

Impacts of data quality on the setting of conservation planning targets using the species–area relationship

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Abstract:

Aim : The species–area relationship (SAR) is increasingly being used to set conservation targets for habitat types when designing protected area networks. This approach is transparent and scientifically defensible, but there has been little research on how it is affected by data quality and quantity.

Location : English Channel.

Methods : We used a macrobenthic dataset containing 1314 sampling points and assigned each point to its associated habitat type. We then used the SAR-based approach and tested whether this was influenced by changes in (i) the number of sampling points used to generate estimates of total species richness for each habitat type; (ii) the nonparametric estimator used to calculate species richness; and (iii) the level of habitat classification employed. We then compared our results with targets from a similar national-level study that is currently being used to identify Marine Conservation Zones in the UK.

Results : We found that targets were affected by all of the tested factors. Sample size had the greatest impact, with specific habitat targets increasing by up to 45% when sample size increased from 50 to 300. We also found that results based on the Bootstrap estimator of species richness, which is the most widely used for setting targets, were more influenced by sample size than the other tested estimators. Finally, we found that targets were higher when using broader habitat classification levels or a larger study region. However, this could also be a sample size effect because these larger habitat areas generally contained more sampling points.

Main conclusions : Habitat targets based on the SAR can be strongly influenced by sample size, choice of richness estimator and the level of habitat classification. Whilst setting habitat targets using best-available data should play a key role in conservation planning, further research is needed to develop methods that better account for sampling effort.

Keywords: English Channel ; habitat targets ; Marine Conservation Zones ; marine protected areas ; species–area relationship ; systematic conservation planning

59 INTRODUCTION (A)

60 Marine and coastal ecosystems are under increasing pressure from a diverse range of threats including
61 the over-exploitation of natural resources (particularly over-fishing), pollution, and climate change
62 (Lubchenco *et al.*, 2003). One response to these threats is to develop marine protected areas (MPAs),
63 which are seen as increasingly important spatial management tools for conserving marine biodiversity
64 (Wood *et al.*, 2008), maintaining large-scale ecological processes (Roberts *et al.*, 2005) and supporting
65 the sustainable use of marine resources (Spalding *et al.*, 2008). A widely used approach for helping to
66 ensure that new MPAs achieve these goals is systematic conservation planning, which seeks to identify
67 representative and viable networks of MPAs that also minimise costs (Margules & Pressey 2000). Thus,
68 systematic conservation planning can be used to design MPA networks that balance impacts on different
69 stakeholders (Smith *et al.*, 2009), increase the likelihood of implementation, and help ensure long-term
70 biodiversity persistence (Knight *et al.*, 2006).

71

72 A key step in systematic conservation planning involves producing a list of important species, habitats
73 and ecological processes, known collectively as “conservation features”, and then setting quantitative
74 targets for the minimum amount of each feature intended for conservation (Knight *et al.*, 2006;
75 Carwardine *et al.*, 2009). These targets can then be used by several conservation planning software
76 packages (e.g. Marxan, C-Plan and Zonation) to help identify priority areas for protection (Ball *et al.*,
77 2009). Setting such targets provides a clear basis for conservation decisions, lending them accountability
78 and defensibility, and ensures that the conservation planning process is more transparent, open to
79 stakeholder involvement and less likely to be affected by political interference (Cowling *et al.*, 2003b).
80 Approaches to target setting depend on the type of conservation feature of interest (Noss 1987). Targets
81 for species are often set using relatively well established techniques based on population viability
82 estimates (Rondinini *et al.*, 2006; Justus *et al.*, 2008; Rondinini & Chiozza 2010). In contrast, target-
83 setting approaches for coarse-filter conservation features, such as habitat and vegetation types, are
84 frequently based on expert opinion (e.g. Cowling *et al.*, 2003a; Pressey *et al.*, 2003; Smith *et al.*, 2006) or
85 policy-driven targets such as those specified in the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD), which

86 currently recommends that 10% of coastal and marine areas under national jurisdiction should be
87 protected by 2020 (CBD 2011). However, both expert-based and policy-driven targets have been widely
88 criticised for a lack of ecological credibility (see review by Carwardine *et al.*, 2009), so there is a real need
89 for data-driven and scientifically defensible approaches for setting habitat targets.

90

91 In response to this problem, researchers developed an approach based on using field survey data to
92 model the species-area relationship (SAR) for each important habitat type, which is then used to
93 estimate the proportion of habitat area required to represent a user-specified percentage of species, and
94 can be multiplied by the extent of the habitat type to produce a target area (Desmet & Cowling 2004;
95 Reyers *et al.*, 2007). This methodology was subsequently adopted by the South Africa National
96 Biodiversity Institute (SANBI) to calculate targets for each vegetation type listed in the national
97 vegetation classification system (Rouget *et al.*, 2004). These targets were then used to help identify
98 priority conservation areas (Rouget *et al.*, 2006; Smith *et al.*, 2008; Gallo *et al.*, 2009) and conduct
99 threatened vegetation type assessments as part of South Africa's first National Spatial Biodiversity
100 Assessment (Nel *et al.*, 2007; Reyers *et al.*, 2007), helping to ensure a level of consistency between
101 projects and regions.

102

103 The success of this approach means that SAR-based targets are beginning to be developed elsewhere. In
104 particular, they have been used to set national marine habitat targets as part of four regional projects
105 funded by the UK Government, which seek to establish a network of Marine Conservation Zones (MCZs)
106 in English territorial waters (JNCC & Natural England 2010; Rondinini 2011a). With increasing adoption, it
107 is important that conservation planners and practitioners have confidence in this approach to target
108 setting, as targets have a large influence on the final extent of any protected area (PA) network (Vimal *et*
109 *al.*, 2011; Delavenne *et al.*, 2012) and any subsequent socio-economic impacts (Chittaro *et al.*, 2010;
110 Mascia *et al.*, 2010; McCrea-Strub *et al.*, 2011). However, despite their growing use, there is still
111 uncertainty about how this target setting process is affected by data constraints, as the SAR is known to
112 be influenced by biogeographic patterns, model parameters, model type, and data quality (Chiarucci *et*

113 *al.*, 2003; Walther & Moore 2005; Hortal *et al.*, 2006). Here we investigate these issues using a
114 macrobenthic dataset from the eastern English Channel, examining how targets are affected by the
115 number of sampling points used to model the SAR, the choice of estimator used to calculate total species
116 richness in each habitat type, and the level of habitat classification employed. We then compare these
117 results developed at a regional level with those developed for the MCZ project at a national-level, and
118 assess how using these different sets of targets would influence the extent of any resulting MPA network
119 in the English Channel.

120

121 **METHODS (A)**

122 **Study area (B)**

123 This study was carried out in the English Channel (Fig. 1), a cold-temperate epicontinental sea separating
124 the south coast of the United Kingdom from the North coast of France (Delavenne *et al.*, 2012). The
125 English Channel constitutes a bio-geographical transition zone between the warm temperate Atlantic
126 oceanic system, and the boreal North and Baltic Sea continental systems of northern Europe,
127 encompassing a wider range of ecological conditions than other European seas (Coggan & Diesing 2011;
128 Delavenne *et al.*, 2012). The study region focused on the eastern English Channel (EEC), which is
129 delimited by the Dover Strait to the east and Cotentin Peninsula to the west and is a key area for
130 tourism, shipping, energy production and aggregate extraction (Carpentier *et al.*, 2009). In addition, it
131 supports an important commercial fishery, as well as key nursery, spawning areas and migratory routes
132 linked to specific environmental characteristics (Martin *et al.*, 2009).

133

134 There are several ongoing MPA designation projects in this section of the English Channel. Both France
135 and the UK have implemented MPAs as part of their EU Birds and Habitats Directive commitments and
136 France is currently developing a MPA network in the “Three Estuaries region” (Bay of Somme, Authie,
137 and Canche; Fig. 1). In addition, the EEC is the focus of the Balanced Seas project
138 (<http://www.balancedseas.org/>), which is one of four regional MCZ projects which seeks to identify and
139 recommend MPAs for the inshore and offshore waters of south-east England (JNCC & Natural England

140 2010). Balanced Seas uses habitat targets based on the SAR that were developed at a national-level from
141 biodiversity data collected in English waters (JNCC & Natural England 2010).

142

143 **Habitat map (B)**

144 We used a broad-scale habitat map in this analysis, which is based on the European Nature Information
145 System (EUNIS) habitat classification hierarchy developed by the European Environment Agency (EEA
146 2006; Coggan & Diesing 2011). Figure 1 shows the distribution of each EUNIS habitat class that was
147 modelled using physical and environmental data, including depth, substratum and energy levels. Rock
148 habitats were modelled to level 3 in the EUNIS hierarchy, while sediment habitats were modelled to level
149 4 (Coggan & Diesing 2011). The EUNIS level 3 habitats are broken down into three habitat types and
150 coded as follows: infralittoral rock (A3.x), circalittoral rock (A4.x), and sublittoral coarse sediment (A5.x),
151 which was further divided into its finer-scale EUNIS level 4 habitats (A5.xx).

152

153 **Biodiversity survey data (B)**

154 Given the importance of macrobenthic diversity in the EEC (Vaz *et al.*, 2007; Carpentier *et al.*, 2009), the
155 increasing emphasis on their conservation (Sanvicente-Anorve *et al.*, 2002; Vincent *et al.*, 2004) and the
156 large amount of benthic sampling that has taken place (e.g. Desroy *et al.*, 2003; Dauvin *et al.*, 2004;
157 Carpentier *et al.*, 2009), we developed targets using presence/absence data from macrobenthic surveys
158 carried out between 1985 – 2007, providing data from 1314 sampling points (Fig. 1). These surveys used
159 a range of sampling protocols and gear sizes (0.1m² to 0.5m²), with samples predominantly collected
160 using a Hamon grab, with the exception of 16 stations in the Ridens that used a van Veen grab. The
161 sampling strategy in the study area was predominantly regularly spaced, however, there was more
162 intensive sampling in surveys from the east of the Isle of Wight, in the Ridens and in coastal areas such as
163 between Dieppe and Calais, the Bay of Veys, and the Bay of Seine (Fig. 1).

164

165 **Calculating habitat targets (B)**

166 We calculated habitat targets following the SAR based approach developed by Desmet & Cowling (2004),
167 which treats the SAR as a power function. While concerns about using this particular approach in
168 conservation planning have been expressed in the literature (see Smith 2010 for a detailed review) we
169 employed it in our study because: (i) we specifically sought to investigate the uncertainties around this
170 existing approach; and (ii) the power function has been shown to perform well for macrobenthic
171 datasets containing between 42 and 1300 samples (Azovsky 2011).

172

173 This approach involves transforming the power function (Equation 1) to estimate the proportion of
174 habitat area required to represent a given percentages of species (Equation 2):

175

176

177 (1)
$$S = cA^z$$

178 (2)
$$\text{Log } A' = \text{Log } S'/z$$

179

180 Here S' and A' denote the proportion of species and habitat area respectively (Desmet & Cowling 2004;
181 Rondinini & Chiozza 2010), and z describes the slope of the power function, which is the rate of species
182 accumulation with increase in area (Lomolino 2000; Tjorve & Tjorve 2008). The constant c is a scaling
183 factor that relates to the size (area) of an individual sampling unit and can be ignored when comparing
184 proportions or percentages of species and area (Desmet & Cowling 2004; Rondinini & Chiozza 2010).
185 Thus, it is possible to calculate habitat targets by: (i) determining the z -value of the SAR for a given
186 habitat; (ii) using the z -value to calculate the proportion of area required to represent a given percentage
187 of species, and (iii) multiplying this proportion by the total habitat area.

188

189 We calculated habitat specific z -values using the formula for calculating the slope of a straight line
190 (Equation 3), because a SAR modelled with a power function appears as a straight line with slope z on a
191 log-log plot (Desmet & Cowling 2004).

192

193 (3)
$$z = (y_2 - y_1) / (x_2 - x_1)$$

194

195 Where: $y_2 = \log(\text{total number of species in a habitat class})$; $y_1 = \log(\text{average number of species per}$
196 $\text{sampling point})$; $x_2 = \log(\text{total area of habitat class})$; and $x_1 = \log(\text{average area of sampling points})$. Three
197 of these variables (y_1, x_2, x_1) are derived from habitat specific inventory data (Desmet & Cowling 2004;
198 Rondinini & Chiozza 2010), so all that is needed to calculate z-values is to estimate the total number of
199 species (y_2) in a given habitat type (Desmet & Cowling 2004).

200

201 The habitat map shows the distribution of each EUNIS level 3 habitat type and sub-divides the
202 sedimentary habitat types further into finer-scale EUNIS level 4 types (Fig. 1). Thus, we assigned sampling
203 points on rocky habitats to their associated level 3 habitat types and sampling points on sedimentary
204 habitats to both their associated parent level 3 habitat types, and their constituent level 4 habitat types
205 (see Figure S1 and Table S1 in Supporting Information for more information regarding EUNIS level 3
206 parent habitats for level 4 habitat types in the EEC). We then calculated targets for each of these level 3
207 and level 4 habitats by using *EstimateS* software (Colwell 2009) to generate estimates of total species
208 richness (y_2) and determine habitat specific z-values for each of these habitat types.

209

210 Although there is no consensus as to which estimator provides the best predictions when estimating
211 total species richness for a habitat type (or region) from field survey data (Brose 2002; Herzog *et al.*,
212 2002; Chiarucci *et al.*, 2003; Walther & Moore 2005), there is general agreement that the Bootstrap
213 estimator is the most conservative (Colwell & Coddington 1994; Chiarucci *et al.*, 2001; Chiarucci *et al.*,
214 2003; Hortal *et al.*, 2006). A prediction of total species richness based on this estimator should be
215 considered as a minimum estimate (Desmet & Cowling 2004; Rondinini 2011a), which is why this
216 estimator was subsequently applied by the SANBI and MCZ projects to develop national targets for both
217 terrestrial and marine habitats.

218

219 To assess the effect that choice of species-richness estimator has on the calculation of conservation
220 targets, we compared targets derived using the Bootstrap estimator to those derived using several
221 alternative non-parametric estimators of species richness – ICE, Chao2, Jackknife1, and Jackknife2. While
222 these alternative estimators were investigated by both Desmet and Cowling (2004) and Rondinini
223 (2011a) these authors did not explicitly test their effect on target setting (see Colwell & Coddington
224 1994; Gotelli & Colwell 2001; Hortal *et al.*, 2006; Colwell 2009 for more details on these estimators and
225 their performance). Our comparison involved calculating each richness estimate based on the mean of
226 1000 estimates that used 1000 randomisations of sample accumulation order without replacement
227 (Colwell 2009). We then used these results to: (i) calculate the proportion of habitat area required to
228 represent 80% of species, hereafter referred to simply as “targets”, for each habitat type with > 5
229 sampling points – we chose to calculate targets based on representing 80% of species because this was
230 used by the Balanced Seas and the other regional MCZ projects (JNCC & Natural England 2010); (ii)
231 estimate the number of sampling points required to produce a stable target for each habitat type, and
232 each richness estimator, where a target was defined as stable if it exhibited a standard deviation of < 5%
233 (as used by Desmet & Cowling 2004); (iii) assess how the targets developed in this study compare with
234 those from the MCZ project in the EEC; and (iv) assess how sensitive each of the estimators was to
235 sample size effects by using successively larger numbers of accumulated sampling points, which involved
236 dividing the percentage target for each habitat type based on 100, 200, and 300 sampling points by the
237 percentage target based on 50 sampling points (we then took the mean of each of these habitat results
238 for each estimator to show how relative target size changed with sample size).

239

240 Finally, we investigated the effects of using different levels of habitat classification on the extent of the
241 MPA network needed to meet the targets. This involved multiplying each habitat target by the extent of
242 its occurrence in the planning region to provide an area target in km² and then summing these area
243 targets from EUNIS level 4 habitats belonging to the same “parent” level 3 type, so that the combined
244 level 4 result could be compared with the level 3 result.

245

246 **RESULTS (A)**

247 Based on using stable results for the Bootstrap estimator, the total number of species estimated to occur
248 in each habitat class ranged between 240 and 1665 for the six EUNIS level 3 habitats, whilst estimates for
249 the ten EUNIS level 4 habitats ranged between 160 and 1470 (Table 1). Habitat specific z-values ranged
250 between 0.098 for deep sea mixed sediments and 0.162 for sublittoral sand (Table 1). Percentage targets
251 ranged from 10.27% for deep sea mixed sediments to 25.28% for sublittoral sand (Table 1), so that eight
252 of the EUNIS level 4 habitats and four of the EUNIS level 3 habitats had targets of greater than 10%
253 (Table 1). Based on the available data for each habitat investigated, this would translate into
254 approximately 18.41% of the EEC for the finer-scale EUNIS mixed level 3 and 4 habitat classification
255 (Fig.1), compared to 20.27% for the coarse-scale EUNIS level 3 habitat classification (Fig. S1).

256
257 We found that both estimates of species richness (Table S2), and resulting targets, varied between
258 different estimators, with the difference in targets for a given habitat ranging between 1.58% for
259 infralittoral coarse sediment, and 7.66% for low-energy circalittoral rock (Table 2). In addition, there
260 were clear differences in the number of sampling points required to reach stable target estimates across
261 estimators, with the Bootstrap estimator producing twelve stable target estimates, compared to five for
262 the Jackknife1 estimator (Table 2). Moreover, the Bootstrap estimator generally required the smallest
263 number of sampling points to reach stable estimates compared to the other estimators. For example, for
264 a relatively well sampled habitat such as sublittoral sand with a total of 469 sampling points, the
265 Bootstrap estimator required 276 sampling points to reach stability compared to 409 for Chao2 (Table
266 S3).

267
268 When we evaluated how targets calculated with the Bootstrap estimator varied with successively larger
269 numbers of accumulated samples, we found that estimates of both species richness and targets
270 increased with sampling effort (Table 3). For example, we found that for four relatively well sampled
271 habitats (sublittoral coarse sediment, infralittoral coarse sediment, circalittoral coarse sediment, and
272 sublittoral sand) targets increased by 39%, 30%, 39%, and 45% respectively when the number of

273 sampling points increased from 50 to 300 (Table 3), with the mean relative target increasing by 41%
274 across all habitats (Fig. 2). In addition, the standard Bootstrap approach produced targets that were most
275 influenced by sample size, as the mean relative increase in targets for the other estimators ranged from
276 26% for ICE to 33% for Jackknife1 when the number of sampling points increased from 50 to 300 (Fig. 2).

277

278 The level of habitat classification also impacted the targets, with species richness estimates, habitat
279 specific z-values and targets being higher when developed for parent EUNIS level 3 habitats than for their
280 finer-scale EUNIS level 4 constituents (Table 1). For example, the area of each parent EUNIS level 3
281 habitat needed to meet targets was 8.4% higher for sublittoral coarse sediments and 41.4% higher for
282 sublittoral mixed sediments when compared to the combined target area of their finer-scale EUNIS level
283 4 constituents (Fig. 3).

284

285 Finally, our regional EEC targets developed in this study were lower than the national MCZ targets
286 developed for EUNIS level 3 habitats, with our targets ranging between 15.49% - 25.28% compared to
287 29.80% - 32.40% recommended by the MCZ Ecological Network Guidance, producing large differences in
288 the area of habitat needed to meet these targets (Table 4).

289

290 **DISCUSSION (A)**

291 The SAR is increasingly being used to set targets for habitat types in systematic conservation planning
292 (Smith 2010), and has been specifically advocated for use in marine conservation planning (Neigel 2003;
293 Smith *et al.*, 2009). Nonetheless, SAR based targets have to be part of a broader set of PA design
294 parameters because they relate only to the minimum representation of biodiversity, i.e. ensuring the
295 presence of a species regardless of its abundance, rather than ensuring its persistence (Smith 2010).
296 Moreover, the approach provides no information about where PAs should be located within a particular
297 habitat type (Desmet & Cowling 2004; Justus *et al.*, 2008; Chittaro *et al.*, 2010; Rondinini & Chiozza
298 2010). However, SAR-based target setting is likely to remain an important element of terrestrial and

299 marine PA network design. This paper is the first to investigate several key issues that may affect the
300 robustness of targets set using this approach.

301

302 **Effects of sample size, species-richness estimator and habitat classification level (B)**

303 The value of the SAR-based approach depends entirely on producing accurate habitat specific z-values
304 which, in turn, requires accurate estimates of total species richness within each habitat type. However,
305 species richness estimates may be sensitive to the type of estimator used (Table S2), and the amount and
306 quality of biological survey data employed, rather than reflecting true differences in species
307 accumulation rates (Colwell *et al.*, 2004; Walther & Moore 2005; Hortal *et al.*, 2006; Rondinini & Chiozza
308 2010). Our results show that the rate of species accumulation with increase in area (expressed as the z-
309 value) for each habitat type was quite similar across estimators (Table S4) which is consistent with other
310 studies that have investigated the behaviour of these estimators (Borges *et al.*, 2009). However, we show
311 that sample size in particular can have a large influence on targets, so that increasing the number of
312 sampling points often produced substantially higher targets (Fig. 2; Table 3). The number of sampling
313 points needed to produce a stable result also varied with estimator type, with the Bootstrap estimator
314 generally requiring the fewest number to reach stability (Table 2) which is consistent with the results
315 obtained for the MCZ project (Rondinini 2011a). This estimator is the most widely used for setting
316 habitat targets (e.g. Desmet & Cowling 2004; Rondinini 2011a) and our stability results provide further
317 support for this use (Table 2). However, we also found this estimator produced targets that were most
318 influenced by changes in sample size (Fig. 2), which raises doubts about the robustness of the targets
319 produced using the standard Bootstrap-based approach.

320

321 We also investigated the extent to which using different habitat classification levels affects targets
322 because SAR-based targets provide no information about where PAs should be located within a given
323 habitat type. Thus, it is generally better to use the most detailed habitat classification available because
324 this ensures each finer-scale habitat type is represented. However, dividing broad-scale parent habitat
325 types into finer-scale sub-classes also results in a reduction in the number of sampling points used to

326 calculate targets for these habitats, and so we would expect these smaller sample sizes to produce lower
327 targets. Our results confirmed this pattern, with the area of each parent EUNIS level 3 habitat needed to
328 meet targets calculated at this level always being higher than the combined area of the constituent
329 EUNIS level 4 habitat targets (Fig. 3). In some cases, dividing up the data into level 4 types led to sample
330 sizes that were too small to produce stable results (Table 2), but even results for sublittoral coarse
331 sediment and sublittoral sand habitats, which were relatively well sampled, showed that using the finer-
332 scale level 4 instead of level 3 habitat classification reduced the total area needed to meet the targets
333 (Fig. 3). However, it is possible that this result might also reflect a more direct effect of habitat
334 classification level on the magnitude of targets. This is because habitats types that are subdivided into
335 finer classes are more biologically homogenous, so the target area needed to represent a specified
336 proportion of species may become lower (Whittaker *et al.*, 2001).

337

338 These results suggest that conservation planners need to be careful when calculating and interpreting
339 SAR-based targets, yet there is currently little guidance available to users of this approach in relation to
340 sample size requirements, and choice of richness estimator. Desmet and Cowling (2004) suggested a
341 minimum sample size of 30, to ensure stable estimates of richness. However, we found that this stability
342 threshold is estimator-dependent and that it was possible to produce a stable result with a sample size
343 as low as 14 (Table 2). Previous studies also implicitly recommend using the Bootstrap-based approach
344 because it generally produces the most conservative targets (Desmet & Cowling 2004; Rondinini 2011a)
345 but our results indicate that this estimator is the least likely to produce robust results. One way to
346 overcome such problems would be to encourage conservation planners to adopt a highly standardised
347 sampling strategy before collecting data because, as sampling becomes more exhaustive, this tends to
348 produce more accurate estimates. This is because estimators will generally converge towards the same
349 estimate of species richness (Colwell & Coddington 1994; Borges *et al.*, 2009) thereby providing a more
350 reliable basis for setting targets. However, this will not always be possible, so we also need research on
351 how to achieve post-hoc sampling parity between habitats, as simply using an equal number of samples
352 per habitat type may over-sample habitats with a small extent of occurrence.

353

354 **Applying SAR based targets in conservation planning (B)**

355 There is often a near-linear relationship between habitat targets and the extent of the resulting PA
356 networks identified (Rodrigues & Gaston 2001; Warman *et al.*, 2004; Carpentier *et al.*, 2009; Delavenne
357 *et al.*, 2012). Thus, setting unjustifiably high targets produces unnecessary impacts on the lives and
358 activities of stakeholders (Chittaro *et al.*, 2010; Mascia *et al.*, 2010) and increases the costs associated
359 with developing and managing the resulting PA systems (Naidoo *et al.*, 2006; McCrea-Strub *et al.*, 2011).
360 We found that the national targets estimated for the MCZ projects (and applied by Balanced Seas) were
361 between 18% and 92% higher than those estimated by this study for the four EUNIS level 3 habitats
362 (Table 4), which implies an MPA network that would be 56.7% larger if the MCZ targets were applied to
363 the whole EEC. This is a large discrepancy and so it is important to understand the differences in results
364 and the level of uncertainty associated with each, especially as both studies used the same approach and
365 the same richness estimator. The main source of difference appears to be in the sample size because the
366 targets developed for the Balanced Seas project were based on national-level data and the number of
367 sampling points for each habitat type was between 2 and 3 orders of magnitude higher than for this
368 study (Table 4). In addition, these national MCZ targets were based on all species recorded within the
369 Marine Recorder database (Rondinini 2011a; Rondinini 2011b), whereas this study only used species
370 obtained from macrobenthic surveys, and these different sets of species may show different
371 biogeographical patterns.

372

373 This further supports the need for approaches that adjust percentage targets for sampling effort to
374 produce results that account for total and per-habitat differences in sampling effort. It also emphasises
375 that systematic conservation planning has to be seen as an adaptive process that accounts for
376 improvements in data quality over time (Margules & Pressey 2000). The MCZ projects have followed this
377 adaptive approach and gradually improved the quality of their ecological, socio-economic and resource-
378 use data during the length of their project, as the UK Government recognised that this approach was the
379 best compromise between accuracy and urgency. However, these MCZ networks are likely to be further

380 modified, as part of a regular review process, and to form only part of marine spatial planning policy in
381 the UK, so we would recommend that additional research on target setting is undertaken to inform these
382 future developments. This research could also investigate the appropriateness of the current form of the
383 SAR underpinning this approach (i.e. the power function) as previous work has shown that alternative
384 functional forms, or mixes of these forms, are sometimes more appropriate (Stiles & Scheiner 2007;
385 Guilhaumon *et al.*, 2008; Guilhaumon *et al.*, 2010; Smith 2010).

386

387 **Policy driven and SAR based targets (B)**

388 The most widely known example of a conservation target defined by socio-political feasibility is the 10%
389 target for world protected area coverage (IUCN 1993). This figure was subsequently adopted by the CBD
390 in 2004 whereby 10% of 'each of the world's ecological regions' was to be 'effectively' conserved by 2010
391 (CBD 2004). However, at the 10th Conference of the Parties (COP) the proportion of terrestrial land area
392 targeted for conservation was increased to 17%, whilst the proportion of the earth's oceans targeted for
393 conservation remained at 10% (CBD 2010; Harrop & Pritchard 2011). The use of such policy-based
394 conservation targets has been heavily criticised in recent years with some scientists suggesting that they
395 are ecologically irrelevant, undermine the goal of biodiversity protection, foster the assumption that
396 every habitat type needs to be equally protected, and create the false expectation that such targets are
397 sufficient for biodiversity representation and persistence (see review by Carwardine *et al.*, 2009). Our
398 results suggest that the application of the 10% policy-driven habitat target would fail to represent the
399 majority of species in the EEC adequately (Table 1), and are consistent with results from other studies
400 (Desmet & Cowling 2004; JNCC & Natural England 2010; Rondinini 2011a).

401

402 However, there are two reasons why these policy-driven targets nevertheless play a valuable role. First,
403 they are generally time-bound and encourage governments to increase the extent of their MPA systems.
404 Thus, the 10% targets should be seen in the context that only 0.05% of the total ocean area and 5.9% of
405 territorial seas are currently designated as MPAs (CBD 2010). Second, there are many occasions where
406 there are insufficient data to develop SAR-based targets and so lower, policy-based targets can be used

407 as an interim solution, pending availability of suitable data. For example, we could not set targets for
408 four of the EUNIS level 3 and two of the EUNIS level 4 habitat types in the EEC because of a lack of data.
409 Therefore, our results suggest that policy-based targets can play a role as long as: (i) conservation
410 practitioners are aware that they should be used as an interim measure whilst SAR-based targets are
411 being developed; and (ii) policy-based targets are low enough to ensure that no habitat type is over-
412 represented in any eventual MPA system.

413

414 **CONCLUSION (A)**

415 The SAR-based approach to setting habitat targets was developed to achieve two related goals. First, it
416 provides a transparent and objective method for converting judgements of minimum species
417 representation into a quantitative target. Second, it provides an approach for distinguishing between
418 different habitat types and so tailors targets to account for differences in patterns of species richness
419 and turnover. Our analysis shows that this approach can achieve these goals, but that issues relating to
420 sample size (which are largely related to survey effort) and estimator choice have the potential to
421 confound real differences between habitat types. Therefore, if this existing approach is to be applied to
422 conservation decisions, there is a need for substantial research on techniques for producing target
423 estimates that account for sample size and survey effort to address any issues of under-sampling. In the
424 meantime, conservation practitioners should make use of best-available data and techniques to set
425 habitat targets. They should also be aware that, where insufficient data are available to enable SAR-
426 based target setting, time-bound policy targets offer a valid baseline whilst waiting for tailored targets to
427 be developed.

428

429 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS (A)**

430 This work was funded by the European Union under the Interreg IVA Programme that was co-financed by
431 the European Regional Development Fund, as part of the Channel Integrated Approach for Marine
432 Resource Management (CHARM) Phase III Project. We would like to acknowledge the following
433 organisations and sources for providing the datasets used in this study; Cefas, Wimereux Marine Station,

434 Ifremer, and the Marine Aggregate Levy Sustainability Fund (MALSF) GIS Database for providing access to
435 data from the South Coast and Thames Regional Environmental Characteristic surveys. We are also
436 grateful to Zoe Davies, Bruno Nhancale and Diogo Veríssimo for comments on earlier versions of this
437 manuscript, and to Simon Ferrier, Adam B. Smith and two anonymous reviewers for constructive
438 comments that greatly improved this manuscript.

439

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616
617

618 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

619

620 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

621

622 **Figure S1** Broad-scale EUNIS level 3 marine habitat map.

623

624 **Table S1** Key to EUNIS codes, levels, and descriptions.

625

626 **Table S2** Species richness estimates calculated using the ICE, Chao2, Jackknife1, Jackknife2 and Bootstrap
627 estimators.

628

629 **Table S3** Number of sampling points required to reach stable estimates of species richness for the ICE,
630 Chao2, Jackknife1, Jackknife2 and Bootstrap estimators of species richness.

631

632 **Table S4** Habitat specific z-values calculated using the ICE, Chao2, Jackknife1, Jackknife2 and Bootstrap
633 estimators of species richness.

634

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638 should be addressed to the authors.

639

640 **BIOSKETCH:**

641 Kristian Metcalfe, Juliette Delavenne, Sandrine Vaz, Stuart Harrop and Bob Smith work on the marine
642 spatial planning component of the European funded, Channel Integrated Approach for Marine Resource
643 Management (CHARM) Phase III Project. Clément Garcia, Aurélie Foveau, Jean-Claude Dauvin and Roger
644 Coggan work on other components of the project that deal with habitat and species distribution
645 modelling. CHARM aims to integrate a range of biological, socio-economic, social and legal data to help
646 develop a multidisciplinary approach for managing the English Channel.

647

648 Author Contributions: K.M., S.R.H. and R.J.S. conceived the idea; J.D., C.G., A.F., J-C.D., R.C., S.V. and K.M.
649 collected the relevant data; K.M. analysed the data; and K.M. and R.J.S. led the writing.

650

651 **TABLE AND FIGURE LEGENDS**

652

653 **Table 1** Habitat specific inventory data, total number of species estimated to occur in each habitat type
654 (values calculated using Bootstrap estimator and rounded to nearest whole number), z-values and the
655 proportion (%) of target habitat area for each EUNIS level 3 and 4 habitat type.

656

657 **Table 2** Proportion (%) of target habitat area for each of the EUNIS level 3 and 4 habitat types, based on
658 five estimators of species richness. Shaded targets were determined not to be stable as the standard
659 deviation of the richness estimate was > 5% of the estimate.

660

661 **Table 3** Species richness estimates and targets (values calculated using the Bootstrap estimator and
662 rounded to nearest whole number) for each EUNIS level 3 and 4 habitat with increasing sample size.

663

664 **Table 4** Habitat specific z-values and targets for four broad-scale EUNIS level 3 habitats developed for the
665 eastern English Channel (EEC) in this study, and as provided by the Marine Conservation Zone (MCZ)
666 Ecological Network Guidance in the UK (JNCC & Natural England 2010).

667

668 **Figure 1** EUNIS level 3 and 4 habitat map for the eastern English Channel showing the location of the
669 1314 sampling points. See Table S1 for a key to EUNIS habitat codes, levels and descriptions.

670

671 **Figure 2** Mean increase in targets (including standard errors) based on increasing sample size across all
672 habitats for the: (1) Bootstrap; (2) Jackknife1; (3) Jackknife2; (4) Chao2; and (5) ICE estimators, relative to
673 an estimate based on 50 sampling points.

674

675 **Figure 3** The proportion of target habitat area for combined fine-scale EUNIS level 4 habitat constituents
676 compared to their coarse-scale EUNIS level 3 parent habitats: (a) A5.1; (b) A5.2; (c) A5.3; and (d) A5.4.

677

678

Table 1

EUNIS Code	EUNIS Level	EUNIS Habitat description	Area (km ²) of habitat	Number of sampling points	Average area (m ²) of samples	Average number of species per sample	Total number of observed species	Bootstrap estimator (y ₂)	Number of samples to reach stable estimate	z-value	Target (%)
A3.3	3	Low-energy infralittoral rock	116	11	0.5	10	60	74	-	0.104	11.68
A4.3	3	Low-energy circalittoral rock	108	5	0.5	38	142	178	-	0.080	6.25
A5.1*	3	Sublittoral coarse sediment	29889	725	0.26	53	1520	1665	65	0.135	19.23
A5.13	4	Infralittoral coarse sediment	4092	263	0.2	46	971	1079	67	0.133	18.65
A5.14	4	Circalittoral coarse sediment	18934	373	0.31	59	1326	1470	53	0.129	17.84
A5.15	4	Deep circalittoral coarse sediment	6863	89	0.25	49	825	950	52	0.123	16.38
A5.2*	3	Sublittoral sand	7633	469	0.45	18	714	823	276	0.162	25.28
A5.23 or A5.24	4	Infralittoral fine sand or muddy sand	3701	288	0.45	18	590	684	208	0.159	24.65
A5.25 or A5.26	4	Circalittoral fine sand or muddy sand	3046	165	0.45	18	454	539	133	0.150	22.63
A5.27	4	Deep circalittoral sand	886	16	0.28	14	128	160	15	0.111	13.48
A5.3*	3	Sublittoral mud	335	28	0.48	21	198	240	27	0.120	15.49
A5.33 or A5.34	4	Infralittoral sandy mud or fine mud	196	17	0.49	18	139	170	-	0.113	13.97
A5.35 or A5.36	4	Circalittoral sandy mud or fine mud	134	11	0.46	26	131	158	-	0.093	8.98
A5.4*	3	Sublittoral mixed sediments	900	64	0.26	25	333	393	44	0.130	16.88
A5.44	4	Circalittoral mixed sediments	477	50	0.3	25	245	287	38	0.115	14.41
A5.45	4	Deep mixed sediments	198	14	0.11	25	164	202	13	0.098	10.27

*Species Richness estimates and corresponding z-values for these EUNIS level 3 habitats are obtained from their combined EUNIS level 4 habitat and survey data; A5.1 = (A5.13, A5.14, A5.15); A5.2 = (A5.23 or A5.24, A5.25 or A5.26, A5.27); A5.3 = (A5.33 or A5.34, A5.35 or A5.36); and A5.4 = (A5.44, A5.45).

Table 2

EUNIS Code	EUNIS Level	EUNIS Habitat description	Number of sampling points	Non-parametric estimators					Mean target	Target range
				ICE	Chao2	Jackknife1	Jackknife2	Bootstrap		
A3.3	3	Low-energy infralittoral rock	11	17.53	14.96	14.28	16.31	11.68	14.95	5.85
A4.3	3	Low-energy circalittoral rock	5	13.91	12.07	8.89	11.17	6.25	10.46	7.66
A5.1	3	Sublittoral coarse sediment	725	19.94	20.45	20.18	21.05	19.23	20.17	1.82
A5.13	4	Infralittoral coarse sediment	263	19.34	19.16	19.66	20.23	18.65	19.41	1.58
A5.14	4	Circalittoral coarse sediment	373	18.71	18.97	18.90	19.79	17.84	18.84	1.95
A5.15	4	Deep circalittoral coarse sediment	89	17.83	17.54	17.78	18.79	16.38	17.66	2.41
A5.2	3	Sublittoral sand	469	27.04	26.97	26.65	27.83	25.28	26.75	2.55
A5.23 or A5.24	4	Infralittoral fine sand or muddy sand	288	26.57	26.09	26.10	27.22	24.65	26.13	2.57
A5.25 or A5.26	4	Circalittoral fine sand or muddy sand	165	26.22	26.45	24.54	26.39	22.63	25.25	3.82
A5.27	4	Deep circalittoral sand	16	18.56	17.20	15.90	17.99	13.48	16.63	5.08
A5.3	3	Sublittoral mud	28	20.70	20.24	17.96	20.27	15.49	18.93	5.21
A5.33 or A5.34	4	Infralittoral sandy mud or fine mud	17	19.15	19.15	16.66	19.15	13.97	17.62	5.18
A5.35 or A5.36	4	Circalittoral sandy mud or fine mud	11	13.61	14.84	11.56	13.98	8.98	12.59	5.86
A5.4	3	Sublittoral mixed sediments	64	19.87	19.87	18.86	20.63	16.88	19.22	3.75
A5.44	4	Circalittoral mixed sediments	50	17.33	18.29	16.48	18.48	14.41	17.00	4.07
A5.45	4	Deep mixed sediments	14	16.14	14.83	12.72	15.01	10.27	13.79	5.87

Table 3

EUNIS Code	EUNIS Habitat description	Number of observed species	Number of sampling points used to generate estimates of species richness													
			5	% Target	10	% Target	20	% Target	50	% Target	100	% Target	200	% Target	300	% Target
A3.3	Low-energy infralittoral rock	60	46	5.98	71	11.16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
A4.3	Low-energy circalittoral rock	142	178	6.25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
A5.1	Sublittoral coarse sediment	1520	252	2.61	394	5.88	563	9.03	823	12.59	1039	14.81	1257	16.61	1384	17.52
A5.13	Infralittoral coarse sediment	971	210	3.05	324	6.63	460	10.02	672	13.87	848	16.24	1019	18.08	-	-
A5.14	Circalittoral coarse sediment	1326	274	2.71	419	5.92	589	8.99	845	12.47	1052	14.61	1271	16.44	1400	17.38
A5.15	Deep circalittoral coarse sediment	825	232	3.18	365	6.92	527	10.46	787	14.49	-	-	-	-	-	-
A5.2	Sublittoral sand	714	87	3.56	138	7.57	210	11.77	334	16.54	460	19.75	611	22.51	709	23.91
A5.23 or A5.24	Infralittoral fine sand or muddy sand	590	87	3.94	139	8.27	208	12.47	335	17.51	460	20.76	604	23.46	-	-
A5.25 or A5.26	Circalittoral fine sand or muddy sand	454	88	4.15	136	8.23	200	12.27	312	17.02	430	20.36	-	-	-	-
A5.27	Deep circalittoral sand	128	73	5.20	120	10.31	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
A5.3	Sublittoral mud	198	91	4.51	139	9.04	202	13.44	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
A5.33 or A5.34	Infralittoral sandy mud or fine mud	139	82	5.42	127	10.41	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
A5.35 or A5.36	Circalittoral sandy mud or fine mud	131	104	4.34	151	8.44	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
A5.4	Sublittoral mixed sediments	333	106	3.36	162	7.26	233	11.13	354	15.74	-	-	-	-	-	-
A5.44	Circalittoral mixed sediments	245	99	3.22	143	6.65	197	10.12	287	14.41	-	-	-	-	-	-
A5.45	Deep mixed sediments	164	107	3.80	167	8.17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 4

EUNIS Code	EUNIS Habitat description	Area (km²) of habitat in EEC	Number of EEC sampling points	EEC habitat z-values	EEC target (%)	Number of MCZ sampling points	MCZ habitat z-values*	MCZ Target (%)	Difference in habitat area (km²)
A5.1	Sublittoral coarse sediment	29889	725	0.14	19.23	8532	0.19	32.40	3936.38
A5.2	Sublittoral sand	7633	469	0.16	25.28	9065	0.18	29.90	352.64
A5.3	Sublittoral mud	335	28	0.12	15.49	2064	0.17	29.80	47.94
A5.4	Sublittoral mixed sediments	900	64	0.13	16.88	1922	0.18	31.90	135.18

*MCZ habitat specific z-values based on estimates of the average area of samples (x_1) being 0.5m² (see Rondinini 2011a)

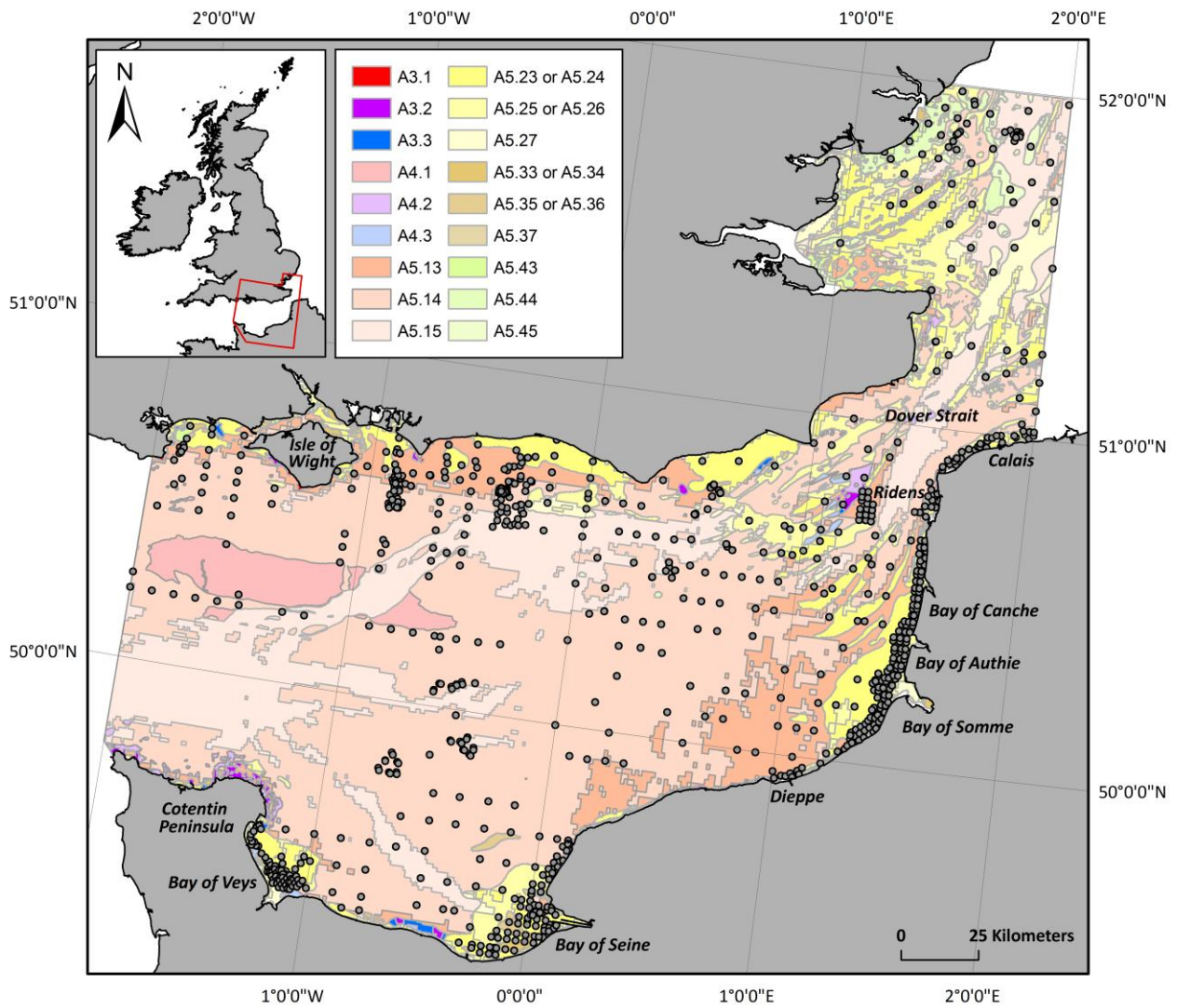


Figure 1

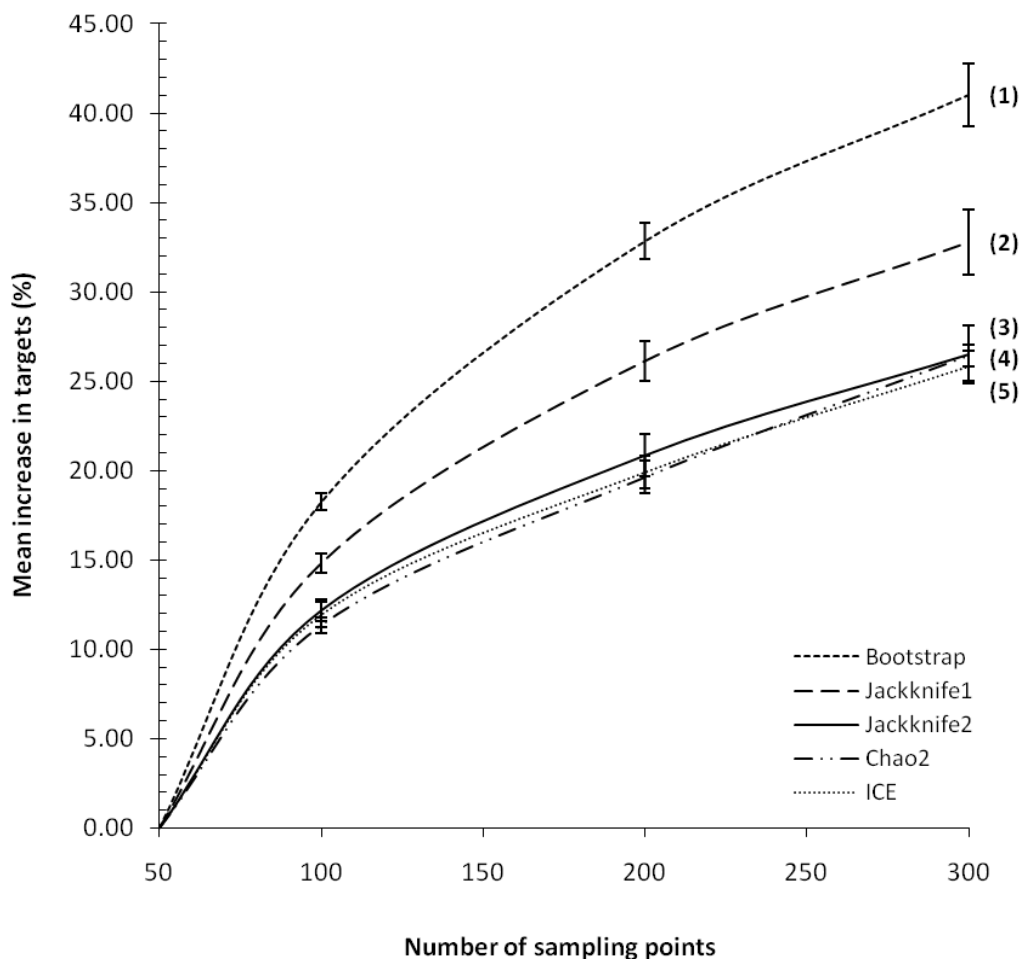


Figure 2

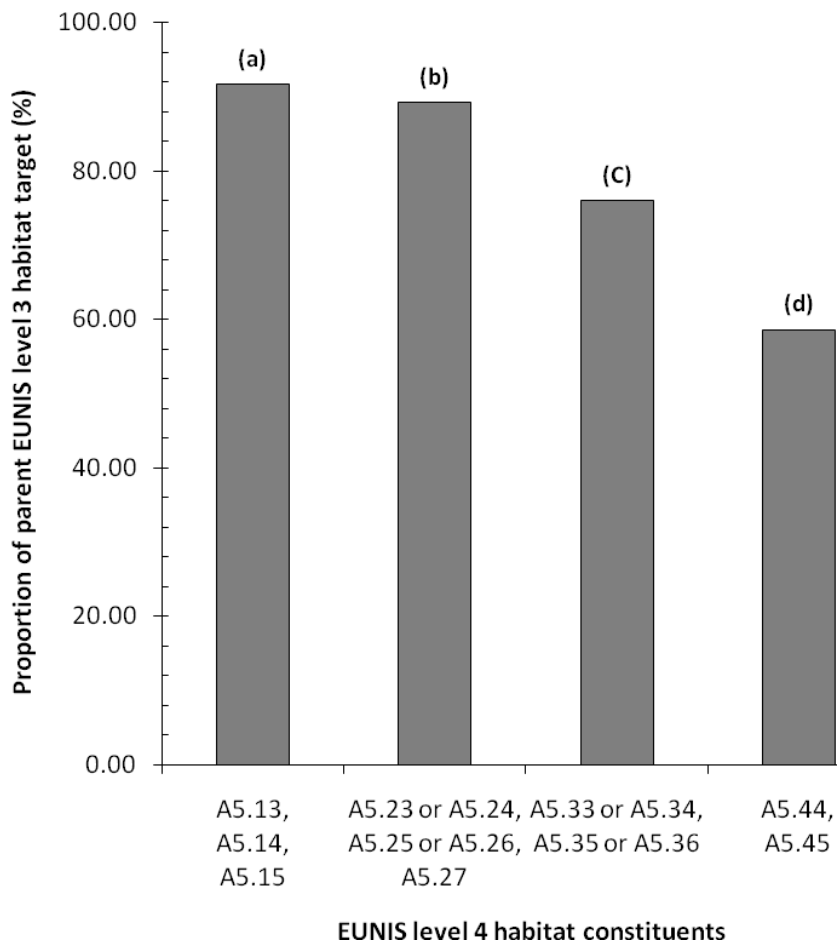


Figure 3

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

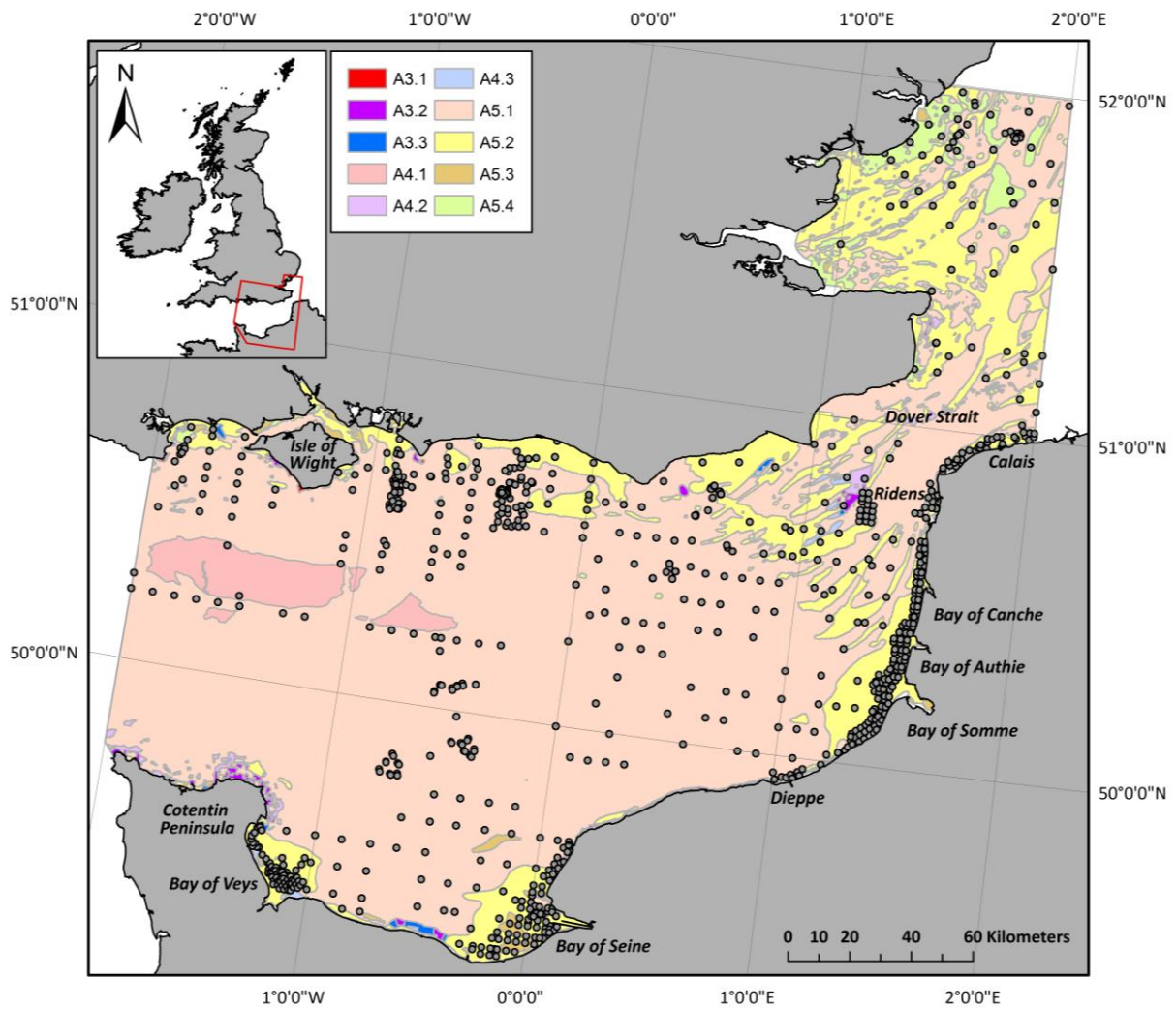


Figure S1 Broad-scale EUNIS level 3 habitat map for the eastern English Channel showing the location of the 1314 sampling points. Map projected in Europe Albers Equal Area Conic. See Table S1 for a key to EUNIS habitat codes, levels and descriptions.

Table S1 Key to EUNIS codes, levels, and descriptions referred to in the text, figures and tables (EUNIS version 200611; EEA, 2006)

EUNIS Code	EUNIS Level	EUNIS Habitat / Biotope Description
A3.1	3	High-energy infralittoral rock
A3.2	3	Moderate energy infralittoral rock
A3.3	3	Low-energy infralittoral rock
A4.1	3	High-energy circalittoral rock
A4.2	3	Moderate energy circalittoral rock
A4.3	3	Low-energy circalittoral rock
A5.1	3	Sublittoral coarse sediment
A5.13	4	Infralittoral coarse sediment
A5.14	4	Circalittoral coarse sediment
A5.15	4	Deep circalittoral coarse sediment
A5.2	3	Sublittoral sand
A5.23	4	Infralittoral fine sand
A5.24	4	Infralittoral muddy sand
A5.25	4	Circalittoral fine sand
A5.26	4	Circalittoral muddy sand
A5.27	4	Deep circalittoral sand
A5.3	3	Sublittoral mud
A5.33	4	Infralittoral sandy mud
A5.34	4	Infralittoral fine mud
A5.35	4	Circalittoral sandy mud
A5.36	4	Circalittoral fine mud
A5.37	4	Deep circalittoral mud
A5.4	3	Sublittoral mixed sediments
A5.43	4	Infralittoral mixed sediments
A5.44	4	Circalittoral mixed sediments
A5.45	4	Deep mixed sediments

Table S2 Species richness estimates (values rounded to nearest whole number) for each of the EUNIS level 3 and 4 habitats, calculated using the ICE, Chao2, Jackknife1, Jackknife2 and Bootstrap estimators.

EUNIS Code	EUNIS Level	EUNIS Habitat description	Area (km ²) of habitat	Number of sampling points	Average area (m ²) of samples	Average number of species per sample	Total number of observed species	Non-parametric estimators [†]					Mean Estimate	Estimate Range
								ICE	Chao2	Jackknife1	Jackknife2	Bootstrap		
A3.3	3	Low-energy infralittoral rock	116	11	0.5	10	60	118	96	91	107	74	97	44
A4.3	3	Low-energy circalittoral rock	108	5	0.5	38	142	333	288	223	268	178	258	155
A5.1*	3	Sublittoral coarse sediment	29889	725	0.26	53	1520	1798	1902	1846	2032	1665	1849	367
A5.13	4	Infralittoral coarse sediment	4092	263	0.2	46	971	1157	1136	1195	1267	1079	1167	116
A5.14	4	Circalittoral coarse sediment	18934	373	0.31	59	1326	1610	1654	1643	1806	1470	1637	336
A5.15	4	Deep circalittoral coarse sediment	6863	89	0.25	49	825	1099	1067	1094	1212	950	1084	262
A5.2*	3	Sublittoral sand	7633	469	0.45	18	714	1001	994	958	1096	823	974	273
A5.23 or A5.24	4	Infralittoral fine sand or muddy sand	3701	288	0.45	18	590	841	798	799	903	684	805	219
A5.25 or A5.26	4	Circalittoral fine sand or muddy sand	3046	165	0.45	18	454	783	803	656	798	539	716	264
A5.27	4	Deep circalittoral sand	886	16	0.28	14	128	254	224	199	241	160	216	94
A5.3*	3	Sublittoral mud	335	28	0.48	21	198	376	361	296	362	240	327	136
A5.33 or A5.34	4	Infralittoral sandy mud or fine mud	196	17	0.49	18	139	261	261	212	261	170	233	91
A5.35 or A5.36	4	Circalittoral sandy mud or fine mud	134	11	0.46	26	131	230	254	195	237	158	215	96
A5.4*	3	Sublittoral mixed sediments	900	64	0.26	25	333	519	519	472	558	393	492	165
A5.44	4	Circalittoral mixed sediments	477	50	0.3	25	245	371	404	344	411	287	363	124
A5.45	4	Deep mixed sediments	198	14	0.11	25	164	339	302	251	307	202	280	137

*Species Richness estimates and corresponding z-values for these EUNIS level 3 habitats are obtained from their combined EUNIS level 4 habitat and survey data; A5.1 = (A5.13, A5.14, A5.15); A5.2 = (A5.23 or A5.24, A5.25 or A5.26, A5.27); A5.3 = (A5.33 or A5.34, A5.35 or A5.36); and A5.4 = (A5.44, A5.45). †Each estimate of total number of species calculated in *EstimateS* represents the mean of 1000 estimates based on 1000 randomisations of sample accumulation order without replacement, with Chao2 computed using the classic formula (see Colwell 2009).

Table S3 Number of sampling points required to reach stable estimates of species richness for each estimator of species richness. Habitats with an insufficient number of survey stations to reach stable estimates are denoted as ‘-’.

EUNIS Code	EUNIS Level	EUNIS Habitat description	Number of sampling points	Number of sampling points required to reach a stable estimate of species richness				
				ICE	Chao2	Jackknife1	Jackknife2	Bootstrap
A3.3	3	Low-energy infralittoral rock	11	-	-	-	-	-
A4.3	3	Low-energy circalittoral rock	5	-	-	-	-	-
A5.1*	3	Sublittoral coarse sediment	725	93	56	39	86	65
A5.13	4	Infralittoral coarse sediment	263	86	72	50	78	67
A5.14	4	Circalittoral coarse sediment	373	71	50	33	66	53
A5.15	4	Deep circalittoral coarse sediment	89	61	50	61	58	52
A5.2*	3	Sublittoral sand	469	293	409	366	291	276
A5.23 or A5.24	4	Infralittoral fine sand or muddy sand	288	211	271	-	214	208
A5.25 or A5.26	4	Circalittoral fine sand or muddy sand	165	146	-	-	143	133
A5.27	4	Deep circalittoral sand	16	-	-	-	15	15
A5.3*	3	Sublittoral mud	28	-	-	-	-	27
A5.33 or A5.34	4	Infralittoral sandy mud or fine mud	17	-	-	-	-	-
A5.35 or A5.36	4	Circalittoral sandy mud or fine mud	11	-	-	-	-	-
A5.4*	3	Sublittoral mixed sediments	64	54	-	-	51	44
A5.44	4	Circalittoral mixed sediments	50	45	-	-	42	38
A5.45	4	Deep mixed sediments	14	-	-	-	-	13

Table S4 Habitat specific z-values calculated using the ICE, Chao2, Jackknife1, Jackknife2 and Bootstrap estimators of species richness.

EUNIS Code	EUNIS Level	EUNIS Habitat description	Area (km ²) of habitat	Number of sampling points	Average area (m ²) of samples	Average number of species per sample	Total number of observed species	z-values				
								ICE	Chao2	Jackknife1	Jackknife2	Bootstrap
A3.3	3	Low-energy infralittoral rock	116	11	0.5	10	60	0.128	0.117	0.115	0.123	0.104
A4.3	3	Low-energy circalittoral rock	108	5	0.5	38	142	0.113	0.106	0.092	0.102	0.080
A5.1*	3	Sublittoral coarse sediment	29889	725	0.26	53	1520	0.138	0.141	0.139	0.143	0.135
A5.13	4	Infralittoral coarse sediment	4092	263	0.2	46	971	0.136	0.135	0.137	0.140	0.133
A5.14	4	Circalittoral coarse sediment	18934	373	0.31	59	1326	0.133	0.134	0.134	0.138	0.129
A5.15	4	Deep circalittoral coarse sediment	6863	89	0.25	49	825	0.129	0.128	0.129	0.133	0.123
A5.2*	3	Sublittoral sand	7633	469	0.45	18	714	0.171	0.170	0.169	0.174	0.162
A5.23 or A5.24	4	Infralittoral fine sand or muddy sand	3701	288	0.45	18	590	0.168	0.166	0.166	0.171	0.159
A5.25 or A5.26	4	Circalittoral fine sand or muddy sand	3046	165	0.45	18	454	0.167	0.168	0.159	0.168	0.150
A5.27	4	Deep circalittoral sand	886	16	0.28	14	128	0.132	0.127	0.121	0.130	0.111
A5.3*	3	Sublittoral mud	335	28	0.48	21	198	0.142	0.140	0.130	0.140	0.120
A5.33 or A5.34	4	Infralittoral sandy mud or fine mud	196	17	0.49	18	139	0.135	0.135	0.125	0.135	0.113
A5.35 or A5.36	4	Circalittoral sandy mud or fine mud	134	11	0.46	26	131	0.112	0.117	0.103	0.113	0.093
A5.4*	3	Sublittoral mixed sediments	900	64	0.26	25	333	0.148	0.148	0.141	0.150	0.130
A5.44	4	Circalittoral mixed sediments	477	50	0.3	25	245	0.127	0.131	0.124	0.132	0.115
A5.45	4	Deep mixed sediments	198	14	0.11	25	164	0.122	0.117	0.108	0.118	0.098