



A review of the influence of marine habitat classification schemes on mapping studies: inherent assumptions, influence on end products and suggestions for future developments

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3 **1 A review of the influence of marine habitat classification schemes on mapping studies:**
4 **2 inherent assumptions, influence on end products and suggestions for future**
5 **3 developments**
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2
3 19 **Abstract**
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5 20 The production of marine habitat maps typically relies on the use of Habitat Classification
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7 21 Schemes (HCSs). The choice of which HCS to use for a mapping study is often related to
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9 22 familiarity, established practice, and national desires. Despite a superficial similarity, HCS
10
11 23 differ greatly across six key properties, namely, purpose, environmental and ecological scope,
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13 24 spatial scale, thematic resolution, structure and compatibility with mapping techniques. These
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15 25 properties impart specific strengths and weaknesses for each HCS, which are subsequently
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17 26 transferred to the habitat maps applying these schemes. This review has examined seven
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19 27 common HCSs, over the six properties, to understand their influence on marine habitat
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21 28 mapping. Recommendations are provided for improving HCSs for marine habitat mapping as
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23 29 well as for enhanced the working practices of mappers using habitat classification. It is hoped
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25 30 that implementation of these recommendations will lead to greater certainty and usage within
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27 31 mapping studies and more consistency between studies and adjoining maps. A review of six
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29 32 common HCSs has been conducted to highlight these issues, and to raise awareness of how
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31 33 these properties and assumptions are transferred into marine habitat maps. In addition, how
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33 34 mappers use HCSs also introduces additional uncertainties and biases into the final maps.
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36 35 **Keywords**
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38 36 Marine habitat mapping; habitat classification scheme;
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39 1. Introduction

40 The pressing need for seabed inventory mapping, marine spatial planning, spatial estimates of
41 anthropogenic impacts (as required by the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (Council
42 Directive 2008/56/EC)) and the designation of seabed conservation features (as required by
43 the Habitats Directive 92/43/EEC) has made the habitat map an indispensable item within
44 marine management and research. The production, and ultimate presentation, of marine
45 habitat maps typically rely on the use of a habitat classification scheme (HCS). Within
46 mapping, HCSs categorise environmental and biological information (e.g., depth,
47 topography, substratum, hydrodynamic energy, community composition) into distinct habitat
48 classes. Each class is assumed to be associated with a distinctive abiotic condition and
49 identifiable biological community, and therefore attempts to produce environmentally or
50 ecologically meaningful units.

51 Habitat classification is an integral part of habitat map production, and as such, the HCS has a
52 significant influence on how mapping information is: (i) interpreted during map production;
53 (ii) displayed within the map; and (iii) interpreted by the end user. This review aims to
54 examine explicitly how HCSs influence the production of marine habitat maps. A wider
55 discussion will follow on what improvements can be made to HCSs, and how mappers should
56 use these HCSs, to provide more consistent, accurate and useful products for end users. The
57 specific objectives of this review are:

- 58 1. Introduce the principles of habitat classification for marine mapping;
- 59 2. Describe the properties common to most HCS;
- 60 3. Examine the variation in these common properties for seven, established HCSs,
61 used for benthic habitat mapping;

- 62 4. Assess the influence of variations within these common properties on the
- 63 production and representations of marine habitat maps;
- 64 5. Make recommendations for the development of HCSs in habitat mapping; and
- 65 6. Recommend best practice for marine habitat mappers when using HCSs.

67 **2. Use of habitat classification schemes in marine mapping**

68 Although HCSs are developed to support all sorts of environmental work, few activities are
69 as intimately linked to the use of HCSs as habitat mapping. Many HCSs have been developed
70 specifically for use in mapping studies, e.g., Potential Habitat Characterization Scheme
71 (PHCS, Greene et al. 2005, 2007). This section introduces HCSs, as well as how and why
72 they are incorporated into marine habitat mapping. The influence that HCSs have on habitat
73 maps is also introduced, before being discussed in more detail at the end of the review.

75 **2.1. Habitat classification schemes**

76 Robinson and Levings (1995) defined a HCS as a set of instructions that identify, delimit and
77 describe the habitats of distinct biological assemblages (communities or single species). The
78 primary purposes of HCSs, summarised from Galparsoro et al. (2012) and Robinson and
79 Levings (1995), are to:

- 80 • provide a structured framework for the efficient classification of habitats;
- 81 • provide common and easily understood concepts and language for the description of
- 82 habitats;
- 83 • hold information in a relational structure that allows for the interrogation of
- 84 information based on parameters collected by common survey methods;

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3 85 • describe and standardise the physical, chemical and biological parameters that define
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5 86 habitat classes; and
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7 87 • regulate the spatial and thematic scales and thresholds used for habitat classification,
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9 88 and thereby standardise the classification of habitats within and between studies.

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12 89 The use of a HCS benefits marine habitat mapping in several ways. Most importantly, the
13
14 90 HCS provides a structured framework for the integration of environmental and biological
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16 91 information (which have different spatial scales, units, and formats) into one, integrated
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18 92 product, via ecologically meaningful decision points along the classification pathway.
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20 93 Ultimately, HCSs facilitate the segmentation of discrete (e.g., categorical data such as
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22 94 substratum) and continuous variables into ecologically relevant spatial units.

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28 96 **2.2. The influence of habitat classification schemes on the outputs of habitat**
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30 97 **mapping**

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33 98 Although the benefits associated with the consistent classification of habitats during mapping
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35 99 are great, it must also be recognised that the use of a HCS also imposes certain constraints
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37 100 and limitations, which are inherent within the fundamental concepts of habitat classification.
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39 101 For example, many HCSs assume that individual habitats are discrete classes. When used in
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41 102 mapping, these classes form mutually exclusive patches when presented spatially, and
42
43 103 therefore fail to capture the natural continuities (biocoenoses) and environmental gradients
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45 104 (ecotones) that perhaps better reflect the natural configuration and gradients between
46
47 105 different habitat types.

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50 106 The structure of an HCS has a marked effect on the production process for a habitat map,
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52 107 through dictating when different types of information are relevant during the classification
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54 108 pathway. The structure can, therefore, modify the relative importance of physical, chemical

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3 109 and biological variables in determining the final classification for a unit of habitat. The
4
5 110 physical information is typically associated with the upper levels of the hierarchy and can
6
7 111 sometimes be assigned based on existing, coarse-resolution data such as from hydrodynamic
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9 112 models and digital elevation models. Lower levels of classification (biotopes, communities
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11 113 and single-species distribution) often require biological data and are often applied at a more
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13 114 local scale. Due to insufficient biological data, or because it is not relevant for the specific
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15 115 scheme or level of classification, some HCSs are based purely on physical and environmental
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17 116 features of the seafloor environment, which are used as a proxy for habitats, on the
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19 117 assumption that there may be a correlation between the non-biological features and biological
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21 118 communities (Brown et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2011). Such assumptions are the basis for the
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23 119 use of distribution modelling techniques by employing full spatial coverage data of
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25 120 environmental variables to predict benthic spatial distribution patterns during the map
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27 121 production (Reiss et al., 2014).

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31 122 Although it is a sensible aspiration that a single classification scheme is used for all marine
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33 123 habitat maps, multiple schemes have arisen to cater for the different applications, e.g.,
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35 124 biological conservation, landscape ecology, environmental monitoring, marine spatial
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37 125 planning, fisheries management, and geomorphological descriptions, etc. The presence of
38
39 126 several HCSs also reflects the fundamental difficulty of dividing natural continuities
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41 127 (biocoenoses) and environmental gradients (ecotones), into discrete and meaningful classes
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43 128 (McDougall et al., 2007). Furthermore, the number of HCSs is further inflated as individual
44
45 129 schemes cater for specific biogeographic areas. Lund and Wibur (2007) and Greene *et al.*
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47 130 (2008) summarised 14 marine HCSs developed for North America and Europe alone.
48
49 131 Interestingly, schemes differ substantially even though (i) the main physico-chemical
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51 132 variables that are known to define habitats are well-established, (ii) the majority of marine
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53 133 mapping studies record the same parameters and (iii) the predominantly physical nature of
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3 134 the majority of the classifications. The use of different HCSs for mapping can significantly
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5 135 influence the spatial representation of habitats in the final maps, which in turn can hinder the
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7 136 merging of adjoining maps as well as alter management outcomes based on these maps.
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12 138 **2.3. Variation and influence associated with six common properties of marine**
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14 139 **habitat classification schemes**

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17 140 An examination of the HCS suggests that they differ according to six properties, namely: (i)
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19 141 purpose of a HCS; (ii) environmental and ecological scope of a HCS; (iii) spatial scale
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21 142 covered by a HCS; (iv) thematic resolution covered by a HCS; (v) structure of a HCS; and
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23 143 (vi) compatibility of a HCS for habitat mapping. Variation in each property can influence the
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25 144 production, and representation, of a marine habitat map. The following section will: (i)
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27 145 introduce each property; (ii) examine seven common HCSs to highlight the variation within
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29 146 each property (these schemes are introduced in Table 1); and (iii) summarise the influence of
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31 147 variation, within each property, on habitat map production.
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35 148 **2.3.1. The purpose of a habitat classification scheme**

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37 149 A number of HCSs have been constructed for differing but specific purposes. For example,
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39 150 some schemes are designed to address the delineation of fisheries habitats, while others
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41 151 specifically include habitats of conservation importance. Most schemes are more generic
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43 152 classifications, which are more suitable for inventory mapping. The purpose of a HCS
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45 153 dictates the emphasis for separation between classes, and therefore the way in which
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47 154 observed variables are partitioned within the scheme. This structuring is reproduced within a
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49 155 habitat map when a specific HCS is used.
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156 *Variation in the purpose between habitat classification schemes*

157 The majority of HCSs are generalist, descriptive schemes that potentially offer the greatest
158 utility to the largest number of users. Maps produced using these schemes are most likely to
159 be centrally collated and widely distributed. For instance, European policies, including the
160 Habitats Directive (92/43/EEC), the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD;
161 2008/56/EC), the Infrastructure for Spatial Information in the European Community
162 (INSPIRE; 2007/2/EC), and the Maritime Spatial Planning (Directive 2014/89/EU), aimed at
163 marine mapping, assessment and reporting are increasingly using EUNIS and HELCOM
164 Underwater Biotopes (HUB) (within the Baltic Sea) habitat categories and respective codes
165 so as to guarantee a common shared path and technical terminology between Member States
166 (Vasquez et al., 2015).

167 The Australian National Intertidal/Subtidal Benthic (NISB) scheme (Mount et al., 2007) and
168 the Classification of Sublittoral Habitats (CSH) scheme (Valentine et al., 2005) are also broad
169 enough to allow full coverage mapping and use for the environmental management of
170 seafloor habitats (although NISB primarily focused on managing climate change related
171 issues), as well as specifically providing a foundation for scientific research.

172 The primary purpose of Coastal and Marine Ecological Classification Standard (CMECS) is
173 to be a national standard for the classification of habitats that ensures the consistency of state,
174 national and international outputs (Madden *et al.*, 2005). Unlike other schemes, CMECS is
175 claimed to be relatively multipurpose in that it also caters for (i) fisheries management; (ii)
176 the identification and administration of marine protected areas (Madden *et al.*, 2005); and (iii)
177 ecosystem-based management of marine resources. By contrast, the Potential Habitat
178 Characterization Scheme (PHCS: Greene *et al.* 1999, 2005, 2007) has a clear geological
179 emphasis, which is thought to provide a better basis for fisheries management, i.e., the

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3 180 identification of Essential Fish Habitat. Consequently, this scheme has been adopted for the
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5 181 contiguous western coast of the USA for rockfish habitat mapping (Greene *et al.*, 2007).
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7 182 Management purposes lie at the heart of the Hierarchical Framework of Marine Habitat
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9 183 Classification for Ecosystem-Based Management (HFMHC: Guarinello *et al.*, 2010), which
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11 184 has been specifically designed for promoting ecosystem-based management (Guarinello *et*
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13 185 *al.*, 2010). The framework incorporates the central concepts of ecosystem-based management
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15 186 - this ensures that the products of this HCS reflect the values and objectives of this style of
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17 187 management. The HELCOM HUB scheme has also been designed to align with a strategic
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19 188 plan to ensure ecosystem-based management (HELCOM Baltic Sea Action Plan) in the entire
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21 189 Baltic Sea region (HELCOM, 2013).
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25 190 *Summarising the influence of habitat classification scheme purpose on habitat maps*
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28 191 The majority of HCS are generic, inventory schemes that have subsequently been adopted for
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30 192 use in marine management. Several of the European systems were, however, designed
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32 193 initially for the ready identification of habitats of conservation importance. Other schemes are
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34 194 more specific, in either dealing with components of the habitat (e.g., ground fish), specific
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36 195 management topics (e.g., climate change, fisheries, conservation, ecosystem-based
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38 196 management). The purpose of an HCS will dictate the information that is required within the
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40 197 classification and, ultimately, how this information is partitioned and presented within a map.
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42 198 Most habitat mapping studies adopt just one HCS, and consequently limit the maps to a
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44 199 specific set of purposes. This restricts both the breadth of the maps for other purposes and
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46 200 how exhaustively the mapping data is used. It is likely that the greatest utility, accuracy, and
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48 201 confidence for a purpose can be obtained from a map classified using a scheme dedicated for
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50 202 that particular purpose.
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203 **2.3.2. The environmental and ecological scope of a habitat classification scheme**

204 The scope of an HCS defines which (i) biogeographic region(s), (ii) biological realms (e.g.,
205 pelagic/benthos), and (iii) type of habitats included (e.g., coastal area, estuaries or hard
206 substrata) are covered by the scheme. In some cases, a HCS will have been developed for a
207 specific biological component, study or geographic location, and the resulting habitat types
208 may not be applicable beyond that subject or area. In other cases, schemes have been
209 developed using broad-scale data or using thresholds in ecologically relevant variables
210 (Vasquez *et al.*, 2015).

211 *Variation in the scope of habitat classification schemes*

212 The combined geographical scope of HELCOM HUB and the marine section of EUNIS is the
213 marine waters off the European mainland, including offshore islands, and the archipelagos of
214 the European Union Member States. Some regions are included in the scheme in principle,
215 although knowledge from these areas is more limited, and their habitats descriptions are
216 therefore poorly represented; e.g., the Black Sea and the Canary Islands. The HELCOM HUB
217 and EUNIS schemes cover the entire seabed from the intertidal zone into deeper, subtidal
218 areas (EUNIS also extends into the abyssal zone), as well as some broadscale pelagic
219 habitats. Both schemes are heavily biased towards parts of Europe that have been well-
220 studied and have existing HCSs (Galparsoro *et al.*, 2012). Likewise, both the NISB and
221 CMECS schemes are also designed for a broad set of habitats yet within specific geographic
222 regions, i.e., NISB covers all of Australia's territorial waters between the high tide and out to
223 the limit of the photic zone (depth of 50 – 70 m) and CMECS includes all estuarine, coastal
224 and marine waters under U.S. jurisdiction in North America. Although initially developed for
225 the Gulf of Maine region, the CSH scheme (Valentine *et al.*, 2005) scheme is a generic

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3 226 classification and can, therefore, be applied to any continental shelf and shelf basin
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5 227 environment globally (excluding some low-latitude environments).
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8 228 Other classifications have an even broader geographical scope. The PHCS was initially
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10 229 developed for use in specific deep-water habitats within North America (Greene *et al.*, 1999,
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12 230 2005, 2007). The PHCS has been expanded to include shallow water habitats, Arctic to
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14 231 tropical regions, including Antarctica (Vietti *et al.*, 2001) and estuaries (Greene *et al.*,
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16 232 2007b). The upper levels of the HFMHC (Guarinello *et al.*, 2010) was designed, from the
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18 233 beginning, to start with the global classification of large marine ecosystems (Sherman and
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20 234 Alexander, 1986). Subsequent levels include distinct ecosystem units, e.g., estuary, and
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22 235 broad, geological formations such as drowned river valley. The classification splits into three
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24 236 and covers the water column, benthos, and human activity/impacts. The flexibility to add
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26 237 user-defined classes at the lower levels of all three strands means the framework can be
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28 238 applied in any geographic location and is not limited by the methods used to observe any of
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30 239 the three classifiable components.
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34 240 *Summarising the influence of habitat classification scope on habitat maps*

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37 241 The sample of HCSs considered within this review span a range of habitats and geographical
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39 242 regions. Some schemes are broad in their scope from design, whereas others have grown to
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41 243 include new areas, such as the PHCS (Greene *et al.* 1999, 2005, 2007) and the CSH,
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43 244 Valentine *et al.*, 2005). Classes in locally calibrated classification schemes are more likely to
44
45 245 match the observations made in similar habitats or geographical areas. By contrast, classes
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47 246 within broader, generic schemes are likely to have to generalise class descriptions, thereby
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49 247 diminishing the ability of the scheme to reflect localised variation (reduced specificity) in
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51 248 habitats. However, habitat maps generated with broad-scale HCSs are more likely to be
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53 249 compatible with other maps and contribute to national and international mapping efforts.
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3 250 Furthermore, the output format and classes of maps using broad-scale HCSs will be familiar,
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5 251 and hence more applicable, to more end-users that are already acquainted with the coding and
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7 252 purpose of the selected HCS.
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11 12 254 **2.3.3. The spatial scale covered by a habitat classification scheme**

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15 255 The seabed can be characterised and classified at different spatial scales ranging from the
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17 256 fine-scale, local environment (~1 – 10s metres), with factors affecting individual organisms,
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19 257 to landscapes and large-scale ecosystems (~100 – 1000s metres) where the substrates, terrain,
20
21 258 and oceanographic settings influence biological communities and populations.
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23 24 259 *Variation in the spatial scale between habitat classification schemes*

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27 260 Progression through both the EUNIS and HELCOM HUB hierarchies results in finer
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29 261 thematic resolution as well as a finer spatial scale, e.g., a level 5 habitat is expected to cover a
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31 262 smaller area than its parent habitat at level 4. Helpfully, both schemes also provide an
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33 263 indication of the minimum spatial footprint for the finest units, e.g., as a working guide,
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35 264 biotope units extends over an area of at least 5 m x 5 m, but can also cover many square
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37 265 kilometres, such as for extensive offshore sediment plains. For minor habitats, such as
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39 266 rockpools and overhangs on the shore, this 'minimum size' can be split into several discrete
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41 267 patches at a site. The NISB scheme may be applied to fairly fine scales, while the upper tiers
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43 268 of the classification hierarchy, which has a reduced number of habitat classes, may be applied
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45 269 to broader, regional scales. The NISB scheme is particularly helpful in that it defines a
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47 270 'reference area' of 9 m², for the assessment of habitat and biota dominance. Class modifiers
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49 271 applied to fine-scale features must be applied at the scale of the reference area as a minimum.
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51 272 This reference unit was deemed appropriate for a range of sensing techniques and a practical
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3 273 measure that can be easily made in the field with the current observation sensors and
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5 274 methods, such as videography and diver.
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7 275 To allow for the varying scales of map production and use, the PHCS (Greene *et al.* 2005,
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9 276 2007), recognises and defines four spatial scales. The macro- and micro-habitats can be
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11 277 nested within the smaller-scale mega- and meso-habitats. The appearance of specific habitat
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13 278 scales can, therefore, be linked to the scale of observation, thereby aiding the production and
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15 279 visual interpretation of the maps e.g. using dynamic segmentation methods such as those
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17 280 detailed by Nasby-Lucas *et al.* (2002). The tiers associated with the HFMHC scheme
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19 281 (Guarinello *et al.*, 2010) are also associated with specific spatial scales, but no strict spatial
20
21 282 constraints are set for any level, thereby allowing any project to be fitted within the
22
23 283 framework. Equally, CMECS is designed to operate at multiple spatial scales and provides
24
25 284 the specificity needed for local-scale applications. Like the previous two schemes, each level
26
27 285 within CMECS is associated with a specific spatial scale, ranging from 10 – 1000 km² at the
28
29 286 first ‘regime’ level, to 1 – 100 m² at the final ‘biotope’ level. As such, CMECS allows the
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31 287 aggregation and assessment of classified units across diverse systems at regional, national or
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33 288 global scales without loss of utility at local levels. These scales are useful in guiding the
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35 289 mapper during the interpretation of both survey observations and the classification scheme.
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40 290 *Summarising the influence of habitat classification schemes scale on habitat maps*

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43 291 The consideration of scale is relevant for several aspects of habitat classification, map
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45 292 production and usage. Firstly, the scale, and associated spatial resolution of a scheme
46
47 293 determines which physical or ecological features can be represented on a map and what level
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49 294 of habitat heterogeneity can be captured. It is recognised by most mappers that many spatial
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51 295 units of classified habitat are mixed classes or mosaics. For simplicity, spatial units are
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53 296 typically labelled according to the dominant class and information regarding secondary
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3 297 habitats either removed or appended as a modifier. HCSs associated with finer spatial scales
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5 298 reduce the need to generalise mosaicked habitats and thereby better reflect heterogeneity at
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7 299 more scales. It should be noted that it is rarely stated within HCSs that units must be mutually
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9 300 exclusive i.e., multiple habitat codes can be attributed with either a proportion or probability
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11 301 and then allocated to a single, spatial unit.

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14 302 Secondly, the scale of the HCS may also determine the type of mapping information, and
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16 303 therefore mapping methodology, required for the classification. For example, deep-water
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18 304 acoustic surveys may not have the required resolution for the identification of habitat classes
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20 305 with small footprints, whereby requiring the use of Autonomous Underwater Vehicles
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22 306 (AUVs)-mounted sonars for data collection. Furthermore, schemes that stipulate minimum
23
24 307 mappable units and area thresholds for habitat classes also benefit the mapper and reduce the
25
26 308 number of subjective decisions that might be needed during the production of maps. The final
27
28 309 issue is that the scale addressed by the HCS also defines the type of management supported
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30 310 by the maps. For example, localized impact assessments will require maps with a sufficient
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32 311 resolution for the accurate prediction of impact.

33 34 35 36 312 **2.3.4. The thematic resolution covered by a habitat classification scheme**

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39 313 The thematic resolution specifies how fine the increments are between classes within a parent
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41 314 habitat. For schemes with a high thematic resolution, one might expect a high number of
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43 315 classes, each separated by relatively small differences in environmental or biological
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45 316 variables. By contrast, low thematic resolution would entail a small number of coarser habitat
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47 317 classes.

48 49 50 318 *Variation in the thematic resolution between habitat classification schemes*

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53 319 The most detailed levels in the EUNIS and HELCOM HUB classification schemes are
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55 320 predominantly defined by biotopes and therefore separates classes according to small, but

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3 321 significant, biological differences in otherwise similar habitats. In EUNIS, many of the
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5 322 biotopes at levels 5 and 6 originated from statistical clustering analysis and expert
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7 323 interpretation of data from diver surveys and intertidal surveys (rather than grab or remote
8
9 324 video) in the EC Life Nature-funded BioMar project (Connor *et al.* 1997). Equally, level 5
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11 325 biotopes in the HELCOM HUB scheme were defined by analysing more than 50,000 data
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13 326 observations (i.e., video data, diving observations, grab samples) using spatial and statistical
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15 327 methods as well as expert judgment.

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18 328 The PHCS (Greene *et al.* 2005, 2007), CSH (Valentine *et al.*, 2005) and the NISB scheme
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20 329 use modifiers to provide greater thematic resolution and flexibility for the finest classes
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22 330 present. The PHCS uses single letter modifiers that describe specific aspects of geology,
23
24 331 biology, topography and seabed texture. These modifiers can be allocated to any of the six-
25
26 332 letter habitat codes used by the scheme. There is no limit to the number of modifiers that can
27
28 333 be attributed to each habitat code. Similarly, three themes within the CSH classification also
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30 334 provides modifiers that allow the user to describe 'biological' 'habitat association and usage'
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32 335 as well as short descriptors for 'community disturbance and recovery'.

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36 336 Developing the use of modifiers further, the Hierarchical Framework of Marine Habitat
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38 337 Classification for Ecosystem-Based Management (Guarinello *et al.*, 2010) scheme permits
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40 338 the use of user-generated classes (typically at the 'data analysis' level) and modifiers at most
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42 339 of the levels within the classification, which therefore allows for any type and level of
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44 340 thematic resolution. Units of information at the lowest levels of the framework can include a
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46 341 variety of relevant information such as absolute values of abundance, dietary composition for
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48 342 dominant species, rates for species-specific ecosystem functions and observed ranges for
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50 343 important physico-chemical characteristics.

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3 344 *Summarising the influence of thematic resolution on habitat maps*

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5 345 For the majority of the schemes, the finest classes are resolved according to biological
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7 346 characteristics of sessile benthic species. In some HCSs, more resolution is provided through
8
9 347 the use of class modifiers rather than distinct classes. Such information displayed with
10
11 348 classified habitats on the same map is likely to be valuable to a variety of map users.
12
13
14 349 However, modifiers that unduly extend the basic classification of a habitat (i.e. ‘what it is’)
15
16 350 are likely to complicate the habitat representation into maps, their interpretation by end users
17
18 351 and reduce comparability between maps.

19
20
21 352 The greatest level of thematic resolution differs substantially between HCSs. This is due to
22
23 353 either a shortage of information for the formation and validation of these most detailed
24
25 354 classes or that the overall purpose and scope of the HCS does not concern itself with detailed
26
27 355 biological information. Regardless of the HCS used, mappers must be aware of the level of
28
29 356 the classification that can be safely supported by the survey data, e.g., what level of
30
31 357 community classification can be supported by epibenthic video, and what the intended
32
33 358 purpose of their map will be. Equally, to improve the compatibility of maps, attempts should
34
35 359 be made not just to standardise the use of HCS (or suite of HCSs) for mapping but also to set
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37 360 the level of classification within a scheme for a specific mapping technique (matched to a
38
39 361 specific purpose).

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45 363 **2.3.5. The structure of a habitat classification scheme**

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48 364 The structure of HCS can be either hierarchical or flat, as well as nested or un-nested (parallel
49
50 365 hierarchies). For hierarchical structures, the highest tiers typically separate observations into
51
52 366 coarse classes using broad physical and chemical variables. Lower tiers proceed to refine the
53
54 367 classification based on more localised, physico-chemical variables, as well as biological

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2
3 368 information on the composition of the communities present. Flat classification structures do
4
5 369 not nest classes under predefined physico-chemical pathways. As such, flat structures allow
6
7 370 the user to combine physico-chemical classes with independent biological classes – such
8
9 371 classifications may not be possible within hierarchical structures if the required biological
10
11 372 class is not nested within the observed physico-chemical pathway. The restrictive nesting of
12
13 373 classes within hierarchical structures is only a significant issue when the training data used to
14
15 374 develop the HCS was not reflective of habitat conditions apparent throughout the intended
16
17 375 area of application.

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19
20 376 *Variation in structure between habitat classification schemes*

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23 377 EUNIS, HELCOM HUB, and CMECS (substrate and biotic components only) are all
24
25 378 hierarchical schemes with six levels of marine classification. For example, the first two levels
26
27 379 of the CMECS scheme separate observations according to (i) salinity, geomorphology, and
28
29 380 depth, and then (ii) by substrate type or water mass characteristics - additional levels sort
30
31 381 observations by (iii) physical zones, (iv) macrohabitats (large and physically complex units
32
33 382 containing several habitats), (v) habitats defined by physical and energy characteristics and
34
35 383 finally, (vi) by characteristic biological composition. This structure is similar to both EUNIS
36
37 384 and HELCOM HUB. For both systems, the structure of the hierarchy assumes that classes at
38
39 385 the same level are mutually, and hence spatially, exclusive. Equally, specific communities
40
41 386 and biotopes in the lower levels of the hierarchy are nested under specific physical conditions
42
43 387 (defined by higher levels) and are not transferable between physical habitats. The NISB
44
45 388 scheme is also hierarchical but with fewer levels. At the higher levels of the hierarchy, the
46
47 389 NISB scheme assumes spatially exclusive habitats. The scheme uses ‘decision rules’ for
48
49 390 attributing habitat classes and for allocating geomorphic, biological and environmental
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51 391 modifiers. These decision rules allow simple, unambiguous interpretation of survey data and
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3 392 facilitating the objective and consistent assignment of habitat classes. The decision rules are
4
5 393 framed to be as sensor/method-independent as possible.
6

7 394 The PHCS is also hierarchical but has an un-nested structure. This scheme has separate
8
9 395 attribution pathways for the classification of small-scale (megahabitats and mesohabitats) and
10
11 396 large-scale (macrohabitats and microhabitats). The small-scale classification uses various
12
13 397 environmental parameters to provide increasingly finer thematic classes. The large-scale
14
15 398 pathway initially attributes the seafloor according to geological and coarse biological classes,
16
17 399 and then followed again by textural attributes. Similarly, the lower levels of the HFMHC
18
19 400 (Guarinello *et al.*, 2010) scheme has three parallel (un-nested) ‘benthic’, ‘water column’ and
20
21 401 ‘human’ hierarchies. The use of separate components within the framework avoids the
22
23 402 difficulty of generating a single hierarchy for fundamentally different domains and the
24
25 403 flexibility and structure of this framework allow for a broader storage of information.
26
27 404 However, the interaction of the three hierarchies generates a large number of unique habitat
28
29 405 classes.
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34 406 The CSH (Valentine *et al.*, 2005) scheme is quite different in structure to the other schemes
35
36 407 considered, as it is structured round eight, non-hierarchical seabed ‘themes’ as the major
37
38 408 subject elements of the classification. These themes are seabed topography, dynamics,
39
40 409 texture, grain size, roughness, fauna and flora, habitat association and usage, and habitat
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42 410 recovery from disturbance. The themes all reside at the top level (i.e., are not hierarchical)
43
44 411 and are applied to the classification of each site. Below the themes, a sequence of more
45
46 412 hierarchical subclasses, categories, and attributes address habitat characteristics with
47
48 413 increasing detail. This scheme was developed to be used exclusively for mapping purposes.
49
50 414 As such, it was designed with a flexible structure to account for both data availability while
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52 415 maintaining a framework that is considered the best method of representing the habitats on
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3 416 maps based on the classification. The classification can accommodate new classes,
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5 417 subclasses, categories, and attributes, and it can easily be modified or expanded to address
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7 418 habitats of other regions.
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10 419 *Summarising the influence of habitat classification scheme structure on habitat maps*

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12 420 Most of the HCSs adopt a hierarchical structure, with the initial levels typically referring to
13
14 421 broad-scale physical variables, biogeographic or domain regions. Classes within lower levels
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16 422 are either nested under higher level classes or are open and unrestrained by the high-level
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18 423 class. Hierarchical schemes allow habitats to be aggregated to a coarser level, thus allowing
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20 424 comparisons to be made between different studies using the same scheme, even when
21
22 425 different levels of detailed information are available. These comparisons, however, are only
23
24 426 possible if the HSC is interpreted consistently, and rests upon a thorough understanding of
25
26 427 the scheme and how best to classify information using the scheme.
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30 428 A nested structure will provide a smaller but more targeted number of possible classifications
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32 429 – this is likely to benefit consistency and compatibility between studies. However, Galparsoro
33
34 430 *et al.* (2012) reported that for EUNIS, a nested hierarchy, some communities occur in
35
36 431 different main branches of the hierarchy due to their variations in associated depth or
37
38 432 sediment type, whereas in reality, they are very similar. Equally, some communities only
39
40 433 occur in a single branch of the hierarchy because they are mainly associated with certain
41
42 434 physical conditions; however, if the same community is observed with a different set of
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44 435 physical conditions, then it would not fit precisely in the existing category. Schemes with an
45
46 436 open structure provide the user of the classification more flexibility to generate classes not
47
48 437 previously documented during the development of the classification. Open, un-nested
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50 438 structures are perhaps best-suited for mapping in areas that may be poorly represented within
51
52 439 more trained and structured classifications.
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2.3.6. Compatibility of a habitat classification scheme for habitat mapping

Although several HCS have been designed specifically for mapping studies, this was not the intended purpose for all of the HCSs used in habitat mapping. As such, some of the decision points or environmental and ecological parameters that structure HCSs may not be routinely collected, or possible to observe, using the methods routinely deployed for marine habitat mapping. As such, the ease with which an HCS can be applied to mapping data can vary. HCSs that are designed specifically for mapping are more likely to be aligned to the commonly collected variables and include quantitative thresholds or decision points appropriate for these types of data and value ranges.

Variation in the compatibility of mapping techniques between habitat classification schemes

EUNIS has been used extensively for mapping and modelling (e.g., EUSeaMap, Vasquez *et al.*, 2015; Populus *et al.*, 2017) efforts and have collectively produced a pan-European habitat map for a coordinated approach to marine conservation, assessment of the status of marine waters and spatial planning. Until now, HELCOM HUB has been applied in national case studies only (e.g., Schiele *et al.* 2014, 2015). However, the use of the light penetration depth as a major structural variable in the HELCOM HUB scheme means that additional observations (not typically collected during marine habitat mapping) or external modelling outputs must be combined with the mapped variables to generate a classification. The same holds true for EUNIS regarding light availability and wave exposure at the seabed. The NISB scheme is interesting in that it provides an umbrella scheme that can adopt and amalgamate other classification schemes into its hierarchical system, i.e., the NISB scheme can be used to translate existing local habitat maps into a single, aligned product (Hilbert *et al.*, 2007). The

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2
3 463 flexibility of this scheme allows old maps and mapping data to be translated into new and
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5 464 aligned products.

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7 465 The EUNIS scheme has been criticised for incompatibilities between the information used to
8
9 466 define classes and that typically collected during a mapping survey. Levels 5 and 6 of the
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11 467 hierarchy are based on data from a wide variety of sampling techniques; as a result, they
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13 468 describe different aspects of seabed habitats. For example, some biotopes describe infaunal
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15 469 communities, while others describe epifaunal communities. Robinson *et al.* (2009) argued
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17 470 that some biotopes can only be identified if the method used during survey work is the same
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19 471 as the method used to originally define that biotope. For example, the characteristic species
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21 472 defining the level 5 biotope “*Hesionura elongata* and *Microphthalmus similis* with other
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23 473 interstitial polychaetes in infralittoral mobile coarse sand” are tiny polychaetes that would be
24
25 474 grossly under-sampled using all but the finer meshes for sieving sediment. The 1 mm sieve
26
27 475 used as standard on offshore surveys would not retain meiofauna such as these polychaetes
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29 476 (Parry, 2014).

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34 477 The classes within the PHCS of Greene *et al.* (1999, 2005, 2007) are mostly defined by their
35
36 478 geological character. As such, the scheme is well suited for the detection of habitats using
37
38 479 acoustic remote sensing and thereby increases the confidence in the resulting classification.
39
40 480 However, the biological classes are coarse, exclusively epifaunal and taxonomically distinct,
41
42 481 which is perhaps unreflective of the typical composition of many seafloor communities and
43
44 482 means that seafloor biota only have a fairly minor influence on the overall classification. The
45
46 483 CMECS scheme is designed to be compatible with a range of sampling methods, e.g.,
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48 484 cameras and certain acoustic devices can be used to identify the higher classification levels,
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50 485 while traditional point sampling methods, such as sediment sampling using grabs, can be
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52 486 used for the lower levels of classification. Equally, the sediment classes within CMECS are
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3 487 aligned to the Folk (1954) sediment classification, which is an established scheme in marine
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5 488 habitat mapping. This differs from the EUNIS classification which is underpinned by a
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7 489 ‘modified’ (simplified) Folk classification.
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10 490 *Summarising the influence of habitat classification scheme compatibility on habitat maps*

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12 491 The ease with which habitat mappers can integrate HCSs is based on the compatibility of the
13
14 492 scheme’s classifying variables with survey outputs. For example, in the PHCS presented by
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16 493 Greene *et al.* (2005, 2007) several of the classification attributes are generated specifically
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18 494 from common acoustic parameters such as depth (for bathymetric zones, slope, and rugosity)
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20 495 and backscatter (for hardness). Most of the geomorphological classes for other attributes are
21
22 496 easily identifiable from full coverage bathymetric surfaces. However, it is clear that the ease
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24 497 and accuracy of classification also varies between habitat types. For example, it may be
25
26 498 relatively straightforward to distinguish rock from muddy habitat in multibeam echosounder
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28 499 backscatter data, while there may be no clear boundary between coarse and mixed sediment.
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31 500 At the more detailed levels, many of the differences in the communities cannot be
32
33 501 distinguished in acoustic data and therefore they are difficult to map.
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36 502 Difficulties in finding an appropriate class can be further compounded when HCSs are biased
37
38 503 towards the habitats used in the initial development of the classification. For example, the
39
40 504 marine component of EUNIS is primarily based on the British-Irish BioMar scheme, which
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42 505 was originally developed largely using UK near-shore data, primarily from grab sampling
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44 506 and, to a lesser extent, diver surveys (Connor *et al.*, 2004). This means that EUNIS is less
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46 507 well-developed for offshore habitats, particularly those occurring on hard substrates.
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48 508 Furthermore, EUNIS is arguably less well developed for interpretation of data from remote
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50 509 video techniques which sample different parts of a biological community than divers or grab
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52 510 samples, and at a different scale, therefore posing difficulties in matching the communities
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3 511 from video/photographic techniques to the statistically driven clusters from grab sample and
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5 512 diver surveys. Similarly, certain classifications have been developed to use certain data types,
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7 513 e.g., schemes developed for the interpretation of satellite imagery (e.g., Mumby and Harborne
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9 514 1999), and may therefore not apply to data obtained from other sources.

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14 516 **3. Recommendations for the use of marine habitat classification schemes in marine**
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17 517 **mapping**

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19 518 This review will firstly summarise the most influential aspects of HCSs in marine habitat
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21 519 mapping and consider how this influence can be accounted for, or reduced, in habitat
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23 520 mapping. Some of the common limitations associated with the use of HCS in habitat mapping
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25 521 are often propagated by how habitat mappers use HCSs rather than being issues implicit
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27 522 within the schemes themselves – these issues are also discussed below and recommendations
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29 523 are provided.

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33 524 *Defining ‘actual’ and ‘potential’ habitats within mapping*

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35 525 Many habitat maps present an unspecified mixture of ‘realised’ and ‘potential’ habitats when
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37 526 using HCSs. For example, the upper classification levels of many HCSs divide areas by
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39 527 geomorphology and rely on acoustic survey data to achieve this delineation. Continuous
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41 528 bathymetric surfaces can, therefore, confirm the presence of large, physical features from
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43 529 observations. Observations of biotopes are only provided by point (e.g., grab or photographic
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45 530 still) or line (e.g., video transect) sampling during ground truthing. The continuous
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47 531 distribution of the biotopes is then predicted using geo-spatial modelling or expert judgment,
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49 532 meaning that the resulting distribution is an extrapolated product not fully supported by direct
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51 533 observation (unless one is mapping a biogenic biotope with a detectable structure). The
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53 534 predictor variables typically used to model the distribution of these biotopes also fail to

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2
3 535 represent influential biological processes such as competition, predation, and dispersal
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5 536 (Brown *et al.*, 2011). As such, one is modelling ‘potential’ habitat for that biotope, which
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7 537 may or may not be occupied by the species constituting that biotope. The distinction between
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9 538 features that are realised versus potential habitat is rarely explicitly expressed when
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11 539 presenting mapped habitat classes. A lack of specificity may contribute to inaccurate
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13 540 assessments of the confidence of habitat maps by end-users, uncertain assessments of extent,
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15 541 and ambiguity about the relevant management action for sites and feature. It is therefore
16
17 542 recommended that maps label habitats and biotopes with potential (modelled and potentially
18
19 543 not occupied) and realised (delineated by direct observation) habitat labels or modifiers.

22 544 *Improvements to the consistency of habitat classifications*

25 545 The use of habitat classification involves accepting some of the inherent assumptions
26
27 546 associated with HCSs. An assumption common to all schemes is that all habitats can be
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29 547 classified into distinct and identifiable classes. It is often the case that observations, collected
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31 548 during habitat mapping surveys, fail to fall neatly into classes within a scheme. The presence
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33 549 of ecotones and mosaics of heterogeneous habitat reduces the clarity of class membership,
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35 550 and hence the ability to accurately reflect conditions on the seabed.

38 551 The difficulty in classifying a continuous variable into a discrete class is further complicated
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40 552 when HCSs lack a quantitative definition, or clear ‘decision rules’ for each class. Also, as
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42 553 habitat mapping became heavily based upon physical measurements in the past 15 years (e.g.,
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44 554 Al-Hamdani and Reker, 2007; Cameron and Askew, 2012, Vasquez *et al.*, 2015, Galparsoro
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46 555 *et al.*, 2015), there came an increasing demand for quantitative definitions. Without this
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48 556 information, qualitative classifications are often open to subjective interpretation and
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50 557 inconsistencies between studies or adjoining maps.
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3 558 Common schemes, such as EUNIS and CMECS (Federal Geographic Data Committee,
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5 559 2012), lack quantitative definitions that could define classes. For EUNIS, the absence of these
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7 560 definitions is a result of it being constructed from several classification schemes, making it
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9 561 difficult to achieve consensus on what those definitions should be. The large part of the
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11 562 scheme that originated in Connor *et al.* (2004) was designed primarily as a biological
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13 563 classification system, with the physical descriptions at the higher levels being convenient
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15 564 groupings that did not necessarily need to adhere strictly to any definitions.

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18 565 HELCOM HUB provides quantitative delineation and classification rules within each of the
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20 566 classification levels. As an example, the system differentiates between soft and hard bottom
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22 567 substrata (Level 3), by a spatial coverage percentage of hard substrates within a given area
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24 568 (HELCOM, 2013). The latter also holds true for the delineation between infaunal and
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26 569 epifaunal dominated biotopes (Level 4), and between epifaunal communities (Level 5) and
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28 570 dominating species (Level 6).

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31 571 Other HCSs also incorporate quantitative thresholds, for example, the Australian NISB
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33 572 habitat classification also uses decision rules (such as quantitative measures, percentage cover
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35 573 thresholds, and particle size bands) at all levels of the hierarchy and for the class modifiers.
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37 574 The PHC scheme uses objective methods to calculate specific attributes, such as rugosity and
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39 575 slope, to reduce subjective attribution and delineation, and clear thresholds that separate
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41 576 classes e.g., depth ranges for megahabitats or particle size for substrata. However, some
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43 577 attribute classes lack quantitative definitions which could lead to subjectivity, and hence
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45 578 variation, during the manual delineation of features. The use of quantitative attribution will
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47 579 also provide a more robust basis for: (i) initial classification of habitats; (ii) the estimation of
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49 580 how well the observation fits the assigned class; and (iii) greater certainty about the detection
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51 581 of change over time during repeat mapping. Quantitative thresholds and class definitions
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3 582 should not be specific to certain sampling devices or biased towards the survey techniques
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5 583 that were used to initially define classes. Ideally, the class or biotope description should
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7 584 include an indication of how the biotope may appear using a variety of survey techniques.
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12 586 *The influence of the structure of a classification scheme on a habitat map*
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15 587 HCSs designed for habitat mapping, and aligned to the types of information typically
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17 588 collected, are likely to be easier to use, reduce subjectivity during the classification of seabed
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19 589 information and generate more accurate maps. A single, nested hierarchical structure
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21 590 probably generates the most consistent classification between studies, but typically provide
22
23 591 less breadth and flexibility during the classification process. It is recommended that rigid,
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25 592 hierarchical systems need to have a good system for updating either their structure or
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27 593 classified units as new delineations are required.
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30 594 Modifiers are an extremely useful structural component for appending additional information
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32 595 onto a class without necessarily complicating the production or display of habitat maps. For
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34 596 example, modifiers could be used to represent: (i) observations on the condition of habitats;
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36 597 (ii) evidence of anthropogenic pressures (e.g. litter, physical alteration); (iii) labels for
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38 598 habitats that are hard to classify (e.g. fall between classes or units containing a mosaic of
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40 599 classes); or (iv) associations with other biological features not covered by the HCS such as
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42 600 large shoals of fish. To ensure their consistent application of modifiers, HSCs should once
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44 601 again provide detail on when and how to apply modifiers.
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48 602 *Contextual attribution of habitat codes within habitat classification schemes*
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51 603 A scheme name or code for a habitat provides a unique and brief title for the classified
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53 604 feature. Habitat classes are typically supported by a fuller description that many contain, for
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55 605 example, the identity and relative abundance of characterising species as well as the
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3 606 prevailing physico-chemical conditions present. However, this supporting information is
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5 607 typically detached from the map and just the class names are presented. It is recommended
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7 608 that all HCSs be available on an online vocabulary server and that digital maps include a
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9 609 unique resource identifier for each habitat class. Although essential, the name of a particular
10
11 610 habitat may not necessarily be the most informative or valuable attribution for a map feature.
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13 611 It is likely that additional attribution providing details, for example, on class sensitivity,
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15 612 rarity, or ecosystem services provided (e.g., Salomidi *et al.*, 2012; Galparsoro *et al.*, 2014)
16
17 613 may be of greater interest to the end user. It is also recommended that HCSs provide a
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19 614 broader array of attribution with each class. This will make it easier for maps to display
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21 615 alternative types of information as well as more contextual information for the class name.
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26 27 617 *Providing multi-purpose marine habitat maps*

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30 618 Habitat mapping is conducted for a multitude of purposes and this is reflected in the number
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32 619 and variety of HCSs available. Classification schemes can be either specialised or generic.
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34 620 Generic classifications are best suited for baseline data, inventory mapping and marine spatial
35
36 621 planning. Specialised classifications provide greater specificity, and therefore applicability,
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38 622 for specific topics or management issues (e.g., climate change, fisheries, conservation).
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41 623 Management outcomes are presumed to be more effective when based on specialised HCS
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43 624 aligned to the topic of interest. Despite this, most mapping studies tend to produce just one
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45 625 map, or set of maps, based on just one adopted HCS scheme. Based on the cost and effort
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47 626 required to gather the data used for habitat mapping, the practice of producing just one map,
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49 627 based on one HCS per study, is potentially inefficient and narrows greatly the breath of the
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51 628 mapping exercise. Each use or purpose should be linked to the most informative and
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53 629 appropriate classification scheme. It is therefore recommended that habitat mappers use
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3 630 several HCSs to generate multiple map products, each with a dedicated purpose. For
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5 631 example, a suite of maps that offers the greatest utility might include, among others,: (i) a
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7 632 generic, descriptive map for inventory purposes, (ii) a map attributed according to
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9 633 representativity, rarity or conservation value for the protection of species and habitats (design
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11 634 of Marine Protected Areas networks), (iii) sensitivity maps for supporting marine spatial
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13 635 planning and management, (iv) a map of ecosystem services for regional valuations and
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15 636 assessments, (v) maps of essential fish habitat for fisheries management, and (vi)
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17 637 geomorphological and surficial sediment maps for sediment dynamics, extraction and mining.
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20 638 The production of a suite of map products does not hamper our ability to standardise or
21
22 639 merge maps within a thematic area, nor does it necessarily represent a significant additional
23
24 640 workload for mappers. The ability of mappers to produce multiple maps, based on several
25
26 641 classification schemes, can be simplified if translation tables (tables that map classes of one
27
28 642 HCS to units of another HCS) are made available. It is therefore recommended that mappers
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30 643 use multiple HCSs to produce a suite of maps and that this activity is supported by the
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32 644 development of translation tables (e.g. JNCC, 2018).
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41 646 **4. Conclusions**

42 647 Marine HCSs differ greatly within six key properties, due in part to their initially intended
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44 648 application and structure (i.e. whether they follow a strictly hierarchical approach to
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46 649 classification and how readily they incorporate modifiers for the incorporation of greater
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48 650 detail). Consequently, each HCS has specific strengths and weaknesses. These strengths and
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50 651 weaknesses, along with the inherent assumptions associated with the classification process,
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52 652 modify the final representation of habitats when mapped. It is important for mappers to be
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54 653 aware of how these properties and assumptions are transferred into marine habitat maps, and
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3 654 whether these constrain their subsequent use for a wider variety of applications. Equally,
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5 655 decisions on how mappers use HCSs within the mapping process, which is independent of the
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7 656 properties associated with the HCS, also introduces additional artefacts and biases. Having
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9 657 identified all of these issues, recommendations have been provided for improving HCSs for
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11 658 marine mapping as well as enhanced working practices for mappers using these schemes. For
12
13 659 example, limiting interpretation of data to fit only one HSC compromises the information we
14
15 660 can communicate through our maps and limits their use to a wider range of stakeholders. It is
16
17 661 hoped that implementation of these recommendations will lead to: (i) greater certainty and
18
19 662 usage within mapping studies; (ii) more consistency between studies and adjoining maps; and
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21 663 (iii) increased use of mapped products by a greater diversity of end users.
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25 664

26 27 665 **5. Acknowledgements:**

28
29
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32 667 of the Basque Government).
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Table 1. Marine (benthic) habitat classification schemes used to document the variation in the six scheme properties considered.

Habitat Classification Scheme	Description	Examples of usage
European Nature Information System (EUNIS) - Davies <i>et al.</i> (2004) http://eunis.eea.europa.eu/	EUNIS is a pan-European habitat classification scheme developed between 1996 and 2001 by the European Environment Agency (EEA) (Davies <i>et al.</i> , 2004). It considers both marine and terrestrial habitats in Europe. The geographical scope of the EUNIS marine scheme is the marine waters off the European mainland, including offshore islands (British Isles, Cyprus, Iceland, but not Greenland), and the archipelagos of the European Union Member States (Canary Islands, Madeira, and the Azores). EUNIS marine scheme covers the entire seabed from the intertidal zone to the abyss, and also includes a section of pelagic habitats. In the marine sector, it is based on the Joint Nature Conservation Committee (JNCC) Marine Habitat Classification for Britain and Ireland (Connor <i>et al.</i> , 2004) and habitat types developed by the Barcelona and Helcom marine conventions (Barcelona Convention, 1998; Helsinki Commission, 1998).	EUNIS supports inventory mapping (EMODnet), ecosystem-based management (Andersen <i>et al.</i> , 2018) and policy implementation Marine Strategy Framework Directive (Council Directive 2008/56/EC).
HELCOM Underwater Biotope and Habitat classification system (HELCOM HUB) – HELCOM (2013) http://www.helcom.fi/baltic-sea-trends/biodiversity/helcom-hub	HELCOM HUB was developed to be a comprehensive classification system for marine biotopes of the Baltic Sea (HELCOM, 2013). Its origins go back to the HELCOM EC-NATURE Red List Project (HELCOM, 1998) which was a first Baltic Sea wide classification scheme based on substrate type and bathymetry. Its classification rules mainly relied on expert judgment and biological classification criteria were not included. In 2007, the goal was set to renew the Red List Classification system by a HELCOM Red List Biotope Expert Group. Previous attempts had been made to apply EUNIS to the Baltic Sea region but the system was recognized to poorly represent its biotic and abiotic characteristics (Galparsoro <i>et al.</i> , 2012). Nevertheless, HELCOM HUB was to be compatible with EUNIS and account for available biological information on	Supports the national implementation of the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (Council Directive 2008/56/EC).

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	<p>marine biotopes from the Baltic Sea. HELCOM HUB is primarily focused on benthic habitats/biotopes - the pelagic environment is only dealt with in the upper part of the classification system. As one major improvement, HELCOM HUB provides clear quantitative classification rules for both abiotic and biological criteria. It was therefore used as a basis for the development of the national classification system of the German Red List of Threatened Habitat Types for both the North and the Baltic Sea (Finck et al. 2017).</p>	
<p>Potential Habitat Characterization Scheme (PHCS) - Greene <i>et al.</i> (1999, 2005, 2007)</p>	<p>This classification covers deep-water habitats within North America and has been expanded to include shallow water habitats, arctic to tropical regions, including Antarctica (Vietti <i>et al.</i>, 2001) and estuaries (Greene <i>et al.</i>, 2007b). This scheme has been specifically developed for seafloor mapping and uses common mapping information such as multibeam echosounder data, video, photographs taken with still cameras and seafloor samples from grabs. The attributions used to classify the seafloor are mainly based on physical parameters and features and therefore, has a ‘bottom-up’ structure. The classification scheme is unusual in that it recognises four spatial scales. The first three scales can be defined with acoustic methods whereas the finest scale habitats can only be delineated with direct observation (via video, photographic still imagery, diver observations or seafloor sampling) Greene <i>et al.</i> (2005, 2007).</p>	<p>Fisheries management (Greene <i>et al.</i>, 2005, 2007)</p>
<p>Hierarchical Framework of Marine Habitat Classification for Ecosystem-Based Management (HFMHC) - Guarinello <i>et al.</i> (2010)</p>	<p>This classification framework is specifically designed for promoting ecosystem-based management. The upper levels of the scheme start with the global classification of large marine ecosystems. Subsequent levels include recognizable ecosystem units; e.g. estuary, and broad, geological formations such as drowned river valley. The flexibility to add user-defined classes at the lower levels of all three strands means the framework can be applied in any geographic location and is not limited by the methods used to observe any of the three strands. The framework incorporates the central concepts of ecosystem-</p>	<p>Ecosystem-based management (Guarinello <i>et al.</i>, 2010)</p>

	based management within the structure of the framework. This ensures that the products of this HCS reflect the values and objectives of ecosystem-based management.	
Classification of Sublittoral Habitats (CSH) - Valentine <i>et al.</i> (2005)	This classification scheme was designed to describe and classify habitats in terms of geological, biological and oceanographic attributes. It is unusual in that the scheme also captures information on the effects of natural and anthropogenic processes on habitats. The purpose of the classification is to provide a foundation for scientific research and environmental management of seafloor habitats across a relatively large, regional area. Although initially developed for the Gulf of Maine region (an area that reaches depths of approximately 400 m but also has submarine canyon heads that incise the continental shelf and reach depths of up to 800 m), the scheme is a generic classification and can therefore be applied to any continental shelf and shelf basin environment globally (excluding some low-latitude environments).	Fisheries management (Valentine <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
Australian National Intertidal/Subtidal Benthic Habitat Classification Scheme (NISB) http://lwa.gov.au/products/pn21267	The NISB scheme was developed to identify a “uniform definition of communities, habitats and ecosystems” at both state and national scales, and spatial information that is informative for assessing critical climate change issues and the detecting change or loss of habitats or communities. The proposed scheme covers all of Australia’s territorial waters between the high tide and the approximate outer limit of the photic zone (depth of 50 – 70 m).	Inventory mapping of ecoregions (bioregional subregions)
Coastal and Marine Ecological Classification Standard (CMECS) - Madden <i>et al.</i> (2005) https://www.cmeccatalog.org/cmeccs/	CMECS was developed by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and NatureServe. The scheme is founded on existing schemes (e.g. Cowardin <i>et al.</i> (1979), Dethier (1992), Greene <i>et al.</i> (1999), Allee <i>et al.</i> (2000), Zacharias and Roff (2000) and Connor (2004)). CMECS includes all estuarine, coastal and marine waters under U.S. jurisdiction in North America. This includes wetlands, the intertidal zone, coastal and deep-water habitats (including the Great Lakes) as well as the pelagic realm.	Inventory mapping (Madden <i>et al.</i> , 2005)