# **Environmental Science and Policy** Managing estuaries under a changing climate --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	Estuaries are globally important zones for urban, recreational and commercial activities as well as supporting a range of habitats and species of significant ecological importance. The role of estuaries is recognised by the legislative framework that has been developed to protect and manage these areas as well as those species and resources in adjoining habitats. However, estuaries worldwide are subject to a number of major threats, including increasing industrialisation and urbanisation, increasing resource scarcity notably for space and energy, and the impacts of climate change, sea-level rise and related increases in vulnerability and decreases in resilience. In addition to local pressures, climate change is now increasingly recognised as having a range of severe impacts on estuarine ecosystem functions and services, but current legislation and associated management may not necessarily be wholly appropriate to deal with these longer-term changes. Here we consider how the current legislation and management addresses the potential impacts of climate change on a large estuarine system. Alongside a set of recommendations, we emphasise that the implementation of governance instruments needs to be underpinned by continued monitoring, improved modelling and enhanced predictive capabilities and integration and collaboration across management levels.
Suggested Reviewers:	Alice / Newton, PhD Professor, University of Algarve: Universidade do Algarve anewton@ualg.pt Her expertise is aligned to the topic of the paper Larissa / Naylor, PhD Professor, University of Glasgow Larissa.Naylor@glasgow.ac.uk She has the expertise relevant to the paper Peter / Robins, PhD Lecturer in Physical Oceanography, School of Ocean Sciences, Bangor University, Bangor University p.robins@bangor.ac.uk
	His work is relevant to the paper
Opposed Reviewers:	
Response to Reviewers:	

# Lowestoft, February 2022

# Dear Raul Lejano,

We apologise for the delay but we are pleased to send the revision of manuscript ENVSCI-D-20-00274 entitled "Managing estuaries under a changing climate". We hope that the revised version can make a useful contribution to the journal, by providing an overview of the effects of climate change that can impact estuaries, highlighting the potential bottlenecks to effective management to improve management into the future.

We have, in line with the reviewers' suggestions, clarified the manuscript by adding text as recommended by the reviewers. The manuscript has undergone major revision, changing the structure, removing superfluous text/detail and making more use of referencing other research and making the links between sections (International to case study) has been made clearer. Since the previous submission, we have in light of the reviewer's comments, asked a colleague to re-read to ensure no typos or grammatical errors.

We have attached a clean copy of the manuscript as per the instructions on the Editorial Manager, but we do have a track change version available if required. Please see below for our detailed response to all reviewers' feedback – which we perceived as extremely constructive in helping us improve the text. The references to line numbers appear to the document if 'simple markup' is selected under the 'track changes' setting.

Kind regards,

Jemma

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# Reviewer #1:

I found the paper "Managing estuaries under a climate change" an interesting and useful review article that fits well with Environmental Science and Policy's aim. We thank the reviewer for their comment. No action required.

I have several suggestions that hopefully will make this paper more relevant to a broad international audience.

We thank the reviewer for their comment. No action required for this point.

Lines 34-36. The article's aims need to be reframed and justified. It is unclear why the authors are doing this review and the knowledge gap to be closed. What is the "novelty" in this review? Please justify.

Additional text has been added in lines 34-43. We have stated the novelty and added justification to show the importance.

Lines 36-39. The description of the sections of the paper can be improved. Readers need to know how you organized your argument.

Lines 34-43 have been updated to reflect the order of the paper including cross referencing.

Sections 2 and 3 are useful, but I am missing quantitative information about the magnitude of the impacts described in the text.

The manuscript has undergone major revision so that the impacts are only summarised and the manuscript now directs the reader to other, more detailed research papers which provides quantitative results on the potential impacts of climate change on estuaries.

Section 3 (what was management and governance) has been incorporated into Section 2 to make clear this section is setting the scene at a more global level.

Subsection 2.4 should be global in scope. Right now, all examples are from the UK. Thank you for raising this. Additional examples and references have now been added to make this section more globally relevant.

Section 4 i) is limited and needs more work. ii)Authors should have a table summarizing all management frameworks available rather than focus only on one. iii) Again, to be useful for an international audience, this section needs to be global in scope. Right now, the emphasis in Europe and the UK.

i)We have addressed the comments that the reviewer has specified, and added more references however, if the reviewer has any additional suggestions for improvement, we would be happy to consider them.

ii) Rather than provide a table, we have provided a few more additional frameworks that can be used and provided additional references rather than make the paper too lengthy.

iii) Additional references have been added to demonstrate the global relevance and application.

Section 5 is acceptable, but after reading the text, a reader will not learn about the actual bottlenecks regarding climate change policy implementation in the Humber Estuary. More information and analysis are required.

We believe this is now addressed explicitly due to the revisions in the table, but we have also included additional text in lines 729-735 to discuss these bottlenecks.

I believe Table 1 needs additional work. I suggest dividing the "comments" column into three columns: 1) The first column should indicate what is(are) the policy (or policies) addressing each one of the climate change effects, 2) the second column should show what is(are) the agency (or agencies) implementing the policy(policies), 3) the third column should describe what the major bottlenecks that the executing agency (or agencies) face for successful policy implementation are. By doing so, authors could reframe their analysis and show what the significant challenges are. We have updated this table as per the reviewers' comments. We thank the reviewer for their helpful suggestions.

Section 5 needs to be based on the previous sections and avoid overstatements. For instance, based on section 4, I could not see any strong evidence that the study "demonstrates the importance of vertical and horizontal integration across management levels". Where is the data supporting this statement? Lines 408-417? If so, better data and analysis are required.

We have reviewed this Section to either remove such over statements, or ensure any statements are evidenced either through revisions earlier in the manuscript or through additional references. We have also had a colleague provide a thorough read through to ensure no further unsupported statements remain.

# Reviewer #2:

The article is clear and well-written. We thank the reviewer for their comment. No action required for this point.

It is lacking in terms of depth of treatment of the case study. On the other hand, as a review article, it does not go deeply enough into the literature either. I am not sure what to recommend for this manuscript: either major revision or reject. If the latter, it does not mean that the article itself is not good reading, just that it does not seem to accomplish any clear scholarly objective. We thank the reviewer for their comment. No action required for this point however we have taken the proceeding comments on board and updated the manuscript which we hope satisfies the reviewers concerns.

The article is an informative review of threats to estuaries. But it is hard to clearly classify this article. As a review, it is not so exhaustive a coverage of the literature on climate and estuaries. Moreover, its treatment of this topic is superficial. It is also an investigation of threats to a particular ecosystem, the Humber Estuary. And, so, the second part of it seems like a case study based research study --so the article is in between a review and case study research. It does not fit either type very well. The authors need to decide how to either deepen and expand the literature review, or deepen the analysis of the Humber case. Perhaps it is possible to do both, but I think easier to just attempt for one (for example, shortening the review and expanding the case study).

We appreciate the reviewer's suggestion and we have taken this on board. The manuscript has now been through a major revision in which we have changed the structure and removed superfluous detail. The manuscript is now much more focussed on the case study. We have updated the research questions in lines 33-38.

If the authors decide to expand the case study and include a deeper analysis, then it has to be clear on what research questions they are answering. It may be that the question is related to the sufficiency or appropriateness of the legislative framework and regional rules for protecting the Humber. And how might policies be modified and improved. In this way, the contribution of this paper to the literature on environmental policy will be clearer. The case study, including relevant regulations, can be seen to start on page 7 onwards in the manuscript (including Management and Governance). Even so, the discussion is a bit superficial --for example, is it necessary to include a description of the IPCC in describing legal frameworks for protecting estuaries? We thank the reviewer for their very helpful suggestions. We have updated the research questions in lines 33-38. We have revised so that Section 2 is clear about setting the global scene (and linked in Section 3, line 228).

To address the comment regarding international treaties etc, we have added additional text in Lines 490-492 and 539-540 which clarifies the link between these two sections and the reason for their inclusion.

The discussion on page 9 is interesting but not focused. What, exactly, are the national and local rules/regulations that govern the Humber? The authors need to discuss this in specific terms in order for the problems of vertical and horizontal legislation to be understandable and meaningful to policy audiences.

We thank the reviewers for this comment; however section 3 is meant to summarise general management measures including legislation and regulations. The specific regulations for the Humber are brought out in section 5. We have however added additional text in Section 5 in lines 703-725 to explore the vertical and horizontal legislation further for the reader

The discussion of the marine plan in pp. 14-15 is vague --it needs to be discussed in enough detail so that the reader can see exactly what vertical and horizontal issues are found today. What are some pressing problems today, and how can we trace these to lack of vertical or horizontal integration? As it is, the discussion on page 14 is not specific enough to really show any sort of policy analysis. We have now included a new figure to help visualise the horizontal and vertical governance/management measures.

Would the analysis make use of the DAPSI framework? If so, then the framework needs to be better described, and the methodology for using it and conducting the analysis also described. It is not clear that the DAPSI framework was used in this research.

We recognise that the manuscript has caused confusion through the description of the DAPSI framework in Section 4 and using the term 'analysing' herein Section 5. We have removed the detailed text regarding DAPSI because we have removed the section about 'How can management better address Climate Change' which was a general overview. Instead, this now follows on from the assessment we carried out, so is specific to the Humber Estuary.

If the authors decide that this is not case study research but more of a lit review, then still, what overarching questions guide the review, and what answers do we arrive at? What does the literature say about lack of integration regarding estuaries?

# The article concludes that

"Using a case study of the Humber Estuary, this study demonstrates the importance of vertical and horizontal integration across management levels. It also shows the relevance of developing sitespecific assessments, as each estuary and its component habitats and species will be impacted by climate change in different ways and to differing degrees. This is challenging due to the coarse coverage of data and so there is a need for enhanced monitoring and research but also the realisation that action must be taken in the light of inadequate knowledge and data." but, because the case study was inadequately described, and too little detail given of the governing legislation and rules, it is hard to say that the study demonstrated the importance of integration (or demonstrate that the data was coarse nor provide any specific example of how such coarseness hurts the estuary with regard to climate change (or other environmental problem). The concluding remarks have been updated to relate back to the manuscript more accurately.

"Numerical models are increasingly being used to understand the behaviour of these systems and the effect that climate change may have over decadal to centennial timescales. Despite this, the models often highlight the uncertainty both in our understanding and in the predictive capability." but discussion of such models is vague and, so, the reader is not shown how these models merely highlight uncertainty and how these do not serve governance of the estuary well. There is not enough specific information to see how the findings were arrived at. Perhaps taking up just one thing found in Table 1 might help to show how current rules and management systems and current monitoring data do not suffice. For example, what specific inadequacies do you find in the area of flood protection, etc. As it is now, the discussion is too vague and abstract.

The concluding remarks have been updated to relate back to the manuscript more accurately.

# Highlights

- We provide a review of the potential impacts from climate change on estuaries.
- The current management measures for managing these impacts are presented.
- Future approaches to legislation are recommended.

# **Declaration of interests**

 $\boxtimes$  The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

#### 1 **1. Introduction**

Estuaries cover over 400,000 km of the global coastline (Dürr et al., 2011) and are dynamic 2 3 environments that form a transition zone between rivers, the open sea and terrestrial systems. They 4 are most commonly defined as "a semi-enclosed coastal body of water which is connected to the sea either permanently or periodically, has a salinity that is different from that of the adjacent open ocean 5 6 due to freshwater inputs, and includes a characteristic biota" and being "transitional waters, a term 7 which includes lagoons, rias, etc." (Elliott and Whitfield, 2011), with more specific classifications often 8 used to describe the characteristics of individual systems (Potter at al., 2010; Whitfield and Elliott, 9 2011). Their transitional nature requires means that no single definition is suitable (Elliott and McLusky 10 2002). Given their location, connections and resources, estuaries are hotspots for many urban, 11 industrial and recreational activities, which can provide a significant contribution to the economy (Lonsdale et al., 2015; Elliott and Whitfield, 2011). They also support an abundant and functionally 12 13 large but not necessarily diverse range of flora and fauna and many typically hold statutory environmental designations to protect their unique ecological characteristics. 14

15 Estuaries are increasingly regarded as facing three major threats worldwide: increasing industrialisation and urbanisation, increasing resource scarcity notably for both space and energy, and 16 the impacts of climate change (Wolanski et al, 2019; Defeo & Elliott 2021). Many of the activities and 17 18 pressures within these categories are endogenic, i.e. occurring inside the estuarine area and where the causes and consequences of change, such as navigation and fisheries, need to be managed. 19 20 However, they are also subject to exogenic unmanaged pressures, the causes of which originate within 21 the wider catchment (e.g. abstraction) or are globally mediated (e.g. climate change) and where it is 22 the consequences (not sources) inside the estuary that need to be managed (Elliott, 2011). These 23 pressures affect both the natural and socio-economic systems and they therefore require a robust and defendable risk assessment and risk management framework to be managed sustainably (Cormier et 24 25 al., 2019; Elliott, et al., 2014).

Sustainably managing estuarine environments is complex and challenging as there are numerous 26 27 managers, planners, statutory bodies, industries and stakeholders that are required to meet international, national and local obligations (Boyes and Elliott, 2015; Lonsdale et al., 2015). There is 28 29 also a need for transdisciplinary and holistic approaches covering governance, socio-economics, 30 physical sciences and ecology (Elliott, 2014). The overall aim of each management layer is to sustainably manage these environments and where possible, reduce pressures on them in order to 31 prevent state change and to lessen the impacts on environmental and human receptors (Barnard and 32 Elliott 2015; Lonsdale et al., 2015; Gross, 2003; Barbier et al., 2011; Townsend et al., 2011). 33

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34 This study identifies summarises the relevant impacts from climate change on estuarine systems and 35 how the effects of climate change are currently being managed and governed locally, regionally and 36 globally through legislative measures (Section 2). The sufficiency or appropriateness of the legislative 37 framework and regional rules for protecting an estuary, using the Humber Estuary as a case study, 38 against the effects of climate change are explored (Section 3) and, as a result, recommendations are made as to how policies can, or should be modified or improved (Section 4). 39 40 , relevant legislation and outlines strategic improvements for future estuarine management to counter 41 or accommodate the potential effects of climate change on estuarine environments. Furthermore, we highlight how current management is successfully addressing these issues and where improvements 42 43 could be made. Whilst the Humber Estuary (northeast England) is used as the primary case study, the 44 themes and recommendations are applicable globally.

#### 45 2.—Climate Change and Climate Change

46 Understanding the impact that climate change has on transitional systems is crucial to developing 47 management strategies that will be sustainable over the long term (Donovan et al., 2013; Jones et al., 48 2013; Mieszkowska et al., 2013). There are many recognised impacts and similarities of climate change 49 worldwide which increase the vulnerability and decrease the resilience of estuaries (Wolanski et al., 50 2019). Elliott et al. (2015) summarises a conceptual framework relating to all the coastal effects of 51 climate change and Robins et al., (2015), Robins (2019) and Ducrotoy et al. (2019) focus on the natural 52 science aspects within estuaries. Some of the most prominent threats to estuarine environments 53 highlighted within this literature are related to: increased carbon dioxide, sea level rise, and changes in temperature (IPCC, 2013). The predicted impact these effects may have on estuarine environment, 54 55 including the socio-economic impacts, is explored below.

#### 56 2.1 Increased Carbon Dioxide

Increased atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is a primary cause of anthropogenic climate change and can lead to other
effects, e.g. ocean acidification. The oceans have absorbed 27 34% of the CO<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere
since the industrial revolution (Turley et al., 2009) and consequently, ocean surface water pH has
decreased by 0.1 units; further decreases of approximately 0.3 04 units by 2100 are predicted (Feely
et al., 2010).

62 Ocean acidification is likely to have direct and indirect impacts on the reproduction, growth and 63 survival of commercially exploited fish stocks (Dixon et al., 2009; Munday et al., 2009; 2010; Cripps et 64 al., 2011). Series of meta-analyses have indicated that whilst some species may be affected on their 65 physiological and behavioural responses (including development, viability and mortality rates), others

66	may potentially benefit from such change in pH conditions (Kroeger et el., 2012; 2013; Wittman and
67	Portner, 2013; Brodie et al., 2014).
68	Changes in pH and water chemistry are likely to impact marine organisms from plankton, to carbonate
69	utilising species (Orr et al., 2005), to fish species. The timing of life stages such as migration and
70	spawning may be altered due the physiochemical properties of the water systems. Such changes may
71	even become a barrier to migration if conditions are significantly outside of their tolerances (Munday
72	e <del>t al., 2010, Klemetsen et al., 2003; Maitland, 2003; McCormick et al., 1998).</del>
73	2.2-Sea Level Rise
74	According to the IPCC's Fifth Assessment Report, sea level is predicted to rise by 0.26-0.82 m by 2100
75	relative to 1986-2005 levels (IPCC, 2013). Sea level rise is likely to alter the hydrodynamics and tidal
76	characteristics in these environments, affecting estuarine circulation patterns, sediment transport
77	processes, erosion deposition cycles and flood and erosion potentials along the banks (Passeri et al.,
78	<del>2015).</del>
79	The natural response of a marine system to sea level rise is to migrate landward and either erode the
80	shoreline or submerge previous intertidal habitats (Passeri et al., 2015). This alters the shape and
81	location of the shoreline, resulting in the loss of land or an increased risk of flooding in vulnerable
82	locations; this is of particular concern where people and assets are likely to be affected. The ability of
83	a system to change naturally in this way is influenced by the presence of fixed boundaries; where
84	these prevent a shoreline migrating, 'Coastal Squeeze' occurs (Andrews et al., 2006). Coastal squeeze
85	can subsequently lead to a decrease in intertidal and increase in subtidal habitats.
86	Changes in sea level could also lead to increased saline incursions into estuaries, through the
87	penetration of saline waters further upstream. Saline intrusion could also alter the chemical properties
88	of estuarine environments leading to increased nutrient release into the estuarine waters, freshwater
89	and groundwater reserves (Robins et al., 2016), potentially leading to eutrophication. Eutrophication
90	is defined as "the enrichment of water by nutrients causing an accelerated growth of algae and higher
91	forms of plant life to produce an undesirable disturbance to the balance of organisms present in the
92	water and to the quality of the water concerned, and therefore refers to the undesirable effects
93	resulting from anthropogenic enrichment by nutrients", (OSPAR, 2009) which can cause algal mats,
94	harmful algal blooms, fish kills, hypoxia and benthic changes in these waters (e.g. de Jonge and Elliott,
95	2001). This may also affect the species that migrate and inhabit these areas, alongside other

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determining factors such as substratum type and food web interactions. However, given the variability

97	of salinity species in estuaries, the effect of salinity on estuarine species is currently unknown (Elliott
98	<i>et al.,</i> 2016; Waterkeyn <i>et al.,</i> 2011; Little <i>et al.,</i> in press).
99	2.3 Changes in Temperature
100	Due to the increase in greenhouse gases into the atmosphere, the sea surface temperature has shown
101	an overall global increase, predominantly within the upper 700 m of the ocean (Hoegh Guldberg et
102	al., 2014). Changes to oceanic temperatures can contribute to sea level rise, shift storm tracks, alter
103	circulation patterns and affect the transport of nutrients around the oceans (Hoegh Guldberg et al.,
104	<del>2014).</del>
105	Increased oceanic temperatures can expand the area suitable for various species to habituate and
106	cause others to retreat (Edwards et al. 2013; Mieszkowska et al., 2013; Pinnegar et al., 2013; Elliott et
107	al., 2015). Changes in water chemistry and temperature may impact the species timing for migrating
108	and spawning or be a barrier to migration if conditions are outside of their tolerances (Klemetsen et
109	al., 2003; Maitland, 2003; McCormick et al., 1998). Conversely, non-native species may increase their
110	distribution due to conditions becoming more favourable to their establishment.
111	Due to increases and improvements of technologies, there could be an increase in the introduction of
112	non native species due to bio fouling and ballast water transport (Cook et al., 2013). The growth of
113	these species could change the structure and function of the ecosystem and consequently, the goods
114	and services the ecosystem provides (Sheahan et al., 2013). For example, the establishment of the
115	Chinese Mitten Crab (Eriocheir sinensis) in the Humber Estuary, which burrows into and undermines
116	estuarine seawalls, has led to increased erosion and failure of these structures (Bentley, 2011; Gilbey
117	<del>et al., 2008).</del>
118	An increase in sea temperature can affect the metabolic rate of species (Pankhurst and Munday, 2011;
119	Pörtner and Knust, 2007). Most marine and estuarine species have well defined temperature
120	thresholds for maturation and spawning (Rasmussen, 1973) and climate change induced temperature
121	changes in any given area. This change in the timing of reproduction can affect the higher trophic level
122	species which prey on these seasonally reproducing species (Lonsdale et al., 2013; Nunn et al., 2008;
123	Klemetsen et al., 2003; Maitland, 2003; McCormick et al., 1998).
124	2.4-Socioeconomics
125	The people and industries found along the coastlines of estuarine environments will become

128 properties and assets will be threatened (Simpson, 2013; Wadey et al., 2013). Other coastal structures,

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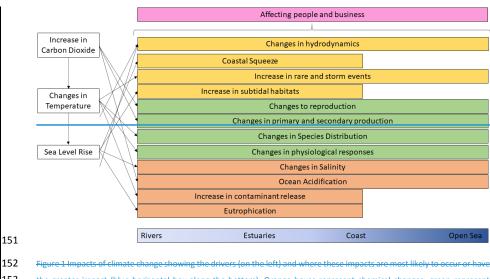
increasingly exposed to the effects of climate change. As sea levels rise, storm activity intensifies and

the physiography and biology of these environments change, the lives and livelihoods of people,

129	such as coastal protection measures (e.g. sea walls), and infrastructure (notably energy and transport)
130	may also be affected.
131	The increase in sea levels and storm surges can increase the risk of coastal properties being affected
132	and damaged due to flooding (Raynor, 2014). However, there are also wellbeing impacts from
133	flooding; Tunstall et al. (2006) found that two thirds of respondents from the General Health
134	Questionnaire indicated that their mental health was at its worst after flooding occurred (although
135	some form of mental health concerns continued over the long term) when compared to those not
136	affected by flooding (Tunstall et al., 2006).
137	Wright (2013) noted that UK ports will be particularly affected by climate change associated impacts
138	such as enhanced storm surge activity, sea level rise, temperature change, precipitation and high
139	winds. Most notably, changes to the physiography and hydrodynamics could alter a system's sediment

budget and change the morphology of navigable channels, which could affect shipping capabilities. If
 channels are deepened through increased erosion, larger vessels could be accommodated but if
 channels infill, the size of ships could be restricted, and dredging may be necessary to maintain water
 depths. For estuaries, where there is generally a lot of activity in terms of industry and recreation, this
 could have a significant impact on the economy.

Other climate change effects however, such as a warmer climate, could increase tourism opportunities with people staying within country for holidays rather than travelling abroad, which would positively impact the economy (Rosselló Nadai, 2014). For example, along the UK coastline, and particularly in estuaries, these sites are often for recreation, including bird watching, walking, sailing routes etc. given their coastal location (Lonsdale et al., 2015) and could see increased visitor numbers as the climate warms and the summer period extends (Rosselló-Nadai, 2014).



153 the greater impact (blue horizontal box along the bottom). Orange boxes 154 roprocont physical ch-

155 These hazards and risks may be exacerbated by direct human actions, for example removing natural 156 vegetation (e.g. mangroves, reedbeds) that increases the severity of storm surges, which in 157 themselves may be increased by climate alterations (Wolanski et al., 2019). These external, climate-158 forced vectors thus add complexity to the estuarine management challenges. These changes have the 159 potential to influence processes that control the behaviour (e.g. geomorphological), physical 160 properties (e.g. sea level), biological receptors (e.g. species distribution), economic benefits and uses 161 (e.g. recreation) of these systems (Donovan et al., 2013; Masselink and Russel, 2013; Painting et al., 2013; Sheahan et al., 2013; Simpson et al., 2013). Furthermore, climate change may be regarded in 162 163 legal terms as factors outside the control of local managers (a force majeure) again giving rise to 164 challenges. For example, climate change will lead to moving baselines against which management of 165 static features may be judged (Elliott et al., 2015; Saul et al., 2016). It is therefore important that 166 strategies and governance are designed and implemented to protect and enhance estuarine environments over the long term, fully considering the likely impacts of climate change on the uses 167 168 and users of these systems (Lonsdale et al., 2015).

### 169 <u>2</u>Management and Governance: The Global Challenge

3 170 171 Understanding the impact that climate change has on transitional systems is crucial to developing 172 management strategies that will be sustainable over the long-term (Donovan et al., 2013; Jones et al., 173 2013; Mieszkowska et al., 2013). There are many recognised impacts and similarities of climate change 174 worldwide which increase the vulnerability and decrease the resilience of estuaries (Wolanski et al., 175 2019). Elliott et al. (2015) summarises a conceptual framework relating to all the coastal effects of 176 climate change and Robins et al., (2015), Robins (2019) and Ducrotoy et al. (2019) focus on the natural 177 science aspects within estuaries. Some of the most prominent threats to estuarine environments 178 highlighted within this literature are related to: increased carbon dioxide and concomitant changes in 179 temperature, sea level rise, and increasing storminess changes in temperature (IPCC, 2013) (see Figure 180 1). 181 In addition to these threats, there is a threat to socio-economics (summarised insee Figure 1-for a 182 summar): the urban and industrialised coastal and estuarine areas people and industries found along 183 the coastlines of estuarine environments-will become increasingly exposed to the effects of climate 184 change. As sea levels rise, storm activity intensifies and the physiography and biology of these environments change, the lives and livelihoods of people, properties and assets will be threatened 185 186 [Simpson, 2013; Wadey et al., 2013]. Other coastal structures, such as coastal protection measures 187 (e.g. sea walls), and infrastructure (notably energy and transport) are likely to may also be affected. 188 The increase in sea levels and storm surges can increase the risk of coastal properties being affected 189 and damaged due to flooding (Raynor, 2014). However, there are also wellbeing impacts from flooding 190 (see Tunstall et al. (2006)). 191 Wright (2013) noted that ports will be particularly affected by climate change associated impacts such 192 as enhanced storm surge activity, sea-level rise, temperature change, precipitation and high winds 193 (supported by Becker et al., 2018; Hallegatte et al., 2011). Most notably, changes to the physiography 194 and hydrodynamics could alter athe system's sediment budget and change the morphology of 195 navigable channels, thereby affecting which could affect shipping capabilities. If channels are 196 deepened through increased erosion, larger vessels could be accommodated but if channels infill, the 197 size of ships could be restricted, and dredging may be necessary to maintain water depths. For 198 estuaries, where there is generally a lot of activity in terms of industry and recreation, this could have Formatted: Heading 2, No bullets or numbering

- 199 <u>a significant impact on the economy.</u>

Other climate change effects however, such as a warmer climate, could increase tourism opportunities
 with people staying within country for holidays rather than travelling abroad, thus which would
 positively impacting the economy (Rosselló-Nadai, 2014). For example, along coastlines globally, and
 particularly in estuaries, these sites are often for recreation, including bird watching, walking, sailing
 routes etc. given their coastal location (Lonsdale et al., 2015; Agardy and Alder, 2005) and could see
 increased visitor numbers as the climate warms and the summer period extends (Rosselló-Nadai,
 2014).

207 These hazards and risks may be exacerbated by direct human actions, for example removing natural vegetation (e.g. mangroves, reedbeds) that increases the severity of storm-surges, which in 208 209 themselves may be increased by climate alterations (Wolanski et al., 2019). These external, climate-210 forced vectors thus add complexity to the estuarine management challenges. These changes have the 211 potential to influence processes that control the behaviour (e.g. geomorphological), physical 212 properties (e.g. sea level), biological receptors (e.g. species distribution), economic benefits and uses 213 (e.g. recreation) of these systems (Donovan et al., 2013; Masselink and Russel, 2013; Painting et al., 214 2013; Sheahan et al., 2013; Simpson et al., 2013). Furthermore, climate change may be regarded in 215 legal terms as creating factors outside the control of local managers (a force majeure) again giving rise 216 to challenges (Elliott et al., 2015; Saul et al., 2016) and - For example, climate change will-lead to 217 moving baselines against which management of static features may be judged <del>(Elliott et al., 2015; Saul</del> 218 et al., 2016). It is therefore important that strategies and governance are designed and implemented 219 to protect and enhance estuarine environments over the long-term, fully considering the likely 220 impacts of climate change on the uses and users of these systems (Lonsdale et al., 2015).

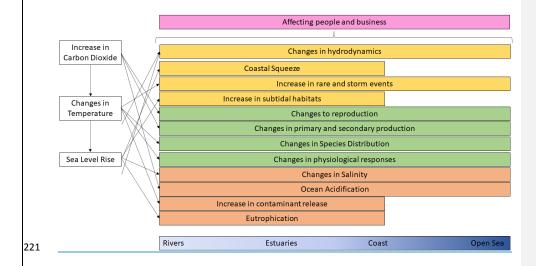


Figure 1 Impacts of climate change showing the drivers (on the left) and where these impacts are most likely to occur or have
 the greater impact (blue horizontal box along the bottom). Orange boxes represent chemical changes; green represent
 biological changes; vellow boxes represent physical changes; and pink box represent socio-economic changes.

Estuaries <u>To support, eEstuaries</u> are managed through many <u>legislative</u> instruments <u>atfrom</u>
 international, national and regional levels, including voluntary codes of conduct (Boyes and Elliott,
 2014). Across all these levels, the legislation, policies, administration and management strategies are
 designed to safeguard ecosystems whilst allowing for sustainable development, and the management
 of ongoing and proposed activities. However, I

Legislation does not tell us how to do something but rather permits what can and cannot be done
(Cormier et al., 2019).

At a global level, there are international treaties and conventions, many of which are legally binding for countries that have formally ratified them e.g. the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS, 1982). These international treaties set the minimum standard, for example, for environmental protection. Countries can implement higher standards of [marine] environmental protection, but not less. <u>Here we briefly provide an overview of these overarching protection</u> <u>measures as they influence regional, national and local management measures.</u>

238 In 2015, the United Nations adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the 239 Sustainable Development Goals. There are 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and associated 240 targets, with SDG 14 focused on the oceans. The aim of SDG 14 'Life below water' is to "Conserve and 241 sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development". Of its seven 242 targets, Target 14.3 is to "Minimize and address the impacts of ocean acidification, including through 243 enhanced scientific cooperation at all levels" is the most relevant when considering how estuaries are 244 responding to climate change and how these impacts can be managed. However, it is questioned 245 whether these targets are operationally satisfactory (Cormier & Elliott 2017).

246 The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) is an international 247 environmental treaty, adopted in 1992, whose objective is to stabilise "greenhouse gas concentrations 248 in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the 249 climate system" (United Nations, 1992). Unlike the aforementioned treaties, tThe UNFCCC sets non-250 binding limits on greenhouse gas emissions and contains no enforcement mechanisms. Rather, it sets 251 out a framework for how specific treaties could be negotiated to meet the objectives in a legally 252 binding manner. The parties to the convention meet annually to assess progress towards the 253 objectives and in tackling climate change.

However, in 1997, the Kyoto Protocol established legally binding obligations for developed countries to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions in the period 2008–2012 (United Nations, 1998). These were superseded by the 2010 United Nations Climate Change Conference which produced an agreement stating that future global warming should be limited to below 2.0 °C (3.6 °F) relative to the preindustrial level (United Nations, 2011).

259 Below this level, there are regional commissions, where multiple countries who share common seas 260 and/or coastline agree to management measures. For example, An example of this is the European 261 Union which, under the European Commission, sets out Directives which, as with similar to the global 262 treaties, set the minimum requirements.-Countries can either adopt as is, adopt through national 263 legislation using same thresholds, or with stricter thresholds. Under An example of a European 264 Directive which is applicable to climate change is the European Directive for Environmental Impact 265 Assessments (2014/52/EC)- Under this Directive, developers have a duty to consider the effects their 266 development may have on the repercussions of climate change and vice versa (Lonsdale et al., 2017). 267 Comparable Legislation is found globally, such as the Canadian Impact Assessment Act, 2019, which 268 states that the assessment must consider "the extent to which the effects of the designated project 269 hinder or contribute to the Government of Canada's ability to meet its environmental obligations and 270 its commitments in respect of climate change" (Government of Canada, 2020).

271 Similarly, However, there are also other conventions including UNEP Regional Seas Conventions, such 272 as the Convention for the Protection and Development of the Marine Environment and Coastal Region 273 of the Mediterranean Sea (Barcelona Convention) and Convention for the Protection of the Marine 274 Environment of the North-east Atlantic (OSPAR Convention), to name but two, which are aimed at 275 protecting an-marine areas of the marine environment which is used by multiple countries as a shared 276 resource. The OSPAR Convention is concerned with impacts on the marine environment and in 277 OSPAR's North-East Atlantic Environment Strategy 2020 states it is stated that "first effects of climate 278 change and ocean acidification are apparent throughout the OSPAR Maritime Area and that pressures 279 on the marine environment from climate change and ocean acidification are set to grow" (OSPAR Commission, 2010). As such, and in accordance with this strategy, the OSPAR Secretariat has 280 281 committed to monitor and assess the nature, rate and extent of the effects of climate change and 282 ocean acidification on the marine environment and consider appropriate ways of responding to such 283 developments.

At the national level, there are three levels of <del>ocean <u>marine</u> and coastal governance <u>(those specific to</u>)
 the Humber are explored in <u>Section XXX</u>):
</del>

- The government sets **policy** objectives (not thresholds) and priorities for both present day and
   into the future (e.g. HM Government, 2011; HM Government, 2018a for the UK; Australian
   Government, 2017 for Australia; Government of Canada, 2018 for Canada);
- 289 2) Regulators and/or Governments identify tasks to meet the objectives and priorities produced
   290 in step 1. An example is maritime spatial planning which aims to support management
   291 decisions, which support the policies.
- 3) Legislation is required to implement the tasks identified in step 2.

293 The treaties set out what is expected, and the national legislation stipulates what can and cannot be 294 done legally to meet the international obligations. For example, in the UK, The the Climate Change Act 295 2008 is an Act of Parliament under which and makes it the duty of the Secretary of State should to 296 ensure, amongst other provisions, that the net UK carbon emissions (including from all six 297 greenhouses gases targeted by the Kyoto Protocol) by 2050 are at least 10089% lower than the 1990 298 baseline. Additionally, an independent UK Committee on Climate Change has been created under the 299 Act to provide advice to UK Government on these targets and related policies. The specific aspects 300 relating to the Humber Estuary, eastern England are explored in Section XXX3.

The above Up until this point, all the management measures generally consider have been general in terms of geographic scope and scale, and it is only at the local level where estuarine specific aspects are considered. At this local level, the administrators can only enact current law and regulations; and the law may be more focussed on the repercussions of not acting. Local management measures can be binding such as byelaws (which manage certain activities in a certain area), or non-binding, such as codes of conduct or local policies related to, amongst others, climate change adaptation (Defra, 2010).

307 Environmental management in estuaries, as with all other environments, needs to cover horizontal 308 integration, across all the stakeholders in an area, and vertical integration Compliance from the local, 309 national and regional to global level obligations. This -requires that managers, regulators, and decision 310 makers are in place and that independent reviews of the governance are completed, i.e. a regulatory 311 impact assessment. However, governance structures, especially for the marine environment, are 312 often complex with overlapping roles and responsibilities (Lonsdale et al., 2015; Boyes & Elliott, 2015). There are often perceived conflicts in this approach as the Government may set a policy e.g. increasing 313 314 reliance on renewable energy, but this requires renewable infrastructure to be built, and the 315 infrastructure may not be permitted to be built either for environment-environmental (too large an 316 impact) or societal (objections based on impact to local amenities or economy) grounds. Therefore, it 317 is questioned what happens if targets are not met despite all departments acting lawfully.

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318 The vertical integration from having international and regional agreements, conventions and 319 protocols which feed into the national and local governance as described above, is generally accepted 320 and well-implemented. However, there is also the need for horizontal integration which requires the 321 coordination of environmental goals and objectives with those of stakeholders across marine sectors 322 (Cormier et al., 2019). For example, constructing an offshore structure could only be permitted if the 323 goals/objectives of a marine protected area were not threatened. As demonstrated by Cormier et al. 324 (2019) and Lonsdale et al. (2015), this horizontal integration is complex: there are usually several 325 regulators (see Section 3 for those relevant to the Humber Estuary) that manage a marine area and 326 activities. Hence, cross-agency communication, with shared visions and agreements is key for 327 effective marine management.

Whilst the use of targets, ambitions and goals are a useful tool to ensure issues relating to impacts from climate change are tackled, there is the risk that the focus is on meeting targets, and not the ancillary issues, for example, what this means in terms of environmental impact due to an increase in hard structures in the marine environment (see Dannheim et al., 2020). Due to the global reaching impacts of climate change, a national strategy for harmonising targets and combatting climate change impacts may be an effective solution, albeit, costly to coordinate, implement and monitor.

#### 334 4 How can management better address Climate Change?

Climate change is bringing challenges to the effective and sustainable management of estuaries and these will continue over the long term. For effective management to be achieved, managers, regulators and planners will benefit from working together to develop strategies that consider key stakeholders and legislative requirements from global to local levels as well as potentially competing targets (Lonsdale *et al.*, 2015).

340 To do this there needs to be a rigorous management and risk assessment framework to help in 341 estuarine management, such as DAPSI(W)R(M) and the ISO standard Bowtie analysis (e.g. Elliott, et 342 al., 2017; Cormier et al., 2019). The unifying DAPSI(W)R(M) management framework developed by 343 Elliott et al. (2017) accommodates the Drivers (of change are the economic and social forces that result 344 from government policies, markets and activities of the private industry, e.g. the basic needs of 345 society, determine the needs for the development of land) as the basic human needs (for food, space, etc), the resulting Activities which lead to Pressures which are the mechanisms of change. These 346 347 pressures change both the natural State and have an Impact on human Welfare. Finally, these require 348 Responses (using management Measures) (Elliott, et al., 2017) when assessed against the defined 349 baseline. A more flexible and responsive management framework(s) may minimise adverse effect on receptors and therefore, it is important that legislation and regulations allow for adaptation as our understanding of climate change impacts becomes more comprehensive. This further requires that changes to the pressures and impacts be monitored, to determine the ongoing suitability of management measures. However, a key question will be at what scale? The perfect monitoring programme will have 100% coverage with real time data, but this would be a huge financial burden, and therefore a balance must be struck between what we want (scale, temporal, variables) and what can be afforded to answer the specific question.

357 The link between the global and local needs to be considered within Legislation to facilitate the 358 implementation of suitable management measures across all levels. This would enable scientists, 359 managers and decision makers to address site-specific climate change effects, relevant to the areas 360 they manage whilst remaining within the boundaries of more global based guidance (Elliott et al., 361 2015; Robins et al., 2016; Wolanski et al., 2019). For instance, changes in temperature could increase 362 the likelihood of non-native species inhabiting estuarine waters and this is complex to monitor, map and manage. There are few, if any, effective measures to address this at present and requires 363 364 management at the local level, relevant to site specific conditions and the types of species that 365 establish (Olenin et al., 2011). The relationship between the global and local is an ongoing challenge, 366 particularly given the uncertainty surrounding the potential impacts of climate change. Cross 367 departmental strategies, which consider multiple targets, need to be sufficiently flexible to allow 368 targets and mitigation/adaptation methods to be updated according to site specific conditions and 369 increasing knowledge.

370 Alignment of the different levels of management is encouraged through the implementation of the 371 Marine Plans, that are found globally (HM Government, 2014). In the UK, the Marine Plans are 372 supported by policies to ensure the development of coastal infrastructure both in terms of how new 373 developments can affect climate change (through emissions), how the effects of climate change can 374 affect the infrastructure (through increasing sea levels) and potential mitigation measures (HM 375 Government, 2018b; 2011; Department for Transport, 2012). However, implementing these policies 376 and practices is challenging as implementing measures which may not have an instantaneous 377 reduction in the vulnerability to climate change (due to the time lag between management measures 378 being implemented and the levels of greenhouse gases responding). Uncertainties in how the effects 379 of climate change may impact an area at a local level and the potential need to cut across multiple 380 legislative drivers, policies and strategies as well as the regulators and planners is also a challenge to overcome (Mansanet-Bataller, 2010). Effective management requires centralised coordination and 381 382 implementation to ensure that each of these players are involved in decision making and issues at all 383 levels, vertically (local to global) and horizontally (cross agency and sector), are considered.

384 Monitoring is not a management measure but rather the means of determining whether management 385 measures have been effective (Wolanski and Elliott, 2015): we need to understand the physical, biological and chemical environment to inform management. A major gap is the availability of data to 386 387 understand the effects of climate change, including site specific and fine resolution monitoring that is 388 comparable across regions. Gathering these data requires multi-national and inter-disciplinary 389 collaborations, which would provide a greater baseline understanding. There is also a need to better 390 understand these data and use them to predict likely mid- to long term effects of climate change; this 391 would allow more informed decisions to be made. Numerical models are increasingly being used for 392 such tasks, as they can simulate decadal to centennial evolution of environmental systems over 393 relatively short time periods, including minutes to days. These tools and their predictive capabilities 394 are continually being improved but are not yet sufficient for small scale changes and responses to the 395 effects of management measures. Hence, further investment in the technology and the quality of data 396 used is required if we are to inform suitable and sustainable management over the mid-to long-term. 397 Furthermore, monitoring of change is required to determine whether management measures have 398 had the desired effect.

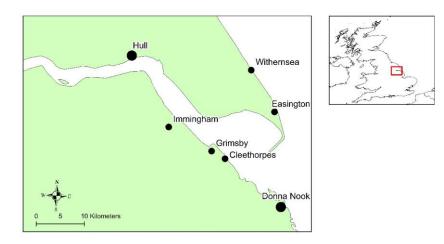
399 To ensure successful and sustainable development, the policies and strategies would benefit from 400 adhering to the ten tenets of sustainable management (Elliott, 2013; Barnard and Elliott, 2015). These 401 cover the ecological, economic, technological, societal, administrative, legislative, political, ethical 402 (moral), cultural and communication aspects of sustainable solutions. As indicated in the 10 tenets, 403 wider education, and engagement of stakeholders (e.g. CEDA, 2012) is required to address these 404 issues and ensure adaptive capacity is recognised and built into plans, policies, and existing 405 developments. In line with the coordination of climate change adaptation, this requires ensuring 406 adaptive capacity is maintained through all levels of the estuary stakeholders. The collation and 407 dissemination of evidence and monitoring data will become increasingly important to identify 408 whether the effects and trends of climate change are apparent. By ensuring the monitoring data and 409 evidence are shared, the effects and adaptive management strategies can be fed into marine plans to 410 provide long term resilience to climate change and allow a greater integration, awareness and 411 understanding of the effects of climate change into policy and infrastructure changes. For example, 412 this includes the need to consider all the effects of individual managed realignment sites at the estuary 413 level.

#### 414 53 What does this mean in reality? A Case Study of the Humber Estuary, UK

415 To explore the sufficiency or appropriateness of the legislative framework and regional rules for

416 protecting an estuary against the effects of climate changethe application of this analysis, we take a

417 the well-studied case study of the Humber Estuary in the North East of England. It is one of the largest 418 coastal plain estuaries in the EU, extending approximately 62 km from Trent Falls to the open (North) 419 sea (Figure 2). It is one of the busiest and fastest growing areas for seaborne trade in the EUEurope 420 and provides an important contribution to the UK economy (Ciavola, 1997; Jarvie, et al., 1997; Metcalfe et al., 2000). It supports four major ports: Goole, Hull, Grimsby and Immingham, that 421 422 import >20% of the UK's total inward tonnage per year (Figure 2) and is rapidly growing as a national 423 base for offshore wind installation and operations in the North Sea. Many industries, cities and towns 424 are clustered near these ports, with much of the remaining land bordering the system used for 425 agriculture.



426

#### 427 Figure 2 Case Study area

428 Given the nature conservation importance of the area, tThe Humber's various habitats and waterways 429 constitute a European Marine Site within the Natura 2000 framework (Lonsdale, 2015). This includes Special Areas of Conservation (SAC), Special Protection Areas (SPA), Sites of Special Scientific Interest 430 431 (SSSI) and a Heritage Coast site (see Lonsdale, 2015). These designations protect a wide variety of rare 432 and sensitive biological components, including the seabed habitats, benthic communities, seabed 433 features (e.g. sandbanks), mobile fish species (e.g. lamprey), marine mammals (e.g. the grey seal 434 population) and bird species (e.g. the breeding Great bittern, Botaurus stellaris). Many of these sites 435 provide ecosystem services and societal goods and benefits (Turner and Schaafsma, 2015) including tourism and leisure opportunities (Freestone et al., 1987). 436

437	Almost 235 km of defences protect the Humber's environmental, social, and economic assets,
438	including managed realignment sites such as Alkborough Flats and other ecoengineering initiatives

(Winn et al., 2003; <u>Elliott et al., 2016</u>). However, <u>following-</u>the storm surge that caused widespread
flooding around the estuary in December 2013 (Wragg, 2014), <u>led to the questioning that a question</u>
was raised as to whether <u>the estuary</u> management needs improving. The Humber Estuary, like many
other estuaries, is susceptible to the effects of climate change and this needs to be considered when
management strategies are developed (Wolanski et al., 2019).

#### 444 <u>35.1 Managing Climate Change Impacts</u>

445 The Humber Estuary is vulnerable to all the potential impacts of Climate Change identified in section 446 32, but it is important to consider how these impacts manifest at the site-specific level. In-Table 1 447 summarises, the physical, chemical, and biological effects relevant to the Humber Estuary-are 448 summarised. The Humber Estuary is managed through many legislative instruments, from 449 international, to European, national, and regional levels, including voluntary codes of conduct. Hence, 450 There are management measures within the Humber Estuary that are designed to combat the effects 451 of climate change, such as management realignment sites or setting back or raising flood defences 452 (Elliott et al., 2016). This leads to the ; the question of is, how future proof are these methods 453 especially given any time lag and inertia in the system? The impacts of climate change will continue 454 even if we were to stop all greenhouse emissions today due to inertia. The efficacy of management 455 measures aimed at tackling climate change impacts is determined by monitoring such as Most other 456 measures are designed to monitor the impacts and effects within the estuary, such as changes to 457 salinity, species distribution or contamination. These are a means to inform management measures. 458 The Humber Estuary is managed through many legislative instruments, from international, to 459 European, national, and regional levels, including voluntary codes of conduct. In Section 2, we have 460 highlighted the international conventions which set out the requirement for countries to do 461 something, here we look at the specific requirements for managing a relatively small site in 462 comparison to the global treaties jurisdictionAt the International level, management of the Humber 463 must be considered according to the policies and guidance outlined in Section 4, whilst considering 464 national and local level regulations.

Nationally, The UK Climate Change Act (2008), amended in 2019, is the UK's response to reducing and mitigating against climate change. It requires the UK to act to tackle climate change and reduce greenhouse gas emissions by 100% of 1990 levels by 2050<u>- this is important when considering ongoing</u> (e.g., shipping) or new (e.g., power stations) developments. The UK Marine Policy statement, as required by the Marine and Coastal Access Act 2009, sets out guidelines for maintaining marine environments in healthy, productive and resilient conditions, without compromising the ecosystem Formatted: Not Highlight

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471 services and societal goods and benefits (Kelly at al., 2014; Turner and Schaafsma, 2015). The East 472 Marine Plan (within which the Humber Estuary sits) aims 'to facilitate action on climate change 473 adaptation and mitigation' by identifying areas for renewable energy generation (wave and tidal 474 energy) and carbon capture storage, in line with the European Renewable Energy Directive 475 (2009/28/EC) and the UK Climate Change Act, 2008. Local-level estuarine management is prominent 476 in the Humber Estuary in acknowledging that climate change increases the risk of flooding. The 477 Environment Agency has used a cost-benefit analysis to implemented the Humber Flood Risk 478 Management Strategy to manage flood risk, aiming to ensure that 99% of people who live close to the 479 Estuary have a good level of protection against tidal flooding for 25 years following the 480 implementation of the strategy (Environment Agency, 2008). The Humber Flood Risk Strategy 481 complements a range of regional plans, including Shoreline Management Plans (SMP) and Coastal 482 Habitat Management Plans (CHaMP). It is of note that those not protected live at sites where the cost-483 benefit analysis would have indicated that protection is prohibitively expensive given the value of 484 assets protected. See Figure 3 for a visualisation of the Humber relevant management measures.

- To determine the sufficiency of the legislative framework and/or the organisations responsible, the
   potential impacts highlighted in Section 2, were considered in terms of what (legislation) and who
- 487 (authorities) is responsible for managing these impacts (Table 1).
- 488

489 Many of the responsibilities for monitoring and managing the impacts of climate change within the 490 estuary appear to fall onto the Environment Agency, anthe English environmental protection agency 491 (in the UK, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have their own bodies as devolved agencies) of water 492 ways in the UK. However, some specific responsibility falls to others, such as the Marine Management 493 Organisation (for assessing new development applications) or private organisations or Local 494 Authorities, and even private organisations, for the maintenance of some flood defences (see Figure 495 3). Vertical and horizontal integration between these legislative instruments and responsible 496 organisations is therefore imperative to ensure effective management that is compliant with 497 international, regional, and national legislation whilst taking into consideration specific challenges within the Humber Estuary. How this can be achieved is not always clear or straightforward to achieve. 498

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	International Conventions & Treaties			EWORK CONV. ON CLIM/ Kyoto Protoco JN Convention on Biolog OSPAR		
	Government Departments			D	lefra	BEIS
	suo			Climate Change	Act	
	Regulations	Water Environmental (V	Vater Framework Directive) Re	gulations	Marine and Coastal Access Act Planning Act	The Conservation of Habitats and Species Regulations 2017
	ies	River Basin Management Plans, Sho	oreline Management Plan			
	Polic			Marine Policy State UK 25 year Environm East Marine Pla	nent plan	
	Regulator	Private organisations/ land owners	Local Authorities	Environment Agency	Marine Management Organisation	Natural England
	Responsibilities	Flood risk and defence	Flood risk and defence Developments down to MLWS	Water Quality Flood defence Coastal change River levels Recreational fishing and inland boating	Commercial fishing Developments below MHWS Marine Conservation Zones Marine plans	Conservation sites (out to 12 nm) Protected species
499	Ľ					
500	Figure 3 V	<u>/isualisation of t</u>	he horizontal and	vertical gover	mance of the Humbe	er Estuary specific to
501	<u>estuarine</u>	waters managen	nent.			
502	<del>By analysi</del>	<del>ng</del> A potential w	eakness in aAssess	sing the poten	tial impacts from clir	nate change and the
503	legislative	instruments <del>, wh</del>	at appears to be a	weakness is the	e <del>sheer</del> task of monito	oring for the potential
504	impacts of	f climate change	which may be prol	nibitively exper	nsive for many organi	sations. Ifor very few
505	organisati	<del>ons, i</del> n most c	cases, it falls sol	ely on the E	nvironment Agency	, although there is
506	acknowled	lgement that o	ther forms of mo	nitoring, such	as condition monit	coring of the nature
507	<u>conservat</u> i	ion features and	compliance monit	oring for ongo	ing developments (E	liott et al., 2022) <del>that</del>
508	take place	. Models can in	form how an area	a may be impa	acted by climate cha	inge (Falconer et al.,
509	<u>2020<del>REF</del>),</u>	but they have ca	aveats and their spa	atial and tempo	oral predictability, bo	<u>th from deterministic</u>
510	and empir	rical modelling, g	gives them with th	eir use and th	e results, therefore	on a local level, they
511	have-limit	ed use in priorit	tising areas for mo	onitoring. End-	to-end models which	n link changes to the
512	<u>natural en</u>	vironment with	the socio-economi	c repercussion	is (Peck et al., 2018) h	nave the potential for
513	<u>use but re</u>	equire expensive	e parameterisation	n for individua	Il areas. Hence, t <del>To</del>	inform management
514	strategies,	, we need <del>to hav</del>	<del>ve-</del> robust modellir	i <mark>g <del>in place to</del> p</mark>	predict potential scer	arios and determine
515	harmonise	ed specific respo	onses based on th	e site-specific	information;, for ins	tance, the modelling
516	results and	d management r	responses for the s	south coast ma	ay not be appropriate	e or applicable to the
517	<u>Humber E</u>	stuary. This wo	uld allow for a lo	cal policy to b	e developed, but by	/ learning from local
1						

518	examples, national policy could be more aligned to the UK's responses (both environmental and
519	management) to climate change impacts.
520	TFollowing the review in Table 1 also indicates , it also appears that there is little in the way of
521	preparatory or proactive mitigation measures to combat when, and if, thresholds for biological
522	impacts are reached for example, what is to happen when there is a salinity shift? Is there anything
523	that can be done to offset or mitigate the changes?
524	-in the management of the Humber Estuary is the lack of a cross departmental long term planning of
525	adaptability to the effects of climate change. For instance, what is to happen when there is a salinity
526	shift? Is there anything that can be done to offset or mitigate? To inform such management strategies,
527	we need to have robust modelling in place to predict potential scenarios and determine harmonised
528	specific responses based on the site specific information, for instance the modelling results and
529	management responses for the south coast may not be appropriate or applicable to the Humber
530	Estuary. This would allow for a local policy to be developed, but by learning from local examples,
531	national policy could be more aligned to the UK's responses (both environmental and management)
532	to climate change impacts.

	Effect	How it will affect Humber	CommentsPotential for	What is(are) the	What is(are) the	What are the major	References
		features?	impact	policy (or	agency (or agencies)	bottlenecks that the	
				policies)	implementing the	executing agency (or	
				addressing the	policy (policies)?	agencies) face for	
				climate change		successful policy	
				effects		implementation	
	Changes in coastal	Increases in storm events	This is likely to be high	River Basin	Environment	Funding and man	Andrews et al., 2006;
	hydrodynamics	Changes to tidal currents,	magnitude. Managed/	Management	Agency.	power to monitor,	Elliott et al., 2016;
		range, prism and patterns	monitored by the	Plans, Shoreline	Local Authorities.	maintain and where	Wolanski and Elliott 201
		Changes in erosion and	Environment Agency.	Management	Private landowners	required, create or	Lonsdale, 2013; Mori et
		sedimentation	Some flood defenses	Plan, Water		improve sea defences	al., 2010; Passeri et al.,
		Changes in sediment	are owned by local	<b>Environmental</b>		along a vast coastline.	2015; Rhein et al., 2013;
		budget	authorities or private	(Water			Raynor and Chatterton,
		Changes to Estuarine	organizations.	Framework			2014; Wragg, 2014; Wolf
Ē		morphology		Directive)			2009; Woolf & Wolf 2013
sic				Regulations,			
Physical	Coastal squeeze	Reduction in intertidal	This is likely to be high	River Basin	Environment	Funding and man	Wolanski and Elliott 201
-		habitat (and species)	magnitude.Managed/	Management	Agency.	power to monitor	Elliott et al., 2016;
		Changing of land use	monitored by the	Plans, Shoreline	Natural England (for	coastal squeeze, and	Lonsdale, 2013
		function (managed	Environment Agency.	Management	compensation sites	then to create, monitor	
		realignment sites)	Some sites are	Plan, Water	under Habitats	and manage managed	
			compensation for	Environmental	<b>Regulations</b>	realignment sites.	
			projects. The Humber	(Water	Assessment)		
			estuary has multiple	Framework			
			sites	Directive)			
				Regulations,			
	Ocean Acidification	Buffering capacity of	There is no consensus	Water	Environment Agency	Funding and manpower	Brodie et al., 2014; Cripp
		estuarine water,	on the magnitude of	Environmental		to monitor pH changes	et al., 2011; Dixon et al.,
		Change to pH via run-off	these impacts.	(Water		to the extent that	2009; Feely et al., 2010;
		Barrier to species	Managed/ monitored	<u>Framework</u>		natural variability can	Orr et al., 2005;
a		migration	by the Environment	Directive)		be included in any	Klemetsen et al., 2003;
mic		Reduce the occurrence of	Agency.	Regulations,		assessment.	Maitland, 2003;
Chemical		recreation fishing				There is currently no	McCormick et al., 1998;
0		Affect organisms with				precedence for	Munday et al., 2009;
		calcareous shells				increase pH nor an	2010; Pinnegar et al.,
		Increase in mortality				agreed threshold of	2013; Roberts et al., 201
						when a pH may cause	Wittman and Portner,
						biological impacts.	2013

# 533 Table 1 summary of climate change impacts on estuarine environments, using the Humber Estuary as a case study

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	Changes in salinity	Affect species physiological and behavior responses Saline incursions of rivers. Barrier to migration Increase in mortality for freshwater species Increase distribution of saline tolerant species Linked to changes in rainfall and run-off patters Balance with greater water use and evaporation in the catchment	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts. Monitoring under the Water Framework Directive should inform where these soline incursions are occurring.	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations,	Environment Agency	Funding and manpower to monitor pH changes to the extent that natural variability can be included in any assessment. There is currently no precedence for managing salinty nor an agreed threshold of when a salinity level may cause biological impacts.	Basset et al., 2013; Elliott and Quintino 2006; Little et al., 2017; Long et al., 1998; Shennan et al., 2000; Whitfield et al., 2012
	Increase in contamination release	Increase erosion and rainfall can increase the release of contaminants in water column Changes in system to retain and/or recycle nutrients Can lead to increase mortality of species	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts. Monitored by the Environment Agency and can come to light for Marine License applications for dredging whereby sediments may require chemical analysis.	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations, Marine and Coastal Access Act	Environment Agency Sediment contamination is also considered by the Marine Management Organization.	Funding and manpower to monitor contaminant changes. Limited resource to tackle increases in water contamination.	Robins et al., 2016; Sheahan et al., 2013; Simpson, 2013; Wither et al., 2013
Biological	Changes in reproduction	Any changes in water chemistry may impact the timing for fisheries migrating and spawning or even become a barrier to migration if conditions are outside of their tolerances	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts. Managed/ monitored by the Environment Agency.	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations	Environment Agency	Funding and manpower to monitor all potential water quality characteristics and their changes to the extent that natural variability can be included in any assessment. There is currently no precedence for managing nor an	Brodie et al., 2014; Cripps et al., 2011; Dixon et al., 2009; Feely et al., 2010; Orr et al., 2005; Klemetsen et al., 2003; Maitland, 2003; McCormick et al., 1998; Munday et al., 2009; 2010; Pinnegar et al., 2013; Roberts et al., 2013; Wittman and Portner, 2013

Changes in primary and secondary production	Any changes in water chemistry may impact plankton and benthic species timing for reproducing	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts. Managed/monitored by the Environment Agency.	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations	Environment Agency	agreed threshold of when levels may cause biological impacts. Funding and manpower to monitor all potential water quality characteristics and their changes to the extent that natural variability can be included in any assessment. There is currently no precedence for managing nor an agreed threshold of when levels may cause biological impacts.	Brodie et al., 2014; Cripps et al., 2011; Dixon et al., 2009; Feely et al., 2010; Orr et al., 2005; Klemetsen et al., 2003; Maitland, 2003; McCormick et al., 1998; Munday et al., 2009; 2010; Pinnegar et al., 2013; Roberts et al., 2013; Wittman and Portner, 2013
Changes in species distribution	Increase in tolerant species and extend distribution Decrease in species intolerant of temperature Increase likelihood of non-native species Change of ecosystem structure and function Change to ecosystem goods and services	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts. Environment Agency have measures that are required to address the presence of non-native species namely: mitigation to control and eradicate. building awareness and understanding of the non-native species and the negative impacts of the presence. to undertake early detection and monitoring to provide a rapid response to reduce the risk of the species of becoming established	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations	Environment Agency.	Funding and man power to monitor along a vast coastline and water columns to identify and monitor non-native species presence.	Bentley, 2011; Cook et al., 2013; Edwards et al. 2013; Elliott et al., 2015; Gilbey et al., 2003; Klemetsen et al., 2003; Lonsdale et al., 2013; Maitland, 2003; McCormick et al., 1998; Mieszkowska et al., 2013; Nunn et al., 2008; Olenin et al., 2011; Pinnegar et al., 2013; Sheahan et al., 2013; Turner and Schaafsma, 2015.

Changes in physiological responses	Affect physiological behaviours (e.g. oxygen metabolism, adult mortality, reproduction, respiration, reproductive development), Affect seasonal reproduction Affect the higher trophic level species which prey on the plankton Repercussions of	European Union Water Framework Directive 2000/60/EC There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts. Management is restricted to monitoring the distribution of species and physiological responses e.g. spawning areas and timing, Managing other stressors to reduce the	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations	Environment Agency	Funding and manpower to monitor all potential water quality characteristics and their changes to the extent that natural variability can be included in any assessment. There is currently no precedence for managing nor an	Durant et al., 2007; Lonsdale et al., 2013; Nunn et al., 2008; Klemetsen et al., 2003; Maitland, 2003; McCormick et al., 1998; Pankhurst and Munday, 2011; Pörtner and Knust, 2007.
	Affect the higher trophic level species which prey on the plankton Repercussions of encouraging migration of species into higher	e.g. spawning areas and timing, Managing other stressors to reduce the overall stress species may be subject to e.g.			assessment. There is currently no precedence for managing nor an agreed threshold of when levels may cause	
	latitudes, or due to changes into the composition of their prey.	enforcing timing restrictions during construction projects			<u>biological impacts.</u>	

#### 4 How can management better address Climate Change? 535 536 Climate change is bringing challenges to the effective and sustainable management of estuaries, and 537 these will continue over the long-term. For effective management, we have assessed that the Humber 538 Estuary requires the managers and regulators to work together, even where there are competing 539 targets, but we have also identified (from Table 1) the bottlenecksimpediments to effective 540 management: 541 The funding and manpower to monitor the multiple parameters across a large area. 542 That there is lots of much monitoring being undertaken to understand trends and potential 543 impacts, but there is comparatively little being done to combat these (with the exception of flood defence, followed by managed realignment sites to combat coastal squeeze). 544 545 Understanding the magnitude of any changes due to natural variation. 546 Not having any guidance or precedence for managing or rather mitigating against changes in parameters such as pH and salinity. Given an understanding of estuarine hydrodynamics, 547 548 there is relatively little that is possible to modify or reverse If the pH or salinity changes, what 549 can reasonably and practically be done about it?. 550 There are many objectives but fewer thresholds about when a change may require 551 intervention, instead relying on expert judgement. 552 Overall, there appears to be a jump in these management systems: we have policy objectives and 553 regulated targets to meet, and monitoring is being undertaken to inform progress, but there appears 554 to be gaps regarding what these changes mean and what can be done about *itthem*. There are already 555 a number of rigorous management and risk assessment frameworks available such as Environmental 556 Impact Assessment (Lonsdale et al., 2017), Decision Support Systems (e.g. Lonsdale et al., 2018; 2015), 557 the DAPSI(W)R(M) cause-consequence-response framework and the ISO standard Bowtie analysis 558 (e.g. Elliott, et al., 2017; Cormier et al., 2019) to name a few (see Lonsdale et al., 2015) to help inform 559 discussions. Despite this, but the regulators and environmental managers, require government 560 backing and support to make a difference (see also Lonsdale et al., 2015). 561 For instance, changes in temperature could increase the likelihood of non-native species inhabiting 562 estuarine waters and this is complex to monitor, map and manage. There are few, if any, effective 563 measures to address this at present and requires management at the local level, relevant to site-564 specific conditions and the types of species that become established (Olenin et al., 2011). The 565 relationship between the global and local scales is an ongoing challenge, particularly given the

566 <u>uncertainty surrounding the guantification of the potential impacts of climate change. Cross</u>

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departmental strategies, which consider multiple targets, need to be sufficiently flexible to allow
 targets and mitigation/adaptation methods to be updated according to site-specific conditions and
 increasing knowledge.

570 It appears that the Humber Estuary, has good vertical integration of governance from the local to links 571 from global thereby facilitating to local requirements to facilitate the implementation of suitable 572 management measures across all levels. However, but-ideally, policies and legislative instruments, 573 including guidance, should include prescriptive guidance for what thresholds indicate an issue e.g. 574 approaching an action points (a reference condition, threshold, trigger or -tipping point (Elliott et al., 575 2022REF), or what actions can be taken can be done about it e.g. changes in pH?. To ensure successful 576 and sustainable development, the policies and strategies require to be tested rigourously, for example 577 against would benefit from adhering to-the ten-tenets of sustainable management (Elliott, 2013; 578 Barnard and Elliott, 2015). These cover the ecological, economic, technological, societal, 579 administrative, legislative, political, ethical (moral), cultural and communication aspects of sustainable 580 solutions. Hence, As indicated in the 10 tenets, wider education, and engagement of stakeholders 581 (e.g. CEDA, 2012; Newton and Elliott, 2016) is required to address these issues and ensure adaptive 582 capacity is recognised and built into plans, policies, and existing developments. In line with the 583 coordination of climate change adaptation, this requires ensuring adaptive capacity is maintained 584 through all levels of the estuary stakeholders. The collation and dissemination of evidence and 585 monitoring data will become increasingly important to identify whether the effects and trends of 586 climate change are apparent. By ensuring the monitoring data and evidence are shared, the effects 587 and adaptive management strategies can be fed into marine plans to provide long-term resilience to 588 climate change and allow a greater integration, awareness and understanding of the effects of climate 589 change into policy and infrastructure changes. For example, this includes the need to consider all the 590 effects of individual managed realignment sites at the estuary level.

### 591 65 Concluding Remarks

592 This paper details the potential challenges associated with managing vulnerable estuarine environments in the face of climate change. There are efforts by stakeholders to address some of the 593 594 effects of climate change, but the ways in which estuaries are managed, from the local to the global 595 scaleglobally to locally, needs to be improved improvement. Given the complexity of the system, 596 ranging from the natural to the societal, calls for a systems analysis approach (Elliott et al. 2020) and 597 hence rRecently developed decision support systems (e.g. Lonsdale et al., 2018) give progress towards 598 this end. The causes and effects of exogenic pressures combined in climate change are relevant from 599 the local to the global, and co-ordination is needed across all levels to encourage effective, suitable,

600	and sustainable management (Wolanski et al., 2019). In particular, while the causes need to be
601	addressed at the global level, the consequence need addressing at the local level. Hence, t
602	The link between the global and local needs to be considered within legislation to facilitate the
603	implementation of suitable management measures across all levels. This would enable scientists,
604	managers and decision makers to address site-specific climate change effects, relevant to the areas
605	they manage whilst remaining within the boundaries of more global-based guidance (Elliott et al.,
606	2015; Robins et al., 2016; Wolanski et al., 2019).
607	
608	Using a case study of the Humber Estuary, this study demonstrates the importance of vertical and

horizontal integration across management levels. It also shows the relevance of developing site-609 610 specific assessments, as each estuary and its component habitats and species will be impacted by 611 climate change in different ways and to differing degrees. This is challenging due to the coarse 612 coverage of data and so there is a need for enhanced monitoring and research but also the realisation 613 that action must be taken in the light of inadequate knowledge and data. Numerical models are 614 increasingly being used to understand the behaviour of these systems and the effect that climate 615 change may have over decadal to centennial timescales. Despite this, the models often highlight the 616 uncertainty both in our understanding and in the predictive capability. However, there is scope to 617 utilise these tools further and improve their predictive capabilities, to inform sustainable 618 management.the bottlenecksimpediments to effective and long term management against the 619 potential harmful effects of climate change on the marine environment. The main bottleneck being the lack of resources, or rather the current inability to monitor all aspects of the estuarine waters and 620 621 coastline, and the inability to currently address some of the effects. Many of the effects are wide-622 ranging and therefore it requires the culmination of mitigation measures on a scale larger than the 623 estuary level to effectively mitigate against the effects. To do this, requires- the use of frameworks to 624 assess the potential impacts of any effects, the use of tools such as models, although their use is 625 associated with limitations, and the integration of the governance structures, both vertically and 626 horizontally.

627 There is extensive monitoring carried out on the Humber but monitoring is not a management 628 measure but rather the means of determining whether management measures have been effective 629 (Wolanski and Elliott, 2015; Elliott et al. 2022), and hence ←we need to understand the physical, 630 biological and chemical environment to inform management. A major gap is the availability of data to 631 understand the magnitude of the effects of climate change and what can be done about it. 632 Furthermore, monitoring of change is required to determine whether management measures have

#### 633 had the desired effect.

#### 634

As shown here, there is an increasing understanding of how our climate is changing, how environmental systems <u>such as estuaries</u> are affected, and the ways they can be managed to become more resistant and resilient through informed decision frameworks. <u>Whilst the use of targets</u>, ambitions and goals are useful tools to ensure issues relating to impacts from climate change are tackled, there is the risk that the focus is on meeting targets, will not address the ancillary issues, for example, at local or regional levels. Due to the global-reaching impacts of climate change, a national strategy for harmonising targets and combatting climate change impacts may be an effective solution,

- 642 <u>albeit, costly to coordinate, implement and monitor.</u>
- 643

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## 1. Introduction

Estuaries cover over 400,000 km of the global coastline (Dürr et al., 2011) and are dynamic environments that form a transition zone between rivers, the open sea and terrestrial systems. They are most commonly defined as "a semi-enclosed coastal body of water which is connected to the sea either permanently or periodically, has a salinity that is different from that of the adjacent open ocean due to freshwater inputs, and includes a characteristic biota" and being "transitional waters, a term which includes lagoons, rias, etc." (Elliott and Whitfield, 2011), with more specific classifications often used to describe the characteristics of individual systems (Potter at al., 2010; Whitfield and Elliott, 2011). Given their location, connections and resources, estuaries are hotspots for many urban, industrial and recreational activities, which can provide a significant contribution to the economy (Lonsdale et al., 2015; Elliott and Whitfield, 2011). They also support an abundant and functionally large but not necessarily diverse range of flora and fauna and many typically hold statutory environmental designations to protect their unique ecological characteristics. 

Estuaries are increasingly regarded as facing three major threats worldwide: increasing industrialisation and urbanisation, increasing resource scarcity notably for both space and energy, and the impacts of climate change (Wolanski et al, 2019; Defeo & Elliott 2021). Many of the activities and pressures within these categories are endogenic, i.e. occurring inside the estuarine area and where the causes and consequences of change, such as navigation and fisheries, need to be managed. However, they are also subject to exogenic unmanaged pressures, the causes of which originate within the wider catchment (e.g. abstraction) or are globally mediated (e.g. climate change) and where it is the consequences (not sources) inside the estuary that need to be managed (Elliott, 2011). These pressures affect both the natural and socio-economic systems and they therefore require a robust and defendable risk assessment and risk management framework to be managed sustainably (Cormier et al., 2019; Elliott, et al., 2014).

Sustainably managing estuarine environments is complex and challenging as there are numerous managers, planners, statutory bodies, industries and stakeholders that are required to meet international, national and local obligations (Boyes and Elliott, 2015; Lonsdale et al., 2015). There is also a need for transdisciplinary and holistic approaches covering governance, socio-economics, physical sciences and ecology (Elliott, 2014). The overall aim of each management layer is to sustainably manage these environments and where possible, reduce pressures on them in order to prevent state change and to lessen the impacts on environmental and human receptors (Barnard and Elliott 2015; Lonsdale et al., 2015; Gross, 2003; Barbier et al., 2011; Townsend et al., 2011). 

This study summarises the relevant impacts from climate change on estuarine systems and how the effects of climate change are currently being managed and governed locally, regionally and globally through legislative measures (Section 2). The sufficiency or appropriateness of the legislative framework and regional rules for protecting an estuary, using the Humber Estuary as a case study, against the effects of climate change are explored (Section 3) and, as a result, recommendations are made as to how policies can, or should be modified or improved (Section 4).

## 2 Climate Change and Management and Governance: The Global Challenge

Understanding the impact that climate change has on transitional systems is crucial to developing management strategies that will be sustainable over the long-term (Donovan et al., 2013; Jones et al., 2013; Mieszkowska et al., 2013). There are many recognised impacts and similarities of climate change worldwide which increase the vulnerability and decrease the resilience of estuaries (Wolanski et al., 2019). Elliott et al. (2015) summarises a conceptual framework relating to all the coastal effects of climate change and Robins et al., (2015), Robins (2019) and Ducrotoy et al. (2019) focus on the natural science aspects within estuaries. Some of the most prominent threats to estuarine environments highlighted within this literature are related to: increased carbon dioxide and concomitant changes in temperature, sea level rise, and increasing storminess (IPCC, 2013) (see Figure 1). 

In addition to these threats, there is a threat to socio-economics (summarised in Figure 1): the urban and industrialised coastal and estuarine areas will become increasingly exposed to the effects of climate change. As sea levels rise, storm activity intensifies and the physiography and biology of these environments change, the lives and livelihoods of people, properties and assets will be threatened (Simpson, 2013; Wadey et al., 2013). Other coastal structures, such as coastal protection measures (e.g. sea walls), and infrastructure (notably energy and transport) are likely to be affected. The increase in sea level and storm surges can increase the risk of coastal properties being affected and damaged due to flooding (Raynor, 2014). However, there are also wellbeing impacts from flooding (see Tunstall et al. 2006).

Wright (2013) noted that ports will be particularly affected by climate change associated impacts such as enhanced storm surge activity, sea-level rise, temperature change, precipitation and high winds (supported by Becker et al., 2018; Hallegatte et al., 2011). Most notably, changes to the physiography and hydrodynamics could alter the system sediment budget and change the morphology of navigable channels, thereby affecting shipping capabilities. If channels are deepened through increased erosion, larger vessels could be accommodated but if channels infill, the size of ships could be restricted, and dredging may be necessary to maintain water depths. For estuaries, where there is generally a lot of
activity in terms of industry and recreation, this could have a significant impact on the economy.

Other climate change effects however, such as a warmer climate, could increase tourism opportunities with people staying within country for holidays rather than travelling abroad, thus positively impacting the economy (Rosselló-Nadai, 2014). For example, along coastlines globally, and particularly in estuaries, these sites are often for recreation, including bird watching, walking, sailing routes etc. given their coastal location (Lonsdale et al., 2015; Agardy and Alder, 2005) and could see increased visitor numbers as the climate warms and the summer period extends (Rosselló-Nadai, 2014).

These hazards and risks may be exacerbated by direct human actions, for example removing natural vegetation (e.g. mangroves, reedbeds) that increases the severity of storm-surges, which in themselves may be increased by climate alterations (Wolanski et al., 2019). These external, climateforced vectors thus add complexity to the estuarine management challenges. These changes have the potential to influence processes that control the behaviour (e.g. geomorphological), physical properties (e.g. sea level), biological receptors (e.g. species distribution), economic benefits and uses (e.g. recreation) of these systems (Donovan et al., 2013; Masselink and Russel, 2013; Painting et al., 2013; Sheahan et al., 2013; Simpson et al., 2013). Furthermore, climate change may be regarded in legal terms as creating factors outside the control of local managers (a force majeure) again giving rise to challenges (Elliott et al., 2015; Saul et al., 2016) and lead to moving baselines against which management of static features may be judged. It is therefore important that strategies and governance are designed and implemented to protect and enhance estuarine environments over the long-term, fully considering the likely impacts of climate change on the uses and users of these systems (Lonsdale et al., 2015).

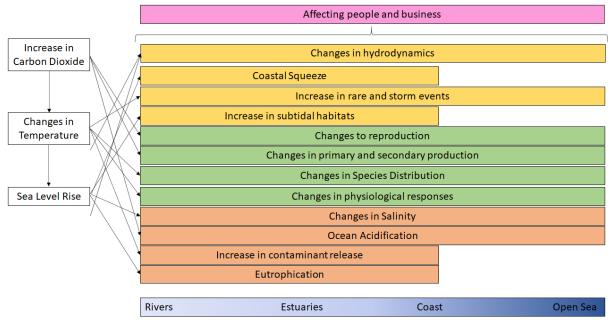


Figure 1 Impacts of climate change showing the drivers (on the left) and where these impacts are most likely to occur or have
the greater impact (blue horizontal box along the bottom). Orange boxes represent chemical changes; green represent
biological changes; yellow boxes represent physical changes; and pink box represent socio-economic changes.

Estuaries are managed through many legislative instruments at international, national and regional levels, including voluntary codes of conduct (Boyes and Elliott, 2014). Across all these levels, the legislation, policies, administration and management strategies are designed to safeguard ecosystems whilst allowing for sustainable development, and the management of ongoing and proposed activities. However, legislation does not tell us how to do something but rather permits what can and cannot be done (Cormier et al., 2019).

At a global level, there are international treaties and conventions, many of which are legally binding for countries that have formally ratified them e.g. the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS, 1982). These international treaties set the minimum standard, for example, for environmental protection. Countries can implement higher standards of [marine] environmental protection, but not less. Here we briefly provide an overview of these overarching protection measures as they influence regional, national and local management measures.

102 In 2015, the United Nations adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the 103 Sustainable Development Goals. There are 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and associated 104 targets, with SDG 14 focused on the oceans. The aim of SDG 14 'Life below water' is to "Conserve and 105 sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development". Of its seven 106 targets, Target 14.3 is to "Minimize and address the impacts of ocean acidification, including through 107 enhanced scientific cooperation at all levels" is the most relevant when considering how estuaries are responding to climate change and how these impacts can be managed. However, it is questionedwhether these targets are operationally satisfactory (Cormier & Elliott 2017).

The United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) is an international environmental treaty, adopted in 1992, whose objective is to stabilise "greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system" (United Nations, 1992). The UNFCCC sets non-binding limits on greenhouse gas emissions and contains no enforcement mechanisms. Rather, it sets out a framework for how specific treaties could be negotiated to meet the objectives in a legally binding manner. The parties to the convention meet annually to assess progress towards the objectives and in tackling climate change.

However, in 1997, the Kyoto Protocol established legally binding obligations for developed countries to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions in the period 2008–2012 (United Nations, 1998). These were superseded by the 2010 United Nations Climate Change Conference which produced an agreement stating that future global warming should be limited to below 2.0 °C (3.6 °F) relative to the preindustrial level (United Nations, 2011).

Below this level, there are regional commissions, where multiple countries who share common seas and/or coastline agree to management measures. For example, the European Commission sets out Directives which, as with global treaties, set the minimum requirements. Under the European Directive for Environmental Impact Assessments (2014/52/EC), developers have a duty to consider the effects their development may have on the repercussions of climate change and vice versa (Lonsdale et al., 2017). Comparable Legislation is found globally, such as the Canadian Impact Assessment Act, 2019, which states that the assessment must consider "the extent to which the effects of the designated project hinder or contribute to the Government of Canada's ability to meet its environmental obligations and its commitments in respect of climate change" (Government of Canada, 2020). 

Similarly, UNEP Regional Seas Conventions, such as the Convention for the Protection and Development of the Marine Environment and Coastal Region of the Mediterranean Sea (Barcelona Convention) and Convention for the Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-east Atlantic (OSPAR Convention), are aimed at protecting marine areas used by multiple countries as a shared resource. The OSPAR North-East Atlantic Environment Strategy 2020 states that "first effects of climate change and ocean acidification are apparent throughout the OSPAR Maritime Area and that 56 138 pressures on the marine environment from climate change and ocean acidification are set to grow" **139** (OSPAR Commission, 2010). As such, and in accordance with this strategy, the OSPAR Secretariat has committed to monitor and assess the nature, rate and extent of the effects of climate change and

ocean acidification on the marine environment and consider appropriate ways of responding to such developments.

At the national level, there are three levels of marine and coastal governance:

> 1) The government sets policy objectives (not thresholds) and priorities for both present day and into the future (e.g. HM Government, 2011; HM Government, 2018a for the UK; Australian Government, 2017 for Australia; Government of Canada, 2018 for Canada);

> 2) Regulators and/or Governments identify tasks to meet the objectives and priorities produced in step 1. An example is maritime spatial planning which aims to support management decisions, which support the policies.

3) **Legislation** is required to implement the tasks identified in step 2.

The treaties set out what is expected, and the national legislation stipulates what can and cannot be done legally to meet the international obligations. For example, in the UK, the Climate Change Act 2008 is an Act of Parliament under which the Secretary of State should ensure, amongst other provisions, that the net UK carbon emissions (including from all six greenhouses gases targeted by the Kyoto Protocol) by 2050 are at least 100% lower than the 1990 baseline. Additionally, an independent UK Committee on Climate Change has been created under the Act to provide advice to UK Government on these targets and related policies. The specific aspects relating to the Humber Estuary, eastern England are explored in Section 3.

The above management measures generally consider geographic scope and scale, and it is only at the local level where estuarine specific aspects are considered. At this local level, the administrators can only enact current law and regulations, and the law may be more focussed on the repercussions of not acting. Local management measures can be binding such as byelaws (which manage certain activities in a certain area), or non-binding, such as codes of conduct or local policies related to, amongst others, climate change adaptation (Defra, 2010).

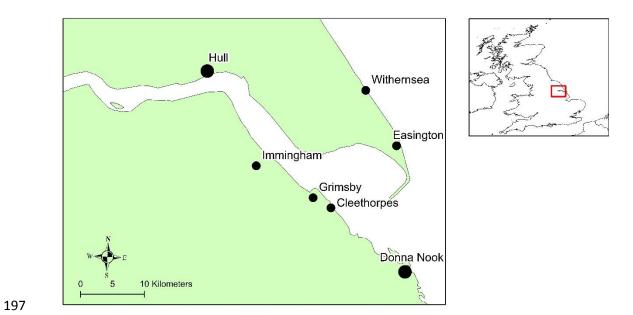
Environmental management in estuaries, as with all other environments, needs to cover horizontal integration, across all the stakeholders in an area, and vertical integration from the local, national and regional to global level obligations. This requires that managers, regulators, and decision makers are in place and that independent reviews of the governance are completed, i.e. a regulatory impact assessment. However, governance structures, especially for the marine environment, are often **170** complex with overlapping roles and responsibilities (Lonsdale et al., 2015; Boyes & Elliott, 2015). There are often perceived conflicts in this approach as the Government may set a policy e.g. increasing reliance on renewable energy, but this requires renewable infrastructure to be built, and the

infrastructure may not be permitted to be built either for environmental (too large an impact) or
societal (objections based on impact to local amenities or economy) grounds. Therefore, it is
questioned what happens if targets are not met despite all departments acting lawfully.

The vertical integration from having international and regional agreements, conventions and protocols which feed into the national and local governance as described above, is generally accepted and well-implemented. However, there is also the need for horizontal integration which requires the coordination of environmental goals and objectives with those of stakeholders across marine sectors (Cormier et al., 2019). For example, constructing an offshore structure could only be permitted if the goals/objectives of a marine protected area were not threatened. As demonstrated by Cormier et al. (2019) and Lonsdale et al. (2015), this horizontal integration is complex: there are usually several regulators (see Section 3 for those relevant to the Humber Estuary) that manage a marine area and activities. Hence, cross-agency communication, with shared visions and agreements is key for effective marine management.

## 186 3 What does this mean in reality? A Case Study of the Humber Estuary, UK

To explore the sufficiency or appropriateness of the legislative framework and regional rules for protecting an estuary against the effects of climate change, we take the well-studied case study of the Humber Estuary in the North East of England. It is one of the largest coastal plain estuaries in the EU, extending approximately 62 km from Trent Falls to the open (North) sea (Figure 2). It is one of the busiest and fastest growing areas for seaborne trade in Europe and provides an important contribution to the UK economy (Ciavola, 1997; Jarvie, et al., 1997; Metcalfe et al., 2000). It supports four major ports: Goole, Hull, Grimsby and Immingham, that import >20% of the UK's total inward tonnage per year (Figure 2) and is rapidly growing as a national base for offshore wind installation and operations in the North Sea. Many industries, cities and towns are clustered near these ports, with much of the remaining land bordering the system used for agriculture.



198 Figure 2 Case Study area

Given the nature conservation importance of the area, the Humber's various habitats and waterways constitute a European Marine Site within the Natura 2000 framework (Lonsdale, 2015). This includes Special Areas of Conservation (SAC), Special Protection Areas (SPA), Sites of Special Scientific Interest (SSSI) and a Heritage Coast site (see Lonsdale, 2015). These designations protect a wide variety of rare and sensitive biological components, including the seabed habitats, benthic communities, seabed features (e.g. sandbanks), mobile fish species (e.g. lamprey), marine mammals (e.g. the grey seal population) and bird species (e.g. the breeding Great bittern, Botaurus stellaris). Many of these sites provide ecosystem services and societal goods and benefits (Turner and Schaafsma, 2015) including tourism and leisure opportunities (Freestone et al., 1987).

Almost 235 km of defences protect the Humber's environmental, social, and economic assets, including managed realignment sites such as Alkborough Flats and other ecoengineering initiatives (Winn et al., 2003; Elliott et al., 2016). However, the storm surge that caused widespread flooding around the estuary in December 2013 (Wragg, 2014), led to the questioning that the estuary management needs improving. The Humber Estuary, like many other estuaries, is susceptible to the effects of climate change and this needs to be considered when management strategies are developed (Wolanski et al., 2019).

## 3.1 Managing Climate Change Impacts

The Humber Estuary is vulnerable to all the potential impacts of Climate Change identified in section 3, but it is important to consider how these impacts manifest at the site-specific level. Table 1 summarises the physical, chemical, and biological effects relevant to the Humber Estuary. The Humber

Estuary is managed through many legislative instruments, from international, to European, national, and regional levels, including voluntary codes of conduct. Hence, management measures within the Humber Estuary are designed to combat the effects of climate change, such as management realignment sites or setting back or raising flood defences (Elliott et al., 2016). This leads to the question of how future proof are these methods especially given any time lag and inertia in the system. The efficacy of management measures aimed at tackling climate change impacts is determined by monitoring such as salinity, species distribution or contamination.

In Section 2, we highlighted the international conventions which set out the requirement for countries
to do something, here we look at the specific requirements for managing a relatively small site in
comparison to the global treaties jurisdiction.

Nationally, The UK Climate Change Act (2008), amended in 2019, is the UK's response to reducing and mitigating against climate change. It requires the UK to act to tackle climate change and reduce greenhouse gas emissions by 100% of 1990 levels by 2050- this is important when considering ongoing (e.g., shipping) or new (e.g., power stations) developments. The UK Marine Policy statement, as required by the Marine and Coastal Access Act 2009, sets out guidelines for maintaining marine environments in healthy, productive and resilient conditions, without compromising the ecosystem services and societal goods and benefits (Kelly at al., 2014; Turner and Schaafsma, 2015). The East Marine Plan (within which the Humber Estuary sits) aims 'to facilitate action on climate change adaptation and mitigation' by identifying areas for renewable energy generation (wave and tidal energy) and carbon capture storage, in line with the European Renewable Energy Directive (2009/28/EC) and the UK Climate Change Act, 2008. Local-level estuarine management is prominent in the Humber Estuary in acknowledging that climate change increases the risk of flooding. The Environment Agency has used a cost-benefit analysis to implement the Humber Flood Risk Management Strategy to manage flood risk, aiming to ensure that 99% of people who live close to the Estuary have a good level of protection against tidal flooding for 25 years following the implementation of the strategy (Environment Agency, 2008). The Humber Flood Risk Strategy complements a range of regional plans, including Shoreline Management Plans (SMP) and Coastal Habitat Management Plans (CHaMP). It is of note that those not protected live at sites where the costbenefit analysis would have indicated that protection is prohibitively expensive given the value of assets protected. See Figure 3 for a visualisation of the Humber relevant management measures.

To determine the sufficiency of the legislative framework and/or the organisations responsible, the
potential impacts highlighted in Section 2, were considered in terms of what (legislation) and who
(authorities) is responsible for managing these impacts (Table 1).

Many of the responsibilities for monitoring and managing the impacts of climate change within the estuary appear to fall onto the Environment Agency, the English environmental protection agency (in the UK, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have their own bodies as devolved agencies). However, some specific responsibility falls to others, such as the Marine Management Organisation (for assessing new development applications) or Local Authorities, and even private organisations, for the maintenance of some flood defences (see Figure 3). Vertical and horizontal integration between these legislative instruments and responsible organisations is therefore imperative to ensure effective management that is compliant with international, regional, and national legislation whilst taking into consideration specific challenges within the Humber Estuary. How this can be achieved is not always clear or straightforward to achieve.

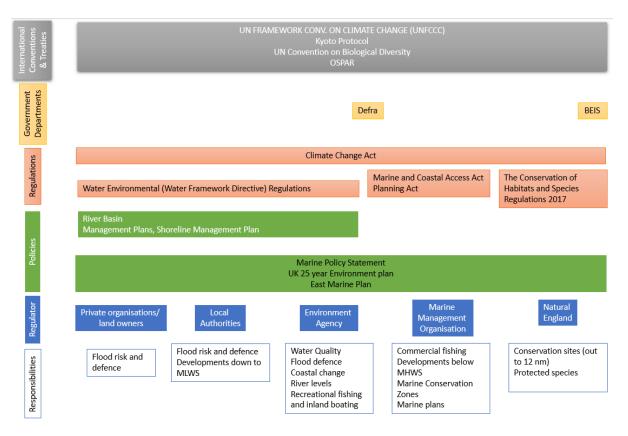


Figure 3 Visualisation of the horizontal and vertical governance of the Humber Estuary specific to estuarine waters management.

A potential weakness in assessing the potential impacts from climate change and the legislative instruments is the task of monitoring for the potential impacts of climate change which may be prohibitively expensive for many organisations. In most cases, it falls solely on the Environment Agency, although there is acknowledgement that other forms of monitoring, such as condition monitoring of the nature conservation features and compliance monitoring for ongoing developments

(Elliott et al., 2022). Models can inform how an area may be impacted by climate change (Falconer et al., 2020), but they have caveats and their spatial and temporal predictability, both from deterministic and empirical modelling, gives them limited use in prioritising areas for monitoring. End-to-end models which link changes to the natural environment with the socio-economic repercussions (Peck et al., 2018) have the potential for use but require expensive parameterisation for individual areas. Hence, to inform management strategies, we need robust modelling to predict potential scenarios and determine harmonised specific responses based on the site-specific information; for instance, the modelling results and management responses for the south coast may not be appropriate or applicable to the Humber Estuary. This would allow for a local policy to be developed, but by learning from local examples, national policy could be more aligned to the UK's responses (both environmental and management) to climate change impacts.

The review in Table 1 also indicates that there is little in the way of preparatory or proactive mitigation measures to combat when, and if, thresholds for biological impacts are reached for example, what is to happen when there is a salinity shift? Is there anything that can be done to offset or mitigate the changes?

Table 1 summary of climate change impacts on estuarine environments, using the Humber Estuary as a case study

	Effect	How it will affect Humber features?	Potential for impact	What is(are) the policy (or policies) addressing the climate change effects	What is(are) the agency (or agencies) implementing the policy (policies)?	What are the major bottlenecks that the executing agency (or agencies) face for successful policy implementation	References
cal	Changes in coastal hydrodynamics	Increases in storm events Changes to tidal currents, range, prism and patterns Changes in erosion and sedimentation Changes in sediment budget Changes to Estuarine morphology	This is likely to be high magnitude.	River Basin Management Plans, Shoreline Management Plan, Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations,	Environment Agency. Local Authorities. Private landowners	Funding and man power to monitor, maintain and where required, create or improve sea defences along a vast coastline.	Andrews et al., 2006; Elliott et al., 2016; Wolanski and Elliott 2019 Lonsdale, 2013; Mori et al., 2010; Passeri et al., 2015; Rhein et al., 2013; Raynor and Chatterton, 2014; Wragg, 2014; Wolf 2009; Woolf & Wolf 2015
Physical	Coastal squeeze	Reduction in intertidal habitat (and species) Changing of land use function (managed realignment sites)	This is likely to be high magnitude. The Humber estuary has multiple sites	River Basin Management Plans, Shoreline Management Plan, Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations,	Environment Agency. Natural England (for compensation sites under Habitats Regulations Assessment)	Funding and man power to monitor coastal squeeze, and then to create, monitor and manage managed realignment sites.	Wolanski and Elliott 201 Elliott et al., 2016; Lonsdale, 2013
Chemical	Ocean Acidification	Buffering capacity of estuarine water, Change to pH via run-off Barrier to species migration Reduce the occurrence of recreation fishing Affect organisms with calcareous shells Increase in mortality	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts.	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations,	Environment Agency	Funding and manpower to monitor pH changes to the extent that natural variability can be included in any assessment. There is currently no precedence for increase pH nor an agreed threshold of when a pH may cause biological impacts.	Brodie et al., 2014; Crip et al., 2011; Dixon et al., 2009; Feely et al., 2010; Orr et al., 2005; Klemetsen et al., 2003; Maitland, 2003; McCormick et al., 1998; Munday et al., 2009; 2010; Pinnegar et al., 2013; Roberts et al., 201 Wittman and Portner, 2013

	Changes in salinity	Affect species physiological and behavior responses Saline incursions of rivers. Barrier to migration Increase in mortality for freshwater species Increase distribution of saline tolerant species	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts.	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations,	Environment Agency	Funding and manpower to monitor pH changes to the extent that natural variability can be included in any assessment. There is currently no	Basset et al., 2013; Elliott and Quintino 2006; Little et al., 2017; Long et al., 1998; Shennan et al., 2000; Whitfield et al., 2012
		Linked to changes in rainfall and run-off patters Balance with greater water use and evaporation in the catchment				precedence for managing salinty nor an agreed threshold of when a salinity level may cause biological impacts.	
	Increase in contamination release	Increase erosion and rainfall can increase the release of contaminants in water column Changes in system to retain and/or recycle nutrients Can lead to increase mortality of species	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts.	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations, Marine and Coastal Access Act	Environment Agency Sediment contamination is also considered by the Marine Management Organization.	Funding and manpower to monitor contaminant changes. Limited resource to tackle increases in water contamination.	Robins et al., 2016; Sheahan et al., 2013; Simpson, 2013; Wither et al., 2013
Biological	Changes in reproduction	Any changes in water chemistry may impact the timing for fisheries migrating and spawning or even become a barrier to migration if conditions are outside of their tolerances	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts.	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations	Environment Agency	Funding and manpower to monitor all potential water quality characteristics and their changes to the extent that natural variability can be included in any assessment. There is currently no precedence for managing nor an agreed threshold of	Brodie et al., 2014; Cripps et al., 2011; Dixon et al., 2009; Feely et al., 2010; Orr et al., 2005; Klemetsen et al., 2003; Maitland, 2003; McCormick et al., 1998; Munday et al., 2009; 2010; Pinnegar et al., 2013; Roberts et al., 2013; Wittman and Portner, 2013

					when levels may cause biological impacts.	
Changes in primary and secondary production	Any changes in water chemistry may impact plankton and benthic species timing for reproducing	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts.	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations	Environment Agency	Funding and manpower to monitor all potential water quality characteristics and their changes to the extent that natural variability can be included in any assessment. There is currently no precedence for managing nor an agreed threshold of when levels may cause biological impacts.	Brodie et al., 2014; C et al., 2011; Dixon et 2009; Feely et al., 20 Orr et al., 2005; Klemetsen et al., 200 Maitland, 2003; McCormick et al., 19 Munday et al., 2009; 2010; Pinnegar et al. 2013; Roberts et al., Wittman and Portne 2013
Changes in species distribution	Increase in tolerant species and extend distribution Decrease in species intolerant of temperature Increase likelihood of non-native species Change of ecosystem structure and function Change to ecosystem goods and services	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts.	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations	Environment Agency.	Funding and man power to monitor along a vast coastline and water columns to identify and monitor non-native species presence.	Bentley, 2011; Cook 2013; Edwards et al. Elliott et al., 2015; Gi et al., 2008; Klemets al., 2003; Lonsdale et 2013; Maitland, 2003 McCormick et al., 19 Mieszkowska et al., 2 Nunn et al., 2008; Ol et al., 2011; Pinnegar al., 2013; Sheahan et 2013; Turner and Schaafsma, 2015.
Changes in physiological responses	Affect physiological behaviours (e.g. oxygen metabolism, adult mortality, reproduction, respiration, reproductive development), Affect seasonal reproduction	There is no consensus on the magnitude of these impacts. Management is restricted to monitoring the distribution of species and physiological responses	Water Environmental (Water Framework Directive) Regulations	Environment Agency	Funding and manpower to monitor all potential water quality characteristics and their changes to the extent that natural variability can be included in any assessment.	Durant et al., 2007; Lonsdale et al., 2013 Nunn et al., 2008; Klemetsen et al., 200 Maitland, 2003; McCormick et al., 19 Pankhurst and Munc 2011; Pörtner and Kr 2007.

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# 289 4 How can management better address Climate Change?

Climate change is bringing challenges to the effective and sustainable management of estuaries, and
these will continue over the long-term. For effective management, we have assessed that the Humber
Estuary requires the managers and regulators to work together, even where there are competing
targets, but we have also identified (from Table 1) the impediments to effective management:

- The funding and manpower to monitor the multiple parameters across a large area.

 That there is much monitoring being undertaken to understand trends and potential impacts, but there is comparatively little being done to combat these (with the exception of flood defence, followed by managed realignment sites to combat coastal squeeze).

298 - Understanding the magnitude of any changes due to natural variation.

 Not having any guidance or precedence for managing or rather mitigating against changes in parameters such as pH and salinity. Given an understanding of estuarine hydrodynamics, there is relatively little that is possible to modify or reverse pH or salinity changes.

- There are many objectives but fewer thresholds about when a change may require intervention, instead relying on expert judgement.

Overall, there appears to be a jump in these management systems: we have policy objectives and regulated targets to meet, and monitoring is being undertaken to inform progress, but there appears to be gaps regarding what these changes mean and what can be done about them. There are already a number of rigorous management and risk assessment frameworks available such as Environmental Impact Assessment (Lonsdale et al., 2017), Decision Support Systems (e.g. Lonsdale et al., 2018; 2015), the DAPSI(W)R(M) cause-consequence-response framework and the ISO standard Bowtie analysis (e.g. Elliott, et al., 2017; Cormier et al., 2019) to help inform discussions. Despite this, the regulators and environmental managers require government backing and support to make a difference (see also Lonsdale et al., 2015).

For instance, changes in temperature could increase the likelihood of non-native species inhabiting estuarine waters and this is complex to monitor, map and manage. There are few, if any, effective measures to address this at present and requires management at the local level, relevant to sitespecific conditions and the species that become established (Olenin *et al.*, 2011). The relationship between the global and local scales is an ongoing challenge, particularly given the uncertainty surrounding the quantification of the potential impacts of climate change. Cross departmental strategies, which consider multiple targets, need to be sufficiently flexible to allow targets and

320 mitigation/adaptation methods to be updated according to site-specific conditions and increasing321 knowledge.

It appears that the Humber Estuary, has good vertical integration of governance from the local to global thereby facilitating suitable management measures across all levels. However, ideally, policies and legislative instruments, should include prescriptive guidance for what thresholds indicate an issue e.g. approaching an action points (a reference condition, threshold, trigger or tipping point (Elliott et al., 2022), or what actions can be taken. To ensure successful and sustainable development, the policies and strategies require to be tested rigourously, for example against the ten-tenets of sustainable management (Elliott, 2013; Barnard and Elliott, 2015). These cover the ecological, economic, technological, societal, administrative, legislative, political, ethical (moral), cultural and communication aspects of sustainable solutions. Hence, wider education, and engagement of stakeholders (e.g. CEDA, 2012; Newton and Elliott, 2016) is required to address these issues and ensure adaptive capacity is recognised and built into plans, policies, and existing developments. In line with the coordination of climate change adaptation, this requires ensuring adaptive capacity is maintained through all levels of the estuary stakeholders. The collation and dissemination of evidence and monitoring data will become increasingly important to identify whether the effects and trends of climate change are apparent. By ensuring the monitoring data and evidence are shared, the effects and adaptive management strategies can be fed into marine plans to provide long-term resilience to climate change and allow a greater integration, awareness and understanding of the effects of climate change into policy and infrastructure changes. For example, this includes the need to consider all the effects of individual managed realignment sites at the estuary level.

### 341 5 Concluding Remarks

This paper details the potential challenges associated with managing vulnerable estuarine environments in the face of climate change. There are efforts by stakeholders to address some of the effects of climate change, but the ways in which estuaries are managed, from the local to the global scale, needs to be improved. Given the complexity of the system, ranging from the natural to the societal, calls for a systems analysis approach (Elliott et al. 2020) and hence recently developed decision support systems (e.g. Lonsdale et al., 2018) give progress towards this end. The causes and effects of exogenic pressures combined in climate change are relevant from the local to the global, and co-ordination is needed across all levels to encourage effective, suitable, and sustainable management (Wolanski et al., 2019). In particular, while the causes need to be addressed at the global level, the consequence need addressing at the local level. Hence, the link between the global and local needs to be considered within legislation to facilitate the implementation of suitable management

353 measures across all levels. This would enable scientists, managers and decision makers to address site-354 specific climate change effects, relevant to the areas they manage whilst remaining within the 355 boundaries of more global-based guidance (Elliott *et al.*, 2015; Robins *et al.*, 2016; Wolanski *et al.*, 356 2019).

Using a case study of the Humber Estuary, this study demonstrates the impediments to effective and long term management against the potential harmful effects of climate change on the marine environment. The main bottleneck being the lack of resources, or rather the current inability to monitor all aspects of the estuarine waters and coastline, and the inability to currently address some of the effects. Many of the effects are wide-ranging and therefore it requires the culmination of mitigation measures on a scale larger than the estuary level to effectively mitigate against the effects. To do this, requires the use of frameworks to assess the potential impacts of any effects, the use of tools such as models, although their use is associated with limitations, and the integration of the governance structures, both vertically and horizontally.

There is extensive monitoring carried out on the Humber but monitoring is not a management measure but rather the means of determining whether management measures have been effective (Wolanski and Elliott, 2015; Elliott et al. 2022), and hence we need to understand the physical, biological and chemical environment to inform management. A major gap is the availability of data to understand the magnitude of the effects of climate change and what can be done about it.

As shown here, there is an increasing understanding of how our climate is changing, how environmental systems such as estuaries are affected, and the ways they can be managed to become more resistant and resilient through informed decision frameworks. Whilst targets, ambitions and goals are useful tools to ensure issues relating to impacts from climate change are tackled, there is the risk that the focus is on meeting targets, will not address the ancillary issues, for example, at local or regional levels. Due to the global-reaching impacts of climate change, a national strategy for harmonising targets and combatting climate change impacts may be an effective solution, albeit, costly to coordinate, implement and monitor.

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