

Appendix 19 - Pressure Descriptions

List of anthropogenic pressures relevant to sublittoral rock habitats. Pressures and descriptions are taken from the Intercessional Correspondence Group on Cumulative Effects (ICG-C; amended 25 March 2011).

Pressure theme	ICG-C Pressure	ICG-C description	MB102 benchmark
Biological pressures	Removal of target species	The commercial exploitation of fish & shellfish stocks, including smaller scale harvesting, angling and scientific sampling. The physical effects of fishing gear on sea bed communities are addressed by the "abrasion" pressure type D2, so B5 addresses the direct removal / harvesting of biota. Ecological consequences include the sustainability of stocks, impacting energy flows through food webs and the size and age composition within fish stocks.	Removal of target species that are features of conservation importance or sub-features of habitats of conservation importance at a commercial scale.
Hydrological changes (inshore/local)	Water flow (tidal current) changes - local, including sediment transport considerations	Changes in water movement associated with tidal streams (the rise and fall of the tide, riverine flows), prevailing winds and ocean currents. The pressure is therefore associated with activities that have the potential to modify hydrological energy flows, e.g. Tidal energy generation devices remove (convert) energy and such pressures could be manifested leeward of the device, capital dredging may deepen and widen a channel and therefore decrease the water flow, canalisation and/or structures may alter flow speed and direction; managed realignment (e.g. Wallasea, England). The pressure will be spatially delineated. The pressure extremes are a shift from a high to a low energy environment (or vice versa). The biota associated with these extremes will be markedly different as will the substrate, sediment supply/transport and associated seabed elevation changes. The potential exists for profound changes (e.g. coastal erosion/deposition) to occur at long distances from the construction itself if an important sediment transport pathway was disrupted. As such these pressures could have multiple and complex impacts associated with them.	A change in peak mean spring tide flow speed of between 0.1m/s to 0.2m/s over an areas >1km ² or 50% if width of water body for more than 1 year.
Hydrological changes (inshore/local)	Wave exposure changes - local	Local changes in wave length, height and frequency. Exposure on an open shore is dependent upon the distance of open seawater over which wind may blow to generate waves (the fetch) and the strength and incidence of winds. Anthropogenic sources of this pressure include artificial reefs, breakwaters, barrages, wrecks that can directly influence wave action or activities that may locally affect the incidence of	A change in near shore significant wave height >3% but <5%

		winds, e.g. a dense network of wind turbines may have the potential to influence wave exposure, depending upon their location relative to the coastline.	
Physical damage (Reversible Change)	Abrasion/disturbance of the substrate on the surface of the seabed		Damage to seabed surface features
Physical damage (Reversible Change)	Changes in suspended solids (water clarity)	Changes in water clarity from sediment and organic particulate matter concentrations. It is related to activities disturbing sediment and/or organic particulate matter and mobilising it into the water column. Could be 'natural' land run-off and riverine discharges or from anthropogenic activities such as all forms of dredging, disposal at sea, cable and pipeline burial, secondary effects of construction works, e.g. breakwaters. Particle size, hydrological energy (current speed and direction) and tidal excursion are all influencing factors on the spatial extent and temporal duration. This pressure also relates to changes in turbidity from suspended solids of organic origin (as such it excludes sediments - see the "changes in suspended sediment" pressure type). Salinity, turbulence, pH and temperature may result in flocculation of suspended organic matter. Anthropogenic sources mostly short lived and over relatively small spatial extents.	A change in one rank on the WFD (Water Framework Directive) scale e.g. from clear to turbid for one year
Physical damage (Reversible Change)	Siltation rate changes, including smothering (depth of vertical sediment overburden)	<p>When the natural rates of siltation are altered (increased or decreased). Siltation (or sedimentation) is the settling out of silt/sediments suspended in the water column. Activities associated with this pressure type include mariculture, land claim, navigation dredging, disposal at sea, marine mineral extraction, cable and pipeline laying and various construction activities. It can result in short lived sediment concentration gradients and the accumulation of sediments on the sea floor. This accumulation of sediments is synonymous with "light" smothering, which relates to the depth of vertical overburden.</p> <p>"Light" smothering relates to the deposition of layers of sediment on the seabed. It is associated with activities such as sea disposal of dredged materials where sediments are deliberately deposited on the sea bed. For "light" smothering most benthic biota may be able to adapt, i.e. vertically migrate through the deposited sediment.</p> <p>"Heavy" smothering also relates to the deposition of layers of sediment on the</p>	up to 30cm of fine material added to the seabed in a single event

seabed but is associated with activities such as sea disposal of dredged materials where sediments are deliberately deposited on the sea bed. This accumulation of sediments relates to the depth of vertical overburden where the sediment type of the existing and deposited sediment has similar physical characteristics because, although most species of marine biota are unable to adapt, e.g. sessile organisms unable to make their way to the surface, a similar biota could, with time, re-establish. If the sediments were physically different this would fall under L2.

Eleftheriou and McIntyre (2005) describe that the majority of animals will inhabit the top 5-10cm in open waters and the top 15cm in intertidal areas. The depth of sediment overburden that benthic biota can tolerate is both trophic group and particle size/sediment type dependant (Bolam 2010). Recovery from burial can occur from:

- planktonic recruitment of larvae
- lateral migration of juveniles/adults
- vertical migration

(see Chandrasekara & Frid 1998; Bolam *et al* 2003, Bolam & Whomersley 2005). Spatial scale, timing, rate and depth of placement all contribute the relative importance of these three recovery mechanisms (Bolam *et al* 2006).

As such the terms "light" and "heavy" smothering are relative and therefore difficult to define in general terms.

Bolam (2010) cites various examples:

- *H. ulvae* maximum overburden 5cm (Chandrasekara & Frid 1998)
- *H. ulvae* maximum overburden 20cm mud or 9cm sand (Bijerk 1988)
- *S. shrubsolii* maximum overburden 6cm (Saila *et al* 1972, cited by Hall 1994)
- *N. succinea* maximum overburden 90cm (Maurer *et al* 1982)
- gastropod molluscs maximum overburden 15cm (Roberts *et al* 1998).

Bolam (2010) also reported when organic content was low:

- *H. ulvae* maximum overburden 16cm
- *T. benedii* maximum overburden 6cm
- *S. shrubsolii* maximum overburden <6cm
- *Tharyx sp.A.* maximum overburden <6cm

<p>Pollution and other chemical changes</p>	<p>Nutrient enrichment</p>	<p>Increased levels of the elements nitrogen, phosphorus, silicon (and iron) in the marine environment compared to background concentrations. Nutrients can enter marine waters by natural processes (e.g. decomposition of detritus, riverine, direct and atmospheric inputs) or anthropogenic sources (e.g. waste water runoff, terrestrial/agricultural runoff, sewage discharges, aquaculture, atmospheric deposition). Nutrients can also enter marine regions from 'upstream' locations, e.g. via tidal currents to induce enrichment in the receiving area. Nutrient enrichment may lead to eutrophication (see also organic enrichment). Adverse environmental effects include deoxygenation, algal blooms, changes in community structure of benthos and macrophytes.</p>	<p>Compliance with WFD criteria for good status</p>
<p>Pollution and other chemical changes</p>	<p>Organic enrichment</p>	<p>Resulting from the degraded remains of dead biota & microbiota (land & sea); faecal matter from marine animals; flocculated colloidal organic matter and the degraded remains of: sewage material, domestic wastes, industrial wastes <i>etc.</i> Organic matter can enter marine waters from sewage discharges, aquaculture or terrestrial/agricultural runoff. Black carbon comes from the products of incomplete combustion (PIC) of fossil fuels and vegetation. Organic enrichment may lead to eutrophication (see also nutrient enrichment). Adverse environmental effects include deoxygenation, algal blooms, changes in community structure of benthos and macrophytes.</p>	<p>A deposit of 100gC/m²/yr</p>