



## Concepts in relation to marine nature restoration

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# Concepts in relation to marine nature restoration

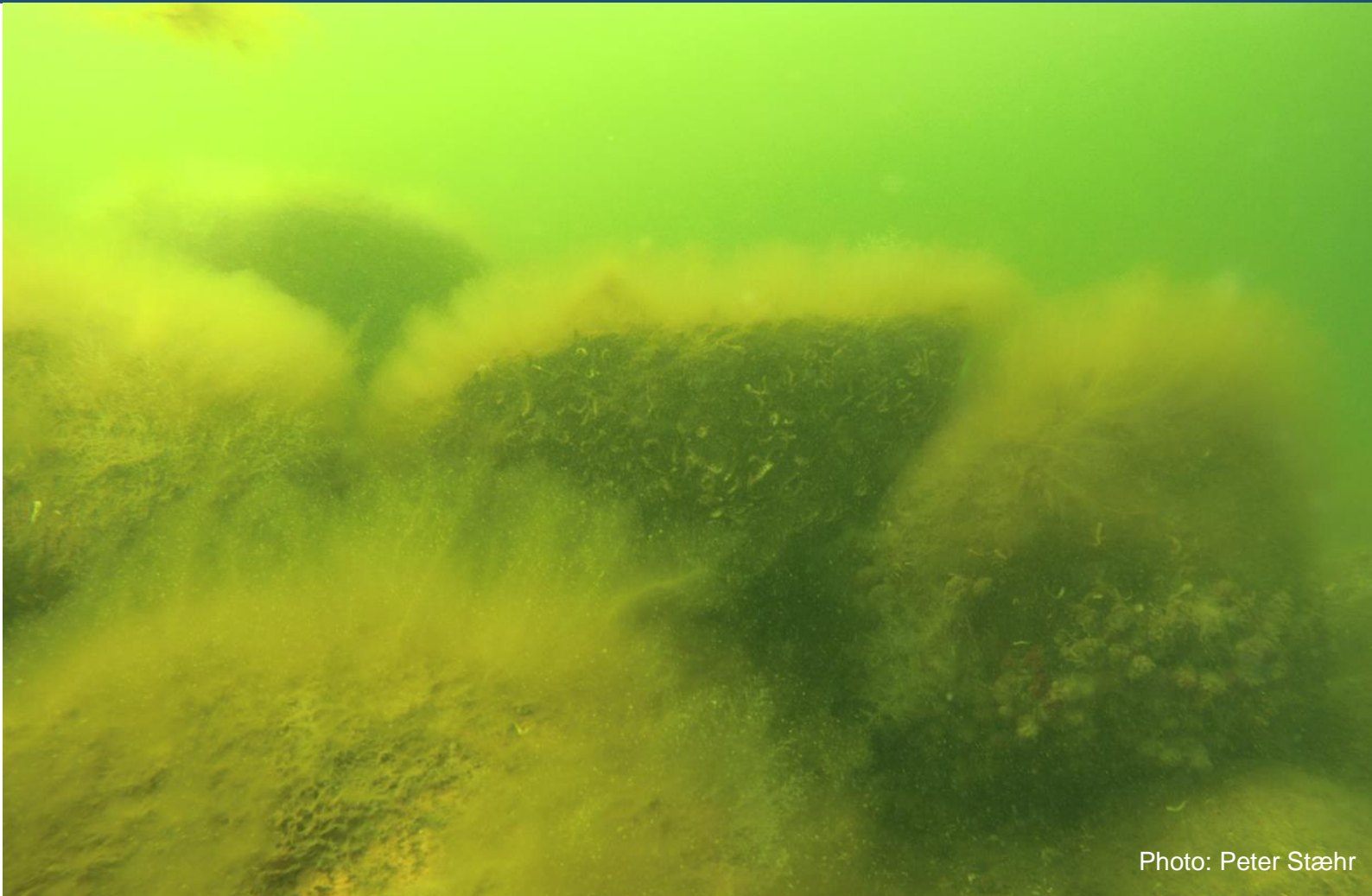


Photo: Peter Stæhr



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Summary: The report describes key concepts and definitions related to marine nature improvement activities. With this review, the Centre will ensure that there is clarity about the concepts within the area and what this entail but will not decide whether the various activities described below can be considered appropriate from a nature or environmental perspective, either locally or in general.

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# 1. Summary

The report describes key concepts and definitions related to marine nature improvement activities. With this review, the Centre will ensure that there is clarity about the concepts within the area and what this entail but will not decide whether the various activities described below can be considered appropriate from a nature or environmental perspective, either locally or in general.

## 2. Introduction

Despite decades of efforts to improve the water quality of our marine environment, the ecological condition of our coastal waters is generally unsatisfactory, protected nature types have an unfavorable conservation status and biodiversity is under pressure. Danish marine ecosystems are thus generally not in a good state as only a few water areas meet or are expected to soon meet the requirements of the EU Water Framework Directive. Moreover, also only a few Natura 2000 areas are in favorable conservation status (1).

Basically, nature and environmental protection is about reducing human pressures, either by intervening against them and/or by designating protected areas. The focus in Danish marine environmental policy has for many years been on reducing or removing the human pressures, most clearly exemplified in water environment plans where a reduction of the input of nutrients is the main objective. However, other important human pressures exist that may affect the Danish marine environment, and for these too a significant part of the environmental effort is to contain and reduce the extent.

Conservation and other types of protection have also been used in Danish marine environmental policy, for instance in relation to the protection of seals, birds, and habitats. In terms of area, most of the marine protected areas are designated either based on the EC Bird Protection Directive or the EU Habitats Directive. The protected areas designated based on the two directives are referred to as "Natura 2000 areas". In the upcoming EU biodiversity strategy, it is planned that 30% of the area on land and water be protected and that 10% be designated as strictly protected areas. There is no official Danish definition of "strict protection", but if you lean on the IUCN definitions in category Ia and Ib (<https://www.iucn.org/theme/protected-areas/about/protected-area-categories>), such protection will stop virtually all activity in the designated areas and limit human access significantly but, expectedly, allow nature restoration activities. In a Danish context, the guidelines for "conservation" or "strict protection" must be different as there are virtually no untouched marine habitats in Danish waters, and the prerequisites for protecting an un-spoilt nature, cf. the UICN definition, are therefore unlikely present. There is no guarantee that marine protected or strictly protected areas will achieve all the desired objectives in the long term. Protection does not bring, for instance, stones removed by dredging back to the protected area, and protecting a coastal area does not necessarily bring back eelgrass beds, particularly not in the short term. In addition, the protection of marine areas does not in itself protect against all types of pressures as some cannot be kept out of the protect-ed areas. This applies not only in relation to nutrients and harmful substances but also to, for example, invasive species.

However, the promotion of robust and species-rich marine ecosystems does not need to be based solely on restrictions on human activities. Changes have occurred in marine ecosystems, such as, for instance, physical changes through stone extraction, that do not return to their original state

without active human intervention. Active nature restoration with a view to promoting permanent changes in the environmental and natural state of Danish marine areas is thus an alternative or rather a supplement to limiting pressures and conservation. Where marine nature protection can improve nature quality by reducing several pressures, active nature preservation can be a necessary supplement to achieve the objectives of an improved environmental and natural state. Furthermore, marine nature protection can be a prerequisite for successful restoration of a habitat or a key species within the protected area. It will therefore often make good sense to combine marine nature protection and nature improvement measures.

The main objective of the Centre for Marine Nature Restoration is to promote knowledge-based implementation of marine nature restoration in Danish waters with a view to strengthening the resilience of marine ecosystems, the ecological balance, and the ecosystem services that healthy habitats and nature types provide. Central to this work, the centre will, through documentation, experience and collected data, develop tools that can be used to identify the most suitable areas for nature restoration as well as plan the activities and the associated monitoring of the state of environmental and natural conditions. Furthermore, the centre will provide documentation on the effects of different types of marine nature restoration activities by compiling experiences from such activities.

Nature enhancing measures include several different human activities with the aim of improving the natural and environmental conditions in the sea. But not all these activities can be characterized as nature restoration. When choosing measures, it is important to keep in mind what the precise purpose of the activity is. Activities to promote local populations of fish can, for instance, include artificial reefs that have been documented locally to increase the occurrence of some fish species. However, creating reefs where they did not previously exist or dumping decommissioned ferries or the like to use them as reefs cannot be characterized as restoration of lost nature. Likewise, marine nitrogen/phosphorus mitigation measures such as mussel and seaweed farming may have positive environmental effects on water clarity and locally increase biodiversity, but the grow-out structures are not natural habitats, and the activity cannot therefore be described as nature restoration. So, not all activities with positive environmental and/or nature enhancement characteristics are in themselves marine nature restoration.

This document reviews key concepts and definitions related to marine nature-enhancing activities. With this review, the Centre will ensure that there is clarity about the concepts in the area and what these entail, but it will not determine whether the various activities described below can be considered appropriate from a nature or environmental perspective, either locally or in general.

## 3. Concepts

### 3.1 Nature restoration

Nature restoration is the re-establishment of lost habitats where they had known occurrence or of lost species in their natural historical distribution area and densities. Nature restoration is defined as an action that re-establishes/restores natural habitats, hydrological processes, biological mechanisms and/or sustainable species populations. For the habitats, this means that there must preferably be solid indications or actual records as documentation that they have historically been present at the location in question. Habitats in this context are, for instance, stone reefs, gravel bottoms, sandbanks, eelgrass beds or beds of mussel species (blue mussel, flat oyster, horse mussel). When restoring lost stone reefs, it is also relevant to assess whether restoration with stones and boulders is possible and to aim for the correct formation; for instance, were the stone reefs cavernous or did they have a more diffuse distribution?

Some practical circumstances can make it difficult to fulfil the conditions for whether a project on the establishment of habitats can be defined as nature restoration. This applies in particular to the requirement for locating known previous occurrences if there is no documentation of previous occurrences based on, for example, historical charts. Despite the circumstance that it is probable that more than 8.3 million boulders have disappeared from Danish coastal areas and that the homeports of the extraction boats are known, there are very few precise records of from where the boulders were removed or whether they formed cavernous reefs. Similarly, a significant correlation between water transparency and eelgrass distribution does not mean that if sufficient transparency at a given water depth in a specific area is obtained, eelgrass has historically been present in the area. It is even more difficult to find precise documentation of historical presence of habitat types such as mussel beds. The general lack of documentation of the precise localisation of lost important habitats makes it relevant to discuss whether the described definition of nature restoration is appropriate or whether it should also be considered nature restoration if it is likely that the habitat has been present in the area in question. Alternatively, establishing a habitat without prior documentation of historical presence may fall under the category of nature-based solutions (see below). Especially for stone reefs, the choice of material can make it difficult to meet the conditions for the criteria for restoration. Unless you are re-laying previously collected boulders, which, for instance, are used for piers, the re-establishment of stone reefs will involve the use of other material. Today, it is generally accepted to use blasting stone for nature restoration. In contrast, artificial hard bottom substrates such as concrete are not accepted as nature restoration today.

A special part of the marine nature restoration is linked to the restoration of the natural hydrology in a given area, for example through the removal of dams, sluices and physical coastal protection. This restores a more original balance between coast and sea. This type of nature restoration is currently challenged by rising water levels due to the climate change, which will change an area's natural hydrology compared to the situation when the physical changes were implemented. At the very least, this could cause changes to the terrestrial part of the thus restored natural area.

Nature restoration also includes attempts to re-establish populations of species in their former densities. There are also several challenges regarding the re-establishment/stocking of species. Many species are dependent on a suitable habitat for foraging or reproduction and will re-immigrate "automatically" when habitats are re-established. For other species, active stocking programmes are needed. It can be difficult to obtain accurate information about historical but now disappeared or reduced occurrences; however, generally the more mobile the species is in one or more life stages, the less the documentation requirement for precise localisation will be. For bird species, there are often historical data on distribution.

### **3.2 Biomanipulation**

Biomanipulation in the form of regulation of species is known from terrestrial nature conservation and freshwater systems but is not used to the same extent in marine areas. Overall, biomanipulation or species management can be divided into two groups: i) increase of desired species through stocking programmes. An increase of desired species can also be achieved by providing more key habitats and is thus covered by the habitat creation tools, ii) reduction of the density of "pests" with a view to reducing undesired effects on eco-systems, habitats or key species.

In marine areas, the stocking of species is known primarily from marine fish management, which has as its primary purpose to increase the yield of fish caught in recreational fishing. There are stocking programmes for species such as trout, eel, flounder, and turbot. There is very little documentation of the effectiveness of stocking programmes as a tool to increase catches and even less in relation to local populations of the stocked fish (2). Even so, every year funds are spent on stocking different species in selected areas.

Restriction of species with a more or less recognised impact on key habitats or key species may, for instance, include combating shore crabs in relation to the planting of eelgrass, starfish in relation to blue mussel beds, sea urchins in hard substrate areas or cormorants and seals in relation to fish populations. There are also examples of the control of Pacific oysters and Sargasso seaweed as part of limiting the effects of invasive species.

Restriction of species will normally require documentation of their harmful effects and that the regulated populations can withstand a reduction in density or size. Alternatively, efforts can be limited to selected areas such as, for instance, newly created habitats. Experience with limitation of marine species is limited. The attempts to limit cormorant populations are best known and have been instrumental in stopping the increase in the population at national level. In the mussel industry, there is also experiences with on-bottom culture bed fishing for starfish, but the experiences are not fully documented or ambiguous and probably not directly applicable as a nature management tool.

### **3.3 Artificial reefs**

Artificial reefs have for many years (see e.g. 3) been a known tool to increase local populations of fish and crustaceans, and it can also increase the local biodiversity of epibenthic organisms and associated mobile epibenthic fauna. By placing often large and spatially complex fixed structures on soft bottom types, new habitats will be created that function both as a habitat and a shelter against currents. In recent years, a number of studies documenting such effects have been carried out, especially in connection with wind turbine foundations. For fish populations, there is an ongoing discussion about whether the artificial reefs work through attraction or whether they also lead to increased production and thereby increasing fish populations on a regional scale. Increased attraction of fish, which does not signify enhanced production, can potentially make the populations in question more vulnerable, for example in relation to fishery pressure. The group of artificial reefs includes: i) wind turbine platforms, bridge pylons and similar constructions, which are often made of concrete or similar materials. Many of these structures are also associated with scour protection on the sea floor, which can be made of stones, and where optimised design can increase the local biodiversity through higher spatial heterogeneity of the structures; ii) decommissioned material such as oil rigs, ferries and tanks, iii) artificial reefs designed for specific purposes, which are known from abroad from both active fisheries management of commercial species and in relation to the activities of private associations to promote local fishing grounds for anglers (3). Artificial reefs can potentially cause undesired side effects linked to the choice of material, location of the reefs and purpose of the reefs. Establishing new dispersal routes (stepping stones) for non-native species is one of them. For artificial reefs made of decommissioned material, there is a particular



focus on problems with leaching of harmful substances and lack of recycling. Establishment of artificial reefs can also be done at the expense of the existing original nature in areas that did not naturally exhibit hard substrates. Whether this will have a significant effect depends on local conditions.

### **3.4 Nature-based solutions**

“Nature based solutions” (NBS) refer to sustainable management and the use of natural processes to deal with socio-environmental challenges. According to the IUCN, NBS are “actions to protect, sustainably manage and restore natural or modified ecosystems, and which address societal challenges (e.g. climate change, food and water supply and natural disasters) effectively while ensuring human well-being and the benefits of biodiversity” (4). The European Commission has a slightly different definition; NBS are “solutions inspired by and supported by nature, which are cost-effective, while providing environmental, social and economic benefits and helping to build resilience”. The EU approach further emphasises that “such solutions bring more and more diverse nature and natural characteristics and processes into cities, landscapes and seascapes through locally adapted, resource-efficient and systemic interventions”. There is thus a requirement that NBS must contribute positively to biodiversity (<https://research-and-innovation.ec.europa.eu/research-area/environment/nature-based-solutions>). There is still a need for conceptual clarification and operational definitions, but NBS is an important concept internationally, not least for the EU Commission. There is a lot of literature on NBS (see e.g. 5 and 6).

### **3.5 Ecosystem engineering**

Ecosystem engineering or ecological engineering is a technique that combines ecological processes and organisms with technological solutions to predict, design, construct or restore and manage ecosystems, with the aim of integrating human society with its natural environment to the benefit of both (7). The term must not be confused with ecosystem engineers, which are organisms that influence their surrounding environment by creating structures or habitats such as eelgrass, large brown algae or blue mussels.

Ecosystem engineering covers a number of different efforts (7) such as: i) use of ecosystems to reduce a pollution problem, for instance construction of wetlands for uptake of nutrients; ii) restoration or re-establishment of lost ecosystem functions in relation to resource exploitation or pollution, for instance re-forestation or lake restoration; iii) modification of ecosystems in an ecologically responsible manner, for instance selective logging, biomanipulation and introduction of predatory fish to reduce plankton-eating fish or introduction of plankton-eating organisms; iv) so-called sustainable use of ecosystems used for benefit without destroying balance, for example IMTA (Integrated Multi Trophic Aquaculture). The term thus covers many activities with a variable degree of documentation and has, to a certain extent, been replaced by NBS or “marine mitigation measures” depending on the activity.

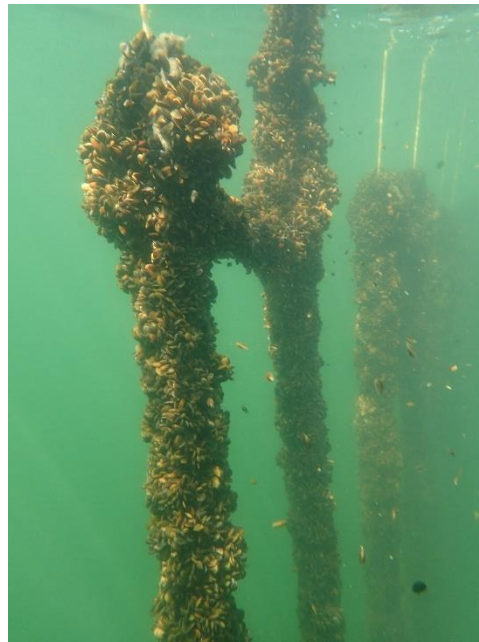
### **3.6 Marine mitigation measures**

In principle, marine measures cover a wide range of different activities with specific purposes in relation to specific natural or environmental goals. As a concept, marine measures in Denmark are largely developed to achieve the goals in the water area plans, but marine measures can be understood in a broader context. Marine measures are thus not exclusively defined in relation to the reduction/binding of nutrients but may also be used for, for example, habitat improvement.

### 3.7 Nitrogen/phosphorus measures

Nitrogen/phosphorus measures primarily aim to reduce the effects of eutrophication through immobilisation and subsequent removal or storage of nutrients in the sea floor. The individual measures may provide other ecosystem services related to the environmental indicators in the Water Framework Directive, but their effectiveness for immobilising/removing nutrients is the main parameter assessed. In the latest catalogue of marine measures (8), these include i) extraction cultures such as the cultivation of seaweed and mussels and ii) initiatives that bind nutrients in the sea sediment and in standing biomass or promote degassing of nitrogen such as the establishment of eelgrass beds.

Figure 1. *Mussel farming with the Smartfarm system. Photo: Daniel Taylor.*



### 3.8 Extraction cultures

Extraction cultures are based on the cultivation of either mussels (blue mussels) or seaweed (sugar kelp) in specially designed structures. The cultivated species immobilize nutrients, and when harvested they bring the nutrients to land and thus remove them from the local sea area. Because it is a new production without the addition of fertilisers/excipients, the harvesting implies net removal of nutrients from the system. Extraction cultures provide several other ecosystem services, but each of these services also has a number of cascading effects that are not natural in the sense that the extraction cultures concentrate organisms in high densities in small areas. You can read more about extraction cultures in (8).

Immobilisation of nutrients can also occur by establishing conditions that immobilize the nutrients in the sea floor or increase degassing of nitrogen (denitrification) in the sediment. Planting eelgrass will thus immobilize nutrients in the root stems and lead to a gradual build-up and partial burial of nutrients in the sediment until a steady state is reached. There has also been speculation as to whether, for instance, stone reefs, sand capping and oxygenation of the bottom water can be used as N/P measures, but the few experiments undertaken in Danish waters have not been able to document an effect on nutrients (8). Establishment of eelgrass beds (including sand capping) and stone reefs will have a number of cascading natural effects (see below). Regarding the effectiveness of immobilisation of nutrients by these measures see (8).

Harvesting of wild populations of species occurring in high densities, such as sea lettuce, starfish, or shore crabs, is often wholly or partly conditioned by anthropogenic pressures and also leads to the removal of nutrients from the sea but harvesting/fishing of such species cannot constitute a marine mitigation measure in relation to nutrients. Conceptually, harvesting of wild populations will make fishing a marine measure since nutrients, when passing through the food chains, ultimately end up in fish biomass. Regulation of imbalanced populations may increase the environmental load but may also improve the environment and should, in the latter case, primarily be regarded as a nature management tool. For further information on the effects of harvesting sea lettuce see (9).

### **3.9 Nature management tools**

Nature management tools work primarily by establishing nature, for instance by creating new habitats or by regulating existing nature through, for example, stocking of fish or shellfish or regulation of top predators. Nature tools will have cascading effects in addition to creating new habitats or increasing/decreasing the densities of specific species. Establishment of eelgrass beds, stone reefs and beds of mussel species is the most preferred marine habitat-creating nature management tool in Denmark. Nature restoration can be considered a nature management tool, but nature management tools can also be used where the habitat has not occurred naturally, based solely on a desire for more of the nature in question at the expense of the existing nature/habitats.

Habitat-creating nature management tools have changes in biodiversity as an important ecosystem service. In addition, there are services such as sediment stabilisation, prevention of coastal erosion and immobilisation of nutrients as well as general promotion of resilient ecosystems. A number of the projects that have been carried out in Denmark fall under the category of “habitat-creating nature management tools” without being nature restoration projects. There can be several challenges when using habitat-creating nature management tools and their location. If, for example, stone reefs are established on a sandy bottom, there will certainly be an increase in the local biodiversity, but this will be at the expense of the species composition characteristic of sandy bottoms, and some specific habitats and ecosystem functions will therefore disappear. The issues with this kind of nature or habitat management will depend on the extent of the established stone reefs and the habitat in which they are placed. When establishing stone reefs, there is also the risk of introducing distribution pathways for non-native species (stepping stones), and there is also an ethical issue linked to the extent to which we want to rearrange our marine landscape. Establishment of biogenic reefs can locally lead to organic enrichment of the sediment in the form of bio deposition, which would otherwise not have occurred, with resulting changes in the conditions for the benthic animals in the sediment.

## 4. Habitats

Regardless of which of the above measures are adopted, it is important to understand how they will interact with existing natural habitats. Some habitats are defined in accordance with the EU Habitats Directive, while others are designated as key habitats in Danish waters.

Below, the characteristics of some habitats relevant within the context of restoration are reviewed based on the definitions in the EU Habitats Directive. With the upcoming expected implementation of the EU regulation on nature restoration, the nature types in the EU Habitats Directive will be expanded with a more detailed description according to EUNIS (<https://eunis.eea.europa.eu/about>). For some of the habitat types below, this may lead to further considerations regarding the interactions between naturally occurring habitats and the desired new habitats to be established.

### 4.1 Stone reefs

A stone reef is, biologically speaking, an area that rises from the surrounding sea floor and consists of a hard substrate such as stone or rock, covering minimum 5% of the sea floor surface, and the area must have a size of minimum 10 m<sup>2</sup>.



Figure 2. *Sketch of a stone reef with associated vegetation and wildlife. Drawn by Tinna Christensen.*

If the reef has a bank structure, i.e. a reef divided into smaller collections of stones, the reef is demarcated by a line around all banks, each of which meets the requirements for size and coverage (10). In relation to the Habitats Directive, the stone reef nature type is defined, according to the Ministry of the Environment, as a bottom where the coverage of stones is minimum 25% and, if such a core area exists, with a boundary to bottom types such as, for example, sand and gravel, down to 10-25% stone coverage.

According to the EU Habitats Directive (11), stone reefs are defined as areas in the sea with hard compact substrates on firm or soft bottom, which protrude from the sea floor in deep or shallow

waters, so that the reef is topographically distinct by being separate and protruding from the surrounding sea floor. Geogenic reefs (stone reefs) can be in the form of hydrothermal habitats, vertical rock walls, rock piles, horizontal rock shelves, overhanging rocks, pillars, ridges, pinnacles, sloping or flat bed rock, boulder reefs and stony reefs. The reef may possibly be exposed at low tide. The separation of a reef from the surrounding sea floor goes where it can no longer be recognised that it is part of the rising sea floor, or where there is no longer any sign of hard bottom substrate. Where in the designation basis for the EU Habitats Directive stone reefs are exclusively described as a substrate for macroalgae, on the EUNIS list of "Macroalgae forests" there are eight different types of macroalgae vegetation for the Atlantic area and five for the Baltic Sea area. Some of these are most relevant for gravel bottom and not for actual stone reefs.

## 4.2 Eelgrass

An eelgrass bed is dominated by the species eelgrass (*Zostera marina*) and may be supplemented with dwarf eelgrass (*Zostera noltii*) and other rooted macrophytes such as, for instance, sea grasses (*Ruppia*), pondweed (*Potamogeton*) or horned pondweed (*Zannichellia*). Eelgrass beds are found on sandy bottoms in shallow coastal areas and in saline-influenced estuaries in temperate areas. Denmark is a hotspot for eelgrass dispersal in the Nordic region and the Baltic Sea region (12, 13). The plant typically occurs in shallow water (<4-6 m) along most Danish beaches where the shoots can grow 30-140 cm high and form dense beds with a large biomass (13). Dense extended eelgrass beds are called eelgrass meadows.

Figure 3. *Eelgrass bed in Roskilde Fjord. Photo: Peter A.U. Stæhr.*



In the Danish Environmental Protection Agency's monitoring of eelgrass, coverage levels of eelgrass <10% are no longer categorised as eelgrass beds. At the beginning of the 20th century, eelgrass dominated the sea floor along sandy coastal areas and most Danish fjords and grew considerably deeper than today. However, the eelgrass disease together with 50 years of human impact on the sea have pushed the populations into shallow water, where the eelgrass has difficulty re-establishing itself naturally. Where there is no eelgrass habitat in the designation basis for the EU Habitats Directive, three different types of seagrass appear for the Atlantic area and eight for the Baltic Sea area on the EUNIS list of "Seagrass meadows".

### **4.3 Biogenic reefs**

Biogenic reefs are biogenic concretions in the form of hard, compact substrates on firm and soft bottom, which arise from the sea floor in the sublittoral and littoral zone. Biogenic concretions are defined as: concretions, crusts, corallogenic concretions and bivalve mussel beds that originate from dead or living animals, i.e. biogenic hard bottom that acts as habitat for surface-living species. According to the EU Habitats Directive (8), biogenic reefs are a subdivision of the reef habitat type and differ solely by the nature of the hard bottom substrate. For biogenic reefs, for instance mussel beds, the structure often arises gradually and perhaps only 20-30 cm above the sea floor so that the criterion of protrusion is not as relevant as for stone reefs. In Denmark, biogenic reefs are only defined for the species blue mussel (*Mytilus edulis*) and horse mussel (*Modiolus modiolus*), while in other countries there are definitions for fan worms (sabellids), cold-water corals and encrusting coralline algae. For blue mussels, the Danish definition (14) is: Continuous areas of minimum 2,500 m<sup>2</sup> with an average coverage of blue mussels of minimum 30% and the presence of minimum three cohorts of blue mussels. A horse mussel bed is defined as a horse mussel reef when the bank covers minimum 100 m<sup>2</sup> and where there is a central degree of coverage of 20% horse mussels and shells, of which 10% are live horse mussels and mainly consist of horse mussels more than 4 cm long (14). Typically, horse mussels are found on a stony sea floor. A definition of combined stone and biogenic reefs is also given in (14). On EUNIS's list of "Shellfish beds", there are five different types for the Atlantic area and seven for the Baltic Sea area, not all of which are relevant in a Danish nature restoration context.

### **4.4 Sandbanks**

According to the Habitats Directive, sandbanks are topographic features in the sea in the form of protruding or elevated parts of the sea floor, which are mainly surrounded by deeper water of up to 20 m depth, and which are permanently submerged at low tide. They mainly consist of sandy sediments, but other grain sizes in the form of mud, gravel or large stones can also occur on a sandbank. They often have a rounded or elongated shape but can also have irregular shapes, for example in the form of ripples. Their sides can extend down into water deeper than 20 m. Areas with mud, gravel or large stones on a bank belong to this habitat type if mainly animals and plants attached to sandy bottom are found in the area, even if it is only a thin layer of sand on a harder surface of, for instance, clay. Sandbanks can be found close to the coast in connection with, for instance, reef formations or as more permanent banks further from the coast (11).

### **4.5 Soft mud bottom**

The soft mud bottom is a natural habitat in sedimentation areas. These are found in most fjords, many bays and deeper sea areas where the physical effect of waves and high current speeds is limited. In these areas, the bottom conditions are defined by a higher content of fine-grained (grain sizes <63 µm) organic material, which also results in a higher water content. The mud bottom varies in terms of organic content from 2 to 10% organic dry matter. The high organic content with low density means that no physical compaction of the bottom occurs. Mud bottoms with a low organic content (2-5%) characterise, for instance, open areas in the Kattegat.

In addition, a number of other marine habitats are defined in the Habitats Directive (11) and mentioned on the more extensive EUNIS list of habitat types.

## 5. References

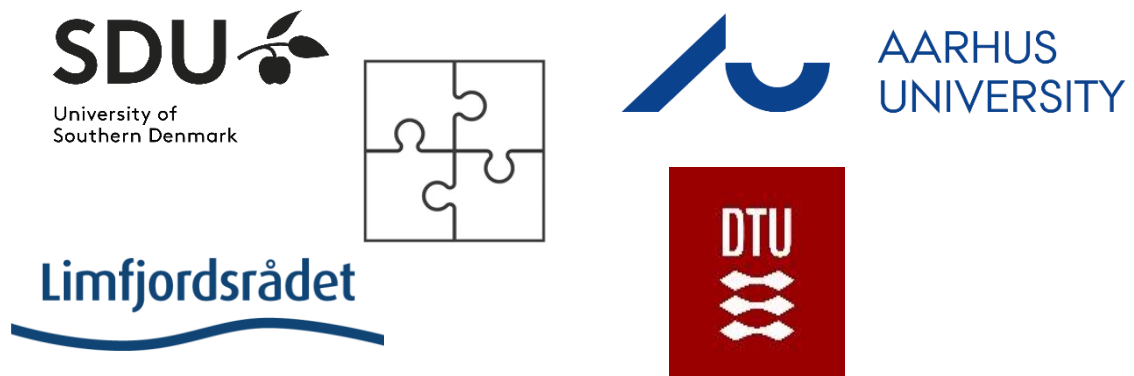
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The main goal of the Center is to promote knowledge-based implementation of marine restoration, to strengthen the health and resilience of marine ecosystems, and enhance associated marine ecosystem services.



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