

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14

# RRAT Phase II Report

Dustin Haines  
University of Minnesota, Twin Cities

7 April 2007

## 15 Table of Contents

16	Table of Contents.....	2
17	Introduction.....	3
18	Background.....	3
19	Objectives.....	6
20	Restoration theory and practice.....	7
21	Riparian, stream, and river restoration.....	11
22	River health, rapid assessments, indicators and river classification.....	12
23	Expert systems and their use in natural resource management.....	16
24	Methods and Materials.....	18
25	Literature search and review.....	18
26	Expert selection & interviews.....	19
27	Software selection.....	21
28	Programming with Corvid.....	23
29	Model development.....	24
30	Site Descriptors, Indicators, Values, and Stressors.....	24
31	Building the knowledge base.....	27
32	Restoration indices and weights.....	27
33	Model testing and evaluation.....	27
34	Prototyping.....	27
35	Sensitivity analyses.....	28
36	Field testing.....	28
37	Results and Discussion.....	29
38	Model description.....	29
39	Knowledge base / decision trees.....	29
40	Indices & weights.....	32
41	Model testing.....	35
42	Conclusions.....	35
43	Recommendations and Future Work.....	36
44	Acknowledgements.....	40
45	Literature Cited.....	41
46	Appendix A. Supplementary river, stream, and riparian restoration information.....	52
47	Appendix B. Restoration experts interviewed.....	57
48	Appendix C. Questions for restoration experts.....	58
49	Appendix D. RRAT Field Data Sheet (Site Descriptors).....	60
50	Appendix E. RRAT Indicators.....	61
51	Appendix F. Indicator ranking explanations.....	64
52	Appendix G. Invasive non-native plant impact types.....	75
53	Appendix H. Site Values.....	76
54	Appendix I. Site Stressors.....	77
55	Appendix J. Source-Stressor Matrix.....	78
56	Appendix K. Flow charts and decision trees.....	82

57

## 58 **Introduction**

### 59 ***Background***

60 Managers of natural resource areas are increasingly faced with difficult decisions  
61 concerning restoration of disturbed habitats. Financial and workforce resources often limit these  
62 restoration efforts, and rarely can an agency afford to address all concerns within the region of  
63 interest. With limited resources, managers and scientists have to decide which areas will be  
64 targeted for restoration, and the restoration treatments to use in these areas. As an example, a  
65 large park with multiple degraded sites and different issues to consider at each of these sites can  
66 pose a real challenge to managers.

67 A broad range of approaches are used to make decisions like these, from well-researched  
68 expert opinions to gut feeling, with variable degrees of input from site visits, monitoring, data  
69 collection, and data analysis used to support the decision. A standardized approach including an  
70 analytical assessment of site characteristics, with a written or electronic record of all the steps  
71 taken along the way, would help make these decisions easier, scientifically defensible, and based  
72 on the best information available.

73 With these ideals in mind, the National Park Service (NPS) initiated the Restoration  
74 Rapid Assessment Tool (RRAT) project. The long-term goal of the NPS is to have a tool that  
75 will assist them with prioritizing and treating restoration areas in National Parks across the  
76 nation. This project is divided into three phases:

- 77 I. Develop a set of indicators that allow for rapidly quantifying the level of  
78 disturbance at a site, and for discrimination between sites.

79 II. Construct an analytical tool for prioritizing restoration projects based on the  
80 indicators developed in Phase I, and for recommending restoration methods or  
81 treatments.

82 III. Field test the tool and automate it for field use and delivery through on-line  
83 means.

84 The primary focus of this report is on Phase II, but elements of both Phases I and III will be  
85 covered as well.

86 Phase I of the RRAT consisted of the construction of a list of indicators, indicator rank  
87 descriptions, site values, and stressors (Appendices E, F, G & H), statistical tests to see if the  
88 RRAT indicators can distinguish between sites, and determination of whether or not the  
89 indicators and traditional methods of data collection correlate in site discrimination. Initial lists  
90 of indicators, site values and stressors used in the tool were written by Ron Hiebert, Pam  
91 Benjamin, Amy Richey and others at Northern Arizona University. Following this, an expert  
92 workshop was held in Las Vegas, Nevada in 2004 to focus on the indicators and rank  
93 descriptions. This workshop was critical in the RRAT development. Many of the indicators now  
94 used in the RRAT originated in this meeting, and the workshop members also changed existing  
95 indicators to make them more specific, and they clarified interpretations of the different ranking  
96 levels for each indicator. Statistical analyses were completed by Amy Richey (2005) for her  
97 Masters thesis at Northern Arizona University (NAU). The results of her research show that the  
98 indicators and traditional methods correlate well with each other regarding plant and animal  
99 communities, but hydrology and soils factors have proven to be more complex. Phase II (the  
100 project described in this report) uses these indicators, stressors and site values to rank sites and  
101 make general restoration recommendations. Phase III focuses on the end users of the RRAT,

102 including how the tool works in the field with users, the most effective means of data collection  
103 (paper vs. field tablets, etc.), and the automation of tool input, analysis, and output delivery and  
104 distribution of the RRAT expert system. This phase is being conducted by Talise Dow (a Masters  
105 student at NAU), who is field testing the data collection aspect of the tool with NPS personnel,  
106 and by Kathryn Thomas (U.S. Geological Survey), who is leading the automation aspects of the  
107 project.

108         The goal of having a tool that can be used within any National Park is best reached by  
109 developing a modular tool, as not all specific habitat types (such as rivers, lakes, prairies, etc.)  
110 have similar physical properties, controlling processes, and ecosystem functions, and they do not  
111 all respond identically to disturbances and restoration treatments. The RRAT was designed from  
112 the ground up to be applicable to many habitat types and ecosystems, but the structure of the  
113 expert system (the analytical model described in this report) was designed modularly, which  
114 makes it easy to modify and upgrade. Fields of data that are entered by the user, specifically the  
115 site descriptors, visual indicators, site values, and stressors (referred to as Variables within the  
116 RRAT), will generally be the same between habitat types and ecosystems. The logic used to  
117 make decisions within each habitat type, however, is contained within its own module, referred  
118 to as Logic Blocks or Command Blocks, and these modules can easily be added to or subtracted  
119 from the model. For more information on Variables, Logic Blocks, and Command Blocks, see  
120 the section in the Methods called “Programming with Corvid”.

121         The RRAT team decided to focus on riparian areas for developing the first module of the  
122 RRAT. Riparian systems were chosen due to their particular susceptibility to exotic plant  
123 invasions (Stohlgren et al. 1998), one of the primary disturbances that restoration ecologists have  
124 to contend with, and because they are among the most impacted by humans and in need of

125 restoration (Nilsson and Svedmark 2002). This module of the RRAT was designed for the user to  
126 include the actual aquatic habitat (the river or stream itself, as well as wetlands that are part of  
127 riparian areas) and all of the terrestrial habitat associated with the riparian area (see the section  
128 titled, “Riparian, stream, and river restoration” below) in the field data collection and the  
129 analysis that is done by the computer application. It was also developed to be applicable to all  
130 stream or river sizes. This module should not, however, be used for lakes or ponds—only lotic  
131 habitats (ones containing *flowing* water) were considered in its development.

132

### 133 **Objectives**

134 The primary objective of Phase II was to construct an analytical tool that will help the  
135 National Park Service prioritize riparian restoration projects/sites and provide information on  
136 potential treatments for those areas. In order to meet this objective, the following steps were  
137 taken:

- 138 1. Conduct restoration literature search and review
- 139 2. Determine appropriate restoration experts
- 140 3. Conduct expert interviews (knowledge elicitation)
- 141 4. Determine software (i.e., expert system tool) to be used
- 142 5. Construct knowledge base
- 143 6. Program knowledge base into expert system tool
- 144 7. Conduct rapid prototyping and sensitivity analyses
- 145 8. Evaluate final prototype using expert validation

146 Some of these steps were done in the order listed. For example, the knowledge base could not be  
147 constructed without first reviewing literature and/or interviewing at least one expert. Other steps

148 occurred throughout the project, including literature reviews and expert interviews, and rapid  
149 prototyping and sensitivity analyses typically occur together.

150

## 151 ***Restoration theory and practice***

152 Restoration ecology is a relatively young science. As opposed to well-established science  
153 disciplines that have had full integration of theory with practical application for many years,  
154 ecological principles have not always been applied to restoration projects, and research  
155 ecologists have infrequently used restoration ecology for advancing theory (Palmer et al. 1997).

156 Over the last 16 years, however, there has been rapid growth in the number of papers focusing on  
157 restoration ecology in peer-reviewed journals (Young et al. 2005), and the field is also now  
158 brimming with journals, books, reports, and web sites on theoretical and practical aspects of  
159 restoration (as an example, see the list of references and resources pertaining solely to river and  
160 riparian restoration in Appendix A). As an indication of the maturing state of restoration ecology,  
161 there is an encouraging number of ecological concepts that are understood and used by  
162 restoration practitioners, including ones that are newly being incorporated into restoration  
163 practice: competition, niches, succession, recruitment limitation, facilitation, mutualisms,  
164 herbivory/predation, disturbance, island biogeography, ecosystem function, ecotypes, and  
165 genetic diversity (Young, et al. 2005). Despite the improving links between theory and practice,  
166 there is still room for improvement, as some restoration decisions are still made using gut instinct  
167 and controlled solely by political and budgetary constraints without regard to ecological factors.  
168 Plus, restoration ecologists have been prone to fall into two pitfalls: 1) assuming that there is a  
169 single reference condition that should guide restoration, and 2) viewing restoration as a single,  
170 discrete event (Pickett and Parker 1994).

171           There are some excellent resources available for restoration ecologists and practitioners,  
172 including the SER International Primer on Ecological Restoration (Society for Ecological  
173 Restoration 2004), which gives an outline of what attributes a restored ecosystem should have.  
174 Developing and following effective guidelines for planning and implementing restorations is  
175 another way to improve restoration effectiveness. Hobbs and Norton (1996) identified seven  
176 elements that are “essential for the successful integration of restoration into land management:

- 177           (1) Identify processes leading to degradation or decline.
- 178           (2) Develop methods to reverse or ameliorate the degradation or decline.
- 179           (3) Determine realistic goals for reestablishing species and functional ecosystems,  
180                 recognizing both the ecological limitations on restoration and the socioeconomic  
181                 and cultural barriers to its implementation.
- 182           (4) Develop easily observable measures of success.
- 183           (5) Develop practical techniques for implementing these restoration goals at a scale  
184                 commensurate with the problem.
- 185           (6) Document and communicate these techniques for broader inclusion in land use  
186                 planning and management strategies.
- 187           (7) Monitor key system variables, assess progress of restoration relative to the  
188                 agreed-upon goals, and adjust procedures if necessary.”

189 Hobbs and Norton (1996) then suggested that “restoration activities frequently occur with little  
190 or no consideration of these processes.” Regardless of whether or not this has improved in the  
191 last 10 years, suggestions like these have at least been more thoroughly developed. As an  
192 example, the Society for Ecological Restoration (2004) published a list of 51 guidelines in their  
193 “Guidelines for Developing and Managing Ecological Restoration Projects”, from initial site



194 selection in the beginning, to publicizing and writing about the restoration in the final stages.  
195 These principles are undoubtedly helpful with planning and implementing restorations,  
196 especially when restorationists pay close attention to ecological theory, and when they set  
197 appropriate, realistic goals.

198         One concept that is frequently used to establish restoration goals, determine the  
199 restoration potential of areas, and measure the success of restoration efforts, is the reference  
200 condition (White and Walker 1997). The reference condition relates to a historical or pre-  
201 disturbance state, typically before humans had a significant impact on the area (Galatowitsch  
202 1990). Determining the true historical condition is fraught with problems, most notably the lack  
203 of good data on condition of the biotic and abiotic elements. The reference condition is also  
204 based upon nearby areas that have desirable characteristics, typically areas that are considered  
205 pristine or undisturbed. It may not truly represent historical conditions, but it can represent  
206 conditions that may be achievable. Three kinds of reference information are usually used to infer  
207 changes in the ecology of an area: current conditions, historic records, and legacy/latency. The  
208 last item deals with things that are detectable on the landscape that give some information as to  
209 past conditions on the site, including fire scars and geomorphological features (such as river  
210 meanders) (White and Walker 1997).

211         Another commonly used, but usually poorly defined, concept is that of restoration  
212 potential. Essentially it deals with the likelihood of restoration or revegetation being successful,  
213 whether through natural or human-directed means. Researchers mention such aspects as the  
214 hydrologic ability of the soils to support native plants (Harris and Olson 1997), the ability of  
215 plants to reestablish, grow, and reproduce rapidly (Pywell et al. 2003, Richardson et al. 2005, Orr

216 and Stanley 2006), the ability of plants to deal with stress and disturbance (de Gruchy et al.  
217 2001), and the appropriateness of the habitat for a specific vegetation type (Bolliger et al. 2004).

218 Restoration goals and objectives are not only based on science and ecological theory,  
219 they are also a value-based activity (Davis and Slobodkin 2004, Winterhalder et al. 2004).  
220 Values must be considered in the restoration equation, especially in the National Parks, where  
221 there can be an intimate connection with civilization, such as in the urban parks in the  
222 Washington D.C. area and the northeast, and where there are unique natural features and  
223 communities of plants and animals. In a broader sense, it can be very helpful to think of  
224 problems in terms of values, as opposed to alternatives. According to Keeney (1992), “Value-  
225 focused thinking involves starting at the best and working to make it a reality. Alternative-  
226 focused thinking is starting with what is readily available and taking the best of the lot.” A  
227 restoration project may turn into an alternative-focused decision if only site-specific options are  
228 evaluated, but when broader, science-based concepts and human values are both considered, the  
229 solution can take a path that goes beyond the obvious alternatives.

230 These three concepts have been central to the development of the RRAT. First, for the  
231 indicators to be properly scored, the reference condition or desired future condition must be  
232 known or agreed upon. Second, the restoration potential is used to know the likelihood of  
233 restoration efforts being successful. And third, it is essential during the establishment of  
234 restoration goals to keep in mind the wide range of values that are inherent in restoration, from  
235 human-centric to nature-centric values.

236

## 237 ***Riparian, stream, and river restoration***

238           Early in the RRAT planning, it was decided to focus on riparian areas for initial  
239 development of the tool. (Naiman et al. 2005) define riparian areas as “transitional semiterrestrial  
240 areas regularly influenced by fresh water, usually extending from the edges of water bodies to  
241 the edges of upland communities.” Thus, riparian areas are not referred to in terms of specific  
242 distances from the riverbank, or in specific corridor widths, but they are usually defined by the  
243 habitat that is directly influenced by the surface water and groundwater along a river. In many  
244 areas this can be visually delineated by the extent of vegetation that relies on either saturated  
245 soils or higher water availability than that which is available to surrounding upland vegetation—  
246 the riparian vegetation would likely not exist in that spot if it were not for the presence of the  
247 river, its floodwaters, or its associated groundwater. When considering factors that influence a  
248 riparian community, one must step back and get a landscape perspective. Just as a river cannot be  
249 removed in theory or practice from its watershed (Hynes 1975), the riparian area cannot be  
250 separated from its river and the surrounding landscape. In fact, many factors influence riparian  
251 areas, including those at the site (erosion, physical disturbance, etc.), upstream from the site  
252 (sediment, pollutants, seeds floating in the water, etc.), downstream from the site (headcutting,  
253 non-native fauna traveling upstream, etc.), and in the surrounding landscape (nutrient and  
254 pollutants leaching from surrounding terrestrial areas, etc.). Therefore, for developing the RRAT,  
255 I focused on both riparian and channel restorations of rivers and streams. For simplification,  
256 within this document I will refer to rivers, even though both streams (usually defined as “small  
257 rivers” in dictionaries) and rivers are referred to in nearly equal proportions in restoration  
258 literature.

259 Major changes have occurred to the focus of river restorations in the past decade (Susan  
260 Galatowitsch, pers. comm.). Historically, river restorations were either focused on improving  
261 fish habitat (usually by modification of flow through the installation of in-stream structures), or  
262 they attempted to return the river to its “original” state. While the two historical approaches are  
263 still used, they are usually part of more comprehensive restoration plans or goals. Now most  
264 river restoration projects attempt to establish conditions that are both self-regulating and  
265 integrated within the surrounding landscape by focusing on one or more of the following:  
266 channel shape and meander modification, bank stabilization, native plantings and/or seedings,  
267 exotic plant removal, water quality improvement, dam removal, and reintroduction or  
268 encouragement of riparian or aquatic animals, especially fish.

269 Thanks to the popularity of riparian and river restoration work, there is a considerable  
270 amount of information available on these subjects (Appendix A). Three references that have  
271 been used by experts I talked with, and that were particularly useful during development of the  
272 RRAT, include *Stream Corridor Restoration : Principles, Processes, and Practices* (Federal  
273 Interagency Stream Restoration Working Group (U.S.) 1998), *Stream Hydrology : An*  
274 *Introduction for Ecologists* (Gordon et al. 2004), and *Stream Restoration Design Handbook*  
275 *(Draft 2)* (USDA NRCS 2005).

276

### 277 ***River health, rapid assessments, indicators and river classification***

278 The analogy of health is frequently used to describe the condition of rivers, as it helps  
279 give some people an anthropomorphic framework that they can understand, but it is not always  
280 clear precisely what is meant by “health” or how it is measured (Norris and Thoms 1999). It is  
281 clear, however, that people have the desire to “fix” rivers that are not healthy, and that there

282 needs to be some way to determine how to know when a river is unhealthy and how to heal it.  
283 This is frequently a difficult task. While it can be very obvious visually that a river or riparian  
284 area needs rehabilitation (e.g., presence of a streambank failure or an invasion of non-native  
285 plants), it is not as easy to visually determine problems with water chemistry and quality or  
286 populations of aquatic organisms. Even if these parameters are quantified, it can still be very  
287 difficult to know what needs to be done to rectify them.

288         Many river restorations are conducted with the help of river classification systems. These  
289 are attempts to put river reaches into different categories that capture key characteristics of the  
290 river. This often includes such things as the meander pattern, degree of channel braiding,  
291 streambed shape, rate of flow, parent material, and riparian plant community, to name just a few.  
292 Classifications are supposed to inform people of the “correct” properties that the river should  
293 conform to in the given reach, which can help with goal-setting in river restoration projects.  
294 Thus, some classification systems have been applied widely in river restoration projects. An  
295 excellent and well-used classification system was created by Cowardin et al. (1979), which is  
296 frequently used as a guideline for riparian vegetation assessments, especially within the U.S. Fish  
297 and Wildlife Service. This report covers all systems in the United States that are governed  
298 chiefly by water bodies, including marine, estuarine, riverine, lacustrine, and palustrine areas,  
299 and uses a hierarchical method to subdivide each into subsystems and classes for describing  
300 specific zones, substrates, and plant communities in these systems. While it was written for  
301 conducting habitat inventories and not specifically for informing restoration projects, this report  
302 is very useful for using common terminology in describing habitats and vegetation communities  
303 in riparian areas. One of the most popular river classification systems in the United States is the  
304 Rosgen Classification method (Rosgen 1996), but it is also one of the most highly criticized

305 methods as well. It is considered a good tool for standardizing descriptions of river reaches, but  
306 there have been spectacular failures of restoration projects that used the Rosgen Classification  
307 (Malakoff 2004), and it does not pay as much attention to hydrogeological processes as some  
308 would prefer (Miller and Ritter 1996, Goodwin 1999, Juracek and Fitzpatrick 2003, Simon et al.  
309 2005). According to Goodwin et al. (1997), it is more useful for restoration purposes to identify  
310 future processes than to describe current forms, which is what the Rosgen method focuses on. A  
311 number of assessment methods do focus on processes (Montgomery and Buffington 1997, Hauer  
312 and Smith 1998, Newson et al. 1998, Hurley and Jensen 2001, Kondolf et al. 2003, Brierley and  
313 Fryirs 2005, Snelder et al. 2005, Hey 2006), so there are plenty of alternatives available.

314         In addition to classification systems, environmental assessment techniques are commonly  
315 employed to get some measure of river condition or health, which can help in goal setting and  
316 the restoration actions to achieve those goals. These techniques are known under a number of  
317 names, such as habitat assessment, rapid assessment, bioassessment, ecological risk assessment,  
318 and environmental stress assessment, to name a few (Gordon, et al. 2004). Regardless of the  
319 name, most have a common element: the use of the indicator. Indicators are used to reflect the  
320 condition of ecological functions, structures, and/or processes more quickly and more easily than  
321 traditional parameters (such as recording information on many plant and animal species), and  
322 they can accurately reflect the stress or health of the ecosystem. As an example, aquatic  
323 invertebrates are often used as indicators of water quality, as they are very sensitive to changes in  
324 water chemistry (Norris and Thoms 1999), and the invertebrate community can be much easier  
325 and faster to sample than a suite of water chemistry parameters, which do not directly tell you  
326 what influence they have on the river system.

327 Indicators are not always the best answer, though. It can take a lot of work to find  
328 appropriate indicators, and to validate direct links between the indicators and the stressors  
329 (Boulton 1999). Researchers are putting considerable effort into proving links between stressors  
330 and indicators of ecosystem health, especially for aquatic systems (National Health and  
331 Environmental Effects Research Laboratory (U.S.) 2002, Nelson and Roline 2003, Niemi et al.  
332 2004, Serveiss et al. 2004, de Zwart et al. 2006, Franzle 2006). Additionally, there can be a lot of  
333 personal bias in the indicators that are used, the response time of the indicator on both spatial and  
334 temporal scales can be problematic, and the reliability of indicators is not always good (Boulton  
335 1999).

336 Unfortunately, there are nearly as many assessment and classification methods as there  
337 are rivers, and anyone unfamiliar with the field would quickly be overwhelmed by the abundance  
338 of options. However, there are some resources that can help one select appropriate methods for  
339 different situations. As an example, there are published reviews of assessment and classification  
340 methods (Boulton 1999, Innis et al. 2000, Verdonschot 2000, National Research Council (U.S.)  
341 2002, Gordon, et al. 2004, Richey 2005). Gordon et al. (2004) also provide an excellent  
342 introduction to different river assessment approaches that are in use worldwide, the specific  
343 settings and habitats that they are designed to be used in, and their advantages and disadvantages.  
344 Many resource agencies also have specific methods or procedures for river assessment or  
345 classification, as well as specific restoration guidelines and prescriptions, that are well  
346 established and widely used in the agency and/or tailored to their specific region (see the “US  
347 Government” and “State organizations” sections of Appendix A for a brief listing of links to  
348 guidelines followed by various agencies).

349           The primary goal of the RRAT is to provide a very rapid method of assessing sites for the  
350 explicit purpose of prioritization of restoration projects. The RRAT is not intended to circumvent  
351 or replace other assessment methods, especially bioassessments that require rigorous data  
352 collection, or river classification systems that are currently being used to design restoration  
353 projects. This is especially true with regard to critical habitat for species that are listed as  
354 sensitive, threatened or endangered by the US government or any state—federal and state  
355 agencies often have strict guidelines regarding these areas, and these guidelines should always  
356 take precedence over RRAT assessments and recommendations. Nor is the RRAT designed to  
357 validate indicators, or to calculate the likelihood of stressor-effect relationships. It is, however,  
358 designed so that results from bioassessments, as well as links between stressors and indicators  
359 that have been determined from other research, can easily be added to the model.

360

### 361 ***Expert systems and their use in natural resource management***

362           Computer programming has been used with great success for analyzing complex  
363 problems, especially ones with many variables. The goal to create computers that can simulate  
364 aspects of human thought processes, often referred to as artificial intelligence, led to the  
365 development of expert systems in the 1980's. Expert systems use special programming, called an  
366 inference engine, which allows computers to give responses similar to what an expert might give  
367 when faced with a problem. One simple example of this technology is automated phone systems  
368 that direct your call to the proper person at a large company. The automated system asks you  
369 questions, you touch the button that seems appropriate to your goal, and usually, after a few  
370 questions, you are directed to the right person. More sophisticated expert systems are used for



371 such applications as online product selection guides, controlling machinery in factories, and for  
372 diagnosing diseases from the symptoms displayed by a patient (Jackson 1999).

373         Expert systems are constructed by gathering information from experts on the logic they  
374 use to make their decisions, and programming a computer with that logic. The process of  
375 gathering this kind of information from experts is called knowledge elicitation (a.k.a., knowledge  
376 acquisition, knowledge engineering, and decision analysis) and the person who takes on this role  
377 is called the knowledge engineer. The structured information that an expert uses to make  
378 decisions within a particular subject is called a knowledge base. This normally includes the  
379 variables that are considered in the decision process, the logic that is used to make decisions, the  
380 decisions themselves, and explanations for the variables (why those variables are important). The  
381 knowledge base is coded into a computer program called an expert system (a.k.a., expert system  
382 shell). Modern expert systems are frequently incorporated into decision support systems, which  
383 are used extensively by businesses and corporations to make wise management and economic  
384 decisions.

385         Using expert systems for natural resource management, ecological assessments, and  
386 ecological modeling is not a new concept (Noble 1987, Starfield et al. 1989, Johnston et al. 1990,  
387 Shields and Aziz 1992, Johnston et al. 1993, Sojda et al. 1994, Breen et al. 1995, Prach et al.  
388 1999, Reynolds 1999, Sojda et al. 2002, Saunders et al. 2005). As an example, the Ecosystem  
389 Management Decision Support (EMDS) system, a decision support system designed by the US  
390 Forest Service for the integration of landscape evaluation and planning, has been successfully  
391 applied to watershed assessments and management in the northwestern US (Jensen et al. 2000,  
392 Reynolds et al. 2000, Reynolds and Hessburg 2005). It is an excellent example of integrating

393 geographic information systems (GIS) and ecological/monitoring data with decision analysis  
394 techniques, and should be referred to during future development of the RRAT.

395         Decision analysis has been used to prioritize prairie restorations in Ohio (Cipollini et al.  
396 2005), and decision support systems have been used for planning stream restorations in the  
397 Netherlands (Verdonschot 2000, Verdonschot and Nijboer 2002). The authors focused on  
398 assemblages of macrofauna within streams as an indicator of water quality and quantity change,  
399 habitat loss, and human interference. The ranking of these indicators, in combination with stream  
400 management and human impact in the area, are used in a decision tree to make general  
401 restoration recommendations (Verdonschot and Nijboer 2002).

402         Equally useful in some resource management decisions are risk analysis and assessments,  
403 especially in cases where there is potential for damage to resources, property, or life, and where  
404 there are legal ramifications of the decisions (Johnson and Huggins 1999, Burgman 2005, Forrest  
405 et al. 2006). I did not incorporate elements of risk analysis into the RRAT, as the information  
406 used to make risk assessments tends to be highly quantitative, and the decisions based upon  
407 extensive collection of field data and statistical analyses of these data.

408

## 409 **Methods and Materials**

### 410 ***Literature search and review***

411         To compile information on how decisions are made in riparian and river restorations, I  
412 first turned to primary and secondary literature. I conducted literature searches using  
413 combinations of the following terms in title, keyword, and abstract searches: riparian, river,  
414 stream, buffer, restore, restoration, rehabilitate, rehabilitation, reconstruct, recover, repair,

415 regenerate, regeneration, revegetate, revegetation, intervention, management, potential, priority,  
416 prioritize, prioritization. The search included journal articles, books, reports (published by  
417 governmental organizations, research institutions, non-profit groups, and private restoration  
418 consulting businesses), and web sites. I conducted searches on expert system, knowledge  
419 engineer, knowledge elicitation, decision support, decision analysis, risk analysis, and risk  
420 assessment to learn about expert systems development and decision support systems, especially  
421 those that are used in natural resource management. I also conducted searches for literature on  
422 environmental, biological, and ecological assessment techniques, river and stream classification,  
423 geomorphic classification, ecosystem stress and ecosystem health to learn about past and current  
424 methods used in assessing natural habitats and determining their condition.

425 I reviewed these sources and pulled out methodologies and concepts that are used to  
426 guide decisions in restoration projects, especially those dealing with restoration potential,  
427 restoration/site/habitat prioritization, river classification, and stressors. Some of these concepts  
428 were used to structure and guide, at least initially, the expert interviews that I conducted. I also  
429 determined appropriate methods for knowledge elicitation from the expert systems literature.

430

### 431 ***Expert selection & interviews***

432 Two of the first steps in the knowledge acquisition process are to determine who the  
433 experts are and how to most effectively understand the experts' reasoning process. To create a  
434 contact list of potential experts to interview, I used both a literature survey and word-of-mouth.  
435 For the literature survey, I compiled author names from the bibliography I created (described  
436 above) and ranked them by number of publications for which they were an author. I selected  
437 individuals whose names appeared in at least 3 publications and whose work or research seemed

438 applicable to the RRAT project (especially work relating to prioritization, restoration potential,  
439 and application of assessment and stream classification techniques to restoration). I also searched  
440 for highly cited authors in riparian, stream, and river restoration. I finally used word-of-mouth  
441 references from restoration experts that I interviewed to find additional contacts. A table of the  
442 experts I interviewed can be found in Appendix B.

443         One of the challenges in creating expert systems is the availability of the experts  
444 (Greenwell 1988, Scott et al. 1991, Hart 1992), which is the same reason that expert systems are  
445 often created in the first place: a well-designed expert system can, in some cases, take the place  
446 of experts who have limited time or availability. While it was time consuming and difficult to  
447 find experts who had time to meet with me, I was fortunate to be able to meet with eight experts,  
448 and I met with several of them more than once.

449         The most commonly used method of knowledge acquisition involves interviews with  
450 experts (Greenwell 1988). I used a structured interview process with specific lines of inquiry,  
451 partly based upon my literature review of restoration concepts, but also upon suggestions in  
452 expert systems literature regarding types of questions that are useful for determining the logic  
453 used to make decisions (Appendix C). Another recommendation that I followed from the expert  
454 systems literature was to make audio recordings of my interviews. While I took notes during my  
455 interviews, having a recording allowed me to go back and listen to parts that I missed, or parts  
456 that were unclear from the notes. Digital audio archives of the interviews will be kept with  
457 RRAT project leaders.

458

459 **Software selection**

460 The RRAT automation team conducted a review of 45 currently available expert systems  
461 in 2005. The team developed a set of criteria that was used for final expert system application  
462 selection. These criteria included:

- 463 1. Rule Based Architecture – The expert system should be designed to use “If-Then-Else”  
464 rules and logic. Some expert systems are designed to use Case-Based Reasoning, where  
465 information supplied by the user is compared with pre-set conditions, and decisions are  
466 made based upon the most similar case to that supplied by the user. This was deemed  
467 inappropriate for the RRAT.
- 468 2. Open Architecture with Microsoft and ESRI – The expert system should be able to have  
469 integration with Microsoft programs (especially Excel or Access) and ESRI software.  
470 These would help integrate the RRAT with databases and GIS applications.
- 471 3. Capable of tabular input/output – The expert system should be able to read from and  
472 write to tab-delimited text files and spreadsheet files if possible.
- 473 4. Licensing cost – The expert system should be inexpensive or free to distribute among  
474 many users nationally, at least in a format that the user can use to run the model and  
475 receive output.

476 In addition to these main criteria, other aspects of the available programs and their companies  
477 were considered:

- 478 • Rule-based and frame-based abilities:
  - 479 ○ Rule-based expert systems use IF-THEN rules to make decisions. This is a  
480 common characteristic of most expert systems.

481           ○ Frame-based expert systems use data structures with typical knowledge about  
482           a particular object. For example, an object called *Person* might have the  
483           characteristics *name*, *weight*, *height*, and *age*. The expert system programmer  
484           uses these objects as a basis for analysis, design and implementation, and the  
485           object is usually a concept, abstraction, or thing with distinct purpose for the  
486           particular problem. The expert system itself then makes decisions based upon  
487           these objects, typically selecting the object that is the best fit or solution to the  
488           problem. This is also known as a case-based expert system.

489       • Ability to do both forward and backward chaining:

490           ○ Forward-chaining is a data-driven process where a program is run in the order  
491           in which the lines of code are assembled in the program, and the same data are  
492           always collected regardless if they are needed to obtain an answer. In an  
493           expert system using forward chaining, the same questions are always asked,  
494           and they are asked in the same order.

495           ○ Backward-chaining is an answer-driven process, where the expert system  
496           looks for the quickest way to get an answer, and only asks those questions that  
497           are necessary to get a quick answer. In an expert system using backward  
498           chaining, it does not necessarily always ask the same questions, and they are  
499           not asked in the same order.

500       • Reasoning – some form of fuzzy logic capability would be good

501       • Personal Digital Assistant (PDA) compatibility

502       • Easy to modify and expand

503       • Ability to integrate with web at later date

504           • Product and company stability

505           After careful consideration of all the products available, the decision was made to  
506 purchase the program Corvid, by Exsys (Albuquerque, NM). This application appeared to satisfy  
507 all elements we were looking for, and the program has been in development for over 20 years,  
508 indicating excellent product stability.

509

### 510 ***Programming with Corvid***

511           The design of Corvid makes it very easy to modify different sections without needing to  
512 change the structure or programming of the entire model. This modularity is a critical  
513 characteristic of any model or program that needs to be changed or updated regularly. It also fits  
514 very well with one of the heuristics of model development: to build a suite of models instead of  
515 one all-purpose model (Nicolson et al. 2002). While this expert system runs as one model in  
516 practice, it is actually a suite of models that easily fit into one package.

517           There are three main tools with which one builds an expert system in Corvid: Variables,  
518 Logic Blocks, and Command Blocks. Variables are either values that are asked of the user at run  
519 time, or that are calculated internally when the model is run. Logic Blocks control how the  
520 variables are used, and how decisions in the system are made based upon the user input and the  
521 logic of the system. This is primarily where the knowledge base (containing the logic that experts  
522 use to make decisions) is constructed. Command Blocks control how the Logic Blocks are used  
523 in the system, the order in which different blocks or variables are used, and where and when the  
524 system starts and stops. Command Blocks can control other Command Blocks, and even Logic  
525 Blocks can be set to control Command Blocks if desired. This degree of flexibility makes Corvid  
526 very powerful analytically and structurally.

527

528 ***Model development***

529 **Site Descriptors, Indicators, Values, and Stressors**

530 The development of the RRAT analytical model described in this report was guided by an  
531 evaluation of potential model input parameters that was conducted by another team prior to the  
532 development of the analytic model. The inputs and the techniques used to develop them will be  
533 presented in the following paragraphs.

534 The first set of input parameters collected for the RRAT are environmental site  
535 descriptors. These include the identifying information such as date of evaluation and site name,,  
536 information on the site’s size, accessibility, topography, soils, and hydrology, and the extent and  
537 type of obvious disturbances (Appendix D). The last two types of information are important in  
538 determining the restoration feasibility of a site.

539 The second set of input parameters forms the core of the RRAT. The format used for  
540 these was based upon *Interpreting Indicators of Rangeland Health* (Pellant et al. 2005), which is  
541 currently in widespread use on grazing lands of the western US. This system uses a set of visual  
542 indicators that can be rapidly scored in the field to determine the relative condition or “health” of  
543 the site. The indicators are ranked based upon the departure from expected natural condition or  
544 management goal, on the following scale:

- 545 • None to Slight
- 546 • Slight to Moderate
- 547 • Moderate
- 548 • Moderate to Extreme
- 549 • Extreme to Total



550 We modified these categories slightly for simplification purposes to read as: none, low,  
551 moderate, high, and severe.

552 In the initial stages of development, spearheaded by Pamela Benjamin (2004), there were  
553 65 indicators in the tool. This list was modified at an expert workshop in the winter of 2004, and  
554 at another workshop in April 2006. Modifications were also made based upon soil, hydrology,  
555 and restoration expert consultations, and upon peer-reviewed literature and other publications.  
556 The current list of 48 indicators (Appendix E) should be viewed as a working list that can be  
557 modified when necessary for different parks or ecoregions. Essential to the consistent, accurate  
558 scoring of indicators is a description for each ranking (Appendix F). This was developed in  
559 concert with the indicators (Richey 2005), and should also be viewed as suggestions that can be  
560 modified to suit each region or park. In its current version, the indicators used in the computer  
561 application cannot be modified by the user, but future versions may allow the user to enter their  
562 own indicators into the application. One of the indicators under the Invasive Non-native Plant  
563 heading, titled “Type of impact of invasive nonnative plants”, references a separate list of impact  
564 types (Appendix G). The user can select one or more of these impact types and give a general  
565 rank for the severity of these impacts as with the other indicators. I assembled this list from a  
566 paper by Levine et al. (Levine et al. 2003) that discusses the reasons for impacts from invasive  
567 plants and breaks down the impact types in a logical manner.

568 The third and fourth sets of input parameters are site values (Appendix H) and site  
569 stressors (Appendix I), respectively. These were also developed during the expert workshops.  
570 The site value list includes eight items that capture broad themes faced by NPS managers and  
571 was based upon the concepts presented in the Restoration Theory and Practice section of this  
572 report. Site stressors, factors that can negatively impact a site, are selected by the user as likely

573 reasons for departure in the indicators. The selection of a stressor, however, is not proof of  
574 causation between the stressor and an indicator. A more detailed list of specific stressors that  
575 relate to the general anthropogenic sources, called the Source-Stressor matrix, is in Appendix J.  
576 This is a working list of anthropogenic sources, specific stressors, explanations for the stressors,  
577 and a matrix showing potential direct relationships between the sources and the stressors, derived  
578 partly from Table 3.3 (pages 3-27 and 3-28) and Table 8.8 (pages 8-85 and 8-86) in the Stream  
579 Corridor Restoration manual (Federal Interagency Stream Restoration Working Group (U.S.)  
580 1998). This framework was created to help people think about sources and stressors, and is not  
581 meant as proof or necessary indication of links between them. This matrix has been incorporated  
582 into the computer application so that the user can identify a more specific source of stress, rather  
583 than simply stating that “Agriculture” is the source of stress, which may not be useful in deciding  
584 what should be done to remove the stressor.

585         One approach that appears to be unique to the RRAT (in comparison to other assessment  
586 methods) is the inclusion of future *potentials* of the sites. This is assessed in relation to each  
587 indicator by including a data field called “Desired Future Rating”, for which the user ranks the  
588 degree of departure for the indicator based upon the management goal (Appendix E). Similarly,  
589 Site Stressors are each ranked considering both current impacts and projected future impacts  
590 (Appendix I). In the Site Values module of the tool, the user not only ranks the current condition  
591 of the site, but also the potential future condition (Appendix H).

592

593

594 **Building the knowledge base**

595 I followed recommendations and guidelines from modeling literature to construct the  
596 knowledge base for the expert system (Plant and Stone 1991, Starfield and Bleloch 1991,  
597 Starfield et al. 1994, D'Erchia et al. 2001, Nicolson, et al. 2002). I first made an outline of the  
598 major concepts used to make restoration decisions from the expert interviews and the literature,  
599 and used this outline to construct decision trees, which are series of questions, potential answers  
600 to those questions, and the decisions that the answers lead to. The answers and decisions follow a  
601 “If, Then, Else” logical format, which is easily coded into logical statements in an expert system.

602 **Restoration indices and weights**

603 I developed a set of indices to summarize the model results, as opposed to ranking the  
604 sites on an arbitrary, linear scale from high to low restoration priority. These indices generally  
605 reflected concepts from restoration literature and concepts found useful by restoration  
606 practitioners, and the indices were determined to be useful in the expert workshops. I also  
607 employed weights in calculating values for the indices. Weights are commonly applied in  
608 decision analysis systems to give various levels of importance to variables or rules in specific  
609 settings (Jimenez et al. 2003, Delgado and Sendra 2004, Cipollini, et al. 2005).

610  
611

612 ***Model testing and evaluation***

613 **Prototyping**

614 One of the primary heuristics in model development is the necessity of rapid prototyping  
615 (Starfield and Bleloch 1991, Starfield, et al. 1994, Nicolson, et al. 2002). Only after one develops

616 a prototype and views its output can one see how the model actually works, which allows one to  
617 think about the concept or system that one is trying to model. This leads to intermittently  
618 changing and testing the model, all the while incrementally improving the model as well as  
619 improving one's understanding of the problem at hand.

## 620 **Sensitivity analyses**

621 According to Nicolson et al. (2002), “sensitivity analysis is the only available means of  
622 determining what goes into the model and what level of detail is necessary.” A sensitivity  
623 analysis is conducted by testing the influence of a single parameter or variable on model output  
624 by changing its value and running the model repeatedly until one understands how the model  
625 responds through the full range of that variable. This can be done with several variables in  
626 concert as well as a single variable. In addition to testing variables, one also needs to test the  
627 influence of the assumptions and educated guesses that are programmed into the model on how  
628 the model operates (Nicolson, et al. 2002). Sensitivity analyses are conducted after a working  
629 prototype is constructed, but rapid prototyping can also occur based upon the results of  
630 sensitivity analyses—if a sensitivity analysis indicates that the way a model responds to a  
631 specific variable needs to be modified, then a new prototype needs to be developed based upon  
632 these results.

## 633 **Field testing**

634 As this tool is designed for field use by a wide range of users, it was essential to both test  
635 it in the field under realistic conditions, and to get user feedback on the format of data entry.  
636 Field testing of the site descriptors and indicators, and what users thought of these variables, was  
637 conducted by Amy Richey during initial development of the tool, and Talise Dow conducted

638 extensive field evaluations of the data forms in 2006 at numerous parks, with several surveyors  
639 working at multiple sites. This was not a field test of the computer application, but the data will  
640 be used for further prototyping of the model (field testing is frequently a part of prototyping).  
641 According to Sojda (Sojda 2007), decision support tools need to be empirically evaluated,  
642 especially to determine if they are actually useful for the end user, and to assess whether or not  
643 they address the intended purpose. Analysis of these data using the computer application will  
644 enable comparisons among users, comparisons between model output and user assessments of  
645 sites, and usefulness of the tool to the end user. Additional field sampling will be required to  
646 develop the RRAT for other habitat types, especially more terrestrial areas that do not have  
647 riverine or wetland influences.

648

## 649 **Results and Discussion**

### 650 ***Model description***

#### 651 **Knowledge base / decision trees**

652 My primary goal in constructing the logic of the RRAT was to use scientific as well as  
653 pragmatic principles that restoration ecologists, hydrogeological engineers, and practitioners use.  
654 In the interest of making the model broadly applicable, I did not include the level of detail or  
655 types of decisions that are unique to one park, state, or area of the country. The logic used to  
656 build the model is therefore based on broad concepts, and the model is strictly designed to use  
657 rapid assessment data for making comparisons between sites, not for selecting detailed, site-  
658 specific restoration treatments.

659           The challenge in doing this is that ecologists, engineers, and practitioners often focus on  
660 very different things. Ecologists typically focus on factors and processes that influence the biota.  
661 Engineers focus on parent material, channel morphology, stream flow rates (flood, minimum,  
662 and base flows), erosion, and sedimentation. Practitioners have to consider political, fiscal, and  
663 logistics of restoration, while trying to satisfy all parties and get the best “bang for the buck”.  
664 This is, of course, a simplification of what different professionals consider; anyone doing  
665 riparian or river restoration will be dealing with most of these issues on some level. It does,  
666 however, help illustrate the difficulty of determining common concepts. The principles that are  
667 hereafter described in this section are not necessarily applicable to all sites, but they give a basis  
668 for the decisions and provide the user with concepts that may guide their decisions.

669           One principle that is widely agreed upon is the relationship of the longitudinal location of  
670 the site on the river to the difficulty of restoring the site (Gordon, et al. 2004). Generally, areas  
671 within the headwaters of a river are highly erosional, which makes bank stability, sediment  
672 loads, and scouring difficult to deal with. On the other end, in the deposition zone of a river  
673 (typically slow-moving, meandering rivers), sedimentation processes are important. Since one is  
674 effectively dealing with all of the inputs (and problems) from upstream, restoration in these  
675 deposition areas is very challenging. The transfer zones, where sedimentation is roughly equal to  
676 deposition, are typically believed to be the easiest to restore.

677           Another common principle is the need to have a hydrological regime that can actually  
678 support riparian vegetation. Without this, seedings and plantings in a restoration project may fail.  
679 Soil moisture, which is at least partly determined by slope of the river channel and the adjacent  
680 upland, as well as aspect of the land, can be estimated using GIS models and has been used as a  
681 proxy for restoration potential (Harris et al. 1997).

682           The size of a site and its proximity to existing lightly impacted riparian areas (reference  
683 sites) are also seen as influencing the restoration potential of a site. In short, this relates to habitat  
684 fragmentation and proximity to native plant seed sources. Usually, the larger the site, and the  
685 closer it is located to a pristine site, the higher the restoration potential will be, both for plants  
686 (Wickham et al. 1999, Timm et al. 2004) and wildlife (George and Zack 2001, Lehtinen and  
687 Galatowitsch 2001).

688           I kept the decision trees (see the “Building the knowledge base” section in the methods)  
689 as simple and linear as I could in order to avoid circular reasoning, and because I could find few  
690 similarities in the order in which restoration decisions are made among restoration experts. The  
691 similarities among experts are mostly in the broad concepts that I mentioned above. Even though  
692 the decision trees seem to follow a linear progression of ideas, questions, and decisions, this is  
693 not necessarily the case when decisions are made in real life, and it is not necessarily the way the  
694 model deals with the information. As an example, even though the decision tree shows that the  
695 hydrologic potential of the soils has to be determined before the indicators are dealt with, this is  
696 not the case. They could be determined in any order.

697           I will not give a rule-by-rule breakdown of the entire model in sentence form, but instead  
698 I will rely on the flow charts and decision trees to explain the logic in the system (Appendix K).  
699 On the first page of Appendix K are the RRAT procedures, which follow an example of how the  
700 RRAT would be used by a park or an agency. The flow chart on the next page of Appendix K,  
701 titled Model Structure, shows how the variables, command blocks and logic blocks of the model  
702 all interact to create the indices. These are not steps taken by the end user, but by the program  
703 itself. The final two decision trees in Appendix K show the *logic* that is used to determine values  
704 for the indices of site value and restoration potential.

705           The purpose of the site value decision tree is to determine the degree of confidence in the  
706 need to either protect or restore the site. Basically, if a site is currently more valuable than it will  
707 likely be in the future, there is much to be gained from protecting the site (as opposed to  
708 restoring it after it has degraded). Conversely, if a site is not valuable now but it has the potential  
709 to be valuable in the future, the proper action is restoration (see information below for the  
710 protection-restoration confidence index).

711           The restoration potential decision tree outlines the logic used for a large portion of the  
712 RRAT, including how each visual indicator is dealt with, when stressors are selected for  
713 indicators, and how stressor removal efforts come into play in the model. Documentation of the  
714 logic and justification for the logic is found in the table on the last page of Appendix K.

## 715 **Indices & weights**

716           A single run of the RRAT analytic tool requires input for the 48 indicator variables, and  
717 the analytic output consists of seven indices developed to indicate overall restoration potential.  
718 These indices reflect the restoration concepts in the Introduction above (see the section  
719 Restoration Potential, Site Value, and Degree of Disturbance, subsection Restoration theory and  
720 practice). The derivation of these indices is fairly simple, at least in the version of the model  
721 available at the time of this report (Table 1). The indices are designed to be in the same  
722 numerical form as probabilities: ranging from zero to one (0-1). The exception is the Protection-  
723 Restoration confidence level, which ranges from -1 to 1. In order to facilitate the calculation of  
724 these indices within these ranges, the input variables are also converted into numbers from 0-1.  
725 The Degree of Disturbance is simply an average of all of the indicator values, which I decided  
726 upon to express the general degree of disturbance at each site. Site Value also uses a simple  
727 average of current conditions from the site value module. Restoration Potential mostly expresses



Table 1. Explanation and justification for derivation of the indices, including variables and terms used in the calculations of the indices.

<b>Indices</b>	<b>Code</b>	<b>Explanation of variable or formula</b>	<b>Justification</b>
Natural Revegetation Potential	NRP	This is the same thing as the 10 <sup>th</sup> indicator in the Native Plants section of the RRAT, titled “Potential for Natural Revegetation”	Revegetation potential is frequently referred to in restoration literature (Martin and Chambers 2002, Mulhouse and Galatowitsch 2003, Steed and DeWald 2003, Taylor and McDaniel 2004, Shafroth et al. 2005, Orr and Stanley 2006)
Hydrologic Potential	HP	Value derived from soil moisture content in watershed analysis, or estimated by user	Restoration potential relates to the hydrologic potential for supporting riparian vegetation (Harris and Olson 1997, O'Neill et al. 1997).
Stressor Removal effort	SR	Independent probability: $SR = 1 - ((1 - SR_1) \times (1 - SR_2) \times \dots)$ $(SR_1, SR_2, \text{ etc. are the stressor removal efforts required for each individual stressor})$	Stress is additive instead of averaged (less stress of one kind does not necessarily reduce stress of another kind); independent probability allows for this.
Restoration Potential	RP	Average of values: $RP = \frac{NRP + HP + (1 - SR)}{3}$	Restoration potential relates to the natural ability for plants to return (NRP and HP), and the effort required to remove the stressors (Galatowitsch, pers. comm.)
Site Value	SV	Average of current site values: $SV = \frac{SV_1 + SV_2 + \dots + SV_N}{N}$ $(N = \text{number of site values ranked})$	Averaging is most intuitive way to summarize the value of a site
Degree of Disturbance	DD	Average of indicators: $DD = \frac{I_1 + I_2 + \dots + I_N}{N}$ $(N = \text{number of indicators ranked})$	Averaging is most intuitive way to summarize the overall degree of disturbance of a site
Protection-Restoration confidence	P-R	The Mycin technique is used (see explanation within text).	The Mycin technique is useful for ranking confidence values between two directly opposing concepts (Giarratano and Riley 2005).

728 the natural restoration potential (i.e., revegetation potential and hydrologic potential of soils to  
729 support vegetation) of the site and the degree of effort required to remove the stressors, and is  
730 calculated by averaging these values. The degree of effort required to remove stressors is  
731 determined by calculating an independent probability based upon the separate efforts (the efforts

732 may or may not be independent, but in order to have the efforts additive but not exceed 1, the  
733 independent probability calculation was used).

734 The protection to restoration (P-R) continuum is on a continuous scale from -1 to 1: a  
735 value of -1 means the site should be protected, 1 means the site should be restored, and 0 means  
736 equal effort should be placed towards protection and restoration. Input values, which come from  
737 both the site stressors and the site values, are converted to values between -1 and 1, as is  
738 described in Appendix K for site values. These converted values are then used to calculate the P-  
739 R confidence, which is determined by the Mycin method, a technique of calculating degrees of  
740 confidence that was developed for use in early expert systems (Giarratano and Riley 2005). This  
741 method was chosen because it is commonly used in expert systems to determine the certainty  
742 with which one decision should be made over another. Here is how the P-R value is determined:

- 743 • If the current value is 1 and a -1 is assigned, the result is 0.
- 744 • If the current value is  $\geq 0$  and the value to assign is  $\geq 0$ , then the new value is:  
745  $(\text{value to assign}) + (\text{current value} \times (1 - \text{value to assign}))$
- 746 • If the current value is  $< 0$  and the value to assign is  $< 0$ , then the new value is:  
747  $(\text{value to assign}) + (\text{current value} \times (1 + \text{value to assign}))$
- 748 • Otherwise, the new value is:  $((\text{value to assign}) + (\text{current confidence})) / (1 -$   
749  $\min(\text{abs}(\text{value to assign}), \text{abs}(\text{current confidence}))$

750 Here, min = minimum value, and abs = absolute value.

751 Weights are employed in the model at several locations. First, weights are placed upon  
752 erosion and deposition indicators when the site is in the headwater or deposition zone of a river,  
753 as these are highly influential processes within each zone. In these cases, the extra weight on an  
754 indicator will come into play if it has a high degree of departure from the expected natural

755 condition, and it will put more importance on the stressors causing the departure of the indicator.  
756 Second, during the process of selecting stressors that are causing departure of the indicators, if an  
757 individual stressor is selected more than once, that stressor will have weight placed upon it.

758

## 759 ***Model testing***

760 According to Nicolson et al. (2002), being able to run model simulations for sensitivity  
761 analyses within a minute or two is typically what allows the advancement of a model. Corvid has  
762 the capability of reading and writing to text files, which can allow you to rapidly run a  
763 simulation, to change a single variable in the text file easily, then quickly run a new simulation.  
764 Running model simulations by entering values separately, however, can easily take 10 or more  
765 minutes for each run. I was not able to run thorough sensitivity analyses during initial model  
766 development, as the read/write capability had not been fully worked out and incorporated into  
767 the model, but the issue has since been fixed and tests of the model output are currently being  
768 conducted. This report does not include results of running model simulations in the interest of  
769 getting the report out in a timely manner. The results of the model testing will be included in a  
770 manuscript that will be submitted for publication in a peer-reviewed journal.

## 771 **Conclusions**

772 This project will fulfill a vital role for the NPS, and hopefully beyond the NPS, especially  
773 as it is developed for use in additional habitats and ecoregions. The need for effective rapid  
774 assessment techniques for use in restoration planning, the availability of restoration experts and  
775 published information on restoration, and the motivation of natural resource agencies to put time,  
776 money and effort into restoration projects will help ensure the success of the RRAT.

777 Expert systems and decision support systems are very well suited for natural resource  
778 applications such as this. They have the analytical power to be able to make sense of complex  
779 logistical problems, and restoration projects often have many layers of complexity. One of the  
780 primary goals of the RRAT is to help resource managers think about the problem and make  
781 decisions based upon logic, science, and the best knowledge available.

782 The structure employed in the RRAT expert system, and the Corvid program, suit the  
783 problem very well. The ability to have the model be modular at any level desired not only  
784 follows good modeling heuristics (Nicolson, et al. 2002), but it also makes the model easy to  
785 modify and update, essential qualities for its future development. In addition, Corvid is very  
786 flexible in its methods of distribution to the end user, from web-based application (this requires a  
787 different licensing that we currently do not have, but this is a potential option) to an applet that  
788 the user can run from a CD or from their hard drive. It also is very flexible in the appearance of  
789 the application and in the links it can have to web sites and other external information sources.

790

## 791 **Recommendations and Future Work**

792 I highly recommend that the RRAT be developed further, not only by making  
793 improvements to the existing structure and the riparian/river module, but also by adding modules  
794 for other habitats and ecoregions. The current module must concurrently be tested frequently and  
795 critically, as errors are easily introduced to systems like this. The primary testing that I  
796 recommend is to test the module output against what an expert or several experts would  
797 recommend, and to modify the model if it is necessary to better match expert opinions. Expert  
798 systems are known to take quite a bit of time to develop: some sources claim that it can take  
799 several years just to develop a useful prototype (Greenwell 1988, Scott, et al. 1991, Jackson

800 1999) with adequate sensitivity analyses and field testing, and this project is not an exception. It  
801 could conceivably take equally long to add additional modules to the RRAT, but this will depend  
802 upon the resources that are available for the project.

803         Along with developing the RRAT, the indicators should also be changed or modified as  
804 new research highlights indicators that are sensitive to stress and have clear links to ecosystem  
805 processes (Whitford et al. 1998, Niemi and McDonald 2004). Many of the indicators in the  
806 RRAT are based on this kind of analysis, especially the ones carried over from Pellant et al.  
807 (2005), which include (numbering carried over from Pellant et al.):

- 808         1. Rills
- 809         2. Water-flow patterns
- 810         3. Pedestals and/or terracettes
- 811         4. Bare ground%
- 812         5. Gullies
- 813         6. Wind-scoured, blowouts, and/or deposition areas
- 814         7. Litter movement
- 815         8. Soil surface resistance to erosion
- 816         9. Soil surface loss or degradation
- 817         10. Plant community composition
- 818         12. Functional/struictional groups
- 819         13. Plant mortality/decadence
- 820         14. Litter amount
- 821         16. Invasive plants
- 822         17. Reproductive capability of perennial plants

823 Several of these, including ones related to soil surface stability and plant cover, have been  
824 through rigorous experimental testing, like that done by Whitford et al. (1998). Some indicators  
825 in the RRAT that have not been through any testing include: channel morphology, soil  
826 contamination, plant functional/structural groups, native plant seedbank and germination,  
827 seedbank and external source of invasive non-native plants, native and invasive non-native  
828 herbivory, ecosystem engineering, and animal waste. This does not necessarily mean that they  
829 are not valid, but it would lend credence to the model if there were more science backing the  
830 indicator selection.

831         The automation team will have the opportunity to improve the RRAT greatly. The  
832 modifications that have been discussed include providing connectivity between the RRAT output  
833 and geospatial data, which would make the RRAT more powerful as a decision support tool. It  
834 will also be easy to incorporate results from other assessment methods, such as the Rapid  
835 Bioassessment Protocol used by the Environmental Protection Agency (Barbour et al. 1999), and  
836 other decision support tools if they are seen to be applicable to prioritization of restoration areas.  
837 The appearance and the output of the RRAT will also be greatly improved by providing an easy-  
838 to-understand format, which could include graphical representations of the model output (Figure  
839 1), such as that employed in the Alien Plant Ranking System (Hiebert 1997, Benjamin and  
840 Hiebert 2004, Morse et al. 2004).

841         An additional product that would make the documentation and transfer of knowledge for  
842 the RRAT more secure would be a detailed RRAT Developers Manual. This manual should  
843 include instructions about how to properly modify the expert system, printouts of the actual code  
844 of the variables, logic blocks, and command blocks from Corvid. It should also provide a format  
845 for thoroughly documenting the justification for all the logic in the system. Without some built-

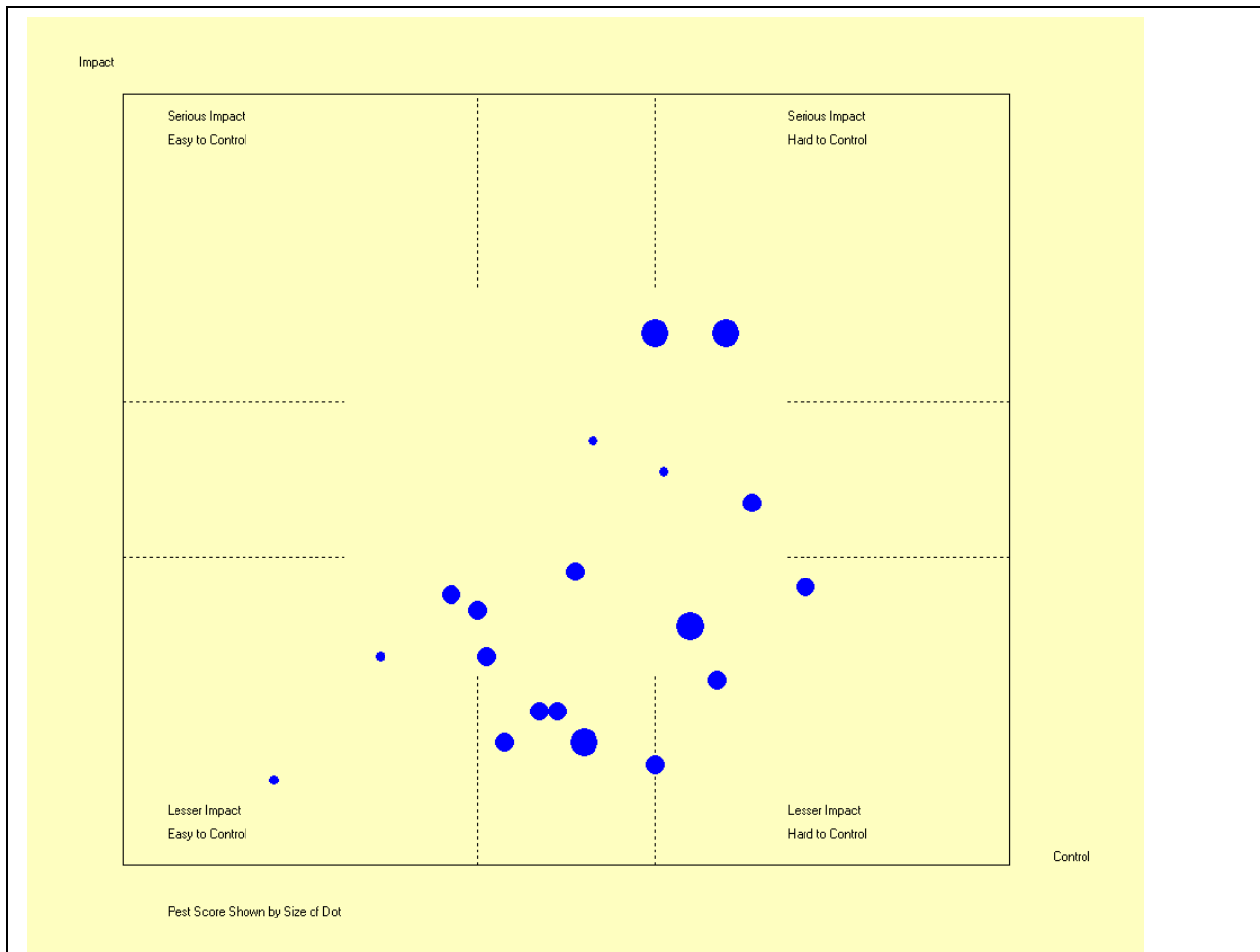


Figure 1. A screen shot of example output from the Alien Plant Ranking System. The x-axis is a rank of ease of control of the alien plant species at a site, the y-axis is the degree of impact from the alien plants at the site, and the size of the dots relates to the pest score. Each dot represents a different site. This style of visual representation could easily be applied to the RRAT.

846 in structure for maintaining continuity on the project as different people come and go, the  
 847 institutional knowledge of the project will undoubtedly be lost.

848 Among the many aspects of restoration projects that are seen as critical for improving the  
 849 science and practice of restoration, four that are repeatedly stressed are the importance of  
 850 establishing realistic goals (Diamond 1987, Cairns 2000, Ehrenfeld 2000, Hobbs 2003, Ryder  
 851 and Miller 2005), setting up experiments within restorations (Block et al. 2001), monitoring  
 852 restoration projects (Kondolf 1995, Block, et al. 2001, Holl and Cairns 2002, Roni et al. 2005),  
 853 and clearly identifying ways of measuring the success of restoration projects (Hobbs 2003,

854 Palmer et al. 2005, Ryder and Miller 2005). A restoration project that is seen as successful is of  
855 minimal help outside of the restoration area unless the process is documented and the progress  
856 evaluated with respect to the goals. Funding for experiments and/or monitoring of restoration  
857 efforts is rarely incorporated into budgets, but this needs to change if we are to have any real  
858 progress in the field, and monitoring is critical to evaluating the progress or success of any  
859 restoration project.

860           One final recommendation is for the standardized documentation of restoration projects  
861 (including project goals, actions taken, and outcomes) and widespread dissemination of this  
862 information. Formats for documenting these kinds of data are currently inconsistent, and these  
863 data are scattered among many agencies, databases, and methods of distribution (Jenkinson et al.  
864 2006). A recent effort to compile such data for the US, The National River Restoration Science  
865 Synthesis (NRRSS) (Bernhardt et al. 2005), highlights both the difficulties and the benefits of  
866 this kind of standardization, but the benefits, in the long run, will surely outweigh the costs of  
867 these efforts. While this is not an endorsement of the NRRSS per se, which has its own weak  
868 points (Gillilan et al. 2005), it would be very worthwhile to invest in documenting the  
869 information in a standardized format such as the one presented by Jenkinson et al. (2006).  
870

## 871 **Acknowledgements**

872           This project was funded through the National Park Service.

873           I thank the core members of the RRAT team for their critical help in development of the  
874 RRAT: Ron Hiebert, Diane Larson, Talise Dow, Amy Richey, and Kathryn Thomas.

875           Additionally, Kathryn McEachern, Curt Deuser, Andrea Williams, Sue Fritzke, Lou Stringer,



876 Tamara Williams, Anthony Starfield, Susan Galatowitsch, and Carolyn Shoulders provided input  
877 at team meetings in 2004 and 2006.

878 The members of the RRAT Automation Team were essential in helping to select the  
879 expert system application, and in giving advice on technological issues: Kathryn Thomas,  
880 Shannon Ruckauf, Ryan Stevens, Terry Arundel, Leslie O'Hare, and Nicole Tancreto.

881 I owe considerable thanks to three individuals. First, I thank Diane Larson for her  
882 mentoring, understanding and patience. Second, Susan Galatowitsch has been instrumental in  
883 helping me understand restoration ecology, both as a science and a practice. And third, I thank  
884 Anthony Starfield for his insights, sage advice, and sharp wit. All three of these people were very  
885 generous with their time and support throughout this project.

886 The following restoration ecologists, engineers and practitioners were interviewed for  
887 development of the RRAT: Pauline Drobney (U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service), Susan  
888 Galatowitsch (University of Minnesota), Richard Harris (U.C. Berkeley), Robert Jacobson  
889 (Minnesota Department Of Transportation), Peggy Johnson (Pennsylvania State University), F.  
890 Douglas Shields, Jr. (USDA Agricultural Research Service), Bernard Sweeney (University of  
891 Pennsylvania), and Amy Symstad (USGS).

892 Timely and very helpful reviews of drafts of this report were provided by Susan  
893 Galatowitsch, Ron Hiebert, Diane Larson, Amy Symstad, and Kathryn Thomas.

894 Finally, I thank Jessica Savage for her constant support and encouragement.

895

## 896 **Literature Cited**

897 Anonymous. 2004. Visual riparian assessment tool. Biology Technical Note No. 50, U.S.  
898 Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service.

899 Barbour, M. T., J. Gerritsen, B. D. Snyder and J. B. Stribling. 1999. Rapid bioassessment  
900 protocols for use in streams and wadeable rivers: Periphyton, benthic macroinvertebrates  
901 and fish, Second Edition. EPA 841-B-99-002, Washington, D. C.

902 Benjamin, P. K. 2004. A preliminary report on the development of a disturbed lands restoration  
903 assessment tool - a draft concept. National Park Service, Intermountain Support Office.

904 Benjamin, P. K. and R. D. Hiebert. 2004. Assessing the invasive plant issue. *Park Science* 22  
905 (2):27-31.

906 Bernhardt, E. S., M. A. Palmer, J. D. Allan, G. Alexander, K. Barnas, S. Brooks, J. Carr, S.  
907 Clayton, C. Dahm, J. Follstad-Shah, D. Galat, S. Gloss, P. Goodwin, D. Hart, B. Hassett,  
908 R. Jenkinson, S. Katz, G. M. Kondolf, P. S. Lake, R. Lave, J. L. Meyer, T. K. O'Donnell,  
909 L. Pagano, B. Powell and E. Sudduth. 2005. Ecology - Synthesizing US river restoration  
910 efforts. *Science* 308 (5722):636-637.

911 Block, W. A., A. B. Franklin, J. P. Ward, J. L. Ganey and G. C. White. 2001. Design and  
912 implementation of monitoring studies to evaluate the success of ecological restoration on  
913 wildlife. *Restoration Ecology* 9 (3):293-303.

914 Bolliger, J., L. A. Schulte, S. N. Burrows, T. A. Sickley and D. J. Mladenoff. 2004. Assessing  
915 ecological restoration potentials of Wisconsin (USA) using historical landscape  
916 reconstructions. *Restoration Ecology* 12 (1):124-142.

917 Boulton, A. J. 1999. An overview of river health assessment: philosophies, practice, problems  
918 and prognosis. *Freshwater Biology* 41 (2):469-479.

919 Breen, C. M., H. Biggs, M. C. Dent, A. Goergens, J. O'Keeffe and K. H. Rogers. 1995.  
920 Designing a research programme to promote river basin management. *Water Science and*  
921 *Technology* 32 (5-6):103-109.

922 Brierley, G. J. and K. A. Fryirs. 2005. *Geomorphology and river management : applications of*  
923 *the river styles framework*. Blackwell Pub., Malden, MA.

924 Burgman, M. A. 2005. *Risks and decisions for conservation and environmental management*.  
925 Cambridge University Press, Cambridge ; New York.

926 Cairns, J. 2000. Setting ecological restoration goals for technical feasibility and scientific  
927 validity. *Ecological Engineering* 15 (3-4):171-180.

928 Cipollini, K. A., A. L. Maruyama and C. L. Zimmerman. 2005. Planning for restoration: A  
929 decision analysis approach to prioritization. *Restoration Ecology* 13 (3):460-470.

930 Cowardin, L. M., V. Carter, F. C. Golet and E. T. LaRoe. 1979. Classification of wetlands and  
931 deepwater habitats of the United States. FWS/OBS-79/31, Fish and Wildlife Service  
932 Office of Biological Services U.S. Dept. of the Interior, Washington, D.C. URL:  
933 <http://purl.access.gpo.gov/GPO/LPS4420> (accessed November 2006).

934 D'Erchia, F., C. Korschgen, M. Nyquist, R. Root, R. Sojda and P. Stine. 2001. A framework for  
935 ecological decision support systems: Building the right systems and building the systems  
936 right. USGS/BRD/ITR-2001-0002, U.S. Geological Survey, Reston, Virginia.

937 Davis, M. A. and L. B. Slobodkin. 2004. The Science and Values of Restoration Ecology.  
938 *Restoration Ecology* 12 (1):1-3.

939 de Gruchy, M. A., U. Matthes, J. A. Gerrath and D. W. Larson. 2001. Natural recovery and  
940 restoration potential of severely disturbed talus vegetation at Niagara Falls: Assessment  
941 using a reference system. *Restoration Ecology* 9 (3):311-325.

942 de Zwart, D., S. D. Dyer, L. Posthuma and C. P. Hawkins. 2006. Predictive models attribute  
943 effects on fish assemblages to toxicity and habitat alteration. *Ecological Applications* 16  
944 (4):1295-1310.

945 Delgado, M. G. and J. B. Sendra. 2004. Sensitivity analysis in multicriteria spatial decision-  
946 making: A review. *Human and Ecological Risk Assessment* 10 (6):1173-1187.

947 Diamond, J. 1987. Reflections on goals and on the relationship between theory and practice.  
948 Pages 329-336 *in* W. R. Jordan, M. E. Gilpin, and J. D. Aber, editors. *Restoration*  
949 *ecology : a synthetic approach to ecological research*, edition. Cambridge University  
950 Press, Cambridge ; New York.

951 Ehrenfeld, J. G. 2000. Defining the limits of restoration: The need for realistic goals. *Restoration*  
952 *Ecology* 8 (1):2-9.

953 Federal Interagency Stream Restoration Working Group (U.S.). 1998. Stream corridor  
954 restoration : principles, processes, and practices. Federal Interagency Stream Restoration  
955 Working Group, [Washington, D.C.].

956 Forrest, B. M., M. D. Taylor and J. Sinner. 2006. Setting priorities for the management of marine  
957 pests using a risk-based decision support framework. Pages 389-405 *in* R. Allen and W.  
958 G. Lee, editors. *Biological invasions in New Zealand*, edition. Springer, Berlin ; New  
959 York.

- 960 Franzle, O. 2006. Complex bioindication and environmental stress assessment. *Ecological*  
961 *Indicators* 6 (1):114-136.
- 962 Galatowitsch, S. M. 1990. Using the original land survey notes to reconstruct presettlement  
963 landscapes in the American west. *Great Basin Naturalist* 50:181-191.
- 964 George, T. L. and S. Zack. 2001. Spatial and temporal considerations in restoring habitat for  
965 wildlife. *Restoration Ecology* 9 (3):272-279.
- 966 Giarratano, J. C. and G. Riley. 2005. *Expert systems : principles and programming*, 4th edition.  
967 Thomson Course Technology, Cambridge, Mass.
- 968 Gillilan, S., K. Boyd, T. Hoitsma and M. Kauffman. 2005. Challenges in developing and  
969 implementing ecological standards for geomorphic river restoration projects: a  
970 practitioner's response to Palmer et al. (2005). *Journal of Applied Ecology* 42 (2):223-  
971 227.
- 972 Goodwin, C. N. 1999. Fluvial classification: Neanderthal necessity or needless normalcy. *In* D.  
973 S. Olson and J. P. Potyondy, editors. *Proceedings of Specialty Conference on Wildland*  
974 *Hydrology*, 30 June-2 July 1999, Bozeman, Montana. 229-236. URL:  
975 <http://www.stream.fs.fed.us/publications/PDFs/GOODWIN.PDF> (accessed 20 September  
976 2006).
- 977 Goodwin, C. N., C. P. Hawkins and J. L. Kershner. 1997. Riparian restoration in the western  
978 United States: Overview and perspective. *Restoration Ecology* 5 (4):4-14.
- 979 Gordon, N. D., T. A. McMahon, B. L. Finlayson, C. J. Gippel and R. J. Nathan. 2004. *Stream*  
980 *hydrology : an introduction for ecologists*, 2nd edition. Wiley, Chichester, West Sussex,  
981 England ; Hoboken, N.J.
- 982 Greenwell, M. 1988. *Knowledge engineering for expert systems*, 1st edition. E. Horwood ;  
983 Halsted Press, New York.
- 984 Harris, R. and C. Olson. 1997. Two-stage system for prioritizing riparian restoration at the  
985 stream reach and community scales. *Restoration Ecology* 5 (4):34-42.
- 986 Harris, R. R., P. Hopkinson and S. McCaffrey. 1997. Comparison of a geographical information  
987 system versus manual techniques for land cover analysis in a riparian restoration project.  
988 *Journal of Soil & Water Conservation* 52:112-117.
- 989 Hart, A. 1992. *Knowledge acquisition for expert systems*, 2nd edition. McGraw-Hill, New York.

990 Hauer, F. R. and R. D. Smith. 1998. The hydrogeomorphic approach to functional assessment of  
991 riparian wetlands: evaluating impacts and mitigation on river floodplains in the U.S.A.  
992 *Freshwater Biology* 40 (3):517-530.

993 Hey, R. D. 2006. Fluvial geomorphological methodology for natural stable channel design.  
994 *Journal of the American Water Resources Association* 42 (2):357-374.

995 Hiebert, R. D. 1997. Prioritizing invasive plants and planning for management. Pages 195-212 *in*  
996 J. O. Luken and J. W. Thieret, editors. *Assessment and management of plant invasions*,  
997 edition. Springer, New York.

998 Hobbs, R. J. 2003. Ecological management and restoration: Assessment, setting goals and  
999 measuring success. *Ecological Management & Restoration* 4 (Supplement):S2-S3.

1000 Hobbs, R. J. and D. A. Norton. 1996. Towards a conceptual framework for restoration ecology.  
1001 *Restoration Ecology* 4 (2):93-110.

1002 Holl, K. D. and J. Cairns. 2002. Monitoring and appraisal. Pages 411-432 *in* M. R. Perrow and  
1003 A. J. Davy, editors. *Handbook of ecological restoration*, edition. Cambridge University  
1004 Press, Cambridge, UK ; New York.

1005 Hurley, M. and M. E. Jensen. 2001. Geomorphic patterns, processes, and perspectives in aquatic  
1006 assessment. Pages 367-389 *in* M. E. Jensen and P. S. Bourgeron, editors. *A guidebook for*  
1007 *integrated ecological assessments*, edition. Springer, New York.

1008 Hynes, H. B. N. 1975. The stream and its valley. *Verh. Intern. Verein. Theor. Angew. Limnol.*  
1009 19:1-15.

1010 Innis, S. A., R. J. Naiman and S. R. Elliott. 2000. Indicators and assessment methods for  
1011 measuring the ecological integrity of semi-aquatic terrestrial environments.  
1012 *Hydrobiologia* 422-423 (0):111-131.

1013 Jackson, P. 1999. *Introduction to expert systems*, 3rd edition. Addison-Wesley, Harlow, England  
1014 ; Reading, Mass.

1015 Jenkinson, R. G., K. A. Barnas, J. H. Braatne, E. S. Bernhardt, M. A. Palmer and J. D. Allan.  
1016 2006. Stream restoration databases and case studies: A guide to information resources  
1017 and their utility in advancing the science and practice of restoration. *Restoration Ecology*  
1018 14 (2):177-186.

- 1019 Jensen, M. E., K. Reynolds, J. Andreasen and I. A. Goodman. 2000. A knowledge-based  
1020 approach to the assessment of watershed condition. *Environmental Monitoring and*  
1021 *Assessment* 64 (1):271-283.
- 1022 Jimenez, A., S. Rios-Insua and A. Mateos. 2003. A decision support system for multiattribute  
1023 utility evaluation based on imprecise assignments. *Decision Support Systems* 36 (1):65-  
1024 79.
- 1025 Johnson, G. A. and D. R. Huggins. 1999. Knowledge-Based Decision Support Strategies:  
1026 Linking Spatial and Temporal Components Within Site-Specific Weed Management.  
1027 Pages 225-238 in D. D. Buhler, editor. *Expanding the context of weed management,*  
1028 *edition.* Food Products Press, New York.
- 1029 Johnston, M., Y. Wand and M. Curran. 1993. An expert system to support site preparation  
1030 decisions related to reforestation. *Forest Economics and Policy Analysis Research Unit*  
1031 *University of British Columbia, Vancouver.*
- 1032 Johnston, M. M., Y. Wand and M. Curran. 1990. An expert system to support prescribed burning  
1033 decisions. *Forest Economics and Policy Analysis Research Unit, Vancouver, B.C.,*  
1034 *Canada.*
- 1035 Juracek, K. E. and F. A. Fitzpatrick. 2003. Limitations and implications of stream classification.  
1036 *Journal of the American Water Resources Association* 39 (3):659-670.
- 1037 Keeney, R. L. 1992. *Value-focused thinking : a path to creative decisionmaking.* Harvard  
1038 *University Press, Cambridge, Mass.*
- 1039 Kondolf, G. M. 1995. 5 Elements for Effective Evaluation of Stream Restoration. *Restoration*  
1040 *Ecology* 3 (2):133-136.
- 1041 Kondolf, G. M., D. R. Montgomery, H. Piégay and L. Schmitt. 2003. Geomorphic classification  
1042 of rivers and streams. Pages 171-204 in G. M. Kondolf and H. Piégay, editors. *Tools in*  
1043 *fluvial geomorphology, edition.* J. Wiley, Hoboken, NJ, USA.
- 1044 Lehtinen, R. M. and S. M. Galatowitsch. 2001. Colonization of restored wetlands by amphibians  
1045 in Minnesota. *American Midland Naturalist* 145 (2):388-396.
- 1046 Levine, J. M., M. Vila, C. M. D'Antonio, J. S. Dukes, K. Grigulis and S. Lavorel. 2003.  
1047 Mechanisms underlying the impacts of exotic plant invasions. *Proceedings of the Royal*  
1048 *Society of London Series B-Biological Sciences* 270 (1517):775-781.
- 1049 Malakoff, D. 2004. Profile - Dave Rosgen - The river doctor. *Science* 305 (5686):937-939.

1050 Martin, D. and J. Chambers. 2002. Restoration of riparian meadows degraded by livestock  
1051 grazing: above- and belowground responses. *Plant Ecology* 163 (1):77-91.

1052 Miller, J. R. and J. B. Ritter. 1996. An examination of the Rosgen classification of natural rivers.  
1053 *Catena* 27 (3-4):295-299.

1054 Montgomery, D. R. and J. M. Buffington. 1997. Channel-reach morphology in mountain  
1055 drainage basins. *Geological Society of America Bulletin* 109 (5):596-611.

1056 Morse, L. E., J. M. Randall, N. Benton, R. D. Hiebert and S. Lu. 2004. An invasive species  
1057 assessment protocol: Evaluating non-native plants for their impact on biodiversity.  
1058 Version 1. NatureServe, Arlington, Virginia.

1059 Mulhouse, J. M. and S. M. Galatowitsch. 2003. Revegetation of prairie pothole wetlands in the  
1060 mid-continent US: twelve years post-reflooding. *Plant Ecology* 169 (1):143-159.

1061 Naiman, R. J., H. Décamps and M. E. McClain. 2005. *Riparia : ecology, conservation, and*  
1062 *management of streamside communities*. Elsevier Academic, Amsterdam ; Boston.

1063 National Health and Environmental Effects Research Laboratory (U.S.). 2002. Aquatic stressors:  
1064 framework and implementation plan for effects research. U.S. Environmental Protection  
1065 Agency Office of Research and Development National Health and Environmental Effects  
1066 Research Laboratory, Research Triangle Park, N.C.

1067 National Research Council (U.S.). 2002. *Riparian areas: functions and strategies for*  
1068 *management*. National Academy Press, Washington, D.C.

1069 Nelson, S. M. and R. A. Roline. 2003. Effects of multiple stressors on hyporheic invertebrates in  
1070 a lotic system. *Ecological Indicators* 3 (2):65-79.

1071 Newson, M. D., M. J. Clark, D. A. Sear and A. Brookes. 1998. The geomorphological basis for  
1072 classifying rivers. *Aquatic Conservation: Marine and Freshwater Ecosystems* 8 (4):415-  
1073 430.

1074 Nicolson, C. R., A. M. Starfield, G. P. Kofinas and J. A. Kruse. 2002. Ten heuristics for  
1075 interdisciplinary modeling projects. *Ecosystems* 5 (4):376-384.

1076 Niemi, G., D. Wardrop, R. Brooks, S. Anderson, V. Brady, H. Paerl, C. Rakocinski, M. Brouwer,  
1077 B. Levinson and M. McDonald. 2004. Rationale for a new generation of indicators for  
1078 coastal waters. *Environmental Health Perspectives* 112 (9):979-986.

1079 Niemi, G. J. and M. E. McDonald. 2004. Application of ecological indicators. *Annual Review of*  
1080 *Ecology Evolution and Systematics* 35:89-111.

1081 Nilsson, C. and M. Svedmark. 2002. Basic principles and ecological consequences of changing  
1082 water regimes: Riparian plant communities. *Environmental Management* 30 (4):468-480.

1083 Noble, R. 1987. The role of expert systems in vegetation science. *Vegetatio* 69 (1-3):115-121.

1084 Norris, R. H. and M. C. Thoms. 1999. What is river health? *Freshwater Biology* 41 (2):197-209.

1085 O'Neill, M. P., J. C. Schmidt, J. P. Dobrowolski, C. P. Hawkins and C. M. U. Neale. 1997.  
1086 Identifying sites for riparian wetland restoration: Application of a model to the Upper  
1087 Arkansas River basin. *Restoration Ecology* 5 (4):85-102.

1088 Orr, C. H. and E. H. Stanley. 2006. Vegetation development and restoration potential of drained  
1089 reservoirs following dam removal in Wisconsin. *River Research and Applications* 22  
1090 (3):281-295.

1091 Palmer, M. A., R. F. Ambrose and N. L. Poff. 1997. Ecological theory and community  
1092 restoration ecology. *Restoration Ecology* 5 (4):291-300.

1093 Palmer, M. A., E. S. Bernhardt, J. D. Allan, P. S. Lake, G. Alexander, S. Brooks, J. Carr, S.  
1094 Clayton, C. N. Dahm, J. F. Shah, D. L. Galat, S. G. Loss, P. Goodwin, D. D. Hart, B.  
1095 Hassett, R. Jenkinson, G. M. Kondolf, R. Lave, J. L. Meyer, T. K. O'Donnell, L. Pagano  
1096 and E. Sudduth. 2005. Standards for ecologically successful river restoration. *Journal of*  
1097 *Applied Ecology* 42 (2):208-217.

1098 Pellant, M., P. Shaver, D. A. Pyke and J. E. Herrick. 2005. Interpreting indicators of rangeland  
1099 health, version 4. Technical Reference 1734-6, Natural Resources Conservation Service,  
1100 United States Department of Agriculture. URL:  
1101 [http://fresc.usgs.gov/products/papers/1385\\_Pellant.pdf](http://fresc.usgs.gov/products/papers/1385_Pellant.pdf) (accessed 9 September 2006).

1102 Pickett, S. T. A. and V. T. Parker. 1994. Avoiding the old pitfalls: opportunities in a new  
1103 discipline. *Restoration Ecology* 2 (2):75-79.

1104 Plant, R. E. and N. D. Stone. 1991. Knowledge-based systems in agriculture. McGraw-Hill, New  
1105 York.

1106 Prach, K., P. Pyšek and P. Šmilauer. 1999. Prediction of Vegetation Succession in Human-  
1107 Disturbed Habitats Using an Expert System. *Restoration Ecology* 7 (1):15-23.

1108 Pywell, R. F., J. M. Bullock, D. B. Roy, L. I. Z. Warman, K. J. Walker and P. Rothery. 2003.  
1109 Plant traits as predictors of performance in ecological restoration. *Journal of Applied*  
1110 *Ecology* 40 (1):65-77.



1111 Reynolds, K. M. 1999. EMDS users guide (version 2.0) : knowledge-based decision support for  
1112 ecological assessment. U.S. Dept. of Agriculture Forest Service Pacific Northwest  
1113 Research Station, Portland, OR (333 S.W. First Ave., P.O. Box 3890, Portland 97208).

1114 Reynolds, K. M. and P. F. Hessburg. 2005. Decision support for integrated landscape evaluation  
1115 and restoration planning. *Forest Ecology and Management* 207 (1-2):263-278.

1116 Reynolds, K. M., M. Jensen, J. Andreasen and I. Goodman. 2000. Knowledge-based assessment  
1117 of watershed condition. *Computers and Electronics in Agriculture* 27 (1-3):315-333.

1118 Richardson, C. J., P. Reiss, N. A. Hussain, A. J. Alwash and D. J. Pool. 2005. The restoration  
1119 potential of the Mesopotamian marshes of Iraq. *Science* 307 (5713):1307-1311.

1120 Richey, A. E. 2005. A restoration rapid assessment protocol for the National Park Service.  
1121 Masters thesis. Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, Arizona.

1122 Roni, P., E. Quimby and American Fisheries Society. 2005. Monitoring stream and watershed  
1123 restoration. American Fisheries Society, Bethesda, Md.

1124 Rosgen, D. L. 1996. Applied river morphology. Wildland Hydrology, Pagosa Springs, Colo.

1125 Ryder, D. S. and W. Miller. 2005. Setting goals and measuring success: linking patterns and  
1126 processes in stream restoration. *Hydrobiologia* 552:147-158.

1127 Saunders, M. C., T. J. Sullivan, B. L. Nash, K. A. Tonnessen and B. J. Miller. 2005. A  
1128 knowledge-based approach for classifying lake water chemistry. *Knowledge-Based  
1129 Systems* 18 (1):47-54.

1130 Scott, A. C., J. E. Clayton and E. L. Gibson. 1991. A practical guide to knowledge acquisition.  
1131 Addison-Wesley Pub Co., Reading, Mass.

1132 Serveiss, V. B., J. L. Bowen, D. Dow and I. Valiela. 2004. Using ecological risk assessment to  
1133 identify the major anthropogenic stressor in the Waquoit Bay Watershed, Cape Cod,  
1134 Massachusetts. *Environmental Management* 33 (5):730-740.

1135 Shafroth, P. B., J. R. Cleverly, T. L. Dudley, J. P. Taylor, C. Van Riper III, E. P. Weeks and J. N.  
1136 Stuart. 2005. Control of Tamarix in the western United States: Implications for water  
1137 salvage, wildlife use, and riparian restoration. *Environmental Management* 35 (3):231-  
1138 246.

1139 Shields, F. D., Jr. and N. M. Aziz. 1992. Knowledge-based system for environmental design of  
1140 stream modifications. *Applied Engineering in Agriculture* 8 (4):553-562.

1141 Simon, A., M. W. Doyle, G. M. Kondolf, F. D. Shields, Jr., B. Rhoads, G. Grant, F. Fitzpatrick,  
1142 K. Juracek, M. McPhillips and J. MacBroom. 2005. How Well Do the Rosgen  
1143 Classification and Associated "Natural Channel Design" Methods Integrate and Quantify  
1144 Fluvial Processes and Channel Response? *In* R. Walton, editor. World Water and  
1145 Environmental Resources Congress 2005, May 15-19, 2005, Anchorage, Alaska, USA.

1146 Snelder, T. H., B. J. F. Biggs and R. A. Woods. 2005. Improved eco-hydrological classification  
1147 of rivers. *River Research and Applications* 21 (6):609-628.

1148 Society for Ecological Restoration. 2004. The SER International Primer on Ecological  
1149 Restoration. Pages 15 *in*. Society for Ecological Restoration International, Tucson, AZ.  
1150 URL: [http://www.ser.org/content/ecological\\_restoration\\_primer.asp](http://www.ser.org/content/ecological_restoration_primer.asp) (accessed 16  
1151 September 2006).

1152 Sojda, R. S. 2007. Empirical evaluation of decision support systems: Needs, definitions, potential  
1153 methods, and an example pertaining to waterfowl management. *Environmental*  
1154 *Modelling & Software* 22 (2):269-277.

1155 Sojda, R. S., J. E. Cornely and A. E. Howe. 2002. Development of an expert system for assessing  
1156 trumpeter swan breeding habitat in the northern Rocky Mountains. *Waterbirds* 25 (Suppl.  
1157 1):313.

1158 Sojda, R. S., D. J. Dean and A. E. Howe. 1994. A Decision-Support System for Wetland  
1159 Management on National Wildlife Refuges. *Ai Applications* 8 (2):44-50.

1160 Starfield, A. M. and A. L. Bleloch. 1991. Building models for conservation and wildlife  
1161 management, Second edition. Interaction Book Company, Edina, MN.

1162 Starfield, A. M., B. P. Farm and R. H. Taylor. 1989. Rule-Based Ecological Model for the  
1163 Management of an Estuarine Lake. *Ecological Modelling* 46:107-119.

1164 Starfield, A. M., K. A. Smith and A. L. Bleloch. 1994. How to model it. Interaction Book  
1165 Company, Edina, MN.

1166 Steed, J. E. and L. E. DeWald. 2003. Transplanting sedges (*Carex* spp.) in southwestern riparian  
1167 meadows. *Restoration Ecology* 11 (2):247-256.

1168 Stohlgren, T. J., K. A. Bull, Y. Otsuki, C. A. Villa and M. Lee. 1998. Riparian zones as havens  
1169 for exotic plant species in the central grasslands. *Plant Ecology* 138 (1):113-125.

1170 Taylor, J. P. and K. C. McDaniel. 2004. Revegetation strategies after saltcedar (*Tamarix* spp.)  
1171 control in headwater, transitional, and depositional watershed areas. *Weed technology* 18  
1172 (Suppl. S):1278-1282.

1173 Timm, R. K., R. C. Wissmar, J. W. Small, T. M. Leschine and G. Lucchetti. 2004. A screening  
1174 procedure for prioritizing riparian management. *Environmental Management* 33 (1):151-  
1175 161.

1176 USDA NRCS. 2005. *Stream Restoration Design Handbook (Draft 2)*. Natural Resources  
1177 Conservation Service, United States Department of Agriculture.

1178 Verdonschot, P. F. M. 2000. Integrated ecological assessment methods as a basis for sustainable  
1179 catchment management. *Hydrobiologia* 422-423 (0):389-412.

1180 Verdonschot, P. F. M. and R. C. Nijboer. 2002. Towards a decision support system for stream  
1181 restoration in the Netherlands: an overview of restoration projects and future needs.  
1182 *Hydrobiologia* 478 (1-3):131-148.

1183 White, P. S. and J. L. Walker. 1997. Approximating nature's variation: Selecting and using  
1184 reference information in restoration ecology. *Restoration Ecology* 5 (4):338-349.

1185 Whitford, W. G., A. G. De Soyza, J. W. Van Zee, J. E. Herrick and K. M. Havstad. 1998.  
1186 Vegetation, soil, and animal indicators of rangeland health. *Environmental Monitoring*  
1187 *and Assessment* 51 (1-2):179-200.

1188 Wickham, J. D., K. B. Jones, K. H. Riitters, T. G. Wade and R. V. O'Neill. 1999. Transitions in  
1189 forest fragmentation: implications for restoration opportunities at regional scales.  
1190 *Landscape Ecology* 14 (2):137-145.

1191 Winterhalder, K., A. Clewell and J. Aronson. 2004. Values and Science in Ecological  
1192 Restoration-A Response to Davis and Slobodkin. *Restoration Ecology* 12 (1):4-7.

1193 Young, T. P., D. A. Petersen and J. J. Clary. 2005. The ecology of restoration: historical links,  
1194 emerging issues and unexplored realms. *Ecology Letters* 8 (6):662-673.

1195

1196 **Appendix A. Supplementary river, stream, and riparian restoration**  
1197 **information.**

1198

1199 **Journals:**

1200 Aquatic Conservation: Marine and Freshwater Ecosystems

1201 Ecological Applications

1202 Ecological Engineering

1203 Ecological Management and Restoration

1204 Ecological Restoration

1205 Environmental Management

1206 Environmental Monitoring and Assessment

1207 Forest Ecology and Management

1208 Freshwater Biology

1209 Geomorphology

1210 Hydrobiologia

1211 Journal of Applied Ecology

1212 Journal of Range Management

1213 Journal of the American Water Resources Association

1214 Journal of the North American Benthological Society

1215 Land and Water

1216 Landscape Ecology

1217 North American Journal of Fisheries Management

1218 Regulated Rivers – Research and Management

1219 Restoration Ecology

1220 River Research and Applications

1221 Water Resources Bulletin

1222 Water Science and Technology

1223 Wetlands

1224

1225

1226 **Books & Reports:**

1227 Anderson, B. W., P. E. Russell and R. Ohmart. 2004. Riparian Revegetation: An Account of 2  
1228 Decades of Experience in the Arid Southwest. Avvar Books, Blythe, California.

1229 Bentrup, G. and J. C. Hoag. 1998. The Practical Streambank Bioengineering Guide. U.S.  
1230 Department of Agriculture.

1231 Boon, P. J., P. Calow and G. E. Petts, editors. 1992. River conservation and management. Wiley,  
1232 Chichester [England]; New York.

1233 Brierley, G. J. and K. A. Fryirs. 2005. Geomorphology and river management: applications of  
1234 the river styles framework. Blackwell Pub., Malden, MA.

1235 Briggs, M. K. 1996. Riparian ecosystem recovery in arid lands: strategies and references.  
1236 University of Arizona Press, Tucson.

1237 Brookes, A. and F. D. Shields Jr, editors. 1996. River channel restoration: Guiding principles for  
1238 sustainable projects. John Wiley and Sons, Inc., Chichester, UK.

1239 D'Ambrosio, J. L. and American Society of Agricultural Engineers. 2004. Self-Sustaining  
1240 Solutions for Streams, Wetlands, and Watersheds: proceedings of the 12 - 15 September  
1241 2004 conference, Radisson Riverfront Hotel, St. Paul, Minnesota USA. American Society  
1242 of Agricultural Engineers, St. Joseph, Mich.

1243 De Waal, L., A. R. G. Large and P. M. Wade. 1998. Rehabilitation of rivers: principles and  
1244 implementation. John Wiley & Sons, Chichester; New York.

1245 Eubanks, C. and D. Meadows. 2002. A soil bioengineering guide for streambank and lakeshore  
1246 stabilization. U.S. Dept. of Agriculture Forest Service Technology and Development  
1247 Program, San Dimas, CA.

1248 Federal Interagency Stream Restoration Working Group (U.S.). 1998. Stream corridor  
1249 restoration: principles, processes, and practices. Federal Interagency Stream Restoration  
1250 Working Group, [Washington, D.C.].

1251 Gore, J. A. 1985. The Restoration of rivers and streams: theories and experience. Butterworth  
1252 Publishers, Boston.

1253 Gregory, S., K. L. Boyer and A. M. Gurnell. 2003. The ecology and management of wood in  
1254 world rivers. American Fisheries Society, Bethesda, Md.

1255 Kondolf, G. M. and H. Piégay, editors. 2003. Tools in fluvial geomorphology. J. Wiley,  
1256 Hoboken, NJ, USA.

1257 McDonnell, J. J., J. B. Stribling, D. J. Leopold and L. R. Neville. 1996. Watershed restoration  
1258 management: physical, chemical, and biological considerations. American Water  
1259 Resources Association, Herndon, Va.

1260 Naiman, R. J. and R. E. Bilby. 1998. River ecology and management: lessons from the Pacific  
1261 coastal ecoregion. Springer, New York.

1262 Naiman, R. J. and H. Décamps, editors. 1990. The Ecology and management of aquatic-  
1263 terrestrial ecotones. Unesco; Parthenon Pub. Group, Park Ridge, N.J., USA.

1264 Naiman, R. J., H. Décamps and M. E. McClain. 2005. Riparia: ecology, conservation, and  
1265 management of streamside communities. Elsevier Academic, Amsterdam; Boston.

1266 National Research Council (U.S.). 2002. Riparian areas: functions and strategies for  
1267 management. National Academy Press, Washington, D.C.

1268 Riley, A. L. 1998. Restoring streams in cities: a guide for planners, policymakers, and citizens.  
1269 Island Press, Washington, D.C.

1270 Roni, P., E. Quimby and American Fisheries Society. 2005. Monitoring stream and watershed  
1271 restoration. American Fisheries Society, Bethesda, Md.

1272 Smith, B. and D. E. Prichard. 1992. Management techniques in riparian areas. Technical  
1273 Reference 1737-6 1992, USDI Bureau of Land Management, Denver, Colo.

1274 USDA NRCS. 1998. Stream visual assessment protocol. NWCC Technical Note 99-1, United  
1275 States Department of Agriculture, National Resources Conservation Service, National  
1276 Water and Climate Center, Washington, D.C.

1277 USDA NRCS. 2005. Stream Restoration Design Handbook (Draft 2). Natural Resources  
1278 Conservation Service, United States Department of Agriculture.

1279 Williams, J. E., C. A. Wood and M. P. Dombeck, editors. 1997. Watershed restoration:  
1280 principles and practices. American Fisheries Society, Bethesda, Md.

1281

1282

1283

1284

1285 **Web sites (all sites were accessed in September 2006):**

1286 ***US Government:***

- 1287
- 1288 • United States Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service:  
1289 <http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/>  
1290
  - 1291 • USDA Riparian Ecosystem Management Model (REMM):  
1292 <http://www.tifton.uga.edu/remmwww/>  
1293
  - 1294 • The Riparian Ecosystem Management Model (REMM) is a computer simulation model.  
1295 REMM is used to simulate hydrology, nutrient dynamics and plant growth for land areas  
1296 between the edge of fields and a water body. Output from REMM will allow designers to  
1297 develop buffer systems to help control non-point source pollution.  
1298
  - 1299 • USDA Agricultural Research Service, Rangeland Monitoring and Assessment:  
1300 [http://usda-ars.nmsu.edu/monit\\_assess/monitoring.php](http://usda-ars.nmsu.edu/monit_assess/monitoring.php)  
1301
  - 1302 • USDA Forest Service National Riparian Service Team:  
1303 [http://www.fs.fed.us/rangelands/ecology/riparian\\_serviceteam.shtml](http://www.fs.fed.us/rangelands/ecology/riparian_serviceteam.shtml)  
1304
  - 1305 • USDI Bureau of Land Management Riparian Recovery Initiative:  
1306 <http://www.blm.gov/riparian/index.htm>  
1307
  - 1308 • US Fish and Wildlife Service, Partners for Fish and Wildlife, River Restoration Program:  
1309 <http://www.r6.fws.gov/pfw/r6pfw2h.htm>  
1310
  - 1311 • US EPA, Bear Creek, Iowa Restoration:  
1312 <http://www.epa.gov/OWOW/NPS/Ecology/chap6bea.html>  
1313
  - 1314 • Jordan River Restoration Project (U.S. Fish & Wildlife Service, Utah Ecological Services  
1315 Field Office): <http://www.r6.fws.gov/jordan/>  
1316  
1317

1318 ***State organizations:***

- 1319
- 1320 • Minnesota Department of Natural Resources, Stream Habitat Protection and Restoration  
1321 Program: [http://www.dnr.state.mn.us/ecological\\_services/streamhab/index.html](http://www.dnr.state.mn.us/ecological_services/streamhab/index.html)  
1322
  - 1323 • MNDNR Guidelines for managing and restoring natural plant communities along trails  
1324 and waterways: [http://www.dnr.state.mn.us/trails\\_plantcommunities/index.html](http://www.dnr.state.mn.us/trails_plantcommunities/index.html)  
1325
  - 1326 • Watershed Restoration Action Strategies (Maryland Department of Natural Resources):  
1327 <http://www.dnr.state.md.us/watersheds/wras/>  
1328

1329 • Kissimmee River Restoration Project (South Florida Water Management District):  
1330 <http://www.sfwmd.gov/site/index.php?>

1331  
1332 • Center for Watershed Protection (Pennsylvania): <http://www.cwp.org/index.html>

1333  
1334  
1335 ***Nonprofit organizations:***

1336  
1337 • American Rivers: <http://www.americanrivers.org/site/PageServer>

1338  
1339 • Great River Greening: <http://www.greatrivergreening.org/>

1340  
1341 • Friends of the Mississippi River: <http://www.fmr.org/index.html>

1342  
1343 • San Lorenzo River Restoration Institute: <http://members.cruzio.com/~slriver/>

1344  
1345 • Salmon River Restoration Council: <http://www.srrc.org/>

1346  
1347 • River Restoration Northwest: <http://rrnw.org/>

1348  
1349  
1350 ***Private companies:***

1351  
1352 • Ellen River Partners LLC: <http://ellenriverpartners.com/>

1353  
1354 • Wildland Hydrology Consultants: <http://www.wildlandhydrology.com/index.htm>

1355  
1356 • Environmentally-Sensitive Streambank Stabilization (Salix Applied Earthcare):  
1357 <http://www.e-senss.com/>

1358  
1359  
1360 ***International:***

1361  
1362 • Department for Environment and Heritage (DEH) (Australia), Monitoring River Health  
1363 Initiative: <http://www.asdd.sa.gov.au/asdd/ANZSA1024000003.html>

1364  
1365 • River Landscapes: Restoring rivers and riparian lands all over Australia (Land & Water  
1366 Australia): <http://www.rivers.gov.au/>

1367  
1368 • River Styles (Land & Water Australia): <http://www.riverstyles.com/index.php>

1369  
1370 • River Health (Australian Government, Department of the Environment and Heritage):  
1371 <http://www.deh.gov.au/water/rivers/index.html>

1372

- 1373 • Cooperative Research Centre for Catchment Hydrology (Australia):  
1374 <http://www.catchment.crc.org.au/>  
1375
- 1376 • Romanian Centre for River Restoration: <http://www.rcrr.org/>
- 1377 • European Centre for River Restoration: <http://www.ecrr.org/>  
1378
- 1379 • Land & Water Australia: <http://www.lwa.gov.au/>  
1380
- 1381 • Ontario's Stream Rehabilitation Manual:  
1382 <http://www.ontariostreams.on.ca/OSRM/toc.htm>  
1383
- 1384 • Canadian Angling (Upper Saugeen Habitat Restoration Association):  
1385 <http://www.canadianangling.com/news.php>  
1386

1387  
1388 *Academic*

- 1389
- 1390 • RestoringRivers.org (home of the National River Restoration Science Synthesis):  
1391 <http://www.restoringrivers.org/>  
1392
- 1393 • Restoration and Reclamation Review (University of Minnesota Department of  
1394 Horticultural Science): <http://horticulture.coafes.umn.edu/vd/h5015/rrr.htm>  
1395
- 1396 • National Center for Earth-surface Dynamics (NCED), StreamRestoration.net:  
1397 [http://www.nced.umn.edu/Stream\\_Restoration.html](http://www.nced.umn.edu/Stream_Restoration.html)  
1398
- 1399 • Iowa Vanes (The University of Iowa):  
1400 <http://www.iihr.uiowa.edu/projects/IowaVanes/index.html>  
1401
- 1402 • Streams: Stream restoration, ecology & aquatic management solutions (Ohio State  
1403 University): <http://streams.osu.edu/index.php>  
1404
- 1405 • Anacostia Watershed Network: <http://www.anacostia.net/>  
1406
- 1407 • Wild Fish Habitat Initiative: <http://wildfish.montana.edu/default.asp>  
1408
- 1409 • Klamath Resource Information System (KRIS): <http://www.krisweb.com/>  
1410



1411 Appendix B. Restoration experts interviewed.

Name	Title & Affiliation	Contact information
Pauline Drobney	Biologist, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service	US Fish & Wildlife Service Neal Smith National Wildlife Refuge P.O. Box 399 9981 Pacific Street Prairie City, Iowa 50228-0399 515-994-3400 <a href="mailto:Pauline_Drobney@fws.gov">Pauline_Drobney@fws.gov</a>
Susan Galatowitsch	Professor, Department of Horticultural Science, University of Minnesota	Horticultural Science 260 Alderman Hall 1970 Folwell Ave St Paul, MN 55108 612-624-3242 <a href="mailto:galat001@umn.edu">galat001@umn.edu</a>
Richard Harris	Extension Forestry Specialist, University of California Berkeley	Forest Science 163 Mulford Hall Berkeley, CA 94720-3114 510-642-2360 <a href="mailto:rrharris@nature.berkeley.edu">rrharris@nature.berkeley.edu</a>
Robert Jacobson	Supervisor, Wetland Restoration Unit, Minnesota Department of Transportation	Office of Environmental Services 395 John Ireland Boulevard Saint Paul, MN 55155 651-284-3767 <a href="mailto:Robert.jacobson@dot.state.mn.us">Robert.jacobson@dot.state.mn.us</a>
Peggy Johnson	Professor and Department Head, Civil and Environmental Engineering, Pennsylvania State University	212 Sackett Building University Park, PA 16802 814-865-1330 <a href="mailto:Paj6@psu.edu">Paj6@psu.edu</a>
F. Douglas Shields, Jr.	Research Hydraulic Engineer, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Service	598 McElroy Drive Oxford, MS 38655-1157 662-232-2919 <a href="mailto:dshields@msa-oxford.ars.usda.gov">dshields@msa-oxford.ars.usda.gov</a>
Bernard Sweeney	Director, Stroud Water Research Center, University of Pennsylvania	Stroud Water Research Center 970 Spencer Road Avondale, PA 19311 610-268-0490 <a href="mailto:Sweeney@stroudcenter.org">Sweeney@stroudcenter.org</a>
Amy Symstad	Research Ecologist, U.S. Geological Survey	USGS Black Hills Field Station 306 East St. Joseph Street Rapid City, South Dakota 57701 605-341-2807 <a href="mailto:asymstad@usgs.gov">asymstad@usgs.gov</a>

1412 **Appendix C. Questions for restoration experts.**

1413

1414 Broad principles or ideas

1415

1416 As far as you know, are there major distinct philosophies or methodologies concerning  
1417 restoration or riparian restoration? Or is it a bit more haphazard than this?

1418

1419 Are there any specific areas in river/riparian restoration that are particularly contentious, or  
1420 where experts are likely to widely disagree?

1421

1422 How do you know when riparian restoration will require river or watershed restoration?

1423

1424 What are the major differences in restoration potential and prescription of rivers that are  
1425 unregulated versus regulated?

1426

1427 What are the main things you consider at a site when first visiting it?

1428

1429 What are your thoughts on river classification and its use in restoration projects?

1430

1431

1432 Prioritization

1433

1434 If there were limited funds for restoration at multiple sites, what primary factors would you use  
1435 to decide which site(s) to put resources into first?

1436

1437 How would you “rate” these factors in different settings? In other words, are there weights you  
1438 might place on some indicators in one setting that you would not in another?

1439

1440 How do you determine the restoration potential of a site?

1441

1442 How do you determine the benefits of doing a site restoration to the surrounding environment?

1443

1444 What things would lead you to determine that restoration is not feasible?

1445

1446

1447 RRAT Questions/Review

1448

1449 What are your thoughts on the RRAT indicators and usefulness of using them for prioritization  
1450 and restoration recommendations?

1451

1452 What information in the indicators would you use, and under what circumstances, for restoration  
1453 recommendations?

1454

1455 Are there groups of indicators that would be more useful for this task? Which ones and why?

1456

1457 Can the RRAT indicators be used to determine:

1458 1. Restoration potential: The incremental improvement at a site for a certain amount of  
1459 effort and funds, i.e., how much are you going to get for what you put in?  
1460 2. What the benefit of the site restoration will be to the surrounding environment?  
1461  
1462 If so, how? Are there certain groups of indicators that would be used to determine each?  
1463  
1464 If not, how do you determine these two things? What factors do you look at?  
1465  
1466 Are there weights you might place on some indicators in one setting that you would not in  
1467 another? Weights on groups of indicators?  
1468  
1469 How would you summarize indicator data for a site? Simplest option: sum all of the indicators.  
1470 Does this make sense?  
1471  
1472 Do you think an approach similar to the APRS would be useful for site prioritization? If so,  
1473 would it make sense to have axes based upon the groupings of indicators in the RRAT? If not,  
1474 what kind of groupings would make sense? For example: degree of problem”, “feasibility of  
1475 fixing”, “benefit of restoration to surrounding environment”, “cost of fixing”, and “overall site  
1476 value”.  
1477  
1478 If neither the simple addition nor the APRS technique make sense, do you envision another  
1479 summarization of indicator data that would make sense for site prioritization?  
1480  
1481 Without thinking of the location, specific plant community, etc., what can be said about using the  
1482 RRAT indicators for site prioritization? Is it useless out of context?  
1483  
1484 How would you envision information that’s contained on the Site Value Module to influence  
1485 outcome of the prioritization and restoration recommendations?  
1486  
1487  
1488 Questions recommended by Scott et al. (1991):  
1489  
1490 Do restoration solutions fall easily into basic categories? How would you categorize them?  
1491  
1492 Can restoration be broken down to a number of separate stages? Describe each stage as if it was  
1493 a separate task. What is the interaction between the phases? Which phases are the more difficult  
1494 and why?  
1495  
1496 What sort of complications arise during the task?  
1497  
1498 Do you sometimes have to backtrack and redo part of the process because of an error or unseen  
1499 problem?  
1500  
1501 To what degree is creativity a component of the problem solving activity?  
1502  
1503 Do you call upon the advice or help of any other person during the task?

# Appendix D. RRAT Field Data Sheet (Site Descriptors)

## RRAT Field Data Sheet

Date \_\_\_\_\_ Park \_\_\_\_\_ Site \_\_\_\_\_

Recorders \_\_\_\_\_

GPS: \_\_\_\_\_

UTM \_\_\_\_\_  
 EPE \_\_\_\_\_ DOP \_\_\_\_\_ Elevation \_\_\_\_\_

Site size \_\_\_\_\_ 0.1-0.5 acres \_\_\_\_\_ 1.0-5.0 acres \_\_\_\_\_ 10-25 acres  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 0.5-1.0 acres \_\_\_\_\_ 5.0-10.0 acres \_\_\_\_\_ >25.0 acres

Disturbance size \_\_\_\_\_ 0.1-0.5 acres \_\_\_\_\_ 1.0-5.0 acres \_\_\_\_\_ 10-25 acres  
 \_\_\_\_\_ 0.5-1.0 acres \_\_\_\_\_ 5.0-10.0 acres \_\_\_\_\_ >25.0 acres

Disturbance notes: \_\_\_\_\_

### Site accessibility

Completely accessible by road (0) \_\_\_\_\_  
 Partially accessible by road with <0.5 mile hike (0) \_\_\_\_\_  
 0.6-1.0 mile hike (1) \_\_\_\_\_  
 1.1-3.0 mile hike (2) \_\_\_\_\_  
 3.1-5.0 mile hike (3) \_\_\_\_\_  
 >5 miles or in designated wilderness (4) \_\_\_\_\_  
 Other access issues: \_\_\_\_\_

### General Topography

1a. Approx. slope of river channel:  
 0-5% (0) \_\_\_\_\_  
 6-10% (1) \_\_\_\_\_  
 11-15% (2) \_\_\_\_\_  
 16-20% (3) \_\_\_\_\_  
 >20% (4) \_\_\_\_\_

2a. Approx. slope of upland area:  
 0-5% (0) \_\_\_\_\_  
 6-10% (1) \_\_\_\_\_  
 11-15% (2) \_\_\_\_\_  
 16-20% (3) \_\_\_\_\_  
 >20% (4) \_\_\_\_\_

Riverbed slope direction:  
 Flat \_\_\_\_\_  
 North \_\_\_\_\_  
 Northeast \_\_\_\_\_  
 East \_\_\_\_\_  
 Southeast \_\_\_\_\_  
 South \_\_\_\_\_  
 Southwest \_\_\_\_\_  
 West \_\_\_\_\_  
 Northwest \_\_\_\_\_

Upland slope direction:  
 Flat \_\_\_\_\_  
 North \_\_\_\_\_  
 Northeast \_\_\_\_\_  
 East \_\_\_\_\_  
 Southeast \_\_\_\_\_  
 South \_\_\_\_\_  
 Southwest \_\_\_\_\_  
 West \_\_\_\_\_  
 Northwest \_\_\_\_\_

### Soils

Visual characterization of soil type (sandy, gravelly, loamy etc.): \_\_\_\_\_

### Hydrology

Zone of stream/river: Headwater \_\_\_\_\_ Transfer \_\_\_\_\_ Deposition \_\_\_\_\_

River / Stream Classification System: \_\_\_\_\_

River / Stream Type: \_\_\_\_\_

1506 Appendix E. RRAT Indicators

1507

**RRAT Indicators**

Rating	Departure from expected natural	Rating
Key:	condition or management goal:	
	None	0
	Low	1
	Moderate	2
	High	3
	Extreme	4

Category	Indicator	Current Rating	Desired Future Rating	Stressor	Notes
<b>Hydrology/ Landform</b>	1. Rills				
	2. Gullies				
	3. Bare ground				
	4. Pedestals/teracettes				
	5. Wind scour blowouts or deposition areas				
	6. Litter, debris, thatch movement/presence				
	7. Surface water flow				
	8. Channel morphology				
	9. Impervious surfaces and compaction				
<b>Soil / Water Quality</b>	1. Soil surface erodibility/stability				
	2. Soil loss or degradation				
	3. Plant rooting depth				
	4. Soil chemistry/nutrient alteration				
	5. Soil contamination				
	6. Sediment supply/ transport				
	7. Vegetation morphology				

	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Native Plants</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Dominant plant composition and cover</li> <li>2. Uncommon plant composition and cover</li> <li>3. Functional / Structural groups</li> <li>4. Soil crusts</li> <li>5. Other non-vascular plant cover</li> <li>6. Age class of major vegetation type/active recruitment</li> <li>7. Native plant seedbank</li> <li>8. Native plant germination</li> <li>9. External sources of native plant propagules</li> <li>10. Natural revegetation potential</li> </ol>
	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Invasive Non-native Plants</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Presence of invasive nonnative plants</li> <li>2. Type of impact of invasive nonnative plants</li> <li>3. Availability of areas for invasive colonization</li> <li>4. Seedbank of invasive nonnatives</li> <li>5. External source of invasive nonnatives</li> <li>6. Difficulty of control</li> </ol>
	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Native Fauna</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Critical/keystone native fauna</li> <li>2. Herbivory</li> <li>3. Trampling and animal trails</li> <li>4. Bioturbation</li> <li>5. Ecosystem engineering</li> <li>6. Animal waste</li> <li>7. Microbial pathogens</li> </ol>

1508

**Invasive Non-native  
Fauna**

1. Presence of invasive non-native fauna
2. Herbivory
3. Trampling and animal trails
4. Bioturbation
5. Ecosystem engineering
6. Animal waste
7. Microbial pathogens
8. Difficulty of control

1509

1510

## Appendix F. Indicator ranking explanations.

Hydrology/Landform			
Indicator	Degree of departure from expected natural condition or from management goal		
	Severe	High	Moderate
1. <u>Rills</u>	Rill formation is severe and well defined throughout the site	Rill formation is moderately active and defined throughout most of site	Active rill formation is slight or at infrequent intervals, mostly in exposed areas
2. <u>Gullies</u>	Gullies common with indications of active erosion/ downcutting; vegetation infrequent; headcuts numerous/ active	Gullies moderate to common w/ indications of active erosion; vegetation intermittent; headcuts active, no downcutting	Gullies uncommon w/ vegetation stabilizing ground/slopes; no signs of active headcuts, nickpoints or bed erosion
3. <u>Bare ground</u>	Much more extensive than expected	Moderate to much more than expected; large and connected patches of bare ground	Bare areas slightly different than expected
4. <u>Pedestals/ terracettes</u>	Abundant active pedestalling and numerous terracettes; exposed plant roots are common	Moderate active pedestalling; terracettes common. Some rocks and plants are pedestalled with occasional exposed roots	Active pedestalling or terracette formation is rare; some evidence of past pedestal formation, especially in water flows and/or exposed slopes
5. <u>Wind scour blowouts or deposition areas</u>	Extensive and well-connected areas of scour or deposition	Areas of scour or deposition are common and fairly well connected	Infrequent or few signs of scour or deposition
6. <u>Litter, debris, thatch presence and movement</u>	Extreme departure from expected amounts of litter; only concentrated around obstructions; most size classes of litter have been displaced	High to extreme departure from expected amounts of litter; loosely concentrated around obstructions; moderate to small size classes displaced	Slightly to moderately different from expected amounts of litter in the site w/ only small size classes of litter being displaced
			None
			Current or past formation of rills are as expected for the site
			Drainages are represented as natural stable channels; no signs of erosion w/ vegetation common/ frequent
			Bare ground is what is expected for area, matches that of similar communities
			Current or past evident of pedestalled plants or rocks as expected under natural conditions for the site. Terracettes absent or rare.
			Matches what is expected for site
			Matches what is expected for the site under undisturbed conditions; fairly uniform distribution of litter



<p><u>7. Surface water flow, including base flow, seasonal patterns, flooding regime, and water table</u></p>	<p>Extreme disruption to surface water flow(s); disturbance intercepts a stream or wash; significantly diverts, concentrates, or impedes surface water flow over all of site Natural flooding cycles are drastically altered or absent. Restoration of natural flooding is not likely due to technical or political limitation.</p>	<p>Severe disruption to surface water flow(s); disturbance intercepts a stream or wash, or severely diverts. Natural flooding regimes are significantly altered; flooding cycles may be partially restored by either natural or artificial means.</p>	<p>Moderate disruption to surface water flow; disturbance intercepts a small portion of stream; water flow is diverted, concentrated, or impeded on only a portion of the site. Natural flooding regimes have been moderately altered, but are likely to be restorable</p>	<p>Slight to moderate disruption of surface water flow. Natural flooding regimes have been slightly altered as a result of recent climatic condition and/or temporary circumstances</p>	<p>Surface water flow and seasonal patterns match what is expected for the site or NOT APPLICABLE (for example, in a non-aquatic terrestrial setting)</p>
<p><u>8. Channel morphology</u></p>	<p>Channel has severely departed from natural contours; is deeply incised, straightened, banks are armored, or channel severely altered by sediment deposition or absence; Flow paths highly altered from expected; unstable with active erosion;</p>	<p>Channel is highly departed from natural contours; eg, has been straightened, but banks not armored, Channel contact with floodplain and migration are limited by incision or levees; channel is choked with sediment deposition or modified from absence; flow paths much different than expected; deposition and cut areas common; occasionally connected</p>	<p>Channel moderately departed from natural contours; contact with floodplain and migration are limited by levees or incision Moderate erosion with some instability and deposition</p>	<p>Channel somewhat departed from natural contours; some evidence of minor erosion; flow patterns are stable and short</p>	<p>Channel contours match what is expected for the site; minimal or no evidence of past or present deposition or erosion</p>
<p><u>9. Impervious surfaces and compaction</u></p>	<p>Extensive soil compaction and/or hydrophobic soils, impervious structures</p>	<p>Presence of compacted soils, hydrophobic soils, or impervious structures high</p>	<p>Moderate soil compaction or presence of hydrophobic soils</p>	<p>Low presence/ level of compacted soils, hydrophobic soils</p>	<p>Site fits within range of natural variability</p>

<b>Soil / Water Quality</b>				
<b>Indicator</b>	<b>Degree of departure from expected natural condition or from management goal</b>			
	<b>Severe</b>	<b>High</b>	<b>Moderate</b>	<b>Low</b>
1. <u>Soil surface erodibility/stability</u>	Soil erodibility is extremely high throughout site; biological stabilizing agents including organic matter and biological crusts virtually absent	Soil erodibility is significantly increased in most plant canopy interspaces and moderately increased beneath plant canopies; stabilizing agents present only in isolated patches	Soil erodibility is significantly increased in at least half of the canopy interspaces, or moderately increased throughout the site	Some increase in soil erodibility in interspaces or slight increase throughout the site; stabilizing agents reduced below what is expected
2. <u>Soil loss or degradation</u>	Topsoil/surface horizon absent; soil structure at surface is similar to or more degraded than sub-surface horizons; and/or soil horizons completely mixed.	Topsoil/soil surface loss is severe throughout site; minimal differences in organic content & structure of the surface & subsurface layers.	Moderate soil loss or degradation in interspaces w/ some degradation beneath plant canopies; soil structure is degraded & organic matter significantly reduced.	Some soil loss has occurred and/or soil structure shows signs of degradation, especially in plant interspaces
3. <u>Plant rooting depth</u>	None; plants absent from site due to loss of soil	Sever limitations in plant rooting throughout site	Moderately limited throughout some to most of site	Slightly to moderately limited on some portions of the site
4. <u>Soil Chemistry/Nutrient Alteration</u>	Drastic alteration to plant composition and/or successional processes has occurred as a result of unnatural levels of nutrients and salt deposition	Significant alteration to plant composition as a result of known unnatural levels of nutrient or salt deposition	Moderate alteration to plant composition as a result of known or suspected unnatural levels of nutrients or salt deposition	Slight alteration to expected plant composition as a result of known or suspected unnatural levels of nutrients or salt deposition
				<b>None</b> Soil surface erodibility matches what is expected for the site; soil surface is stabilized by organic matter, decomposition products or a biological crust  Topsoil/soil surface is intact; soil structure and organic matter matches what is expected for the site.  Rooting depth is good within top 12 inches and/or matches expected site conditions.  Plant composition matches what is expected for the site; no impacts resulting from unnatural levels of nutrients or salt deposition are suspected

5. <u>Soil Contamination</u>	Site has known land use history (mining, landfills, etc.) with use of hazardous materials; and/or contains extensive areas of soil discoloration; and/or site has been designated as hazardous	Site has known land use history that involved use of hazardous materials; and/or site contains large areas of soil discoloration	Site has known land use history that has moderate potential for site contamination as noted by multiple areas of soil discoloration acid runoff and/or presence of suspect containers	Site has known land use history that may have involved minor presence of hazardous materials; and/or minor soil discoloration in a very limited area	Site does not show any indication of soil contaminants
6. Sediment supply/transport	System is showing extreme levels of unnatural erosion or sedimentation deposition that is not the result of a natural process (for example, erosion associated with construction, or deposition resulting from high sediment loads from construction)	System is showing high levels of unnatural erosion or sediment deposition that is not the result of natural processes	System is showing moderate levels of unnatural erosion or sediment deposition that is not the result of a natural process	System is showing minor signs of unnatural erosion or sediment deposition that is not the result of a natural process	System is in balance with the water and sediment being transported
7. Vegetation Morphology	Vegetation morphology severely modified from expected condition; dwarfed, chloritic, yellowing, or abnormal growths. (This may occur as a result of disease, parasites, soil chemistry, etc. Plant community composition or succession not necessarily altered.)	Vegetation morphology highly modified from expected	Vegetation morphology moderately modified from expected	Vegetation morphology slightly modified	Vegetation morphology matches what is expected for site

Native Plants					
Indicator	Degree of departure from expected natural condition or from management goal			None	
	Severe	High	Moderate		Low
1. <u>Dominant Plant Composition and Cover:</u>	Plant community and cover are extremely different from desired or expected natural condition. Few if any native plants present	Plant community and cover are very different from desired or expected natural condition	Plant community and cover depart moderately from desired or expected natural condition	Plant community and cover depart slightly from desired or expected natural condition	Expected plant community and cover are present
2. <u>Uncommon/Rare Plant Presence</u>	There are no uncommon or rare native plants on the site	Uncommon or rare native plant presence departs highly from desired or expected community	Uncommon or rare native plant presence departs moderately from desired or expected community	Uncommon or rare native plant presence is close to what is desired or expected	Uncommon or rare native plant presence reflects that of an undisturbed reference condition
3. <u>Plant Functional/Structural (F/S) Groups</u> (i.e., legumes, forbs, warm season grasses, trees, etc.)	Number of F/S groups greatly reduced and/or relative dominance has been dramatically altered; and/or number of species with in F/S groups have been dramatically reduced	Significantly reduced; members of F/S groups NOT expected for site are present	Moderately reduced numbers of structural or functional group members present, relative dominance moderately altered	Slightly reduced numbers of F/S groups' numbers, relative dominance slightly altered	F/S groups closely match that expected for site
4. <u>Soil Crusts</u>	Found only in protected areas	Largely absent, occurring mostly in protected areas	In protected areas and a minor component in interspaces	Evident throughout the site, but community is broken	Largely intact and matches or nearly matches natural reference condition
5. <u>Other Non-vascular Plant Cover</u> (not ones considered as soil crust)	Mosses, lichens and others are severely impacted, stressed or absent from expected condition for site	Mosses, lichens and others are highly impacted and diverge markedly from desired or natural conditions	Mosses, lichens and others are moderately impacted by disturbances at the site	Mosses, lichens and others are slightly impacted from disturbance at the site	Mosses, lichens and others form a healthy community for the region
6. <u>Age Class of Major Vegetation Type / Active Recruitment</u>	Dramatic changes have occurred relative to age class distribution of most of the dominant/desired plant species. Active recruitment of	Significant changes have occurred relative to age class distribution of several of the dominant/desired plant species. Active recruitment of	Moderate changes have occurred relative to age class distribution of most of the dominant/desired plant species. Active recruitment of	Dominant/desired species show slightly unequal age class distribution relative to reference conditions. Condition is expected to be naturally	Matches natural conditions

	younger age classes not evident.	younger age classes significantly reduced or absent;	younger age classes still evident.	recoverable and/or temporary	
<u>7. Native Plant Seedbank</u>	Seedbank of desired native species has been dramatically reduced or is absent. Active reseeding will be necessary to restore the site.	Seedbank of desired native species has been significantly reduced. Active reseeding is likely necessary to restore the site	Seedbank of desired native plants species has been moderately reduced and/or desired species have limited persistence or short-term viability within the soil	Seedbank of desired native species is only slightly reduced. Desired native species have known persistence or long-term viability within the soil	Seedbank of desired native plant species matches what is expected for the site
<u>8. Microsites for Native Plant Germination</u>	Drastically reduced; chances for native regeneration are slim	Significantly reduced; many of the native vegetation types will have trouble regenerating	Moderately reduced; two or more of the dominant species will have trouble germinating	Slightly impacted; a few of the major vegetation types may have a little trouble germinating	Matches natural conditions
<u>9. External Source of Native Plants</u>	Site is not within dispersal distance of native propagule sources	Site has only a few possible sources of surrounding native propagules	Site has a moderate number of surrounding native propagule sources	Site has a good number of native propagule sources surrounding it	Site is well surrounded with native propagule sources
<u>10. Potential for Natural Revegetation</u>	No potential for natural revegetation; active seeding/planting required and/or is limited to only a few dominant native species; less dominant components will remain absent	Low potential for natural revegetation active seeding/planting of most species required; some limitations to re-establishment of rarer species	Some potential for natural revegetation of a few species; moderate level of active seeding/planting very likely. Most species expected to re-establish	High potential for natural revegetation of most species; limited active seeding/planting of a few native species likely. All species are expected to re-establish	Very high potential for natural revegetation; no active seeding/replanting required. All species are expected to reestablish.

Invasive Non-native Plants			
Indicator	Degree of departure from expected natural condition or from management goal		
	Severe	High	Moderate
1. <u>Presence of invasive nonnative plants</u>	Infestations are extensive and dominate the vegetative cover.	Infestations are significant and co-dominate the vegetative cover.	Infestation is moderate yet a conspicuous component of the vegetative cover.
2. <u>Type of impact of invasive nonnative plants</u>	Consult list of invasive non-native plant impacts		
3. <u>Availability of areas for invasive colonization</u>	Disturbance has left extensive patches of mineral soil or other niches available for widespread invasive non-native plant colonization	Conditions at site are ripe for a significant invasive colonization event, with bare soil or other niches available	Conditions at site (bare ground, other spaces available for colonization) are such that a moderate invasion may be possible
4. <u>Seedbank of invasive nonnatives</u>	Seedbank of invasive non-native species is long-term (>10 yrs) Requires removal of topsoil to effectively reduce or control	Seedbank of invasive non-native species is long-term (>5 yrs) and requires multiple germination events to eliminate	Seedbank of invasive non-native species is low and/or has relatively short-term viability (1-3 yrs)
5. <u>External source of invasive nonnatives</u>	Site is surrounded by severely invaded areas; invasion from these areas is almost certain	Site is surrounded by sites highly impacted with invasive non-native species; invasion from these sites highly likely	Site is surrounded with a few invasive non-native species; invasion from surrounding sites relatively unlikely
6. <u>Difficulty of control</u>	Invasive non-native species are extremely persistent; requires long-term multiple treatment over a series of years, requires use of restricted herbicides, and/or has never been known to be eradicated	Invasive non-native species are very persistent; requires long-term, multiple treatments over a series of years, but can be controlled with unrestricted herbicides or other tools	Invasive species has low persistence; is relatively easy to control, but is likely to require more than one treatment
			Bare mineral soil or other available areas for colonization are occupied by desired plant community
			Seedbank of invasive non-native species is absent
			Site is surrounded or impacted with almost no invasive non-native species
			Invasive species is not persistent; is easy to control with a single treatment event

Native Fauna					
Indicator	Degree of departure from expected natural condition or from management goal			None	
	Severe	High	Moderate		Low
1. <u>Critical/keystone native fauna</u>	Critical/keystone native species or groups of organisms missing or severely stressed. Reintroduction of these organisms will be required for restoration.	Critical/keystone native fauna in low numbers or highly stressed. Will require significant management and/or reintroduction to stabilize populations.	Critical/keystone native fauna present but in moderate or declining numbers. Will require management to reestablish populations.	Critical/keystone native fauna mostly present and recruiting on site, but will require minor management for full recovery.	Native animal community is what is expected for the area.
2. <u>Herbivory</u>	Evidence of severe overbrowsing over entire area	Evidence of high herbivore usage that prevents vegetation from completing life cycle (browselines etc.)	Evidence of moderate herbivore usage that impacts vegetation	Evidence of low herbivore usage that slightly stresses the vegetation type	Area appears in healthy balance with herbivore community
3. <u>Trampling and animal trails</u>	Severely trampled and devoid of herbaceous and/or aquatic vegetation. Individual trails not discernable. Soils severely disturbed or compacted. Aquatic areas extremely turbid.	High level of trampling, with few vegetated areas undisturbed. Trails are heavily used and in a dense network over the entire site. Soils highly disturbed or compacted. Aquatic areas very turbid.	Moderate level of trampling, with patches of plants undisturbed. A well-used network of trails exists on site. Soils moderately disturbed or compacted. Aquatic areas show some signs of turbidity.	Low level of trampling, with most damage concentrated around trails or in a low level across site. Trails well-used but more sparse. Soils somewhat disturbed or compacted. Low aquatic turbidity from trampling.	Level of trampling is what is expected for the area. Animal trails in density and at use level that is expected.
4. <u>Bioturbation (digging &amp; burrowing by mammals, earthworms &amp; invertebrates)</u>	Soil extremely impacted by animal activity. Density of digging, burrows, and tunnels (mammals), and/or sign of soil organisms (earthworm castings, termite mounds, ant nests, etc.) very	Soil highly impacted by animal activity. Density of digging, burrows, and tunnels (mammals), and/or sign of soil organisms (earthworm castings, termite mounds, ant nests, etc.) very	Soil moderately impacted by animal activity. Density of digging, burrows, and tunnels (mammals), and/or sign of soil organisms (earthworm castings, termite mounds, ant nests, etc.) slightly	Soil slightly impacted by animal activity. Density of digging, burrows, and tunnels (mammals), and/or sign of soil organisms (earthworm castings, termite mounds, ant nests, etc.) slightly	Level of bioturbation is what is expected for the site.

	etc.) extremely different than expected. Duff layer gone or greatly reduced (in forests).	different than expected. Duff layer reduced (in forests).	nests, etc.) somewhat different than expected.	different than expected.	
5. <u>Ecosystem engineering</u> (e.g., <u>beaver dam building</u> )	Animal activity has severely modified or disturbed site. Restoration would require removal of engineering organisms.	Animal activity has highly disturbed site. Restoration would require intensive control of engineering organisms.	Animal activity has moderately disturbed site. Some animal control / management will be necessary.	Animal activity has slightly modified site. Minor animal management may be necessary.	Animal activity is what is expected for the site.
6. <u>Animal waste</u> ( <u>feces, urine, etc.</u> )	Animal waste highly impacting site. Very dense droppings. Very high level of soil / water eutrophication. Scent of feces or ammonia very noticeable.	High density of animal droppings. High degree of soil and water eutrophication. Noticeable scent.	Moderate density of droppings. Scent not very noticeable. Some soil and water eutrophication.	Low density of animal droppings. No noticeable scent. Little sign of soil or water eutrophication.	Animal waste as expected for the site.
7. <u>Microbial pathogens</u>	Viral or bacterial activity severely impacts ecosystem process, structure and/or composition	Viral or bacterial activity has a high impact on ecosystem structure and function	Viral or bacterial activity has a moderate impact on the ecosystem's structure and composition	Viral or bacterial activity has a slightly more than expected impact on the ecosystem	Viral or bacterial activity is within the cycle expected for the area



Invasive Non-native Fauna					
Indicator	Degree of departure from expected natural condition or from management goal			None	
	Severe	High	Moderate		Low
1. <u>Presence of invasive non-native fauna</u>	Invasive non-native fauna dominant at site, with few native animals present	High density and/or diversity of invasive non-native animals present at site.	Moderate density and/or diversity of invasive non-native animals present at site.	Low density and/or diversity of invasive non-native animals present at site.	Invasive non-native fauna not present or very rare.
2. <u>Herbivory</u>	Evidence of severe overbrowsing over entire area	Evidence of high herbivore usage that prevents vegetation from completing life cycle (browselines etc.)	Evidence of moderate herbivore usage that impacts vegetation	Evidence of low herbivore usage that slightly stresses the vegetation type	Area appears in healthy balance with herbivore community
3. <u>Trampling and animal trails</u>	Severely trampled and devoid of herbaceous and aquatic vegetation. Individual trails not discernable. Soils severely disturbed or compacted. Aquatic areas extremely turbid.	High level of trampling, with few vegetated areas undisturbed. Trails are heavily used and in a dense network over the entire site. Soils highly disturbed or compacted. Aquatic areas very turbid.	Moderate level of trampling, with patches of plants undisturbed. A well-used network of trails exists on site. Soils moderately disturbed or compacted. Aquatic areas show some signs of turbidity.	Low level of trampling, with most damage concentrated around trails or in a low level across site. Trails well-used but more sparse. Soils somewhat disturbed or compacted. Low aquatic turbidity from trampling.	Level of trampling is what is expected for the area. Animal trails in density and at use level that is expected.
4. <u>Bioturbation (digging &amp; burrowing by mammals, earthworms &amp; invertebrates)</u>	Soil extremely impacted by animal activity. Density of digging, burrows, and tunnels (mammals), and/or sign of soil organisms (earthworm castings, termite mounds, ant nests, etc.) extremely different than expected. Duff layer gone or greatly reduced (in forests).	Soil highly impacted by animal activity. Density of digging, burrows, and tunnels (mammals), and/or sign of soil organisms (earthworm castings, termite mounds, ant nests, etc.) very different than expected. Duff layer reduced (in forests).	Soil moderately impacted by animal activity. Density of digging, burrows, and tunnels (mammals), and/or sign of soil organisms (earthworm castings, termite mounds, ant nests, etc.) somewhat different than expected.	Soil slightly impacted by animal activity. Density of digging, burrows, and tunnels (mammals), and/or sign of soil organisms (earthworm castings, termite mounds, ant nests, etc.) slightly different than expected.	Level of bioturbation is what is expected for the site.

<p>5. <u>Ecosystem engineering</u> (e.g., gypsy moths modifying forest structure)</p>	<p>Animal activity has severely modified or disturbed site. Restoration would require removal of engineering organisms.</p>	<p>Animal activity has highly disturbed site. Restoration would require intensive control of engineering organisms.</p>	<p>Animal activity has moderately disturbed site. Some animal control / management will be necessary.</p>	<p>Animal activity has slightly modified site. Minor animal management may be necessary.</p>	<p>Animal activity is what is expected for the site.</p>
<p>6. <u>Animal waste</u> (feces, urine, etc.)</p>	<p>Animal waste highly impacting site. Very dense droppings. Very high level of soil / water eutrophication. Scent of feces or ammonia very noticeable.</p>	<p>High density of animal droppings. High degree of soil and water eutrophication. Noticeable scent.</p>	<p>Moderate density of droppings. Scent not very noticeable. Some soil and water eutrophication.</p>	<p>Low density of animal droppings. No noticeable scent. Little sign of soil or water eutrophication.</p>	<p>Animal waste as expected for the site.</p>
<p>7. <u>Microbial pathogens</u></p>	<p>Viral or bacterial activity severely impacts ecosystem process, structure and/or composition.</p>	<p>Viral or bacterial activity has a high impact on ecosystem structure and function.</p>	<p>Viral or bacterial activity has a moderate impact on the ecosystem's structure and composition.</p>	<p>Viral or bacterial activity has a slightly more than expected impact on the ecosystem.</p>	<p>Viral or bacterial activity is within the cycle expected for the area.</p>
<p>8. <u>Difficulty of control</u></p>	<p>Invasive non-native species are extremely persistent; requires long-term multiple removals or treatment over a series of years, and/or has never been known to be eradicated. May require use of restricted biocides.</p>	<p>Invasive non-native species are very persistent; requires long-term, multiple removals or treatments over a series of years, but can be controlled with established techniques or unrestricted biocides.</p>	<p>Invasive non-native species is moderately persistent; requires multiple, short-term treatments (1-2 years) to control and/or requires biocide use for effective control.</p>	<p>Invasive species has low persistence; is relatively easy to control, but is likely to require more than one treatment.</p>	<p>Invasive species is not persistent; is easy to control with a single treatment event.</p>

1524  
1525

## Appendix G. Invasive non-native plant impact types.

### List of invasive non-native plant impact types

<b>Category</b>	<b>General Impact</b>	<b>Specific Impact</b>
Community Structure	Plant community structure	Native plant biodiversity
Community Structure	Plant community structure	Native plant composition
Community Structure	Plant community structure	Native plant abundance
Community Structure	Plant community structure	Native plant size, growth, or biomass
Community Structure	Plant community structure	Available light for other plants
Community Structure	Plant community structure	Succession
Community Structure	Higher trophic levels	Native animal biodiversity
Community Structure	Higher trophic levels	Native animal composition
Community Structure	Higher trophic levels	Native animal abundance
Community Structure	Higher trophic levels	Native animal diet
Ecosystem processes	Nutrient cycling	Presence / density of N-fixing plants
Ecosystem processes	Nutrient cycling	Litter production
Ecosystem processes	Hydrology	Water table (phreatophytes)
Ecosystem processes	Hydrology	Soil moisture (shallow roots)
Ecosystem processes	Fire regimes	Fuel load
Ecosystem processes	Fire regimes	Fire intensity
Ecosystem processes	Fire regimes	Fire frequency

1526  
1527

## Appendix H. Site Values.

### Site Value Module

Potential Future Condition assumes site protection and / or restoration

Rating Key:

<u>Value</u>	<u>Rating</u>
None	0
Minimal	1
Moderate	2
High	3
Extreme	4

### Conditions

<b>Category</b>	<b>Current Condition</b>	<b>Potential Future Condition</b>	<b>Notes</b>
1. Threatened and Endangered Species			
2. Plant community / biodiversity			
3. Animal community / biodiversity			
4. Emblematic natural features			
5. Historical / Cultural / Archeological			
6. Recreation / Aesthetics			
7. Site role in landscape			
8. Habitat / Ecosystem rarity in landscape			

1528

1529 **Appendix I. Site Stressors.**

1530

1531

**Restoration Rapid Assessment Tool Site History**

1532

1533 Date: \_\_\_\_\_ Park \_\_\_\_\_ Site Name \_\_\_\_\_

1534

1535 Recorder(s) Name and Title: \_\_\_\_\_

1536

1537 Site subjected to the following human-related disturbances/stressors:

1538 *See stressor matrix for more detailed stressors*

1539 (check those that apply):

Anthropogenic Activities “Sources”	Current degree of impact (high, medium, low) <sup>1</sup>	Past Activity		Projected future degree of impact (high, medium, low) <sup>1</sup>	Site Stressors (Please choose from stressor list)	If future use is projected for site, does desired future condition require removal of anthropogenic activity?
		Degree of Impact <sup>1</sup>	Time Since Use <sup>2</sup>			
Agriculture						
Domestic Livestock Grazing						
Forestry/logging						
Industrialization						
Mining						
Recreation						
Urbanization in the landscape (roads/trails/structures)						
Utilities and Infrastructure (dam)						
Climate (flood/fire)						
Other (explain)						

1540

1541

1542

1543 1. High=3, Medium=2, Low=1 None=0

1544 2. Less than 10 years=1, More than 10 years=2 More than 50 years=3

## Appendix J. Source-Stressor Matrix.

Source-Stressor matrix											
X indicates that the stressor occurs as a direct result of the human activity or natural cause											
Stressor	SOURCES										
	Human Activities									Natural causes	Climate
	Agriculture	Domestic Livestock Grazing	Forestry	Industrialization	Mining	Recreation	Urbanization	Utilities & Infrastructure			
Air pollution	X			X	X		X	X	X		Impacts plant and animal communities. Lichens are especially sensitive to air pollution.
Altered channels	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		Change in stream or river shape, meander, direction, etc.
Altered hydrology	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		Change in surface water or groundwater flow, availability, seasonal changes, etc.
Bridges	X		X	X	X	X	X	X			Bridges typically concentrate water flow and reduce opportunities for river meandering
Channelization	X	X		X	X		X	X	X		Straightening of streams or rivers, sometimes in association with river/streambank armoring. Drastically changes river hydrology and geomorphology.
Climate change	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	Change in the local climate, typically associated with changes due to human activities. Also known as global climate change or global warming.
Construction	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			Activities focused on land clearing and subsequent construction of buildings, structures, roads, etc.
Contaminants	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		Anything that pollutes the air, soil, or water.
Culverts	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			Drainage structures, especially used under roadways. Focus water flow, therefore changing water velocity and rates of flow.
Dams	X	X		X	X	X	X	X			Used for reservoirs, agriculture, hydroelectricity, etc. Can block natural movement of aquatic wildlife; change water temperature, seasonal flooding, erosion and deposition, etc.
Deposition	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	Buildup of silt or other material carried by water, typically due to reduction of water velocity. Can be problematic for some restoration efforts
Disease	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		Resulting from microbes or contaminants. Can harm or kill plants and animals.
Ditches	X		X	X	X		X	X			Drainage structures made to carry rainwater or runoff.
Drainage	X		X	X	X		X	X			Tiling, ditches, etc. used to drain wetlands or saturated soils (i.e., for agricultural fields)
Drought									X	X	Caused by storms, seasonal weather patterns, or climate change
Earthquakes									X		Can permanently change geomorphology and hydrology over large areas.
Erosion	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	Causes loss of soils, destabilizes riverbanks, increased sedimentation, etc.
Excessive cold									X	X	Caused by storms, seasonal weather patterns, or climate change. Can cause dieoffs of plants or animals
Excessive heat									X	X	Caused by storms, seasonal weather patterns, or climate change. Can cause dieoffs of plants or animals
Excessive precipitation									X	X	Caused by storms, seasonal weather patterns, or climate change. Can cause erosion, dieoffs of plants or animals
Exotic fauna	X	X	X				X	X	X		Can impact native flora and fauna, ecosystem processes

Stressor	SOURCES										Explanations
	Human Activities										
	Agriculture	Domestic Livestock Grazing	Forestry	Industrialization	Mining	Recreation	Urbanization	Utilities & Infrastructure	Natural causes	Climate	
Invasive non-native plants: external source	X	X	X			X	X		X	X	Provide propagules that can invade or re-invade adjacent areas
Invasive non-native plant presence	X	X	X			X	X		X	X	Can impact native flora and fauna, ecosystem processes
Invasive non-native plant seedbank	X	X	X			X	X		X	X	Provide future opportunities for germination and growth of plants for as long as seedbank is viable.
Fertilizers	X						X				Cause eutrophication of soils and water. Invasive non-native plants typically encouraged by fertilizers.
Fire	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	Impacts plant and animal communities
Fire management	X	X	X			X					Fire suppression, fuel management, subscribed burning, etc. Can drastically alter natural fire regimes.
Floods	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	Causes extreme erosion and deposition, change in channel morphology, etc. Impacts plant and animal communities
Fuel load	X	X	X						X	X	Dead plant material that does not degrade, providing fuel for future fires.
Hard surfacing	X			X	X	X	X	X			Artificial surfaces that do not absorb rainwater: roads, parking lots, rooftops, etc. Change duration and intensity of stormwater events, increase contaminant runoff
Herbivory	X	X	X						X	X	Consumption of plant material by herbivores (mammals, insects, etc.)
Hurricanes									X	X	High winds and flooding accompany hurricanes
Insects	X								X	X	Can cause intense plant damage (herbivory and when carriers of plant pathogens), impact animals (when carriers of animal pathogens)
Instream modifications	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	Structures such as artificial riffles, pools, deflectors, barriers, etc.
Irrigation	X										Water use for agriculture is one of the most significant
Land grading	X		X	X	X		X	X			Typically one of first steps in preparing land for human use.
Landslides			X		X		X	X	X	X	Deliver materials to river channels
Levees	X		X	X	X		X	X			Channel stabilization using riprap and levees interfere with riparian habitat development and maintenance
Lightning									X	X	Primary non-human ignition source for fires
Litter	X	X	X						X	X	Plant litter influences terrestrial and stream communities
Loss of vegetative cover	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	Vegetation cover protects soil from erosion
Microbes	X	X	X			X	X		X		Infection or disease from microbes can harm or kill plants and animals.
Native plants: lack of external source	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	Native plant propagules cannot enter from surrounding areas and aid restoration
Native plants: reduced presence or absence	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	Lack of native plants make restorations more difficult
Native plants: lack of seedbank	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	Native plant establishment will have to be through seeding or planting
Nitrogen	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X		Primary element in fertilizers, also results from various forms of pollution.
Pesticides/Herbicides	X		X				X				Can be wind-blown, in soil, or in water

Stressor	SOURCES										Explanations
	Human Activities										
	Agriculture	Domestic Livestock Grazing	Forestry	Industrialization	Mining	Recreation	Urbanization	Utilities & Infrastructure	Natural causes	Climate	
Phosphorus	X			X	X	X					Results from various forms of pollution
Piped discharge/Controlled outlet	X	X	X	X	X		X	X			Return of water after human use. Can be source of pollution, change hydrology, etc.
Plowing/Tilling/Harvesting/etc.	X										Actions from row-crop agriculture. Results in habitat loss, fragmentation, increased erosion, increased nitrogen pollution, etc.
Reduction of floodplain	X			X	X		X	X			Reducing the opportunities for water to escape riverbanks during high flow events. Typically from levees, channelization, etc.
Removal of trees	X	X	X	X	X		X	X			Can greatly increase water runoff, erosion and sedimentation
River/stream regulation	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			Done using dams, water diversion structures, water abstraction, etc. Can impede movement of native fauna, alter stream hydrology, etc.
River/streambank armoring	X			X			X	X			Most common form is concrete channelization of streams in urban settings.
Roads and railroads	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			Can be a major source of fauna mortality. Can act as water impoundment structure, with only water outlets at culverts and bridges
Salinity	X	X		X	X		X	X	X		Soil and water salinity have a strong influence on occurrence of plants and animals.
Sediment	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		High load of silt and other fine particles in water. Can be problematic for aquatic species adapted to clear water.
Site preparation	X		X		X			X			Preparing a site for future human activities: grading, bulldozing, vegetation removal, etc.
Soil compaction/exposure	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		Reduces water infiltration rate, seed germination and establishment.
Soil contamination/pollution	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		May need to know site history for knowledge about contamination or pollution problems.
Soil disturbance	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		Can result in soil erosion, establishment of invasive plants, loss of habitat.
Storms									X	X	Can cause extensive vegetation damage from high winds (i.e., tree blowdown)
Stormwater inputs	X			X			X				Typically a major problem in urban settings with runoff from hardened surfaces.
Streambed disturbance	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	Can result in multiple water quality or hydrology problems, depending on degree and type of disturbance
Tornadoes									X		Can cause extensive vegetation damage from high winds (i.e., tree blowdown)
Trails						X	X				Hiking, horse, bike, ATV, snowmobile, etc. Cause soil compaction, disturb wildlife, and can be routes for invasive non-native plant introduction
Transportation of products	X		X	X	X		X	X			Roads, railroads, barges, etc. Creates air, noise, and/or water pollution. Can disturb or harm wildlife.



Stressor	SOURCES										Explanations
	Human Activities										
	Agriculture	Domestic Livestock Grazing	Forestry	Industrialization	Mining	Recreation	Urbanization	Utilities & Infrastructure	Natural causes	Climate	
Utility corridors/crossings	X		X	X	X	X	X	X			Powerlines, gaslines, etc. Can cause habitat fragmentation, introduction of invasive species, wildlife disturbance.
Clearing vegetation	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			Results from human disturbance; usually first step in preparing a site for future human activities.
Volcanic eruptions									X		Can permanently change geomorphology and hydrology over large areas.
Waste disposal	X			X	X		X	X			Usually ubiquitous with human activity. Can result in soil and water pollution, attracts some wildlife while negatively influencing most.
Water contamination/pollution											Can be difficult/impossible to identify source.
Water diversion structure	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			Designed for river/water regulation.
Water abstraction/removal	X	X		X	X		X	X			Usually for agriculture or urban use. Can reduce water levels (water bodies), water tables, and water flow rates (rivers).
Wildlife management	X	X	X			X	X				Usually relating to game animals: deer, fish, waterfowl, etc. Can result in wildlife concentration in reserves, parks, etc.
Woody debris removed	X	X	X			X					Woody debris is a very important component of some stream/riparian/river habitats, like in forests of the Pacific Northwest

1550

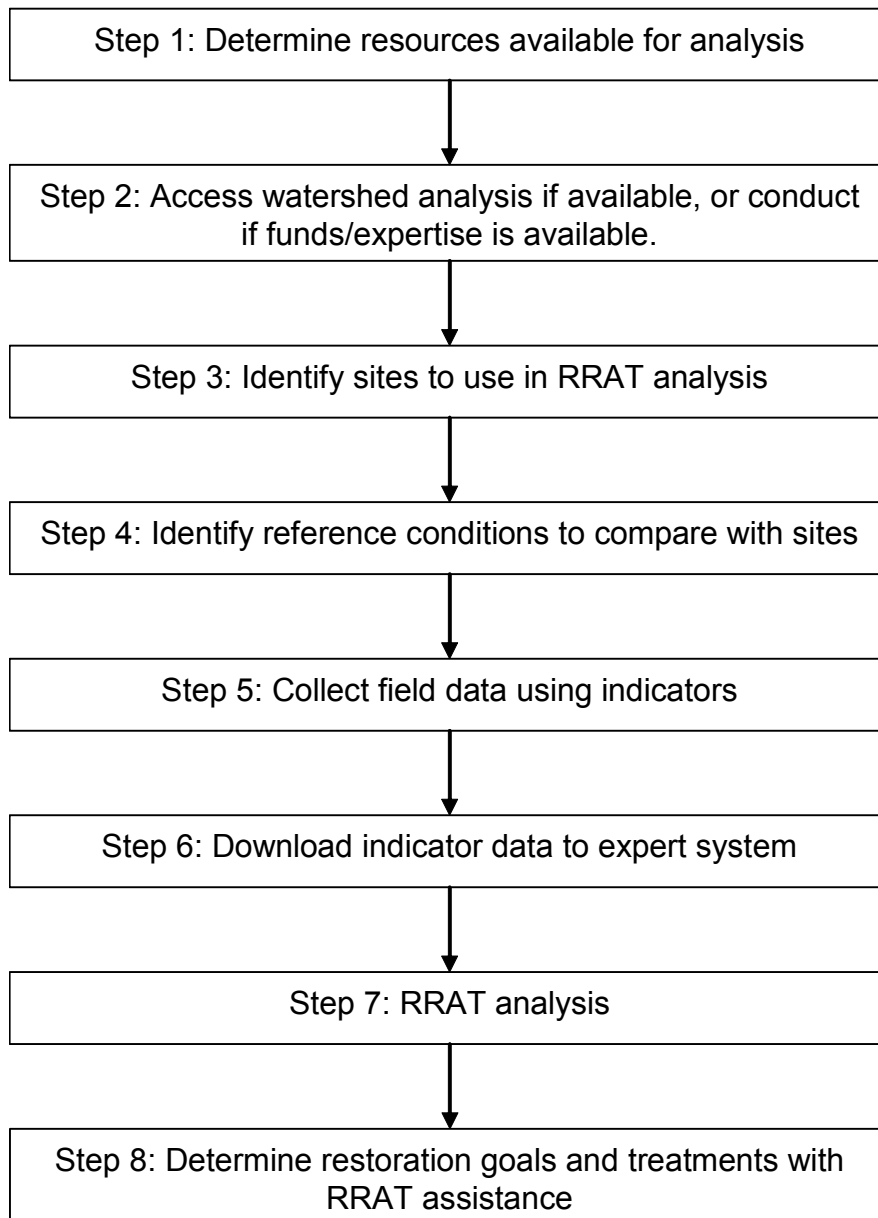
1551

1552 Appendix K. Flow charts and decision trees.

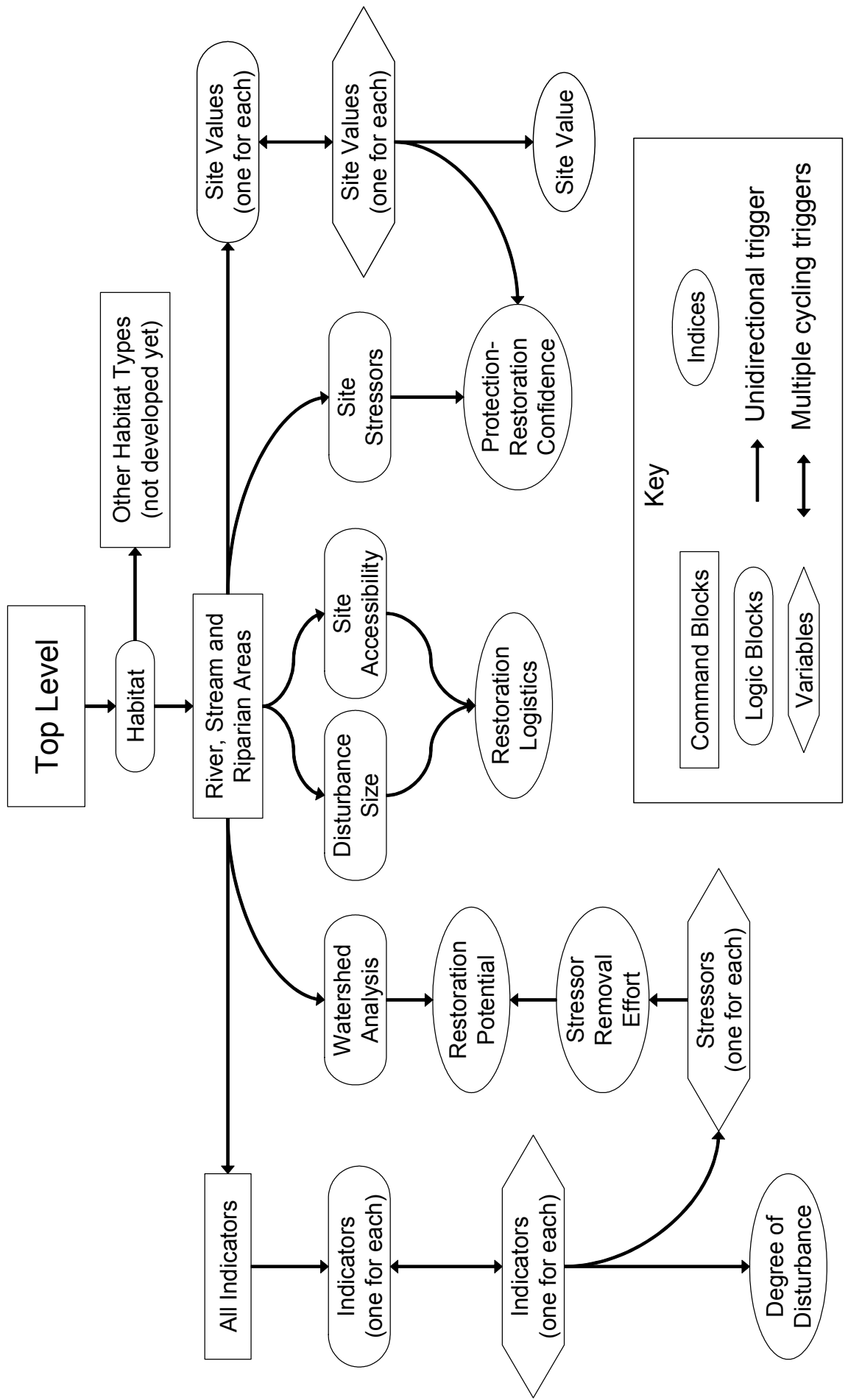
1553

1554

### RRAT procedures

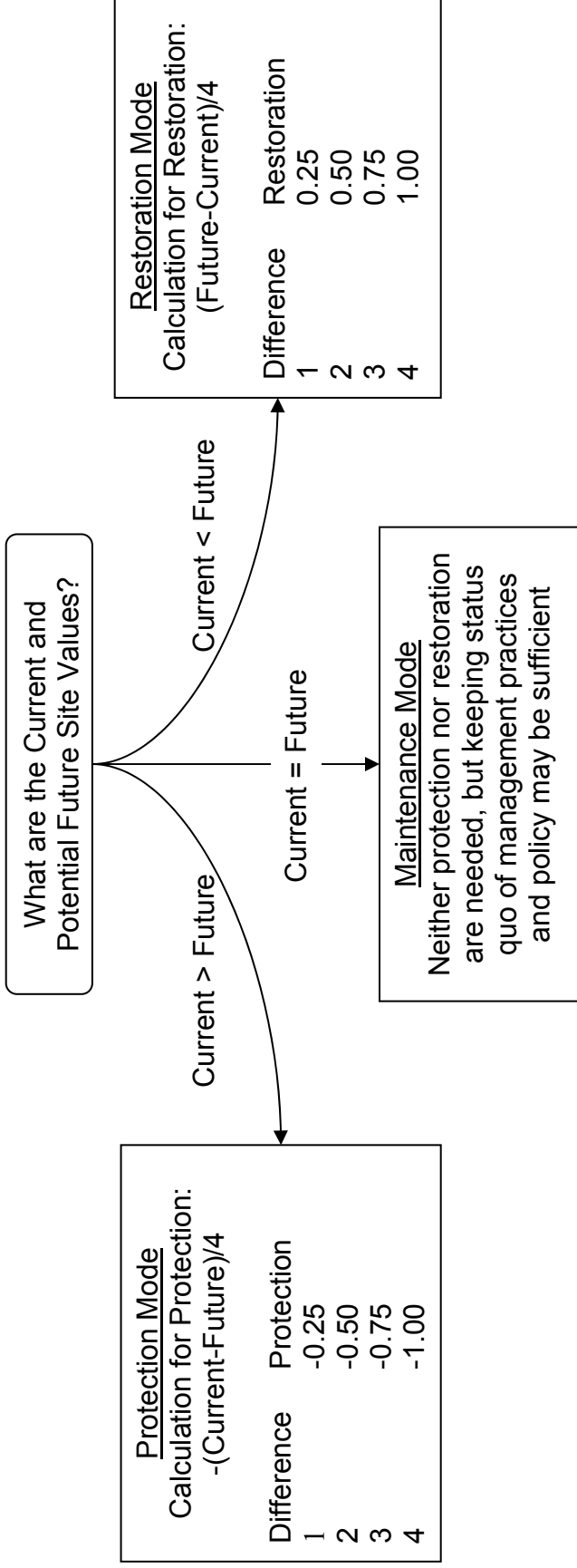


# RRAT Model Structure




1556  
1557  
1558

## Site Value Decision Tree



Note: Current and Future are on a scale from 0-4, with 0 being not at all valuable, and 4 being extremely valuable.

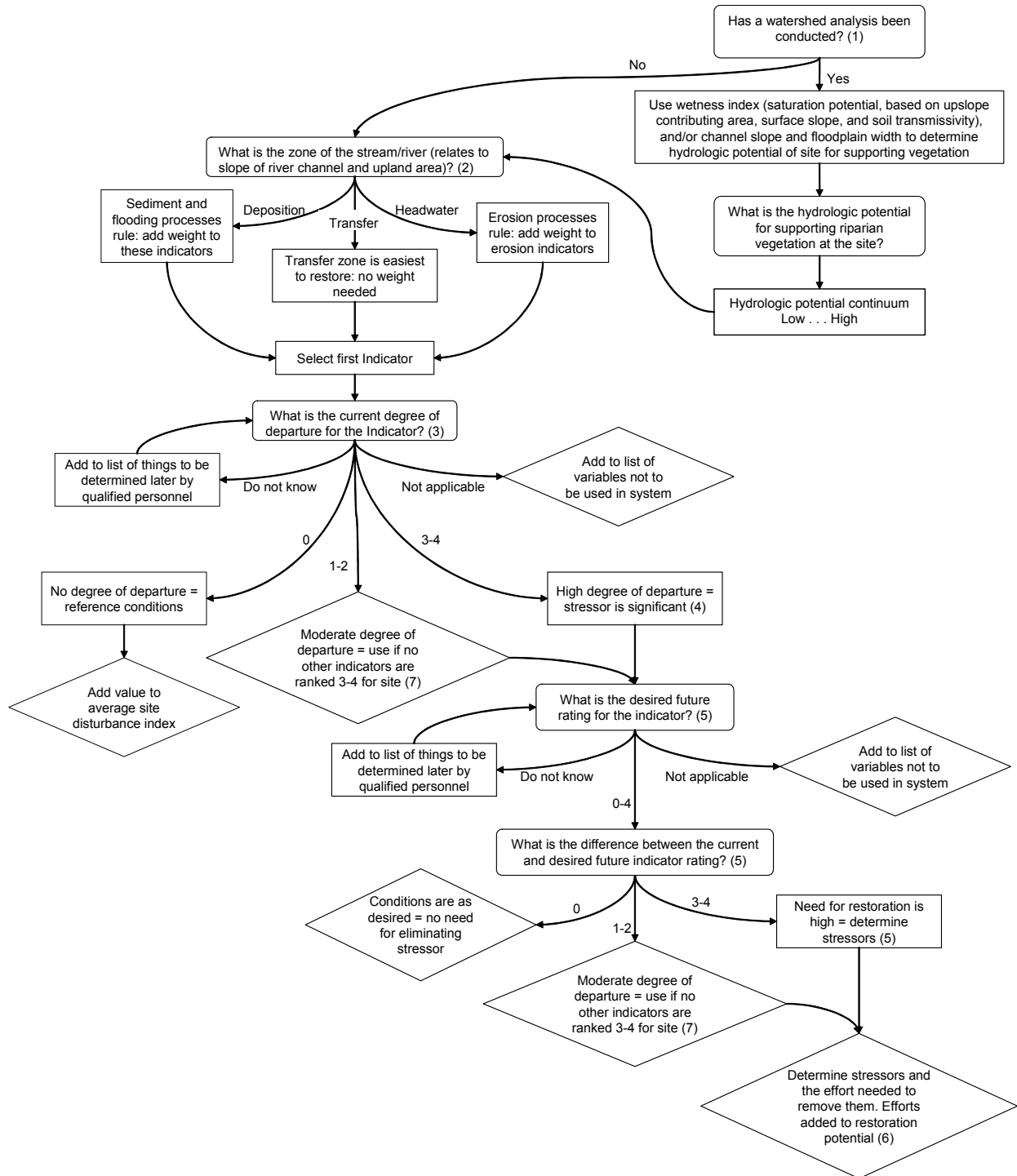
1559

 = Questions asked of the user

 = Decisions with follow-up questions

 = Terminal decisions, or decisions linked with calculations

# Restoration Potential Decision Tree



Note: Departure from expected natural condition for indicators are on a scale from 0-4, with 0 being no departure, and 4 being severe departure.

1561

1562

1563

### Justification for logic in Restoration Potential decision tree

Number	Justification	Citation
1	A watershed analysis can be used to determine the hydrologic potential of site for supporting riparian vegetation. This potential can be ranked on a scale from low to high.	(Harris and Olson 1997, O'Neill, et al. 1997)
2	The zone of a river frequently relates to the restoration potential of a site. The transfer zone is typically the easiest in which to conduct restorations. The deposition zone is difficult because you are dealing with all of the problems from upstream, and the headwater zone is tricky due to high erosional processes.	(Galatowitsch, pers. comm.)
3	Degree of departure ratings are based upon rangeland health assessments and other rapid assessment techniques.	(Anonymous 2004, Pellant, et al. 2005)
4	In many cases one will only be paying attention to the high or extreme departures from the reference condition.	(Galatowitsch, pers. comm.)
5	The desired future rating is for the user to rank the realistic future management goal for indicators. If there is a large difference between the current condition and the management goal, the restoration need for that indicator is high and the stressors need to be ranked for that indicator.	Expert workshop 2006
6	Logic for stressor removal effort and restoration potential covered in the section describing indices	Indices results, this report
7	There may be cases where no indicators rank above a 2 for a site. In these cases, smaller degrees of departure can be analyzed similar to when they rank as 3-4, but the restoration need may not be as high.	N.A.

1564