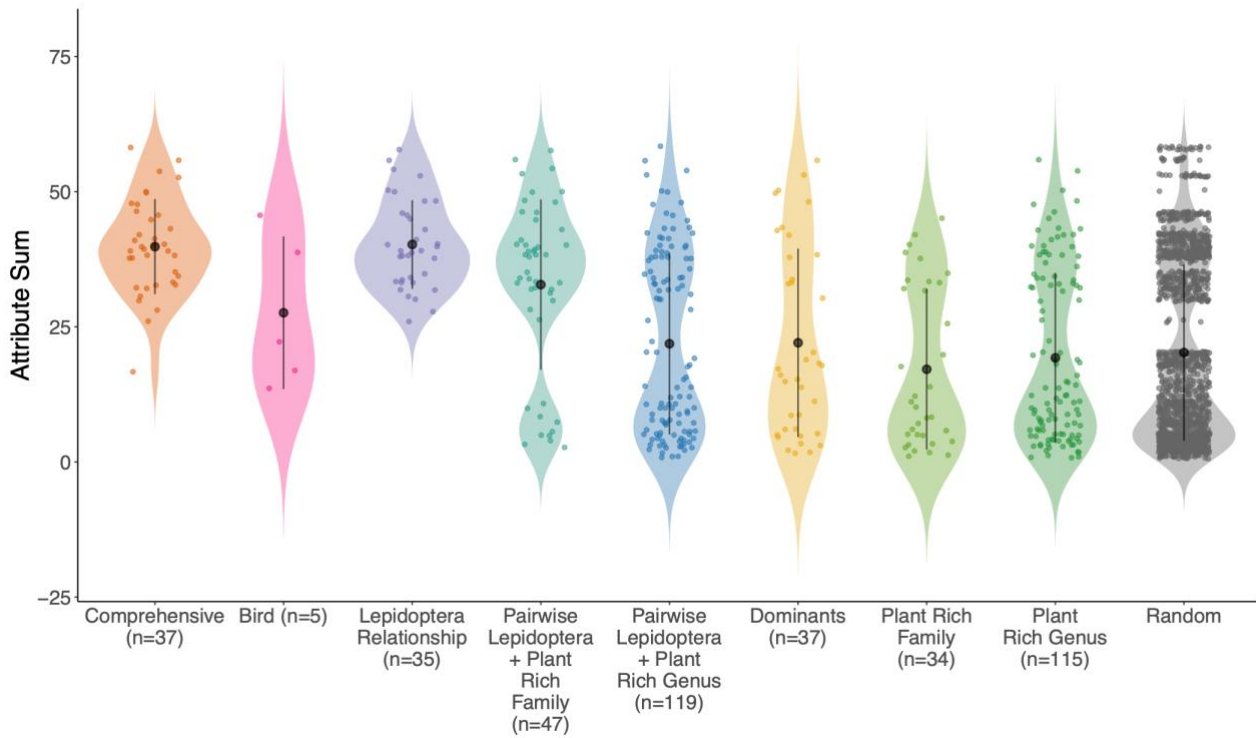
Pairwise Lepidoptera + plant rich Family	34 plant taxonomic families + 82 plant-pollinator relationships as attributes	Include 1 plant species belonging to every family, and all 49 plant-pollinator related attributes are represented at least once
Pairwise Lepidoptera + plant rich Genus	115 plant taxonomic genera + 82 plant-pollinator relationships as attributes	Include 1 plant species belonging to every single genus, and all 82 plant-pollinator related attributes are represented at least once
Comparison Objectives		
Dominants	Species frequency of occurrence on a biogeographical scale identified and rank ordered in terms of dominance (Chytrý et al. 2016; Schaminée et al. 2016).	Include the n most frequent plant species to match n species required for the Comprehensive selection, as a single fixed list to allow direct comparison.
Plant Rich Family	34 plant taxonomic families in the dataset.	Include 1 randomly selected plant species belonging to every family to represent 'plant biodiversity' at the Family level.
Plant Rich Genus	115 plant taxonomic genera in the dataset	Include 1 randomly plant species belonging to every genus to represent 'plant biodiversity' at the genus level.
Random	Select plant species randomly in intervals of 5, ranging from 5-120 species .	No attribute targets.

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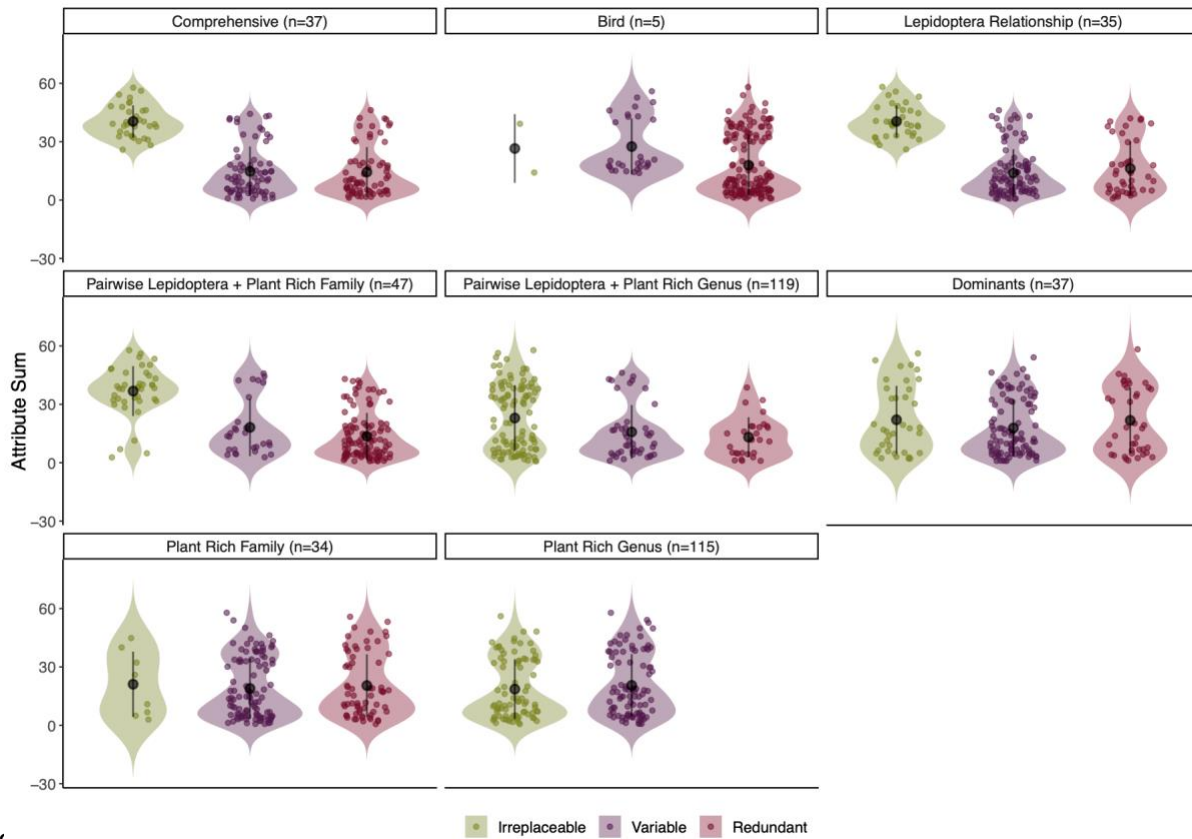


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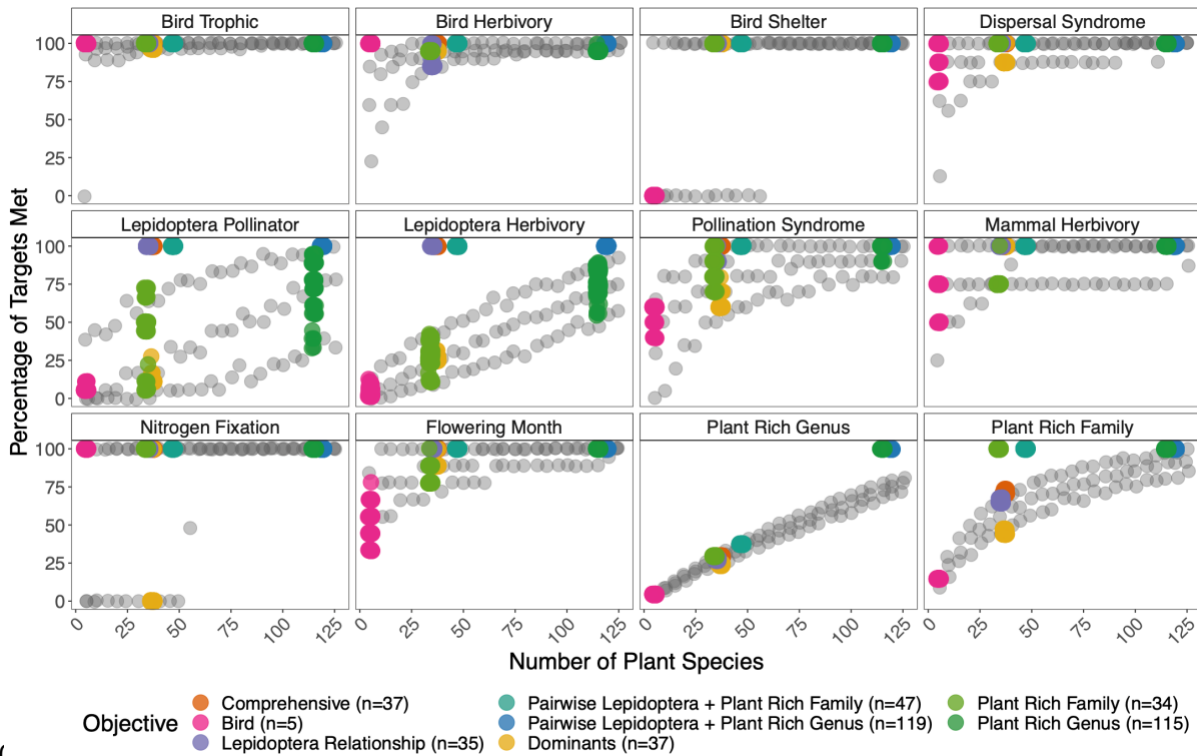
**Figure 1:** Conceptual framework of plant species prioritization for attributes that enable ecosystem services: a simplified example. Every plant species A-G represented in each vertical column has a unique combination of attributes in the plant species-attribute matrix which are represented in each horizontal row. Plant species C & E capture each attribute just one time when selected together. All images sourced from The Noun Project.



656 **Figure 2:** The attribute sum (total number of attributes per plant species) captured by each  
657 plant species in the first optimal solution of every objective. Each objective solution is  
658 labelled along the x-axis, and reflects the selection of species needed to meet the targets of  
659 that objective. Each point is a plant species. The large black points represent the mean and the  
660 bars represent the standard error around the mean. The shaded area represents the spread and  
661 the density of the data. n: number of plant species in the solution of every objective.  
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664 **Figure 3:** The attribute sum (total number of attributes per plant species) captured by each  
665 plant species for each objective, for plants species that were Irreplaceable (Selection  
666 Frequency (SF) =100/100), Variable (SF=99>1/100), or Redundant (SF=0). Each point is a  
667 plant species. The black points represent the mean and the bars represent the standard error  
668 around the mean. The shaded area represents the spread and the density of the data.  
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 671 **Figure 4:** Trade-offs between number of plant species selected for each objective, and the  
 672 corresponding proportion of ecosystem function targets captured compared across objectives.  
 673 Optimizations were run 100 times for each targeted coloured objective and all unique runs are  
 674 shown here as points. Grey points represent the mean, upper (75%) and lower (25%)  
 675 quantiles of runs for randomly selected species in intervals of 5 from 5-120 plant species.  
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677 **Supplementary Information**

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679 **Appendix 1: Special Indications and Expanded Methods**

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681 **Non-Spatial Prioritizr or MARXAN use**

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683 The framework we developed draws from the ‘minimum set’ problem definition commonly

684 applied to spatial conservation planning activities which rely on decision-support tools that provide

685 algorithmic solvers, like MARXAN or prioritizr. In this context, spatially-defined areas of the land or

686 water are the planning units. The algorithms aim to meet target amounts for important attributes

687 found in the planning units. These attributes are commonly referred to as conservation features (Game

688 & Grantham 2008; Hanson et al. 2019). In the non-spatial use of these tools, demonstrated here for

689 ecological restoration, the plant species become the planning units and the attributes become the

690 conservation features. This requires nothing more than arranging the data in the appropriate manner.

691 Instead of a site by feature matrix, the data becomes a plant species by attribute matrix.

692 Using these tools requires the development of four types of input variables in the non-spatial

693 context for the selection of plant species for ecological restoration planning. First, the identification of

694 a suite of desirable species that might be encompassed in the entire species pool, potentially all

695 desirably occurring in the target habitat of choice. We give more description of this step below under

696 ‘Determining Species Pools’. Second, a plant attribute value for each plant species is the numerical or

697 categorical attribute value associated with each plant under every single attribute field, which can be

698 represented as present (1) or absent (0). Each attribute must have its own column. For example, when

699 using an attribute such as ‘flowering duration’, every month of the year must be represented as a

700 single attribute, and a plant species can have a presence value in the months where it flowers. If a

701 plant species has a relationship with a specific species of pollinator in terms of both a nectar resource,

702 and a larval diet resource, there would be an attribute column represented for each pollinator species,

703 and for each type of ecological relationship represented. See Table S1 for how this is represented in

704 the species-attribute data matrix practically.

705 Third: targets are identified and set that specify the quantities of each attribute that should be

706 represented in the final selections. These targets serve as an initial hypothesis for testing necessary

707 levels of replication and abundance to ensure attribute presentation (Chan et al. 2006). Targets can be

708 set for different representation levels, or specific ‘units’ can be eliminated from solutions, or forced

709 into solutions based on different controls. Lastly, costs are set, where a numerical value can be

710 assigned to each planning unit. Each species was given a value of 1 for this proof-of-concept exercise,

711 but further work can be done incorporating the real cost of hand collecting, buying seed or plugs for

712 plantings and these costs could be compared in the prioritizations. This would add further complexity

713 to the decision support process, but increase the quantitative power and value of this exercise.

714 Once all variables are set, software use instructions would be followed (Game & Grantham 2008; Ball

715 & Possingham 2009; Hanson et al. 2019), and MARXAN or prioritizr is run to select priority plant

716 species that collectively constitute a selection that captures all desired target attributes and function

717 within the minimum amount of plant species. For every objective, we ran prioritizr 100 times

718 producing one hundred solutions for every objective- the standard best practice amount. These

719 selections act as replicates for quantitative support in decision making, and ensure comparability

720 between objectives. prioritizr identifies a single optimal solution which is the plant species selection

721 that meets targets and minimises cost, but can be run with a portfolio option to generate more than one

722 solution. Because we gave all plant species equal ‘cost’ values in this exercise as a proof of concept,

723 the problems had simpler solutions than if the plant species were given real costs associated with the

724 purchase or hand collection of wild seed. As a result, many solutions contained different

725 constellations of plant species, but received equally high scores. We always used the first solution as

726 identified by prioritizr for analyses. However, in Figure 4, where we refer to the ‘solutions with the

727 best score’ this refers to the fact that we used all solutions with equally high scores for this analysis.

728 Users of this method may encounter similar conditions when running problems where all plant species

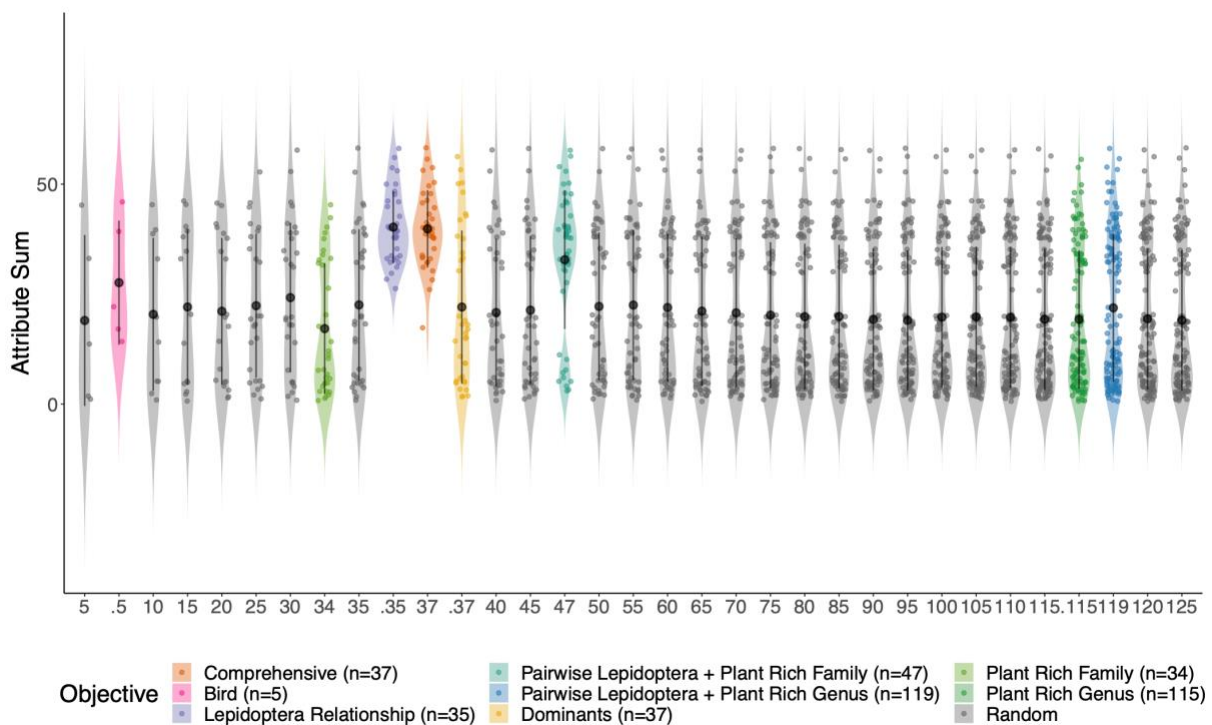
729 have been given an equal cost, depending on the species richness of the entire species pool

considered, the targets, the nature of the attributes, and the constraints of a project.

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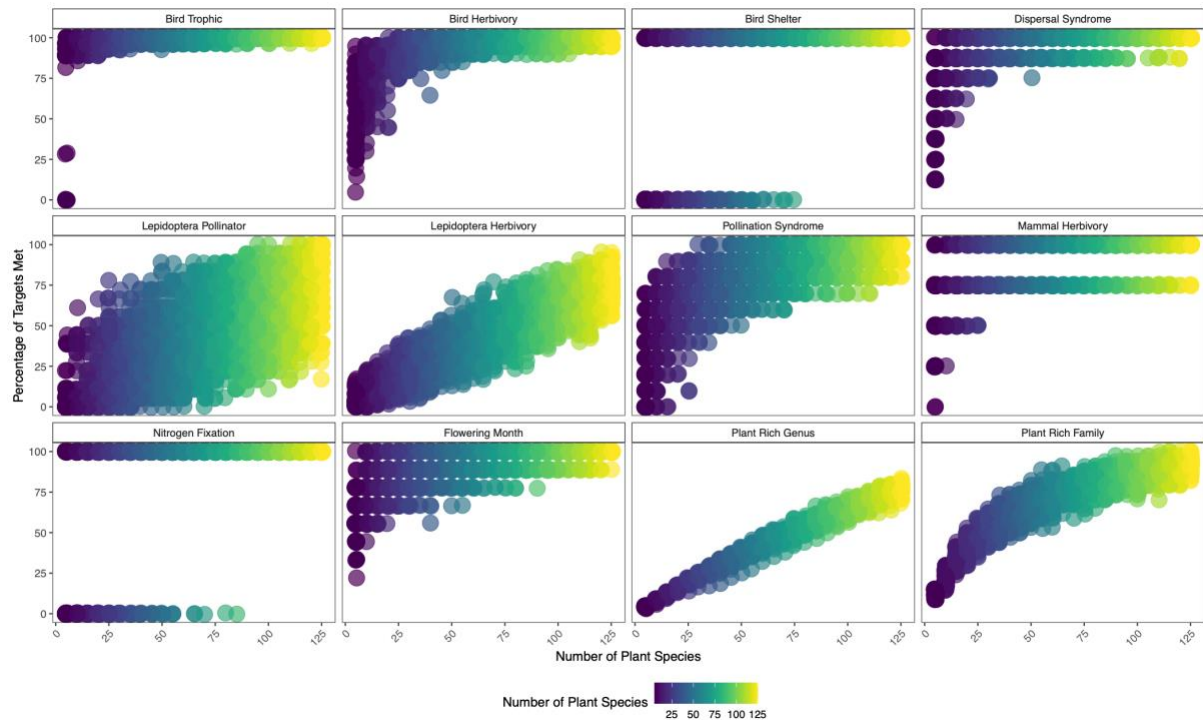
## Determining Species Pools

Methods for determining the appropriate target habitat type for restoration, and species pool for restoration species mixes vary by region, and when applying this method to different areas, these standards can be used to determine this appropriate species list. If a practitioner were starting with a restoration site that already had some species present, or had natural regeneration potential (eg. from the seed bank, or successional species able to natural recolonize) the site should be surveyed and assessed for this first, local expert knowledge used, and these species can still be included in species lists, but eliminated or constrained within solutions (see MARXAN documentation). Clearly identifying the set of species appropriate to be used for restoration species lists has a major impact on this process and resulting solutions and this step should be approached carefully and appropriately to each project.



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**Figure S1:** This is an expanded version of Figure 2. The attribute sum (total number of attributes per plant species) captured by each plant species in the best solution of every objective. The number of species in each solution is labelled along the x-axis. Colors represent each objective, and black is the species chosen at random for every step of number of species. Each point is a plant species. The black points represent the mean and the bars represent the standard error around the mean. The shaded area represents the spread and the density of the data. n: number of plant species in the best solution of every objective.



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756 **Figure S2:** A Trade-off plot showing the trade-off between the number of plant species randomly  
757 selected, and the corresponding proportion of targets (representing 1 of each attribute within a  
758 category) for each broad group of ecosystem function or service provided. Plant species were selected  
759 randomly 100 times for each level in intervals of 5 from 5 plants species increasing to 125 plant  
760 species.

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## 762 Supplementary References

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