Flustra foliacea and Haliclona (Haliclona) oculata with a rich faunal turf on tide-swept circalittoral mixed substrata

MarLIN – Marine Life Information Network
Marine Evidence–based Sensitivity Assessment (MarESA) Review

John Readman

2016-06-15

A report from:

The Marine Life Information Network, Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom.

Please note. This MarESA report is a dated version of the online review. Please refer to the website for the most up-to-date version [https://www.marlin.ac.uk/habitats/detail/248]. All terms and the MarESA methodology are outlined on the website (https://www.marlin.ac.uk)

This review can be cited as:

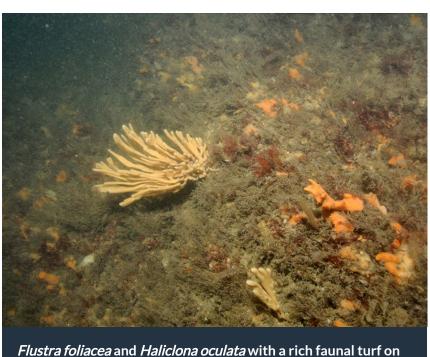
Readman, J.A.J., 2016. [Flustra foliacea] and [Haliclona (Haliclona) oculata] with a rich faunal turf on tide-swept circalittoral mixed substrata. In Tyler-Walters H. and Hiscock K. (eds) *Marine Life Information Network: Biology and Sensitivity Key Information Reviews*, [on-line]. Plymouth: Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom. DOI https://dx.doi.org/10.17031/marlinhab.248.1



The information (TEXT ONLY) provided by the Marine Life Information Network (MarLIN) is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Non-Commercial-Share Alike 2.0 UK: England & Wales License. Note that images and other media featured on this page are each governed by their own terms and conditions and they may or may not be available for reuse. Permissions beyond the scope of this license are available here. Based on a work at www.marlin.ac.uk







Core records
Non-core, certain determination
Non-core, uncertain determination
Predicted habitat extent

17-09-2018
Biotope distribution data provided by EMODnet Seabed Habitats
(www.emodnet-seabedhabitats.eu)

tide-swept circalittoral mixed substrata

Photographer: Keith Hiscock

Photographer: Keith Hiscock **Copyright:** Dr Keith Hiscock

Researched by John Readman **Refereed by** This information is not refereed.

Summary

■ UK and Ireland classification

EUNIS 2008	A4.137	Flustra foliacea and Haliclona oculata with a rich faunal turf
		on tide-swept circalittoral mixed substrata

JNCC 2015 CR.HCR.XFa.FluHocu Flustra foliacea and Haliclona (Haliclona) oculata with a rich faunal turf on tide-swept circalittoral mixed substrata

JNCC 2004 CR.HCR.XFa.FluHocu Flustra foliacea and Haliclona oculata with a rich faunal turf on tide-swept circalittoral mixed substrata

1997 Biotope CR.MCR.ByH.Flu.Hocu Haliclona oculata and Flustra foliacea with a rich faunal turf on tide-swept sheltered circalittoral boulders or cobbles

Description

This biotope is typically found on exposed slopes of silty cobble and pebble subject to strong to moderate tidal streams. From afar, large 'finger' growths of the sponge *Haliclona oculata* occur

amongst a rich faunal turf of hydroids and bryozoans with Flustra foliacea prominent. The dense faunal turf growing on the cobbles is composed of the bryozoans Flustra foliacea, Alcyonidium diaphanum and Crisia eburnea and sporadic occurrences of the hydroids Nemertesia antennina, Hydrallmania falcata, Tubularia larynx, Rhizocaulus verticillatus and Halecium halecinum. Caprellid shrimps may be observed within this faunal turf. The hard substratum frequently has a dense covering of the sponge Haliclona oculata and occasionally Esperiopsis fucorum, while the softer gravely/sand between the cobbles provides a habitat for anemones such as Urticina felina and Cerianthus lloydii. The nudibranch Janolus cristatus may be seen preying on the faunal turf and the fan worm Sabella pavonia is occasionally seen amongst the cobbles. The soft coral Alcyonium digitatum is often attached to the upper faces of more stable cobbles and rocks, while in the crevices between cobbles, the anemone Sagartia elegans, the crab Cancer pagurus, the prawn Pandalus montagui and the amphipod Dyopedos porrectus may be observed. Under-cobble fauna includes terebellid worms and Harmothoe spp. This biotope has been recorded from the Menai Strait, Milford Haven and Morecambe Bay. (Information from Connor et al., 2004)

↓ Depth range

5-10 m, 10-20 m

Additional information

-

✓ Listed By

- none -

Solution Further information sources

Search on:



Sensitivity review

Sensitivity characteristics of the habitat and relevant characteristic species

CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs, CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs.X, CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs.SmAs, and CR.HCR.XFa.FluHocu biotopes occur on bedrock or boulders in moderately tide-swept, moderately wave exposed conditions and are characteristically dominated by dense beds of *Flustra foliacea* (although other bryozoans may also be present). Their sensitivities are probably similar. Therefore, they are reviewed as a group, and the resultant reviews and sensitivity assessments presented separately.

The CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs biotope complex is also characterized by the presence of colonial ascidians, including *Clavelina lepadiformis* and *Polyclinum aurantium*. CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs.Paur experiences greater suspended sediment levels and subsequent scour. Sand and silt are periodically re-suspended in the water column, resulting in scour-tolerant species being characteristic of these areas. Together with a dense covering of the scour-resistant bryozoan *Flustra foliacea*, the colonial ascidian *Polyclinum aurantium* commonly covers the rock surface at most locations within this biotope. CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs.X occurs on mixed substrata (including boulders, cobbles and pebbles). CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs.SmAs experiences lower wave exposure and is more species rich, with a greater presence of colonial ascidians (such as *Clavelina lepadiformis*). CR.HCR.XFa.FluHocu occurs in deeper water and has a more impoverished appearance (especially the sponge component).

Therefore, the sensitivity of these biotopes is based on *Flustra foliacea*, with *Haliclona oculata* and colonial ascidians (including *Clavelina lepadiformis* and *Polyclinum aurantium*) considered where appropriate. Assessments for the colonial ascidians generally focus on the well-studied *Clavelina lepadiformis* given the lack of evidence for *Polyclinum aurantium*.

Resilience and recovery rates of habitat

Bryozoans are sessile fauna forming colonies through asexual budding following the settlement of sexually produced larvae (Hayward & Ryland, 1995a). Larvae have a short pelagic lifetime of up to about 12 hours (Ryland, 1976). Recruitment is dependent on the supply of suitable, stable, hard substrata (Eggleston, 1972b; Ryland, 1976; Dyrynda, 1994) and the abundance of bryozoans is positively correlated with supply of stable hard substrata and hence with current strength (Eggleston, 1972b; Ryland, 1976). Even in the presence of available substratum, Ryland (1976) noted that significant recruitment in bryozoans only occurred in the proximity of breeding colonies.

Flustra foliacea is a coarse, foliaceous bryozoan that tends to be found on stones and shells, reaches 10 –20 cm in height (Porter, 2012), is common to all coasts in northwest Europe (Hayward & Ryland, 1995a) and is found across all coasts in the British Isles (NBN, 2015). Stebbing (1971a) noted that Flustra foliacea on the Gower peninsular, South Wales had an annual growth season between March and November, with a dormant winter period, when no growth occurred, leading to a line forming across the fronds which can be used to age specimens. In the first year of growth, Flustra foliacea forms a flat encrustation on the substrata, from which erect growth begins in the second year (Porter, 2012) and can regularly reach 6 years of age, although 12 year old specimens were reported off the Gower Peninsula (Stebbing, 1971a; Ryland, 1976). Fortunato et al. (2013) compared numerous sets of growth data with their own observations and reported that colonies grow faster during the first couple of years (about 1.05 cm/year), with growth subsequently

slowing. Colonies appeared to be able to regenerate areas of the frond which had been removed by grazing (Fortunato *et al.*, 2013). Stebbing (1971a) reported that growth rates were reasonably consistent between samples, age classes and years. Stebbing (1971a) reported a mean increment in frond height of 16.8 mm/yr, whereas Eggleston (1972b) reported that annual lines were usually between 2-3 cm apart in Isle of Man specimens, and Menon (1978) reported that Helgoland specimens reached an average of 21.2 mm in height at 2 years old and an average of 79.3 mm after 8 years. Silén (1981) reported that erect fronds grew in zooid number about 10-20 times that of the encrusting base. Menon (1975) reported that growth rates varied in specimens over 5 years old. Silén (1981) reported that *Flustra foliacea* could repair physical damage (a notch) to its fronds within 5-10 days, and as long as the holdfast remained intact, *Flustra foliacea* would survive and grow back.

Flustra foliacea colonies are perennial, and potentially highly fecund with increasing colony size (Eggleston, 1972b) with ca 10,000 larvae released from a specimen of Flustra foliacea within 3 hrs (Dalyell, cited in Hincks, 1880). Once settled, new colonies of Flustra foliacea take at least one year to develop erect growth and 1-2 years to reach maturity, depending on environmental conditions (Tillin & Tyler Walters, 2014). Four years after sinking off Lundy, the M.V. Roberts was found to be colonized by erect bryozoans and hydroids, including occasional Flustra foliacea. Whilst Bryozoan larvae are typically very short-lived, limiting recruitment to the immediate area surrounding breeding colonies, strong water movement could improve dispersal potential, and may explain reports of Flustra foliacea colonizing a the M.V. Roberts (Hiscock, 1981; Tyler-Walters & Ballerstedt, 2007).

Fariñas-Franco *et al.* (2014) recorded the colonization of an artificial reef constructed of 16 tonnes of king scallop shells (*Pecten maximus*) deployed in Strangford Loch in February 2010. The reef was then seeded with translocated *Modiolus modiolus* in March 2010. Among other species, *Flustra foliacea* had colonized the reef within six months of the reef construction. *Flustra foliacea* was also recorded locally prior to construction of the reef, and therefore recruitment may have a local source.

Clavelina lepadiformis is a colonial ascidian that grows up to a height of 2 cm with zooids joined at the base by short stolons (Fish & Fish, 1996). Picton & Morrow (2004c) reported regression of Atlantic colonies in winter with re-growth occurring in spring. De Caralt et al. (2002) looked at the differences in Clavelina lepadiformis between Mediterranean populations inside and outside of harbours. The inner harbour population underwent rapid growth, reproducing both asexually and sexually throughout the year, resulting in a dense population that carpeted submersed surfaces, with large abundance fluctuations from one month to the next, suggesting multiple generations per year (De Caralt et al., 2002). The outer population exhibited restricted growth but with less fluctuation between observation times. Clavelina lepadiformis undergoes stolonic asexual budding. At the end of the sexual breeding season, towards the end of the summer, zooids disappear or are resorbed. Over winter the colony survives as 'winter buds' from which new zooids develop in spring (Berrill, 1950; Fish & Fish, 1996). In the winter months, when the zooids undergo dedifferentiation, the resulting cylindrical bodies of many species of *Clavelinidae* are often found on rocky shores (Millar, 1970). Clavelina lepadiformis is considered an INIS (Invasive Non-Indigenous Species) in the north-west Atlantic (Reinhardt et al., 2010). Clavelina lepadiformis grows from immature zooids to full size in two months (Riley, 2008).

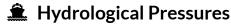
Polyclinum aurantium colonies consist of irregular globular masses of zooids (10-15 mm thick by 20-50 mm across) irregularly arranged around common cloacal openings (Picton & Morrow, 2004b). Larvae are produced from May to October. The colony regresses into an overwintering

phase when it divides and reproduces asexually before beginning to feed again in the spring.

Koopmans & Wijffels (2008) reported that growth of *Haliclona oculata* in the Netherlands was seasonal, with the highest average specific growth rate measured in May. The study noted that growth rate correlated with temperature, algal biomass (measured as chlorophyll a), carbon and nitrogen content in suspended particulate matter. Growth rate negatively correlated with salinity, ammonium, nitrate, nitrite, and phosphate. No correlation was found with dissolved organic carbon, suggesting that *Haliclona oculata* was more dependent on particulate organic carbon. Koopmans & Wijffels (2008) monitored *Haliclona oculata* off the Dutch coast over a year. Mass mortality was recorded at the end of the summer (2006) with all sponges on and around the monitoring platform perishing. The reason for this death is not known but could be related to the relatively high temperature of the water. The summer of 2006 was a warm summer with water temperatures rising to 23°C (normally approximately 20°C. In other years *Haliclona oculata* survived throughout the year (ANEMOON foundation data cited in Koopmans & Wijffels, 2008).

Haliclona oculata is a stalked to branching-erect sponge found in sheltered but fast-moving water or on vertical rock faces in exposed conditions (Ackers et al., 1992). It is found from the Arctic (Ackers et al., 1992), to the Mediterranean (Mustapha et al., 2003). Larvae (parenchymella) are produced in summer and autumn (July to November) (Wapstra & Van Soest, 1987) and Haliclona oculata can also reproduce asexually through fragmentation, with primmorphs forming, have a lifespan of 0.6 months (Sipkema et al., 2003). The typical lifespan of Haliclona oculata is unknown, however, populations in Fishers Island Sound were found to be reproductively active on an annual basis (reproductive structures present from March to June) over a three-year sampling period (Fell, 1974). Van Dolah et al. (1987) studied the effects on sponges and corals of one trawl event over a low-relief hard bottom habitat off Georgia, US. Haliclona oculata did not appear to be significantly affected and 12 months after trawling the abundance of sponges had increased to pre-trawl densities, or greater.

Resilience assessment. Bryozoans tend to be fast growing fauna that are capable of selfregeneration. Dispersal of the larvae is limited and whist it is likely that Flustra foliacea would recover rapidly, within 2 years (resilience of 'High'), from most levels of damage, but if more than 75% of the bryozoan population or habitat is removed (Resistance of 'None'), recovery could take longer, due to the limited dispersal potential of larvae, and a resilience of 'Medium' (2-10 years) is recorded in such cases. The colonial ascidians, including Clavelina lepadiformis, are more ephemeral, with some populations having multiple generations per year (De Caralt et al., 2002). When also taking into consideration the classification of Clavelina lepadiformis as an INIS species in the north-west Atlantic, recovery is likely to be rapid and resilience is likely to be 'High'. Haliclona oculata has been shown to recover rapidly from low mortality events (Van Dolah et al., 1987), however, lifespan and recovery from more significant mortality are unknown. A resilience of 'High' should be recorded in the event of no or low levels of mortality (resistance of 'High' or 'Medium'). A more cautious resilience assessment of 'Medium' should be recorded for lower levels of resistance ('Low' and 'None'). Overall, resilience is assessed as 'Medium' (recovery within 2-10 years) for 'None' or 'Low' resistance and resilience is 'High' where resistance is assessed as 'Medium' or 'High'.

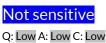


Resistance Resilience Sensitivity

Temperature increase (local)







Flustra foliacea is perennial (Stebbing, 1971a) and widespread throughout the British Isles (NBN, 2015). It is distributed across north-west Europe (Fish & Fish, 1996). Stebbing (1971a) noted that Flustra foliacea on the Gower peninsula, south Wales had an annual growth season between March and November. Polyclinum aurantium is distributed across the British Isles and from Norway to the Mediterranean (Picton & Morrow, 2004b).

Reproduction of *Clavelina lepadiformis* is temperature dependent (Berrill, 1975; Millar, 1970). A change in temperature could affect time and duration of spawning, however, the distribution of *Clavelina lepadiformis* extends to the north and south of the British Isles from Norway to the Adriatic (Hayward & Ryland, 1995b).

Sensitivity assessment. All characterizing species are not at their southerly limit in the British Isles. Resistance is '**High**', resilience is '**High**' and the biotope is '**Not sensitive**' at the benchmark level.

Temperature decrease (local)



Q: Low A: NR C: NR

High

Q: High A: High C: High

Not sensitive

Q: Low A: Low C: Low

Flustra foliacea is perennial (Stebbing, 1971a) and widespread throughout the British Isles (NBN, 2015). It is distributed across north-west Europe (Fish & Fish, 1996). Stebbing (1971a) noted that Flustra foliacea on the Gower peninsular, South Wales had an annual growth season between March and November, with a dormant winter period, when no growth occurred. Growth resumed in spring, leading to a line forming across the fronds which can be used to age specimens (Stebbing, 1971a).

Polyclinum aurantium regresses into an overwintering phase when it divides, reproducing asexually before beginning to feed again in the spring and is distributed across the British Isles and from Norway to the Mediterranean (Picton & Morrow, 2004b).

Clavelina lepadiformis undergoes stolonic asexual budding. At the end of the sexual breeding season, towards the end of the summer, zooids disappear or are resorbed. Over winter the colony survives as 'winter buds' from which new zooids develop in spring (Berrill, 1950; Fish & Fish, 1996; Picton & Costello, 1998). In the winter months, when the zooids undergo de-differentiation, the resulting cylindrical bodies of many species of Clavelinidae are often found on rocky shores (Millar, 1970). During the severe winter of 1962-63, although no significant mortality of Clavelina lepadiformis was noted, Crisp (1964) found that many compound ascidians were retarded in renewal of the colony after 'winter budding', and some individuals may have been killed.

Sensitivity assessment. Flustra foliacea is not at its northerly limit in the British Isles and growth, which is halted in the winter, resumes in spring (Stebbing, 1971a). The characterizing species have mechanisms in place to cope with cold conditions and no evidence of mortality due to low temperature in the British Isles was found. Sensitivity is therefore assessed as '**High**', Resilience as '**High**' and the biotope is '**Not Sensitive**' at the benchmark level.

Salinity increase (local)

No evidence (NEv)
Q: NR A: NR C: NR

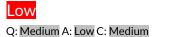
Not relevant (NR)
Q: NR A: NR C: NR

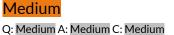
No evidence (NEv)
Q: NR A: NR C: NR

This biotope occurs in full salinity and an increase in salinity would result in hypersaline conditions. Soule & Soule (1979) cite Hastings (1927) who described the presence of five bryozoans in the Suez Canal at salinities of up to 49‰. No other evidence for bryozoans, including Flustra foliacea, in hypersaline conditions was found. Marin et al. (1998) describe the presence of Dysidea fragilis in a hypersaline coastal lagoon (42-47 g/l) in La Mar Menor, Spain. No other evidence could be found for characterizing sponges.

Sensitivity assessment. CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs and associated biotopes occur in the circalittoral and are recorded at full salinity. **No evidence** was found to assess the effects of hypersaline conditions on *Flustra foliacea* or other characterizing species.

Salinity decrease (local)



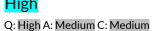


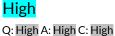


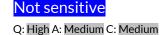
Ryland (1970) reported that, with a few exceptions, the Gymnolaemata bryozoans were stenohaline and restricted to full salinity (30-35 ppt), noting that reduced salinities resulted in an impoverished bryozoan fauna. *Flustra foliacea* appears to be restricted to areas with full salinity (Tyler-Walters & Ballerstedt, 2007; Budd, 2008). Dyrynda (1994) noted that *Flustra foliacea* and *Alcyonidium diaphanum* were probably restricted to the vicinity of Poole Harbour entrance by their intolerance to reduced salinity. No evidence for the presence of *Haliclona oculata* in lower salinity conditions was found, and the species appears to be limited to open coasts and the outer reaches of estuaries (Hayward & Ryland, 1995a). *Clavelina lepadiformis* can tolerate a relatively broad range of salinities from 14 – 35 psu (Millar, 1971).

Sensitivity assessment. Although protected from extreme changes in salinity due to their subtidal habitat, distribution suggests that hyposaline conditions would probably adversely affect *Flustra foliacea* and *Haliclona oculata*. Resistance is assessed as '**Low**', resilience as '**Medium**' and sensitivity as '**Medium**'.

Water flow (tidal current) changes (local)







Water flow has been shown to be important for the development of bryozoan communities and the provision of suitable hard substrata for colonization (Eggleston, 1972b; Ryland, 1976). In addition, areas subject to high mass transport of water such as the Menai Strait and tidal rapids generally support large numbers of bryozoan species (Moore, 1977a). Although, active suspension feeders, their feeding currents are probably fairly localized and they are dependent on water flow to bring adequate food supplies within reach (McKinney, 1986). A substantial decrease in water flow will probably result in impaired growth due to a reduction in food availability, and an increased risk of siltation (Tyler-Walters, 2005c).

Okamura (1984) reported that an increase in water flow from slow flow (1-2 cm/s) to fast flow (10-12 cm/s) reduced feeding efficiency in small colonies but not in large colonies of *Bugula stolonifera*.

Flustra foliacea colonies are flexible, robust and reach high abundances in areas subject to strong currents and tidal streams (Stebbing, 1971a; Eggleston, 1972b; Knight-Jones & Nelson-Smith, 1977; Hiscock, 1983, 1985b; Holme & Wilson, 1985). Dyrynda (1994) suggested that mature fronded colonies do not occur on unstable substratum due to the drag caused by their fronds,

resulting in rafting of colonies on shells or the rolling of pebbles and cobbles and destruction of the colony. Dyrynda (1994) reported that the distribution of *Flustra foliacea* in the current swept entrance to Poole Harbour was restricted to circalittoral boulders, on which it dominated as nearly mono-specific stands. While the pumping activity of the lophophores provide the greatest proportion of the colonies food requirements (Hayward & Ryland, 1998), the current generated is probably localized and the colonies are likely to be dependent on water currents for food supply. *Flustra foliacea* abundance is lower in weak currents (Stebbing, 1971a). A significant decrease in water flow is likely to result in a decrease in the abundance of bryozoans.

Increased competition and sedimentation could also affect the community. Riisgard *et al.* (1993) discussed the low energy cost of filtration for sponges and concluded that passive current-induced filtration may be insignificant for sponges. Pumping and filtering occurs in choanocyte cells that generate water currents in sponges using flagella (De Vos *et al.*, 1991).

Clavelina lepadiformis thrives in areas where there is little water movement (Hiscock & Hoare, 1975; De Caralt et al., 2002). Naranjo et al. (1996) found that the species was dominant in a low rate of water renewal, excess silting and high suspended solid concentrations. High water flow rates may be detrimental to feeding ability and posture but are unlikely to cause detachment.

Sensitivity assessment. The CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs biotope complex occurs in a range of water flow conditions, from weak (>1 kn) to strong (3-6 kn) (Connor *et al.*, 2004). *Flustra foliacea* has been reported in areas subject to high water flow, with greater abundance in stronger water flow (Stebbing, 1971a). Significant decrease in water flow would likely result in a reduction in the abundance of *Flustra foliacea*. But a change in flow benchmark level (0.1-0.2 m/s) are unlikely to result in mortality. Resistance is therefore assessed as '**High**', resilience as '**High**' and the biotope is '**Not sensitive**' at the benchmark level.

Emergence regime
changesNot relevant (NR)Not relevant (NR)Not relevant (NR)Q: NR A: NR C: NRQ: NR A: NR C: NRQ: NR A: NR C: NR

Changes in emergence are **Not relevant** to this biotope as it is restricted to fully subtidal/circalittoral conditions. The pressure benchmark is relevant only to littoral and shallow sublittoral fringe biotopes.

Wave exposure changes (local) High A: Medium A: Medium C: Medium Q: High A: High C: High A: High C: High A: Medium A: Medium C: Medium A: Medium A: Medium C: Medium A: Medium A: Medium C: Medium A: Medium C: Medium A: Medium C: Medium A: Medium A

Flustra foliacea occurs from very wave exposed to sheltered waters, although probably limited to deeper waters in very wave exposed conditions (Tyler-Walters & Ballerstedt, 2007). The oscillatory water flow generated by wave action may be more damaging than constant strong currents, e.g. strong wave action may generate an oscillatory flow of 2 m/s at 20 m (Hiscock, 1983, 1985). Dead colonies of Flustra foliacea are commonly found washed up, having been removed from its substratum by storms (Hayward & Ryland, 1995a). Whilst the biotope is circalittoral, a severe increase in wave exposure (e.g. storms) could affect bryozoans colonies.

Roberts *et al.* (2006) studied deep sponge reef communities (18-20 m) in sheltered and exposed locations in Australia. They reported greater diversity and cover (>40% cover) of sponges in wave-sheltered areas compared with a sparser and more temporal cover in exposed sites (25% cover). Erect sponges dominated the sheltered sites while encrusting sponges dominated in exposed

locations (Roberts *et al.*, 2006). Erect or massive sponge forms possess a relatively small basal area relative to volume and do poorly in high energy environments (Wulff, 1995; Bell & Barnes, 2000). *Haliclona oculata* is found in biotopes up to moderately exposed (Connor *et al.*, 2004). *Clavelina lepadiformis* is tolerant of a wide range of exposure but is most abundant in moderately exposed sites (Picton & Costello, 1998).

Sensitivity assessment. The CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs biotope complex is exposed or moderately exposed to wave action (Connor *et al.*, 2004). Whilst there is evidence that storm damage has significantly affected *Flustra foliacea* populations (Cocito *et al.*, 1998b), changes in wave action at the benchmark level (a 3-5% change in significant wave height) are unlikely to be significant. Resistance is therefore recorded as '**High**', with resilience as '**High**' and the biotope is '**Not sensitive**' at the benchmark level.

△ Chemical Pressures

Resistance Resilience Sensitivity

Transition elements & organo-metal contamination

Not Assessed (NA) Not assessed (NA)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR Q: NR A: NR C: NR Q: NR A: NR C: NR

This pressure is **Not assessed** but evidence is presented where available.

Bryozoans are common members of the fouling community and amongst those organisms most resistant to antifouling measures, such as copper containing anti-fouling paints (Soule & Soule, 1979; Holt $\it et al.$, 1995). Bryan & Gibbs (1991) reported that there was little evidence regarding TBT toxicity in bryozoa with the exception of the encrusting $\it Schizoporella errata$, which suffered 50% mortality when exposed for 63 days to 100ng/I TBT. Rees $\it et al.$ (2001) reported that the abundance of epifauna (including bryozoans) had increased in the Crouch estuary in the 5 years since TBT was banned from use on small vessels. This last report suggests that bryozoans may be at least inhibited by the presence of TBT. Bryozoans were shown to bioaccumulate heavy metals to a certain extent (Holt $\it et al.$, 1995). For example, $\it Bowerbankia gracialis$ and $\it Nolella pusilla$ accumulated Cd, exhibiting sublethal effects (reduced sexual reproduction and inhibited resting spore formation) between 10-100 µg Cd /l and fatality above 500 µg Cd/l (Kayser, 1990).

De Caralt et al. (2002) reported that Clavelina lepadiformis accumulated copper, lead and vanadium (vanadium is used in ascidian metabolism). A harbour population contained significantly more copper and lead than an open littoral population despite its abundance being an order of magnitude higher in the harbour (De Caralt et al., 2002). Neither reproduction nor growth were affected in this harbour population compared with a population outside of the harbour.

Hydrocarbon & PAH
contaminationNot Assessed (NA)Not assessed (NA)Not assessed (NA)Q: NR A: NR C: NRQ: NR A: NR C: NRQ: NR A: NR C: NR

This pressure is **Not assessed** but evidence is presented where available.

CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs is a sub-tidal biotope complex (Connor *et al.*, 2004). Oil pollution is mainly a surface phenomenon its impact upon circalittoral turf communities is likely to be limited. However, as in the case of the *Prestige* oil spill off the coast of France, high swell and winds can cause oil pollutants to mix with the seawater and potentially negatively affect sublittoral habitats (Castège

et al., 2014).

Filter feeders are highly sensitive to oil pollution, particularly those inhabiting the tidal zones which experience high exposure and show correspondingly high mortality, as are bottom dwelling organisms in areas where oil components are deposited by sedimentation (Zahn et al., 1981). There is little information on the effects of hydrocarbons on bryozoans. Ryland & De Putron (1998) did not detect adverse effects of oil contamination on the bryozoan Alcyonidium spp. in Milford Haven or St. Catherine's Island, south Pembrokeshire although it did alter the breeding period. Banks & Brown (2002) found that exposure to crude oil significantly impacted recruitment in the bryozoan Membranipora savartii.

Synthetic compound contamination

Not Assessed (NA)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Not assessed (NA)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Not assessed (NA)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

This pressure is **Not** assessed but evidence is presented where available.

Bryozoans are common members of the fouling community and amongst those organisms most resistant to antifouling measures, such as copper containing anti-fouling paints (Soule & Soule, 1979; Holt et al., 1995). Bryan & Gibbs (1991) reported that there was little evidence regarding TBT toxicity in bryozoa with the exception of the encrusting Schizoporella errata, which suffered 50% mortality when exposed for 63 days to 100ng/I TBT. Rees et al. (2001) reported that the abundance of epifauna (including bryozoans) had increased in the Crouch estuary in the 5 years since TBT was banned from use on small vessels. This last report suggests that bryozoans may be at least inhibited by the presence of TBT. Hoare & Hiscock (1974) suggested that polyzoa (bryozoa) were amongst the most intolerant species to acidified halogenated effluents in Amlwch Bay, Anglesey and reported that *Flustra foliacea* did not occur within 165 m of the effluent source.

Radionuclide contamination No evidence (NEv)

Not relevant (NR)

No evidence (NEv)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

No evidence was found.

Introduction of other substances

Not Assessed (NA)

Not assessed (NA)

Not assessed (NA)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

This pressure is **Not assessed**.

De-oxygenation

Medium

Q: Medium A: Low C: Low

High

Q: Medium A: Medium C: Medium Q: Medium A: Low C: Low

Low

In general, respiration in most marine invertebrates does not appear to be significantly affected until extremely low concentrations are reached. For many benthic invertebrates this concentration is about 2 ml/l (ca 2.66 mg/l) (Herreid, 1980; Rosenberg et al., 1991; Diaz & Rosenberg, 1995). Cole et al. (1999) suggest possible adverse effects on marine species below 4 mg/l and probable adverse effects below 2 mg/l.

Little information on the effects of oxygenation on bryozoans was found. Sagasti et al. (2000) reported that epifaunal communities, including dominant species such as bryozoans

(Membranipora tenuis and Conopeum tenuissimum), were unaffected by periods of moderate hypoxia (ca 0.35 -1.4 ml/l) and short periods of anoxia (<0.35 ml/l) in the York River, Chesapeake Bay, although bryozoans were more abundant in the area with generally higher oxygen. However, estuarine species are likely to be better adapted to periodic changes in oxygenation. An anoxic event in the northern Adriatic (1989–1990) exterminated the *Pentapora fascialis* population (McKinney & Jaklin, 2000; Hayward & McKinney, 2002). Colonies of *Pentapora fascialis* established after that anoxic event exceeded 15 cm in diameter by the summer of 1998 (Hayward & McKinney, 2002).

Demosponges maintained under laboratory conditions can tolerate hypoxic conditions for brief periods. Gunda & Janapala (2009) investigated the effects of variable DO levels on the survival of the marine sponge, $Haliclona\ pigmentifera$. Under hypoxic conditions (1.5-2.0 ppm DO), $Haliclona\ pigmentifera$ with intact ectodermal layers and subtle oscula survived for 42 ± 3 days. Sponges with prominent oscula, foreign material, and damaged pinacoderm exhibited poor survival (of 1-9 days) under similar conditions. Complete mortality of the sponges occurred within 2 days under anoxic conditions (<0.3 ppm DO). Stefaniak $et\ al.\ (2014)$ reported that the sponge population at Stratford Shoal persisted despite multiple hypoxic events, however, the length and magnitude of these events was uncertain. Hiscock & Hoare (1975) reported an oxycline forming in the summer months (Jun-Sep) in a quarry lake (Abereiddy, Pembrokeshire) from close to full oxygen saturation at the surface to <5% saturation below ca 10 m. No sponges or ascidians were recorded at depths below 10 - 11 m.

Sensitivity assessment. There is evidence that bryozoans and sponges may tolerate short periods of hypoxia, although moderate to long-term events or anoxia is likely to cause significant mortality. Resistance at the benchmark level is likely to be 'Medium', resilience is 'High' and sensitivity is 'Low'.

Nutrient enrichment

Not relevant (NR)

Not relevant (NR)

Not sensitive

Q: NR A: NR C: NR Q: NR A: NR C: NR Q: NR A: NR C: NR Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Hartikainen *et al.* (2009) reported that increased nutrient concentrations resulted in freshwater

bryozoans achieving higher biomass. O'Dea & Okamura (2000) found that annual growth of *Flustra foliacea* in western Europe has substantially increased since 1970. They suggested that this could be due to eutrophication in coastal regions due to organic pollution, leading to increased phytoplankton biomass (see Allen *et al.*, 1998). Rose & Risk (1985) described the increase in abundance of *Cliona delitrix* in organically polluted section of Grand Cayman fringing reef affected by the discharge of untreated faecal sewage. Ward-Paige *et al.* (2005) described greatest size and biomass of Clionids corresponding with highest nitrogen and ammonia and □¹⁵N levels. Gochfeld *et al.* (2012) studied the effect of nutrient enrichment (≤0.05 to 0.07 □M for nitrate and ≤0.5 □M for phosphate) as a potential stressor in *Aplysina caulifornis* and its bacterial symbionts and found that nutrient enrichment had no effects on sponge or symbiont physiology when compared to control conditions. This study does contradict with findings in Gochfeld *et al.* (2007) in which *Aplysina* spp. sponges were virtually absent from a site of anthropogenic stress in Bocas del Toro, Panama, which experienced high rainfall and terrestrial runoff. The author suggested that whilst this site did include elevated nutrient concentrations, other pressures and stresses could be contributing.

Koopmans & Wijffels (2008) reported that concentrations of nitrate, nitrite, ammonium and phosphate correlated negatively with the growth rate of *Haliclona oculata*. *Clavelina lepadiformis*

was found to dominate Spanish harbours and nearby zones with highly transformed substrata, low rate of water renewal and excess silting and suspended matter and was described as biofouling and opportunist (Naranjo *et al.*, 1996).

Nevertheless, this biotope is considered to be '**Not sensitive**' at the pressure benchmark, that assumes compliance with good status as defined by the WFD.

Organic enrichment







O'Dea & Okamura (2000) found that annual growth of *Flustra foliacea* in western Europe has substantially increased since 1970. They suggested that this could be due to eutrophication in coastal regions due to organic pollution, leading to increased phytoplankton biomass (see Allen *et al.*, 1998).

Koopmans & Wijffels (2008) found no correlation between the growth rate of *Halilcona oculata* and dissolved organic carbon, suggesting that *Haliclona oculata* is more dependent on particulate organic carbon. Rose & Risk (1985) described an increase in abundance of the sponge *Cliona delitrix* in an organically polluted section of Grand Cayman fringing reef affected by the discharge of untreated faecal sewage. De Goeij *et al.* (2008) used ¹³C to trace the fate of dissolved organic matter in the coral reef sponge *Halisarca caerulea*. Biomarkers revealed that the sponge incorporated dissolved organic matter through both bacteria mediated and direct pathways, suggesting that it feeds, directly and indirectly, on dissolved organic matter. Koopmans & Wiffjels (2008) reported that there was no correlation of *Haliclona oculata* growth rate and dissolved organic carbon concentration, suggesting that *Haliclona oculata* is more dependent on particulate organic carbon.

Clavelina lepadiformis was found to dominate Spanish harbours and nearby zones with highly transformed substrata, low rate of water renewal, excess silting and suspended matter. The species was described as biofouling and opportunist (Naranjo *et al.*, 1996).

Sensitivity assessment. Therefore, the important characteristic species could probably resist organic enrichment at the benchmark level. Resistance to this pressure is assessed as '**High**', but with Low confidence, and resilience as '**High**'. This biotope is therefore considered to be '**Not sensitive**'.

A Physical Pressures

Resistance

Resilience

Sensitivity

High

Physical loss (to land or freshwater habitat)

None

Q: High A: High C: High

Very Low

Q: High A: High C: High

0:

Q: High A: High C: High

All marine habitats and benthic species are considered to have a resistance of 'None' to this pressure and to be unable to recover from a permanent loss of habitat (resilience is 'Very low'). Sensitivity within the direct spatial footprint of this pressure is, therefore 'High'. Although no specific evidence is described confidence in this assessment is 'High', due to the incontrovertible nature of this pressure.

Physical change (to another seabed type) None

Q: High A: High C: High

Very Low

Q: High A: High C: High

High

Q: High A: High C: High

If rock were replaced with sediment, this would represent a fundamental change to the physical character of the biotope and the species would be unlikely to recover. The biotope would be lost.

Sensitivity assessment. Resistance to the pressure is considered 'None', and resilience 'Very low'. Sensitivity has been assessed as 'High'.

Physical change (to another sediment type) Not relevant (NR)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Not relevant (NR)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Not relevant (NR)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

'Not relevant' to biotopes occurring on bedrock.

Habitat structure changes - removal of substratum (extraction)

Not relevant (NR)

Not relevant (NR)

Not relevant (NR)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

The species characterizing this biotope are epifauna or epiflora occurring on rock and would be sensitive to the removal of the habitat. However, the community develops on pebbles and cobbles lying on bedrock, around which sands and gravels collect. The extraction of bedrock substratum is considered unlikely. Therefore, this pressure is considered to be 'Not relevant' to hard substratum habitats.

Abrasion/disturbance of Medium the surface of the substratum or seabed

Q: Medium A: Low C: Medium

High

Q: High A: Medium C: Medium

Low

Q: Medium A: Low C: Medium

Flustra foliacea is tolerant of sediment abrasion (Stebbing, 1971a; Knight-Jones & Nelson-Smith, 1977), but physical disturbance by fishing gear has been shown to adversely affect emergent epifaunal communities with bryozoan matrices reported to be greatly reduced in fished areas (Jennings & Kaiser, 1998). Heavy mobile gears could also result in movement of boulders (Bullimore, 1985; Jennings & Kaiser, 1998). Although Flustra foliacea is flexible, physical disturbance by a passing scallop dredge is likely to damage fronds and remove some colonies. Colonies on hard substrata are probably less vulnerable to fishing activity but would probably be damaged or partially removed. Colonies of Flustra foliacea are capable of regenerating areas of the frond which have been removed by grazing, which can result in new branches (Stebbing, 1971a). Silén (1981) reported that Flustra foliacea could repair physical damage (a notch) to its fronds within 5-10 days, and regenerated at ca 4-5 zooid lengths per month. As long as the holdfast remains intact, Flustra foliacea would survive and grow back.

Haliclona oculata is a branching erect sponge which is soft and elastic near the branch tips, becoming firmer near the base (Ackers et al., 1992). Van Dolah et al. (1987) studied the effects on sponges and corals of one trawl event over a low-relief hard bottom habitat off Georgia, US. The densities of individuals taller than 10 cm of three species of sponges in the trawl path and in adjacent control area were assessed by divers and were compared before, immediately after and 12 months after trawling. Of the total number of sponges remaining in in the trawled area, 32% were damaged. Most of the affected sponges were the barrel sponges Cliona spp., whereas

Haliclona oculata (and Ircina campana) were not significantly affected. Twelve months after trawling, the abundance of sponges had increased to pre-trawl densities, or greater. Freese (2001) studied deep cold-water sponges in Alaska a year after a trawl event and found that 46.8% of sponges exhibited damage and 32.1% were torn loose. None of the damaged sponges displayed signs of regrowth or recovery. This was in stark contrast to early work by Freese et al. (1999) on warm shallow sponge communities. Impacts of trawling activity in Alaska study being much more persistent due to the slower growth/regeneration rates of deep, cold-water sponges. Boulcott & Howell (2011) conducted experimental Newhaven scallop dredging over a circalittoral rock habitat in the sound of Jura, Scotland and recorded the damage to the resident community. The results indicated that epifaunal species, including the sponge *Pachymatisma johnstoni*, were highly damaged by the experimental trawl. Clavelina lepadiformis is permanently attached to the substratum and is unable to move out of the way from abrasive objects. The body of the species is soft and delicate, so abrasion is likely to cause physical damage and possibly death.

Sensitivity assessment. Whilst disturbance would damage the sessile Flustra foliacea, the flexibility and ability to regenerate damaged fronds (as long as the holdfast is undamaged) would result in a significant proportion of the colonies to survive disturbance. Therefore, resistance is assessed as 'Medium', resilience is 'High' and sensitivity as 'Low'.

Penetration or disturbance of the

Not relevant (NR)

Q: Medium A: Medium C: Medium

Not relevant (NR)

Not relevant (NR)

substratum subsurface

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

The species characterizing this biotope group are epifauna or epiflora occurring on hard rock, which is resistant to subsurface penetration. Therefore, 'penetration' is 'Not relevant'. The assessment for abrasion at the surface only is, therefore, considered to equally represent sensitivity to this pressure'. Please refer to 'abrasion' above.

Changes in suspended solids (water clarity)

High

High

Q: High A: High C: High

Not sensitive

Q: Medium A: Medium C: Medium

Bryozoans are suspension feeders that may be adversely affected by increases in suspended sediment, due to clogging of their feeding apparatus. However, Tyler-Walters & Ballerstedt (2007) reported Flustra foliacea as tolerant to suspended sediment based on its occurrence in areas of high suspended sediment e.g. abundant in turbid, fast flowing waters of the Menai Straits (Moore 1977a). Communities dominated by Flustra foliacea were described on tide swept seabed, exposed to high levels of suspended sediment and sediment scour in the English Channel subject to sediment transport (mainly sand) and periodic, temporary, submergence by thin layers of sand (ca <5 cm) (Holme & Wilson 1985). Flustra foliacea is also characteristic of sediment scoured, silty rock communities CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs and CR.MCR.EcCr.UrtScr (Connor et al., 2004).

Despite sediment being generally considered to have a negative impact on suspension feeders (Gerrodette & Flechsig 1979), many encrusting sponges appear to be able to survive in highly sedimented conditions, and many species prefer such habitats (Bell & Barnes 2001; Bell & Smith 2004). Storr (1976) observed the sponge Sphecispongia vesparium backwashing to eject sediment and noted that other sponges (such as Condrilla nucula) use secretions to remove settled material. Raspailia ramosa and Stelligera stuposa have a reduced maximum size in areas of high sedimentation (Bell et al., 2002). Tjensvoll et al. (2013) found that Geodia barretti physiologically shuts down when exposed to sediment concentrations of 100 mg/l (86% reduction). Rapid recovery to initial

respiration levels directly after the exposure indicated that Geodia barretti can cope with a single short exposure to elevated sediment concentrations. Schönberg (2015) reviewed and observed the interactions between sediments and marine sponges and described the lack of research on Porifera, with most studies grouping them together when looking at sediment effects. Her findings were that whilst many sponges are disadvantaged by sedimentation, many examples exist of sponges adapting to sediment presence, including through sediment incorporation, sediment encrusting, soft sediment anchoring using spicules and living, at least partially, embedded within the sediment. Schönberg (2015) found that Polymastiida interacted with sediment in 18.9% of observations (primarily through spicules), Clionaida had a highly variable interaction with sediment, with 5.7±11.4 %, Tethyida interacted in 13.1±21.1%. However, no Haliclonids were considered as part of the study. De Kluijver & Leewis (1994) monitored the marine species before and two years after construction of a storm barrier in the Oosterschelde Estuary. The barrier resulted in lower tidal flow, higher sedimentation and increased Haliclona oculata abundance.

Increased siltation can cause clogging of ascidians respiratory organs (Bakus, 1968). Clavelina lepadiformis has relatively wide apertures that help prevent clogging from particles (Naranjo et al., 1996). The simplistic structure of its branchial sac (Fiala-Medioni, 1978) may be less efficient in expelling particles, and more likely to suffer from clogging of feeding apparatus than other forms of sea squirts, such as Ciona intestinalis. Clavelina lepadiformis was found to dominate Spanish harbours and nearby zones with a low rate of water renewal, excess silting and suspended matter and the species was described as biofouling and opportunist (Naranjo et al., 1996).

Sensitivity assessment. Sediment scour within CR.HCR.XFa.FluCoAs and associated biotopes is an important factor in the dominance of the scour tolerant Flustra foliacea (Connor et al., 2004). Whilst an increase is unlikely to have an effect, a reduction in suspended sediment could reduce scour and allow other species to colonize the biotope. On return to the original sediment levels, it is probable that Flustra foliacea would again dominate the biotope. Resistance is assessed as 'High', resilience as 'High' and the biotope is 'Not Sensitive' at the benchmark level.

Smothering and siltation Medium rate changes (light)





Smothering by 5 cm of sediment is likely to prevent feeding, and hence growth and reproduction, as well as respiration in the bryozoans. In addition, associated sediment abrasion may remove the bryozoan colonies. A layer of sediment will probably also interfere with larval settlement (Tyler-Walters, 2005c). Communities dominated by Flustra foliacea were described on tide swept seabed, exposed to high levels of suspended sediment and sediment scour in the English Channel subject to sediment transport (mainly sand) and periodic, temporary, submergence by thin layers of sand (ca < 5 cm) (Holme & Wilson, 1985).

Despite sediment being generally considered to have a negative impact on suspension feeders (Gerrodette & Flechsig 1979), many encrusting sponges appear to be able to survive in highly sedimented conditions, and in fact, many species prefer such habitats (Bell & Barnes 2001; Bell & Smith 2004). However, Wulff (2006) described mortality in three sponge groups following four weeks of burial under sediment; 16% of Amphimedon biomass died compared with 40% and 47% in Introchota and Aplysina respectively. The complete disappearance of the sea squirt Ascidiella aspera and associated sponges in the Black Sea near the Kerch Strait was attributed to siltation (Terent'ev, 2008 cited in Tillin & Tyler-Walters, 2014). Some sponges are likely to be buried in 5 cm of sediment deposition. Haliclona oculata grows to ca 30 cm in height (Hayward & Ryland,

1995a) and smothering by 5 cm depth of sediment would bury only the smallest individuals.

Clavelina lepadiformis reaches up to 2 cm in height and often colonizes vertical surfaces and overhangs (Fish & Fish, 1992). Smothering by 5 cm depth of sediment would completely cover the majority of the population, with only those colonizing overhangs and vertical surfaces protected.

Sensitivity assessment. A deposit of 5 cm of fine sediment could smother and damage many of the smaller individuals of the faunal community. For example, Flustra foliacea is probably resistant while Clavelina lepadiformis is probably not resistant. However, in the high energy environment that the biotope occurs, deposited sediment would probably be removed quickly. Therefore, resistance is assessed as 'Medium', resilience as 'High' and the sensitivity as 'Low'.

Smothering and siltation Low rate changes (heavy)









Q: Low A: Low C: Low

Smothering by 30 cm of sediment is likely to prevent feeding, hence growth and reproduction, as well as respiration in the bryozoans. In addition, associated sediment abrasion may remove the bryozoan colonies. Sediment will probably also interfere with larval settlement (Tyler-Walters, 2005c). Holme & Wilson (1985) examined the bottom fauna in a tide-swept region of the central English Channel. Flustra foliacea dominated communities were reported to form in areas subject to sediment transport (mainly sand) and periodic, temporary, submergence by thin layers of sand (ca <5 cm). If inundated by 30 cm of sediment respiration and larval settlement are likely to be blocked until the deposited sediment is removed. Haliclona oculata grows to ca 30 cm in height (Hayward & Ryland, 1995a) and smothering by 30 cm of sediment would cover the majority of the population. Clavelina lepadiformis reaches up to 2 cm in height and often colonizes vertical surfaces and overhangs (Fish & Fish, 1992). Smothering by 30 cm of sediment would completely cover the majority of the population, with only those colonizing overhangs and vertical surfaces protected.

Sensitivity assessment. A deposit of 30 cm of fine sediment would smother and damage the majority of the faunal community. In the high energy environment that the biotope occurs, deposited sediment would probably be removed fairly quickly. Resistance is therefore assessed as 'Low', resilience as 'Medium' and sensitivity as 'Medium'.

Litter

Not Assessed (NA) Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Not assessed (NA) Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Not assessed (NA) Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Not assessed.

Electromagnetic changes No evidence (NEv)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Not relevant (NR) Q: NR A: NR C: NR

No evidence (NEv)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

No evidence

Underwater noise changes

High

Q: Low A: NR C: NR

High

Q: High A: High C: High

Not sensitive Q: Low A: Low C: Low

Stanley et al. (2014) studied the effects of vessel noise on fouling communities and found that the bryozoans Bugula neritina, Watersipora arcuate and Watersipora subtorquata responded positively.

More than twice as many bryozoans settled and established on surfaces with vessel noise (128 dB in the 30–10,000 Hz range) compared to those in silent conditions. Growth was also significantly higher in bryozoans exposed to noise, with 20% higher growth rate in encrusting and 35% higher growth rate in branching species. No evidence could be found for the effects of noise on sponges but they are unlikely to be sensitive.

Sensitivity assessment. Resistance to this pressure is assessed as 'High' and resilience as 'High'. This biotope is therefore considered to be 'Not sensitive' at the benchmark level.

Introduction of light or shading

High

High

Not sensitive

Q: Low A: NR C: NR

Q: High A: High C: High

Q: Low A: Low C: Low

Flustra foliacea larvae are positively phototactic on release, swimming for only short periods (Hayward & Ryland, 1998) however, at the depths Flustra foliacea can occur, light may not be important. Jones et al. (2012) compiled a report on the monitoring of sponges around Skomer Island and found that many sponges, particularly encrusting species, were more abundant on vertical or shaded bedrock to open, light surfaces, probably due to reduced competition with algae.

Sensitivity assessment. The biotope occurs in the ciraclittoral and, whilst increase in light could result in competition with algae, it is unlikely that an increase at the benchmark level would be significant. Resistance to this pressure is assessed as 'High' and resilience as 'High'. This biotope is therefore considered to be 'Not sensitive' at the benchmark level.

Barrier to species movement

Not relevant (NR)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Not relevant (NR)

Not relevant (NR)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Barriers and changes in tidal excursion are 'Not relevant' to biotopes restricted to open waters.

Death or injury by collision

Not relevant (NR)

Not relevant (NR)

Not relevant (NR)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Not relevant to seabed habitats. NB. Collision by grounding vessels is addressed under 'surface abrasion'.

Visual disturbance

Not relevant (NR)

Not relevant (NR)

Not relevant (NR)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Not relevant

Biological Pressures

Resistance

Resilience

Sensitivity

Genetic modification & translocation of indigenous species

No evidence (NEv)

Not relevant (NR)

No evidence (NEv)

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

There is currently 'No evidence' on which to assess this pressure.

Introduction or spread of No evidence (NEv) invasive non-indigenous

Not relevant (NR)

No evidence (NEv)

species

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

Q: NR A: NR C: NR

This biotope is classified as circalittoral and therefore no algal species have been considered. Didemnum vexillum is an invasive colonial sea squirt native to Asia which was first recorded in the UK in Darthaven Marina, Dartmouth in 2005. Didemnum vexillum can form extensive mats over the substrata it colonizes, binding boulders, cobbles and altering the host habitat (Griffith et al., 2009). Didemnum vexillum can also grow over and smother the resident biological community. Recent surveys within Holyhead Marina, North Wales have found Didemnum vexillum growing on and smothering native tunicate communities, including Ciona intestinalis (Griffith et al., 2009). Due to the rapid-re-colonization of *Didemnum vexillum* eradication attempts have to date failed.

Presently Didemnum vexillum is isolated to several sheltered locations in the UK (NBN, 2015), however, Didemnum vexillum successfully colonized offshore in Georges Bank, USA (Lengyel et al., 2009), which is more exposed than the locations that Didemnum vexillum has colonized in the UK. It is, therefore, possible that Didemnum vexillum could pose a threat to these biotopes.

A number of invasive bryozoans are of concern including Schizoporella japonica (Ryland et al., 2014) and Tricellaria inopinata (Dyrynda et al., 2000; Cook et al., 2013b). Tricellaria inopinata has been reported to colonize the byssal threads of the mussel Mytilus galloprovincialis, Hymeniacidon perleve and the ascidian Styela plicata (Dyrynda et al., 2000). Tricellaria inopinata dominated the fouling community in the Lagoon of Venice, within seven years of being introduced (Ambrogi, 2000).

There is 'No evidence' at present that this biotope has been affected by INIS species. Due to the constant risk of new invasive species, the literature for this pressure should be revisited.

Introduction of microbial Medium pathogens

Q: Low A: NR C: NR

Medium

Medium

Q: Medium A: Medium C: Medium Q: Low A: Low C: Low

Pukall et al. (2001) studied the microbial community associated with Flustra foliacea and reported colonization of surfaces by bacteria typical of the marine environment and which may have been transferred into this environment from terrestrial sites. No information on diseases was found. Stebbing (1971a) reported that encrusting epizoites reduced the growth rate of Flustra foliacea by ca 50%. The bryozoan Bugula flabellata produces stolons that grow in and through the zooids of Flustra foliacea, causing "irreversible degeneration of the enclosed polypide" (Stebbing, 1971b).

Gochfeld et al. (2012) found that diseased sponges hosted significantly different bacterial assemblages compared to healthy sponges, with diseased sponges also exhibiting a significant decline in sponge mass and protein content. Sponge disease epidemics can have serious long-term effects on sponge populations, especially in long-lived, slow-growing species (Webster, 2007). Numerous sponge populations have been brought to the brink of extinction including cases in the Caribbean with 70-95% disappearance of sponge specimens (Galstoff, 1942) and the Mediterranean (Vacelet, 1994; Gaino et al., 1992). Decaying patches and white bacterial film were reported in Haliclona oculata and Halichondria panicea in North Wales, 1988-89 (Webster, 2007). Specimens of *Cliona* spp. exhibited blackened damage since 2013 in Skomer. Preliminary results have shown that clean, fouled and blackened Cliona all have very different bacterial communities. The blackened Cliona were effectively dead and had a bacterial community similar to marine sediments. The fouled Cliona had a very distinct bacterial community that may suggest a specific

pathogen caused the effect (Burton, pers comm; Preston & Burton, 2015).

There appears to be little research into ascidian diseases, particularly in the Atlantic. The parasite Lankesteria ascidiae targets the digestive tubes and can cause 'long faeces syndrome' in Ciona intestinalis (although it has also been recorded in other species). Mortality occurs in severely affected individuals within about a week following first symptoms. (Mita et al., 2012). Ooishi (2010) reported the copepod Enterocola hessei parasitizing Clavelina lepadiformis, however, no evidence for microbial infection was found.

Sensitivity assessment. Current research on disease indicates that *Flustra foliacea* and some sponges are susceptible to disease, although the extent and long-term implications are still being researched. There is no evidence to suggest mortality of sponges in the British Isles, although mass mortality and even extinction have been reported further afield. Resistance has been assessed as 'Medium' with a resilience of 'Medium' and sensitivity is, therefore 'Medium'.

Removal of target None Medium
species Q: Low A: NR C: NR Q: Medium A: Medium C: Medium Q: Low A: Low C: Low

Flustra foliacea is not presently known to be subject to extraction. However, many bryozoans have been recently found to contain pharmacologically active substances (Hayward & Ryland, 1998; Lysek et al., 2002; Peters et al., 2003). Spongia officinalis (a Mediterranean species) has been targeted as a commercial species for use as bath sponges, although this species does not occur in the British Isles and no record of commercial exploitation of sponges in the British Isles could be found. Many different bioactive compounds have been found in the Haliclona order, such as lectins, peptides, ketosteroids, and sterol esters (Pajic et al. 2002; Aoki et al. 2004; Santalova et al. 2004; Koopmans & Wijffels, 2008), and it is possible that these sponges may be subject to future harvesting.

Sensitivity assessment. Whilst not presently harvested, it is possible that *Flustra foliacea* and Haliclonids may be subject to harvesting in the future. *Flustra foliacea* and the sponges are sessile epifauna and would, therefore, have no defence against targeted extraction. Therefore, a precautionary resistance of '**None**' is suggested with Low confidence. Resilience is '**Medium**' and overall sensitivity is therefore '**Medium**'.

Removal of non-target Medium

Species

Q: Low A: NR C: NR

Q: Medium A: Medium C: Medium
Q: Low A: Low C: Low
Q: Low A: Low C: Low

The characteristic species probably compete for space within the biotope, so that loss of one species would probably have little if any effect on the other members of the community. However, removal of the characteristic epifauna due to by -catch is likely to remove a proportion of the biotope and change the biological character of the biotope.

Whilst disturbance would damage the sessile *Flustra foliacea*, the flexibility and ability to regenerate damaged fronds (as long as the holdfast is undamaged) would result in survival of a significant proportion of the colonies. Resistance is, therefore, 'Medium', resilience is 'High' and sensitivity is 'Low'.

Bibliography

Ackers, R.G.A., Moss, D. & Picton, B.E. 1992. Sponges of the British Isles (Sponges: V): a colour guide and working document. Ross-on-Wve: Marine Conservation Society.

Allen, J., Slinn, D., Shummon, T., Hurtnoll, R. & Hawkins, S., 1998. Evidence for eutrophication of the Irish Sea over four decades. *Limnology and Oceanography*, **43** (8), 1970-1974.

Ambrogi, A.O., 2000. Biotic invasions in a Mediterranean lagoon. Biological Invasions, 2 (2), 165-176.

Aoki, S., Cao, L., Matsui, K., Rachmat, R., Akiyama, S.-i. & Kobayashi, M., 2004. Kendarimide A, a novel peptide reversing P-glycoprotein-mediated multidrug resistance in tumor cells, from a marine sponge of *Haliclona* sp. *Tetrahedron*, **60** (33), 7053-7059.

Bakus, G.J., 1968. Sedimentation and benthic invertebrates of Fanning Island, Central Pacific. Marine Geology, 6, 45-51.

Banks, P.D. & Brown, K.M., 2002. Hydrocarbon effects on fouling assemblages: the importance of taxonomic differences, seasonal, and tidal variation. *Marine Environmental Research*, **53** (3), 311-326.

Bell, J.J. & Barnes, D.K., 2000. The distribution and prevalence of sponges in relation to environmental gradients within a temperate sea lough: inclined cliff surfaces. *Diversity and Distributions*, **6** (6), 305-323.

Bell, J.J. & Barnes, D.K., 2001. Sponge morphological diversity: a qualitative predictor of species diversity? *Aquatic Conservation*: *Marine and Freshwater Ecosystems*, **11** (2), 109-121.

Bell, J.J. & Smith, D., 2004. Ecology of sponge assemblages (Porifera) in the Wakatobi region, south-east Sulawesi, Indonesia: richness and abundance. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the UK*, **84** (3), 581-591.

Bell, J.J., Barnes, D. & Shaw, C., 2002. Branching dynamics of two species of arborescent demosponge: the effect of flow regime and bathymetry. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the UK*, **82** (2), 279-294.

Berrill, N.J., 1975. Chordata: Tunicata. In *Reproduction of marine Invertebrates*, vol. II, (ed. A.C. Geise & J.S. Pearse), pp. 241-282. New York: Academic Press.

Berrill, N.J., 1950. The Tunicata with an account of the British species. London: Ray Society.

Boulcott, P. & Howell, T.R.W., 2011. The impact of scallop dredging on rocky-reef substrata. *Fisheries Research* (Amsterdam), **110** (3), 415-420.

Bryan, G.W. & Gibbs, P.E., 1991. Impact of low concentrations of tributyltin (TBT) on marine organisms: a review. In: *Metal ecotoxicology: concepts and applications* (ed. M.C. Newman & A.W. McIntosh), pp. 323-361. Boston: Lewis Publishers Inc.

Budd, G.C. 2008. Alcyonium digitatum Dead man's fingers. In Tyler-Walters H. and Hiscock K. (eds) Marine Life Information Network: Biology and Sensitivity Key Information Reviews, [on-line]. Plymouth: Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom. Available from: http://www.marlin.ac.uk/species/detail/1187

Bullimore, B., 1985. An investigation into the effects of scallop dredging within the Skomer Marine Reserve. Report to the Nature Conservancy Council by the Skomer Marine Reserve Subtidal Monitoring Project, S.M.R.S.M.P. Report, no 3., Nature Conservancy Council.

Castège, I., Milon, E. & Pautrizel, F., 2014. Response of benthic macrofauna to an oil pollution: Lessons from the "Prestige" oil spill on the rocky shore of Guéthary (south of the Bay of Biscay, France). *Deep Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography*, **106**, 192-197.

Cocito, S., Ferdeghini, F., & Sgorbini, S., 1998b. *Pentapora fascialis* (Pallas) [Cheilostomata: Ascophora] colonization of one sublittoral rocky site after sea-storm in the northwest Mediterranean. *Hydrobiologia*, **375/376**, 59-66.

Cole, S., Codling, I.D., Parr, W., Zabel, T., 1999. Guidelines for managing water quality impacts within UK European marine sites [On-line]. *UK Marine SACs Project*. [Cited 26/01/16]. Available from: http://www.ukmarinesac.org.uk/pdfs/water quality.pdf

Connor, D.W., Allen, J.H., Golding, N., Howell, K.L., Lieberknecht, L.M., Northen, K.O. & Reker, J.B., 2004. The Marine Habitat Classification for Britain and Ireland. Version 04.05. ISBN 1861075618. In JNCC (2015), *The Marine Habitat Classification for Britain and Ireland Version* 15.03. [2019-07-24]. Joint Nature Conservation Committee, Peterborough. Available from https://mhc.jncc.gov.uk/

Cook, E.J., Stehlíková, J., Beveridge, C.M., Burrows, M.T., De Blauwe, H. & Faasse, M., 2013b. Distribution of the invasive bryozoan *Tricellaria inopinata* in Scotland and a review of its European expansion. *Aquatic Invasions*, **8** (3), 281-288.

Crisp, D.J. (ed.), 1964. The effects of the severe winter of 1962-63 on marine life in Britain. Journal of Animal Ecology, 33, 165-210.

De Caralt, S., López-Legentil, S., Tarjuelo, I., Uriz, M.J. & Turon, X., 2002. Contrasting biological traits of *Clavelina lepadiformis* (Ascidiacea) populations from inside and outside harbours in the western Mediterranean. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, **244**, 125-137.

De Goeij, J.M., Moodley, L., Houtekamer, M., Carballeira, N.M. & Van Duyl, F.C., 2008. Tracing ¹³C-enriched dissolved and particulate organic carbon in the bacteria-containing coral reef sponge *Halisarca caerulea*: Evidence for DOM-feeding. *Limnology and Oceanography*, **53** (4), 1376-1386.

De Kluijver, M. & Leewis, R., 1994. Changes in the sublittoral hard substrate communities in the Oosterschelde estuary (SW Netherlands), caused by changes in the environmental parameters. *Hydrobiologia*, **282** (1), 265-280.

De Vos, L., Rútzler K., Boury-Esnault, N., Donadey C., Vacelet, J., 1991. Atlas of Sponge Morphology. Atlas de Morphologie des

Éponges. Washington, Smithsonian Institution Press.

Diaz, R.J. & Rosenberg, R., 1995. Marine benthic hypoxia: a review of its ecological effects and the behavioural responses of benthic macrofauna. *Oceanography and Marine Biology: an Annual Review*, **33**, 245-303.

Dyrynda, P., Fairall, V., Occhipinti Ambrogi, A. & d'Hondt, J.-L., 2000. The distribution, origins and taxonomy of *Tricellaria inopinata* d'Hondt and Occhipinti Ambrogi, 1985, an invasive bryozoan new to the Atlantic. *Journal of Natural History*, **34** (10), 1993-2006.

Dyrynda, P.E.J., 1994. Hydrodynamic gradients and bryozoan distributions within an estuarine basin (Poole Harbour, UK). In *Proceedings of the 9th International Bryozoology conference, Swansea, 1992. Biology and Palaeobiology of Bryozoans* (ed. P.J. Hayward, J.S. Ryland & P.D. Taylor), pp.57-63. Fredensborg: Olsen & Olsen.

Eggleston, D., 1972b. Factors influencing the distribution of sub-littoral ectoprocts off the south of the Isle of Man (Irish Sea). *Journal of Natural History*, **6**, 247-260.

Fariñas-Franco, J.M., Pearce, B., Porter, J., Harries, D., Mair, J.M. & Sanderson, W.G, 2014. Development and validation of indicators of Good Environmental Status for biogenic reefs formed by *Modiolus modiolus*, *Mytilus edulis* and *Sabellaria spinulosa* under the Marine Strategy Framework Directive. *Joint Nature Conservation Committee*,

Fell, P.E., 1974. Diapause in the gemmules of the marine sponge, *Haliclona loosanoffi*, with a note on the gemmules of *Haliclona oculata*. The Biological Bulletin, **147** (2), 333-351.

Fiana-Medioni, A., 1978. A scanning electron microscope study of the branchial sac of benthic filter-feeding invertebrates (ascidians). *Acta Zoologica*, 59, **1**, 1-9.

Fish, J.D. & Fish, S., 1996. A student's guide to the seashore. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Fortunato, H., Schäfer, P. & Blaschek, H., 2013. Growth Rates, Age Determination, and Calcification Levels in *Flustra foliacea* (L.) (Bryozoa: Cheilostomata): Preliminary Assessment. In Ernst, A., et al. (eds.). *Bryozoan Studies* 2010, Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg, pp. 59-74.

Freese, J.L., 2001. Trawl-induced damage to sponges observed from a research submersible. Marine Fisheries Review, 63 (3), 7-13.

Freese, L., Auster, P.J., Heifetz, J. & Wing, B.L., 1999. Effects of trawling on seafloor habitat and associated invertebrate taxa in the Gulf of Alaska. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, **182**, 119-126.

Gaino, E., Pronzato, R., Corriero, G. & Buffa, P., 1992. Mortality of commercial sponges: incidence in two Mediterranean areas. *Italian Journal of Zoology*, **59** (1), 79-85.

Galstoff, P., 1942. Wasting disease causing mortality of sponges in the West Indies and Gulf of Mexico. *Proceedings 8th American Scientific Congress*, pp. 411-421.

Gerrodette, T. & Flechsig, A., 1979. Sediment-induced reduction in the pumping rate of the tropical sponge *Verongia lacunosa*. *Marine Biology*, **55** (2), 103-110.

Gochfeld, D., Easson, C., Freeman, C., Thacker, R. & Olson, J., 2012. Disease and nutrient enrichment as potential stressors on the Caribbean sponge *Aplysina cauliformis* and its bacterial symbionts. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, **456**, 101-111.

Gochfeld, D.J., Schlöder, C. & Thacker, R.W., 2007. Sponge community structure and disease prevalence on coral reefs in Bocas del Toro, Panama. *Porifera Research: Biodiversity, Innovation, and Sustainability, Série Livros*, **28**, 335-343.

Griffith, K., Mowat, S., Holt, R.H., Ramsay, K., Bishop, J.D., Lambert, G. & Jenkins, S.R., 2009. First records in Great Britain of the invasive colonial ascidian *Didemnum vexillum* Kott, 2002. *Aquatic Invasions*, **4** (4), 581-590.

Gunda, V.G. & Janapala, V.R., 2009. Effects of dissolved oxygen levels on survival and growth in vitro of *Haliclona pigmentifera* (Demospongiae). *Cell and tissue research*, **337** (3), 527-535.

Hartikainen, H., Johnes, P., Moncrieff, C. & Okamura, B., 2009. Bryozoan populations reflect nutrient enrichment and productivity gradients in rivers. *Freshwater Biology*, **54** (11), 2320-2334.

Hayward, P.J. & McKinney, F.K., 2002. Northern Adriatic Bryozoa from the vicinity of Rovinj, Croatia. *Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History*, 1-139.

Hayward, P.J. & Ryland, J.S. 1998. *Cheilostomatous Bryozoa*. *Part 1*. *Aeteoidea - Cribrilinoidea*. Shrewsbury: Field Studies Council. [Synopses of the British Fauna, no. 10. (2nd edition)]

Hayward, P.J. & Ryland, J.S. (ed.) 1995a. *The marine fauna of the British Isles and north-west Europe.* Volume 2. Molluscs to Chordates. Oxford Science Publications. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Hayward, P.J. & Ryland, J.S. (ed.) 1995b. Handbook of the marine fauna of North-West Europe. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Herreid, C.F., 1980. Hypoxia in invertebrates. Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology Part A: Physiology, 67 (3), 311-320.

Hincks, T., 1880. A history of British marine Polyzoa, vol. I & II. London: John van Voorst.

Hiscock, H., 1985b. Aspects of the ecology of rocky sublittoral areas. In *The Ecology of Rocky Coasts: essays presented to J.R. Lewis*, D.Sc. (ed. P.G. Moore & R. Seed), pp. 290-328. London: Hodder & Stoughton Ltd.

Hiscock, K. & Hoare, R., 1975. The ecology of sublittoral communities at Abereiddy Quarry, Pembrokeshire. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom*, **55** (4), 833-864.

Hiscock, K., 1981. Marine life on the wreck of the M.V. "Robert". Report of the Lundy Field Society, 32, 40-44.

Hiscock, K., 1983. Water movement. In Sublittoral ecology. The ecology of shallow sublittoral benthos (ed. R. Earll & D.G. Erwin), pp. 58-96. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Hoare, R. & Hiscock, K., 1974. An ecological survey of the rocky coast adjacent to the effluent of a bromine extraction plant. *Estuarine and Coastal Marine Science*, **2** (4), 329-348.

Holme, N.A. & Wilson, J.B., 1985. Faunas associated with longitudinal furrows and sand ribbons in a tide-swept area in the English Channel. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom*, **65**, 1051-1072.

Holt, T.J., Jones, D.R., Hawkins, S.J. & Hartnoll, R.G., 1995. The sensitivity of marine communities to man induced change - a scoping report. *Countryside Council for Wales, Bangor, Contract Science Report*, no. 65.

Jennings, S. & Kaiser, M.J., 1998. The effects of fishing on marine ecosystems. Advances in Marine Biology, 34, 201-352.

JNCC, 2015. The Marine Habitat Classification for Britain and Ireland Version 15.03. (20/05/2015). Available from https://mhc.jncc.gov.uk/

Jones, J., Bunker, F., Newman, P., Burton, M., Lock, K., 2012. Sponge Diversity of Skomer Marine Nature Reserve. *CCW Regional Report*, CCW/WW/12/3.

Kayser, H., 1990. Bioaccumulation and transfer of cadmium in marine diatoms, Bryozoa, and Kamptozoa. In *Oceanic processes in marine pollution*, vol. 6. *Physical and chemical processes: transport and transformation* (ed. D.J. Baumgartner & I.W. Duedall), pp. 99-106. Florida: R.E. Krieger Publishing Co.

Knight-Jones, E.W. & Nelson-Smith, A., 1977. Sublittoral transects in the Menai Straits and Milford Haven. In *Biology of benthic organisms* (ed. B.F. Keegan, P. O Ceidigh & P.J.S. Broaden), pp. 379-390. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Koopmans, M. & Wijffels, R.H., 2008. Seasonal Growth Rate of the Sponge *Haliclona oculata* (Demospongiae: Haplosclerida). *Marine Biotechnology*, **10** (5), 502-510.

Lengyel, N.L., Collie, J.S. & Valentine, P.C., 2009. The invasive colonial ascidian *Didemnum vexillum* on Georges Bank - Ecological effects and genetic identification. *Aquatic Invasions*, **4**(1), 143-152.

Lysek, N., Rachor, E. & Lindel, T., 2002. Isolation and structure elucidation of Deformylflustrabromine from the North Sea bryozoan *Flustra foliacea*. *Zeitschrift für Naturforschung*, *C: Biosciences*, **57**, 1056-1061.

Marin, A., Lopez, M., Esteban, M., Meseguer, J., Munoz, J. & Fontana, A., 1998. Anatomical and ultrastructural studies of chemical defence in the sponge *Dysidea fragilis*. *Marine Biology*, **131** (4), 639-645.

McKinney, F.K. & Jaklin, A., 2000. Spatial niche partitioning in the *Cellaria* meadow epibiont association, northern Adriatic Sea. *Cahiers de biologie marine*, **41** (1), 1-17.

McKinney, F.K., 1986. Evolution of erect marine bryozoan faunas: repeated success of unilaminate species *The American Naturalist*, **128**, 795-809.

Menon, N.R., 1975. Observations on growth of *Flustra foliacea* (Bryozoa) from Helgoland waters. *Helgolander Wissenschaftliche Meeresuntersuchungen*, **27**, 263-267.

Millar, R., 1971. The biology of ascidians. Advances in marine biology, 9, 1-100.

Millar, R.H., 1970. British Ascidians London: Academic Press. [Synopses of the British Fauna, no. 1.]

Mita, K., Kawai, N., Rueckert, S. & Sasakura, Y., 2012. Large-scale infection of the ascidian *Ciona intestinalis* by the gregarine *Lankesteria ascidiae* in an inland culture system. *Diseases of aquatic organisms*, **101** (3), 185-195.

Moore, P.G., 1977a. Inorganic particulate suspensions in the sea and their effects on marine animals. *Oceanography and Marine Biology: An Annual Review*, **15**, 225-363.

Mustapha K., Zarrouk, S., Souissi, A. & El Abed, A., 2003. Diversité des Démosponges Tunisiennes. *Bulletin Institut national des Sciences et Technologies de la mer de Salammbô*, **30**, 55-78.

Naranjo, S.A., Carballo, J.L., & Garcia-Gomez, J.C., 1996. Effects of environmental stress on ascidian populations in Algeciras Bay (southern Spain). Possible marine bioindicators? *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, **144** (1), 119-131.

NBN, 2015. National Biodiversity Network 2015(20/05/2015). https://data.nbn.org.uk/

O'Dea, A. & Okamura, B., 2000. Life history and environmental inference through retrospective morphometric analysis of bryozoans: a preliminary study. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom*, **80**, 1127-1128.

Okamura, B., 1984. The effects of ambient flow velocity, colony size and upstream colonies on the feeding success of Bryozoa, *Bugula stolonifera* Ryland, an arborescent species. *Journal of the Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology*, **83**, 179-193.

Ooishi, S., 2010. Enterocola hessei Chatton & Harant (Copepoda: Cyclopoida: Ascidicolidae) living in the compound ascidian Clavelina lepadiformis (Müller). Proceedings of the Biological Society of Washington, 123 (2), 137-148.

Pajic, I., Kljajic, Z., Dogovic, N., Sladic, D., Juranic, Z. & Gasic, M.J., 2002. A novel lectin from the sponge Haliclona cratera: isolation, characterization and biological activity. *Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology Part C: Toxicology & Pharmacology*, **132** (2), 213-221.

Peters, L., König, G.M., Wright, A.D., Pukall, R., Stackebrandt, E., Eberl, L. & Riedel, K., 2003. Secondary metabolites of *Flustra foliacea* and their influence on bacteria. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, **69**, 3469-3475.

Picton, B.E. & Costello, M.J., 1998. BioMar biotope viewer: a guide to marine habitats, fauna and flora of Britain and Ireland. [CD-ROM] Environmental Sciences Unit, Trinity College, Dublin.

Picton, B.E. & Morrow, C.C. (2004b). *Polyclinum aurantium.Encyclopedia of Marine Life of Britain and Ireland*. http://www.habitas.org.uk/marinelife/species.asp?item=ZD340 Accessed on 2016-06-15

Picton, B.E. & Morrow, C.C. (2004c). Clavelina lepadiformis (O F M"uller, 1776). Encyclopedia of Marine Life of Britain and Ireland.

http://www.habitas.org.uk/marinelife/species.asp?item=ZD60 Accessed on 2016-06-15

Picton, B.E. & Morrow, C.C., 2004. Nemertesia ramosa Lamouroux, 1816.

http://www.habitas.org.uk/marinelife/species.asp?item=D5990, 2004-09-14

Porter, J., 2012. Seasearch Guide to Bryozoans and Hydroids of Britain and Ireland. Ross-on-Wye: Marine Conservation Society.

Preston J. & Burton, M., 2015. Marine microbial assemblages associated with diseased Porifera in Skomer Marine Nature Reserve (SMNR), Wales. Aquatic Biodiversity and Ecosystems, 30th August – 4th September, Liverpool., pp. p110.

Pukall, R., Kramer, I., Rohde, M. & Stackebrandt, E., 2001. Microbial diversity of cultivatable bacteria associated with the North Sea bryozoan *Flustra foliacea*. *Systematic and applied microbiology*, **24** (4), 623-633.

Rees, H.L., Waldock, R., Matthiessen, P. & Pendle, M.A., 2001. Improvements in the epifauna of the Crouch estuary (United Kingdom) following a decline in TBT concentrations. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, **42**, 137-144.

Reinhardt, J.F., Stefaniak, L.M., Hudson, D.M., Mangiafico, J., Gladych, R. & Whitlatch, R.B., 2010. First record of the non-native light bulb tunicate *Clavelina lepadiformis* (Müller, 1776) in the northwest Atlantic. *Aquatic Invasions*, 5 (2), 185-190.

Riisgård, H.U., Bondo Christensen, P., Olesen, N.J., Petersen, J.K, Moller, M.M. & Anderson, P., 1993. Biological structure in a shallow cove (Kertinge Nor, Denmark) - control by benthic nutrient fluxes and suspension-feeding ascidians and jellyfish. *Ophelia*, 41, 329-344.

Riley, K. 2008. Clavelina lepadiformis Light bulb sea squirt. In Tyler-Walters H. and Hiscock K. (eds) Marine Life Information Network: Biology and Sensitivity Key Information Reviews, [on-line]. Plymouth: Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom. Available from: http://www.marlin.ac.uk/species/detail/1483

Roberts, D., Cummins, S., Davis, A. & Chapman, M., 2006. Structure and dynamics of sponge-dominated assemblages on exposed and sheltered temperate reefs. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, **321**, 19-30.

Rose, C.S. & Risk, M.J., 1985. Increase in *Cliona delitrix* infestation of *Montastrea cavernosa* heads on an organically polluted portion of the Grand Cayman fringing reef. *Marine Ecology*, **6** (4), 345-363.

Rosenberg, R., Hellman, B. & Johansson, B., 1991. Hypoxic tolerance of marine benthic fauna. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, **79**, 127-131.

Ryland, J.S. & De Putron, S., 1998. An appraisal of the effects of the *Sea Empress* oil spillage on sensitive invertebrate communities. *Countryside Council for Wales Sea Empress Contract Report*, no. 285, 97pp.

Ryland, J.S., 1970. Bryozoans. London: Hutchinson University Library.

Ryland, J.S., 1976. Physiology and ecology of marine bryozoans. Advances in Marine Biology, 14, 285-443.

Ryland, J.S., Holt, R., Loxton, J., Spencer Jones, M. & Porter, J.S., 2014. First occurrence of the non-native bryozoan *Schizoporella japonica* Ortmann (1890) in Western Europe. *Zootaxa*, **3780** (3), 481-502.

Sagasti, A., Schaffner, L.C. & Duffy, J.E., 2000. Epifaunal communities thrive in an estuary with hypoxic episodes. *Estuaries*, **23**, 474-487.

Santalova, E.A., Makarieva, T.N., Gorshkova, I.A., Dmitrenok, A.S., Krasokhin, V.B. & Stonik, V.A., 2004. Sterols from six marine sponges. *Biochemical Systematics and Ecology*, **32** (2), 153-167.

Schönberg, C.H.L., 2015. Happy relationships between marine sponges and sediments—a review and some observations from Australia. *Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom*, 1-22.

Silén, L., 1981. Colony structure in Flustra foliacea (Linnaeus) (Bryozoa, Cheilostomata). Acta Zoologica (Stockholm.), 62, 219-232.

Sipkema, D., Van Wielink, R., Van Lammeren, A., Tramper, J., Osinga, R. & Wijffels, R., 2003. Primmorphs from seven marine sponges: formation and structure. *Journal of Biotechnology*, **100** (2), 127-139.

Soule, D.F. & Soule, J.D., 1979. Bryozoa (Ectoprocta). In *Pollution ecology of estuarine invertebrates* (ed. C.W. Hart & S.L.H. Fuller), pp. 35-76.

Stanley, J.A., Wilkens, S.L. & Jeffs, A.G., 2014. Fouling in your own nest: vessel noise increases biofouling. *Biofouling*, **30** (7), 837-844.

Stebbing, A.R.D., 1971a. Growth of Flustra foliacea (Bryozoa). Marine Biology, 9, 267-273.

Stebbing, A.R.D., 1971b. The epizoic fauna of Flustra foliacea [Bryozoa]. Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom, **51**, 283-300.

Stefaniak, L.M., Auster, P.J. & Babb, I.G., 2014. Loss of an erect sponge on a rock reef in Long Island Sound (north-west Atlantic). *Marine Biodiversity Records*, **7**, e115.

Storr, J.F. 1976. Ecological factors controlling sponge distribution in the Gulf of Mexico and the resulting zonation. In *Aspects of Sponge Biology* (ed. F.W. Harrison & R.R. Cowden), pp. 261-276. New York: Academic Press.

Tillin, H. & Tyler-Walters, H., 2014. Assessing the sensitivity of subtidal sedimentary habitats to pressures associated with marine activities. Phase 2 Report – Literature review and sensitivity assessments for ecological groups for circalittoral and offshore Level 5 biotopes. *JNCC Report* No. 512B, 260 pp. Available from: www.marlin.ac.uk/publications

Tjensvoll, I., Kutti, T., Fosså, J.H. & Bannister, R., 2013. Rapid respiratory responses of the deep-water sponge *Geodia barretti* exposed to suspended sediments. *Aquatic Biology*, **19**, 65-73.

Tyler-Walters, H., 2005c. *Bugula turbinata* an erect bryozoan. In Tyler-Walters H. and Hiscock K. (eds) *Marine Life Information Network: Biology and Sensitivity Key Information Reviews*, [on-line]. Plymouth: Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom.

[cited 30.03.16] Available from: http://www.marlin.ac.uk/species/detail/1715

Tyler-Walters, H. & Ballerstedt, S., 2007. *Flustra foliacea* Hornwrack. In Tyler-Walters H. and Hiscock K. (eds) *Marine Life Information Network: Biology and Sensitivity Key Information Reviews*, [on-line]. Plymouth: Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom. Available from: http://www.marlin.ac.uk/species/detail/1609

Vacelet, J., 1994. Control of the severe sponge epidemic—Near East and Europe: Algeria, Cyprus, Egypt, Lebanon, Malta, Morocco, Syria, Tunisia, Turkey. Yugoslavia. *Technical Report-the struggle against the epidemic which is decimating Mediterranean sponges FI: TCP/RAB/8853. Rome, Italy.* 1–39 p, pp.

Van Dolah, R.F., Wendt, P.H. & Nicholson, N., 1987. Effects of a research trawl on a hard-bottom assemblage of sponges and corals. *Fisheries Research*, **5** (1), 39-54.

Wapstra, M. & van Soest, R.W.M., 1987. Sexual reproduction, larval morphology and behaviour in demosponges from the southwest of the Netherlands. Berlin: Springer-Verlag.

Ward-Paige, C.A., Risk, M.J., Sherwood, O.A. & Jaap, W.C., 2005. Clionid sponge surveys on the Florida Reef Tract suggest land-based nutrient inputs. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, **51** (5), 570-579.

Webster, N.S., 2007. Sponge disease: a global threat? Environmental Microbiology, 9 (6), 1363-1375.

Wulff, J., 1995. Effects of a hurricane on survival and orientation of large erect coral reef sponges. Coral Reefs, 14 (1), 55-61.

Wulff, J., 2006. Resistance vs recovery: morphological strategies of coral reef sponges. Functional Ecology, 20 (4), 699-708.

Zahn, R., Zahn, G., Müller, W., Kurelec, B., Rijavec, M., Batel, R. & Given, R., 1981. Assessing consequences of marine pollution by hydrocarbons using sponges as model organisms. *Science of The Total Environment*, **20** (2), 147-169.