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2 **MANAGED REALIGNMENT**

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6 **Synonyms**

7 De-embankment; Managed retreat; Setback

8 **Definition**

9 Managed realignment most often involves the planned
10 breaching or removal of coastal defenses to create new
11 intertidal habitats aiming to improve flood risk manage-
12 ment with added environmental value. Managed realign-
13 ment is usually implemented in low-lying estuarine or
14 open coast sites, and may require the construction of
15 a new line of defenses to control flood risk. Hence, the
16 expression “managed realignment” may refer to the relo-
17 cation of both the coastline and the flood defense line.
18 An overview of the different definitions used in the litera-
19 ture is provided in Esteves (2014).

20 **A shift from the traditional ‘hold-the-line’ 21 approach of coastal protection**

22 Managed realignment is one of the soft engineering
23 approaches to coastal protection (see “Coastal Protection
24 (Soft Engineering)”). By working with coastal processes,
25 managed realignment aims to increase the sustainability
26 of coastal protection while at the same time reducing
27 adverse environmental impacts normally associated with
28 hard engineering (French, 1997). For centuries, hard engi-
29 neering structures (see “Coastal Protection (Hard Engi-
30 neering)”) have been built to protect assets at the coast
31 from erosion and flooding events. These hard structures
32 have created a legacy of coastal management problems,
33 which are now considered unacceptable, including the

loss of intertidal habitats due to coastal squeeze 34
(Figure 1a). 35

The two most important climate change effects 36
predicted for coastal areas are sea-level rise and more fre- 37
quent and intense extreme weather events (e.g., IPCC, 38
2007). Climate change impacts are likely to increase the 39
risk of flooding and erosion posing a greater threat to peo- 40
ple and infrastructure at many coastal locations. It is there- 41
fore required that coastal defenses are upgraded and more 42
frequently maintained so they continue to provide the cur- 43
rent level of protection to inland areas in the future. The 44
consequent increase in costs of coastal protection has 45
made the traditional “hold-the-line” approach 46
unsustainable in many coastal areas. Managed realign- 47
ment is an increasingly popular alternative to address both 48
the economic viability and the environmental sustainabil- 49
ity of coastal protection, especially in reclaimed estuarine 50
areas (French, 2001). 51

Unlike coastlines “fixed” by hard coastal engineering, 52
natural coasts dynamically respond to changes in accom- 53
modation space due to sea-level fluctuations or alterations 54
in sediment budget. Saltmarshes, for example, depending 55
on a number of interacting biotic and abiotic variables 56
(e.g., the accommodation space and sediment supply), 57
can migrate inland and accrete vertically, naturally 58
adjusting to rising sea levels. These intertidal habitats pro- 59
vide a number of ecosystem services (e.g., Luisetti et al., 60
2011), such as natural coastal protection by dissipating 61
wave energy (Möller et al., 2007), therefore contributing 62
to reduced flood risk to inland areas and the associated 63
cost of maintaining existing flood defenses. 64

65 **Geographic distribution**

The first managed realignment projects were implemented 66
in France in 1981 and in Germany and the Netherlands in 67
1989 (Esteves, 2014). Managed realignment has 68
since become increasingly popular in northern Europe 69

(Mazik et al., 2010), especially in England (where the highest number of projects has been implemented), Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, and France. A list of projects implemented in Europe, including their main characteristics, is available from the *ABPmer Online Managed Realignment Guide* (<http://www.abpmer.net/omreg/>). The main objectives and the way projects are implemented vary considerably between these countries.

In England, managed realignment is implemented to create intertidal habitat and to deliver more sustainable flood risk management, e.g., by reducing costs and aggregating environmental and amenity values (Esteves, 2013). In Germany, managed realignment sites are found along the coast of Lower Saxony (by the North Sea) and Mecklenburg–Western Pomerania (by the Baltic Sea), but the objectives differ across these two areas (Rupp-Armstrong and Nicholls, 2007). In Lower Saxony, managed realignment is usually implemented for compensation reasons (i.e., loss of intertidal habitats due to coastal development, port construction etc.). In Western Pomerania managed realignment often combines the need for improvement of flood defenses and creation of new intertidal habitats. In Belgium most projects have been implemented along the Scheldt Estuary through the mechanism of controlled reduced tide (Beauchard et al., 2011; Teuchies et al., 2012) for compensation of damage or loss of intertidal habitats.

Outside Europe, managed realignment projects exist but are not known as such, being difficult to ascertain how many already exist. Although the terms managed realignment and managed retreat are often used interchangeably in the UK (e.g., French, 2001), elsewhere managed retreat refers to the relocation of people and assets at risk (e.g., National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Office of Ocean and Coastal Resource Management; http://coastalmanagement.noaa.gov/initiatives/shoreline_ppr_retreat.html).

How does it work?

By allowing tidal waters to flow further inland through breached defenses, managed realignment creates new intertidal areas (Figure 1b) and accommodation space for sediment deposition. It is expected that the realignment site will act as a sink for sediments, favoring the development of saltmarshes. The resulting wider intertidal profile provides natural coastal protection through the dissipation of wave energy (French, 1997), which tends to be significantly greater over saltmarshes than over un-vegetated intertidal flats (Möller et al., 2007). Saltmarsh development enhances local biodiversity and the sustainability of coastal protection and, therefore, is crucial for the success of managed realignment as a sustainable coastal management approach.

Information on the performance of managed realignment projects is still scarce as most projects do not benefit from systematic long-term monitoring (Spencer and Harvey, 2012). Although many gray literature reports

have been produced by consultants contracted to conduct the design, implementation, and monitoring of the schemes, only few independent monitoring studies have been published in peer-reviewed journals. The existing articles indicate diverse findings on the development of saltmarshes at managed realignment sites.

Vegetation colonization at managed realignment sites is reported to occur rapidly, most commonly dominated by pioneer saltmarsh species, as reported in sites along the Blackwater Estuary in England. Garbutt et al. (2006) suggested that the low elevation of the Tollesbury site contributed to the dominance of pioneer saltmarsh recorded 6 years after the breaching of defenses. At Orplands Farm, 8 years after managed realignment, the site showed low species saturation index and was dominated by pioneer and low marsh species due to poor drainage and seed availability (Spencer et al., 2008). At Freiston Shore (The Wash, England), high sediment input favored rapid colonization by pioneer saltmarsh vegetation (Friess et al., 2012). However, sediment had originated from the erosion of adjacent established habitats caused by the unexpected growth of the tidal creeks at the breaches (Rotman et al., 2008).

In their analysis of saltmarsh re-creation in Europe, Wolters et al. (2005) observed that only 50 % of the expected species were found at sites smaller than 30 ha. The authors concluded that biodiversity increased at sites larger than 100 ha, where the largest range of elevations between mean high water of neap and spring tides occur. Many managed realignment sites in England and elsewhere are small (<20 ha), low-lying, and confined by a new line of coastal defenses. These characteristics compromise the sustainability of managed realignment sites, as the lifetime of the newly created intertidal habitats depends on whether sediment availability (and other variables) will allow vertical accretion at rates that will cope with rising sea levels (Esteves, 2013). If saltmarshes are not able to fully develop (e.g., due to the small size or low elevation of managed realignment (MR) sites), it is just a matter of time until water levels reach the new line of defenses and the new intertidal habitats are again lost due to coastal squeeze (Figure 1b).

Many managed realignment projects have re-creation of intertidal habitats as a primary objective. This approach is partially driven by the need to address statutory duties (e.g., the EU Habitats Directive) to take all necessary measures to avoid detrimental impact to designated conservation areas and provide compensation for loss of these habitats. However, recent studies have indicated that marshes created by managed realignment are “significantly impaired” in their ability to deliver ecosystem services when compared with natural systems (Spencer and Harvey, 2012) and do not meet the requirements of the EU Habitats Directive (Mossman et al., 2012). Ecosystem services valuation (Luisetti et al., 2011) concluded that managed realignment can be economically efficient at time frames longer than 25 years. However, results are site-specific and should not be generalized, especially

184 when “complex social decisions” are involved (Luisetti
185 et al., 2011), such as in areas where people and assets are
186 at risk.

187 **Managed realignment versus managed retreat**

188 The focus of managed realignment projects oscillates
189 between improved flood risk management and environ-
190 mental objectives, often with a bias toward habitat crea-
191 tion. Usually, medium- to long-term effects on flood risk
192 to inland areas are not clearly assessed, probably due to
193 uncertainties on the type of intertidal habitat that will
194 develop and how they will evolve through time. Where
195 saltmarshes fail to develop, coastal squeeze resumes as
196 sea level rises, posing a higher risk of flooding to people
197 and property. Conceptually, managed realignment has
198 great potential to (1) provide space for the creation of
199 intertidal habitats, (2) provide natural defense against
200 storms and rising sea levels, and (3) contribute to the
201 achievement of EU directives (i.e., floods, habitats, and
202 water framework). Esteves (2013) states that for this
203 potential to be realized, it is necessary that managed
204 realignment implementation (1) follows a long-term stra-
205 tegic plan that effectively integrates its multiple objectives
206 (e.g., habitat creation, flood protection, and amenity),
207 (2) has clearly defined local and national targets at known
208 time frames, (3) benefits from systematic monitoring so
209 performance can be adequately measured against targets,
210 and (4) is evaluated based on evidence so adjustments to
211 the strategy can be put in place where necessary.

212 In contrast with managed realignment, the main objec-
213 tive of managed retreat is the relocation of people and
214 assets at risk. Implementation of managed retreat might
215 include relocation of single structures at risk (e.g., the his-
216 toric Cape Hatteras Lighthouse, USA) or a series of mea-
217 sures to reduce the number of people and property at risk
218 (e.g., the compulsory purchasing of property at high risk
219 adopted in France after the aftermath of the Xynthia storm
220 of 2010). Implementation of such schemes is complex due
221 to the range of public perception conflicts (e.g., Roca and
222 Villares, 2012), in addition to institutional capacity and
223 economic constraints. Managed retreat usually requires
224 strong integration between long-term planning and the
225 sustainability of risk reduction measures, which is often
226 deficient in public administrations. However, challenging
227 times require drastic changes and the only safe climate-
228 proof response at all temporal and spatial scales is to
229 reduce the number of people and assets at risk. As it is
230 an effective mechanism to reduce risk from both climatic
231 variability and extreme events, managed retreat has
232 increasingly been implemented (or planned) in many loca-
233 tions worldwide.

234 It is important to note that, so far, managed realignment
235 has been implemented only in rural areas. However, as
236 flood defenses are moved further inland, a long-term strat-
237 egy is required to prevent risk to inland areas becoming
238 unacceptable. Managed retreat deals with development
239 in hazard-prone areas and, combined with long-term

planning, may be applicable to a range of urban and indus- 240
trial areas. A more effective strategy to reduce the risk of 241
flooding to people and property would involve long-term 242
planning objectives with both managed realignment and 243
managed retreat implemented in predefined time frames. 244

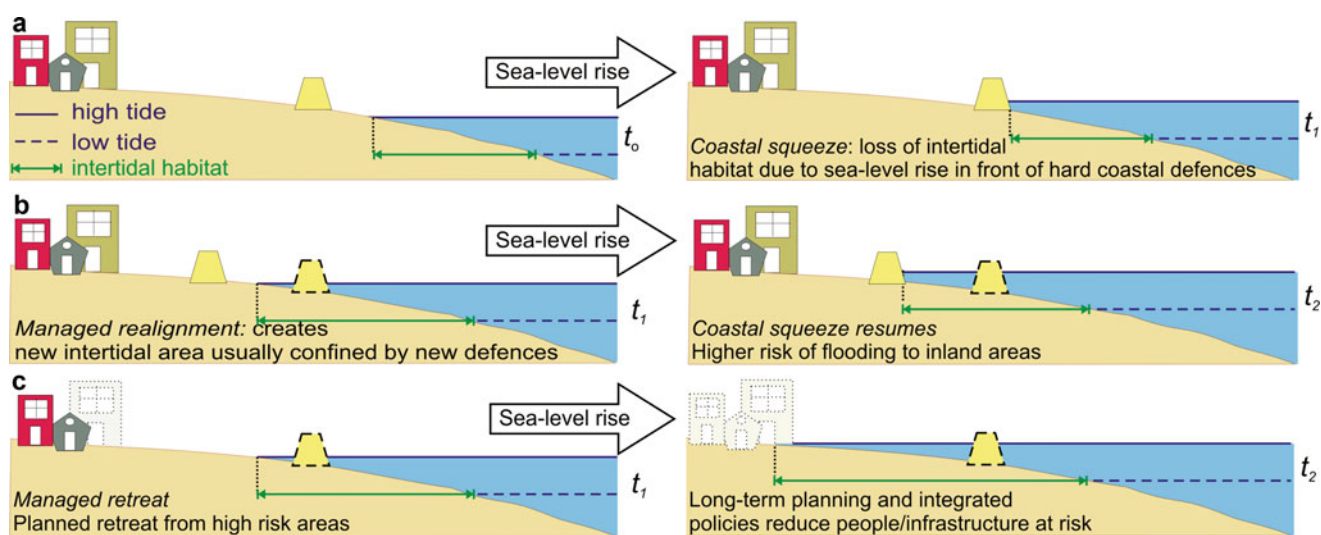
245 **Summary**

246 Managed realignment is a soft engineering approach that 246
aims to create intertidal habitat (especially saltmarshes) 247
through the artificial breaching or removal of flood 248
defenses. The creation of intertidal habitats has two main 249
aims: (1) to offset the loss of designated intertidal habitat 250
(due to coastal squeeze and developmental pressures) 251
and (2) to dissipate wave energy to offer sustainable 252
coastal protection. Managed realignment is becoming 253
a popular coastal management approach in northern 254
Europe. As managed realignment is a relatively new 255
approach, there is a need to better understand the short- 256
to long-term effects on (1) local sedimentary processes, 257
(2) inland flood risk and development of intertidal habitats 258
(and associated biota), (3) and wider socioeconomic and 259
environmental implications. 260

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Managed Realignment, Figure 1 Schematic diagram representing: (a) coastal squeeze, the loss of intertidal areas due to rising sea levels in front of fixed coastlines; (b) managed realignment, the creation of new intertidal area and the return of coastal squeeze at sites where saltmarshes fail to develop; and (c) managed retreat, which integrates land-use planning and long-term risk reduction by creating new intertidal habitats and removing people and property from risk areas. Different moments in time are indicated by t_{0-2}

Uncorrected Proof