

INTRODUCTION ARTICLE

Setting the scene for dryland recovery: an overview and key findings from a workshop targeting seed-based restoration

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With nearly a quarter of global dryland systems considered to be degraded, the level and scale of degradation often exceed the thresholds for autogenic recovery, requiring human intervention to ensure that ecosystem biodiversity, structure, and function can be improved. A "Think Tank" workshop focusing on advancing the ecological approaches to large-scale restoration in degraded environments was held at Kings Park and Botanic Garden, Western Australia. Acknowledging that adaptive and broadly multidisciplinary strategies are paramount to achieving restoration in a repeatable and cost-effective manner, the workshop served as a forum to bring together plant scientists, ecologists, engineers, and environmental managers involved in dryland restoration from around the globe. This introductory paper to this special issue summarizes important contemporary challenges facing dryland restoration worldwide, offers a synthesis of the fundamental workshop themes, and provides a contextual overview for the series of invited papers in this issue, comprising reviews and case studies in seed and restoration technologies.

Key words: arid ecosystems, direct seeding, ecological function, ecosystem structure, large-scale ecological rehabilitation, native plant seed

Implications for Practice

- Global estimates of plant recruitment from seed are staggeringly low (90-95% average seed loss globally), with seed germination and emergence comprising the most critical phases in determining plant establishment success.
- Targeting key limitations to plant reestablishment associated with seed biology, edaphic, and environmental conditions, especially pertinent during the germination and establishment phases of plant development, can increase the efficiency and effectiveness of seed-based restoration.
- International collaboration and knowledge sharing are imperative to the development of adaptive, multidisciplinary strategies needed to ensure that restoration of dryland ecosystems can be achieved in a scalable, repeatable, and cost-effective manner.

Introduction to Drylands and Overview of the Special

Drylands, which include arid, semiarid, and dry subhumid regions, account for nearly half of the global terrestrial surface area, support more than two billion people, store 45% of the global carbon, and represent a third of the biodiversity hotspots worldwide (Myers et al. 2000; Maestre et al. 2005; Reynolds et al. 2007; Verstraete et al. 2009; James et al. 2013). Extreme environmental limitations make these systems highly susceptible to degradation and significantly limit natural recovery following disturbance (Safriel et al. 2005; Bainbridge 2007; Reynolds et al. 2007). Land degradation, defined as the reduction of terrestrial productivity (Zika & Erb 2009), is estimated to affect up to 20% of global dryland systems (Safriel et al. 2005), and millions of hectares continue to be degraded each year (Brauch & Spring 2009). Shifts in ecosystem processes resulting from improper land management, the invasion of exotic species, and land alteration including high-impact resource extraction often push systems beyond the thresholds necessary for autogenic recovery, requiring human intervention to aid restoration (Bainbridge 2007; Carrick & Krüger 2007). The resulting losses of productivity and ecosystem function are estimated to cost US \$42 billion annually (Brauch & Spring 2009) and threaten the biodiversity, as well as the socioeconomic and political sustainability, of arid systems (Stafford Smith & Reynolds 2002; Geist & Lambin 2004; Verstraete et al. 2009; Zika & Erb 2009; UNCCD 2012). To be effective, restoration tactics must match the current magnitude and rate of degradation by adopting

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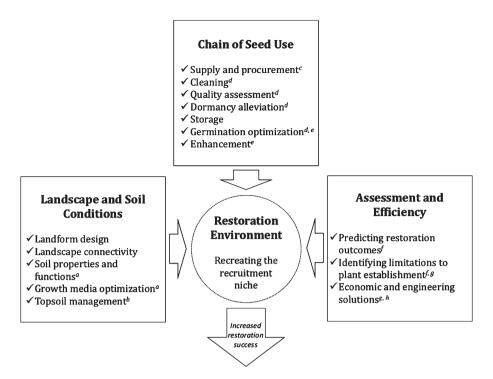


Figure 1. A conceptual framework highlighting topics addressed at the Restoration Seedbank Initiative's Think Tank Workshop focusing on "seed enablement technologies and recreating the recruitment niche in degraded environments" held in January, 2015, at Kings Park and Botanic Garden in Perth, Western Australia. This framework outlines the integration of research disciplines and restoration approaches that consider: (1) altered landscape and soil conditions, (2) factors relevant to seed and seedling establishment, as well as (3) techniques used to improve restoration effectiveness and efficiency through predictive and engineering solutions. The topics followed by a letter denote invited papers included in this special issue. "Muñoz-Rojas et al. (2016). "Golos et al. (2016). "Chivers et al. (2016). "Erickson et al. (2016b). "Madsen et al. (2016). "James and Carrick (2016). "Barrett-Lennard et al. (2016). "Guzzomi et al. (2016).

landscape-scale approaches that use science-driven technologies (Merritt & Dixon 2011; Suding 2011; Menz et al. 2013).

After many theoretical and empirical studies in restoration ecology (James et al. 2011, 2013), we are yet to fully realize and enact the technology and management changes that are needed to ensure restoration of dryland systems can achieve the required outcomes at any scale in a repeatable and cost-effective manner; solutions lie in development of adaptive, multidisciplinary strategies to tackle the challenges of restoration of this magnitude. Acknowledging this trend, a workshop was held on landscape-scale ecological restoration in January, 2015, at Kings Park and Botanic Garden, Western Australia, to bring together plant scientists, ecologists, engineers, and environmental managers involved in dryland restoration efforts around the world. The premise of the workshop was the ever-increasing pressure placed on natural ecosystems from human activities that create broad-scale land disturbance. These activities include pastoral, agricultural, and mining endeavors (among others), but the recent and unprecedented acceleration in mining activity in parts of Australia provided the catalyst for the workshop. Resource extraction has grown at a continuous rate across the globe, increasing by nearly a third from 1980 to 2002 (Behrens et al. 2007). Australia and North America exhibit the two highest rates of domestic extractive activities per capita, owing largely to metal ore, fossil fuel, minerals, and biomass harvesting (Behrens et al. 2007). A significant proportion of mining in these regions occurs in the arid and semiarid zones (BHP Billiton 2009; McKenzie et al. 2009). For example, in the arid Pilbara biogeographical region of northwest Australia—where more than 90% of Australia's iron ore is extracted (Ye 2008; Department of Mines and Petroleum 2015)—the current disturbance footprint exceeds 230,000 ha (Environmental Protection Authority 2014).

With this backdrop, the workshop aimed to address short-falls in technologies that currently exist within restoration programs in dryland systems and to foster a multidisciplinary and global approach to understand these challenges and create practical solutions. Specific themes addressed during the workshop included: (1) landscape topography and modified soil substrates; (2) the development and implementation of the "chain of seed use" concept, and; (3) approaches for improving the efficiency of restoration practice and the assessment of restoration outcomes. Through a series of invited papers, this special issue of *Restoration Ecology* provides a synthesis of the core workshop themes including reviews and case studies in seed and restoration technologies (Fig. 1).

Landscape and Soil Conditions

Resource extraction often drastically alters the topography and physical properties of the landscape and impacts on natural ecosystems and biodiversity, mainly through the removal of the extant flora, fauna, and topsoil (Cooke & Johnson 2002). Soil functionality, defined here as the ability to support terrestrial ecosystem structure and function through physical, chemical, and biological processes (Brussaard 1997; Fitter et al. 2005), can be significantly diminished due to mining practices (i.e. stripping, improper storage, or mixing of the topsoil with the underlying substrate and mine rock burden) (Cooke & Johnson 2002; Golos 2013; Golos & Dixon 2014). Effective ecosystem recovery depends on the ability to accurately assess the degree of edaphic degradation.

The article by Muñoz-Rojas et al. (2016), Soil quality indicators to assess functionality of restored soils in degraded semiarid ecosystems, presents a novel and practical technique for assessing soil functionality and demonstrates its use in the context of post-mining restoration in the hot desert conditions of the Pilbara biogeographical region. The authors highlight the importance of considering the synergistic interplay between biotic and abiotic factors to understand the full scale of the reduction in soil functionality following disturbance, and demonstrate the role native vegetation communities can play in edaphic recovery.

Topsoil, which is often lost or diminished in the course of mineral extraction activities, is a significant source of seed, organic matter, nutrients, and microbes representative of the pre-mined conditions (Ghose 2001; Holmes 2001; da Silva et al. 2005; Carrick & Krüger 2007; Jasper 2007; Koch 2007; Rokich & Dixon 2007; Wick et al. 2009; Kiehl et al. 2010; Rivera et al. 2012). Many Australian mining operations have successfully conserved topsoil through strategic removal and storage prior to mining; however, the quality of topsoil can deteriorate during stockpiling and thus decline significantly in its potential to serve as a propagule source (Koch et al. 1996; Rokich & Dixon 2007; Rivera et al. 2012; Golos & Dixon 2014; Merritt et al. 2016). To understand the quantity and species composition of the residual topsoil seed bank, the article by Golos et al. (2016), Plant recruitment from the soil seed bank depends on topsoil stockpile age, height, and storage history in an arid environment, demonstrates the importance of topsoil in promoting autogenic vegetative recovery following mining and highlights the influence that topsoil management practices have on soil seed bank dynamics.

Chain of Seed Use

Seed-based restoration is the most widely used and spatially feasible approach to confront the expanding land disturbance footprint (Merritt & Dixon 2011) and much of the discussion of the workshop was focused on improving seed technologies for restoration. Current efforts aimed at restoring biodiversity and plant community function often rely on using large quantities of seed that must be collected from intact wild systems or procured from specialized producers (Broadhurst et al. 2008, 2015; Merritt & Dixon 2011).

For example, the U.S. Bureau of Land Management (BLM) is responsible for maintenance of over 160 million hectares of public lands and is the largest native seed consumer in the Western Hemisphere with major seed collection and curation programs (Haidet & Olwell 2015). In addition to wild seed collection, the BLM purchases over a thousand metric tonnes of seed per annum for restoration (Krabacher 2015) and spends up to \$50 million USD (\$67 million AUD) annually on seed procurement and seeding efforts (Knutson et al. 2009). Investments of a similar scale will need to be made in the coming decades by the mining industry in Australia; the seed purchases required to cover the estimated land disturbance footprint (e.g. >230,000 ha in the Pilbara; Environmental Protection Authority 2014) in just Western Australia, a single Australian state, are estimated to equate to well over \$100 million AUD (circa \$75 million USD) at current prices for wild-collected seed (Merritt & Dixon 2011).

In addition, limited or variable seed supply can significantly constrain the capacity of large-scale restoration efforts (Broadhurst et al. 2008, 2015; Gibson-Roy et al. 2010; Merritt & Dixon 2011, 2014; Tischew et al. 2011). For example, in the western United States, the inter-annual demand for native seed varies stochastically with the occurrence of catastrophic fires and is based, spatially, on the geographic distribution of fire incidence. As a result, seed producers often cannot accurately predict species demand, while wild-land seed collection programs do not have the capacity to provide adequate seed quantities. At the landscape scale, the consequence of these factors is often an inability to source adequate quantities of seeds or sufficient diversity of species to meet basic biodiversity and genetic provenance standards. Even with adequate foresight to predict the timing and size of the disturbance footprint, such as in the case of mining operations, obtaining seed of desired species in the quantities required can be difficult (Lippitt et al. 1994; Mortlock 2000; Merritt & Dixon 2011, 2014; Tischew et al. 2011; Broadhurst et al. 2015).

In order to ensure sufficient seed availability, seed farming, or the increase of native species through agricultural-style production systems, is an area in need of significant development (Merritt & Dixon 2011; Tischew et al. 2011). In an article included in this issue by Chivers et al. (2016), The merits of artificial selection for the development of restoration-ready plant materials of native perennial grasses, the authors highlight the role seed farming of native grasses can play in restoration of arid systems, emphasizing how effective and efficient production systems can lead to material increases in seed availability with concomitant reduction in seed costs. Citing examples from the United States and Australia, the article highlights the potential of artificial selection to enhance vegetative performance to overcome the most limiting restoration site factors, but emphasizes the importance of using caution to avoid unfavorable (and possibly unexpected) outcomes to biodiversity conservation (i.e. inbreeding depression and the loss of potentially useful traits).

Given the limited quantity and high cost associated with native seed procurement, it is imperative that restoration practitioners use seed resources wisely and efficiently to minimize waste (Merritt & Dixon 2011). Currently, seed-based plant recovery is hampered by low or unpredictable establishment rates. Figures from around the globe demonstrate that only

5–10% of seeds delivered to restoration sites result in an established seedling (Williams et al. 2002; Turner et al. 2006a; Merritt & Dixon 2011; Sheley et al. 2011; Wagner et al. 2011; Hardegree et al. 2013). Aside from losses due to seed predation (Hulme 1996; Holl 1999; Bricker et al. 2010; Woodall 2010; Tsegaye et al. 2011), much of the failure to meet establishment outcomes can be attributed to the lack of biological and technical knowledge associated with seed germination biology (Merritt et al. 2007; Erickson et al. 2016a). On average, more than 80% of dryland floras produce seeds that exhibit some level dormancy (Baskin & Baskin 2014) that if not understood and appropriately managed may lead to plant establishment failure.

Identifying the specific mechanisms of seed dormancy at play for a particular species allows the development of techniques to alleviate this dormancy prior to sowing, that in turn can considerably enhance germination (Turner et al. 2013). Techniques for dormancy alleviation vary based on the kind of dormancy present, but all aim to enhance the germination capacity of a seed population and, where possible, fast-track dormancy loss in a reliable and repeatable manner (Baskin & Baskin 2014). Some examples include the use of mechanical or chemical abrasion, wet or dry heat, dry after-ripening, warm and cold stratification, and the use of chemical stimulants (e.g. gibberellic acid, karrikinolide, and ethylene) (Hargurdeep et al. 1986; Morris 2000; Bonner & Karrfalt 2008; Commander et al. 2009a, 2009b; Turner et al. 2009; Kildisheva et al. 2011; Baskin & Baskin 2014; Erickson et al. 2016a). A number of dormancy alleviation techniques have been successfully applied in the context of large-scale restoration (Rokich et al. 2002; Rokich & Dixon 2007; Erickson et al. 2016a). The second article in this section by Erickson et al. (2016b), Overcoming physiological dormancy in seeds of Triodia (Poaceae) to improve restoration in the arid zone, focuses on the alleviation of physiological dormancy; the most common type of dormancy among global dryland systems (Baskin & Baskin 2004 2014; Kos et al. 2012). In this article, the authors demonstrate how the replication of the temperature and moisture conditions typical of the soil seed bank (through dry after-ripening) combined with the use of chemical growth stimulants (i.e. gibberellic acid and karrikinolide) can effectively improve seed germination performance of a suite of grass species. The authors present examples of how these techniques can be easily implemented within restoration programs to enhance the recovery of a dominant genus endemic to the arid and semiarid regions of inland Australia.

Suboptimal climatic and edaphic conditions, combined with biotic pressures, can further challenge plant community establishment in dryland systems because, relative to the tolerance of adult plants, plant microclimatic requirements are much more restrictive during the germination, emergence, and establishment phases (Call & Roundy 1991; Peters 2000; Hardegree et al. 2003; James et al. 2011). The use of seed enhancement technologies may assist in overcoming a variety of constraints to plant recruitment. Seed enhancement technologies, defined as any post-harvest methods used to improve germination, increase seedling growth, reduce predation, and facilitate planting, have been used in the horticulture, turf, and agriculture industries for decades (Taylor & Harman 1990; Taylor et al. 1998; Chun et al.

2006; Halmer 2008; Bewley et al. 2011) but have only recently gained traction in restoration ecology (Turner et al. 2006b; Madsen et al. 2012a, 2012b, 2012c, 2012d, 2013, 2014; Abella et al. 2015; Perring et al. 2015; Merritt et al. 2016). Technologies for seed enhancement can be designed to address site-, species-, and time-specific bottlenecks to seed germination and plant establishment. Madsen et al. (2016) in their contribution to this special issue, *Emerging seed enhancement technologies for overcoming barriers to restoration*, examine the key limitations to seed-based restoration and outline innovative seed enhancement strategies designed to overcome these limitations in the sagebrush (*Artemisia* L. spp.) steppe ecosystems of western North America.

Assessment and Efficiency

Positive restoration outcomes depend on the ability of land management practitioners to integrate scientific knowledge into a functional and efficient restoration process. Given the scale and rate of ecosystem disturbance globally, the capacity to scale up is integral to achieving restoration goals at a landscape scale. Dryland degradation is likely to expand substantially as a result of global climate change and population growth (Reynolds et al. 2007). Costs associated with restoration increase exponentially with the intensity of degradation, whereas the capacity to enact successful restoration decreases with the degree of socioeconomic limitation and institutional inaction (Acheson 2006; Mangora 2011; James et al. 2013; Menz et al. 2013). Restoration capacity can therefore be defined by the relationship between restoration cost and the likelihood of success. In other words, at the same level of resource availability, more cost-effective practices will result in greater restoration capacity (James et al. 2013). Thus, the ability to predict ecological restoration outcomes based on the cause of disturbance and the means of intervention holds significant merit. James and Carrick (2016) in their contribution to this special issue, Towards quantitative dryland restoration models, present a "systems approach model," which is a quantitative, process-based method designed to predict restoration outcomes under different disturbance levels and management scenarios. This approach can serve as a framework for adaptive restoration management and influence the decision-making process through identifying key limitations to plant establishment, helping to assess potential solutions, and evaluating costs.

The understanding of key microclimate limitations to plant establishment following large-scale disturbance can aid in reconstructing suitable conditions to promote vegetative recovery. In their paper included in this issue, *Improving saltland revegetation through understanding the "recruitment niche": potential lessons for ecological restoration in extreme environments*, Barrett-Lennard et al. (2016) used a multidecade study of salt-land rehabilitation to illustrate how regeneration bottlenecks can be overcome using a variety of microsite modifications to contribute to improved plant establishment and return economic value to degraded landscapes.

The mechanization and streamlining of seed production, handling, and treatment techniques to produce "restoration ready" seeds combined with the use of machinery designed for soil stabilization, microsite modification, and precision seeding may present additional benefits to restoration efficiency and long-term cost savings. In their article, Flash flaming effectively removes appendages and improves the seed coating potential of grass florets, Guzzomi et al. (2016) highlight the benefits of inter-disciplinary collaboration through applying an engineering solution to improve seed handling and simplify the application of seed enhancement technologies.

Concluding Remarks

The recognition of the role that dryland regions play in supporting human and biological systems is disproportionately limited, relative to other ecosystems (Safriel et al. 2005; Reynolds et al. 2007). Issues of ecological degradation in these biomes have traditionally received little exposure due to the historic absence of focused international science programs—often compounded by their regional isolation. However, partially as a result of revenue from resource extraction, many dryland regions have gained the financial capacity to support and develop research-driven restoration programs, albeit those that are focused on comparatively small disturbance footprints. Recent collaborative advances in various disciplines that contribute to restoration ecology (relevant to drylands), combined with the recognition of their importance by industry, government, and the private sector, have resulted in substantial cross-continental collaboration and knowledge sharing. The concepts and data captured in this special issue of Restoration Ecology serve as an example of what can result from an international, multidisciplinary approach to ecological restoration, and provide impetus for the formation of a common framework for managing dryland systems. It is our hope that by combining scientific understanding and practical experience we can help shape policy and practice in order to improve restoration effectiveness on a global scale.

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