1

## 2 Global success in oyster reef restoration despite ongoing recovery debt.

3

4 Deevesh A. Hemraj<sup>1</sup>, Melanie J. Bishop<sup>2</sup>, Boze Hancock<sup>3</sup>, Jay J. Minuti<sup>1</sup>, Ruth H. Thurstan<sup>4</sup>,

5 Philine S.E. Zu Ermgassen<sup>5</sup>, and Bayden D. Russell<sup>1</sup>\*

- <sup>7</sup> <sup>1</sup> The Swire Institute of Marine Science and Division for Ecology and Biodiversity, School of
- 8 Biological Sciences, The University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam Road, Hong Kong SAR, China.
- <sup>9</sup> <sup>2</sup>School of Natural Sciences, Macquarie University, Sydney, NSW, Australia
- <sup>3</sup>The Nature Conservancy, C/O URI Graduate School of Oceanography, 215 South Ferry Rd.,
- 11 Narragansett, Rhode Island, USA.
- <sup>4</sup>Centre for Ecology and Conservation, College of Life and Environmental Sciences, The
- 13 University of Exeter, Cornwall, TR10 9FE, United Kingdom.
- <sup>5</sup>Changing Oceans Group, School of Geosciences, University of Edinburgh, James Hutton Rd,
- 15 King's Buildings, Edinburgh EH9 3FE, United Kingdom
- 16
- 17 \*Corresponding author: brussell@hku.hk
- 18
- 19 Key words: ecosystem recovery, restoration, degraded habitat, alternative substrate

## 20 Abstract

Habitat destruction and biodiversity loss from exploitation of ecosystems have led to increased 21 22 restoration and conservation efforts worldwide. Disturbed ecosystems accumulate a recovery debt - the accumulated loss of ecosystem services - and quantifying this debt presents a 23 valuable tool to develop better ecosystem restoration practices. Here, we quantified the ongoing 24 25 recovery debt following structural restoration of oyster habitats, one of the most degraded marine ecosystems worldwide. We found that whilst restoration initiates a rapid increase in 26 27 biodiversity and abundance of 2- to 5-fold relative to unrestored habitat, recovery rate decreases substantially within a few years post-restoration and accumulated global recovery 28 29 debt persists at >35% per annum. Therefore, while efficient restoration methods will produce enhanced recovery success and minimise recovery debt, potential future coastal development 30 31 should be weighed up against not just the instantaneous damage to ecosystem functions and services but also the potential for generational loss of services and long-term recovery. 32

## 34 Introduction

Exploitation and disturbance of ecosystems in the Anthropocene has led to severe degradation 35 of natural biomes and loss of biodiversity<sup>1,2,3</sup>. Consequently, investment in conservation and 36 restoration efforts have increased worldwide<sup>4,5,6,7</sup>, especially as a strategy to restore ecosystem 37 services<sup>8</sup>. Whilst the cost-benefit ratio of restoration is often justified as ecosystem recovery 38 that yields sufficient benefits to human prosperity<sup>9</sup>, recovery of ecosystems back to a reference 39 state in terms of biodiversity and ecosystem functions and services<sup>10</sup> often requires 40 decades<sup>11,12,13</sup>. Where damaged ecosystems provide reduced function or support reduced 41 42 biodiversity relative to the historical "natural state" (reference/pristine condition), a recovery debt is accumulated<sup>13</sup> (Fig. 1). While recovery debt has been estimated in ecosystems that 43 largely only require natural regeneration following the removal of persistent disturbances<sup>13</sup>, the 44 45 recovery debt and recovery pathway of marine habitats requiring active intervention, including structural restoration, remains undetermined (Fig. 1). 46

47

A major part of the accumulated debt in recovering ecosystems can be considered as services 48 foregone<sup>14</sup> (future services had there not been damage). Actions which increase the rate of 49 system recovery (e.g., habitat restoration) will theoretically increase both the rate of recovery 50 and the potential for an ecosystem to recover to its maximum capacity, minimise the services 51 foregone, and thus reduce recovery debt. Therefore, utilising the best performing restoration 52 methods to rapidly boost recovery of ecosystems may minimize the accumulated recovery debt 53 and at least partially offset the ongoing damage associated with current activities (e.g., coastal 54 55 development).

56

57 Oyster habitats are one of the most anthropogenically impacted coastal habitats worldwide. At 58 least 85% of oyster habitats have been lost globally, predominantly as a consequence of

historical overharvest using destructive fishing practices, but also due to more recent effects of 59 coastal urbanisation, including declining water quality and introduced disease issues<sup>15,16</sup>. 60 Destructive dredge harvest not only removed live oysters and their biological functions, but 61 also the remnant dead oyster shells that provide structural complexity (vertical relief and size) 62 and substrate for oyster settlement<sup>15</sup>. As such, only a handful of sites remain globally where 63 oyster habitats remain in their 'natural state' (mainly in the East and Gulf Coasts of the USA). 64 65 Given the biogenic reef building nature of oyster habitats, and a life history that leaves them vulnerable to allee effects, natural recovery is unlikely given the loss of structural habitat which 66 67 is essential for oyster settlement. Therefore, intensive restoration efforts of oyster habitats have led to large capital investment in various methods, all aiming to increase the spatial area of 68 oyster habitat, their functioning, and ecosystem services<sup>17,18,19,20,21,22</sup>. 69

70

Restoration of oyster habitats typically includes remediation of environmental conditions, 71 substrate provision and/or restocking with juvenile and/or adult oysters<sup>23</sup>. Key considerations 72 73 in substrate provision are the type of material used (e.g., recycled shell vs. artificial materials such as concrete blocks) as well as its spatial arrangement<sup>24</sup>. While oyster habitats naturally 74 accrete on oyster shell, the availability of oyster shells (from aquaculture, or shell recycling 75 program) is generally limiting, meaning that different substrate types have been tested as an 76 alternative in oyster habitat restoration studies. Although a range of factors associated with the 77 spatial arrangement of substrate (e.g., patch size, fragmentation) can influence oyster 78 establishment and ecosystem service provision<sup>24</sup>, vertical relief is considered particularly 79 important as it can influence oyster habitat growth by determining water flow, dissolved 80 oxygen concentrations, and reduce smothering from the accumulation of sediment. 81

The exploitation and removal of oyster habitats largely took place during, or prior to, the 19th 83 century<sup>25,26,27</sup>. While scarce documentation exists which depicts the pristine or pre-impact 84 condition of oyster reefs, it is widely accepted that our current understanding is hampered by a 85 shifted baseline. Recovery debt following structural restoration of oyster habitats (e.g., Fig. 1) 86 87 can therefore currently only be assessed relative to remnant habitat (Box 1). Assessment of the 88 current recovery can be used to identify the extent to which restoration efforts can mitigate 89 contemporary damage (e.g., with coastal development), to improve the incorporation of recovery debt in restoration planning, environmental offsets, and in mitigation measures. While 90 91 oyster habitat restoration tends to yield some positive results in terms of recovery towards a reference state, the effectiveness of varying methods of restoration in terms of maximum 92 habitat recovery remain unclear. Here, we calculated the recovery debt for restored oyster 93 94 habitat globally and undertook a meta-analysis of oyster habitat restoration worldwide to: (1) calculate restoration associated recovery of biodiversity and abundance of resident and 95 96 transient fish and invertebrates in oyster habitats; and (2) identify the methods for oyster habitat 97 restoration which most successfully reduced recovery debt. Overall, we demonstrate that restoration is effective at rapidly mitigating damage to oyster habitat ecosystems, but while the 98 99 accumulated debt is variable among different measures of recovery, debt continues to 100 accumulate.

## **Box 1: Key Terminologies**

**Oyster habitat**: a patch of oysters large enough to form three-dimensional complex habitat. Similar terminology used in the literature include 'oyster bed' or 'oyster reef'.

**Recovery debt**: accumulated loss of ecosystem structure and functions between the point of habitat damage and "full recovery" to a reference state.

**Restored habitat**: an oyster habitat patch that has been actively restored, for example, by the addition of substrate (e.g., oyster shell, limestone, concrete) and/or the provision of live oysters

**Remnant habitat**: oyster habitats that have not been destroyed or degraded (e.g., by extraction of oysters) and have persisted over centuries, or those that have historically been damaged but have since fully recovered through natural processes. These habitats are used as reference habitat for calculating recovery debt of restored reefs.

**Unrestored habitat**: an area where oysters historically were present but are presently degraded and are not being restored. These habitats are generally areas of bare sediment where oyster reefs previously existed.

#### 102

## 103 **Results**

## 104 Oyster habitat recovery post restoration

105 The analysis of monitoring data for 20 restored oyster habitats, obtained over an average of four years post restoration (Fig. 2a, b), revealed that the restored habitats had an annual average 106 of 36.08% ( $\pm$  5.58 SE) lower species diversity of fish and invertebrates than remnant habitats. 107 While four restoration sites recovered well in terms of diversity within three to four years post 108 restoration (RDr < 10%), all remaining sites had a recovery debt of >20% (Fig. 2). Total 109 abundance of fish and invertebrates recovered better than diversity, having a mean recovery 110 debt of 24.37% per annum (± 9.28 SE), over an average monitoring period of 3 years. In 111 contrast to diversity, fish, and invertebrate abundance at 5 out of 20 restored habitats had fully 112 offset the recovery debt (negative recovery debt) after two and a half years, suggesting 113 complete recovery and even higher fish and invertebrate abundance compared to remnant 114 habitats. It must be noted, however, that abundance does not account for shifts in relative 115

abundance among species compared to remnant habitats and does not discriminate betweenattraction and production.

118

Over the longer-term, neither diversity nor abundance showed a consistent relationship 119 between estimated recovery debt and time (years) since implementation of structural 120 restoration (Fig. 2;  $r^2 = 0.029$ , P = 0.458,  $r^2 = 0.057$ , P = 0.315, respectively). However, during 121 122 the first 4 years, there was substantial decrease in recovery debt in terms of species diversity (slope: -22.849,  $r^2$ : 0.4962, P = 0.0054). Annual recovery rates were high in the first two to 123 124 four years but then decreased (Fig. 3). Overall, with a few exceptions, restored oyster habitats tended to recover towards a reference state (Fig. 3; percentage recovery rate =  $27.05 \pm 4.07$  SE 125 and  $90.16 \pm 32.16$  SE for diversity and abundance, respectively) though there was no indication 126 as to when, or if, the habitats would reach "full recovery" (matching reference habitats). 127

128

#### 129 Difference in diversity and abundance between restored and unrestored habitats

The calculated effect sizes (lnRR) indicated that compared to unrestored habitats (areas that 130 have been left in a degraded state for decades (generally as bare sediment), restored habitats 131 had an overall greater nekton abundance, ( $\delta = 1.117 \pm 0.309$ , P < 0.001) (see Supplementary 132 File 2 for all meta-analysis results). Invertebrate abundance displayed a larger effect size 133 134 between restored and unrestored habitats than fish abundance (93.5% increase for fish and 532.2% increase for invertebrates) though both were significant (invertebrates:  $\delta = 0.273 \pm$ 135 0.264, P < 0.042; fish  $\delta$  = 1.294 ± 0.48, P < 0.001; Fig. 4a, b). The effect size for abundance 136 was greatest in the first year of habitat restoration, and overall displayed a negative relationship 137 with time (Q = 7.76, df = 1, P = 0.005; Fig. 4c), suggesting that following a period of rapid 138 response, recovery slowed. Yet, while the rate of increase in abundance declined over time 139

(Fig. 3), abundance remained consistently higher in restored habitats relative to unrestored sites(Fig. 4c).

142

## 143 Oyster habitat restoration method

Overall, more oyster spat recruited to oyster shells than 15 alternate substrata (of which 144 limestone, concrete, and granite were most common) ( $\delta = -0.472 \pm 0.203$ , P < 0.001; Fig. 5a). 145 Of the alternate substrata, limestone performed the closest to oyster shells with no significant 146 147 difference between the two ( $\delta = 0.120 \pm 0.256$ , P = 0.356; Fig. 5a). Granite seemed to attract slightly fewer recruits than oyster shells (7 of 12 studies), but that difference was not significant 148  $(\delta = -0.206 \pm 0.657, P = 0.540)$ . However, fewer recruits (approximately -37% compared to 149 150 ovster shell) settled on concrete structures ( $\delta = -0.788 \pm 0.372$ , P < 0.001; Fig. 5a). Restored 151 habitats which recouped the recovery debt (negative debt) and had the greatest increase in abundance<sup>28,29,30,31</sup> were all constructed with either limestone, oyster shell, or a mix of both 152 (Fig. 2, 4). 153

154

Vertical relief influenced the density of live oysters whereby oyster habitats more than 20 cm above the sediment had ~84% higher live oyster density than unrestored bare sediment ( $\delta =$ 1.771 ± 0.474, P < 0.001; Fig. 5b) while oyster habitats with vertical relief <20 cm did not support higher oyster densities than unrestored bare sediment ( $\delta = 0.34 \pm 1.391$ , P < 0.631). No linear relationship was found between relief and oyster density, with increased vertical relief above 20 cm not contributing to substantially more recruitment (Q = 0.0715, df = 1, P = 0.789, Fig. 5b).

162

## 164 **Discussion**

Historical exploitation has left the majority of ecosystems formed by oysters in a severely 165 166 degraded state for decades to centuries. Our analyses focus on the contemporary debt that is still accrued following restoration meaning that mitigation of the damage to coastal habitats 167 will, at the very least, take more direct intervention and time to recover than generally 168 169 anticipated. We found that recovery debt tends to decrease during the immediate 2 - 4 years following restoration across all the locations assessed globally, concomitant with rapid 170 colonisation of biota – an important result given the increasing investment of resources in 171 oyster habitat restoration worldwide. The decrease in recovery debt is not, however, maintained 172 through time and following a rapid initial recovery of faunal assemblages associated with the 173 restored habitat, reducing the accrued debt, there is a gradual increase in debt as recovery slows 174 (Fig. 2 and 3). This shift likely reflects an initial rapid accumulation of biodiversity of early 175 successional species, followed by establishment of competitively dominant taxa that stabilize 176 177 the assemblage structure and exclude some species. This initial increase in species abundance/diversity followed by subsequent community turnover and change in species 178 interactions is a trend of recovery through time observed in many terrestrial and aquatic 179 ecosystems<sup>32,33,34</sup>. In fact, ecosystem complexity and recovery are attained following build-up 180 of species abundance and richness, community turnover, and meta-community 181 interactions<sup>11,12,13</sup>. Therefore, while restoration can be effective in rapidly reducing the debt 182 that accrues following destruction of coastal habitats, focusing monitoring on the initial years 183 following restoration will overestimate the trajectory towards recovery <sup>35</sup>. 184

185

186 The recovery of diversity of oyster habitat-associated fish and invertebrates was slower than 187 that of abundance (~36% and ~24% recovery debt, respectively). This differs from the previous 188 estimates from most ecosystems whereby overall recovery debt in diversity is generally higher

than that of abundance<sup>13</sup>. The trajectory of recovery in abundance and diversity tend to differ 189 in ecosystems depending on the type of restoration practice (active vs. passive restoration) by 190 either driving rapid abundance of opportunistic colonisers or slow progression in community 191 turnover<sup>36</sup>. For example, in the terrestrial realm, active landscape restoration (e.g., tree 192 planting) tends to increase faunal abundance faster than diversity because of the sudden change 193 in habitat structure which can be rapidly exploited by few species (e.g., forest specialists<sup>34,36</sup>). 194 195 On the other hand, similar barren landscapes undergoing passive recovery will experience progressive community turnover from an open-field community to a forest species dominated 196 community as the habitat setting gradually changes<sup>36</sup>. Comparable trends have been recorded 197 in active mangrove restoration whereby abundance of algivorous fish species peak after 198 restoration, but overall fish diversity remains low<sup>37</sup>. While the progression in recovery of 199 200 abundance and diversity of organisms have not been contrasted between passive or active restoration efforts in multiple marine habitats, our results suggest a fast increase of abundance 201 of some species in restored oyster habitats, where active restoration by substrate provision is 202 generally unavoidable. 203

204

It is likely that attraction of mobile fauna from adjacent habitats to the more structurally 205 complex restored habitats, rather than purely enhanced recruitment, accounts for some of this 206 rapid increase in faunal abundance<sup>38,39</sup>. Interestingly, 25% of restored sites we assessed gained 207 higher abundance than their reference sites (remnant habitats). As the remnant habitats 208 themselves are likely to have experienced some extent of change since industrial overfishing 209 began in the 19<sup>th</sup> century (shifting baselines), this higher abundance is likely to be, at least 210 partly, reflective of somewhat disturbed remnant habitats. Unfortunately, the multigenerational 211 exploitation and damage of marine systems means that we have lost most undisturbed 212 "reference" baselines. Anecdotally, many of the 'remnant habitats' are actually reefs formed 213

from other human activities like abandoned benthic oyster farm infrastructure or even 214 discarded rock ballast from early trade, making it largely impossible to quantify the degree of 215 216 this past impact; effectively we cannot recreate the true historical baseline. Many of our estimates consider locations where nominally undisturbed remnant habitats were available for 217 comparison with restored habitats, yet it is important to note that these locations form a very 218 small proportion globally of the areas where habitats would have been historically<sup>15</sup>. In 219 220 addition, the short duration of most monitoring programmes (2-6 years) means that it is not possible to quantify the time to full recovery. Nonetheless, our estimated recovery debt, along 221 222 with the considerable decrease in the rate of recovery over time, suggest that an initial rapid partial recovery of oyster habitat associated fish and invertebrates is likely in restored habitats, 223 but complete recovery for both abundance and diversity will require >10 years (Fig. 6). 224

225

Irrespective of the accrued recovery debt, restoration efforts rapidly increase habitat function 226 relative to unrestored sites. Restoration contributes to approximately double the abundance of 227 fish and more than fivefold the abundance of invertebrates to coastal ecosystems over 228 unrestored habitats. Such increases are promising in terms of recouping ecosystem services 229 such as fisheries<sup>22,39,40</sup>. For example, multiple assessments grounded on the increase in habitat 230 provisioning and nekton abundances show that restoration provides multiple prospects for 231 fisheries<sup>22,41,42,43</sup>. Nonetheless, the general temporal progression of ecosystem recovery 232 towards climax community composition through compositional turnover<sup>44</sup>, community/meta-233 community interactions, and broader ecosystem resilience and stability have to be accounted 234 for when managing ecosystem recovery<sup>2,12,41</sup>. In this sense, complementing active restoration 235 with adequate time and protection for the habitat to mature will further benefit recovery<sup>42</sup>. 236

While oyster habitat restoration is generally beneficial in terms of increased oyster density and 238 oyster habitat associated biodiversity, not all restoration methods performed equally. First, we 239 found that oyster shell was the best substrate for habitat building in terms of spat recruitment. 240 However, oyster shells are not readily available in bulk for large scale restoration, may have 241 biosecurity risks if not adequately weathered prior to use, may not provide sufficiently stable 242 structure in wave-swept areas, and have high monetary costs<sup>43</sup>. We also advise caution with 243 244 the use of other types of shells, as there is preliminary evidence that brittle or thin shells may break down rapidly and not form the structure which is key for spat recruitment and survival 245 (e.g., the use of surf clam shell in Harris Creek, Chesapeake Bay<sup>44</sup>). As an alternative substrate 246 when oyster shell is limited, limestone performed almost as well in terms of spat recruitment. 247 In fact, the best performing restoration projects from our analysis (e.g., C. virginica reefs in the 248 USA) used either oyster shell, limestone, or a mix of both as substrate for habitat 249 building<sup>28,29,30,31,49</sup>. Secondly, our finding that live oyster density is maximised on habitats with 250 structure more than 20-30 cm above the sediment reinforces current restoration practices<sup>50,51,52</sup>. 251 Habitats with higher relief are more likely to avoid smothering of oysters by sedimentation and 252 elevate oysters above seasonally hypoxic bottom waters thereby increasing survival of spat and 253 adults<sup>51,53</sup>. The maximum relief of habitats above the sediment will be defined by water depth 254 and tidal range, especially for intertidal habitats. Such intertidal habitats will expand laterally, 255 gaining surface area rather than height, while subtidal habitats have the potential for both lateral 256 and vertical growth. Irrespective of whether restoration is inter- or subtidal, however, we 257 demonstrate that greatest success is achieved when the restoration substrate is sufficiently 258 above the sediment, providing refined guidance for restoration planning. 259

260

Overall, we demonstrate that active restoration of oyster habitats provides enormous benefits to the recovery of associated faunal diversity and abundance (Fig.4). Our measurement of

recovery debt post-restoration highlights that recovery of degraded oyster habitats to a 263 reference state is a long-term process and will also benefit from elimination of any external 264 265 disturbance (e.g., protection from oyster harvest). In addition, ecosystems require time to develop a stable and resilient community structure following active structural restoration. 266 Nonetheless, implementing the appropriate restoration methods has the potential to boost 267 recovery rate, improve overall outcomes, and maximise return for effort. It must be noted that, 268 269 currently, monitoring of restored habitats is generally done for < 5 years post-restoration, capturing the initial boost in recovery but not the subsequent progressive change in community 270 composition that remains integral to regaining full ecosystem complexity<sup>12</sup>. Refining our 271 understanding of the capacity of restored habitats to recover full functions and services will 272 require longer-term monitoring, even more so in areas where remnant reference reefs are not 273 274 present as maximum recovery in such habitats will only likely be indicated by long-term maintenance of ecosystem complexity and stability. From a different perspective, we bring into 275 276 focus that the actions to offset or mitigate the damage caused by coastal development may be inadequate and the prospect of future sustainable development should be weighed up against 277 not just the instantaneous loss of ecosystem function and services, but the potential for 278 279 generational loss as has been the case for oyster habitats. Overall, by integrating an estimation of oyster habitat recovery with an assessment of the most effective restoration methods we 280 show that, globally, biodiversity and abundance benefit immensely from oyster habitat 281 restoration and the recovery completeness will progressively increase on potentially decadal 282 scales. 283

284

### 286 Methods

#### 287 Literature search

Our analysis followed the PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and 288 Meta-Analyses) and the CEE (Collaboration for Environmental Evidence) guidelines. We 289 aggregated studies targeting ovster habitat restoration by using the search terms (("ovster reef" 290 OR "oyster habitat" OR "oyster bed") AND ("restoration" OR "recovery" OR "rehabilitation" 291 292 OR "substrate" OR "relief" OR "biodiversity" OR "species richness" OR "abundance" OR "living shoreline" OR "community" OR "epifauna" OR "nekton")) from three databases: 293 Google Scholar, Scopus and Web of Science. Study identification was terminated on the 29<sup>th</sup> 294 of September 2021 (range: 1970 to 29th September 2021) and only peer-reviewed journal 295 articles and dissertations were included in our study. Also, we used species abundance and 296 297 diversity for recovery debt and rate calculations as few papers documented how other parameters (e.g. filtration, wave attenuation) changed post restoration compared to a remnant 298 site (low sample size). Our initial literature search yielded 12,128 papers. After removal of 299 300 duplicates and studies that were out of context, 1,374 papers remained (Primary screening; 301 Supplementary File 1). We then screened these papers to identify those that were specifically relevant to oyster restoration projects. The majority of studies (~73%) and sites focusing on 302 oyster habitat restoration were situated in the east coast of North America (Fig. S1 and S2). 303

304

#### **305** Selection criteria

We removed duplicate papers and manually screened the titles and abstracts of each study to select studies that explicitly targeted oyster habitat restoration. We included all papers that studied one or more of the following:

A measure of the resident or transient fish and invertebrates sampled in restored and
 remnant habitats (e.g., abundance, density, CPUE, species richness, diversity).

- 311 2. A measure of the resident or transient fish and invertebrates sampled in restored oyster
  312 habitats and degraded habitat (commonly represented as bare sediment).
- 313 3. A measure of oyster density in relation to oyster habitat vertical relief
- 4. A measure of recruitment on oyster shell and other substrata for restoration.

To be extracted and used in our analysis, studies had to report data either as mean/median with 315 a measure of variance (e.g., SD or range) in tables or figures, or provide the full data set from 316 which mean, and SD could be calculated. In the case a study reported data from multiple sites, 317 each site was used as an individual data point. If a study reported two metrics that were of 318 319 interest (e.g., diversity and abundance, or fish abundance and invertebrate abundance), each metric was analysed separately and as appropriate for our analysis. We only included data 320 321 which were directly relevant to oyster habitat performance, excluding anything that could 322 indirectly come from the influence of other types of habitats (e.g., adjacent marsh or mangroves). For example, if a study reported a metric from a control site, an oyster-only site 323 and an oyster and seagrass site, we only use the data from the control and oyster-only sites. 324 When studies reported data over shorter time intervals than yearly (e.g., monthly), we 325 calculated a pooled annual mean and SD including each data point in our estimation to capture 326 the whole range of response<sup>54</sup>. Based on the selection criteria for our research question, data 327 were then extracted from 70 papers spanning sites worldwide (Supplementary Fig. 1). From 328 329 these papers, a total of 232 data points were retrieved to estimate recovery debt in terms of 330 biological diversity (n = 20 data points) and transient and resident fish and invertebrate abundance (n = 20), to analyse difference in fish and invertebrate abundance between restored 331 and unrestored habitats (n = 76), estimate the influence of different substrates on oyster spat 332 333 recruitment (n = 90), and estimate the influence of vertical relief on oyster density (n = 26).

334 Data for analysis were extracted from figures using PlotDigitizer for windows, or from tables335 and text.

336

## 337 Calculating recovery debt and recovery rate

Recovery debt was calculated following<sup>13</sup>. In brief, we screened all studies that reported an 338 outcome metric that was either species richness, diversity index, species density, or species 339 abundances. Here we used overall organism diversity or abundance (combining fish and 340 341 invertebrates) linked to reef restoration to obtain the best estimate of overall recovery debt for each reef. For recovery rate and debt calculations we only used data from studies that included 342 343 the outcome metrics (e.g., abundance and diversity metrics) from before restoration and after 344 restoration (no matter the time post restoration), at the restoration and a reference remnant site. Recovery debt in terms of diversity (including metrics representing the number of species 345 utilising a site, e.g., species richness and diversity) and abundance (including metrics 346 representing an estimate of the number of individuals within a site, e.g., abundances, CPUE 347 and density) were then separately calculated using the following equations: 348

349 (1)  $RD = X_r T - [(1/r)^*(X_e - X_s)]$ 

350 (2) 
$$RDt = X_r - [(1/rT)^*(X_e-X_s)]$$

351 (3) 
$$RDr(\%) = 100 * (X_r / RDt)$$

where, RD is the estimated graphical area of recovery debt (Fig. 1) for the time period where monitoring took place, RDt is the of recovery debt per annum, and RDr(%) is the estimated percentage recovery debt per annum.  $X_r$  is the outcome metric of the reference site (either in the pre-disturbance state or a current undisturbed reference site),  $X_e$  is the outcome metric (e.g., abundance or diversity) after restoration (at time t = T),  $X_s$  is the outcome metric prior to restoration (at time t = 0) and *r* is a constant ([1/T] \* Ln [ $X_e/X_s$ ]). In the case where either  $X_e$ 

358	or $X_s$ were zero, we replaced zero by a value in the same order of magnitude as $X_s$ or $X_e$ in the
359	median magnitude (e.g., 0.5, 5, 50) (see Moreno-Mateos et al. 2017 <sup>13</sup> ). Recovery rate per
360	annum was calculated following Jones et al., (2018) <sup>11</sup> using the following equation:

361 Recovery rate =  $100 * (X_e - X_s) / (X_r - X_s) / Time.$ 

362

## 363 Estimating difference between restored and unrestored habitats

To (1) estimate the difference in fish or invertebrate diversity and abundance between restored 364 and unrestored habitats at various time-points post restoration, (2) assess differences in oyster 365 recruitment between shell and alternate substrata, and (3) to test for the influence of relief on 366 367 oyster density (by comparing adult oyster density at different reef relief), we calculated the 368 effect size of response variables (spat density, oyster density, diversity, or abundances) by using means, standard deviations (SD), and sample sizes extracted from studies<sup>55</sup>. We selected 369 370 to use log response ratio (lnRR) as effect size because of its capacity to detect true effects (expected value of the log-proportional change between two independent and normally 371 distributed populations) and robustness to small sample sizes<sup>56</sup>. LnRR was calculated using the 372 following equation: 373

374  $\ln RR = \ln(Mean_E / Mean_C),$ 

where Mean<sub>E</sub> is the mean of experimental measure (e.g., number of spat on alternate substrate or adult oyster density on reef over 10 cm above sediment) and Mean<sub>C</sub> treatment is the control measure (e.g. number of spat on shell or adult oyster density on reef below 10 cm on sediment). If one of the measures was zero, to avoid computational error we used a correction proportional to the reciprocal of the value of the contrasting measure (e.g: value = N, reciprocal = 1/N). When variance was reported as standard error (SE) we calculated SD as:

$$381 \qquad SD = SE*\sqrt{N}$$

where N is the sample size. When median and ranges were reported, means and standard 382

deviation were calculated as per Hozo et al. (2005)<sup>57</sup> with the following equations: 383

where *a* is the lower range, *b* is the upper range, and *m* is the median,

384 Mean = 
$$(a+2m+b)/4$$

385

$$Mean = (a + 2m + b)/4$$

386

SD = 
$$(1/12) \{ (a - 2m + b)^2 / 4 + (b - a)^2 \}$$

for N < 15, where a is the lower range, b is the upper range, and m is the median and 387

$$SD = Range/4$$

for N > 15. Prior to formal statistical analyses, we tested for publication bias using a Rosenberg 389 fail-safe test, Egger's regression test and trimfill method. Publication bias arises if studies with 390 non-significant effects are not published<sup>58</sup> and are thus excluded in analysis, thereby 391 influencing results and interpretation. The Rosenberg fail-safe test calculates the number of 392 studies with non-significant effects (effect size of zero) that would be required to change the 393 results of the meta-analysis from significant to non-significant (Rosenberg 2005). The 394 Rosenberg fail-safe numbers calculated in our analysis were larger than 5n + 10, where n is the 395 number of studies included in the analysis<sup>58</sup> and observed significance lower than 0.05 The 396 Egger's regression tests were used to estimate asymmetry in funnel plots and any asymmetry 397 was adjusted using the trimfill method. For all data, either the regression tests resulted in 398 399 significance values above 0.05 or the trimfill method did not change the mean effect size estimations (Supplementary File 3). Therefore, publication bias was unlikely to affect our 400 results. Following publication bias tests, we used a weighed Random-Effects model (restricted 401 maximum likelihood) to undertake our meta-analyses, including heterogeneity test (Q) that 402 indicates the percentage variation between studies due to heterogeneity (i.e., differences in 403 outcomes between different studies; also denoted as  $I^2$ ) rather than chance <sup>59</sup>. We then 404

performed meta-regressions using Mixed-Effects models to analyse variation in effect sizes (e.g., relationship between nekton abundance effect sizes with time post restoration). All calculation of effect sizes, publication bias tests, meta-analysis, and meta-regressions were performed on Meta-Essentials 1.5<sup>60</sup> and OpenMEE, which is an open-source software specifically designed for meta-analysis in ecology and evolutionary biology and based on the "metafor" and "ape" packages for R (Wallace et al. 2017).

411

## 412 Data availability

413 Data will be made publicly available on the University data portal (DOI will be assigned on414 publication).

415

#### 416 Acknowledgements

This project was funded by a University of Hong Kong Post-Doctoral Fellowship to DAH and
an Environment and Conservation Fund Hong Kong grant (ECF106/2019), a Faculty of
Science (HKU) Rising Star Fund to BDR, and an ARC Linkage Grant (LP180100732) to MJB.

421

## **References**

424	1. Lowe, A., Boshier, D., Ward, M., Bacles, C. & Navarro, C. Genetic resource impacts
425	of habitat loss and degradation; reconciling empirical evidence and predicted theory for
426	neotropical trees. <i>Heredity</i> <b>95</b> , 255-273 (2005).
427	2. Duarte, C. M. et al. Rebuilding marine life. Nature 580, 39-51 (2020).
428	3. Banks, S. C. et al. How does ecological disturbance influence genetic diversity? Trends
429	Ecol. Evol. 28, 670-679 (2013).
430	4. De Groot, R. S. et al. Benefits of investing in ecosystem restoration. Conserv. Biol. 27,
431	1286-1293 (2013).
432	5. Bayraktarov, E. et al. The cost and feasibility of marine coastal restoration. Ecol. Appl.
433	<b>26</b> , 1055-1074 (2016).
434	6. Knoche, S. et al. Estimating Ecological Benefits and Socio-Economic Impacts from
435	Oyster Reef Restoration in the Choptank River Complex, Chesapeake Bay. (2020).
436	7. Waltham, N.J. et al. UN Decade on Ecosystem Restoration 2021–2030—what chance
437	for success in restoring coastal ecosystems?. Front. Mar. Sci 7, 71 (2020)
438	
439	8. Benayas, J. M. R., Newton, A. C., Diaz, A. & Bullock, J. M. Enhancement of
440	biodiversity and ecosystem services by ecological restoration: a meta-analysis. Science
441	<b>325</b> , 1121-1124 (2009).
442	
443	9. Bradbury, R. B. <i>et al.</i> The economic consequences of conserving or restoring sites for
444	nature. Nat. Sustain 4, 1-7 (2021).
445	10. Gann, G. D. et al. International principles and standards for the practice of ecological
446	restoration. Restor. Ecol 27, S1-S46 (2019).
447	11. Jones, H. P. et al. Restoration and repair of Earth's damaged ecosystems. Proceedings
448	of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 285, 20172577 (2018).
449	12. Moreno-Mateos, D. et al. The long-term restoration of ecosystem complexity. Nature
450	<i>Ecol. Evol.</i> <b>4</b> , 676-685 (2020).
451	13. Moreno-Mateos, D. et al. Anthropogenic ecosystem disturbance and the recovery debt.
452	<i>Nat. comm.</i> <b>8</b> , 1-6 (2017).
453	14. McCay, D. F. Development and application of damage assessment 20odelling: example
454	assessment for the North Cape oil spill. Mar. Pollut. Bull. 47, 341-359 (2003).

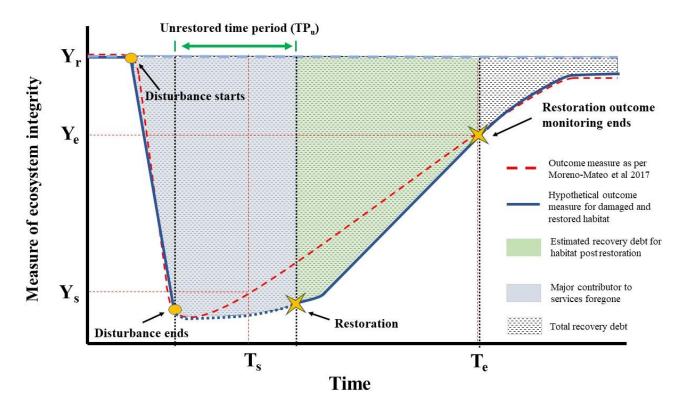
455	15. Beck, M. W. et al. Oyster reefs at risk and recommendations for conservation,
456	restoration, and management. Bioscience 61, 107-116 (2011).
457	16. Hesterberg, S. G. et al. Prehistoric baseline reveals substantial decline of oyster reef
458	condition in a Gulf of Mexico conservation priority area. Biol. Lett. 16, 20190865
459	(2020).
460	17. Bersoza Hernández, A. et al. Restoring the eastern oyster: how much progress has
461	been made in 53 years? Front. Ecol. Env. 16, 463-471 (2018).
462	18. McAfee, D., McLeod, I. M., Boström-Einarsson, L. & Gillies, C. L. The value and
463	opportunity of restoring Australia's lost rock oyster reefs. Restor. Ecol. 28, 304-314
464	(2020).
465	19. Grabowski, J. H. et al. Economic valuation of ecosystem services provided by oyster
466	reefs. Bioscience 62, 900-909 (2012).
467	20. La Peyre, M. K., Humphries, A. T., Casas, S. M. & La Peyre, J. F. Temporal variation
468	in development of ecosystem services from oyster reef restoration. Ecol Eng. 63, 34-
469	44 (2014).
470	21. Zu Ermgassen, P. S. et al. Forty questions of importance to the policy and practice of
471	native oyster reef restoration in Europe. Aquat. Conserv. 30, 2038-2049 (2020).
472	22. Zu Ermgassen, P. S. et al. Estimating and applying fish and invertebrate density and
473	production enhancement from seagrass, salt marsh edge, and oyster reef nursery
474	habitats in the Gulf of Mexico. Estuaries. Coast. 44, 1-16 (2021).
475	23. Fitzsimons, J.A. et al. Restoring shellfish reefs: Global guidelines for practitioners
476	and scientists. Conserv. Sci. Prac. 2, 1-11(2020).
477	24. Howie, A.H. & Bishop, M.J. Contemporary oyster reef restoration: responding to a
478	changing world. Front. Ecol. Evol. 9 (2021).
479	25. Alleway, H.K., & Connell, S.D. Loss of an ecological baseline through the
480	eradication of oyster reefs from coastal ecosystems and human memory. Conserv.
481	Biol. <b>29</b> , 795-804 (2015).
482	26. Thurstan, R.H. & Roberts, C.M.,. Ecological Meltdown in the Firth of Clyde,
483	Scotland: Two Centuries of Change in a Coastal Marine Ecosystem. PloS ONE 5,
484	e11767 (2010).
485	27. Zu Ermgassen, P.S.E. et al. Historical ecology with real numbers: Past and present
486	extent and biomass of an imperilled estuarine ecosystem. Proc. Royal Soc. B 279,
487	3393-3400 (2012).

488	28.	Thomas, G., Lorenz, A.W., Sundermann, A., Haase, P., Peter, A. & Stoll, S. Fish
489		community responses and the temporal dynamics of recovery following river habitat
490		restorations in Europe. Freshw. Sci., 34, 975-990 (2015).
491	29.	Graham, S.E. & Quinn, J.M. Community turnover provides insight into variable
492		invertebrate recovery between restored streams with different integrated catchment
493		management plans. N. Z. J. Mar. Freshwater Res.54, 467-489 (2020).
494	30.	Díaz-García JM, López-Barrera F, Pineda E, Toledo-Aceves T, & Andresen E.
495		Comparing the success of active and passive restoration in a tropical cloud forest
496		landscape: A multi-taxa fauna approach. PloS one. 15, e0242020 (2020).
497	31.	Bishop MJ, Vozzo ML, Mayer-Pinto MM, & Dafforn KA. Complexity-biodiversity
498		relationships on marine urban structures: reintroducing habitat heterogeneity through
499		eco-engineering. Phil Trans Royal Soc B. (In press)
500	32.	Meli, P., Holl, K.D., Rey Benayas, J.M., Jones, H.P., Jones, P.C., Montoya, D. &
501		Moreno Mateos, D. A global review of past land use, climate, and active vs. passive
502		restoration effects on forest recovery. Plos one. 12, e0171368 (2017).
503	33.	Ram, M.A., Caughlin, T.T. & Roopsind, A. Active restoration leads to rapid recovery
504		of aboveground biomass but limited recovery of fish diversity in planted mangrove
505		forests of the North Brazil Shelf. Restor. Ecol. 29, e13400 (2021).
506	34.	Powers, S.P., Grabowski, J.H., Peterson, C.H. & Lindberg, W.J. Estimating
507		enhancement of fish production by offshore artificial reefs: uncertainty exhibited by
508		divergent scenarios. Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser. 264, 265-277 (2003).
509	35.	Gilby, B.L. et al. Maximizing the benefits of oyster reef restoration for finfish and
510		their fisheries. Fish., Fish., 19, 931-947 (2018).
511	36.	Humphries, A. T. & La Peyre, M. K. Oyster reef restoration supports increased nekton
512		biomass and potential commercial fishery value. PeerJ 3, e1111 (2015).
513	37.	Harding, J.M. & Mann, R.L. Oyster reefs as fish habitat: opportunistic use of restored
514		reefs by transient fishes. J. Shellfish. Res., 20, p.951-959 (2001).
515	38.	Stunz, G. W., Minello, T. J. & Rozas, L. P. Relative value of oyster reef as habitat for
516		estuarine nekton in Galveston Bay, Texas. Marine Ecology Progress Series 406, 147-
517		159 (2010).
518	39.	De Santiago, K., Palmer, T. A., Dumesnil, M. & Pollack, J. B. Rapid development of a
519		restored oyster reef facilitates habitat provision for estuarine fauna. Restoration
520		<i>Ecology</i> <b>27</b> , 870-880 (2019).

521	40. Rezek, R.J., Lebreton, B., Roark, E.B., Palmer, T.A. & Pollack, J.B. How does a
522	restored oyster reef develop? An assessment based on stable isotopes and community
523	metrics. Mar. Biol. 164, 54 (2017).
524	41. Hallett, L.M. et al. Do we practice what we preach? Goal setting for ecological
525	restoration. Restor. Ecol., 21, 312-319 (2013).
526	42. Jacob, C., Buffard, A., Pioch, S. & Thorin, S. Marine ecosystem restoration and
527	biodiversity offset. Ecol. Eng. 120, 585-594 (2018).
528	43. Goelz, T., Vogt, B. & Hartley, T. Alternative substrates used for oyster reef restoration
529	a review. Journal of Shellfish Research 39, 1-12 (2020).
530	44. US Army Corp of Engineers (USACE). 2012. Chesapeake Bay oyster recovery: Native
531	oyster restoration master plan. Maryland and Virginia, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers
532	Baltimore and Norfolk Districts
533	45. Meyer, D. L. & Townsend, E. C. Faunal utilization of created intertidal eastern oyster
534	(Crassostrea virginica) reefs in the southeastern United States. Estuaries 23, 34-45
535	(2000).
536	46. Harwell, H. D., Posey, M. H. & Alphin, T. D. Landscape aspects of oyster reefs: effects
537	of fragmentation on habitat utilization. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and
538	<i>Ecology</i> <b>409</b> , 30-41 (2011).
539	47. Keller, D. A. et al. Salt marsh shoreline geomorphology influences the success of
540	restored oyster reefs and use by associated fauna. Restoration Ecology 27, 1429-1441
541	(2019).
542	48. Humphries, A. T., La Peyre, M. K., Kimball, M. E. & Rozas, L. P. Testing the effect
543	of habitat structure and complexity on nekton assemblages using experimental oyster
544	reefs. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 409, 172-179 (2011).
545	49. Kingsley-Smith, P. R. et al. Habitat use of intertidal eastern oyster (Crassostrea
546	virginica) reefs by nekton in South Carolina estuaries. Journal of Shellfish Research
547	<b>31</b> , 1009-1021 (2012).
548	50. Schulte, D. M., Burke, R. P. & Lipcius, R. N. Unprecedented restoration of a native
549	oyster metapopulation. Science 325, 1124-1128 (2009).
550	51. Colden, A. M., Latour, R. J. & Lipcius, R. N. Reef height drives threshold dynamics of
551	restored oyster reefs. Marine Ecology Progress Series 582, 1-13 (2017).
552	52. Theuerkauf, S. J. & Lipcius, R. N. Quantitative validation of a habitat suitability index
553	for oyster restoration. Frontiers in Marine Science 3, 64 (2016).

554	53. Lenihan, H. S. et al. Cascading of habitat degradation: oyster reefs invaded by refugee
555	fishes escaping stress. Ecological Applications 11, 764-782 (2001).
556	54. Ray, N.E. and Fulweiler, R.W. Meta-analysis of oyster impacts on coastal
557	biogeochemistry. Nat. Sust. 4, 261-269 (2021).
558	55. Hedges, L. V., Gurevitch, J. & Curtis, P. S. The meta-analysis of response ratios in
559	experimental ecology. Ecology 80, 1150-1156 (1999).
560	56. Lajeunesse, M. J. & Forbes, M. R. Variable reporting and quantitative reviews: a
561	comparison of three meta-analytical techniques. Ecol. Lett. 6, 448-454 (2003).
562	57. Hozo, S. P., Djulbegovic, B. & Hozo, I. Estimating the mean and variance from the
563	median, range, and the size of a sample. BMC medical research methodology 5, 1-10
564	(2005).
565	58. Rosenberg, M. S. The file-drawer problem revisited: a general weighted method for
566	calculating fail-safe numbers in meta-analysis. Evolution 59, 464-468 (2005).
567	59. Wallace, B. C. et al. Open MEE: Intuitive, open-source software for meta-analysis in
568	ecology and evolutionary biology. Methods in Ecology and Evolution 8, 941-947
569	(2017).
570	60. Suurmond, R., van Rhee, H. & Hak, T. Introduction, comparison, and validation of
571	Meta-Essentials: a free and simple tool for meta-analysis. Research synthesis methods
572	8, 537-553 (2017).
573	





57€

577

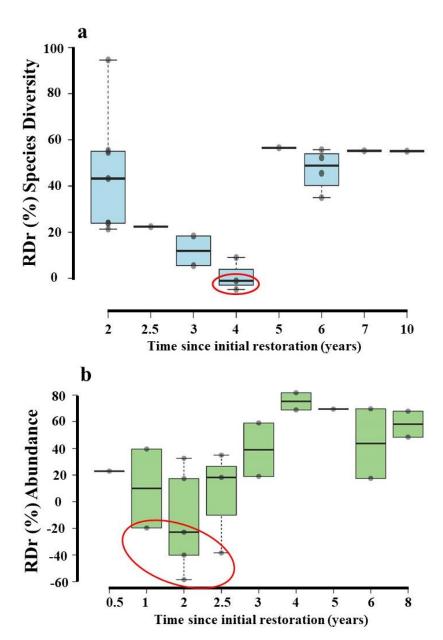
# Fig. 1: Theoretical diagram of general recovery debt (red dotted line) and recovery debt specific to restored habitats (blue lines).

TP<sub>u</sub> reflects the ecosystem integrity in the absence of restoration efforts  $Y_s$  and  $T_s$  represent ecosystem integrity outcome measure and time when measurement started.  $Y_e$  and  $T_e$  represent ecosystem integrity outcome measure and time when measurement ended. Pale blue dotted line (Y<sub>r</sub>) represents ecosystem integrity outcome measure of reference site. Note that Time (x-axis) is not to scale and the unrestored time period (TP<sub>u</sub>) from when disturbance stopped to restoration could be 20 – 50-fold longer than the post-restoration period; in some cases, TP<sub>u</sub> can be over 100 years. Figure modified from Moreno-Mateos et al. (2017).

587

589 Fig. 2



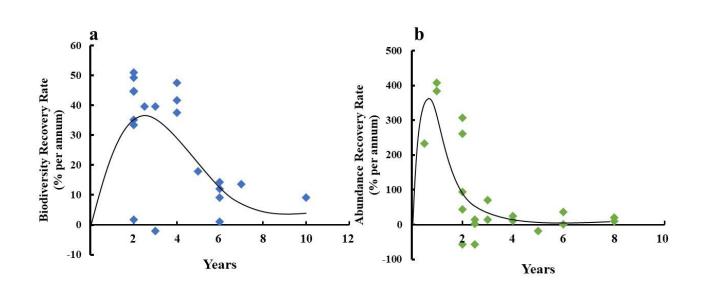


591

## Fig. 2. Oyster habitat accumulated recovery debt per annum as a function of time since restoration.

**a-b** Recovery debt calculated from diversity (a) and abundance (b) (n = 20 sites for each). Accumulated debt declines initially with rapid recovery following restoration, but then begins to increase as recovery slows and debt begins to accumulate again. Black dots represent estimated recovery debt data points. Black lines represent median recovery debt. Box limits represent 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile. Note the different scales of each graph. Red circles represent data points extracted from studies that used limestone, oyster shell or a combination of both as substrate for habitat building<sup>28,29,30</sup>.

601 Fig. 3





## 603 Fig. 3. Oyster habitat recovery rates against time of monitoring.

a-b calculated recovery rate using fish and invertebrate diversity (a) and abundance (b). Note
the different scales for diversity and abundance indicating that abundance has much more rapid
recovery than diversity. The black lines represent a smoothed quadratic model with intercept
set at 0. Recovery rates are calculated in relation to a reference remnant site.

609 Fig. 4

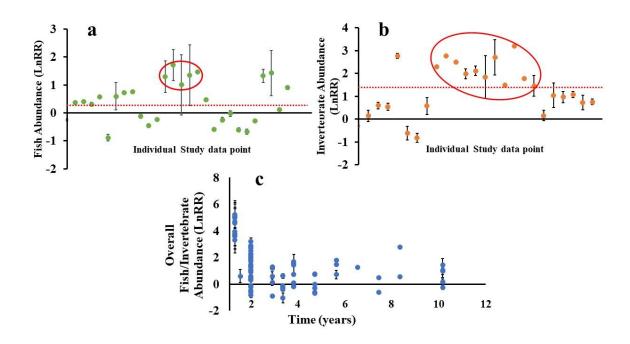




Fig. 4. Inverted forest plots representing effect size for increase or decrease in transient
and resident fish and invertebrate relative to unrestored habitats.

613 **a-b** Change in fish (a) and invertebrate (b) abundance in restored oyster habitats compared to 614 bare sediment. Data points = effect sizes (lnRR). X-axes in graphs (a) and (b) only represents 615 distribution of data points. Red dotted line represents overall mean effect size. Red circles 616 represent data points extracted from studies that used limestone, oyster shell or both as substrate 617 for habitat building<sup>29,31,49</sup>.

c Overall abundance of oyster habitat associated fauna remains higher than that of bare
sediment over time. Error bars = 95% CI. Data points without visible error bars are due to very
small CI.

622 Fig. 5

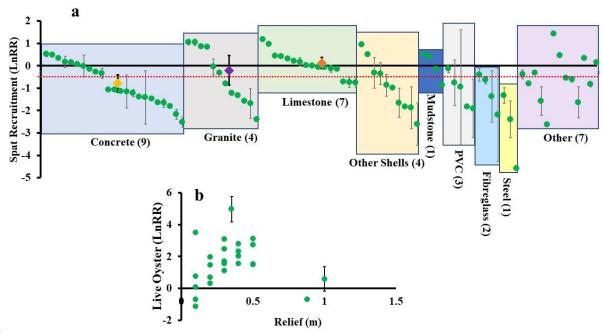
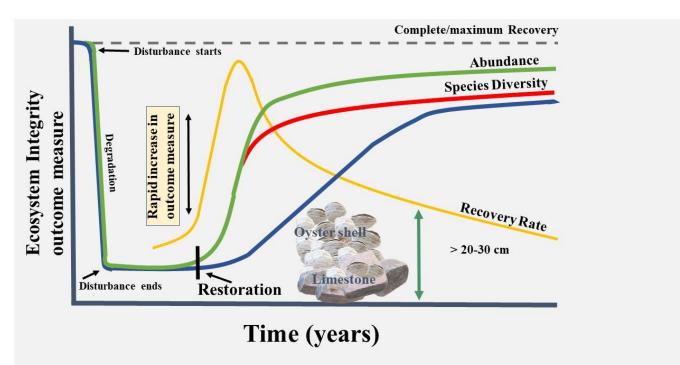




Fig. 5. Inverted forest plot representing difference in overall spat settlement and oysterdensity.

**a-b** Spat settlement on alternative substrata compared to oyster shell (a) and change in live oyster density on oyster habitats as a function of vertical relief above the sediment (b). Data points = effect size (lnRR). Error bars = 95% CI. Data points without visible error bars are due to very small CI. Yellow, purple, and orange diamonds represent the mean effect sizes for concrete, granite, and limestone, respectively. Red dotted line represents overall mean effect size for all alternative substrata compared to using oyster shells. Numbers in parentheses represent the number of papers from which the data points were taken.

## 634 **Fig. 6**



6\_\_

## Fig. 6. Model of oyster habitat recovery following disturbance and subsequent restoration.

Trends are based on analysis of change in overall recovery of oyster habitat (blue line),
cumulative species diversity (red line) and cumulative abundance (green line) of associated
species. Note the initial rapid recovery rates post-restoration (yellow line) which then declines
over time.