

1 **From Ecological Risk Assessments to Risk Governance. Evaluation of the Norwegian**
2 **Management System for Contaminated Sediments.**

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1 ABSTRACT

2 Managing of contaminated sediments is a complex process that will naturally have to
3 balance scientific, political and economic interests. This paper evaluates the Norwegian sys-
4 tem for managing contaminated sediments towards a generic system for risk governance en-
5 compassing both knowledge, legally prescribed procedures and social values. The review has
6 been performed examining the management plans for 17 prioritised contaminated fjord sys-
7 tems in Norway. The results indicate a strong focus in the Norwegian management system on
8 ecological risk assessment. This facilitates selection of local sustainable remediation
9 measures, but may also complicate the balance towards other relevant interests in a decision
10 making process. The Norwegian system lacks management tools to identify and handle ambi-
11 guity through concern assessments and stakeholder involvement, and the decision making
12 process seems to a large extent based on “ad-hoc” decisions making it difficult to incorporate
13 and document multi criteria evaluations into the management process. To develop a sustaina-
14 ble management system, encompassing environmental, economical and social interests, a
15 stronger focus on concern assessment and multi criteria evaluations is required.

16

17 **KEYWORDS:** Risk Governance, Sediment, Management, Sediment Quality Guidelines,

18 Multi criteria decisions

19

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Sediment contamination in a river basin or an urban coastal area is often related to a
3 complex situation of sources contributing to contamination. The sources may have a local
4 origin as effluent releases from present or former industrial sites, whereas other sources are
5 diffuse like urban run-off or long-range transport of pollution. The sediments often act as a
6 sink accumulating contamination from all sources, thus making it likely to find elevated levels
7 of contamination in large areas. Due to the nature of the sediment problem characterised by
8 potentially significant volumes with contamination above background levels, the management
9 of contaminated sediments will naturally have to balance cost, environmental aspects and po-
10 tentially social conflicting interests. Therefore there exists not one single correct way to ad-
11 dress the problem, but the approach should rather be driven by the ecological, political and
12 economic goals of all interested parties (Apitz & Power 2002). The balance between these
13 interests is delicate and involves not only natural science oriented aspects but is also depend-
14 ing on social understanding, risk perception and social acceptance among stakeholder groups
15 and public.

16 Norway has taken an approach for sediment management decisions based on site-
17 specific risk assessment. Even though this may be a large step towards a sustainable manage-
18 ment of contaminated sediments, (Apitz 2008), allowing also in-situ remediation technologies
19 and natural recovery to be used as remediation options, this paper will evaluate the Norwe-
20 gian management system for contaminated sediments examining the maturity towards a risk
21 governance framework encompassing both knowledge, legally prescribed procedures and
22 social values, and will suggest improvements to guide sediment management in a sustainable
23 direction.

24

1 **THE NORWEGIAN MANAGEMENT MODEL**

2 Sediment contamination in Norway differs somewhat from the situation in the rest of
3 Europe. The main concern with relation to sediments is not connected to river basins and need
4 for dredging to maintain navigational depth, but to the presence of contamination in the inner
5 parts of the fjords and in harbour areas. Driving forces for management are increased envi-
6 ronmental awareness and urban development in these areas.

7 The process of sediment management in Norway started in the late 1990s by an ex-
8 tensive investigation of contamination in more than 120 locations along the coast. Based on
9 these investigations a system for sediment quality guidelines (SQGs) was developed, classify-
10 ing the sediment in five classes from background values (Class I) to severe contamination
11 (class V) (SFT 1997). Initially the different classes were set merely by statistical evaluation
12 and expert knowledge, whereas in the in latest revision of the guideline the values are based
13 on eco-toxicological data and derived Probable No effect values (PNEC) using the EU-TGD
14 system (EU 2003). To complement the basic risk assessment based on SQGs, a system for site
15 specific risk assessment was developed allowing a more detailed assessment based on local
16 site conditions. The local assessment considers risk on human health (exposure for contami-
17 nation), spreading (to water and uptake in marine organisms) and ecological risk (damage on
18 the local ecosystem) for the area of concern. In parallel with this assessment system, health
19 guidelines for oral intake of fish and shellfish have been prepared. These restrictions on intake
20 of fish and shellfish are based on expert judgement as well as direct analysis of biota, and
21 evaluation using a separate set of guideline values. At present stage 32 coastal areas have re-
22 strictions to seafood consumption.

23 Based on the investigations and the risk assessments, a strategy for mitigating sedi-
24 ment contamination has been developed and formalised through preparation of sediment

1 management plans. These management plans are based on national governmental objectives
2 stating that Norway should be a leading nation with respect to a clean marine environment,
3 striving to reduce exposure to harmful chemicals as far as possible. Today, management plans
4 for 29 areas have been prepared, targeting 17 of them for further remedial actions.

5 The sediment management strategy is formalised through two white papers from the
6 Norwegian Government in 2002 and 2006 (MD 2002; MD 2006).

7

8 **RISK GOVERNANCE MODELS**

9 One way to expand the process of contaminated sediment management is to incorpo-
10 rate it into a broader risk governance perspective. Risk governance includes the totality of
11 actors, rules, conventions, processes and mechanisms concerned with how relevant risk in-
12 formation is collected, analysed and communicated and how a management decision is taken.
13 One of the main aspects in risk governance is the acceptance and understanding of the duality
14 of risk. In Klinke & Renn (2002) the duality of risk is discussed in the terms of realism versus
15 constructivism. The realists consider risk as a representation of observable hazards predicted
16 by calculations unbiased by human observations. The constructive camp considers risk as a
17 mental model validated towards the logical consistency, cohesion and internal conventions of
18 logical deduction. This mental translation of risk is best described as risk perception and is
19 well documented in the social literature (Slovic 2000). A transparent decision model should
20 try to balance the socio-economic and political considerations with scientific evaluations into
21 a governance framework.

22 Perhaps the most comprehensive conceptual risk governance framework is described
23 by the International Council of Risk Governance, (IRGC 2007; Renn 2008). In literature there
24 are several descriptions of adaptations of the framework to different applications or develop-

1 ment of new models for decision making using the fundamentals of the framework (Pollard et
2 al. 2008; Pollard et al. 2004b; Assmuth & Hilden 2008; Pollard et al. 2004a; Kristensen et al.
3 2006). This paper however refers to the generic ideas of the four stage risk governance
4 framework as presented by IRGC, Figure 1;

5 The *pre-assessment* serves as the baseline for the risk assessment and management,
6 giving guidance on both the dimension of the risk, the relevance and interests of the stake-
7 holders and public as well as the existing foundations such as laws, regulations and other rel-
8 evant guidelines. The framework defines stakeholders as socially organised groups who are or
9 will be either affected by the risk or have strong interests in the issue. Public is defined as
10 individuals, non-organised groups or media that are experiencing the outcome of the event or
11 is a part of the opinion on the issue (Renn 2008). The pre-assessment is important since it
12 allows the duality of risk to be reflected early in the policy making phase.

13 The second step is *risk appraisal*. This step identifies and assesses important infor-
14 mation about the risk to be used in the subsequent characterisation and evaluation steps. The
15 risk appraisal contains both the conventional scientific *risk assessment* based on the identifi-
16 cation of hazard, exposure, vulnerability and probability of occurrence. The framework also
17 contains a *concern assessment* which encompasses the associations and the perceived conse-
18 quence that the stakeholder may associate with the hazard. This assessment will identify the
19 potential bias between the scientific (realistic view) and the perceptive (constructivist view)
20 allowing both sides to be reflected in the evaluation and management of risk.

21 The third step in the framework consists of *risk characterisation/evaluation*. This step
22 encompasses both the process of characterising the risk according to the findings in the ap-
23 praisal phase, as well as an evaluation of the tolerability and acceptability. For the scientific
24 evaluation this normally means evaluation towards predefined acceptance criteria, whereas

1 this model also includes an evaluation towards social values based on the result of the concern
2 assessment.

3 The final stage of the framework is the *risk management phase*. This phase comprises
4 the identification of risk reducing measures and the decision making process as well as the
5 design, implementation and monitoring the effect of these measures. *Communication* is cen-
6 tral in the process indicating that communication with stakeholders is required to build trust in
7 all phases of the framework.

8 One of the main elements in this conceptual governance model is to choose manage-
9 ment strategy based on the characteristics of the risk, This system divides the risk into four
10 different classes; *simple, uncertain, complex and ambiguous* depending on the characteristics
11 of the risk. This classification may facilitate both problem framing in the pre-assessment
12 phase as well as the characterisation of risk in the characterisation/evaluation phase and the
13 need for stakeholder involvement in the management phase.

14

15 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

16 The evaluation of the Norwegian management system for contaminated sediment has
17 been performed as a case study analysis, adapting the methods described by Eisenhardt
18 (1989). This method is based on analysis of cases to build new theory and to compare it with
19 relevant literature in order to validate the results. The theory building proposed in the result
20 chapter is based on analysing each of the 17 fjord cases prioritised for further actions. The
21 main sources of information for each case are the management plans available at the web page
22 of the State Control Authority Board (www.sft.no). Each of the management plans have been
23 subjected to textual analysis with respect to consensus to requirements for information and
24 with the three elements in the risk governance framework prior to the management phase it-
25 self. The following criteria for consistency have been used in the analysis;

1 *Pre-assessment.* Has one established and agreed on site specific goals and objectives for
2 the management of sediment contamination?

3 *Risk appraisal.* Did the material contain a risk assessment (RA) and was the classification
4 of risk based on general sediment quality guideline values (SQG), or did it contain a site spe-
5 cific RA? Was the probability of occurrence related to spreading of contaminants evaluated?
6 Was there any evidence indicating that risk perception or public opinion had been evaluated
7 in a concern assessment?

8 *Risk characterisation/evaluation.* Was the evaluation performed towards predefined eco-
9 logical risk acceptance criteria? Were qualitative and / or qualitative methods used to evalu-
10 ate other socio-economical factors towards the ecological criteria, or were management deci-
11 sions taken using ad-hoc decision methodology?

12 *Information.* Have stakeholders been involved in the analysis work and/or in the prepara-
13 tion of the management plans?

14 The performance of the Norwegian management system, with respect to incorporation
15 of the principles of the risk governance framework, is analysed and the gaps towards the risk
16 government framework are identified. The results are compared and discussed towards rele-
17 vant literature. The relevance of using risk governance as a generic tool towards sustainable
18 management of sediments is also discussed in the results chapter.

19

20 **RESULTS**

21 *Analysis of the framework*

22 The results from the case study are summarised in Table 1. A positive finding towards
23 the predefined criteria is marked as a positive sign in the table, whereas lack of evidence to
24 agree with the criteria is marked with a negative sign. The analysis shows that all plans have a

1 strong focus on ecological risk assessment and all plans have used site specific sediment in-
2 vestigations and sediment quality guidelines to classify the contamination using ecological
3 acceptance criteria. 64% of the plans have also performed site specific evaluations of ecologi-
4 cal risk, but only one of the plans has taken concern assessment into account. Three of the
5 plans have made an evaluation of the probability of occurrence of contamination due to un-
6 wanted events. In the Kristiansand and Trondheim management plans, the probability of ship
7 traffic causing sediment mobilisation combined with the SQG were used to assess the risk of
8 contaminant mobilisation. In the Oslo fjord the risk of unwanted incidents during the remedia-
9 tion were assessed by using semi-quantitative risk matrices. However in general the risk as-
10 sssments are executed by assuming the probability of occurrence of the contaminant releas-
11 ing processes to be equal to one, i.e. the risk assessment is determining the potential conse-
12 quence of exposure to contamination using that assumption.

13 The majority of the plans had incorporated some kind qualitative decision making in
14 the work, but only a few of the objects had used any kind of comparative or multi criteria
15 based decision making. The communication in form of stakeholder involvement and partici-
16 pation is found to be present in approximately 50% of the plans.

17

18 *Case illustrating ambiguity in sediment management*

19 Sediment management decisions are influenced by many factors and there may be
20 ambiguous characteristics to be considered in the management operations. This is illustrated
21 in the remediation of sediments in the inner Oslo fjord (2006-2009), where perceived risk and
22 social acceptance differs significantly from the risk assessed by the experts.

23 Due to construction of a new road tunnel in the Oslo harbour area dredging of contam-
24 inated sediments was necessary and a remediation project was initiated. The selected disposal

1 method was to place the sediments in a confined aquatic disposal facility (CAD) approximate-
2 ly 3 km from the dredging site. In addition, other contaminated areas in the harbour would be
3 capped with clean material. The solution was selected as the most feasible option compared to
4 other remedial alternatives and documented through an environmental assessment (EIA). This
5 solution was approved by the environmental agency (SFT) and the local city council as an
6 environmental sound project for remediation of the inner Oslo fjord. National and local non-
7 governmental organisations (NGOs) however opposed to the disposal method, trying to stop
8 the project during the implementation phase. The main objection against the project is the
9 concept of using the fjord as a disposal site for contaminated sediments. The case has been
10 highlighted in the media, and a search on Google™ search engine in August 2009 on the
11 combination of “Malmøykalven” (the name of the disposal site) and “gift” (toxin) generates
12 962 hits. A search on the same keywords in Norwegian published material (TV, radio, web
13 and newspaper) on the Retriever database (www.retriever-info.com) generates 351 hits. This
14 indicates how the project has been associated with negative perceptive values and socially
15 amplified through media (Kasperson et al. 1988).

16

17 *Identification of gaps and comparison with literature*

18 *Pre-assessment*

19 All work presented in the management plans is governed through the requirements
20 given in the governmental white paper (MD 2002). The white paper gives the framework for
21 the content and delegates the responsibility for the preparation process and management of
22 the plans.

23 The review of the targeted plans shows that approximately 60% of the management
24 plans were containing accepted site specific environmental targets and goals, whereas other

1 plans were just presenting alternatives allowing the decision to set targets and objectives for
2 the decision makers. The lack of specific goals and targets guiding the management work may
3 have both advantages and disadvantages. The obvious disadvantage is that without clear ob-
4 jectives and targets early in the process the subsequent decision making process will be less
5 structured, possibly leading to more ad-hoc decisions. On the other hand, the advantage is that
6 this open approach may facilitate adaptive management (Linkov et al. 2006a) allowing several
7 remediation alternatives to be evaluated until a more detailed level of understanding of the
8 problem has been achieved.

9 *Risk appraisal (risk assessment and concern assessment)*

10 The analysis show that all plans have used ecologically derived generic sediment qual-
11 ity guidelines (SQG) to evaluate the sediment conditions at the sites. 80% of the plans have
12 also performed site specific ecological risk assessments based on the level of contaminants
13 found in the sediments. Transport of contamination from the sediment out of the affected area
14 has been estimated by flux calculations. Risk of human exposure has been estimated by com-
15 paring the potential of exposure to the maximum tolerable dose (MTR) for a lifelong expo-
16 sure. The ecological risk is assessed by performing site specific calculations of water concen-
17 trations derived from the measured sediment concentrations and comparing them with the
18 water quality guidelines (WQG). The work with ecological risk assessments has been per-
19 formed according to Norwegian guidelines (SFT 2007).

20 The framework for performing ecological risk assessments (ERA) and establishing
21 SQG which are used in the first phase of the ERA is an extensive process. The process is
22 based on available toxicity data for marine organisms, following a statistical interpretation to
23 determine the water concentrations where 95% of the organisms should be protected giving
24 water quality guidelines (WQG). SQG are then calculated by using the distribution coefficient

1 between sediment and water (K_d -value). There are a number of uncertainties involved in the
2 process. First the calculation is based on toxicity data derived from aquatic species (PNEC
3 values), which by themselves change over time due to increased knowledge and more scien-
4 tific data. For components where limited toxicity data are available, safety factors are applied
5 in order to be conservative in the estimations (EU-TGD 2003). Secondly the conversion from
6 WQG to SQG using the generic distribution coefficients between sediment and water may
7 significantly underestimate the tolerable sediment concentrations for some components,
8 (Breedveld et al. 2007).

9 In order to test the robustness of ERA as a framework for decision making, the SQG
10 values for a number of organic and inorganic components for three revisions of the Norwe-
11 gian SQG (SFT 2007) were compared.

12 Figure 2 shows the standard deviation from a calculated mean value for the three revi-
13 sions (1997, 2005 and 2007). It can be seen that the deviation is within the order of magni-
14 tude of ± 10 to 150%, with large differences both in time and between components. All these
15 variation may be well explained from evolving scientific data and better understanding of the
16 ecological and chemical processes in the modelled system. However, for a risk manager or
17 stakeholder who is only presented with the output from the evaluations, the impact on the
18 interpretation may be significant. This highlights the sensitivity of a management system,
19 only relying on the presentation of acceptable contaminant values for single components. This
20 conclusion is in line with the findings by Apitz & Power (2002), where several assessment
21 frameworks were assessed and found useful for flagging potential contaminants in the sedi-
22 ments but less suitable for use as disposal or cleanup criteria.

23 Efforts to overcome these problems and reduce uncertainties have been undertaken by
24 the standardisation of derivation of SQG from toxicological data through the EU-TGD
25 framework. Another more innovative approach to reduce the sensitivity of variations in the

1 SQG and the uncertainty in the evaluations is to use unit-less indexes. Apitz et al. (2007) used
2 a weighting method where each component of interest is divided by the contaminant concen-
3 tration forming a Contaminant/SQG value ratio (HQ) for each component. A mean ratio was
4 also calculated (mHQ) by dividing the sum of all Contaminant/SQG value ratios with the
5 number of components. The system was tested for 19 different SQG from various countries.
6 The results indicated that even if there were differences between the assessments of each
7 component, the indexation gave relatively comparable results between the different set of
8 SQGs.

9 A similar approach to risk assessment of sediment contamination has been taken in the
10 Norwegian offshore oil industry (Singsaas I et al. 2008). Here the focus has been to assess the
11 impact of cuttings from drilling operations on the environment. The main argument for devel-
12 oping a management system for the drill cuttings has been to assess which components in the
13 drilling fluid that has the greatest impact on environmental risk, and to compare the environ-
14 mental effect of cuttings in different regional areas in order to be able to prioritise risk mitiga-
15 tion. In this system both toxic stressors, as the chemical components, and non toxic stressors,
16 as for example oxygen depletion, are assessed. The risk is estimated by calculating the ratio
17 between the concentration of the stressor, often referred as predicted environmental concen-
18 tration (PEC) and corresponding PNEC value. This PEC/PNEC ratio for each component is
19 summarised and the integrated value is forming an environmental impact factor (EIF).

20 From a risk manager's perspective a transparent system using mHQ or EIF values
21 would be valuable. The unit-less indexes is less sensitive to changes in SQG values since ele-
22 vated in toxicity for some components may be levelled out by reduction of toxicity for other
23 compounds. A unit less index also makes it easier to assess the overall effect of contamination
24 between different locations or even regions, thus allowing the decision to make prioritise the
25 remedial effort. It is however important to be aware that all weighing methods have limita-

1 tions since chemical and toxicological data may get lost in the process. The results should be
2 used with care allowing full transparency of the background data, and should be subjected to
3 sensitivity analysis.

4 Concern assessment is scarcely traceable in the analysis of the remediation plans. On-
5 ly one of the plans, Grenland fjord, has addressed risk perception by assessing the willingness
6 to pay for remediation of contamination (Navrud & Barton 2006). This result indicate that the
7 part of the risk governance framework relating to the duality of risk and taking the perceptive
8 risk into the management process, is only to a minor degree incorporated in the Norwegian
9 framework for managing contaminated sediments. This observation may have two logical
10 explanations. The first possibility is that risk of contaminated sediments may be defined as a
11 simple, complex or uncertain risk requiring low or no stakeholder involvement. The other
12 possibility is that risk of contaminated sediments may have ambiguous characteristics and
13 indicates a gap between the management system and the framework.

14 In order to test which of the possibilities that explains the observation, the system for
15 risk classification in the framework was used and adapted to sediment contamination, Table 2.

16 The review of the Norwegian management model clearly indicates that sediment man-
17 agement in general is not a simple issue, since site specific ecological risk assessments have
18 been widely used to evaluate the risk and prioritize remediation. To some extent one may ar-
19 gue that the problem is complex since there may be multiple sources contributing to the effect
20 of contamination in the ecosystem, including contaminant sources and chemical agents not
21 yet identified to be of environmental concern. The management strategy is addressing these
22 issues in a way that the SQG are reflecting the most predominant contaminants at the time,
23 and site specific ecological risk assessments also recognises that there may other sources con-
24 tributing to risk.

1 The main focus in the management strategy is however on uncertainty based manage-
2 ment. The use of SQG is a precautionary approach since the same toxicological assessment
3 system is used to evaluate the environmental risk for new substances introduced to the market
4 through the REACH directive, (www.echa.europa.eu). Compared to other risks that people
5 freely are willing to accept like smoking or car driving, the risk from contaminated sediments
6 may seem insignificant. However, by using a precaution-based strategy it is assured that the
7 handling of contaminated sediments is performed in a way not causing additional risk to hu-
8 mans or the ecosystem.

9 The use of the risk management system for sediment remediation operations has, as
10 described in the analysis chapter, revealed at least one example where perceived risk and so-
11 cial acceptance may differ significantly from the risk assessed by the experts. This indicates
12 that sediment remediation also may have ambiguous characteristics. This is again an evidence
13 of the difference in risk perception between experts and stakeholders. This example empha-
14 sise that sediment remediation may be ambiguous, and that concern assessment in these cases
15 should be a part of the management framework.

16 Risk Characterisation/evaluation

17 In 70% of the plans the management strategy has been formed by using an ad-hoc
18 process, meaning that recommendations for remedial actions are not based on a systematic
19 evaluation, weighing and prioritization of the obtained data. In four of the plans, Grenland,
20 Oslo, Drammen and Kristiansand there has been an effort to use comparative methods to pro-
21 pose management strategies. Three major strategies have been chosen.

22 The first method used in the Grenland area focuses on the environmental benefit a re-
23 mediation may have on lifting the restrictions for consumption of seafood and shellfish,
24 (Saloranta et al. 2008). This method assesses the uptake of contaminants in relevant species

1 from the contaminated sediments with and without remedial actions. The model calculates the
2 time it takes to reach a state of conditions where the consumption restrictions of fish and
3 shellfish may be lifted. Based on the modelling results a study on the willingness to pay to
4 remove consumption restrictions, as well as the preference for different remediation alterna-
5 tives was initiated. The main conclusion from the study was that the willingness to pay for a
6 remedial action was increasing in the vicinity of the contaminated area and that capping
7 methods were preferred as the remediation method, (Navrud & Barton 2006).

8 The second strategy used in Drammen and Oslo is based on the contaminant transport
9 from an area before, during and after remediation, comparing it with a reference state. The
10 idea is here to calculate a scoring value (remediation efficiency), comparing the ratio between
11 contaminant flux from a given area during and after remediation with the contaminant flux
12 without remediation. For a given time frame the remediation efficiency should be positive, i.e.
13 indicating that the release of contaminants during and after the remediation should be less or
14 equal to an alternative without remediation, (Eek et al. 2006).

15 The third strategy used in Kristiansand, utilises an efficiency index where the cost is
16 divided with the amount of contamination removed. The site index gives the opportunity to
17 assess the cost of remediation for one unit of contaminant. Even though the methods use dif-
18 ferent strategies to support a management decision, they are all founded in a physi-
19 cal/chemical model of the fate of the contaminants.

20 There are however also other methods to facilitate complex decisions associated with
21 sediment management as described in Linkov et al. (2006a) and (2006b). These methods are
22 based on multi criteria decision analysis (MCDA) and may better facilitate the decision mak-
23 ing, allowing other factors than the fate of chemicals to influence the decision. Unlike the
24 management decision methods used in the Norwegian sediment management (MCDA) are
25 derived from the general need to solve complicated management problems and therefore neu-

1 tral in the sense of expert knowledge. The core potential of MCDA is the ability to structure,
2 compare and evaluate complicated management decisions involving both technical data and
3 stakeholder values. The process is interactive where all relevant factors affecting the decision
4 are identified and weighed against each other. There are several examples in the US, where
5 MCDA have been used for management of sediment remediation cases (Kiker et al. 2008;
6 Suedel et al. 2008; Yatsalo et al. 2007).

7 Although there are substantial advantages to use MCDA in complex decisions there
8 are also difficulties in relation to use the ad-hoc method based on “common sense”, (Gamper
9 & Turcanu 2007). One of the disadvantages may be lack of experience with these methods
10 among experts; another may be the need for extensive stakeholder participation and the shar-
11 ing of knowledge between scientists, managers and other stakeholders.

12 Communication

13 The traceability of communication in the management plan varies between the cases,
14 but in 53% of the plans, participation from local problem owners and environmental advisors
15 in the local municipality has been identified. By the definition of Rowe & Frewer (2000) the
16 participation in the work may be classified as citizen/public advisory committee. This way of
17 involvement is characterised with a general moderate degree of representativeness and trans-
18 parency. The influence is variable from case to case depending on the working process local-
19 ly. The quality of communication and success of involvement by using this method may
20 therefore be questioned compared to other negotiation based methods.

21

1 **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

2 The review of the Norwegian management plans indicates that the management is
3 heavily influenced by the system for ecological risk assessments and especially the use of
4 sediment quality guidelines (SQG), Figure 3.

5 The pre-assessment has been formed over a long time period involving knowledge
6 build up, investigations and policy making. The management system is dominated by the
7 view of regulatory authorities and experts on ecological risk assessments, developing the
8 management system and performing the assessments. This selection of expert competence has
9 framed the system and contributed to encapsulate it from developing into a governance sys-
10 tem incorporating the broader picture of risk.

11 The strong dependence on SQG as management indicators may also be challenging
12 since there are uncertainties in establishing these kinds of criteria and they have been chang-
13 ing over time. It is also evident that the focus on consequence oriented ecological risk assess-
14 ments may enhance the conservativeness in the management system and limit the practical
15 use as an efficient management tool to reduce risk. To reduce the impact of uncertainties,
16 standardisation in the form of weighing and grouping of environmental indicators may be
17 beneficial in order to increase the transparency and allowing comparison of environmental
18 impact between different locations or even regions. Three major deviations from the risk gov-
19 ernance framework are observed in the study;

20 Primarily, the use of concern assessment is low, mainly explained by the strong focus
21 on uncertainty management. Since the study shows indications of an ambiguity gap between
22 expert judgment and stakeholder perception in at least one of the performed remediation cas-
23 es, the management decisions may be biased due to the lack of knowledge about the socio-
24 economical concerns related to the remediation operations. A stronger focus on concern as-
25 sessment earlier in the decision making process will reduce this gap.

1 Secondly, the decision making process in the management system is weak. Even if the
2 different data to support a structured management decision process are in place, most of the
3 recommendations for implementation of sediment management for the different locations are
4 based on ad-hoc processes. Implementation of a decision analysis framework supporting multi
5 criteria decisions could be beneficial for a more transparent process. This will however re-
6 quire new type of competence in the management process and should be assessed carefully
7 before introduction.

8 Tertiary, the involvement of stakeholders and decision makers in the analysed man-
9 agement plans, and the communication during the process may be categorised as advisory,
10 mainly influencing the management phase. A stronger involvement earlier in the process will
11 reduce the ambiguity, but will also require a paradigm shift in the regulatory framework.

12 Finally, it is recommended to direct further research towards methods that may facili-
13 tate concern assessment and enhance transparent decision making processes for sediment
14 management. A well functioning system for identification, weighing and prioritisation of en-
15 vironmental indicators encompassing environmental, social and economical factors will con-
16 tribute to create a sustainable management system for sediment contamination.

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