

RE-NEW (OPINION) ARTICLE

Urban post-industrial landscapes have unrealized ecological potential

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Urbanized and post-industrial sites often host considerable biodiversity but are too frequently dismissed by conservation professionals, in part because current species assemblages differ from the site's natural history. Given the dramatic and often irreversible changes to these sites, we conclude that historic ecosystems do not provide a useful reference for restoration. However, seen through a novel ecosystem lens, these landscapes already have conservation value and thus require nuanced restoration planning that recognizes their current and potential community composition. We highlight slag-dominated sites in the brownfields of the Calumet region as an example of a post-industrial landscape that may serve both as a recreational area for humans and a refuge for native biodiversity.

Key words: brownfields, Chicagoland, ecosystem services, novel ecosystems, post-industrial landscapes, species refugia, urban ecology

Implications for Practice

- Brownfield remediation is difficult and expensive; as a result, sites are often left in limbo. Land managers should be on the lookout for self-assembled ecosystems at such sites hosting valuable biodiversity or providing other ecosystem services.
- Where volunteer ecosystems have desirable characteristics, land managers should consider maximizing conservation value of the extant ecosystem rather than replacing it.
- Land managers should seek out habitat analogs for novel ecosystems to use as guides to traits and species likely to persist and as models for restoration goals in lieu of historic baselines.
- Esthetically and ecologically valuable species that persist on slag can be introduced to other similar habitats, increasing the conservation value of these spaces.

Land managers and conservation professionals frequently must prioritize areas for protection and/or restoration. High-quality remnants of historical ecosystems are generally ranked first, followed by degraded remnants with the potential for ecological restoration (Gann et al. 2019). On a practical level, financial and logistical barriers often limit efforts to these two types of ecosystems. However, depending on the management entity and location(s) involved, management plans and budgets may also encompass ahistorical but culturally important landscapes that provide ecosystem services. Such areas can include agricultural or pastoral landscapes, gardens and parks, parkways, and green roofs.

These categories, however, fail to account for all potential ecosystems, especially in heavily human impacted areas. Vacant

lots, railroad rights-of-way, road verges, abandoned industrial sites, and other brownfields—characterized by the presence of built structures, pollutants, non-native species, and evidence of past or current human disturbance—are often dismissed as totally ecologically degraded.

While conservation professionals may ignore these spaces, public entities often do not. The need for green space in urban, suburban, and exurban landscapes means that the value of brownfields as potential recreational spaces is frequently recognized. Public land-owning agencies have an established history of acquiring and repurposing lands unsuitable for typical private development due to pollution or other modifications from previous use. These types of sites have been redeveloped as parks, golf courses, sledding hills, and trails. Notable examples include Freshkills Park in New York City, Houtan Park in Shanghai, Gas Works Park in Seattle, Chicago's Bloomingdale Trail/606 and Harborside International Golf Center, and at least two sledding hills known as Mount Trashmore (Evanston, IL and Virginia Beach, VA).

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These examples demonstrate that such approaches can produce useful and culturally valuable recreation spaces, but they tend to rely on strategies, like extensive topsoil capping or excavation, that efface existing characteristics of the site (with the common exception of remnant built structures with perceived historical or cultural value). Rarely is the current ecological quality of brownfields preserved or even considered, despite the common presence of volunteer species and ongoing ecosystem processes. We argue that despite discontinuity with historical ecosystems, many such sites are indeed capable of providing important ecosystem services without wholesale community replacement (Kowarik 2011; Nassauer & Raskin 2014). Thus, we feel they may in some cases be better labeled and managed as novel ecosystems.

The definition and usefulness of the term “novel ecosystems” has been much debated, but the concept generally refers to ecosystems that are compositionally and/or functionally distinct from historical norms as the result of direct or indirect human activity (Hobbs et al. 2006). In addition, they are to some degree self-sustaining without ongoing human intervention (Hobbs et al. 2014). Kowarik (2018, 2021) has described urban-industrial sites dominated by autonomous biotic processes (e.g. colonization, dispersal, and proliferation of plant and animal species) and abiotic processes (e.g. soil formation and erosion). He identifies such sites as a new type of “wilderness,” even though they may be set in an environment heavily altered by human activities and contain both native and non-native species. There is a growing realization among ecologists that such ecosystems can be important providers of ecosystem services and sites for conservation (Kowarik 2011; Hobbs et al. 2014; Twerd & Banaszak-Cibicka 2019; Spotswood et al. 2021).

To date, however, the conservation value of novel urban ecosystems has not been widely embraced by land managers. Landschaftspark in Duisburg, Germany, and the High Line in New York City are two repurposed industrial sites where park designers explicitly considered an existing spontaneous plant community in making functional and esthetic choices. Both have been celebrated for their beauty, uniqueness, historical value, and ecological interest. The sustained popularity of these non-traditional parks and their non-traditional plant communities demonstrates that they provide valuable cultural ecosystem

services, particularly esthetic. However, these two parks can best be described as *inspired* by novel ecosystems that have now been replaced with heavily managed simulacra.

In one rare example of a true novel ecosystem approach, the steel company ArcelorMittal, former owner of two steel mills in East Chicago and Burns Harbor, IN, established natural areas on company property in partnership with local conservation organizations (O’Gorman 2020). This is atypical in more than one way, as brownfield site restorations are far more likely to be attempted by public agencies due to the high cost and low opportunity for short-term return on investment.

Based on these examples, we suggest that sites hosting novel ecosystems might be allowed to retain some autonomous ecosystem function and that such a management approach might fulfill esthetic, recreational, social, and conservation aims. Here, we highlight post-industrial sites in the Calumet region of Illinois and Indiana that we believe lend themselves to a novel ecosystems approach.

The Calumet region, located at the southernmost point of Lake Michigan, is a nexus of three major biomes (eastern deciduous forest, northern boreal forest, tall grass prairie), providing a striking heterogeneity of landscape and associated biodiversity (Chew 2009). Various types of wetlands, dune ecosystems, woodlands, oak savannas, and prairies are characteristic ecosystems of the region. Located on the Mississippi flyway, many migrating birds, including dozens of rare species, utilize its shoreline, wetland, and upland habitats (Labus et al. 1999; Schroeder 2004; Bouman 2020).

During the late nineteenth and most of the twentieth century, the region hosted a high concentration of heavy industry (e.g. sand mining, oil refining, and steel production) subject to little or no environmental regulation. As a result, Calumet habitats suffered fragmentation, degradation, and wholesale destruction. Among other insults, steel companies disposed of heavy-metal-rich byproducts of steel smelting—slag—across the region, especially in wetland areas (Kay et al. 1997; Bouman 2020). Slag was dumped from railcars while still molten, cooling to form an exceptionally hard substrate with a gravel or pavement-like appearance (see Fig. 1). Today, these sites can resemble abandoned building foundations or parking lots (Brown 2018). Despite this history of intensive modification



Figure 1. Visual comparison between (A) Illinois dolomite prairie (used with permission by Kelly Mikenas), (B) Swedish alvar (by JGrahm CC BY-SA 3.0), and (C) Chicago slag (by the author, AEA).

and associated species loss (Bouman 2001), a surprising number of habitat remnants remain from which degraded sites may be repopulated (Bouman 2020).

Widespread industrial plant closures beginning a few decades ago eventually resulted in the transfer of many brownfield sites to the aegis of public agencies like the Chicago Park District and the Forest Preserve District of Cook County. Publicly owned post-industrial sites in the Calumet collectively comprise a significant expanse of land within a major metropolitan area and thus have considerable potential for recreational use. Additionally, as these sites have been colonized by volunteer species, there is increasing evidence that they also constitute areas of ecological value (Table 1).

A challenge for pursuing conservation goals at these sites, however, is that established restoration practices that aim to return an ecosystem to some sort of local historical baseline are obviously inappropriate. Sites like those on slag no longer physically resemble historical norms (Alagona et al. 2012; Kopf et al. 2015; Higgs et al. 2018), so an historic baseline of any kind is inadequate to determine what species will thrive in the future. Nevertheless, these sites offer opportunities to enhance regional biodiversity, protect rare native species, and reduce habitat

fragmentation, in addition to offering traditional recreational spaces for humans (Braidwood et al. 2018; Vosloo 2018; Bonthoux et al. 2019; Planchuelo et al. 2019). Active management could further augment ecosystem services provided by these sites.

Basic surveys of local slag sites in the region by the authors have revealed considerable extant biodiversity. Weedy non-native species that readily colonize low-value disturbed habitats are present, but plants with high coefficients of conservatism (Wilhelm & Rericha 2017) are also able to persist here (e.g. *Carex crawei*, *Carex aurea*, *Lobelia kalmii*, *Polygala verticillata*, *Eleocharis* sp., *Bouteloua curtipendula*, *Rhus aromatica*) (iNaturalist n.d.). Observations of animal diversity at these sites include seasonally high densities of pollinators (butterflies and bees), other insects, birds, especially waterbirds, mammals like deer and coyote, and, surprisingly, reptiles and amphibians (Table 1).

Thus, these sites *do* fit basic definitions of novel ecosystems, sustaining plant and animal communities and ecosystem processes even in the absence of active management. Hobbs et al. (2014) argue that management of novel ecosystems involves defining goals based on ecosystem function and desired land use rather than site history (or see also Westphal et al. 2010). This strategy accommodates past modification and, ideally, allows for ongoing uses beneficial to both human and non-human community members. This may result in decisions counterintuitive to managers of high-quality remnant ecosystems. For example, non-native species, even those generally considered problematic invasives, may be tolerated or even encouraged on slag sites if they are enhancing ecosystem functionality (by hosting pollinators, for instance) and if they do not threaten native biodiversity at nearby high-quality remnant sites.

While abandoning impractical or impossible fidelity to historical conditions may grant practitioners more freedom in management choices (Higgs et al. 2018), it may also leave them struggling to identify the most appropriate approaches. Thus, it may be helpful to look for analogous ecosystems with similar physical characteristics and species assemblages regionally and even globally (Tomlison et al. 2007; Lundholm & Richardson 2010; Ksiazek-Mikenas et al. 2021). Dolomite prairies in the American Midwest (Molano-Flores et al. 2015) and alvar ecosystems in Canada and Sweden (Catling & Brownell 1999; Rosén 2006) share at least some of the physical features of slag ecosystems, including an exposed, relatively impenetrable substrate (limestone in the case of dolomite prairie and alvar); thin soils, low organic matter content, and low water retention; herbaceous and graminoid plant species that persist with low nutrient and water availability and high sun exposure; and few trees (Fig. 1). Such analogs may inspire a set of hypotheses that could inform management decisions (Richardson et al. 2010). For example, dolomite prairie species assemblages might highlight plant functional traits likely to contribute to survival and reproduction in such systems or even suggest possible successful colonizers for slag sites. These may include endangered plants from the dolomite prairie like the leafy prairie clover (*Dalea foliosa*) and lakeside daisy (*Tetranneuris herbacea*).

We speculate that specific management activities undertaken at these sites will not adhere to typical restoration practices

Table 1. iNaturalist observations identified on Calumet steel industry waste (as defined in iNaturalist (n.d.) from 2007 to 2021 of 854 unique species of plants, fungi and animals by class (out of 3,396 total observations) (iNaturalist Observers 2021). This is a conservative estimate of species number because (1) species that are locally threatened or endangered have their location obscured on iNaturalist and will not be included in location-based queries and (2) only observations with enough information to yield a positive identification at the species level were included in the analysis. Of the 453 plant species, 306 are classified as “native to United States” though note that iNaturalist can be incomplete in native/non-native status, especially for fungi and invertebrates.

Taxon	Total
Animalia	370
Actinopterygii	10
Amphibia	7
Arachnida	12
Aves	159
Bivalvia	1
Gastropoda	6
Insecta	153
Mammalia	13
Reptilia	9
Fungi	31
Agaricomycetes	22
Dacrymycetes	1
Lecanoromycetes	6
Sordariomycetes	1
Taphrinomycetes	1
Plantae	453
Bryopsida	7
Liliopsida	94
Lycopodiopsida	1
Magnoliopsida	345
Marchantiopsida	1
Pinopsida	2
Polypodiopsida	3
Total no. of species	854

because they will be driven by extant communities and processes that are currently unknown. Spontaneous communities on brownfields are understudied both because they are frequently dismissed as valueless and because they are often ephemeral, not due to any inherent ecological characteristics, but because they are removed when sites are cleared for redevelopment. The novel ecosystem management approach we advocate prioritizes assessment of existing biodiversity and ecosystem function before formulating specific conservation goals. While we see no philosophical reason to refrain from deliberately altering an existing ecology (in contrast to managers of more pristine ecosystems), enhancing existing, rather than creating new, ecosystem services seems a parsimonious approach.

Conclusion

Conservation of “pristine wilderness” landscapes has long been the focus of environmentalists and ecologists, and this effort remains critical to the preservation of biodiversity and the long-term health of the planet. We argue that explicitly broadening conservation goals to incorporate anthropogenically impacted sites and novel ecosystems will benefit both humans and non-humans. A growing body of evidence points to urban, suburban, and exurban sites as important refugia for a variety of plant and animal species, including those that are rare and threatened (Ives et al. 2016; Braidwood et al. 2018; Shaffer 2018; Planchuelo et al. 2019; Soanes & Lentini 2019).

A corresponding body of evidence points to benefits to human physical and mental health from contact with the urban natural world (Tzoulas et al. 2007; Pickard et al. 2015; Kondo et al. 2018; Labib et al. 2020). This may be particularly critical in post-industrial landscapes, like those of the Calumet, found in human communities with limited access to high-quality green and recreational space. Such communities simultaneously face the social, economic, and human health burdens of polluting industries and their legacies (Schell et al. 2020). Environmental injustices are only one of many reasons why ecologies embedded in urban communities demand equal representation from the social and natural sciences in order to interrogate human-nature entanglements (Jorgensen & Tylecote 2007).

As well as providing ecosystem services to surrounding human communities, we believe novel ecosystems on brownfields are also valuable as labs for testing ecological and evolutionary hypotheses. The intellectual requirements of a mature science and the growing practical challenges of the Anthropocene both necessitate that ecological theory be applicable across a wide variety of ecosystem types. Unprecedented combinations of species can offer unique insights into universal ecological processes like ecosystem function and assembly (Gallagher et al. 2008, 2018), trait filtering (Planchuelo et al. 2019), and succession (Zou et al. 2019) and contribute to the construction of robust ecological theory (Nassauer & Raskin 2014; Botzat et al. 2016).

Places like the Calumet are largely ignored in both theoretical and practical discussions of land management and conservation. Taken altogether, however, we believe they deserve

philosophical consideration and rigorous scientific attention from ecologists, conservationists, restoration professionals, and social scientists as potentially valuable “natural” areas.

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