

Causal approach to environmental risks of seabed mining

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21 **ABSTRACT**

22 Seabed mining is approaching the commercial mining phase across the world's oceans.
23 This rapid industrialization of seabed resource use is introducing new pressures to marine
24 environments. The environmental impacts of such pressures should be carefully evaluated
25 prior to permitting new activities, yet observational data is mostly missing. Here, we
26 examine the environmental risks of seabed mining using a causal, probabilistic network
27 approach. Drawing on a series of interviews with a multidisciplinary group of experts, we
28 outline the cause-effect pathways related to seabed mining activities to inform quantitative
29 risk assessments. The approach consists of (1) iterative model building with experts to
30 identify the causal connections between seabed mining activities and the affected
31 ecosystem components, and (2) quantitative probabilistic modelling to provide estimates of
32 mortality of benthic fauna in the Baltic Sea. The model is used to evaluate alternative
33 mining scenarios, offering a quantitative means to highlight the uncertainties around the
34 impacts of mining. We further outline requirements for operationalizing quantitative risk
35 assessments, highlighting the importance of a cross-disciplinary approach to risk
36 identification. The model can be used to support permitting processes by providing a more
37 comprehensive description of the potential environmental impacts of seabed resource use,
38 allowing iterative updating of the model as new information becomes available.

39 **Keywords:** Bayesian networks, causal maps, ecological risk assessment, expert
40 elicitation, multiple pressures, probabilistic modelling, seabed mining

41

42 **1. INTRODUCTION**

43 The oceans are facing increasing pressures from human activities. The intensified use of
44 marine space and resources is embodied both through expansion of existing activities
45 (Halpern et al. 2015), and creating new industries for marine resource use (Voyer et al.
46 2018; Winther et al. 2020). To ensure sustainable development of maritime activities, the
47 impacts of new types of activities should be carefully evaluated prior to permitting them
48 (Borja et al. 2016). Seabed mining is one of the rapidly emerging sectors promoted to
49 support resource sufficiency, with especially the deep seabed presented as a new frontier
50 for resource extraction (Hein et al. 2013). However, dealing with impacts of activities that
51 do not take place yet means that there is no observational data on the impacts, with high
52 uncertainties on both the implementation of the activity and its consequences for the
53 environment. This uncertainty creates a challenge to estimate the impacts in a way that is
54 scientifically robust, while accounting for the knowledge gaps and scarcity of data to
55 support decision-making.

56 Current plans for mining are outlined both in shallow continental shelf areas and the deep
57 sea, encompassing areas within national jurisdiction of sovereign states and the
58 international seabed in the 'Area' (Miller et al. 2018). While most initiatives are still at an
59 exploratory stage, the increasing need for raw materials is pushing countries to consider
60 where to get their mineral resources in the future (Vidal et al. 2017).

61 Seabed mining will likely affect all levels of marine ecosystems, including the water column
62 and the seafloor (Boschen et al. 2013; Kaikkonen et al. 2018; Miller et al. 2018). The
63 potential environmental impacts of mining have been addressed in an increasing number
64 of studies (Miljutin et al. 2011; Jones et al. 2017; Orcutt et al. 2018; Simon-Lledó et al.
65 2019). Even with valuable data from these experiments, the impact studies conducted to

66 date offer a scattered view of the environmental impacts, with no attempts to synthesize
67 impacts to support an operational assessment. It is further uncertain to what extent the
68 empirical disturbance studies succeed in scaling up to industrial mining operations (Jones
69 et al. 2017).

70 Environmental risk assessment (ERA) is a process aiming to evaluate the different
71 possible outcomes following human activities (Burgman 2005). A risk in this context is
72 defined as any unwanted event (here 'impact') and its probability. Currently, most ERAs
73 build on estimating ecosystem responses to pressures based on vulnerability of the
74 environment through semi-quantitative scoring instead of the activity itself (Stelzenmueller
75 et al. 2015; Washburn et al. 2019; Quemmerais-Amice et al. 2020), and as such are not
76 well suited for describing different possible combinations of outcomes from new untested
77 activities. By assuming additive relationships of pressures, these approaches often neglect
78 the synergistic and antagonistic effects of pressures (Halpern and Fujita 2013).

79 A broader appreciation of the risks in the context of new maritime activities thus calls for
80 improved systems thinking, structured approaches, and integration of knowledge from
81 multiple sources and disciplines (Holsman et al. 2017). Updating of prior knowledge is
82 important to evaluate to what extent new studies could decrease the uncertainties. A first
83 step towards a comprehensive view of the risks stemming from seabed mining activities
84 requires identifying the sources of changes in the environment, affected ecosystems
85 components, and any further variables associated with these.

86 Drawing on the recognition of causes and effects, causal chains or networks offer a
87 systematic method to study environmental impacts (Perdicoúlis and Glasson 2006). By
88 describing the factors affecting the state of the system in as much detail as possible,
89 causal networks enable evaluating multiple scenarios and improve understanding of the
90 underlying mechanisms in the studied system (Pearl 2009). When applied in

91 environmental management, causal approaches have been shown to be useful in policy
92 interventions and management (Carriger et al. 2016; Carriger et al. 2018).

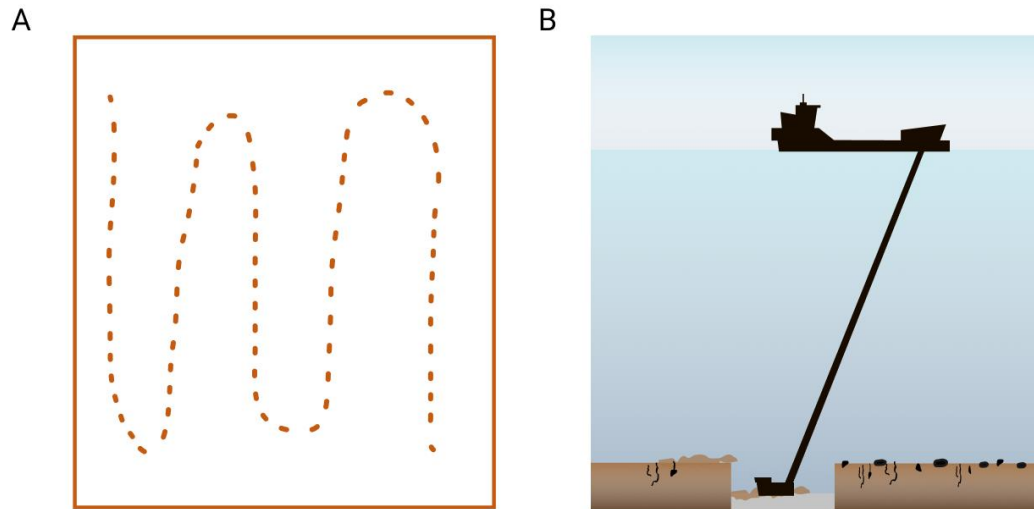
93 Bayesian networks (BNs) are graphical models that represent a joint probability distribution
94 over a set of variables and provide an alternative to commonly used scoring procedures in
95 ERAs (Pearl 1986; Kaikkonen et al. 2021). In BNs, the strength of each connection
96 between variables is described through conditional probabilities. As probabilistic models,
97 the result of a BN is not a single point estimate, but a probability distribution over the
98 possible values of each variable, allowing estimating not only the most likely outcome, but
99 also the uncertainty associated with the estimates (Varis et al. 1990; Fenton and Neil
100 2012). BNs can thus be used to synthesize outcomes of multiple scenarios by evaluating
101 possible combinations of events and weighting them according to how likely they are.
102 Given their modular structure, they can be used to support integrative modelling and can
103 accommodate inputs from multiple sources, including simulations, empirical data, and
104 expert knowledge (Uusitalo 2007; Helle et al. 2020).

105 Here, we describe an approach for integrating expert knowledge into a causal risk
106 assessment for seabed mining. We use the Baltic Sea as an example to test our
107 approach, as mining iron-manganese nodules has already been tested in an industrial
108 setting in this area (Zhamoida et al. 2017) and the ecosystem components and food web
109 structure are well studied (Yletyinen et al. 2016; Reusch et al. 2018; Törnroos et al. 2019).
110 Given the number of ongoing seabed mining initiatives and attempts to quantify impacts,
111 the aim of this work is to provide a framework that allows combining information from
112 multiple sources by bringing ecological information to risk analysis while explicitly
113 addressing uncertainty. To move towards a quantitative risk assessment, we demonstrate
114 the use of BNs in an operational setting and discuss needs for a quantitative ERA in the
115 context of emerging maritime activities.

116 **2. CASE STUDY BACKGROUND**

117 Our case study deals with ferromanganese (FeMn) concretion removal in the northern
118 Baltic Sea. The Baltic Sea is characterized by low species richness compared to many
119 marine areas, and the food web structure and ecological traits characterizing major taxa
120 have been well described (Törnroos and Bonsdorff 2012). Due to the relatively shallow
121 depth of the Baltic Sea, the extraction activity is to some extent comparable to sand and
122 gravel extraction and would likely be performed by suction hopper dredging (Zhamoida et
123 al. 2017).

124 In our study scenario, mineral extraction is restricted to areas with a minimum depth of 40
125 meters, assuming regulatory limits of such activities below the aphotic zone (Kostamo
126 2021). The densest occurrences of FeMn concretions in Baltic Sea are also found below
127 these depths (Kaikkonen et al. 2019). We assume that extraction is performed in a zig-zag
128 pattern in a limited extraction area of 1 km² and it removes all concretions in the path of the
129 suction head (Fig. 1). Here we assume homogeneous impacts on the areas that are not
130 subject to direct extraction, although in reality the spatial footprint of impacts is dependent
131 on the particle movement and distance of a point from the extraction area (Smith and
132 Friedrichs 2011; Spearman 2015). Risks related to operating the vessels and impacts
133 during transportation are not considered, as they are well addressed in other studies
134 (Kulkarni et al. 2020).



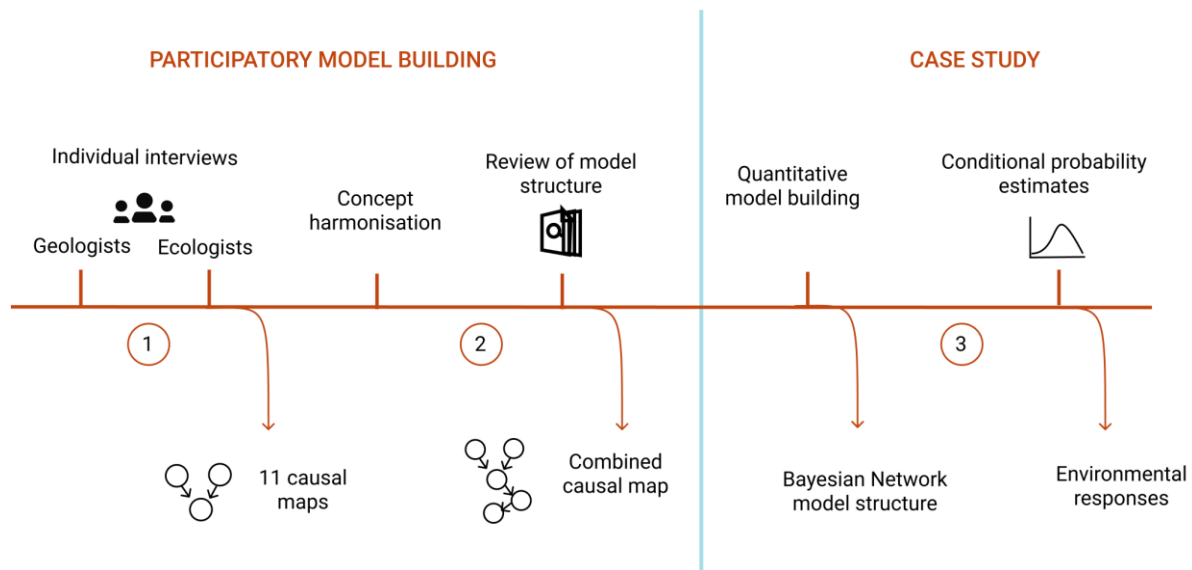
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136 **Figure 1.** A) Plan view and B) profile view of mining a 1 km² mining block. The dotted
137 lines in panel A illustrate the extraction pattern of the mining device in a discrete block with
138 FeMn concretions.

139 3. METHODS

140 We apply a 3-step approach for working together with experts to create a model that
141 summarizes the causal connections in the system and enables providing quantitative risk
142 and uncertainty estimates (Fig. 2). The first step consists of mapping the relationships
143 between key drivers and ecosystem responses with experts in semi-structured interviews.
144 The use of structured methods for expert elicitation has been highlighted in recent years,
145 and here we follow a modified version of the IDEA (Investigate-Discuss-Estimate-
146 Aggregate) protocol that consists of both individual and aggregated assessments from
147 experts (Burgman 2016; Hemming et al. 2018). Although the method is designed for
148 quantitative estimates, here we use it only for qualitative causal mapping to test a
149 structured approach for more comprehensive interviews. In the second step, a combined
150 model structure is created and reviewed by the experts in an iterative manner until a

151 satisfactory model structure was obtained. The final step consists of quantifying the
152 magnitude of the ecosystem impacts through conditional probabilities.



153

154 **Figure 2.** Conceptual figure of the modelling process summarizing the activities within the
155 proposed approach (upper panel) and four main outcomes (lower panel).

156 3.1 Step 1: Expert interviews

157 Framing the system and the connections between variables was performed as a causal
158 mapping exercise with a multidisciplinary group of experts. The aim of causal mapping is
159 to explore an individual's view on a system under different scenarios by detailing the
160 causes and effects. In an ERA context, this step constitutes the risk identification stage
161 (Suter II 2016). Experts were recruited through snowball sampling by consulting
162 researchers in different fields of marine sciences. To attain a diverse sample and sources
163 of knowledge, we sent invitations to experts representing varying backgrounds in different
164 institutes. The final list of experts participating in the study included 11 experts from
165 universities in Finland and Sweden, governmental research institutes, as well as
166 intergovernmental organizations working on the Baltic Sea (ICES, HELCOM).

167 The causal mapping exercise was conducted through semi-structured interviews. We used
168 individual interviews, as group interviews can be dominated by a small number of
169 individuals (Martin et al. 2012), and experts' judgments can be influenced by their peers
170 (O'Hagan et al. 2006). Gradual elicitation allowed us to evaluate when a sufficient number
171 of experts had been interviewed by monitoring when the number of variables no longer
172 increased with the addition of new experts.

173 Semi-structured interviews were held at a location chosen by the interviewee or via an
174 online connection. For face-to-face interviews, causal maps were drawn on paper,
175 whereas in online interviews maps were constructed using an online drawing tool. All
176 interviews were recorded with consent from the interviewee.

177 At the beginning of each interview, participants were introduced to the use of causal
178 networks. Each expert was presented with the same scenario of the mining activity and the
179 changes in the environment arising from the activity, noted as pressures (Table 1). Details
180 on how mining would likely be carried out were drawn from literature and informal
181 consultation with experts in geology and mineral resource extraction.

182 **Table 1.** Physicochemical changes in the environment (pressures) arising from mining
183 used as a starting point in causal mapping with experts.

Pressure type	Description and references
Nodule removal	FeMn concretion removal from a mining block. Contributes to loss of hard substrate on otherwise soft seabed.
Modification of seafloor substrate type	Measure of changes in the sediment environment, including changes in: <ul style="list-style-type: none">· Grain size· Sediment porosity· Sediment compaction

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Organic enrichment · Pore water composition · Oxygen penetration depth
Modification of seafloor topography	Changes in seafloor topography following extraction activities (Zhamoida et al. 2017).
Sediment dispersal in the water column	Total suspended solids concentration near the surface or in the water column both from the processing return and mining tool operation (Spearman 2015).
Sediment dispersal near seafloor	Total suspended solids concentration near the seafloor resulting from the processing return and mining tool operation (Sharma et al. 2001).
Release of nutrients from the sediment	Release of soluble nutrients from the sediment plume to the seabed water column (Jones and Lee 1981; Lohrer and Wetz 2003).
Release of toxic substances from the sediment	Release of contaminants from the sediment plume to the water column (Simpson and Spadaro 2016; Hauton et al. 2017; Couvidat et al. 2018).
Underwater noise	Noise from the mining operation, including extraction of the substrate and vessel operations (Robinson et al. 2011; Theobald et al. 2011).

184

185 The first three interviews were held with marine geologists with experience in underwater
 186 mining technology. These interviews were used to adjust the pressures identified in a
 187 literature review and to identify environmental parameters and operational factors likely to
 188 affect the magnitude of the physiochemical changes arising from mining (Table 1). These
 189 variables form the core of the model by describing the basic processes related to mining.

190 To explore the ecological impacts arising from these pressures, the following eight
191 interviews were conducted with marine ecologists. Each expert was presented with the
192 same scenario of the mining activity and the physicochemical pressures identified in the
193 first phase with the geologists (Table 1). The experts were then asked which ecosystem
194 components they think will be affected by these pressures. Whenever possible, experts
195 were asked to rate the strength of the causal connection on a 1–3 scale. As the number of
196 individual species even in the relatively species-poor Baltic Sea is too high to include in
197 one model, we reduced this complexity by asking experts to address the affected
198 organisms through the functional traits that would differentiate the effects on these
199 organisms.

200 Experts were given unlimited time to complete the causal map and were informed that they
201 may modify the causal map after the interview. After each interview (approximately 2–3
202 hours each), the causal maps were digitized, and the resulting maps were sent to the
203 experts for verification.

204 **3.2 Step 2: Combining causal maps**

205 To obtain a comprehensive view of the environmental impacts of mining, the individual
206 causal maps were combined into one causal network. To do this, we coded the
207 connections between variables in the individual causal maps to adjacency matrices using
208 the assigned link strengths whenever available. Prior to combining the maps, variables
209 were harmonized and combined so that similar concepts were grouped under one
210 variable. For instance, the terms “polychaetes”, “annelids”, and “worms” were grouped
211 under ‘mobile infauna’ (see Table S1 in Supporting Information for full details of individual
212 maps).

213 The final list of functional groups was compiled from the traits and taxa mentioned in the
214 expert interviews and groupings used in other studies (Hewitt et al. 2018) based on the
215 expected response of organisms to the pressures caused by mining so that the traits
216 characterize differential responses in the organisms. Here, traits are treated as binary
217 variables, although most species express a variety of traits (Villnäs et al. 2018).

218 While elicitation of individual causal maps has been explored in depth in literature (Özesmi
219 and Özesmi 2004; LaMere et al. 2020), there is little guidance on how to systematically
220 combine diverse variables into one consensus map. In this work, all non-redundant
221 variables and connections were included in the combined network. To ensure that the
222 combined map represented the views of the experts involved in the model framing, experts
223 had the possibility to comment on the network structure in an open online document
224 presented both in the form of a graph and a table. At this stage, the document and the
225 comments were visible to all experts.

226 **3.3 Step 3: Bayesian Network model development**

227 The final causal network was used to develop a probabilistic Bayesian network (BN) to
228 provide quantitative estimates of the ecological consequences of mining to ecosystem
229 components under different mining scenarios. In this work, we quantified only a sub-model
230 of the complete causal network focusing on three groups of benthic fauna: sessile filter
231 feeding epifauna, mobile epifauna, and burrowing infauna. The BN model was developed
232 from variables describing these three benthic faunal groups, the main pressures affecting
233 them, and any intermediate variables between them in the combined causal network. To
234 reduce complexity of the model in terms of spatial and temporal dimensions of the
235 impacts, we restricted the model to account only for the acute impacts within a spatially
236 discrete mining block as defined in the case study description (Fig. 1). Discrete variable
237 states were drawn from literature and expert views. We use relative descriptions of

238 pressures with relation to ambient conditions (e.g. low-high). To evaluate the model
239 structure, we conducted a point-by-point walkthrough of the model with external experts in
240 marine ecology and geology who had not participated in the model building.

241 To quantify the magnitude of impacts between the pressures and the benthic faunal
242 groups, we modelled the BN as an expert system, meaning that no empirical data is
243 directly incorporated in the model. We used the graphical interface provided open source
244 Application for Conditional probability Elicitation (ACE) (Hassall et al. 2019) to initialize the
245 conditional probability tables (CPTs) with one expert in geology and one benthic ecologist.
246 The application provides a starting point for defining the overall shape of a conditional
247 probability distribution, which is done by ranking the direction and magnitude of the parent
248 nodes on the child node and populating the table through a scoring algorithm (Hassall et
249 al. 2019). The scoring system considers that all variable states can be placed on an
250 equally spaced linear scale.

251 To assess probabilities of the impacts of direct pressures on benthic fauna, the CPTs
252 initialized with the ACE application were evaluated and adjusted in a second session with
253 another benthic ecologist. The total mortality of benthic fauna within a discrete block and
254 one moment in time comprises the direct mortality from extraction of sediment and mineral
255 concretions, and the indirect mortality of the remaining fauna that are exposed to the
256 pressures from the extraction activity. The probability of total mortality of benthic fauna
257 was thus calculated as:

$$258 \quad P(\text{Total mortality}) = P(DM) + P(IM) \times (1 - P(DM))$$

259 where the term $IM \times (1 - DM)$ accounts of the proportion of fauna remaining after direct
260 extraction. We applied numerical approximation at 1% accuracy to calculate joint

261 probabilities of the combined discrete classes (Table 2) for total mortality used in the
262 model.

263 The resulting CPTs were incorporated in the BN model created in R software (R 2020).
264 Using the Bayes rule, BNs enable evaluating different scenarios and to compute posterior
265 probabilities given new knowledge. In this context, a BN allows modification of the
266 operational parameters to evaluate the impacts of different mining operations and the
267 associated changes in the functional groups. The joint probability distribution in the BN
268 may then be used to make queries on the impact of multiple pressures on specific
269 ecosystem components to assess the risks and to evaluate which variables should be
270 monitored to obtain a reasonable overview of the impacts. Here we queried the network on
271 two alternative mining scenarios, which we define as a combination of specific states of
272 the decision variables that describe the overall mining process and are assumed to be
273 controlled by the party responsible for the mining operation (Table 2). The random
274 variables in the model are further affected by these decision nodes (Figure 4, Table 2).
275 The modelling was done using R 3.6.3, with package *bnlearn* (Scutari 2009). Full details of
276 the model with the R scripts and the conditional probability tables are available at:
277 https://github.com/lkaikkonen/Causal_SBM .

278 **4. RESULTS**

279 **4.1 Causal maps**

280 The expert interviews resulted in 11 individual causal maps. In some cases, the experts
281 took the lead in drawing the variables and connections between them, whereas in most
282 interviews the modeler had the main responsibility of drafting the map based on the
283 discussion.

284 The number of variables in the individual maps varied between 8 and 24. In general, there
285 were no contradictory views, and the differences between the maps were attributed to the
286 number of variables and level of detail in different processes regarding the impacts of
287 mining. We were not successful in eliciting all link strengths, and only the strongest
288 connections were explicitly given by all experts. The individual causal maps are included in
289 the Supporting Information (S1).

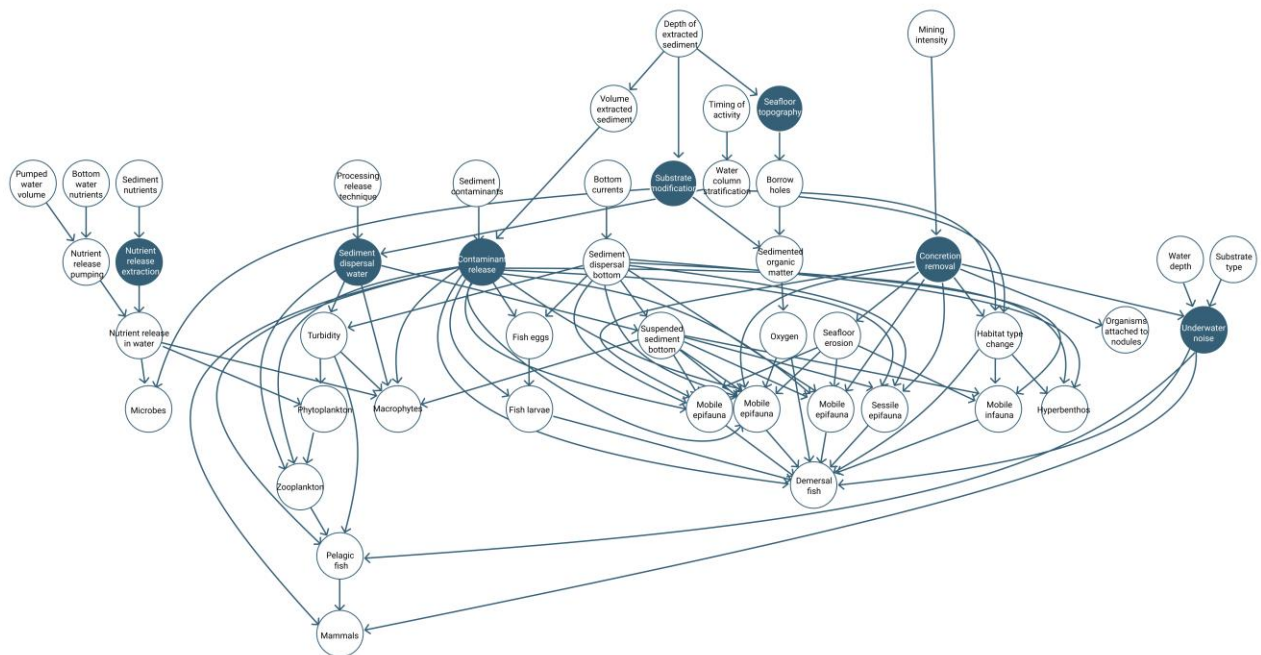
290 After concept harmonization, the final causal map has 53 variables. Multiple iterations of
291 expert comments on the causal network structure resulted in a combined causal network
292 with 96 connections (Figure 3). The rationale for the connections between variables and
293 further details on them are summarized in Tables S2–S4 in the Supporting Information.

294 **4.2 Impacts of mining on marine ecosystems: Combined causal network**

295 The first set of interviews with geologists revealed several factors affecting the magnitude
296 of physicochemical changes in the environment, related to both the execution of the
297 mining operation and the prevailing environmental conditions (Table 2). The factors
298 regarding the mining technique included water depth at the extraction site, depth of
299 extracted sediment, and processing return technique. Both the geologists and ecologists
300 included several environmental factors in their causal maps, including variables describing
301 the sediment characteristics and composition, water column chemistry, and hydrological
302 parameters (Figure 3).

303 The impacts on the biological ecosystem components were more complex and spanned
304 into the spatial and temporal dimensions than the physicochemical changes in the
305 environment. Experts successfully adopted a parsimonious attitude to defining the
306 functional groups and expressed how these groups would be affected by the different
307 pressures. The most detail in terms of functional traits was given to benthic fauna which

308 are most directly affected by substrate extraction. Experts included a wide range of
309 organisms in the assessment that were unlikely directly affected in the extraction area,
310 including early life-stages of fishes, macrophytes, and mammals. Factors affecting the
311 recovery potential of organisms and ecosystem functions after disturbance were
312 mentioned in all interviews.



313

314 **Figure 3.** Combined causal map of the environmental and ecological effects of seabed
315 nodule extraction on Baltic Sea ecosystem. The colored ovals denote pressures that were
316 the starting point for each interview and the subsequent causal mapping. For full details of
317 the variables and causal connections, see Tables S2-S4 in the Supporting Information.

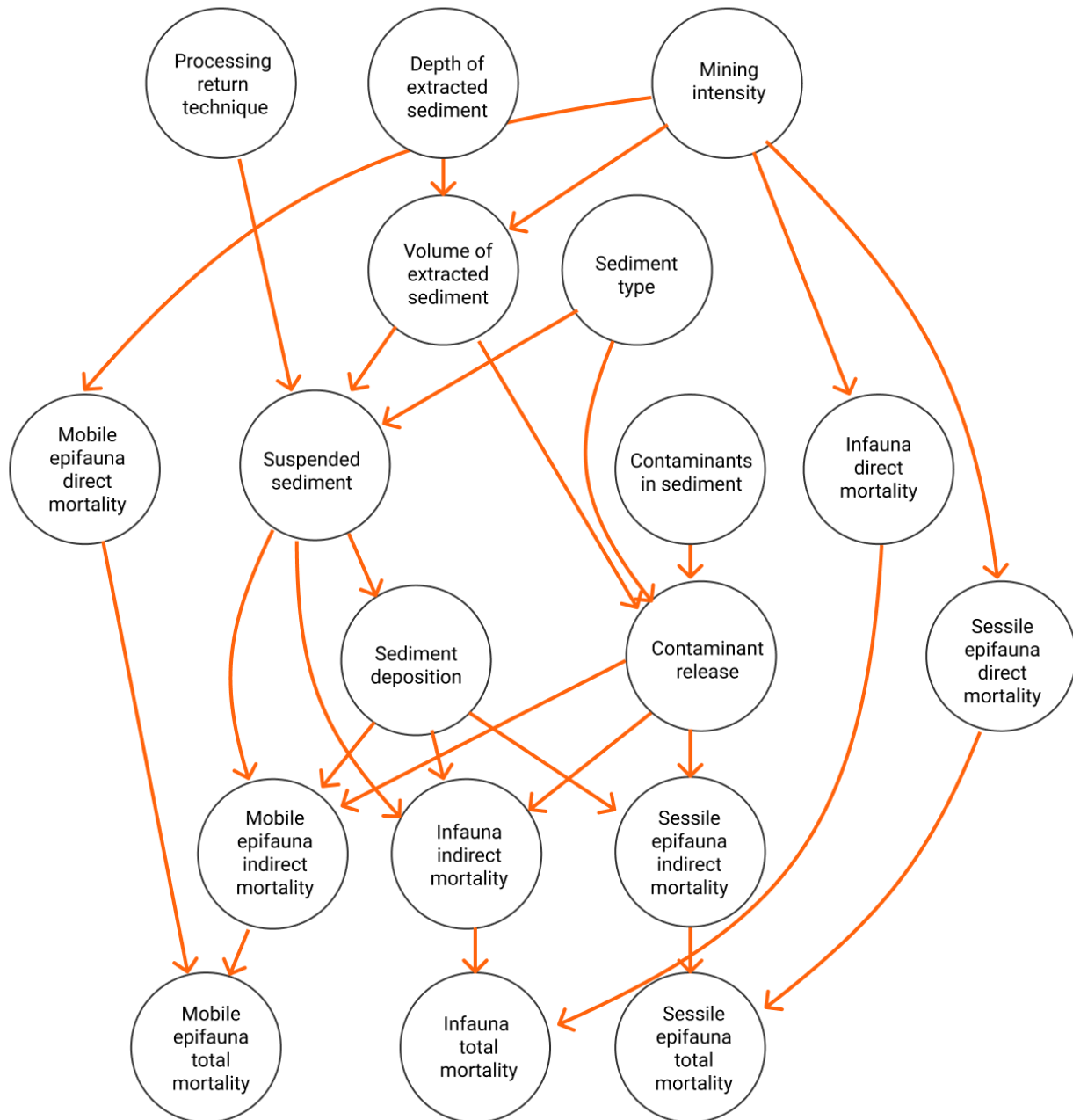
318 Direct extraction of seabed substrate and the resulting habitat loss was deemed to have
319 the most significant impact on benthic fauna. Many experts equally considered the impacts
320 of elevated suspended sediment concentrations on filter feeding organisms severe. In the
321 interviews, the functional groups were deemed different in terms of acute impacts of
322 disturbance. For example, while highly mobile organisms like fish are assumed to escape

323 from the extraction area, significant changes in the environment either through
324 modification of bottom substrate or benthic fauna as food are expected to potentially affect
325 the distribution of demersal fish species. Similarly, release of contaminants from the
326 sediment was estimated to significantly affect all organisms, yet it was noted that many
327 toxic effects might only be expressed in the reproductive success of organisms. Nearly all
328 experts noted the negative impacts of underwater noise on mammals and fishes.

329 **4.3 Quantitative case study: Acute impacts on benthic fauna**

330 The full causal model is highly complex (Fig. 3), and parameter estimation would be a
331 demanding task. Therefore, for illustration we selected 18 variables for the quantitative
332 analysis to describe the acute impacts on benthic fauna (Figure 4, Table 2). We queried
333 the network on two different mining scenarios. The resulting probability distributions are
334 presented in figure 5.

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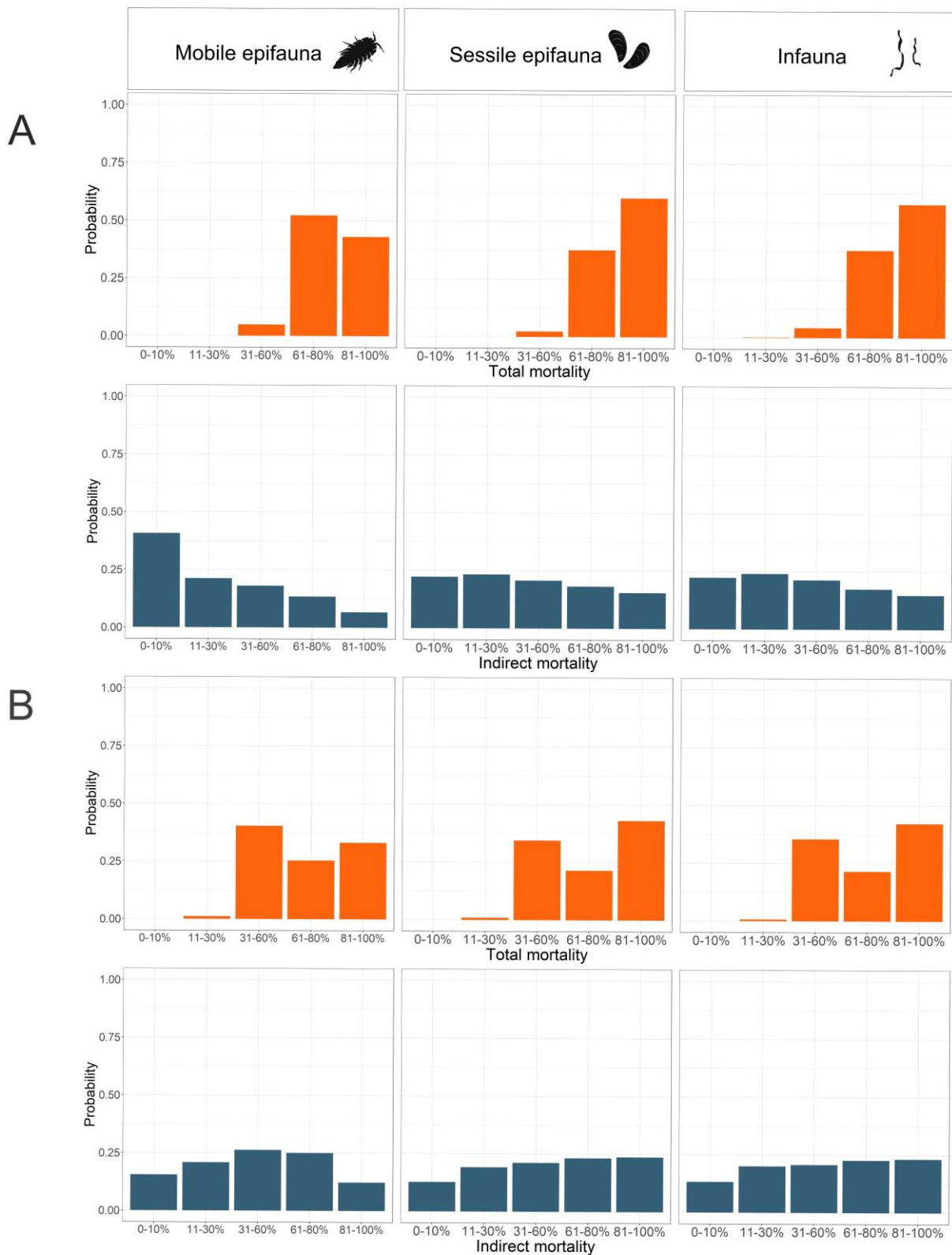
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337 **Figure 4.** Bayesian network structure for immediate impacts on selected groups of benthic
 338 fauna. Mining scenario may be controlled by *processing return technique*, *depth of*
 339 *extracted sediment*, and *mining intensity*.

340 **Table 2.** Variables in the Bayesian Network model for ecological risks of seabed mining.

Variable category	Variable name	Description	Variable type	Possible states
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Environmental conditions	Sediment Type	Underlying sediment type	Random variable	Soft-Hard-Rocks
	Contaminants in sediment	Concentration of toxic substances in the sediment	Random variable	Low-Medium-High
Extraction technique	Depth of extracted sediment	Depth of extracted sediment	Decision variable	<10cm / 11-30cm / >30cm
	Volume of extraction	Volume of extracted sediment	Random variable	Low-Medium-High
	Processing return technique	Depth of the processing return of the excess sediment material	Decision variable	At the surface/ At the bottom
	Mining intensity	Proportion of concretions removed from the mining area.	Decision variable	50%-75-100% removed
Environmental changes	Suspended sediment	Suspended sediment near the seafloor	Random variable	Low-Medium-High
	Contaminant release	Release of toxic substances	Random variable	Low-Significant
	Sediment deposition	Amount of sediment deposited on the seafloor	Random variable	Low-Medium-High
Affected functional groups	Sessile epifauna	Relative mortality of sessile epifauna	Random variable	0-10/11-30/31-60/61-80/81-100%
	Infauna	Relative mortality of mobile infauna	Random variable	0-10/11-30/31-60/61-80/81-100%
	Mobile epifauna	Relative mortality of mobile epifauna (fast-moving)	Random variable	0-10/11-30/31-60/61-80/81-100%



342

343 **Figure 5.** Joint probability distribution of the total and indirect mortality of mobile epifauna,
344 sessile epifauna, and infauna under two alternative mining scenarios: A) Mining 75% of a

345 discrete mining block with 11-30cm sediment extracted, and B) mining 50% of a discrete
346 mining block with 11-30cm sediment extracted with release of harmful substances from the
347 sediment.

348 In the case of mining 75% of a discrete mining block, the most probable outcome in terms
349 of total mortality for both sessile epifauna and infauna is estimated to be 81–100%
350 mortality (Fig. 5, A). The probability of the highest mortality for sessile epifauna is slightly
351 higher than for infauna (60.1% compared to 57.7%, respectively). For mobile epifauna,
352 60–80% mortality is the most likely outcome with a 52.2% probability.

353 The likeliest outcome of the mining scenario described above in terms of indirect mortality
354 resulted in indirect mortality of 11–30% of both infauna (24.1% probability) and sessile
355 epifauna (23.3% probability) and 0-10% mortality of mobile epifauna with 40.7% probability
356 (Fig. 5, A). The probability of the highest mortality (81–100%) is 14.8% for infauna, 15.5%
357 for sessile epifauna and 6.6% for mobile epifauna. Overall, the probability of both indirect
358 and direct mortality on sessile epifauna and infauna are deemed equally widely distributed.

359 The BN model allows estimating the probability of any variable of interest in the model
360 (here relative mortality) given certain evidence (e.g. regarding the mining operation or
361 environmental conditions). To give an example, when mining occurs on only 50% of a
362 discrete block, but release of harmful substances is known to occur, the probabilities for
363 the indirect mortality of benthic fauna are higher for all groups (Fig. 5, B). These changes
364 illustrate the relative importance of certain pressures on the overall mortality.

365 Changes in the extent of direct extraction of seabed substrate and FeMn concretions had
366 the largest impact on the direct mortality of the benthic fauna. In terms of indirect effects,
367 the release of ecologically significant levels of toxic substances from the sediment had the
368 highest impact on the mortality of benthic fauna. In a similar way, the model may be used

369 to evaluate the cumulative effects of multiple stressors for each assessed ecosystem
370 component by first ranking the relative effects of each stressor on the mortality of the
371 community and then evaluating the probability distribution for each combination of stressor
372 levels.

373 **5. DISCUSSION**

374 This study presents the first systematic evaluation of the ecological risks associated with
375 seabed mining. By interviewing a multidisciplinary group of experts, we outline a basis for
376 an ecological risk assessment model. We further demonstrate how qualitative information
377 may be used to move towards a quantitative assessment by using a causal probabilistic
378 approach to estimate the impacts of seabed disturbance and direct sediment extraction on
379 benthic fauna in the Baltic Sea. These results show that the knowledge related to the
380 impacts of seabed mining is still low, calling for further research on the risks of mining if
381 the operation permits are to be based on a valid scientific understanding.

382 Involving multiple experts in consecutive interviews provided a comprehensive view of the
383 pressures arising from mining, factors affecting the magnitude of the physicochemical
384 changes, and the affected ecosystem components. Particularly the interviews with
385 geologists enabled the inclusion of operational variables related to mining activity and
386 environmental conditions that were deemed to govern the magnitude of pressures. Most
387 detail in terms of affected biological components was given to benthic faunal groups from
388 all ecologists. While we had expected experts to prioritize their own fields' species in more
389 detail, this was not always the case, and the experts' previous participation in similar
390 mapping exercises seemed to be the factor governing the number of connections and
391 variables.

392 Although many of the impact pathways described in the obtained causal maps have been
393 cited in previous studies (Koschinsky et al. 2018; Christiansen et al. 2020), our mapping
394 exercise enabled a more detailed inclusion of pelagic ecosystem components which have
395 been neglected in many previous studies on seabed impacts (Newell et al. 2004; Boyd et
396 al. 2005; Krause et al. 2010; Christiansen et al. 2020). A qualitative causal representation
397 of the impacts alone can thus help better understand how risks emerge and can potentially
398 be mitigated (Chen and Pollino 2012; Carriger et al. 2018). Drafting the causal maps from
399 the beginning further ensures that all relevant connections are included, and biases in
400 thinking will be revealed easier (Tversky and Kahneman 1979; Renn 2008).

401 Depending on the extraction intensity and the functional group, acute mortality of benthic
402 fauna was estimated to be most likely at rates of 60–100% in the directly affected area and
403 0–10% to 10–30% in the indirectly affected area. The probabilities of very high indirect
404 mortality (81–100%) were over 10% in both of the evaluated scenarios for sessile epifauna
405 and infauna. Accounting for the indirect mortality separately allows further refining the
406 assessment to account for the impacts of indirect effects, as these are deemed significant
407 in terms of the spatial footprint due to dispersal of suspended sediment (Boyd and Rees
408 2003; Desprez et al. 2009).

409 Overall, the probability distributions on the relative mortality of benthic fauna from expert
410 assessment are rather broad, showing low levels of certainty on the impacts. One reason
411 for this is likely the lack of scientific knowledge, particularly regarding the cumulative
412 effects from multiple pressures, which make validating such assessments challenging.

413 Although the different functional groups of benthic fauna were deemed to experience
414 differential responses particularly due to indirect impacts from sediment deposition and
415 suspended sediment, the probability distributions describing these effects are very similar
416 between infauna and sessile epifauna. While these results may be a consequence of the

417 high uncertainties related to the impacts, further knowledge engineering approaches to
418 facilitate elicitation (Martin et al. 2012; Laitila and Virtanen 2016) could offer insights into
419 the effects of multiple pressures. Future development of the model should thus address
420 improving the quantitative estimates of the risks in terms of both methodology and the
421 used evidence

422 **Expert knowledge in ecological risk assessments**

423 The interviews and the subsequent causal mapping highlighted the challenges in
424 conceptualizing spatiotemporal complexity related to anthropogenic impacts (Gladstone-
425 Gallagher et al. 2019). Although we had specifically requested experts to focus on a
426 discrete spatially defined area and immediate impacts, factors affecting recovery and
427 spatial extent of impacts arose in all interviews. These differences in temporal scale are a
428 result of changes in the environment varying in their scope and persistence (see Table S5
429 for spatial and temporal extent of the pressures), resulting in immediate impacts, chronic
430 and long-term impacts, and factors affecting the recovery potential of organisms. To
431 operationalize a multidimensional view of risks and to move towards a quantitative
432 assessment, it is necessary to consider which pressures operate at which time scales and
433 spatial dimensions.

434 Given these challenges, attempting direct modelling of such dynamic systems may not be
435 appropriate, as it can result in excessive simplification and loss of information. Giving the
436 experts free hands was beneficial for capturing also the non-immediate impacts and in
437 retrospective, our interviews could have been developed in a more flexible manner. We
438 argue, however, that providing starting points for the assessment by setting the spatial and
439 temporal limits helped the experts to get started without being tangled in the
440 multidimensionality. The results show that it is essential to consider effects from multiple
441 perspectives and account for the multidimensional disturbance space. An operational

442 assessment should thus include multiple time steps or account for continuous effects and
443 changes in the prevailing conditions.

444 **How can predictive risk assessment inform marine resource governance?**

445 The paucity of evidence on the impacts of seabed mining calls for more comprehensive
446 views of the risks and knowledge gaps to support decision-making. Given the modular
447 structure of BNs, the model presented here may be adapted for more complex ERA
448 through separate layers and sub-models. While this model provides only a limited view of
449 the relationships within food webs, functional ecology and biogeochemical connections, it
450 is a starting point for more detailed ecological risk assessments. Another advantage of
451 probabilistic approaches is that the conditional probabilities may be drawn from multiple
452 sources and can include both qualitative and quantitative data. This allows iterative
453 updating of the model as new information becomes available. BNs can further be
454 developed into dynamic networks that can also account for temporal changes to measure
455 resilience and recovery of ecosystems (Wu et al. 2018).

456 To support decision-making on potential future use of seabed resources and further
457 evaluation of trade-offs from mining, model simulations under alternative mining scenarios
458 should be compared to existing policy targets regarding acceptable changes in
459 ecosystems. Using a quantitative approach offers a more robust and transparent means of
460 estimating the impacts of emerging activities when defining acceptable thresholds to the
461 impacts (Levin et al. 2016). With recent calls for more empirical approaches to the broad
462 scale seabed mining initiatives (Drazen et al. 2020 Jul 8), new data on the impacts of
463 mining may be incorporated in the risk model to learn the probability distributions between
464 the nodes from data, and further be completed with expert assessment. Estimating the
465 impacts and accounting for the knowledge gaps with a probabilistic approach can aid to
466 either support a moratorium and not to go ahead with exploitation in line with a

467 precautionary approach (Barbier et al. 2014), or to provide information for more
468 comprehensive risk management plans for potential future mining activities, including the
469 need for mitigation measures. In a case where uncertainties are considered too high,
470 permits could be made to be conditional on improved knowledge by allowing only one
471 mining operation to proceed until impacts have been documented in more detail (Smith et al.
472 2020), urging the industry to carry out further studies.

473 Causal networks may be enhanced into more comprehensive frameworks for integrated
474 environmental assessments to promote deeper engagement of multiple values and
475 stakeholders in policy-making (Mourhir et al. 2016). Using a systematic framework with
476 causal networks helps paint a more complete picture of the system and the associated
477 environmental impacts, enabling better inclusion of uncertainty in the environmental
478 management plans of seabed resource use and improving transparency of the estimates.

479 Engaging with multiple experts and sources of knowledge not only strengthens the
480 knowledge base for assessing the risks, but also allows revealing possibly contradictory
481 views between experts and stakeholders (Freudenburg et al. 1999).

482 The expanding industrial use of the ocean space and resources calls for more detailed
483 assessments on the risks associated with them. Recent incentives for more sustainable
484 marine governance (Lubchenco et al. 2016; Golden et al. 2017; Bennett et al. 2019)
485 further urge applying an ecosystem approach to resource management, including impact
486 and risk assessments of activities on both the marine ecosystem and human society.

487 Based on the results of this study, we posit that while empirical observations are key in
488 unravelling the impacts of novel activities, full consideration of the different scales of risks
489 requires a systematic approach to bring together findings from empirical studies,
490 modelling, and expert assessments. An improved view of the risks as an underlying

491 concept in research on the impacts of seabed mining will aid developing integrative
492 ecosystem based management of emerging maritime industries (Hodgson et al. 2019).

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502 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

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504 Conceptualization: LK; SK, RV; Methodology: LK, LU, IH; Formal analysis and
505 investigation: LK; Writing - original draft preparation: LK, Writing - review and editing: AT,
506 HN, LU, IH, KK, RV, SK; Funding acquisition: SK; Supervision: LU, IH, KK, SK, RV

507 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

508 Supporting information (SI S1-S5) are available as an attachment to this manuscript, as
509 well as at https://github.com/lkaikkonen/Causal_SBM .

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