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2     **Integrating ecosystem functioning into the assessment of**  
3     **stream and river health**

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39     functional indicators, restoration success

48 **Abstract**

49 Assessing the ecological status of streams and rivers is key to deriving appropriate restoration  
50 measures and evaluating restoration success. Established assessment methods are usually based  
51 on 'structural indicators', most often focused on the composition of biological communities in  
52 restored versus reference sites or reaches. Yet, in recent years, an increasing number of studies  
53 have demonstrated the response of ecological functions (e.g., metabolism, nutrient uptake,  
54 decomposition) to a range of stressors, highlighting the potential use of these as more realistic  
55 and dynamic descriptors of restoration outcomes. Despite this progress, we still lack clear  
56 criteria for the use of functional measures as tools to assess restoration. Here, we reflect on the  
57 benefits and limitations of integrating ecological functions into assessments of restoration and  
58 identify steps and research questions to solve if we aim to use these to judge success. We  
59 identify three major benefits associated with functional assessments: First, many ecosystem  
60 functions respond faster to restoration when compared to structural indicators, i.e., at timescales  
61 more relevant for communication and possible adjustment. Second, shifting boundary  
62 conditions, as a result of climate change and the establishment of invasive species, make it less  
63 likely that a system will return to past reference communities in the future. Thus, generating  
64 targets for functional properties that support the most essential characteristics of river systems  
65 may be crucial for maintaining ecological health under environmental change. Finally,  
66 integrating functions into structural assessment may increase our diagnostic potential and thus  
67 provide a more ecosystem-wide perspective on restoration or mitigation responses. However,  
68 to implement functional assessments in a management context, we need to agree on a roadmap  
69 and solve two main challenges. First, given the large number of potential functions, we need to  
70 resolve a set of core processes that are relevant to managers. Here we suggest a set of functions  
71 that fulfill the criteria of being relatively easy to measure, yet provide a meaningful and  
72 integrative representation of the ecosystem and its changes following restoration. Second, we

73 need clear and objective functional goals, e.g. in relation to reference conditions, or reference  
74 to emerging water quality challenges. Given the strong benefits of integrating functions into  
75 aquatic ecosystem assessment, we strongly encourage scientists and practitioners to further co-  
76 develop their broader implementation and consider this paper a roadmap to tackle the next steps  
77 towards a broader implementation.

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92 **Assessment of stream and river health**

93 Globally, streams and rivers are under stress from a wide range of physical, hydrological, and  
94 chemical alterations, which affect their biodiversity and functionality and the services they  
95 provide to society (e.g., Vörösmarty et al., 2010). Monitoring and assessment are key to  
96 detecting river degradation, deriving appropriate restoration measures, and subsequently  
97 judging the success of restoration measures. Such assessments can focus on a range of aspects,  
98 including water quality, biodiversity, or performance of specific taxonomic groups of interest.  
99 Yet, given that this range of endpoints may generate competing societal interests and unwanted  
100 tradeoffs, there is an increasing interest in using more inclusive assessments, e.g., of ‘ecological  
101 integrity’ and ‘health’ as management goals, with the assumption that these integrate and  
102 encapsulate the diversity of ecosystem services rivers provide. In this context, ecological  
103 integrity in running waters can be judged in terms of both *structural* variables, including the  
104 composition and biodiversity of various organismal groups, and *functional* variables (e.g.,  
105 organic matter decomposition, primary productivity), which reflect how a system actually  
106 works ecologically or biogeochemically. Yet, despite recent calls for greater consideration of  
107 functional responses (e.g., Palmer and Ruhi 2019), most assessments of river health continue  
108 to be based on community structure, assuming that structural metrics are a reasonable proxy for  
109 ecosystem integrity overall (e.g., the ecological health assessment in the context of the EU-  
110 Water Framework directive, Hering et al., 2010).

111  
112 The longstanding emphasis on structural responses to assess river condition and judge the  
113 outcome of restoration is not necessarily misplaced: such metrics are well-known to capture  
114 changes in water and habitat quality in response to a range of anthropogenic stressors (e.g.,  
115 Bonada et al. 2006). Further, knowledge about structural properties from past assessments of a  
116 given system, or from suitable reference systems, can provide relatively straightforward

117 ‘targets’ for managers. However, despite this track record, diversity and composition metrics  
118 also routinely fail to show clear responses to restoration (Leps et al. 2016; Palmer et al. 2010)  
119 or help us mechanistically understand how an ecosystem has changed as a result of degradation  
120 or recovery after management. We think this shortcoming reflects three key problems:

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122 First, a lack of response can occur when system stressors or restoration actions do not fully  
123 target the indicator used and/or its requirements for recovery (Hering et al., 2010; Palmer et al.,  
124 2010). This is a notable issue for structural metrics, like community composition and diversity,  
125 which in river systems can be linked to multiple drivers beyond the local habitat, including  
126 properties of the broader catchment and drainage system (Bernhardt and Palmer 2011) and even  
127 the broader species pool and the dispersal capacity of species (Poff 1997). Such complexity  
128 makes it difficult to understand what attributes of the river and surrounding landscape should  
129 be restored to realize recovery in structural metrics locally. This can be a particular problem for  
130 restoration when (i) there are strong constraints to biotic communities operating at scales larger  
131 than the restoration effort (Griffith and McManus 2020a and b; Polvi et al. 2020) or if (ii) that  
132 broader environmental conditions are shifted such that the composition of species best adapted  
133 for a given ecosystem has also changed (Schindler et al. 2015). With respect to shifting  
134 boundary conditions, especially in the context of climate change, there is ongoing debate about  
135 whether current reference conditions can (or should) be considered as structural targets for the  
136 future (Harris et al. 2006). To maintain core ecological processes that underpin ecological  
137 integrity, it will be necessary that communities change to include species better adapted to new  
138 sets of baseline conditions.

139

140 Second, a strictly structural focus can also limit our ability to evaluate and communicate  
141 ecosystem change or restoration success at short enough time scales to enable adaptive

142 management. Recovery times in response to river restoration can vary greatly within and  
143 amongst the taxonomic groups often used to evaluate recovery (e.g., algae vs.  
144 macroinvertebrates vs. riparian plants), and such differences can contribute to seemingly weak  
145 responses to management actions, depending on when this is assessed. For plants or animals  
146 with longer inherent recovery rates, it may be difficult to know if a restoration measure was  
147 simply unsuccessful or if communities needed more time to recover due to dispersal limitation  
148 or the slow rates of ecological succession (e.g., Muotka et al. 2002; Hasselquist et al. 2015). By  
149 comparison, foundational ecosystem processes mediated by communities of algae and bacteria  
150 (e.g., primary production or community respiration) have the potential to respond to restoration  
151 more rapidly (Arroita et al. 2018), allowing communication of outcomes that can enable  
152 management responses.

153

154 Third, our ability to *diagnose*, or mechanistically understand, which particular stressor or  
155 stressor combination explains the observed degradation can be limited when based solely on  
156 structural variables. As noted, compositional indices can be difficult to link to proximate  
157 drivers, which makes informed management decisions difficult. By comparison, ecosystem  
158 process rates are often directly responsive to changes in the physical and/or chemical  
159 environment, enabling us to detect specific stressors that alter a given ecosystem process. These  
160 responses can be highly predictive and are often well-grounded in theory, including the  
161 temperature dependence of biological processes (Cross et al. 2015), photosynthesis-irradiance  
162 (PI) relationships (Hill et al. 1995), nutrient uptake kinetics (Dodds et al. 2002), and the  
163 thermodynamics of microbial metabolism (Hedin et al. 1998). Such relationships provide a  
164 means of understanding and predicting how stressors act and how the release of stressors, as  
165 achieved by restoration mechanisms, mechanistically reshape basal processes that underpin a

166 range of structural properties over longer periods (e.g., Dudley et al. 1986). In this sense, the  
167 inclusion of functional variables may help us detect relevant stressors.

168  
169 For all of these reasons, there is a call to incorporate functional indicators into stream  
170 assessment in general and into the assessment of restoration success in particular (e.g., Palmer  
171 and Ruhi 2019, von Schiller et al. 2017). Indeed, given the list of ecosystem services that we  
172 rely on from running waters, a singular focus on recovery of biodiversity and viable populations  
173 is likely insufficient to inform us on how restoration alters other key functions these systems  
174 support (e.g., nutrient uptake). Despite this, including measures of functioning as assessment  
175 tools is often not straightforward and is plagued by both practical and conceptual limitations.  
176 Here, we critically analyze the potential strengths and limitations of applying ecological  
177 functioning as a tool to assess river restoration success. On this basis, we present what we see  
178 as key steps that may be taken to better implement function-oriented assessments.

179  
180 **Consideration of ecological functioning in stream assessment**  
181 Current environmental legislation (e.g., the European Water Framework Directive; WFD)  
182 already includes a recommendation that structural *and* functional attributes be considered in  
183 assessments of healthy aquatic ecosystems. In fact, there is a surprising discrepancy between  
184 the targets of existing water and nature legislations and the targets that are, in practice, most  
185 often implemented into current freshwater management. For example, the European Water  
186 Framework Directive (art. 21) defines the ecological status as ‘*...an expression of the quality*  
187 *of the structure and functioning of aquatic ecosystems ...*’. The European Biodiversity Strategy  
188 2030 (art. 2.2.7) mandates that ‘*Greater efforts are needed to restore freshwater ecosystems*  
189 *and the natural functions of rivers ...*’. Finally, the Convention on Biological Diversity  
190 (Strategic Goal B, target 8) requests that ‘*By 2020, pollution, including from excess nutrients,*

191 *has been brought to levels that are not detrimental to ecosystem function and biodiversity.'*

192 Ironically, while ecosystem functions are explicitly mentioned as targets for protection in these  
193 respective texts, current methods to assess ecosystems or restoration success often lack  
194 consideration of any measure of functioning.

195

196 'Function' and 'functioning' as terms in ecology can be ambiguous, refer to a range of  
197 phenomena, and be difficult to operationalize empirically (Jax 2005). In river science,  
198 functioning *writ large* can include a wide diversity of potential variables connected to a range  
199 of scientific disciplines, from primarily physical processes related to hydrology and sediment  
200 dynamics, to microbial processes that govern biogeochemical transformations and material  
201 retention, to processes reflecting resource consumption and energy transfer by communities and  
202 food webs (e.g., Palmer and Ruhi 2019, von Schiller et al. 2017). This potential set of functions  
203 operates across a broad range of spatial and temporal scales, incorporates different levels of  
204 organization, and is shaped by varying contributions from abiotic and biotic drivers. Further,  
205 inherent differences in the scale at which we measure different processes (e.g., litter  
206 decomposition vs. ecosystem metabolism) complicate our ability to connect a given functional  
207 metric to local restoration efforts with confidence (Young et al. 2008). Finally, because these  
208 processes underpin different ecosystem services that rivers provide (e.g., from flood mitigation  
209 to water purification to healthy food webs), whether strongly optimizing for one such goal may  
210 enhance or diminish other goals is not always clear, and may cause unwanted ecological or  
211 environmental quality outcomes. Thus, despite calls for incorporating functioning into  
212 assessments of river restoration outcomes, deciding on which functions we should consider and  
213 how to interpret them remains a limitation.

214

215 In our view, successfully implementing functional measures into assessments of stream and  
216 river restoration is currently limited by two main issues. First, we need a clearer foundation for  
217 selecting core functions. These functions should be sufficiently sensitive to capture  
218 environmental changes caused by degradation and recovery following management actions and  
219 align with the precise monitoring targets and restoration goals (see below). However, they  
220 should also be practical in the sense that they are relatively easy to estimate by scientists and  
221 managers alike. While the field at large continues to develop and refine ever-advanced methods  
222 to characterize stream and river functioning, the practicalities of incorporating these into  
223 management require scrutiny. Second, we need to advance a clearer framework for judging or  
224 interpreting functional metrics with appropriate goals and values. Goals could be either  
225 narrowly focused (e.g., optimizing a given function) or more broadly seek ecosystem health.  
226 The latter goal needs a clear framework for deciding which functions and which values of these  
227 functions actually capture ecosystem health. Finally, it may be important to advance beyond a  
228 pure indication of ecosystem health and consider how ecological functioning can aid in efforts  
229 of diagnosis, i.e., in detecting which are the most important stressors causing ecosystem  
230 degradation in a multi-stressor context.

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## 232 **Moving forward, I: Selection of appropriate functions**

233 To comprehensively assess river ecological health and its recovery following restoration, we  
234 suggest selecting key ecosystem functions following the criteria of 1) alignment with  
235 management objectives, 2) practicality and suitability, and 3) integrative insight and potential  
236 value for diagnosis.

237

### 238 ***Criterion 1: Alignment with management objectives***

239 Functional assessments need to be anchored by metrics that are clearly aligned with the intended  
240 ecological or water quality target and specific restoration goals. If restoration aims emphasize  
241 or optimize certain functions and services, then indicators need to be clearly linked. For  
242 example, if the goal is to improve the quality of receiving waters such as drinking water  
243 reservoirs, functions such as nutrient retention and transformation are key. Functional metrics  
244 that are related to nutrient uptake rates or key transformations (e.g., primary production or  
245 denitrification) as well as hydrological correlates (e.g., water residence time) should be  
246 prioritized over metrics like consumer biodiversity or food web stability (Bernot et al. 2010).  
247 By comparison, restoration in remote settings without major water chemistry problems could  
248 be explicitly aimed at improving habitat quality, connectivity, and recruitment of stream and  
249 riparian organisms (Nilsson et al. 2015), and here, metrics linked to the functioning of  
250 consumers should be prioritized (Franier et al. 2018). Aligning metrics with objectives will  
251 strengthen the feedback loop between restoration actions and environmental outcomes,  
252 enhancing the accuracy of functional indicators as proxies for restoration success, allowing for  
253 more targeted improvements to river health.

254  
255 However, assessment and restoration often target more general quality goals such as “ecological  
256 health” or “ecological status” rather than a specific goal such as self-purification or fish  
257 production. This holistic approach is useful as it optimizes multiple attributes of an ecosystem  
258 with fewer risks for unwanted tradeoffs. Such a perspective is, for instance, central to  
259 assessments in the context of the European Water Framework Directive, which assesses the  
260 “ecological status” based on different communities including benthic micro-algae, invertebrates  
261 and fish (Hering et al. 2010). Integrating functions into such assessments of the ecological status  
262 raises the question of which functions represent the aquatic ecosystem in total and which of  
263 these should we select for a meaningful assessment? According to the broad definition of

264 ecological functions (see section *Consideration of ecological functioning in stream*  
265 *assessment*), several options exist in the literature (e.g., von Schiller et al. 2017). Here, we argue  
266 that this large number of functions needs to be boiled down to a select few, which together  
267 represent the ecosystem with a focus on biological processes (Table 1). Further, this selection  
268 could span core processes of an ecosystem, from low to high trophic positions of the food web,  
269 including: (1) (primary) production with rates of GPP or accumulation of pigments as measures,  
270 (2) decomposition, with microbially dominated processes such as ER or microbial decay of  
271 standardized organic matter (e.g., cotton strips, leaf litter breakdown in fine litter bags) and  
272 processes dominated by the macrofauna (e.g., leaf litter breakdown in coarse litter bags), (3)  
273 nutrient removal, with quantified or estimated (e.g., from metabolism) uptake rate as a measure,  
274 and (4) processing of resources within the broader food web with food web complexity (or  
275 related proxies) as a potential measure. These ecological measures would be usefully  
276 supplemented by adding a core set of hydrodynamical measures (Table 1), which are often  
277 lacking in standard assessments, but which strongly regulate biological communities and  
278 processes (Anlanger et al. 2021). The proposed measures would integrate the different levels  
279 of food webs while being at the same time focused, given the huge number of functions that  
280 could be measured. We see this as a starting point for further discussions and will not exclude  
281 that functions can be exchanged or other functions be added, depending on future discussions  
282 and methodological developments.

283  
284 As management goals change, new sets of more specific riverine functions may become  
285 prioritized by stakeholders and policy makers. For instance, functioning related to carbon (C)  
286 cycling, including mineralization, burial, and greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions to the  
287 atmosphere, has not been a major focus of stream and river restoration assessments, despite this  
288 being the primary impetus for restoration of other ecosystems (e.g., wetlands; Evans et al.

289 2021). However, this emphasis may change with growing recognition that rivers play an  
290 important role in the regional-to-global C cycle and that this role is at least partially mediated  
291 by aquatic biological processes (Battin et al. 2023). We also know that significant amounts of  
292 carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>; Raymond et al. 2013), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>; Rocher-Ros et al. 2023), and  
293 nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O, Beulieu et al. 2011) are emitted from streams and rivers to the atmosphere.  
294 Streams with high pollutant loads, such as those receiving urban and agricultural run-off, may  
295 be hotspots of GHG concentrations and emissions (e.g., Xu et al. 2024), and restoration efforts,  
296 particularly those resulting in a reduction of sewage input and nutrient loads, may effectively  
297 reduce these emissions (Wang et al. 2023). Considering functions related to C cycling is also a  
298 key component of understanding and motivating dam removal efforts, where the transition from  
299 a lentic to a lotic environment is associated with physical and redox changes that have important  
300 implications for GHG emissions (McGinnis et al. 2016, Ammani et al. 2022, Bega et al. 2024a).  
301 Beyond the active channel margins, river corridors can also be hotspots of carbon storage (e.g.,  
302 in floodplains) and GHG emissions (McGinnis et al. 2016) and this recognition has raised the  
303 question of how and whether restoration of this storage function could be used to obtain carbon  
304 credits (Hinsha and Wohl 2023; Lininger and Lave 2024). Taken together, the growing interest  
305 in the regional-to-global C cycle by society and policymakers may motivate greater focus on C  
306 cycling functions in assessments of river restoration outcomes in the future.

307

308 ***Criterion 2: Practicality and spatial and temporal relevance***

309 Effective functional indicators must be practical while yielding meaningful insights, either into  
310 specific management targets or into an ecosystem's overall state. Commonly suggested  
311 functional metrics, such as organic matter decomposition and ecosystem metabolism, could  
312 meet such standards due to their relatively straightforward measurement techniques and  
313 equipment requirements, including modern optical dissolved oxygen (DO) sensors, the

314 availability of software for data analysis, and well-established protocols (Battin et al. 2023,  
315 Tiegs et al. 2024). However, rates of whole-system metabolism are not always possible to  
316 generate with confidence and require a range of supporting data related to the hydrology and  
317 physics of a stream (Demars et al. 2015). Thus, proxy metrics using algal biomass accumulation  
318 or high-frequency DO data (e.g., Canadell et al. 2021), as well as chamber-based approaches  
319 (e.g., Lopez et al. 2025), could be more viable for practical use. Similarly, while often aligned  
320 with restoration objectives, functional metrics related to stream nutrient retention and  
321 denitrification rates also require specialized field and laboratory assays, making them less  
322 practical for routine monitoring. Such issues could be overcome by developing more time-  
323 and/or cost-effective methods (e.g., Covino et al. 2010). Further, increasing use of automated  
324 sensors for water chemistry (e.g., nitrate; Kunz et al. 2017), as well as methods that leverage  
325 nutrient mass-balance approaches (Von Schiller et al. 2015; Valett et al. 2021) could open up  
326 new opportunities for assessing restoration effects on nutrient cycling and retention.

327

328 One challenge to using functional metrics for assessment is the potential mismatch between the  
329 inherent scale of a given process (or process measurement) and the extent of the degradation  
330 and management action (Wright 2021). The length of stream sections under consideration can  
331 be highly variable, but is most often less than 500 m (Morandi et al. 2017), which, depending  
332 on drainage size, may be insufficient to isolate functional responses using whole-system  
333 approaches. For example, estimates of ecosystem metabolism from single-station DO methods  
334 typically have a ‘footprint’ of 100’s of meters to kilometers, depending on ecosystem size, and  
335 may thus greatly exceed the length of restored reaches (e.g., Hall et al. 2016). Two-station  
336 approaches are an option here, provided sufficient travel time within the target reach, but these  
337 require more care and effort to execute (Demars et al. 2015) and may be less practical for  
338 managers. Similarly, while nutrient uptake lengths can be relatively short ( $10^1$ - $10^2$  m) for small,

339 nutrient-poor streams, these can also greatly exceed the length of a restored reach, depending  
340 on the solute in question, nutrient supply relative to demand, and the physical and hydrological  
341 attributes of the system (Ensign and Doyle 2006). Conversely, functional metrics based on litter  
342 decomposition or algal accumulation on tiles require measurements at relatively small scales  
343 (e.g., sub-meter) and subsequent scaling up to the reach. Targeted microbial functions (e.g.,  
344 denitrification) may be dynamic at even finer scales (mm). In contrast, the characteristic scales  
345 at which consumer-driven functions operate can be highly variable, depending on the life  
346 history traits of the relevant groups (e.g., Finlay et al. 2000). The point here is not to discourage  
347 the use of any particular metric, but to highlight that selecting functions requires aligning the  
348 inherent spatial scales of various processes with the scope of restoration.

349  
350 The appropriate *temporal* scale for measuring functional responses is also a key consideration.  
351 This is particularly true for microbial functions, which can show strong seasonal dynamics,  
352 while traditional metrics rooted in the community structure of macrofauna integrate over longer  
353 time scales. Generally, for biologically mediated functions, the timing and frequency of  
354 sampling should reflect the life cycles of the organisms involved. Microbial-driven functions  
355 (e.g., biofilm production) may require early and frequent sampling after restoration as these  
356 recovery processes are likely to be rapid and are often seasonally variable (Bernhardt et al.  
357 2018). By comparison, functions shaped by macroinvertebrate communities may be assessed  
358 less frequently, but could take longer (5+ years) to respond to restoration (Pilotto et al. 2018).  
359 Importantly, for both microbial- and macro-consumer-driven functions, any changes to riparian  
360 cover that co-occur with restoration efforts may create even longer-term responses driven by  
361 potential changes in incident light and/or inputs of organic matter resources as streamside  
362 vegetation recovers (e.g., Bega et al. 2024b, Ramiao et al. 2022). The different temporal  
363 responses are not a unique phenomenon for functional indicators, as also different structural

364 indicators (e.g., macro-invertebrate communities vs. micro-algae communities) also integrate  
365 over time in very different ways. Nevertheless, integrating functions into assessment schemes  
366 enhances the variation of time scales integrated by the indicators, as some functions, such as  
367 metabolism, can respond to stressors almost immediately. This requires awareness of the  
368 different temporal scales and matching the time scales of interest with those of the indicator  
369 response. At the same time, there is an opportunity here to incorporate functional indicators that  
370 are dynamic at short time scales, as these can potentially act as early warning indicators after  
371 environmental change and early success indicators after restoration.

372

373 ***Criterion 3: Integration, complementary functionality, and diagnosis***

374 Unless restoration efforts have a specific aim (e.g., rehabilitating a given species), we argue  
375 that functional metrics should target those that encompass multiple processes that integrate  
376 trophic levels, ecosystems compartments, biological communities, and abiotic factors,  
377 including hydromorphological and habitat diversity, while being focused on core metrics at the  
378 same time (see above; Table 1). Such a ‘multi-functionality’ approach includes metrics related  
379 to primary productivity, ecosystem respiration, decomposition, nutrient processing, and food  
380 web processes, all of which capture complementary aspects of ecosystem health and integrate  
381 biotic and abiotic interactions (Brauns et al. 2022). These metrics provide a comprehensive  
382 view of stream ecosystems, linking nutrient cycling, energy flow, and resource consumption.  
383 Such processes can capture the stability of a stream in terms of water quality, energy flow, and  
384 food web support, which can in turn shed light on resilience and functional redundancy as  
385 ecological attributes (Vugteveen et al. 2006). A multifunctional approach does not merely  
386 substitute structural metrics with isolated functional ones but rather encompasses the dynamic  
387 and interdependent nature of ecological processes. Multi-functionality also serves as an  
388 insurance mechanism, safeguarding the ecosystem’s ability to function under diverse

389 environmental conditions and across temporal scales (Vugteveen et al. 2006, Brauns et al.  
390 2022). Several recent publications suggest procedures to calculate multi-metric indices for  
391 assessment of ecosystems (e.g., Assefa et al. 2023; Martins et al. 2020). Such metrics can be a  
392 useful measure to communicate ecological health to the public and to the political arena. From  
393 the ecosystem assessment and diagnostic perspective, however, multi-functional indices are  
394 less useful as they may be too general to detect processes and underlying drivers linked to  
395 degradation and recovery. Therefore, we do not elaborate on the calculation of integrative  
396 multi-functional metrics here but rather recommend evaluating the different ecosystem  
397 processes separately.

398

399 Functional metrics derived from ecosystem metabolism and organic matter decomposition are  
400 notable in reflecting short- to longer-term ecosystem dynamics that integrate across levels of  
401 organization (Young et al. 2008; Ferreira et al. 2020). Organic matter decomposition offers  
402 insight into the activity of both microbial and invertebrate communities, linking terrestrial and  
403 aquatic ecosystems through nutrient cycling and energy transfer processes (Rosemond et al.  
404 2015). Metrics from ecosystem metabolism, including gross primary productivity (GPP) and  
405 ecosystem respiration (ER), provide a more immediate measure of carbon production and  
406 consumption within a system, capturing the functional balance between autotrophic and  
407 heterotrophic processes (Bernhardt et al. 2018). Both sets of functional metrics reflect extant  
408 ecosystem state but can also reveal shifts in function due to temporal change, such as those  
409 following restoration, land use change, and natural seasonality (Griffith et al. 2013, Silva-Junior  
410 et al. 2014, Kupilas et al. 2017). Finally, these functions can provide direct insight into the  
411 mechanisms driving ecosystem change, serving as responsive indicators to various  
412 anthropogenic stressors stemming from wastewater inputs (Arroita et al. 2019; Pereda et al.  
413 2020), pesticides and nutrient enrichment caused by agricultural activities (Rossi et al. 2018),

414 wildfire (Betts & Jones Jr. 2009), as well as climate-induced hydrological extremes (Ulseth et  
415 al. 2017).

416

417 Functions should also be selected to aid in diagnosis, which refers to our ability to generate a  
418 mechanistic understanding of an ecosystem. Typically, functional metrics are more suitable for  
419 diagnosis than structural metrics, because causes and effects are often more directly connected.  
420 As one established approach, functional traits are used for diagnosis to identify relevant  
421 stressors (e.g., Schuwirth et al., 2015). However, traits represent a potential for functions (e.g.,  
422 high contribution of the feeding trait “shredder” indicates high potential for leaf litter  
423 degradation) rather than a realized quantity of certain functions (e.g., the quantification of leaf  
424 litter degradation with litter bags). The diagnostic utility derived from the measurement of  
425 functions is not only useful in understanding restoration response, but is also crucial as it aligns  
426 with management objectives that require rapid and accurate feedback on outcomes (Palmer and  
427 Ruhi 2019). Obviously, not all functions are equally suitable as diagnostic indicators;  
428 nevertheless, most functions could aid diagnosis by revealing whether or not certain restoration  
429 measures result in changes to basal processes that are either directly related to desired outcomes  
430 (e.g., nutrient removal) or have clear indirect linkages to consumer communities (e.g., algal  
431 biomass accrual). Importantly, more work is needed that critically evaluates which functions  
432 are useful in providing diagnostic information in response to restoration, including whether and  
433 how different processes may help us anticipate future structural changes. For example, GPP  
434 and its relation to algae standing stocks might be a much better (because more directly related)  
435 indicator for eutrophication than changes in algal community composition. Seeking this  
436 diagnostic type of understanding will allow us to assess ecosystems’ health more rapidly, to  
437 identify relevant stressors and corresponding tailored management measures and to decide  
438 whether or not we are moving toward restoration targets.

439

440 **Moving forward II: valuation of functional goals**

441 Once sets of functional metrics are selected, the next challenge is interpreting whether and how  
442 measured process rates or functional proxies indicate ecological health and success or failure  
443 of restoration or remediation. Importantly, how we judge functional indicators is closely linked  
444 to what we are aiming to achieve. For example, documented increases in fish abundance and  
445 biomass are straightforward hallmarks of success if the overall goal is to improve a river reach  
446 for fish production. Here, judging functional indicators (i.e., evaluating success) is tailored to a  
447 specific, pre-determined target. However, most monitoring programs and restoration efforts  
448 target ecosystem health in a holistic sense, assuming that a broad set of indicators is the best  
449 compromise to fulfill multiple functions and expectations (see above). Here, judging functional  
450 indicators becomes less objective, as targets may be linked to the availability and utility of  
451 reference systems and be sensitive to changing baselines. Our goal is not to argue for any  
452 particular approach, as this must be a decision taken by society. Instead, we present the pros  
453 and cons of the different approaches and essential steps to define appropriate goals.

454

455 Functional metrics can provide objective, concrete evidence of ecosystem recovery when  
456 management goals are narrow and distinct. Here, judging degradation and recovery based on  
457 single functions may be particularly easy for cases where overall water quality is good, and  
458 habitat restoration is used to optimize the production of a target species (Louhi et al. 2014), or  
459 if the goal is to remediate a severe water quality problem (e.g., hypoxia), unlocking a diverse  
460 set of positive ecological outcomes (e.g., Arroita et al. 2019). Yet, in many cases, judging  
461 success based on a single, focal function may be arbitrary, and optimization itself could come  
462 at a cost to other water quality considerations, as ecosystem processes typically do not operate  
463 in isolation. For example, judging success based solely on nitrogen removal (e.g., via

464 denitrification) could come at a cost to structural measures (e.g., biodiversity of  
465 macroinvertebrates), but also create unwanted changes in greenhouse emissions, particularly of  
466 CH<sub>4</sub> and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O; e.g., Mander et al. 2014). Further complicating this challenge is  
467 that environmental drivers (e.g., nutrient loading) can have both positive and negative  
468 associations with a given functional measure (Woodward et al. 2012), making it difficult to  
469 judge whether an observed rate indicates management success or failure. More broadly, because  
470 diversity measures like species richness are in many cases only weakly connected to a given  
471 function (e.g., Cardinale et al. 2012), highly disturbed ecosystems may perform as well as  
472 pristine ones, even if they have lost most of their diversity. Thus, having a single functional  
473 metric as the only guideline may lead to a species-poor ecosystem, engineered to do one thing  
474 well. Without accounting for potentially important biotic redundancy (e.g., a portfolio effect;  
475 Schindler et al. 2015), we risk creating systems in which even the target function of interest has  
476 low resilience to future disturbance or environmental change.

477

478 If management goals instead target holistic improvements in ecosystem health, functional  
479 indicators are still critical to consider, but their valuation becomes more of a challenge as the  
480 targets are less obvious. In most restoration programs, the aim is to restore ecosystems to  
481 something approaching ‘natural conditions’, which in practice involves recovering a set of  
482 structural and functional properties that match a local and historic (pre-human influence)  
483 reference. This can be a challenge where the reference state is unclear and may require a  
484 reconstruction of historical conditions and the related ecological attributes. Even when possible,  
485 it is further problematic that reference conditions for functioning may be less evident than for  
486 structural counterparts and may be particularly sensitive to shifting baselines (e.g., linked to  
487 climate warming). One option here could be to anchor our expectations and judgements based  
488 on a ‘functional stream typology’ where certain stream attributes result in predictable functions.

489 Such an effort could be guided by theory; for example, functioning related to metabolic rates  
490 and ratios (e.g., GPP/ER) could be derived from predictions based on ecosystem size (e.g.,  
491 Vannote et al. 1980), the seasonal timing of measurements (Bernhardt et al. 2018), and/or the  
492 broader biome context (Dodds et al. 2015). In this context, we might derive desired endpoints  
493 by synthesizing published rates of ecosystem processes from streams considered to be ‘near  
494 reference’ in terms of human impacts. This approach would require testing at which spatial  
495 scale values from the literature tend to differ (e.g., by biome, ecoregion, catchment, etc.) and  
496 thus how reasonable these are for guiding targets locally. The advantage here could be the  
497 development of targets that are applicable over broader spatial scales and also over broader  
498 environmental gradients, including climate gradients.

499

500 Finally, in the event that restoration or remediation goals change, we may need to judge  
501 functional indicators in new ways. For example, rather than looking backward for target  
502 endpoints, functional indices may need to be assessed through the lens of how streams will  
503 respond to future environmental change and how we define ecosystem health under these  
504 conditions. This is hardly possible when having community structure-based indicators, as the  
505 composition of the communities will change in the future in an unpredictable way. However,  
506 using general functional properties of ecosystems, which are rooted in stream ecology theory  
507 (see above) and which are valid under different environmental conditions, could be a way  
508 forward to define functional goals that are robust towards shifting boundary conditions.

509

## 510 **Conclusions**

511 Integration of functional indicators into the ecological assessment of running waters provides  
512 clear additive value to present, structurally-focused assessments. Functions can (i) act as an  
513 early indicator for critical changes and restoration success, (ii) they still work as a quality

514 indicator even under changing boundary conditions and corresponding changes in the species  
515 pool, and (iii) they increase, together with structural indicators, the potential for diagnosing  
516 ecosystems. We are, however, not yet ready to explore these clear benefits and to implement  
517 functional indicators into assessment routines. To reach this goal, future studies must shift the  
518 focus from the pure description of responses of ecosystem functions to stress and its release  
519 towards the implementation indicators into an assessment scheme. This paper should guide the  
520 future effort to solve two major challenges, namely the selection of appropriate functions and  
521 the definition and valuation of functional goals to provide the scientific basis for a broad  
522 implementation of functional indicators into stream management and assessment.

523

524

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724 Table 1: Core set of selected functional indicators, which in total address the key elements of  
 725 the aquatic ecosystems along these categories: (0) Important abiotic variables, which are not  
 726 represented in routine management today (1) (primary) production-related measures, (2)  
 727 decomposition-related proxy either with microbial dominance or dominance of macrofauna  
 728 mediated (3) nutrient-removal related measure, and (4) measures for food web structure/  
 729 complexity. In addition to these general descriptors of ecosystem health, we provide (5) one  
 730 example of a specific functional measure of potential management interest, i.e., the greenhouse  
 731 gas emission (see text for further details). This list is intended stimulate the discussion on the  
 732 selection of a reduced set of appropriate indicators, which reasonably well describe ecosystem  
 733 health in total and which fulfil other selection criteria (see text), including the practicability to  
 734 measure the variables. It is explicitly not intended to cover a full set of all functional indicators,  
 735 which are applied in aquatic science.

736  
 737

(category) Variables	Example descriptors	Response time to stressors/ restoration	Operative scale
(0) Hydrodynamics	Near-bed hydraulics Turbulent flow Vertical, lateral exchange Transient storage	Fast	Spot to reach
(1) Metabolism, GGP	Gross primary production	Fast	Reach to segment
(2) Metabolism, ER	Ecosystem respiration	Fast to Intermediate	Reach to segment
(2) Litter decomposition	Mass loss in coarse and fine mesh bags (macrofauna/microfauna)	Intermediate	Spot
(3) Nutrient uptake	Total (U) Uptake efficiency ( $V_f$ )	Fast	Reach

(3) Secondary production	Microbial secondary production Macrofauna secondary production	Fast (micro) Intermediate (macro)	Spot
(4) Microbial functional diversity	Shannon diversity of OTUs Targets groups (e.g., cyanobacteria) Fungi:bacteria Denitrifiers	Fast to intermediate	Spot
(4) Consumer functional diversity	Functional feeding groups	Slow	Spot
(4) Food web complexity	Niche compression Carbon transfer efficiency	Slow	Spot
(5) Greenhouse gas emissions	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions CH <sub>4</sub> emissions N <sub>2</sub> O emissions	Fast to intermediate	Spot

738