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Title: Evaluating and benchmarking biodiversity monitoring: metadata-based indicators for sampling design, sampling effort and data analysis

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1 ABSTRACT

2 1. The biodiversity crisis has led to a surge of interest in the theory and practice of
3 biodiversity monitoring. Although guidelines for monitoring have been published since the
4 1920s, we know little on current practices in existing monitoring schemes.

5 2. Based on metadata on 646 species and habitat monitoring schemes in 35 European
6 countries, we developed indicators for sampling design, sampling effort, and data analysis to
7 evaluate monitoring practices. We also evaluated how socio-economic factors such as starting
8 year, funding source, motivation and geographic scope of monitoring affect these indicators.

9 3. Sampling design scores varied by funding source and motivation in species monitoring and
10 decreased with time in habitat monitoring. Sampling effort decreased with time in both
11 species and habitat monitoring and varied by funding source and motivation in species
12 monitoring.

13 4. The frequency of using hypothesis-testing statistics was lower in species monitoring than
14 in habitat monitoring and it varied with geographic scope in both types of monitoring. The
15 perception of the minimum annual change detectable by schemes matched spatial sampling
16 effort in species monitoring but was rarely estimated in habitat monitoring.

17 5. **Policy implications:** Our study identifies promising developments but also options for
18 improvement in sampling design and effort, and data analysis in biodiversity monitoring. Our
19 indicators provide benchmarks to aid the identification of the strengths and weaknesses of
20 individual monitoring schemes relative to the average of other schemes and to improve
21 current practices, formulate best practices, standardize performance and integrate monitoring
22 results.

23

24

25 **KEYWORDS**

26 2020 target; assessment; biodiversity observation network; biodiversity strategy; citizen
27 science; conservation funding; environmental policy; evidence-based conservation; statistical
28 power; surveillance

29

30 **1. INTRODUCTION**

31 The global decline of biodiversity and ecosystem services led to the adoption of several
32 ambitious goals by the international community for 2010 and then again for 2020. Monitoring
33 of biodiversity is instrumental in evaluating whether these goals are met. Although literature
34 on how monitoring systems should be organized has been published since at least the mid-
35 1920s (Cairns and Pratt, 1993), interest in the theory and practice of biodiversity monitoring
36 has surged since 1990 (Noss, 1990; Yoccoz et al., 2001) and culminated in comprehensive,
37 theory-based recommendations for monitoring (Balmford et al., 2003; Lindenmayer and
38 Likens, 2009; Mace et al., 2005; Pocock et al., 2015).

39

40 Despite this growing knowledge, significant concerns regarding current practices remain
41 (Lindenmayer and Likens, 2009; Walpole et al., 2009). A consistently voiced concern is that
42 monitoring is not adequately founded in theory because many schemes are not designed to
43 test hypotheses about biodiversity change even though their primary objective, almost
44 exclusively, is to detect changes in biodiversity (Balmford et al., 2005; Nichols and Williams,
45 2006; Yoccoz et al., 2001). Although not all monitoring schemes require hypothesis-testing
46 given the variety of their objectives (Pocock et al., 2015), there is also a general concern over
47 the ability of monitoring schemes to adequately detect changes in biodiversity due to biased
48 sampling designs, inadequate sampling effort, or low statistical power to detect changes (Di
49 Stefano, 2001; Mihoub et al., 2017). Legg & Nagy (2006) and Lindenmayer & Likens (2009)

50 warned that these shortcomings may lead to poor quality of monitoring, and, ultimately, to a
51 waste of valuable conservation resources.

52

53 There is little information, however, on the prevalence of these potential methodological
54 weaknesses in current practices of biodiversity monitoring. Descriptions of current practices
55 are available for monitoring schemes in North America (Marsh and Trenham, 2008), and for
56 European schemes of habitat monitoring (Lengyel et al., 2008a) and bird monitoring
57 (Schmeller et al., 2012), however, these descriptions do not evaluate strengths or weaknesses
58 in monitoring. Monitoring schemes are rarely known well enough for a comprehensive
59 evaluation of current practices (Henle et al., 2010a; Schmeller et al., 2009), partly because
60 monitoring schemes are designed for many different objectives at different spatial and
61 temporal scales (Geijzendorffer et al., 2015; Jarzyna and Jetz, 2016; Pocock et al., 2015).

62 Therefore, the performance of biodiversity monitoring in terms of the criteria regarded by the
63 critiques as insufficiently considered in monitoring has not yet been assessed. Consequently,
64 little is known about whether and how performance varies among programs by spatial and
65 temporal scales or socio-economic drivers. Moreover, it is rarely known whether and how
66 programs evaluate their performance, either by expert judgement on their ability to detect
67 trends or by estimating their statistical power to detect changes (Geijzendorffer et al., 2015;
68 Nielsen et al., 2009). Hence, there is a need to provide monitoring coordinators with standard
69 indicators of performance so that they can evaluate their programs and revise their practices
70 to address potential weaknesses. A clear understanding of performance in existing monitoring
71 schemes also provides crucial information to the institutions running and funding monitoring
72 schemes as well as to policy-makers using information from biodiversity monitoring.

73

74 Here we present an overview of current practices in biodiversity monitoring in Europe by
75 focusing on properties that have been frequently mentioned in critiques of biodiversity
76 monitoring. We used metadata on monitoring schemes to develop indicators for sampling
77 design, sampling effort and type of statistical analysis. While monitoring schemes have been
78 established for many different purposes, these three properties are regarded as generally
79 relevant in determining the scientific quality of the information derived from biodiversity
80 monitoring (Lindenmayer and Likens, 2009; Nichols and Williams, 2006; Yoccoz et al.,
81 2001). Sampling design, an indicator of how well the spatial and temporal distribution of data
82 collection is founded in sampling theory (Balmford et al., 2003), is essential for accuracy,
83 i.e., closeness of measured trends and real trends in biodiversity. Sampling effort, the number
84 of measurements made, is central to precision, i.e., the ability to measure the same value
85 under identical conditions. Finally, to translate collected data into information relevant for
86 further use, such as conservation or policy, appropriate statistical analysis of data is required
87 to detect changes or trends with a given level of uncertainty, and confidence in the estimates
88 should be based on the ability of the scheme to detect changes (Legg and Nagy, 2006).

89

90 Although these three indicators are generally relevant in any type of monitoring, monitoring
91 schemes differ in their objectives and many different types of monitoring schemes exist
92 (Pocock et al., 2015). For example, schemes in Europe have been started as early as the
93 1970s, are motivated by different reasons, funded by different sources, and their geographic
94 scope ranges from local to continental (Lengyel et al., 2008a; Schmeller et al., 2012). To
95 account for these socio-economic differences and to increase the useability of our indicators
96 in different monitoring schemes, we evaluated the variation in indicators as a function of
97 starting year, funding source, motivation, and geographic scope. Finally, we show how our
98 indicators can be used by coordinators as benchmarks to assess their schemes relative to the

99 average practice and to identify options for improvement of their monitoring schemes. We
100 present different benchmark values for the three indicators to be meaningful for schemes
101 monitoring different species groups and habitat types.

102

103 2. METHODS

104 **2.1. Definition and dataset**

105 We used Hellowell's (1991) definition of "biodiversity monitoring" as the repeated recording
106 of the qualitative and/or quantitative properties of species, habitats, habitat types or
107 ecosystems of interest to detect or measure deviations from a predetermined standard, target
108 state or previous status in biodiversity. We collected metadata on biodiversity monitoring
109 schemes in Europe in an online survey (Henle et al., 2010a). The online questionnaire
110 contained 8 general questions and 33 and 35 specific questions on species and habitat
111 monitoring schemes, respectively (**Table S1, S2**). We sent more than 1600 letters with
112 requests to fill out the questionnaire to coordinators of monitoring schemes, government
113 officials, national park staff, researchers and other stakeholders at institutions involved in
114 biodiversity monitoring. The information entered was quality-checked and organized into a
115 meta-database (<http://eumon.ckff.si/monitoring>).

116

117 The survey response rate was 40% (646 schemes for 1600 letters), which was comparable to
118 the only other questionnaire-based study of biodiversity monitoring (48%) (Marsh and
119 Trenham, 2008). Response rate varied among countries and we evaluated this bias based on
120 the logic of Schmeller et al. (2009) (**Supporting Information S1.1**). Our metadatabase is
121 not, and cannot be, exhaustive to involve all monitoring schemes because the universe of all
122 schemes is not known, however, it provides a cross-section of geographic scope (**Supporting**
123 **Information S1.1**). The final dataset contained metadata on 470 species schemes and 176

124 habitat schemes, or a total of 646 schemes from 35 countries in Europe. Assessment of
125 country bias showed no substantial differences from the usual publication bias for 25 (or
126 71%) of the 35 countries, overrepresentation for three countries and underrepresentation for
127 seven countries (**Fig. S1**).

128

129 **2.2. Indicator development**

130 To compute an indicator of sampling design, we scored seven design variables in both
131 species and habitat monitoring schemes (**Table 1**). Scores were chosen to be higher for
132 sampling designs that were better founded in sampling theory and/or that obtained more or
133 better, e.g. quantitative rather than qualitative, information on species and habitats (further
134 details: **Supporting Information S1.3**). Scores were determined for each scheme as a
135 consensus among DSS, KH and SL. As a final output, we calculated a ‘sampling design
136 score’ (*SDS*) indicator as the sum of the seven scores (range: 0-13 in species schemes, 0-10 in
137 habitat schemes).

138

139 For sampling effort, we derived both a temporal and a spatial indicator. We used the
140 following formula for the “temporal sampling effort” indicator:

141

$$142 \quad SE_{temp} = \log(F_{by}(T^2 - 1)(T * F_{wy} - 2)), \quad (\text{eqn 1})$$

143

144 where F_{by} is the between-year frequency of sampling (value of 1 indicating monitoring in
145 every year, 0.5 for monitoring every other year, etc.); T is the duration of monitoring in years;
146 and F_{wy} is the number of sampling occasions (site visits) within a year. A derivation of
147 equation 1 is given in **Supporting Information S1.4**.

148

149 For the “spatial sampling effort” indicator ($SE_{spatial}$), we used information on the number of
150 sampling sites and the total area monitored. Assuming that more sampling sites in equal-sized
151 areas indicate higher sampling effort, we calculated the residuals from an ordinary least-
152 squares regression of the number of sites (log-transformed response) over the total area
153 monitored (log-transformed predictor). Positive values (above the fitted line) indicate higher-
154 than-average effort, whereas negative values (below the fitted line) indicate lower-than-
155 average effort for equal-sized areas.

156

157 Each of these three indicators (SDS , SE_{temp} , $SE_{spatial}$) is negatively proportional to at least one
158 source of variation (temporal, among-site, or within-site) that increases the variance of the
159 trend estimate from monitoring. Hence the higher the values of the indicators, the better the
160 sampling design, the higher the sampling effort, and the higher the precision of the trend
161 estimate. The three indicators cannot be readily integrated but have the advantage that
162 coordinators of monitoring schemes can easily calculate them based on Eq. (1) or the
163 regression equations and can use them as benchmarks (see Results).

164

165 For the “type of data analysis” indicator, we used information on the analytical method as
166 given by the coordinators. The single-choice options were (i) descriptive statistics or
167 graphics, (ii) simple linear regression, (iii) advanced statistics, e.g. general linear models etc,
168 (iv) other analyses, (v) data analyzed by somebody else, or (vi) data not analyzed. We
169 considered options (i) and (vi) as evidence for the lack of inferential statistics and hypothesis-
170 testing and considered all other options as signals for hypothesis-testing. Although the option
171 ‘data analyzed by someone else’ could also involve descriptive statistics or graphics, i.e., no
172 hypothesis-testing, this option was chosen for only 26 species schemes (<6% of 439

173 responses) and four habitat schemes (<3% of 154 responses), and pooling these into either
174 group did not influence our results.

175

176 Finally, to evaluate the coordinators' expert judgement of the ability of their schemes to
177 detect changes, we asked coordinators to estimate the precision of their scheme as the
178 minimum annual change per year in the monitored property (e.g. population size, habitat
179 area) that is detectable by their scheme (1%, 5%, 10%, 20%, or more). We then correlated
180 these "precision estimates" with our temporal and spatial indicators of sampling effort to test
181 whether coordinators correctly estimated the sampling effort of their schemes. We arbitrarily
182 took 30% for responses of 'more than 20%'. We found that using different percentages (40%,
183 50% etc.) did not qualitatively affect our conclusions.

184

185 **2.3. Socio-economic effects**

186 We analyzed the variation in each indicator caused by four socio-economic factors: (i)
187 starting year, (ii) main funding source (European Union [EU], national, regional, scientific
188 grant, local), (iii) motivation (EU directive, other international law, national law,
189 management/restoration, scientific interest, other), and (iv) geographic scope (pan-European,
190 international, national, regional, local). These factors were chosen because they are
191 fundamentally important in biodiversity monitoring and because knowledge of how these
192 factors impact the indicators (e.g. "sampling designs are more advanced in schemes funded
193 by certain types of donors") will influence how monitoring coordinators and institutions
194 interpret and use the indicators.

195

196 To detect changes in certain time periods, we classified schemes by starting year in four time
197 periods of European biodiversity policy: (i) period 1: years until the adoption of the Birds

198 Directive in 1979, (ii) period 2: from 1980 until the adoption of the Habitats Directive in
199 1992, (iii) period 3: 1993 until 1999, and (iv) period 4: since 2000 or the preparations of the
200 2010 biodiversity targets. For funding source, motivation, and geographic scope, we used the
201 single-choice responses as given by the coordinators.

202

203 **2.4. Data processing**

204 The three indicators had heterogeneous variances and/or non-normal distributions, and the
205 scales of the predictor and the response variables could differ so that comparisons based on
206 parametric test statistics (e.g. means) would have an unclear meaning. Therefore, we present
207 results using boxplots to illustrate differences and use Kruskal-Wallis tests to compare
208 medians. Sample sizes differ because not all information was available for all schemes.

209

210 **3. RESULTS**

211

212 **3.1. Sampling design and effort**

213 In species monitoring, *SDS* was similar through time and geographic scope (**Fig. 1**; Kruskal-
214 Wallis test, n.s.) but varied by funding source ($H = 15.156$, $df = 5$, $P = 0.010$) and motivation
215 ($H = 17.029$, $df = 5$, $P = 0.004$). *SDS* was higher in schemes funded by scientific grants than
216 in other schemes, and lower in schemes motivated by national laws than in other schemes
217 (**Fig. 1**). SE_{temp} decreased with time ($H = 261.088$, $df = 3$, $P < 0.0001$) and varied by funding
218 source and motivation (**Fig. 2**). SE_{temp} was higher in schemes funded by private sources than
219 in other schemes ($H = 32.173$, $df = 5$, $P < 0.0001$) and was lower in schemes motivated by
220 EU directives than in other schemes ($H = 82.625$, $df = 5$, $P < 0.0001$). $SE_{spatial}$ decreased with
221 time ($H = 12.817$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.005$) and was lower in schemes motivated by international
222 laws and higher in schemes motivated by ‘other reasons’ than in other schemes (**Fig. 3**, $H =$

223 11.554, $df = 5$, $P = 0.041$). $SE_{spatial}$ did not vary significantly by funding source and
224 geographic scope (Fig. 3).

225

226 In habitat monitoring, SDS decreased with time ($H = 7.974$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.047$), but did not
227 differ by funding source, motivation, or geographic scope (Fig. 4). SE_{temp} also decreased with
228 time ($H = 51.324$, $df = 3$, $P < 0.0001$), but did not vary by funding source, motivation, or
229 geographic scope (Fig. 5). Finally, $SE_{spatial}$ did not vary by any of the four predictors (Fig. 6).

230

231 3.2. Data analysis

232 The proportion of schemes using hypothesis-testing statistics was significantly lower (48%)
233 in species schemes ($n = 439$) than in habitat schemes (69%; $n = 157$; $\chi^2 = 20.838$, $df = 1$, $P <$
234 0.0001). In species monitoring, this proportion did not differ by starting period (range: 40-
235 52%) or funding source (36-53%; χ^2 -test, n.s.). However, hypothesis-testing statistics were
236 more frequent in schemes motivated by scientific interest (56%, $n = 172$) than in schemes
237 motivated by EU directives (28%, $n = 67$), other reasons (31%, $n = 26$), or international law
238 (33%, $n = 15$), national laws (43%, $n = 107$), management/restoration (43%, $n = 82$; $\chi^2 =$
239 18.267 , $df = 5$, $P = 0.003$). Hypothesis-testing statistics were also more frequent among
240 schemes of European or international scope (63% each, $n = 8$ and 16 , respectively) than in
241 local schemes (32%, $n = 114$) (national: 49%, $n = 203$; regional: 45%, $n = 128$; $\chi^2 = 16.007$,
242 $df = 4$, $P = 0.003$).

243

244 In habitat monitoring, hypothesis-testing statistics were more frequent in schemes started in
245 period 2 and 3 (71% of $n = 17$ in period 2 and 74% of $n = 77$ in period 3) than in schemes
246 started in period 1 (50%, $n = 8$) or period 4 (49%, $n = 72$) ($\chi^2 = 12.967$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.005$). In
247 addition, these statistics were more frequent in schemes whose geographic scope was national

248 (60%, $n = 35$) and local (72%, $n = 87$) rather than regional (44%, $n = 48$; European and
249 international schemes excluded due to low sample size; $\chi^2 = 11.855$, $df = 2$, $P = 0.003$). The
250 frequency of hypothesis-testing statistics did not differ by funding source (range 40-67%) or
251 motivation (range 53-86%; χ^2 -test, n.s.).

252

253 **3.3. Precision estimates vs. sampling effort**

254 Coordinators estimated the minimum annual change detectable by their schemes in 74% of
255 species schemes ($n = 470$) and in only 36% of habitat schemes ($n = 176$). In species schemes,
256 $SE_{spatial}$ correlated negatively with precision estimates, as expected (Spearman $\rho = -0.128$, n
257 $= 309$, $P = 0.024$), whereas SE_{temp} was not related to precision estimates. In habitat schemes,
258 there were no correlations between SE_{temp} or $SE_{spatial}$ and precision estimates.

259

260 **3.4. Benchmarking: how do single schemes perform?**

261 Our indicators provide benchmarks against which single schemes can be compared.
262 Coordinators can compute these indicators for their own schemes in three steps. First, the
263 *SDS* indicator is calculated by selecting the response options of their own scheme for each of
264 the seven variables in **Table 1**, reading the corresponding score value, and summing the
265 seven score values, which can then be compared to the reference mean *SDS* value given in
266 **Table 2** for major species groups and habitat types. Second, the SE_{temp} indicator is calculated
267 by substituting the values of a given scheme into Equation 1, which then can be compared to
268 the reference values given in **Table 2**. Finally, $SE_{spatial}$ is obtained by calculating the
269 difference between the number of sampling sites in a given scheme and the mean number of
270 sites predicted for schemes that monitor similar areas. The mean predicted number is
271 determined by regression equations based on intercepts and regression coefficients in **Table**
272 **3**. For example, the mean number of sampling sites predicted for schemes monitoring higher

273 plants in an area of 100 km² is given as $\log(Y) = 0.47 + 0.34 * \log(100) = 1.15$ (where 0.47 and
274 0.34 are from **Table 3**), resulting in $Y \approx 14$. If the given scheme monitors higher plants at 20
275 sites in an area of 100 km², the value of $SE_{spatial}$ (scheme value – predicted value) is 6,
276 indicating a higher-than-average effort than in other schemes. The regression equation for
277 $SE_{spatial}$ in habitat schemes is $\log(Y) = 0.51 + 0.36 * \log(X)$, where X is the area monitored in
278 km² and Y is the predicted number of sites. Separate regressions for habitat types were not
279 meaningful due to low sample size in several habitat types (**Table 2**).

280

281 4. DISCUSSION

282 4.1. General patterns in monitoring

283 This study is the first to provide a comprehensive evaluation of sampling design, sampling
284 effort and data analysis in biodiversity monitoring based on indicators calculated from
285 metadata on existing schemes. Despite limitations in the data (see **Supporting Information**),
286 our evaluation is based on the most comprehensive dataset currently available on existing
287 schemes. A full validation of the indicators is not yet possible due to the absence of
288 quantitative estimates of statistical power and accuracy derived from monitoring data in
289 existing schemes, which could provide an independent reference. For a correct interpretation,
290 we note that our metadatabase showed overrepresentation for 9% of the countries and
291 underrepresentation for 20% of the countries relative to the usual publication bias, therefore,
292 not all our results apply equally to all 35 countries represented in the metadatabase.

293

294 Our results provide evidence that biodiversity monitoring varies with the socio-economic
295 background. We found decreasing trends in SE_{temp} in species schemes and in SDS and SE_{temp}
296 in habitat schemes over time. Hypothesis-testing statistics were also less frequently used in
297 more recent species schemes than in earlier (1980s-1990s) ones despite several calls for

298 hypothesis-testing (Balmford et al., 2005; Lindenmayer and Likens, 2009; Nichols and
299 Williams, 2006; Yoccoz et al., 2001). Similar results were reported by Marsh & Trenham
300 (2008), who found a recent increase in the percentage of North American species schemes
301 that did not decide on statistical methods.

302

303 We also found higher *SDS* in schemes funded by scientific grants and higher *SE_{temp}* in
304 schemes funded by private sources than in other schemes. The influence of motivation in
305 species schemes was less expected, with lower *SDS* in schemes motivated by national laws,
306 lower *SE_{temp}* in schemes motivated by EU directives, lower *SE_{spatial}* in schemes motivated by
307 international laws, and lower frequency of hypothesis-testing statistics in schemes motivated
308 by EU directives and other international laws than in other schemes. Finally, the use of
309 hypothesis-testing statistics increased with geographic scope in species monitoring, whereas
310 it decreased from national to regional schemes in habitat monitoring. Each of the four socio-
311 economic variables was associated with substantial variation in at least one of the indicators,
312 suggesting that biodiversity monitoring is influenced by socio-economic factors (Bell et al.,
313 2008; Schmeller et al., 2009; Vandzinskaite et al., 2010).

314

315 **4.2. Promising developments**

316 Our results draw attention to several promising developments in current biodiversity
317 monitoring. First, *SDS* did not change substantially over time, indicating that despite the
318 continuous growth in the number of schemes (e.g. Lengyel et al., 2008a), the quality of the
319 sampling design used in schemes is not deteriorating. Second, we found less variation in
320 indicators in habitat schemes than in species schemes. This is probably related to the fewer
321 habitat schemes present in our sample. In addition, habitat monitoring is methodologically
322 less heterogeneous, based mostly on field mapping and remote sensing (Lengyel et al.,

323 2008a), than species monitoring, where different species groups are monitored with different
324 methods even in single taxonomic groups, such as birds (Schmeller et al., 2012). Finally, the
325 precision estimates given by monitoring coordinators corresponded with spatial sampling
326 effort in species monitoring schemes as expected (i.e., more sites relative to area = higher
327 precision).

328

329 **4.3. Reasons for concern**

330 Our survey also confirmed several concerns. First, while the number of schemes increases as
331 general interest in biodiversity conservation increases (Henle et al., 2013), we found that
332 sampling effort decreased over time, mainly because the number of temporal replicates per
333 unit area decreased, both in species and in habitat schemes. This is especially alarming in
334 species schemes where repeated observations over shorter time periods (i.e., within a season)
335 are essential to estimate the probability of detecting individuals (Schmeller et al., 2015).

336

337 Second, we identified lower-than-average values for several indicators in species monitoring:
338 in national schemes (SDS), and in schemes motivated by EU directives (SE_{temp}) and other
339 international laws ($SE_{spatial}$). Furthermore, we found that data are less frequently analyzed in
340 species schemes motivated by EU directives and other international laws and in habitat
341 schemes that are local or regional. These results support the view that the policies guiding
342 monitoring and the institutions providing funding should develop standard criteria for
343 initiating/funding different schemes (Legg and Nagy, 2006). These criteria should include
344 minimum requirements for sampling design and effort that ensure that the performance of the
345 individual schemes moves towards the average of all existing schemes.

346

347 Third, precision estimates were much less frequently specified in habitat schemes (36%) than
348 in species schemes (74%). On one hand, this is plausible as it is probably easier to specify
349 precision in schemes that monitor one or a few species than in schemes that monitor entire
350 habitat types, i.e., species communities. On the other hand, many habitat monitoring schemes
351 use standardized methods to document spatial variation, e.g. field mapping or remote sensing,
352 which should facilitate the evaluation of precision.

353

354 Finally, hypothesis-testing statistics were used in less than half of the species schemes and
355 more than two-thirds of the habitat schemes. Thus, our results support previous concerns over
356 the lack of a hypothesis-testing framework in biodiversity monitoring (Legg and Nagy, 2006;
357 Lindenmayer and Likens, 2009; Yoccoz et al., 2001). The infrequent use of hypothesis-
358 testing statistics and the large number of schemes for which no precision estimate was given
359 by the coordinators also suggest that the ability of schemes to detect changes in biodiversity
360 (statistical power) is rarely considered in monitoring design (Di Stefano, 2001; Marsh and
361 Trenham, 2008).

362

363 **4.4. Recommendations**

364 The variation in indicators can potentially have serious consequences regarding the ability of
365 monitoring schemes to detect trends or the reliability of the trend estimates detected, which
366 can thus easily provide misleading information on changes in biodiversity. Our results
367 provide insight into potential areas of improvement that can help to avoid such potential
368 consequences. Generally, sampling design can be improved by applying levels associated
369 with higher scientific quality to one or more of the variables listed in **Table 1**. An ideal
370 habitat monitoring scheme should apply both remote sensing and field mapping to document
371 spatial changes because the two approaches work best at different scales (Lengyel et al.,

372 2008b). The introduction of an experimental approach in monitoring, with adequate controls,
373 was proposed as the greatest potential for improvement as it provides an opportunity to
374 establish causal relations between trends and possible drivers of the trends (Lindenmayer and
375 Likens, 2009; Yoccoz et al., 2001). Because experiments may have limited external validity
376 due to limitations in the scale at which experiments can be performed, they should be
377 complemented by observational studies addressing the same issues at the relevant larger scale
378 (Lepetz et al., 2009) or by studies using natural experiments that are not controlled for
379 scientific or monitoring reasons (Henle, 2005).

380

381 In principle, sampling effort can be improved by increasing either the number of sites, site
382 visits, samples, or the frequency of sampling. In contrast to sampling design, where there is
383 often a trade-off between options, the spatial and temporal intensity of sampling can be
384 increased simultaneously and independently. It is fundamental to have accurate (unbiased)
385 and precise (low-variance) estimates for the trend of the habitats of interest by ensuring
386 adequate spatial and temporal replication (Lindenmayer and Likens, 2009). Estimating the
387 adequate number of replicates should be based on a quantitative evaluation of the ability of
388 monitoring schemes to detect trends in explicit analyses of statistical power (Nielsen et al.,
389 2009; Taylor and Gerrodette, 1993).

390

391 To address the alarmingly rare use of hypothesis-testing statistics, we recommend that
392 responsible international institutions and national agencies as well as funding agencies
393 establish mechanisms, including procedural requirements and training opportunities, to
394 facilitate a better use of the data collected. Because several schemes used other, unspecified
395 statistics, it needs further study to determine the type of these analyses and to evaluate
396 whether such unspecified statistics are appropriate for integration across monitoring schemes

397 (Henry et al., 2008; Mace et al., 2005). Using advanced statistics to analyze data from
398 otherwise well-designed sampling is a straightforward way to improve the quality of
399 information derived from monitoring data (Balmford et al., 2005; Di Stefano, 2001; Yoccoz
400 et al., 2001).

401

402 **4.5. Benchmarking: practical help for implementing recommendations**

403 Although scientifically desirable, it may not be realistic to expect that monitoring schemes
404 improve or change everything to have state-of-the-art practices given the many goals they
405 pursue and the many constraints under which they operate (Bell et al., 2008; Marsh and
406 Trenham, 2008; Schmeller et al., 2009). It is more realistic to provide the monitoring
407 community with guidelines on how to improve schemes relative to the average practice
408 (Henle et al., 2013). Our study provides a basis for such practical guidance in two ways. First,
409 by revealing the impact of socio-economic factors on biodiversity monitoring, our study
410 provides knowledge on the impacts of starting time, funding source, motivation and
411 geographic scope on three general properties of biodiversity monitoring, which should ideally
412 be explicitly considered in decisions made by monitoring coordinators and institutions.
413 Second, our study provides three indicators and presents different indicator values for use in
414 monitoring schemes that differ in their monitored object (**Tables 2** and **3**). Coordinators can
415 thus identify the strengths and weaknesses in sampling design, effort and data analysis in
416 their schemes relative to the average of existing schemes in a benchmarking approach. It will
417 in turn enable coordinators to design and implement changes that may improve the ability of
418 their schemes to collect more broadly useable data. By modifying the values of the indicators,
419 coordinators can further assess which of the alternative options available to them would more
420 efficiently increase the performance of their scheme.

421

422 Although the benchmarking proposed here does not provide a quantitative assessment of
423 statistical power, its relative ease of use compared to a rigorous assessment of statistical
424 power can make it widely applicable in many different monitoring schemes. We note that our
425 benchmarking method is relative, i.e., the outcome for a single scheme will depend on the
426 values of the other schemes. We aimed to minimize this variation by presenting different
427 benchmark values for schemes monitoring different groups of species or types of habitat
428 (**Table 2** and **3**). In addition, coordinators and institutions should also look at how the four
429 socio-economic factors modify the values of the indicators to develop a joint interpretation of
430 the indicator values relative to the average practice and of the indicator values in schemes
431 with similar socio-economic background. These two types of information will help
432 coordinators and institutions to fine-tune the benchmarking of their monitoring schemes, to
433 identify areas of strengths and weaknesses relative to the average practice and to address
434 options for improving their own practice.

435

436 Ongoing efforts, both to build monitoring schemes from scratch and to improve existing
437 schemes, such as regional and global Biodiversity Observation Networks (Wetzel et al.,
438 2015), can benefit from the insight gained from comparing their plans with characteristics of
439 existing schemes. Furthermore, the evaluation and benchmarks may be used in the integration
440 of monitoring results in large-scale assessments of biodiversity and ecosystem services, e.g.
441 under the Convention on Biological Diversity, assessments of the Intergovernmental Science-
442 Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services or in citizen-science programs.

443

444 5. CONCLUSIONS

445 We acknowledge that a direct and full application of scientifically credible criteria to
446 biodiversity monitoring practice may be overzealous and inadequate and that other

447 approaches may be more appropriate. Our study, however, suggests that while there are many
448 promising developments in biodiversity monitoring that do not deserve the critique
449 sometimes voiced against monitoring, there is also a need to improve current practices in
450 sampling design, sampling effort and data analysis. Such concerns have been voiced in
451 several previous studies based mostly on anecdotal data or personal observations. Our study
452 provides the first comprehensive evaluation of actual practices to back up these concerns and
453 to show where these are little justified and offers a practical framework based on
454 benchmarking to address several of these concerns.

455

456 6. AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

457 KH, PYH, SL and DSS designed the study. KH, PYH, BK, MK, SL and DSS collected data.
458 BK, SL and YPL analysed and interpreted data. BK and SL wrote the first draft and all
459 authors contributed to final manuscript writing.

460

461 7. DATA ACCESSIBILITY

462 All metadata used are available for browsing or download upon request from the DaEuMon
463 database at http://eumon.ckff.si/about_daeumon.php.

464

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550 10. SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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

552 S1. Supplementary Methods

553 S1.1. Country bias

554 S1.2. Questionnaire variables

555 S1.3. Rationale for scores for sampling design

556 S1.4. Theoretical underpinning for the temporal indicator of sampling effort

557 S2. Supplementary Results

558 Country bias and other potential biases

559 S3. Supplementary Figure

560 S4. References

561

563 **Table 1.** Scores allocated to different levels of variables describing the sampling design used
 564 in species and habitat monitoring schemes in Europe. Please see Supporting Information for
 565 justification of score values.

Object monitored	Variable	Response option	Score
Species	Monitored property	Population trend	0
		Distribution trend	1
		Community/ecosystem trend	2
		Population + distribution trend	1
		Population + community trend	2
		Distribution + community trend	3
		All three of the above	3
	Data type	Presence/absence	0
		Age/size structure	1
		Phenology	1
		Counts	2
		Mark-recapture	3
	Information on population structure	No	0
		Yes	1
	Stratification of sampling design	No	0
		Yes	1
	Experimental design	Not used	0
		Before/after comparison	1
		Controlled experiment	2
		Before/after plus control	3
	Selection of sampling sites	Expert/personal knowledge or other criteria	0
		Exhaustive, random, or systematic	1
	Detection probability	Not quantified	0
Quantified		1	
Habitats	Monitored property	Species composition (quality)	0
		Distribution (quantity)	1
		Both of the above (quality and quantity)	2
	Data type	Species presence/absence	0
		Species abundance	1
	Documentation of spatial variation	Not reported / no spatial aspect	0
		Field mapping	1
		Remote sensing	2
	Extent of monitoring	Certain habitat types in an area	0
		All habitat types in area	1
	Stratification of sampling design	Not stratified	0
		Stratified	1
	Experimental design	Not used	0
		Used	1
	Selection of sampling sites	Expert/personal knowledge or other criteria	0
		Exhaustive, random, or systematic	1

567 **Table 2.** Means \pm standard deviations (S.D.) of sampling design score (*SDS*) and the
 568 temporal sampling effort index (*SE_{temp}*) in species and habitat monitoring schemes; *N*:
 569 number of schemes with metadata.

Monitored object	<i>SDS</i>			<i>SE_{temp}</i>		
	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	N
<i>Taxon group in species monitoring</i>						
Lower plants	4.9	1.63	22	3.3	0.77	20
Higher (vascular) plants	4.8	2.14	41	3.4	1.07	39
Arthropods (mainly insects)	5.1	2.00	34	3.6	1.05	27
Butterflies	5.0	1.97	38	4.1	1.26	34
Fish and macroinvertebrates	5.3	1.93	27	3.2	0.99	23
Amphibians and reptiles	5.2	1.83	43	4.0	0.91	40
Birds in general	5.2	1.74	59	4.2	1.15	54
Birds of prey	5.8	2.19	21	4.4	1.00	20
Waterbirds	4.8	1.66	53	4.5	1.03	52
Songbirds	5.4	1.82	27	4.3	0.78	27
Bats	4.1	2.07	23	3.3	0.77	22
Small mammals	4.6	1.91	28	3.7	0.93	27
Large mammals	4.5	1.69	40	3.7	1.03	34
Multiple taxon groups	5.7	1.77	14	3.9	0.79	10
All taxon groups combined	5.0	1.89	470	3.9	1.08	429
<i>EUNIS category in habitat monitoring</i>						
A marine only	5.3	1.92	12	3.4	0.16	3
AB marine and coastal	5.6	1.75	11	3.7	1.31	2
B coastal only	6.5	2.83	16	3.0	0.92	10
C wetlands	4.2	2.09	11	3.7	1.20	4
D heaths and fens	5.7	3.01	13	3.3	0.64	10
E grasslands	5.5	2.37	16	3.2	0.62	15
F scrubs	6.8	2.48	6	4.0	0.37	3
G forests	5.2	1.66	41	3.4	1.01	25
H caves	6.5	0.71	2	5.4	–	1
I arable land	5.5	0.71	2	3.7	0.45	2
X habitat complexes	6.0	2.14	8	3.2	0.80	7
All habitat types in an area	5.0	2.35	38	3.3	1.37	22
All EUNIS habitat categories combined	5.4	2.23	176	3.3	0.98	104

570

571

572

573 **Table 3.** Parameters estimated from an ordinary least-squares regression of the number of
574 sampling sites over the area monitored in species monitoring schemes targeting major
575 taxonomic groups

Taxon group	Intercept	Slope	S.E. slope	R²	t	p
Lower plants	1.40	0.15	0.149	0.056	0.977	0.343
Higher (vascular) plants	0.47	0.34	0.083	0.336	4.148	0.000
Arthropods (mainly insects)	0.46	0.30	0.070	0.397	4.292	0.000
Butterflies	0.52	0.35	0.077	0.411	4.579	0.000
Fish and macroinvertebrates	0.89	0.15	0.099	0.108	1.515	0.146
Amphibians and reptiles	0.82	0.22	0.105	0.119	2.139	0.040
Birds in general	1.42	0.13	0.090	0.050	1.465	0.151
Birds of prey	0.84	0.12	0.177	0.024	0.669	0.512
Waterbirds	1.55	0.04	0.101	0.005	0.420	0.677
Songbirds	0.45	0.20	0.079	0.216	2.516	0.019
Small mammals	0.33	0.25	0.070	0.351	3.601	0.001
Bats	0.88	0.15	0.112	0.091	1.339	0.197
Large mammals	0.21	0.34	0.088	0.343	3.895	0.001
Multiple groups	0.49	0.59	0.137	0.696	4.284	0.003

576

577

578 FIGURE LEGENDS

579

580 **Figure 1.** Sampling design score (SDS) in species monitoring schemes vs. starting period
581 (A), funding source (B), motivation (C) and geographic scope (D). Boxplots show the median
582 (horizontal line), the 25th and 75th percentile (bottom and top of box, respectively),
583 minimum and maximum values (lower and upper whiskers) and outliers (dots).
584 Abbreviations: (B): EU - European Union, nat - national, reg - regional, sci - scientific grant,
585 priv - private source, oth - other; (C) dir - directive, intl - international law, nlaw - national
586 law, sci - scientific interest, mgmt - management/restoration, oth - other reason; (D) EU -
587 European, intl - international, nat - national, reg - regional, loc - local.

588

589 **Figure 2.** Temporal sampling effort (SEtemp) in species monitoring schemes.
590 (Abbreviations: Fig. 1)

591

592 **Figure 3.** Spatial sampling effort (SEspatial) in species monitoring schemes. (Abbreviations:
593 Fig. 1)

594

595 **Figure 4.** Sampling design score (SDS) in habitat monitoring schemes. (Abbreviations: Fig.
596 1)

597

598 **Figure 5.** Temporal sampling effort (SEtemp) in habitat monitoring schemes. (Abbreviations:
599 Fig. 1)

600

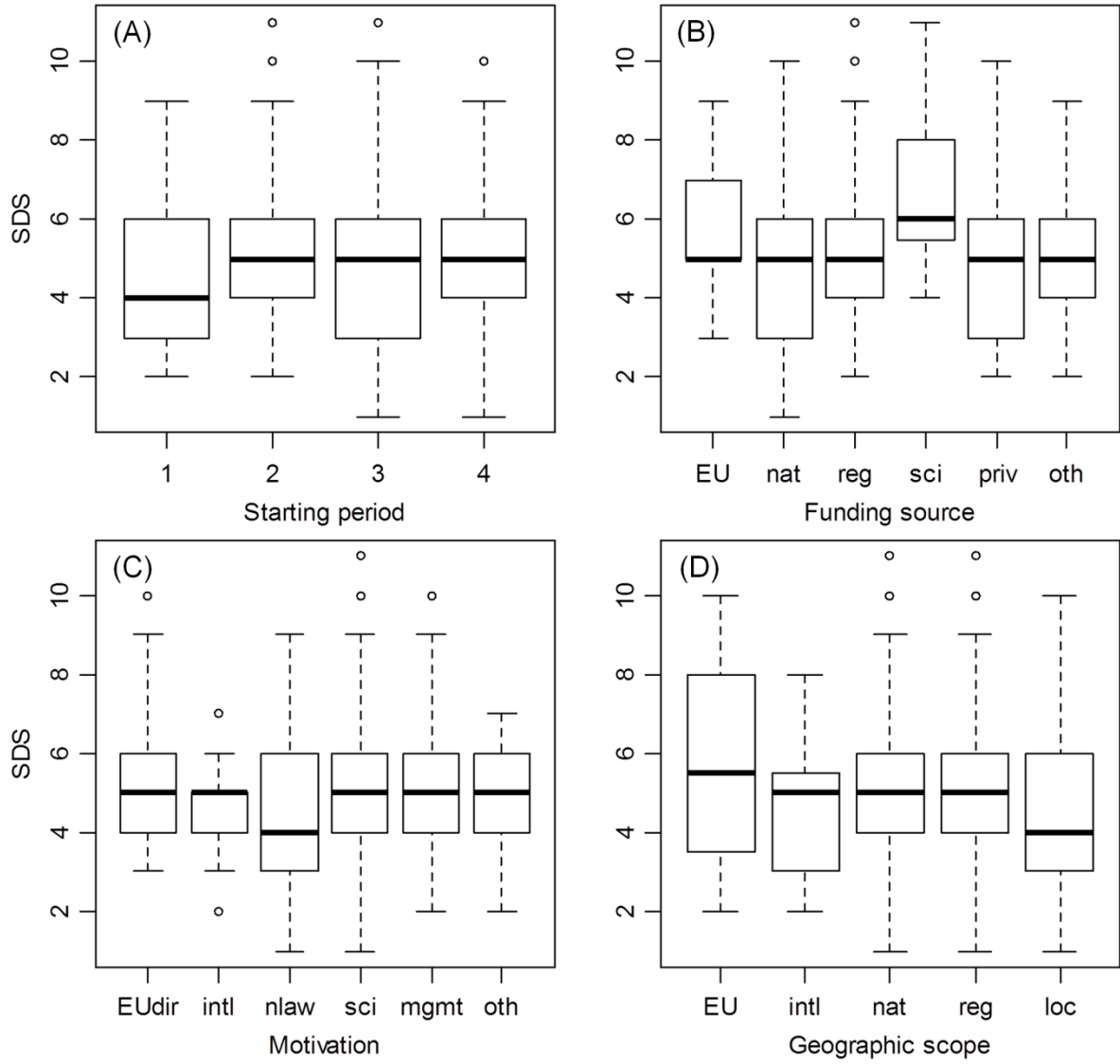
601 **Figure 6.** Spatial sampling effort (SEspatial) in habitat monitoring schemes. (Abbreviations:
602 Fig. 1)

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604 FIGURES

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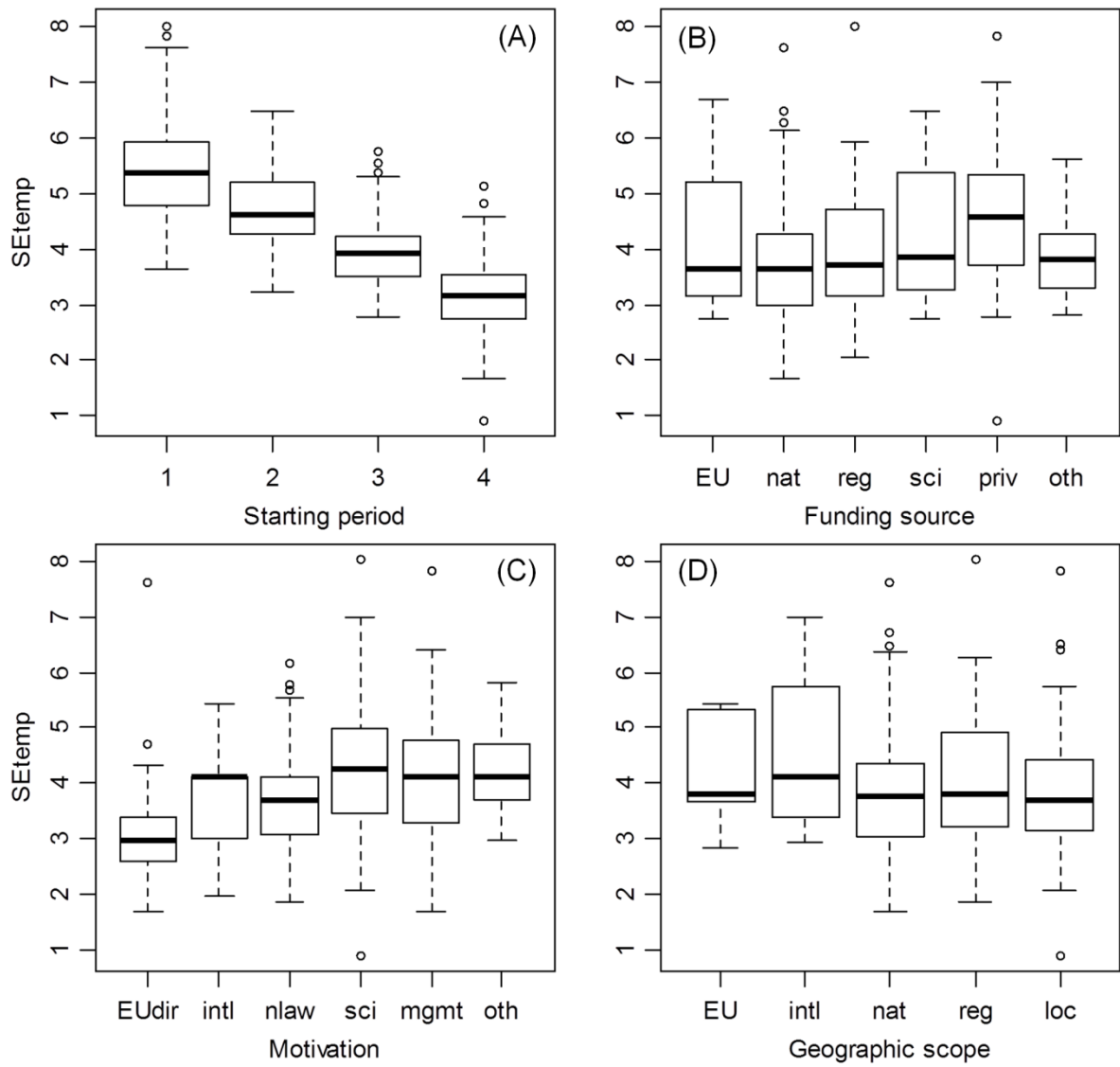
606 Fig. 1



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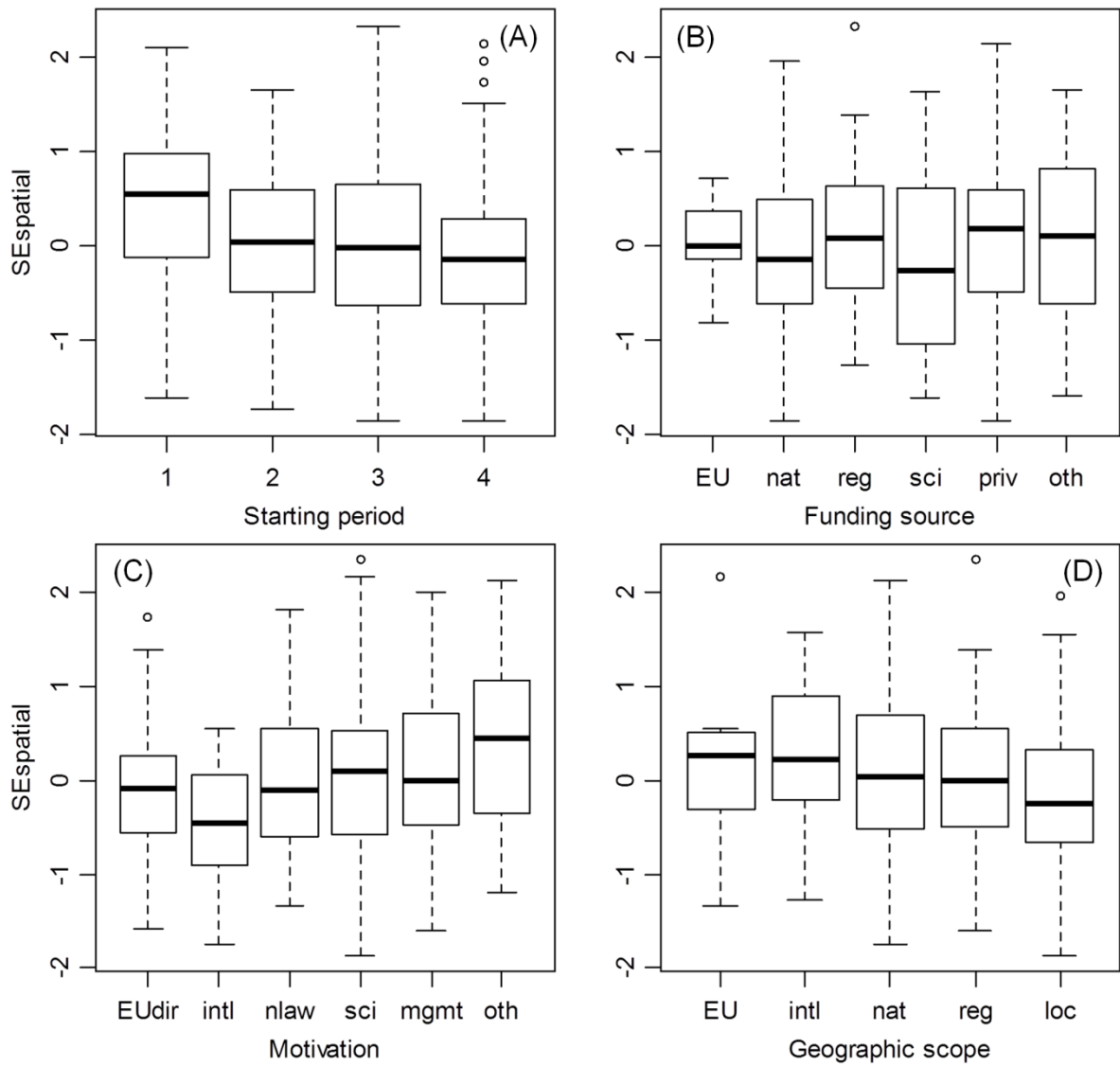
609 Fig. 2



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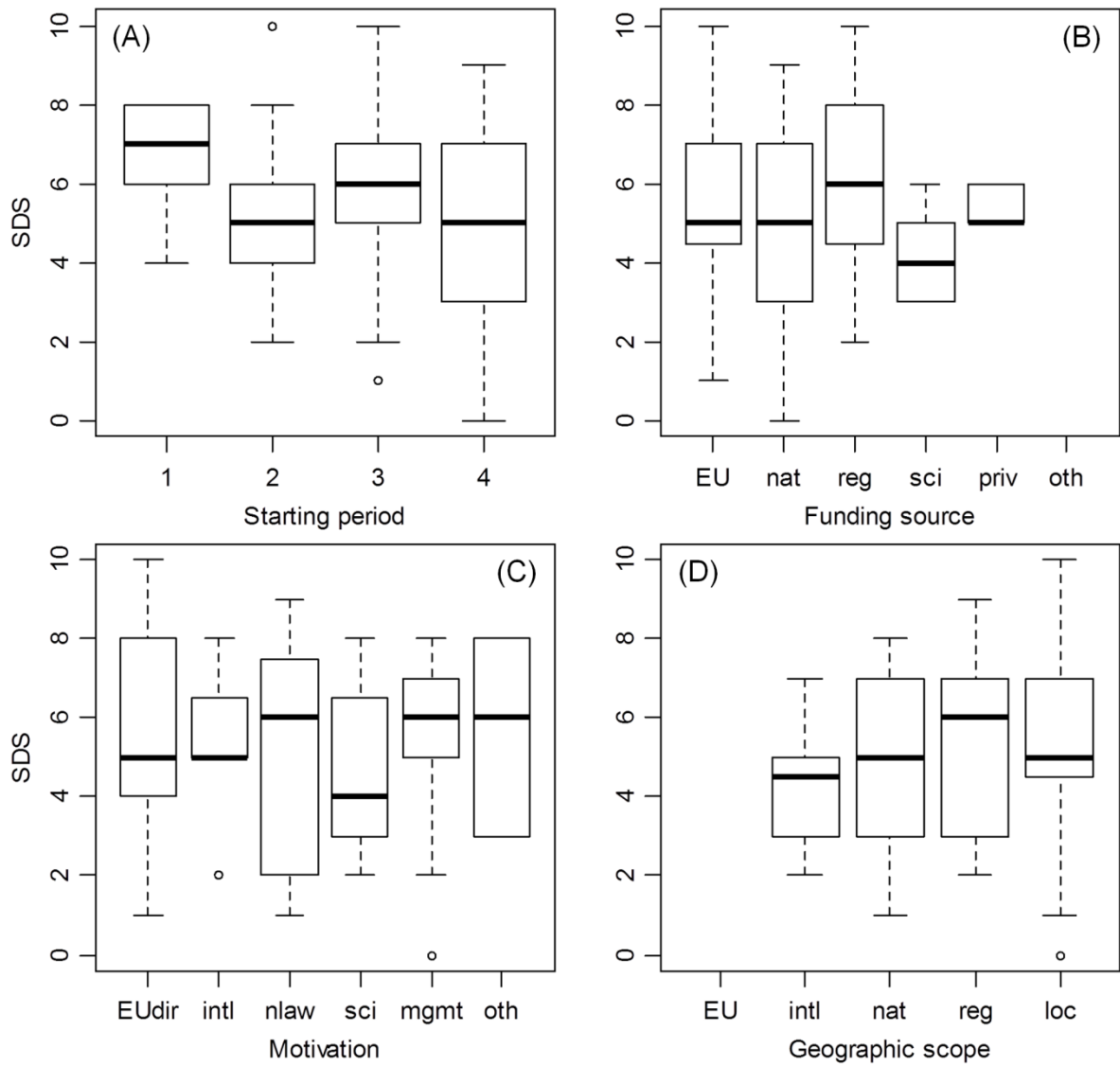
612 Fig. 3



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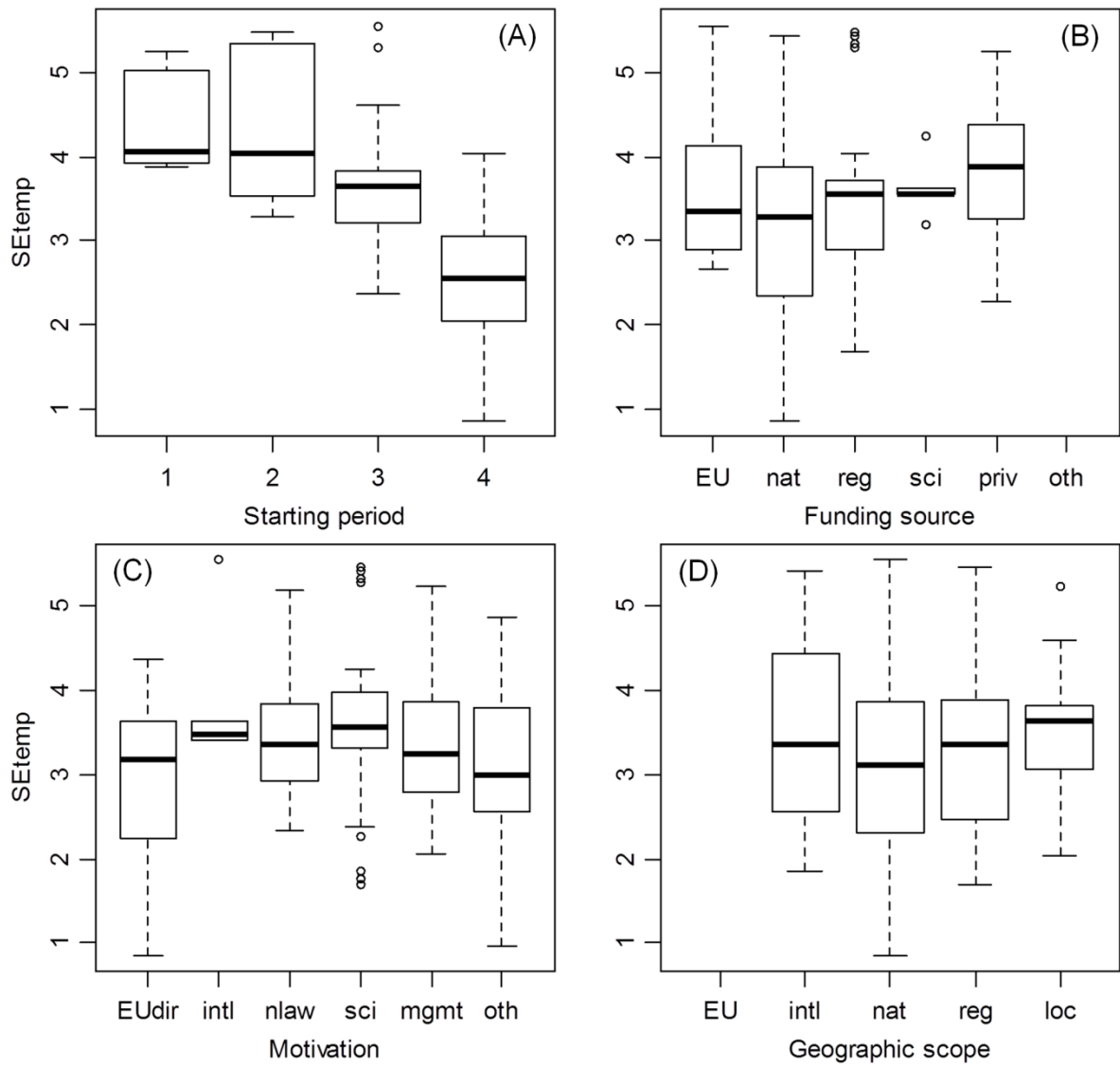
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615 Fig. 4



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