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25 Abstract

Scaling up ecological restoration demands the involvement of private sector actors. 26 27 Experience regarding science-based habitat restoration programs in the sector should be made available to support further joint projects. In our case, hierarchical restoration prioritization 28 was applied to select best target for habitat reconstruction at a Hungarian industrial area. 29 Multiple Potential Natural Vegetation Model (MPNV), a novel approach supported 30 restoration prioritization satisfying both ecological (sustainability and nature conservation 31 value) and other needs (feasibility, rapid green surface, amenity and education value). The 32 33 target that met all priorities was the open steppe forest that has a mosaic arrangement with open and closed sand steppes. The potential area of this xero-thermophile oak wood is 34 expected to expand in Hungary with climate change, therefore the selected target has a 35 likelihood of long-term sustainability, if established. A matrix of sand steppes was created 36 first at the factory area in 2014-2015, and tree and shrub saplings were planted in this matrix. 37 The seeding induced rapid changes in vegetation composition: the second year samples 38 became close to reference sand steppes in the PCA ordination space. Tree and shrub survival 39 40 was species dependent, reaching a maximum of 52 and 73% for tree and shrub species, respectively. One tree and two shrub species did not survive at all. Altogether 53 of 107 target 41 species have established. So far, restored vegetation development confirmed the suitability of 42 43 the applied hierarchical prioritization framework at factory scale.

Keywords: private sector actors; forest steppe; grassland restoration; restoration planning;
target setting

46 **Implication for Practice**

Non-built up industrial areas provide good opportunities as native biodiversity refuges
if restored, and may contribute to achieve no net loss and restoration targets.

Multiple Potential Natural Vegetation models with adequate spatial resolution provide
 a range of ecologically relevant restoration targets and allow the consideration of
 technical constraints and social preferences in goal setting.

In highly transformed landscapes a range of potentially self-sustainable target
 communities instead of a single pre-disturbance, historic composition provides better
 ground for restoration planning.

55 Introduction

The need for ecosystem restoration is acknowledged at the policy level by now (Aronson & 56 Alexander 2013; Suding et al. 2015) and as a result, large-scale restoration efforts are 57 launched (Jacobs et al. 2015). This scale of restoration remains a symbolic policy without the 58 active contribution of private sector actors (Holl & Howarth 2000; Telesetsky 2012). The 59 growing corporate concern about biodiversity loss and intention for mitigation goes beyond 60 offsetting direct adverse industrial impacts (GPBB 2015). Attempts aim for no net loss and 61 even net gain of biodiversity (Rainey et al. 2015). Marketization of biodiversity offsetting 62 endeavors are debated because of high expectations towards ecologists (Benabou 2014) and 63 inadequate supporting policies (Maron et al. 2012; Gordon et al. 2015; Ouétier et al. 2015; 64 Bull & Brownlie 2016). Despite the broad literature on offsetting, restoration cases are mainly 65 described for mining activities (Maron et al. 2012) and not for greening industrial areas. Great 66 impediment for private sector actors is the lack of competence on habitat restoration, 67

maintenance, costs and outcomes (Spurgeon 2014; Rainey et al. 2015). At the same time, 68 there is a major concern that in the lack of scientific rigor during the planning and 69 implementation of private sector driven projects the outcomes can be challenged (Cairns 70 2000; Gardner et al. 2013). Therefore examples of collaboration among private sector actors 71 and scientific institutions for implementing habitat restoration programs should be made 72 available to support further joint projects. The professional certification program in ecological 73 restoration of the Society for Ecological Restoration may open further possibilities for 74 75 increasing the quality of performance (Nelson et al. 2017).

76 Restoration ecology has made great progress during the last few decades in applying 77 ecological knowledge to amend or restore the ecological integrity of degraded land (Higgs et al. 2014). Support for planning restoration projects by developing conceptual frameworks and 78 guiding principles have been published (e.g. Balaguer et al. 2014; Meli et al. 2014; Jacobs et 79 al. 2015; Suding et al. 2015; McDonald et al. 2016; SERA 2016). These concepts are not fully 80 applied during the practice of restoration (Wortley et al. 2013; Török & Helm 2017). The 81 82 potential natural vegetation (PNV) concept provides a useful tool to guide scientific target setting (Miyawaki 1998; Moravec 1998; Loidi & Federico-González 2012; Somodi et al. 83 2012), and has been exploited in restoration projects (Miyawaki 1998; Rice & Toney 1998). 84 PNV is often not separated from pre-human or pre-settlement vegetation in this context (e.g. 85 Brown et al. 2004, Jiang et al. 2013). We believe it is important to differentiate between the 86 two in restoration target setting as well (Somodi et al. 2012). 87

PNV in the traditional sense determines a single vegetation type as potential for any location (Tüxen 1956). However, neither our estimation ability is perfect, nor is the vegetation development deterministic, thus multiple stable states may exist in undisturbed environments as well (e.g. Suding & Gross 2006; Choi et al. 2008). Thus the PNV of a single location should be characterised by more than one vegetation type, either because of estimation

uncertainty or because the site conditions would allow the persistence of several different 93 vegetation types even if with differing likelihoods. The concept of multiple potential natural 94 vegetation (MPNV) was introduced to provide a framework for handling this multiplicity 95 (Somodi et al. 2012). MPNV may be estimated by expert knowledge or by automatic 96 methods, such as predictive vegetation modelling. Such a model-based estimation is available 97 for Hungary for all broad vegetation types in a resolution of 35 hectare hexagons (for 98 overviews visit www.novenyzetiterkep.hu/node/1411; estimated values are available as a 99 100 database through the gateway of the MÉTA database; Somodi et al. 2017). The MPNV estimation can be considered as a multilayer map depicting the suitability of present 101 conditions regarding individual vegetation types, as it formalises on the relationship of 102 vegetation with a synthesis of climate, hydrology, soil and terrain variability. 103

We report on a project initiated by a private company committed to caring for the 104 environment, where best available scientific knowledge was applied during target setting and 105 implementation. The LEGO Group has decided to reconstruct native habitat around the 106 factory buildings in Hungary, at about 20 hectares. The main task of scientific planning was to 107 define a target habitat type that is sustainable with low management input in the long term, 108 has nature conservation value and is feasible to restore. Main challenges of feasibility include: 109 110 i) to find the most suitable target habitat providing nature conservation value in a highly modified landscape; ii) to provide rapid green cover with amenity value; iii) no detailed 111 historic record of previous native vegetation exists for the factory area; iv) threat of invasive 112 ragweed (Ambrosia artemisiifolia, nomenclature Király 2009) dominance after construction 113 works; v) restricted market of native seeds in Hungary; vi) limited availability of natural 114 habitats as donor sites in the area; vii) short term contract as a start. With so many aspects to 115 consider, a hierarchical prioritization for target selection was applied with the Multiple 116 117 Potential Natural Vegetation Model (MPNV) providing the ecological basis. The paper

describes how the model was used for target setting and how the challenges presented by the industrial collaboration have been met along the prioritization framework process. We evaluated the success of target setting by reporting on the early establishment of vegetation. No similar case of vegetation restoration in a factory yard was found in the literature, therefore report on success could help spreading the idea that there are further opportunities for native vegetation restoration in urban-industrial areas.

124 Methods

125 Site description

126 The new factory of the LEGO Group is situated at Nyíregyháza, N-E Hungary in the acidic inland sand dune region of Nyírség (lat 47° 57'N; long 21° 39'E). Annual average temperature 127 is 9.8°C, average precipitation is 550-600 mm. Major land use types are arable farming, 128 129 orchards and forest plantations (mainly non-native Black locust (Robinia pseudoacacia) and poplar (Populus spp.). Native steppe vegetation is scarce in the region, and missing from the 130 surroundings of the factory (Fig. S1). The construction of the factory was carried out at 131 previous apple orchards and arable fields, and included the destruction of the local relief. The 132 area provided for the restoration project is divided into parcels (between 1 and 4.5 ha) around 133 the buildings (Fig. 1). The sandy soil is loose, with very low water holding capacity, low 134 calcium, humus and nutrient content. The pH is close to neutral on the top and generally 135 acidic in the lower soil layers (Table S1). The parcels were obtained for planting at different 136 137 times according to release from construction works and were initially covered by weeds or were left bare after construction. 138

139 Hierarchical prioritization for target habitat selection

140 The selection of the target habitat type was based on multiple criteria. Priorities were arranged141 to three tiers. First, the most important priority was assigned to the self-sustainability and the

nature conservation value of target habitat. Second level priorities included feasibility of restoration and the production of rapid green surface to avoid sand blow. Amenity and education value were considered contributing to the third trier. Feedback was used among these tiers to find the best solution. The conceptual framework for prioritization is demonstrated in Fig. 2. The idea was to search for the best solution within the most important tier and if the next tiers were compromised, to go back to identify a target fulfilling all tier priorities, best as possible.

149 *Tier 1 priority*

The search for the probable vegetation type at the factory area was based on the assumption 150 that the vegetation type adapted to the given combination of environmental variables has the 151 highest potential to survive, when restored. To find this vegetation type the Multiple Potential 152 153 Natural Vegetation Model (MPNV) was applied (Somodi et al. 2012; 2017). The MPNV estimation was carried out covering the full country in a previous project. In the course of the 154 155 modelling Gradient Boosting Models (Elith et al. 2008) were used to relate the abiotic 156 conditions to the observed presence of natural vegetation types. The statistical relationships 157 identified were used to estimate presence probabilities of vegetation types as defined in the national habitat classification system (Bölöni et al. 2011) for the whole country including 158 159 areas currently devoid of natural vegetation (Somodi et al. 2017). The same 35 ha resolution (of adjacent hexagons) was used for the predictions as the input vegetation data were 160 available in this scale (MÉTA database; Molnár et al. 2007). Half of the vegetation data of a 161 particular habitat was used for training the model, the other half for testing model outputs. 162 Raw probabilities provided by models underlying MPNV cannot be compared across 163 164 vegetation types, because absolute probability values depend not solely on environmental suitability but also on the data characteristics per vegetation type, which is an undesirable 165 property. Habitats with few occurrences due to specific environmental requirements but not 166

167	due to human intervention and widespread zonal types achieve high probabilities in absolute,
168	but those with few occurrences due to conversion by humans have lower probabilities even
169	where they are relatively probable compared to their own distribution. To be able to assess the
170	range of habitats belonging to PNV at one location (in our case within one hexagon),
171	probabilities of different habitats needs to be standardised. A rescaling procedure was applied
172	yielding an ordinal scale of 5 ranks (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, the last being the highest probability).
173	Rescaling ensures that habitats with equal ranks are equally likely members of MPNV at one
174	location.
175 176	The obtained categories are as follows (the applied algorithm can be found in the Supporting information Fig. S2):
177	0 lower probability than the minimum probability within however, with observed
177	0- lower probability than the minimum probability within nexagons with observed
1/8	presence
179	Lowest probability: Only possible in hexagons where there is no observation of the
180	habitat.
181	1- higher probability than the minimum probability within hexagons with observed
182	presence, but lower than the average probability within hexagons without observed
183	presence
184	Low probability: It is lower than the average predicted probability for hexagons with
185	absence observations.
186	2- higher probability than the average probability within hexagons without observed
187	presence, but lower than the average probability within hexagons with observed
188	presence
189	Medium probability: higher than probabilities in hexagons, where the vegetation type
190	was not observed, but lower than probabilities in hexagons with observations.

3- higher probability than the average probability within hexagons with observed
presence, but lower than the highest value within hexagons without observed presence
High probability: the highest achievable score for hexagons without observation of
the habitat.

195 4- higher probability than the highest value within hexagons without observed presence.

196 Extreme high probability: high probability even within hexagons, where the habitat197 was observed.

198

Eight hexagons overlap the respective territory of the factory regarding the MPNV units, but 199 200 the surrounding was also considered by altogether 21 hexagon data. Habitats that require different soil type from that of the restoration parcels (Table S1) were rejected: halophytic 201 vegetation, types directly influenced by water and those that develop on loess base rock. The 202 most probable vegetation types for the average of the 21 hexagons were: closed and open sand 203 steppes, closed lowland oak forests and open steppe oak forests on sand (Table S2, Fig. 3). 204 205 All these habitat types are protected under the EU Habitat Directive as priority habitats (HD: 6260, HD: 9110 Council Directive 1992), therefore no further selection was required 206 regarding nature conservation priority. For the description of the habitat types see Table S3. 207

208 *Tier 2 priority*

For the second tier, propagule availability was estimated based on the survey of national seed market and on local knowledge for donor sites suitable for seed or hay collection. The species composition of the identified target habitat types provided the basis for the selection of target species to be used in the restoration intervention. A list of 107 target species was compiled to serve the search for propagules according to descriptions of species composition of the respective habitats (e.g. Bölöni et al. 2011) and local expert knowledge (Table S4). Relatively good provision of saplings of native tree and shrub species exists, but the native seed market is very limited in Hungary for steppe species. Only 15 target species could be purchased from
wild collections or cultivation. To increase diversity, we carried out seed collection by hand,
plus a seed mixture of generalist species from Hungary of cultivated origin was purchased.
Altogether the seeds of 50 plant species were purchased or collected in 2014 (Table 2). In the
lack of appropriate seed market, hay transfer as an alternative method to introduce species
was also considered.

222 *Tier 3 priority*

There was no preference among native habitat types expressed by the contractor, except to 223 ensure leisure-time activities and education near the entrance area. Therefore general amenity 224 and social preference (Staats et al. 2003) were considered. Previous studies found preference 225 for forest - grassland mosaic habitats around built up areas (Van den Berg & Van Winsum-226 227 Westra 2010; Martens et al. 2011; Hauru et al. 2012). Closed lowland oak forest does not fulfil this view, and was neglected as a target habitat. The potential value for environmental 228 229 education was also considered during the prioritization to promote the bioliteracy of local 230 population (Cruz & Segura 2010). There is a great potential in the project for environmental education, as the factory is highly attractive to visits for the sake of LEGO toys. As an 231 outreach, local school groups were involved in tree planting in 2014 for whom information 232 233 about the restoration project and the factory were provided. A demonstration garden was also constructed for visitors with a number of representative plant species and information boards 234 on the role of biodiversity, target communities and the ecological restoration program (Fig. 235 S3). 236

237 Target vision

Based on the outcome of the hierarchical prioritization, altogether three habitat types wereselected as restoration targets: closed and open sand steppes and open steppe oak forests.

Open steppe woodlands dominated by the Pedunculate oak (Quercus robur) contain smaller 240 groups of trees and have a mosaic arrangement with dry grasslands, including open and closed 241 sand steppes that gives a parklike appearance. We used this habitat type as a kind of vision 242 243 with a goal to reconstruct the physiognomy rather than the total historic species pool (Fig. 4). The goal therefore was not to reconstruct a single past habitat type, but to focus on the 244 introduction of wooded and open ecological mosaics with the help of character and available 245 246 species and by adequate planting and management techniques to ensure the survival of as many native, late seral species as possible. 247

248 Field work

Parcels became available for planting according to the factory construction phases, sometimes 249 in seasons unsuitable for restoration. Therefore preparatory plants, lucerne and rye commonly 250 251 used in the region were selected to provide green cover and control of weeds and invasive species (mainly ragweed, Ambrosia artemisiifolia). Soil compaction was treated by 252 253 ploughing, deep soil loosening and seedbed preparation before sowing and hay distribution, 254 equally carried out at previous nurse plant parcels. Restoration parcels differed in seed introduction methods and seeding rates according to the availability of species at the time of 255 release from construction (Fig. 1, Table 1). We present in detail the 2014 seed introduction 256 257 (Table 2). Altogether 50 grass and forb species were seeded in 2014. Four basic types of seed introduction were applied: 1) a general biodiverse mixture of native cultivated seeds (parcel 258 259 NW1); 2) seeds collected by our staff (parcels N, S); 3) seeds originating from wild collection (parcels N, S); and 4) the distribution of seed containing hay (parcels SE, SW). All seeds were 260 sown by hand evenly to the whole parcels (Fig. S4), except for seeds collected by our team 261 262 that were distributed to less than 0.5 ha in patches, due to low amount of seeds. Dried hay was obtained from three donor sites within a 60 km distance from the factory. Early summer hay 263 containing Fescue seeds (cc. 30 bales/ha; one bale about 250 kg) and bales from late harvest 264

containing mainly forb seeds (cc. 4 bales/ha) were distributed to whole parcels by hand and
pitchfork as evenly as possible, at about 5 cm cover. We used hay also as mulching on seeded
parcels (N, NW1, NW2, S) to control erosion by wind and for weed suppression (cc. 10
bales/ha).

Forest patches (sizes $300-3000 \text{ m}^2$) were planted after seed introduction. The desirable 269 270 proportion of forested patches was between 20-30% (similar to natural values). Trees were 271 not planted in rows, but followed an irregular design that considered both ecological and amenity requirements (Fig. S5). More than 16,000 specimen of 2-year-old undercut tree and 272 273 shrub saplings belonging to 23 species were planted in late autumn of 2014 and 2015 (Table 274 3). Severe drought and game damage impacted 2014 plantings resulting in more than 70 % die off. Only species with relatively good survival (17 species) were planted in 2015 with the 275 share of *Quercus robur* increased and 735 bigger oak samplings (3-4 years old) added. 276 Composted sewage sludge was given to each hole (0.1 kg) and rabbit mesh applied in winter 277 to increase survival. Post-treatment management implied machine mowing twice per year, 278 279 including the forested area, where hand mowing was applied.

280 Monitoring

The success of seed introduction was monitored against pre-treatment baseline, control and 281 reference areas. Multiple controls replace the usual no-treatment type as there was no option 282 to leave open surface within the factory area at a sufficient size. These included a low 283 284 diversity, traditional lawn within the factory area (6 ha) and a non-seeded control on a clearcut orchard where only tree plantations were allowed (parcel E, 7.5 ha in Fig. 1). Reference 285 grassland habitats included primary open and closed sand steppes from three locations 286 287 (Bátorliget 23 ha, Martinka 185 ha, Magy 6.5 ha). We applied the same sampling protocol for control, reference and restoration sites. We estimated visually the cover of each vascular plant 288 species on percentage scale in 5 randomly placed phytosociological plots (2 m x 2 m) in each 289

restoration parcel in June 2014, 2015 and 2016. As for species sown into discrete patches, the
whole patch was surveyed and the total area of each species was given per patch. Control
areas were sampled only in June 2015 and 2016 and reference areas were sampled either in
June 2015 or in June 2016. Survived planted trees and shrubs were counted in 2015 and in
2016 as well.

295 Data analyses of vegetation development

296 Relationship between herbaceous species composition and study sites (restoration parcels, reference, and control sites) was explored by successional trajectories drawn on indirect 297 ordination (Principal Component Analysis, PCA) (Legendre & Legendre 1998; Podani 2000). 298 Restoration parcels and control sites were grouped based on elapsed time from intervention: 299 baseline (before treatment, T0, N=35), 1st (T1, N=35) and 2nd year-old (T2, N=20), lawn (L1, 300 N=5; L2, N=5) and non-seeded control (C1, N=5; C2, N=5). Reference data included 15-15 301 samples for open and closed steppe (RO, RC). PCA ordination was based on species cover 302 data, transformed by log transformation. Because of uncertainties in distinguishing young 303 304 Furrowed fescue (Festuca rupicola), Hard fescue (F. pseudovina) and Valesian fescue (F. valesiaca), the three species were grouped under the name Festuca spp. The PCA was 305 centered by species, and centroids of groups were calculated to draw the trajectories along the 306 1st and 2nd axis in the ordination space. Multivariate analyses were carried out with Canoco 307 for Windows 4.5 (Ter Braak & Smilauer 2002). 308

309 **Results**

310 Grassland development

Restoration of the grassland matrix can be considered successful based on 2nd year data. The total coverage achieved by seeding was similar to sand steppes (parcels S: 58% and NW1: 115%). The dominant fescue species reaching 27-38% average cover, comparable to the open sand steppe (max 30%, Fig. S6). Out of the 50 seeded species, 38 established by the second
growing season (Table 2). Hay addition resulted in a lower total coverage (43%) comparable
to that of the open sand steppe. Lucerne, grasses and target species amounted up to 70% of
total cover.

PCA ordination proved an accelerated development of vegetation as a result of seed 318 introduction compared to control areas (Fig. 5). The seeding induced rapid changes in 319 320 vegetation composition, the second year samples became closer to closed sand steppes as the trajectory moved along the first axis (Fig. 5a). The second axis separated non-seeded control 321 322 from restoration parcels and reference plots, indicating that without seed introduction the 323 succession gets stuck at an annual dominated phase. The distribution of the most abundant species in the ordination space provides clarification on the differences. Drooping brome 324 (Bromus tectorum), Hairy vetch (Vicia villosa) and Horseweed (Convza canadensis) dominate 325 the unseeded control samples, while *Festuca pseudovina* and Plantain (*Plantago lanceolate*) 326 dominate reference and second year restored samples (Fig. 5b). Invasive ragweed (A. 327 328 artemisiifolia) also belongs to the annual dominated phase (2%), and the shift of treated plots along axis 1 demonstrates that treatment was successful in suppressing this invasive species, 329 resulting in a coverage of 0.01% by 2016. 330

331 Tree and shrub survival

The trees and shrubs of 2014 autumn plantation were impacted by severe dieback due to drought, only 22 and 17% of woody species survived on average, respectively (Table 3). Replanting by only less sensitive species next year was more successful, and resulted in 30 and 49% average survival for trees and shrubs. Tree and shrub first year survival was species dependent, reaching a maximum of 52 and 73%, respectively (*Ulmus minor*, planted 2014; *Prunus spinosa*, planted 2015). Young and elder oak saplings had similar survival rate (28%) regarding second year planting. Survival rates at forest patches ranged from 11 to 70% (notdetailed by patch in Table 3).

340 Discussion

The novel prioritization framework with hierarchical tiers representing different importance 341 proved to be a viable concept, resulting in a pragmatic and operational decision support for 342 restoration planning at site scale. The three tier prioritization model reflects all four principles 343 344 of successful restoration as defined by Suding et al. (2015). In their model they advocate for the following principles that restoration planning should take into consideration: increase of 345 ecological integrity; sustainability in the long term; planning to be informed by the past and 346 future and results should benefit and engage society. Our approach follows the logic of first 347 selecting a range of habitats best fitting to the ecological requirements, in the hope of ensuring 348 349 ecological integrity and sustainability. The set of target species were selected according to historical and contemporary records of species composition of the respective habitat. The 350 351 estimation of climate change tolerance of the target community type was included as 352 estimation of future changes. Next step was narrowing down this range of community types according to social preference and feasibility (e.g. availability of propagules). This process 353 included considering the benefits of local people as cultural ecosystem services by providing 354 355 amenity and education values. Our approach can be considered as a possible way for the implementation of the principles articulated by Suding et al. (2015). 356

The success of the approach at site level cannot fully be evaluated yet, but the development of the seeded parcels towards the reference steppes in two years is encouraging. Restoration sites became similar to closed sand steppe references and the invasive species cover decreased as expected. The amount of survived trees and shrubs gives hope to achieve a forest steppe-like community in the long term. This kind of prioritization can be easily adapted to other restoration projects, with a few considerations in mind.

In the heart of the prioritization was the MPNV modelling used for the first time for selecting 363 restoration target. MPNV provides multiple vegetation types, all of them suitable for the site 364 conditions, though with differing probabilities (Somodi et al. 2017). Its use allows for a wider 365 starting set of suitable vegetation types before weighting of natural versus technical 366 constraints and social preferences. A variety of targets for restoration has been long advocated 367 (Walker & del Moral 2009; Thorpe & Stanley 2011, Stanturf et al. 2014), however, these 368 multiple targets appeared at a higher hierarchical level, i.e. aiming at restoring pre-settlement 369 370 vs. sustainable vegetation (Thorpe & Stanley 2011) or targeting habitat of a flagship species vs. targeting restoration of vegetation (Fraser et al. 2017). If PNV was considered, it was 371 typically considered as a single option (e.g. Miyawaki 1998; Moravec 1998; Řehounková & 372 Prach 2008). State-and-transition models and approaches (Westoby et al. 1989; Briske et al. 373 2005) are somewhat similar to MPNV in their basic principle, however they include 374 375 vegetation sustainable under human management and allow for a change in abiotic conditions (soil erosion) in transitions. Similarly, Prach and del Moral (2014) implicitly argues for the 376 377 relevance and importance of allowing for multiple stable states in restorations. A difference of 378 both alternative approaches compared to MPNV is that their reference to multiple stable states includes PNV and potential replacement vegetation (PRV; sensu Chytry 1998) together, i.e. 379 380 self-sustainable vegetation and vegetation stable under human management only and achieves variation in targets this way. In contrast, our scheme allows for variation within PNV member 381 vegetation types offering a variety of potentially self-sustainable vegetation types (even if 382 self-sustainable to a different, but quantified degree). Our results suggest that a flexible 383 potential natural vegetation scheme can effectively support restoration if PNV is viewed as a 384 probability distribution of vegetation types. Current criticism of potential vegetation maps 385 being too coarse scale for restoration targeting (Siles et al. 2010) is also resolved by MPNV as 386 it is based on 35 hectare units. 387

Sustainability in the long term can be ensured either with focus on appropriate management 388 (Suding et al. 2015) or better by selecting from probable vegetation types suited to the 389 location (our approach) or some combination of these two approaches. A limit to the approach 390 391 of the target setting at the moment is that estimations are typically available only for the actual conditions at appropriate resolution and the approach does not account for potential 392 future changes, from which climate change appears inevitable. Ideally, a restoration target 393 should be set so that it both complies with actual and future conditions (Battin et al. 2007; 394 395 Choi et al. 2008). The dominant target species can serve as a proxy when estimating habitat survival under climate change (e.g. Gelviz-Gelvez et al. 2015). Oaks are reported to tolerate 396 well the expected climate change in the Carpathian Basin (Hlásny et al. 2014). Although 397 Hickler et al. (2012) provided an estimate for the future distribution of dominant species in 398 Europe, this estimation is too coarse for local applications. A better target setting would have 399 400 been ensured by considering MPNV and multiple potential future vegetation (Somodi et al. 2012) together. Potential future vegetation estimations are rare, however, models for expected 401 402 forest zonation change exist for two climate scenarios for Hungary at a country scale (Mátyás 2006; Czúcz et al. 2011). According to the worse scenario (1,3°C avg. temperature increase 403 and 66 mm yearly precipitation loss), zonal closed forests will shrink, while the forest steppe 404 zone will remain in the lowlands and further expand to the foothills of mountain areas. 405

In case of threatened and rare habitats, restoration projects might face the problem of scarce availability of local propagules. In similar cases we propose the parallel use of available propagules together with direct seed harvest and the application of seed containing hay material (cf. Kiehl et al. 2010). The approach to introduce as many target species as possible and let the system further develop beside careful, low-intensity management meets the technical constrains often imposed by the short contractual period to create a rapid, but 412 natural-like green surface. Societal benefits are taken into account at lower tiers. High
413 visibility and park-like landscape around built up areas adds to community acceptance.

The open steppe oak forest on sand is one of the most threatened and rare habitats for the 414 415 Pannonian region (Bölöni et al. 2011), and the sand steppes are also priority habitats (Council Directive 1992). Although there are well-known examples of large-scale steppe (Lengyel et 416 al. 2012) and steppic forest (Verő 2011) restoration efforts in Hungary, this experiment is 417 unique as no example of forest steppe complex restoration is known that commenced on bare 418 419 soil. Usually forest restoration focuses only on the trees and shrubs and herb layer is modified later (Honnay et al. 2002). In this study we considered the herb layer in the wooded patches as 420 a grassland to be restored parallel with the effort to plant the forest. 421

Our study demonstrates that MPNV and similar models can help private sector actors to contribute to comply global or European commitments to restore degraded habitats at private land. Non-built up industrial areas can be used as native biodiversity refuges instead of intensively managed, species poor green areas. Widely known good practices that imply lower management costs may have a snowball effect (Wortley et al. 2013) and attract other companies to act similarly.

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Table 1. Summary of seed introduction methods and seeding rates of restoration parcels.

609 Parcels became available for planting according to the factory construction phases. No seed

610 introduction took place at parcel E. 2015 spring seeding had to be repeated in autumn due to

summer drought. Codes follow Figure 1. For details on 2014 seeding rates see Table 2.

Code	N	NW1	NW2	S	SE	SW
Restoration area (ha)	1.5	4.5	4	2.6	1	1.7
Preparatory nurse plant						
Timing	2014 summer	2013 autumn		2014 summer	2013 autumn	2013 autumn
Nurse plant (kg/ha)	20	20		20	20	20
Seed introduction with hay						
Timing					2014 summer	2014 summer
Grass (bale)					26	40
Forbs (bale)					5	6
1st seeding					(only 0.03 ha)	
Timing	2014 autumn	2014 autumn	2015 spring	2014 autumn	2015 autumn	
Matrix grass	Festuca rupicola	Festuca pseudovina	Festuca pseudovina	Festuca rupicola	Festuca rupicola	
Cultivated seeds (kg/ha)		45	45			
Hand-collected seeds (kg/ha)	0.6			0.36	0.83	
Purchased collected seeds (kg/ha)	70			60	30	
2nd seeding						
Timing	2015 spring		2015 autumn			
Matrix grass	Festuca pseudovina		Festuca pseudovina			
Cultivated seeds (kg/ha)	45		65			
Nurse plant (kg/ha)	20					
3rd seeding						
Timing	2015 autumn					
Matrix grass	Festuca pseudovina					
Cultivated seeds (kg/ha)	88					
Hand-collected seeds (kg/ha)	10					
Mulching						
Timing	2015 autumn	2014 autumn	2015 autumn	2014 autumn		
Mulch (bales)	8	42	37	26		

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Table 2. Seeding rates (2014) and 2^{nd} year survival (2016). Herbaceous species were either

616 purchased from cultivators (parcel NW1) or collectors (parcel N) or collected by the project

617 staff (parcel S). Note: + is less than 0.01 g/ha; * is in %, not m^2

	Parcel Code	NW1		S		N	
			Hand-collected		ollected	Purchased collected seeds	
	Origin of seeds	Cultivate	ed seeds	seeds+purchased			
				Fescue			
		seeding	mean	seeding	total	seeding	mean
		rate	cover	rate	cover	rate	cover
No	Caracian manage	(g/ha)	2016 (%)	(g/ha)	(m^2)	(g/ha)	2016 (%)
	Species names			250	(,		
	Achillea collina	270	0.01	250	60		
		370	0.01				
3	Agrimonia eupatoria	839	0				
4	Anthemis arvensis	/30	2				
5	Anthemis tinctoria	730	0.4				
6	Anthyllis vulneraria	370	1				
7	Berteroa incana			2	15		
8	Centaurea arenaria			1	24		
9	Centaurea cyanus	730	0.2				
10	Centaurea jacea	730	1				
11	Consolida orientalis	730	0.2				
12	Consolida regalis	730	1				
13	Corynephorus cansecens			10	0		
14	Cynoglossum hungaricum			2	+		
15	Dianthus pontederae			4	4		
16	Erysimum diffusum			5	13		
17	Festuca spp.	30000	38	60000	27*	60000	0
18	Festuca vaginata			21	0.1		
19	Filipendula vulgaris					1.8	0
20	Galium verum	440	0			2.7	0
21	Gypsophila paniculata	370	0				
22	Hieracium pilosella			1	0.3		
23	Hypericum perforatum			14	2	500	0
24	Hypochoeris radicata			1	1		
25	Jasione montana			7	1		
26	Knautia arvensis					100	0
27	Lathyrus tuberosus	730	0.3				
28	Leucanthemum margaritae	1100	0				
29	Linum perenne	1100	1				
30	Lotus corniculatus					1.5	0
31	Onobrychis arenaria	110	0				
32	Origanum vulgare	370	0				
33	Papaver rhoeas	730	2				

34	Petrorhagia prolifera			3	16		
35	Peucedanum oreoselinum			9	0		
36	Plantago lanceolata	730	7			1.5	0
37	Poa angustifolia			1	+		
38	Potentilla argentea			1	3.8	500	0
39	Pseudolysimachion spicatum					100	0
40	Rumex acetosella			7	3.5		
41	Salvia austriaca	150	0				
42	Salvia nemorosa	1000	0.1				
43	Salvia pratensis	1100	0				
44	Securigera varia	730	0.01			1.5	0
45	Silene alba	370	2				
46	Silene nutans					250	0
47	Silene vulgaris	730	0.5				
48	Taraxacum officinale	90	0.01				
49	Teuchrium chamaedris			22	0		
50	Verbascum densiflorum			1	0		
	TOTAL	45809	57%	60362	149 m ²	61459	0%

Table 3. Number of planted trees and shrubs and rate of survival by species at the total

621 planted area. Second year survival was counted from first year survived specimen.

	Tree species	2014 plantation (No.)	2014/2015 survived (%)	2015/2016 survived (%)	2015 plantation (No.)	2015/2016 survived (%)	total survived (%)
1	Acer campestre	94	36	62	200	41	35
2	Acer tataricum	176	22	55	100	31	19
3	Betula pendula	260	0	0			0
4	Malus sylvestris	60	13	38	50	8	6
5	Populus xcanescens	316	20	29	300	23	14
6	Pyrus pyraster	64	30	47	50	10	12
7	Quercus robur (1-2 year)	1,296	15	43	6,600	28	25
8	Quercus robur (3-4 year)				735	28	28
9	Tilia cordata	126	2	100			2
10	Tilia tomentosa	354	23	47	400	44	28
11	Ulmus laevis	66	30	60	80	44	32
12	Ulmus minor	64	52	64	250	45	42
	Total tree planted	2,876			8,765		
	Average tree survival		22%	54%		30%	20%
		2014	2014/2015	2015/2016	2015	2015/2016	total
	Shrub species	plantation	survived	survived	plantation	survived	survived
		(No.)	(%)	(%)	(No.)	(%)	(%)
1	Cornus sanguinea	618	12	47	550	13	9
2	Corylus avellana	406	3	64			2
3	Crataegus monogyna	440	38	56	250	41	28
4	Euonymus europaeus	353	36	78	350	54	41
5	Frangula alnus	169	0				0
6	Ligustrum vulgare	481	22	51	150	49	20
7	Prunus spinosa	189	15	21	100	73	27
8	Rhamnus catharticus	219	19	34	150	50	24
9	Rosa canina	268	15	78	200	65	35
10	Sambucus nigra	272	7	0			0
11	Viburnum lantana	12	17	17			17
	Total shrub planted	3,426			1,750		
	Average shrub survival		17%	45%		49%	19%
	Total tree & shrub	6,302			10,515		

622

624 Figure Captions

Figure 1. Map of treatments within the LEGO factory. Restoration parcels are namedaccording to cardinal points. For details on restoration parcels see Table 1.

Figure 2. Concept of restoration prioritization and selection of methodology for target setting.

Priority is constant within a tier. The selection procedure followed the arrows with feedbackloops.

Figure 3. MPNV hexagon map of factory area and surroundings. Hexagons (35 ha each) are colored according to the most probable vegetation types (probability rank \ge 2). Habitat codes are G1: open sand steppes, H5b: closed sand steppes, L5: closed lowland oak forests, M4: open steppe oak forests on sand. Colors are chosen so as darker ones to represent more woody vegetation presence in the MPNV.

Figure 4. Picture of open steppe oak forest remnant, model for restoration (Álló-hegy,Hungary, Photo: M. Halassy).

637 Figure 5. PCA trajectory of restoration plots compared to control and reference plots (a) and scatter plot of species (b). Axis 1 and 2 explain 19 and 15% of variance respectively. For 638 better transparence, species composition is represented for only the 20 dominant species. T0 =639 baseline; $T1 = 1^{st}$ year after seed introduction; $T2 = 2^{nd}$ year after seed introduction, C1 = non-640 seeded control 2015; C2 = non-seeded control 2016; L1 = lawn 2015; L2 = lawn 2016; RC: 641 closed sand steppe reference and RO: open sand steppe reference. Species codes: ambart: 642 Ambrosia artemisiifolia; antrut: Anthemis ruthenica; brohor: Bromus hordaceus; brotec: 643 Bormus tectorum; carste: Carex stenophylla; conary: Convolvulus arvensis; concan: Convza 644 canadensis; cyndac: Cynodon dactylon; equram: Equisetum ramosissimum; fespse: Festuca 645 pseudovina; fesvag: Festuca vaginata; lolper: Lolium perenne; medsat: Medicago sativa; 646

- 647 plalan: *Plantago lanceolata*; seccer: *Secale cereale*; thysp: *Thymus sp.*; torrur: *Tortula ruralis*;
- 648 triarv: *Trifolium arvense*; tristr: *Trifolium striatum*; vicvil: *Vicia villosa*.

649 Figures



651 Fig. 1







657 Fig. 3.



661 Fig. 4.





664 Fig. 5a.





