

1 **Origin of the impact of rock climbing on cliff ecosystems: A guide to evidence-based**
2 **conservation management to regulate climbing**

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28 # Equal contribution

29 **ABSTRACT**

- 30 **1.** Cliff ecosystems provide refuge to 35-66% of the world's endemic plants. However,
31 they face growing threats from climbing. Evidence suggests that untouched cliffs
32 harbor approximately twice the plant richness compared to climbed cliffs, with
33 increasing impact as climbing intensity increases. Unfortunately, the origin and extent
34 of the climbing impact has not been assessed so far.
- 35 **2.** We recorded cliff vascular plants and lichens at the protected natural area of El
36 Potrero Chico (Mexico) before and after the establishment of new climbing routes.
37 Subsequently, we re-recorded the routes at various time-points after openings while
38 controlling the number of ascents. Additionally, we examined whether original cliff
39 vegetation abundance influences the extent of climbing impact, and whether the
40 surroundings of the new routes were also affected.
- 41 **3.** We found that the establishment of new climbing routes exerted the strongest negative
42 effects on cliff plants, reducing species richness by 38%, while subsequent climbers'
43 ascents generated a minimal impact on richness. Worryingly, route opening affected
44 not only species richness in the route itself, but also the surroundings of the climbing
45 routes. Cliff plant abundance decreased by 60.6% within the bolted climbing routes,
46 whereas it rapidly decreased by 42.3% in the surrounding area. However, this impact
47 depended on the original vegetation abundance of the untouched cliffs. Lichen cover
48 showed a gradual decrease, indicating that cliff-dwelling lichens are affected not only
49 by the opening of the route but also by subsequent climbers' ascents.
- 50 **4.** *Synthesis and applications:* Given the almost non-existent regulation of outdoor
51 climbing activities in most countries, we urge the implementation of a conservation
52 management protocol that defines clear strategies to regulate climbing activities and
53 preserve pristine cliffs. On untouched cliffs with narrow endemic, rare, or threatened

54 species, we propose banning the establishment of new climbing areas. On cliffs
55 lacking protected or unique species, dynamic management actions should be
56 implemented, setting a maximum number of climbing routes that can be established,
57 and defining Limits of Acceptable Change as climbing intensity increases. The
58 proposed conservation management should help to halt the loss of unique cliff
59 biodiversity and safeguard pristine cliff ecosystems.

60

61 **Keywords:** Cliff ecology; Climbing regulation; Conservation management; Endangered
62 species; Lichens; Limits of Acceptable Change; Monitoring strategy; Pristine ecosystems.

63 INTRODUCTION

64 Cliffs are unique and biodiverse ecosystems that face growing pressures worldwide due to
65 rock climbing and other recreational activities such as rappelling and highline (Larson et al.,
66 2000; Chang & Xu, 2020). They harbor a great diversity of plants comprising species that are
67 highly specialized on cliff environments, many of them being endemic and endangered
68 species, as well as ecologically more widespread species (Larson et al., 2000; March-Salas et
69 al., 2023a). Given the uniqueness and high conservation value of cliff biodiversity,
70 understanding the threats of rock-climbing and developing approaches for an effective
71 conservation management is imperative (deCastro-Arrazola et al., 2021). There is consistent
72 evidence that rock-climbing negatively impacts species richness and abundance in cliff
73 habitats, also catalysing a significant decline of rare plants (e.g., Tessler and Clarck, 2016;
74 Lorite et al., 2017; March-Salas et al., 2018; Schmera et al., 2018; March-Salas et al., 2023b).
75 These detrimental effects of rock-climbing mainly arise from direct trampling, the erosion of
76 cliffs due to repetitive climbers' ascents, or plant removal by trampling, pulling or uprooting
77 by climbers (Holzschuh 2016; Harrison et al., 2022). Moreover, as recently shown, the use of
78 climbing chalk (magnesium carbonate) can also affect the germination and survival of
79 rupicolous plants as it triggers changes in soil nutrients and pH (Hepenstrick et al., 2020).
80 Furthermore, the opening of new climbing routes involves removing plants, mosses, and
81 lichens along the planned route transect to ensure safe climbing, which likely causes a
82 substantial part of their overall damage. However, no studies investigated which aspect of
83 climbing activity exerts the greatest impact on cliff biodiversity.

84 Climbing is undergoing an exponential and unplanned growth, with hundreds of new
85 routes in previously untouched areas, leading to a significant decline in pristine cliffs and its
86 biodiversity (Vogler and Reisch, 2011). Notably, nowadays there are more than 640,000
87 climbing routes in Europe and over 210,000 in North America (The Crag, 2022). Regrettably,

88 the opening of new routes remains unregulated, with little to no legal restrictions (Hanemann,
89 2000). Opening a climbing route involves the installation of safety anchors using a drill (*i.e.*,
90 bolting), as well as the removal of unstable rocks that could endanger climbers. Additionally,
91 ‘route cleaning’ is a common practice during route opening that typically involves removing
92 the individual plants that may obstruct the climber’s ascent, soil that accumulates in cliff
93 crevices, and even the use of metal brushes to eliminate mosses and lichens that could be
94 bothersome or slippery for climbers. Whether the people responsible for establishing and
95 adding the bolts to the climbing routes (*i.e.*, outfitters) lack sufficient botanical and biological
96 knowledge, this action may impact endemic, ecologically-relevant, and even endangered
97 cliff-dwelling flora. Besides route opening, the paradigm suggests that the increased climbing
98 intensity may lead to more pronounced impacts on cliff plant communities (Clark and Hessl,
99 2015; Lorite et al., 2017). However, there are intrinsic variations in the rock-climbing impact,
100 probably related to differences in species composition and site characteristics (Harrison et al.,
101 2022). Thus, the relevance of increased climbing intensity for cliff biodiversity remains
102 inconclusive, as similar impacts have been observed in both low- and high-intensity climbing
103 areas (Schmera et al., 2018; March-Salas et al., 2023). Understanding the dominant drivers of
104 the overall impact of rock-climbing activities would be crucial for comprehensive and
105 efficient management of this popular recreational activity and for a better protection of cliff
106 biodiversity.

107 Concern regarding the climbing impact is heightened particularly whether the new
108 climbing routes are planned to be installed in protected natural areas and/or in very densified
109 cliff areas. For instance, approximately 62% of climbing routes in Spain are situated within
110 protected natural areas (deCastro-Arrazola et al., 2021), posing a worrying threat to their
111 biodiversity. Not surprisingly, there is a growing conflict between climbers and managers of
112 natural areas. So far, measures implemented by nature managers mainly involved restricting

113 access to climbers during the breeding season of cliff-nesting birds. In the world-famous
114 Margalef climbing area (Spain), located in the Sierra de Montsant Natural Park, technical
115 reports also recommend monitoring the carrying capacity of cliff ecosystems and their
116 surroundings, and encourage to limit access when exceeded. More drastic measures have
117 even gone as far as a total ban on rock climbing in certain areas due to the impact on birds or
118 cliff flora of high conservation value (e.g., *Petrocoptis grandiflora*, a narrow endemic plant
119 of Serra da Enciña da Lastra Natural Park, Spain). Where such regulations and management
120 protocols are absent, this may lead to the establishment of new climbing routes on cliffs with
121 abundant vegetation and endemic and/or threatened cliff flora. Therefore, nature managers
122 need guidance on when and how to implement effective conservation actions, as well as the
123 monitoring strategies required to follow up on cliff biodiversity.

124 Here, we assess for the first time the origin of the impact of climbing activity on cliff
125 ecosystems. To this end, we contacted local outfitters to establish and bolt new climbing
126 routes on pristine cliff ecosystems of the highly popular climbing site and protected natural
127 area of El Potrero Chico (Nuevo Leon, Mexico), and we recorded cliff plants and lichens
128 before and after they established the new routes. The pristine cliffs varied in vegetation
129 density, allowing us to assess whether the abundance of original cliff vegetation influence the
130 impact. Afterwards, climbers climbed the new routes and cliff plants and lichens were
131 subsequently re-recorded. We hypothesized that (1) the opening of new climbing routes
132 affects cliff plants more than subsequent climbers' ascents; and (2) the impacts of the
133 climbing activity are stronger on cliffs with originally dense vegetation. The insights from
134 this study enable us to develop a conservation management protocol to guide the
135 management strategy and regulation of rock climbing, and ultimately aid in the conservation
136 of cliff ecosystems and their unique biodiversity.

137 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

138 **Study site**

139 El Potrero Chico (Nuevo León, Mexico) is located close to Monterrey, in the northern
140 periphery of the 'Sierra El Fraile y San Miguel' protected natural area, part of the Sierra
141 Madre Oriental Mountain range. It covers 23,506 hectares and elevation ranges from 800 to
142 2,360 m asl. This region is formed by Mesozoic sedimentary rocks, including shale and
143 limestone cliffs that support rich and diverse cliff vegetation (Larson et al. 2000; INECC
144 2017). El Potrero Chico has a semi-arid climate, featuring hot summers with average monthly
145 maximum temperatures exceeding 40 °C from June to August and moderate winter
146 temperatures ranging between 7 and 16 °C. Precipitation peaks in September and October,
147 averaging between 70 and 130 mm per month. The dominant vegetation types in the study
148 area are submontane vegetation and desert rosetophilous scrub, the latter having been
149 classified as a conservation priority because of its high level of endemism (Estrada-Castillón
150 et al., 2012).

151 Recognized as one of the most popular climbing destinations worldwide, El Potrero
152 Chico offers around 700 climbing routes in 24 rock faces (Madden, 2022). Approximately
153 100 of these routes have been opened in the last two years. Rock climbing began there in
154 1960, but its popularity as a climbing area greatly increased in the late 1980s. The preferred
155 seasons for climbing are late autumn and early spring (between November and March) due to
156 favorable temperatures and low/scarce precipitation. For instance, during the winter seasons
157 of 2022-23 and 2023-24, there were 2312 and 2238 climbers in El Potrero Chico, respectively
158 (information provided by the Tourism Secretary of Hidalgo).

159

160 **Field monitoring design**

161 We conducted the first assessment on the origin of the climbing effect on cliff plant
162 communities and lichens by evaluating the effect of establishing new climbing routes as well
163 as of subsequent climbers' ascents on pristine cliffs. Specifically, to understand whether cliff
164 communities are more affected either by the opening of the new routes or by climbing
165 activity, we recorded pristine cliffs before (pre-opening) and immediately after (post-
166 opening) the opening of the climbing routes in October 2022. Then, we recorded the cliff
167 plants and lichens after 10, 20 and 30 climbing ascents. These five times when plants and
168 lichens were recorded are hereafter referred as 'measuring times'. We selected two cliffs
169 situated 50 meters apart from each other. To assess whether the rock-climbing activity has
170 variable impacts depending on the abundance of vegetation in the original and untouched
171 cliffs, one studied cliff has originally dense and the other scarce vegetation (Fig. S1). Other
172 criteria used for the selection of these cliffs included: feasibility of descending from the top
173 of the cliff before the establishment of the new climbing route (rappelling), and easy access
174 for the climbing community in order to foster their involvement in the study.

175 Following the recommendations from two local outfitters, we delineated four climbing
176 routes on the pristine cliff with dense vegetation (25°57'18" N 100°29'07" W; called 'Sotol-
177 Plutonia' climbing sector), and three on the pristine cliff with scarce vegetation (25°57'16" N
178 100°29'00" W; called 'Agave' climbing sector) (*see* Table S1). A total of 42 plots of 3 m²
179 plots and 504 subplots of 0.25 m² were surveyed at each of the five measuring times (*see*
180 'Field monitoring method' below). Climbing routes were at least 3.5 meters apart from the
181 next climbing route. To establish the climbing routes, the path of the upcoming climbing
182 route was initially guided with tape. Cliff plants and lichens was then recorded by
183 establishing three quadrats at different heights of the cliff face (*see* details in 'Field
184 monitoring method'). This is considered as the 'pre-opening' measuring time. For replicability
185 in subsequent surveys, the positions of the corners of the quadrats in each of the measured

186 areas were marked on the cliff using tape. Thereafter, the two local climbing route outfitters
187 installed the bolts, performing all the usual actions for establishing the seven climbing routes,
188 following the delineation marked by the tape. The day after each route was established and
189 bolted, we re-recorded the cliff plants and lichens at exactly the same points of the cliff-face
190 as in the 'pre-opening' measuring time and was termed 'post-opening'. Finally, local climbers
191 were contacted for climbing the studied routes. Once 10, 20, and 30 ascents were completed
192 on each route, we subsequently recorded the same points as in the 'pre-opening' and 'post-
193 opening' measurements (Fig. S1).

194

195 **Field monitoring method and data collection**

196 To assess the strength and the origin of the climbing impact, we used a case-control design
197 with a 3 m wide \times 3 m high quadrat positioned at three zones of the climbing route (*see*
198 March-Salas et al. 2023b). The quadrat consisted of: a central plot of 1 m width and 3 m
199 height representing the central area of the climbing route (so called 'within the climbing
200 route'); two immediately adjacent surveyed plots of 0.5 m width and 3 m height, as this area
201 could be potentially used by climbers during their ascent, and therefore would not be exempt
202 from being disturbed; two plots 1 m far from the center of the climbing route of 0.5 m width
203 and 3 m height on the left and right sides of the 3 m \times 3 m quadrat that served as controls,
204 representing areas not reached by climbers and outfitters (so called 'near the climbing route').
205 This closely adjacent paired design was chosen to effectively assess the impact of rock
206 climbing, minimizing variations in biotic or abiotic factors such as aspect, inclination, micro-
207 topography, and insolation, as described in the methodological review by Boggess et al.
208 (2021).

209 To characterize the spatial distribution of plants and lichens within each plot, both
210 'within' and 'near' plots were subdivided into 0.5 m \times 0.5 m subplots (12 subplots in each

211 ‘within’ plot and 12 subplots in each ‘near’ plot). Photographs were taken from each subplot
212 as part of the data collection process. To consider the physical microtopography of the cliff,
213 we calculated the proportion of cracks (crevices) in each 0.5 m × 0.5 m subplot using the
214 ‘ImageJ’ program (Rueden et al. 2017). This measurement helps to reduce potential bias
215 when modelling the climbing effect, since the establishment and development of plants are
216 more plausible with a higher percentage of cracks (Holzschuh 2016). We identified all the
217 plant species present in the plots (Velazco et al. 2011), and calculated the plant species
218 richness in the ‘within’ and ‘near’ plots of each climbing route and quadrat, as well as the
219 number of individuals per species (*i.e.*, abundance). In addition, the area (in cm²) of each
220 individual vascular plant (*i.e.*, plant cover), and the lichen and moss covers were calculated,
221 also using the ‘ImageJ’ program. Since mosses covered only 0.74% of the monitored cliffs,
222 this variable was not analyzed.

223

224 **Data analysis**

225 We conducted all statistical analysis with *R version 4.0.3* (R Development Core Team 2020).
226 We assessed the origin of the climbing effect as well as the influence of the original cliff
227 vegetation abundance on plant species richness, plant abundance, and vascular plant and
228 lichen cover as response variables in four separate models. We used Linear Mixed-effects
229 Models (LMMs) implemented in the ‘lme4’ package and the ‘lmer’ function (Bates et al.
230 2015). Measuring time (five levels: Pre-opening, Post-opening, and 10, 20 and 30 ascents),
231 climbing route zone (two levels: within vs. near the climbing route), original cliff vegetation
232 abundance (two levels: dense vs. scarce), and their two- and three-way interactions were
233 modelled as fixed factors, and plot nested in cliff section and climbing route was included as
234 random factor. In the models concerning vascular plants, the percentage of cracks was used

235 as a covariate to control for the amount of micro-niches available for plant establishment and
236 growth (Holzschuh 2016).

237 After conducting all LMMs, we tested the assumptions of normality and homogeneity
238 of variance of the residuals using the Shapiro-Wilk test and the Bartlett test, respectively. If
239 the residuals were not normally distributed, we transformed the response variable (*see*
240 transformations in Table 1). Whenever there was a significant effect in measuring time or
241 significant interactions, we applied post-hoc contrasts by Tukey tests using the ‘lsmeans’
242 package (Lenth 2016) .

243 **RESULTS**

244 Plant abundance, species richness, and both plant and lichen cover exhibited significant
245 changes across the measuring times (Table 1). Changes across measuring times depended on
246 the climbing route zone for plant abundance and lichen cover (significant two-way
247 interaction; Table 1; Fig. 1), and on the original cliff vegetation abundance, specifically for
248 plant species richness and cover (significant two-way interaction between measuring time
249 and original cliff vegetation abundance; Table 1; Fig. 2).

250 Plant abundance was significantly lower post-opening compared to before the opening
251 of the new climbing routes, both within (post-hoc test: $t = -5.889$; $p < 0.001$) and near (post-
252 hoc test: $t = -3.268$; $p = 0.043$) the transect bolted for climbing (Fig. 1A). In contrast, no
253 significant differences in plant abundance existed between the measurements post-opening
254 and after 10, 20 or 30 climbers' ascents (Fig. 1A). Lichen cover was not significantly
255 different before than after the opening of the climbing route, nor after 10 climbers' ascents
256 (Fig. 1B). Nevertheless, lichen cover was significantly lower after 20 climbers' ascents
257 compared to the pre-opening measurements (post-hoc test: $t = -4.445$; $p < 0.001$), and
258 significantly lower after 30 climbers' ascents compared to the pre- (post-hoc test: $t = -5.592$;
259 $p < 0.001$) and post-opening (post-hoc test: $t = -4.334$; $p = 0.001$) measurements (Fig. 1B).

260 Plant species richness (Fig. 2A) and total plant cover (Fig. 2B) were significantly lower
261 in the post-opening compared to the pre-opening measurements in initially densely vegetated
262 areas (post-hoc tests, for species richness: $t = -6.317$; $p < 0.001$; for plant cover: $t = -5.972$; p
263 < 0.001). In contrast, there were no significant differences between the pre- and post-opening
264 measurements in pristine cliffs with scarce vegetation (Fig. 2). Climber ascents did not
265 significantly affect species richness or total plant cover, regardless of the amount of
266 vegetation on the pristine cliffs (Fig. 2).

267 **DISCUSSION**

268 As hypothesized, opening of the climbing route is the most detrimental phase of rock
269 climbing for cliff vegetation and lichens. To date, this impact was primarily attributed to an
270 increase in climber frequency (e.g., Vogler and Resich, 2011; Clark and Hessler, 2015; Lorite
271 et al, 2017; Harrison et al., 2022). However, we found that it is precisely during the opening
272 when the greatest impact on cliff vegetation occurs, while repeated ascents by climbers
273 generate a relatively lower impact. Yet, the extend of this impact depends on the original
274 vegetation abundance of the pristine cliffs, and the decrease in lichens appears to be
275 influenced by both activities: the opening of the new route as well as by the repeated friction
276 produced by climbers during repeated ascents. Considering the almost non-existent regulation
277 of climbing route opening in most countries (Hanemann, 2000; March-Salas et al., 2023a),
278 and the significant negative effect of rock climbing on these habitats, we advocate and
279 suggest clear conservation management strategies to be implemented in order to control the
280 establishment of new climbing routes in cliff ecosystems.

281

282 **The origin and extent of climbing impact**

283 The opening of new routes represents the phase with the strongest negative effect on cliff
284 biodiversity, affecting not only the bolted area that will be directly used by climbers but also
285 an extended area located 1 to 2 m away from the route, normally unused by climbers.
286 However, after 30 climbers' ascents, vascular plants in the areas away from the climbing
287 routes remained intact, indicating that the impact of the climbers themselves mainly occur
288 within the 1 m wide of the bolted climbing route. Within the climbing route, actions carried
289 out during route opening reduced cliff vegetation abundance by 60.6% (Fig. 1A, right panel),
290 whereas it decreased by 42.3% in the area near the climbing route (Fig. 1A, left panel). After
291 30 climbers' ascents, 30.2% of the remaining cliff vegetation after route opening was lost

292 within the route, although this decrease was not supported statistically (Fig. 1A, right panel).
293 This decrease is equivalent to the loss of around two plant individuals per climbing ascent,
294 mostly occurring during the first 10 climbers' ascents. This is in line with the results of
295 Schweizer et al. (2021), which revealed that climber impacts occur mostly during the
296 climbers' first ascents. Climbing outfitters typically remove loose rocks that might pose a
297 safety risk for climbers. During route cleaning, they also remove plants and soil from cliff
298 crevices that could obstruct climbers' progress. Moreover, if mosses or lichens on the cliff
299 could potentially cause climbers to slip, outfitters often use metal brushes to remove them.
300 These actions explain the strong impact of the establishment of new climbing routes.

301 We also found a gradual decrease in lichen cover, indicating that saxicolous cliff-
302 dwelling lichens are affected by both the route opening and subsequent climbers' ascents
303 (Fig. 1B, right panel). Significant differences in lichen cover were observed after 20 ascents
304 compared to the pre-opening monitoring, and after 30 ascents compared to the post-opening
305 monitoring, resulting in an overall reduction of 34.6%. These findings also align with the
306 results of Schweizer et al. (2021), who reported a strong reduction in lichen cover within the
307 first 50 ascents, with no significant decreases afterwards. However, lichen cover was constant
308 in the nearby area of the climbing route (Fig. 1B, left panel), indicating that climbers can
309 greatly impact lichens, as previously observed (e.g., Adams and Zaniewski, 2012; Clark and
310 Hessel, 2015; Tessler and Clark, 2016). This gradual impact may be attributed to the
311 abovementioned activities during outfitting and the repetitive friction during the first
312 climbers' ascents. Fine-scale studies identifying rare and unique cliff lichen species (e.g.,
313 Boggess et al, 2017) emphasize the importance of considering lichens and cliff erosion in
314 conservation planning.

315 It is worth noting that the extent of the impact from the opening depended on the
316 abundance of vegetation in the pristine cliffs. The opening of the new routes significantly

317 impacted plant species richness and total plant cover in those pristine cliffs with dense
318 vegetation, while weaker effects were observed in cliffs with originally scarce vegetation
319 (Fig. 2). Species richness decreased by 40.9% and 29.2% in cliffs with original dense and
320 scarce vegetation, respectively, whereas total plant cover was reduced by 48.9% in cliffs with
321 originally dense vegetation, and 50.6% in those with originally scarce vegetation. However,
322 climbers' ascents showed minimal effects on species richness and plant cover, with
323 reductions of 11-14.9% in all cases (Fig. 2). Both Farris (1998) and Kuntz and Larson (2006)
324 suggested that outfitters select cliffs with scarce vegetation, avoiding heavily vegetated cliffs
325 that could hinder the establishment of new climbing routes. However, cliffs with scarce
326 vegetation may harbor plants of high conservation value, such as rare, endemic, or even
327 endangered species. Thus, regardless the abundance of vegetation on the pristine cliffs, an
328 exhaustive species inventory should be conducted before establishing new routes, as
329 indicated in our management protocol (Fig. 3). This is especially demanding in the case of
330 very narrow specialists that occur in small areas of one cliff (*i.e.*, *Borderea chouardii*, a very
331 ancient Dioscoraceae living on a unique cliff in Pyrenees; *see* García et al. 2012) or some
332 specialists of overhanging cliff habitats such as some relatives of the *Sarcocapnos* genus
333 (Lorite et al. 2017).

334 Outfitters also tend to select dry areas for route establishment, as wet rocks may be
335 uncomfortable and hazardous for climbing (Boggess et al. 2021). Dry cliff areas usually have
336 lower vegetative abundance but otherwise may be more strongly covered by lichens (Boggess
337 et al. 2021). This trade-off between vegetation or lichen cover is also suggested by the
338 measurements we obtained near the climbing route (*see* Fig. 1A-B). In addition, outfitters
339 likely prioritize the removal of lichens that are less firmly attached to the rock, such as leafy
340 foliose and fruticose species, while crustose lichens are likely removed due to continuous
341 friction from climbers' ascents, as our results suggest (Fig. 1B). Although it may be thought

342 that lichens or other organisms may be less relevant for conservation compared to plants and
343 vertebrates (Rubio-Salcedo et al. 2013), Reding (2019) found that endolithic and rare lichens
344 are understudied but may have a significant presence on cliffs. Moreover, the erosion
345 generated by repeated climbers' ascents may negatively affect other valuable cliff organisms
346 such as soil and rock-dwelling fungi, algae, cyanobacteria, mosses or different seed
347 dispersers and pollinators (Cooper, 1997; Gerrath et al., 2000; Horath and Bachofen, 2009;
348 Coleine et al., 2021; Krah and March-Salas, 2021), also causing indirect negative effects on
349 cliff plant communities.

350 Furthermore, our study provides a new interpretation of results from previous studies
351 on this topic. Our findings on the effect of route opening within and in the areas close to the
352 climbing routes suggest that the climbing effects previously found in other studies with
353 closely-paired designs showed conservative results (e.g., Clark and Hessler, 2015; Tessler and
354 Clark, 2016; Boggess et al., 2017; Reding, 2019; March-Salas et al. 2018, 2023b). The
355 climbing impact found in these studies should then be primarily attributed to the repeated
356 climbers' ascents rather than to the opening of the climbing route, which is clearly the
357 bottleneck of the detrimental process.

358

359 **Conservation management in cliff ecosystems**

360 Despite its growing popularity, rock climbing is a recreational activity with scarce
361 management guidelines (March-Salas et al., 2023a). Regulations and accepted practices
362 regarding the establishment of new climbing routes are almost non-existent, or ambiguous
363 and differing among countries and regions. However, recently the U.S. National Park Service
364 (NPS) and U.S. Forest Service (USFS) identified environmental hazards associated with the
365 establishment and bolting of new routes for sport climbing. In January 2024, they proposed to
366 ban fixed anchors in wilderness areas, unless granted special permission (National Park

367 Service, 2024). In Ireland, guidelines have been developed to strive for a balance between the
368 development of new climbing areas, the consideration of the nature environment, and
369 climbing ethics (Mountaineering Ireland, 2023). Except in cases of cliffs with rare or
370 endangered species, these guidelines consist solely of non-mandatory recommendations, such
371 as removing only as much soil as necessary from cliff crevices, considering pruning rather
372 than tree removal, or removing plants only after ensuring they are not rare or protected
373 (Mountaineering Ireland, 2023). Therefore, there are still no protocols that can help
374 authorities and practitioners to follow standardized management and monitoring strategies in
375 pristine cliffs.

376 We propose a conservation management protocol that includes data collection and
377 monitoring that would allow gathering information on cliff ecosystems for adequate decision-
378 making, plus management actions to be implemented (Fig. 3). Monitoring strategies would
379 offer an opportunity for managers to promote environmental stewardship of cliffs and define
380 specific regulations to be implemented. We categorized these regulations into: *strict* (i)
381 regulation due to the presence of singular species (*i.e.*, rare, endemic, endangered or
382 millennial-old species); *intermediate* (ii) and *moderate* (iii) regulations for pristine cliffs with
383 respectively dense or scarce non-protected vegetation abundance; and *basic* (iv) regulation
384 for already-climbed cliffs with no singular species in the cliff edges or in areas between the
385 climbing routes (Fig. 3). If *intermediate* (ii) and *moderate* (iii) conservation management is
386 applied, traditional (*i.e.*, climbing that do not follow previously-established routes and fixed
387 anchors in the cliff) or low-intensity climbing may be allowed in pristine cliffs. Then, the
388 maximum number of new climbing routes should be evaluated, considering the ecosystem
389 carrying capacity, and establishing *Limits of Acceptable Change* (Stankey et al., 1985;
390 March-Salas et al., 2023a). This would require long-term monitoring of biodiversity changes,
391 listing species, assessing site conditions over time, and comparing those data to the initial

392 state of the pristine cliff (Schatz et al., 2014). Particularly, this should include direct
393 measurements of population size, tracking singular species, and assessing the erosion of cliff
394 faces (e.g., lichen cover, changes in cliff physical features, signs of rock erosion, or marks of
395 excessive use of climbing chalk) and their surroundings such as cliff bases, cliff edges and
396 the pathways to the climbing area (Boggess et al., 2021; Fragnière et al. 2024). Furthermore,
397 in these management scenarios, quantifying the climbing frequency is a critical factor to
398 determine the climbers' impact (Boggess et al. 2021). Guiding agencies and local climbing
399 organizations may be able to provide information regarding route use.

400 Since there are no benchmarks for each management scenario, we should conduct
401 adaptive strategies before having ranges of thresholds that describe desired conditions,
402 climbing pressure and cliff status (Webb et al., 2020). Therefore, when these benchmarks are
403 surpassed, it should trigger the implementation of previously-defined management actions,
404 raising the conservation management level, and probably requiring additional data collection
405 (Webb et al., 2020; Harrison et al. *unpublished*). All this will require revisiting the climbed
406 cliffs and conducting continuous monitoring and assessments, so agencies should require and
407 increase investment in management support.

408

409 **Conclusions**

410 Our study shows that the climbing-related action with the strongest impact on cliff plant
411 communities is the establishment of new climbing routes. Certain cliffs are likely among the
412 last pristine ecosystems in many countries. These pristine cliffs, especially those harboring
413 unique species – whether endemic, rare, or threatened –, must be protected, which may
414 require banning the establishment of new climbing areas. In cases of pristine or climbed cliffs
415 with no unique or singular species, dynamic management actions (*i.e.*, those that can vary
416 over time, such as less restriction in non-reproductive seasons of birds or plants) and

417 continuous monitoring should be implemented, including setting maximum numbers of
418 climbing routes to be established in each cliff and defining *Limits of Acceptable Change* as
419 climbing intensity increases. We also advocate for a framework that mandates an
420 environmental assessment prior to the opening of new climbing areas, in addition to
421 providing outfitters with best practice guides and training in cliff nature conservation. The
422 protection of cliff ecosystems from human disturbances is certainly crucial to halt
423 biodiversity loss, but this requires an increased conservation effort and detailed guidelines for
424 effective management of cliff ecosystems.

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554 **Author's contributions**

555 FMA and MMS designed the study, and MMS, FMA and JL designed the field-monitoring
556 methodology. FMA conducted the field surveys and gathered the data with the help of AS,
557 while EEC helped to identify the cliff plant species. MMS analyzed the data and wrote the
558 original draft of the manuscript, with review and editing by all authors.

559

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573 University Frankfurt.

574

575 **Data availability**

576 Data will be made available in a public repository upon acceptance for publication.

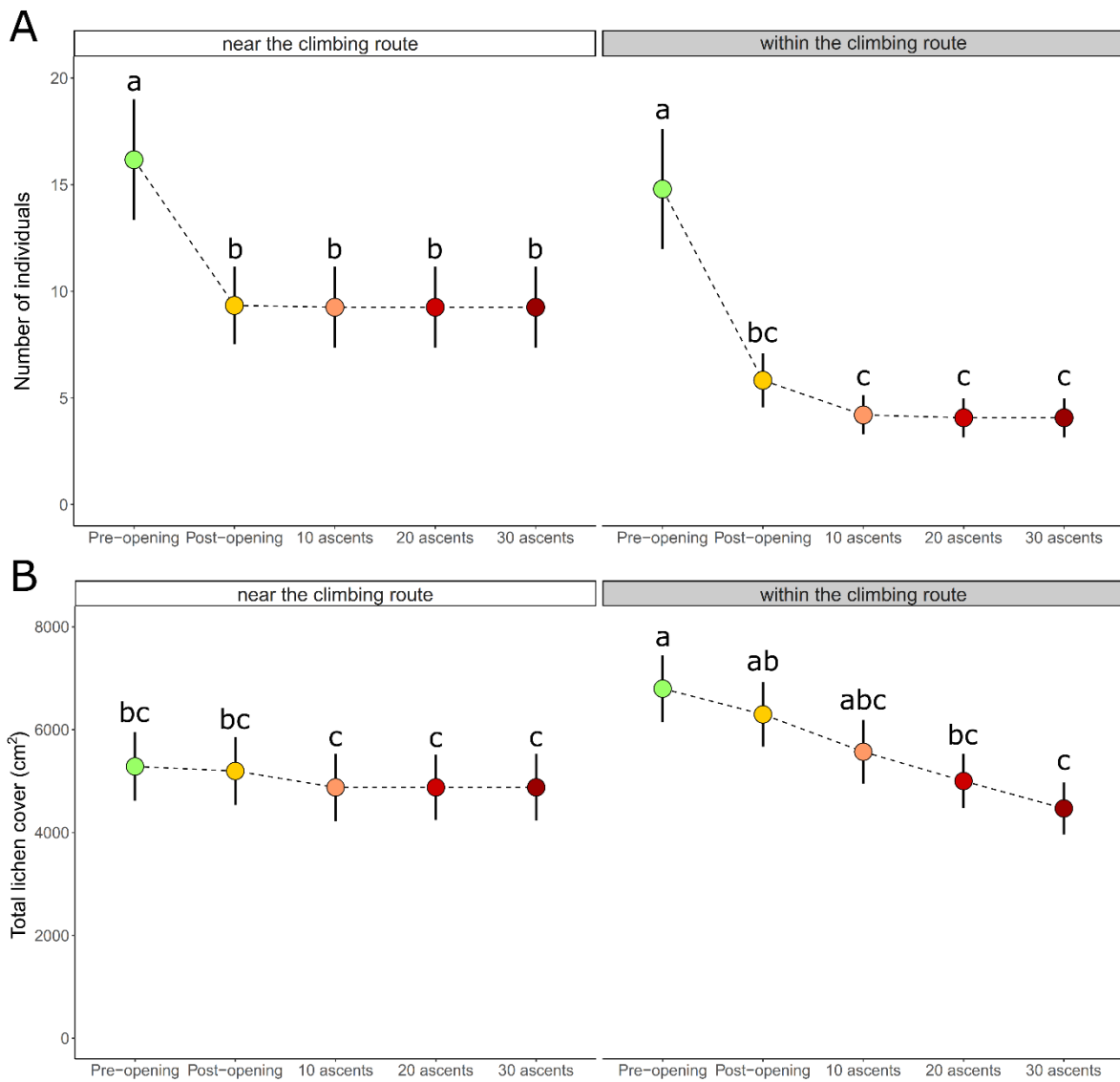
577 **Tables**

578 **Table 1:** Results of the Linear Mixed-effects Models (LMMs) investigating the origin of the climbing effect, and the influence of the vegetation
579 abundance of pristine cliffs on plant abundance, species richness, and total coverage of vascular plants and lichens. LMMs included climbing
580 route zone (near vs. within the climbing route), measuring time (pre- and post-opening the route, and 10, 20 and 30 climbers' ascents), cliff
581 vegetation abundance, and their two- and three-way interactions, as well as the percentage of cracks. Transformations applied to the response
582 variable are indicated below the table. Significance is indicated as * $0.05 > P \geq 0.01$; ** $0.01 > P \geq 0.001$; *** $P < 0.001$, and • reflects marginal
583 effects ($0.1 > P \geq 0.05$).

Parameter	df	Plant abundance ^a			Species richness			Plant coverage			Lichen coverage ^b		
		Chi ²	<i>P</i> -value		Chi ²	<i>P</i> -value		Chi ²	<i>P</i> -value		Chi ²	<i>P</i> -value	
Percentage of cracks	1	2.254	0.133		0.672	0.412		2.319	0.128		-	-	-
Climbing route zone (Zone)	1	38.631	<0.001	***	18.898	<0.001	***	55.735	<0.001	***	8.078	0.004	**
Measuring time (Measuring)	4	101.888	<0.001	***	83.267	<0.001	***	66.171	<0.001	***	28.847	<0.001	***
Cliff vegetation (Veg)	1	3.492	0.062	•	9.376	0.002	**	7.979	0.005	**	0.314	0.575	
Zone × Measuring	4	10.337	0.035	*	4.899	0.298		0.085	0.999		14.028	0.007	**
Zone × Veg	1	8.267	0.004	**	2.969	0.085	•	17.134	<0.001	***	7.047	0.008	**
Measuring × Veg	4	2.169	0.705		12.729	0.013	*	14.987	0.004	**	0.201	0.995	
Zone × Measuring × Veg	4	0.196	0.995		0.095	0.999		0.002	0.999		0.252	0.993	

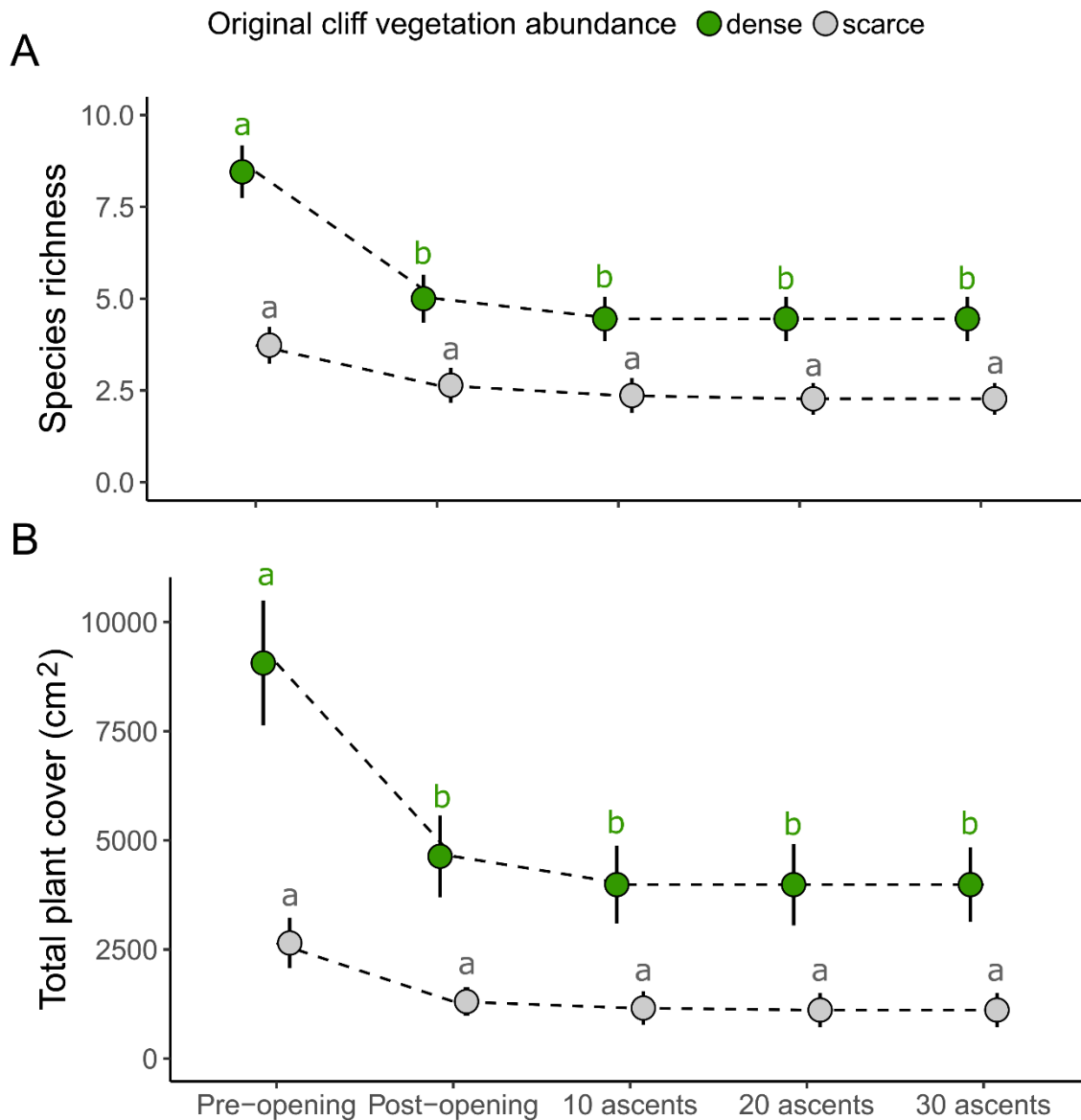
584

585 *transformations: a: log(x); b: x^{1.5}*



587

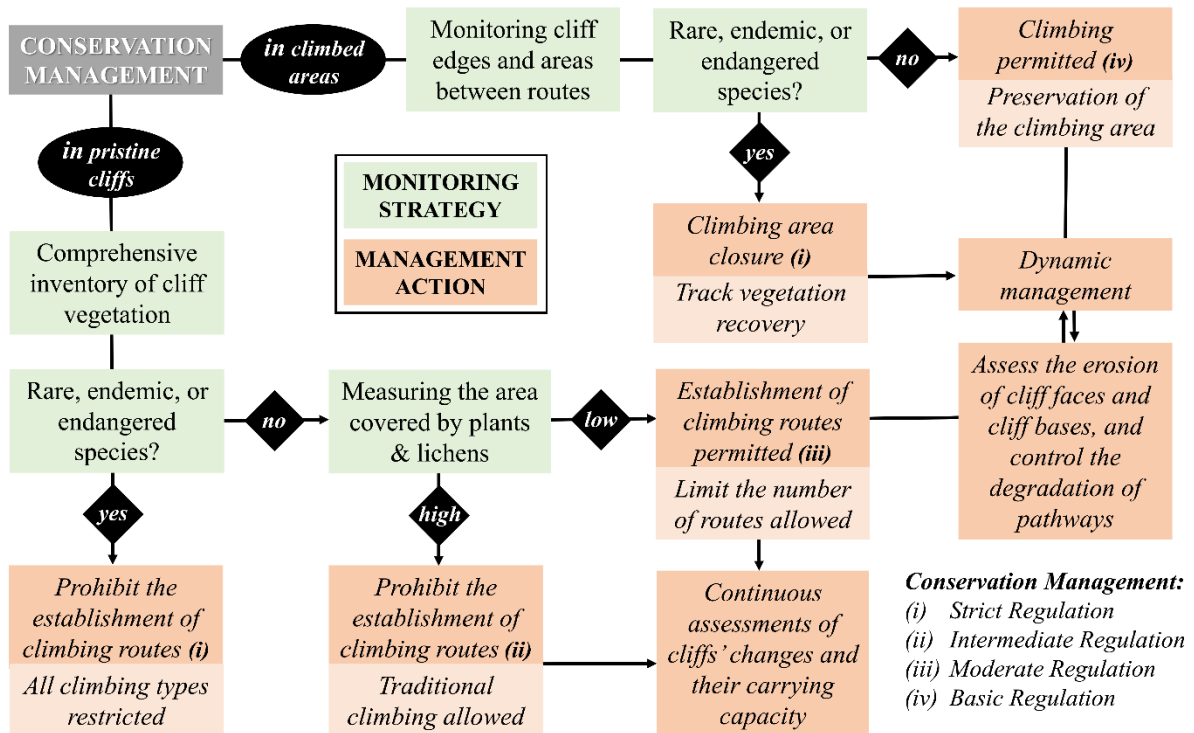
588 **Figure 1:** Differences in plant abundance and total lichen coverage between pristine cliffs
 589 and different phases of the climbing activity. Mean \pm standard error (SE) in the number of
 590 individuals (A) and the total lichen coverage in the studied cliffs (in cm^2 ; B) measured before
 591 (pre-opening) and after (post-opening) the establishment of the new climbing route are as
 592 well as after 10, 20 and 30 climbers' ascents are shown for the area near (panel on the left)
 593 and within (panel on the right) the climbing routes. Significant differences in post-hoc
 594 contrasts are indicated with different letters.



595

596 **Figure 2:** Plant species richness (A) and total vascular plant cover (B) between the pre-
 597 opening of the climbing route and different phases of the climbing activity in cliffs that
 598 originally hold dense (green) or scarce (grey) vegetation abundance. Mean \pm standard error
 599 (SE) are shown, and post-hoc contrasts between measuring times within dense and scarce
 600 vegetation abundance are indicated.

WORKFLOW TO GUIDE CONSERVATION MANAGEMENT IN CLIFF ECOSYSTEMS



601

602

Figure 3: Workflow diagram as guidance for implementing conservation management

603

actions in both pristine and climbed cliffs. The green boxes represent the associated field

604

monitoring strategy to gather adequate information for decision-making, while the orange

605

boxes represent the management actions to be implemented in each scenario. The light

606

orange boxes show a complementary action to be implemented. The type of regulation to be

607

implemented for each action is also highlighted and categorized into strict (i), intermediate

608

(ii), moderate (iii) and basic (iv) regulation.

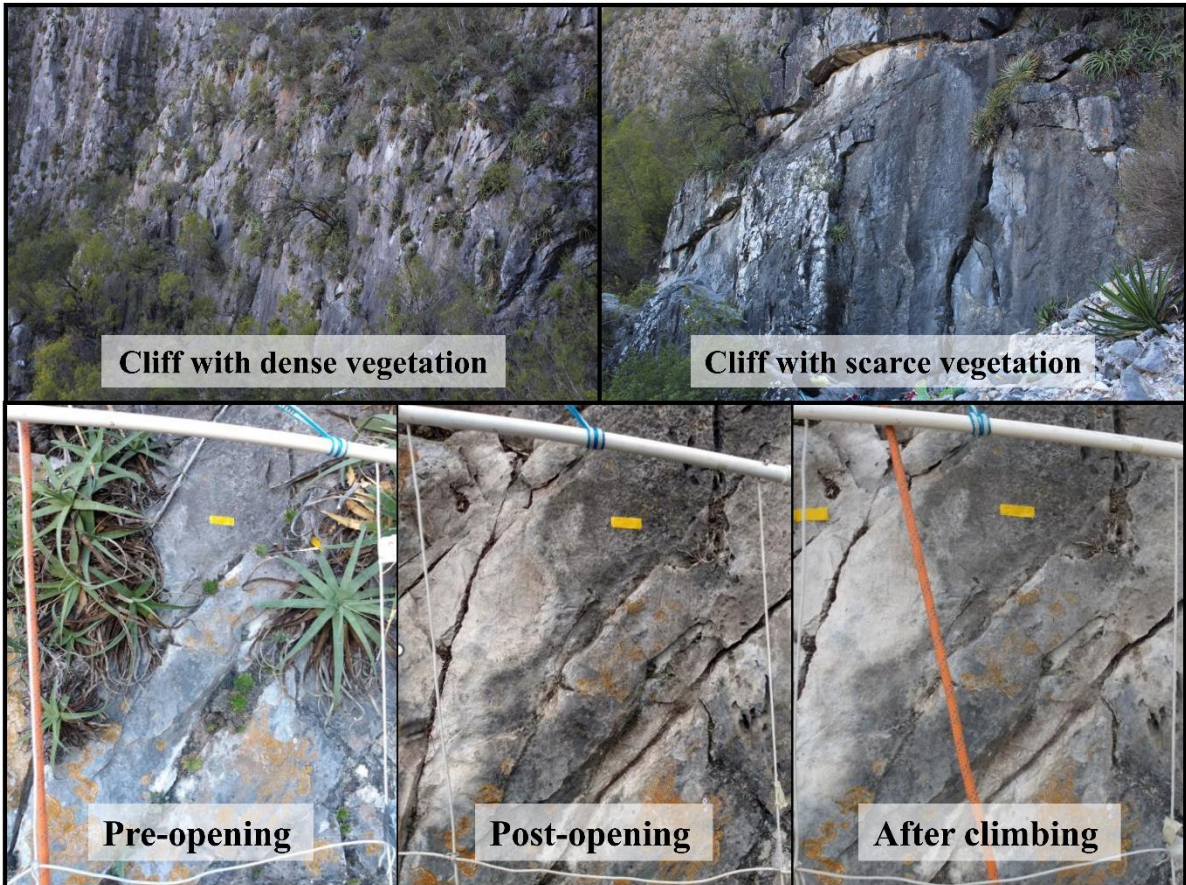
609 **Supplementary material**

610 **Table S1:** Information about the newly established climbing routes, including the name we
 611 chose for the climbing sector and climbing route, the amount of vegetation of each climbing
 612 sector, the climbing difficulty (measured with the Yosemite Decimal System – YDS grades),
 613 and the route height (in m). All climbing routes were oriented to the north.

Sector	Amount of vegetation	Route name	Difficult	Height
Agave	Scarce	Golden Tacos	5.9	12
		Olor a Huevo	5.10b	15
		Nada es lo que parece	5.10a	11
Plutonia-Sotol	Dense	Mitlan	5.11b	29
		Entre agaves y sotoles	5.10c	20
		En memoria	5.10b	21
		Es musgo	5.9	17

614

615



616

617 **Figure S1:** Exemplary images of the studied cliffs. Cliffs with dense (top left) and scarce (top
618 right) vegetation abundance were selected for the establishment of new climbing routes.

619 Vegetation and lichens were recorded before (pre-opening) and after (post-opening) the
620 establishment of the climbing routes. Subsequently, climbers ascended the routes 30 times,
621 and cliffs were recorded after every ten climbers' ascents.