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1 What are we measuring? A review of metrics used to describe biodiversity in offsets
2 exchanges

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5 Key Words: biodiversity offsets, biodiversity metrics, ecology, conservation, no net
6 loss, species persistence, environmental policy

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33 **Abstract**

34 Biodiversity offsets are increasingly employed as an approach to compensate for unavoidable
35 development impacts. Reliance on overly simplistic metrics in assessing the impacts of
36 development, and assigning offset requirements, generally result in offsets which fail to
37 conserve the key ecological values they seek to protect. We conducted a cross-disciplinary
38 quantitative review, based on 255 peer-reviewed publications from three fields of research;
39 offsetting (n=43), conservation planning (n=54) and ecology (n=158), to explore which metrics
40 are commonly used in offsetting compared to the conservation and ecology literature. We
41 recorded the use of biodiversity metrics from 24 categories which captured broad habitat
42 patterns (e.g. habitat area and condition) as well as specific biological and ecological
43 mechanisms (e.g. diversity, population density or landscape connectivity). Our review found
44 that offset programs rely heavily on habitat attributes and area-based metrics, with >70% of
45 the offset literature having used these metrics. Habitat attributes and area-based metrics were
46 less frequently reported in the conservation planning (56 and 59%, respectively) and
47 ecological literature (49 and 15%). Ecological research had a higher frequency of metrics
48 reflecting the biological and ecological processes relevant to biodiversity, such as species'
49 population densities and species-specific connectivity. Our results also indicate a notable
50 disconnect in how biodiversity is measured when offsets are planned compared to when their
51 outcomes are evaluated. This demonstrates the need to re-evaluate the way offset policies
52 and programs value, describe and measure biodiversity, so that critical biodiversity values and
53 important ecological processes are appropriately captured, and no net loss is achieved.

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66 **Introduction**

67 Biodiversity offsets are becoming increasingly popular as a regulation and conservation tool
68 aimed at reducing the impact of developments on biodiversity (BBOP, 2012). Around the world
69 over 45 offset programs have been established and as many as 108 public policies now
70 incorporate no net loss principles, which is often the key objective of biodiversity offsets (Bull
71 and Strange, 2018; Madsen et al., 2011). Biodiversity offsets are highly critiqued, largely
72 because it is unclear how effective offsetting policies are in practice (Bull et al., 2013), and
73 whether no net loss is achievable using current frameworks (Bezombes et al., 2019).
74 Achieving no net loss through offsetting requires implementing conservation actions that aim
75 to balance the environmental losses caused by development with biodiversity gains (Birkeland
76 and Knight-lenihan, 2016; Bull et al., 2016, 2013). Quantification of biodiversity values may
77 happen at several stages in the impact assessment and offsetting process, as well as during
78 monitoring of proposed actions and outcomes (Geneletti, 2002). One of the major challenges
79 in the implementation of offsets is how to quantify the trading of biodiversity losses due to
80 development for appropriate gains delivered through an offset action (Bull et al., 2013; Ives
81 and Bekessy, 2015).

82 Methods and metrics used to evaluate biodiversity have important impacts on conservation
83 strategies and resource allocation (Davies and Cadotte, 2011). However, measuring
84 biodiversity is notoriously difficult in all fields of ecological research and generally cannot be
85 summarise using a single-metric approach (Liu et al., 2018; Williams and Araújo, 2002).
86 'Biodiversity' is used as a catch-all term which encompasses any of the multiple levels of
87 biological complexity (Ferrier, 2002). To simplify the task of measuring biodiversity, ecologists
88 generally measure a small subset of it to act as surrogates for other features not explicitly
89 assessed, usually based on habitat attributes (BBOP, 2012; Davies and Cadotte, 2011).
90 Commonly used offsetting metrics tend to focus on a measure of habitat condition which is
91 calculated and weighted across several habitat features. This is combined with the area
92 impacted and a ratio or multiplier value which may increase offset requirements so as to
93 deliver equitable or greater biodiversity gains (Rayment et al., 2014). The final value used for
94 the trade is generally a summed habitat condition score which determines the amount of area
95 of a particular quality or condition that is required to offset the losses expected through
96 development (Gibbons et al., 2018). For example, in Australia the 'habitat hectare' has been
97 developed specifically for use in offsetting and incorporates seven habitat features and three
98 landscape metrics into a weighted habitat score which is combined with site area to compute
99 a quality-adjusted area of habitat (Parkes et al., 2003; The State of Victoria Department of
100 Environment, Land, 2017a). Similarly, in the United States, wetland mitigation ratios are based
101 on the type of wetland affected and the size of the impact (US Army Corps of Engineers,

102 2014). In this approach, the habitat type and area of impact determine how extensively a
103 developer must offset their environmental impacts. This can influence both the size of the
104 offset required and the type of offset activity implemented (Bull and Strange, 2018; May et al.,
105 2016a).

106 The assumption in using metrics based on habitat attributes or vegetation types in offsetting
107 programs is that by protecting or restoring these features, there will be both a direct benefit to
108 habitat and a corresponding, but indirect benefit to plant and animal species (Cristescu et al.,
109 2013). This, however, will not always be the case (Bedward et al., 2009). Several studies have
110 demonstrated that metrics based on habitat attributes and vegetation type tend to be overly
111 simplistic and do not fully capture individual species' ecological needs (Cristescu et al., 2013;
112 Hanford et al., 2016; Kujala et al., 2015a). These metrics assign low scores to ecologically
113 important sites which may occur in a degraded condition or in small patches (Hobbs, 2016;
114 Maseyk et al., 2016). Moreover, smaller or more degraded sites are often considered of lesser
115 conservation value (Wintle et al., 2019), and therefore may not be prioritised for offsetting
116 since they are presumed to deliver fewer gains. Resulting offset sites can therefore deliver
117 markedly different biodiversity values from those lost (Price et al., 2019), with the risk of trading
118 away critical habitat, such as large old-growth trees, which may support rare or threatened
119 species (Le Roux et al., 2016, 2015; Maron et al., 2012; Wintle et al., 2019). Consequently,
120 we must understand the ramifications of using metrics which are uncoupled from the
121 biodiversity values they are intending to capture (Cristescu et al., 2013), and identify
122 transparent and fungible methods for assessing biodiversity impacts and offsetting
123 requirements.

124 Despite increased efforts to incorporate ecological processes into metrics that support offsets,
125 such as through the use of landscape measures (Gibbons et al., 2016; The State of Victoria
126 Department of Environment, Land, 2017b), most currently used offsetting metrics largely fail
127 to capture landscape level impacts on populations and species (Bekessy et al., 2010;
128 Crouzeilles et al., 2015). The inclusion of species biology or population processes (e.g.
129 dispersal, Allee effects) adds an additional layer of complexity to biodiversity assessment
130 (Ferrier & Drielsma 2010) and offset calculations. When the objective of offsetting is to ensure
131 the persistence of particular species in a region, offset metrics should incorporate measures
132 of variables that directly mediate population persistence (Cristescu et al., 2013; Drielsma et
133 al., 2016), such as species-specific dispersal measures, or estimates of the carrying capacity,
134 expected survival and fecundity of species in a habitat patch. Testing current biodiversity
135 offsetting metrics and identifying realistic alternatives is not yet fully addressed in research on
136 offsets (Maron et al., 2016; ten Kate et al., 2004).

137 Here, we reviewed the offsetting, conservation planning and ecology literature to identify the
138 most common metrics being used in offsetting compared to those used for measuring or
139 assessing biodiversity in the broader fields of conservation planning and ecological research.
140 Understanding how biodiversity is treated in other conservation and environmental
141 management activities may provide valuable insights into current offset metrics, where they
142 fall short and how they could potentially be improved. The purpose of this review is therefore
143 to highlight potential gaps in current offset metrics and identify where future research could
144 contribute to testing alternatives.

145 **Methods**

146 **Review design**

147 We used a cross-disciplinary review approach which followed a step-wise search and
148 assessment procedure (Figure A.1: Pickering & Byrne 2014). The purpose of this design was
149 to capture the most commonly used measures across multiple disciplines. We used Scopus
150 to collect publications from three fields; offsetting, conservation planning and ecology (See
151 Appendix A for detailed definitions of each category). The intention of this review was to
152 examine and characterise how these different fields utilise, assess, and measure biodiversity.
153 We defined categories of metrics that are commonly utilised in these fields and assessed how
154 often they were used through a quantitative literature review.

155 Our literature database consisted of a collection of seminal offset literature collated in our initial
156 exploration of the subject and articles found through key-word searches in Scopus. Two
157 searches of the literature were conducted, the first sought to identify suitable publications from
158 conservation planning and ecology using the search terms “biodiversity” AND “metrics” AND
159 (“ecology” OR “conservation”) and resulted in 258 publications from 1999 to April 2017. The
160 second search was aimed at gathering publications from the offsetting literature and used the
161 terms “biodiversity” AND (“conservation” OR “ecology” OR “offsets”) and resulted in 54
162 publications. In total, we collected 312 publications plus a further 32 articles found using the
163 reference lists of included publications. The collected literature was assessed based on titles
164 and abstracts to determine if they fit the review objectives and those not relevant to the
165 research questions were eliminated (n = 40). Another 17 papers were deemed not relevant to
166 the research objective during the detailed review and were removed from our sample. Our
167 sample included peer-reviewed research papers, meta-analyses and quantitative reviews (n
168 = 255) but excluded the grey literature and unpublished research.

169 We placed publications into one of three broad disciplines (offsetting, conservation planning
170 and ecology) based firstly on the title, keywords, and journal type, then content of the paper
171 and goal of the research (A.1). These categories were kept intentionally broad to allow for

172 general patterns in metric use to be assessed between research fields. Our intention was not
173 to make generalisations about what constitutes conservation planning versus ecological
174 research, nor was it to critique the papers classed as belonging to any of the three disciplines.
175 We aimed only to reflect on broad differences in metric use between offsetting compared to
176 other fields of biodiversity relevant research. These publication categories were useful for
177 creating boundaries between fields where in reality most research is not clearly segregated
178 into a single discipline. This approach, however limited in its ability to define research
179 disciplines accurately, was useful here to observe the trends of metric use within the literature.
180 This was essential for examining how offsetting compares to other fields and where the gaps
181 within current offsetting practices are most pronounced.

182 We also examined patterns in metric use within just the offsetting literature by separating the
183 sample into two subjects. Modelling and methodology papers were primarily focused on
184 planning or assessing the methods for an offset or offsetting approach. Monitoring and
185 assessment papers were generally concerned with examining the outcomes of a specific
186 offset, assessing the effectiveness of an offset strategy or monitoring restoration outcomes.
187 Our intention for examining the offsetting literature this way was to determine which metrics
188 were used at each stage of offsetting, both in the planning and testing stage and during the
189 long-term monitoring.

190 Metric categories were determined based on a preliminary reading of the offsetting and
191 conservation planning literature and then further developed using a sample of publications
192 from all three subject categories (Pickering and Byrne, 2014). We started with seven broad
193 classes of biodiversity metrics. We also recorded the use of additional measures frequently
194 considered in these types of publications, but which do not directly measure or characterise
195 biodiversity or ecological processes (from here on called “other metrics”, see Table A.1). After
196 examining the first 25% of the literature we revised our categories resulting in more specific
197 sub-categories and definitions (Pickering & Byrne 2014). These were decided based on the
198 frequency with which each specific sub-category appeared in the literature. However, under
199 some of the categories there were additional underlying metrics within that class (Table 1).
200 For example, density was split into two sub-categories which frequently occurred in the
201 literature; population density and biomass. All sub-categories included but were not limited to
202 the definitions and features outlined for use within this review (Table A.2). The use of broad
203 categories and sub-categories helped to reduce the number of metrics included in the
204 analyses and focused the study on how frequently specific metric classes were employed in
205 the literature.

206 **Data Analysis**

207 Since most of the studies we examined used more than one metric in the methods or analysis,
208 the standard categorical measure usually used in quantitative reviews (Pickering and Byrne,
209 2014) could not be utilised easily here. We therefore recorded the presence and absence of
210 each metric within a paper using a one to indicate the metric was present and a zero to indicate
211 the metric was absent. We also collected information on the year of publication and location
212 of the research. All data were summarised using RStudio statistical software platform (The R
213 Foundation for Statistical Computing, 2017).

214 **Results**

215 **Extent of the literature reviewed**

216 Across 255 publications we identified 24 metric sub-categories (Table 1). Of the 255 papers
217 reviewed, 158 came from the ecology literature, 54 from conservation planning and 43 from
218 offsetting. The number of publications in all three fields increased from 1999 to April 2017, and
219 followed the same trends, with a spike in publications between 2012 and 2017 (Figure A.2).
220 The literature in all three fields was widely distributed around the world. However, as expected,
221 developed regions tended to be better represented in our sample particularly in the offsetting
222 category (Figure 1).

223 **Metric use within three research fields**

224 Across all papers reviewed, occurrences of metrics relating to genetic, functional and
225 phylogenetic diversity, distinctiveness measures and taxonomic richness was low (under 20%
226 occurrence recorded). Habitat attributes, species richness, species abundance, landscape
227 metrics, area and distributions, respectively, were the most commonly used metrics
228 throughout the review (Figure 2). Habitat and area based metrics occurred most often in
229 offsetting studies (86 and 74%, respectively) with lower proportional occurrence in
230 conservation planning (56 and 59%, respectively) and even lower in the ecological literature
231 (49 and 15%, respectively).

232 Furthermore, species richness and species abundance, the next most common metrics, had
233 the highest proportional occurrence in the ecological literature (56 and 57% respectively).
234 Conservation planning literature commonly utilised species richness (48%) but species
235 abundance less often (24%). Richness and abundance metrics were less frequent in the
236 offsetting literature (37 and 19% respectively). Of the three fields, literature within ecology
237 used the largest number of different metrics to measure and characterise biodiversity. Our
238 results indicate a gradient within the literature we reviewed between categorised fields. At one
239 end, the ecological literature was much more driven by ecologically focused metrics, such as
240 abundance and connectivity which may provide information on the ecological processes

241 important to persistence. In contrast, the offsetting literature generally only measured patterns
242 of biodiversity, such as habitat attributes, which may not necessarily capture the processes
243 driving biodiversity patterns in a landscape or those likely to influence survival and persistence.
244 The conservation planning literature fell somewhere in between, with use of both ecologically
245 focused metrics and measured patterns of biodiversity.

246 Of the measures included in our “Other” category, those that assessed threat or risk were the
247 most common, followed closely by disturbance and persistence (Figure 3). Some metrics from
248 this category were disproportionately high in some bodies of literature compared to others as
249 these fields rely on them more heavily. For example, the use of complementarity in
250 conservation planning (Figure 3) was extremely high (44%) compared to offsetting (7%) and
251 ecology (1%). Within offsetting literature, the most commonly occurring ‘other’ metrics
252 described threats and disturbances, rarity or irreplaceability of the targeted biodiversity values
253 but also uncertainty often associated with the offsetting approach or models of offset
254 outcomes. However, none of the other metrics were particularly common, with any single
255 metric occurring in less than a quarter of all reviewed literature.

256 **Metric use within the offsetting literature**

257 The offsetting literature was dominated by habitat attribute and area metrics with over 70%
258 occurrence in each of these categories (Figure 2). All other metrics were used in <30% of the
259 reviewed literature; however, there was greater use of species richness, abundance and
260 density metrics than was expected from the preliminary reading. When the offsetting literature
261 was assessed independently, we found that species focused metrics tended to occur more
262 frequently where the subject of the paper was monitoring or assessing the results of offsetting
263 or restoration actions (Figure 4). These publications (n = 16) still used traditional metrics of
264 habitat and area but also frequently relied upon alternative metrics such as abundance,
265 density, richness, and connectivity to determine the species- or population-specific outcomes
266 of offsets (Figure 4). They also tended to rely less on habitat and area focused measures
267 alone and used instead a combination of metrics to quantify offset impacts on species.

268 Within our sample of ‘monitoring and assessment’ focused offsetting literature, habitat
269 attributes and area were measured in 69 and 50% of the papers, respectively. In contrast, the
270 modelling and methodology papers (n = 27) used habitat attributes and area in 96 and 89% of
271 the sample, respectively. Species richness, species abundance, population density and
272 diversity indices were the next most commonly used metrics in the monitoring and assessment
273 sample (56, 44, 31 and 25% respectively). These types of metrics tend to reflect the objectives
274 of monitoring and assessment papers, which seek to assess outcomes for populations and
275 species. For example, our monitoring and assessment focused offsetting literature consisted

276 of nine publications (56 %) which were focused on restoration success at managed sites, six
277 (38 %) exclusively examined proposed/candidate biodiversity offset sites or procedures, and
278 one (6 %) which assessed both restoration success and offset feasibility. Conversely, the
279 modelling and methodology portion of our offsetting sample did not exceed 26% use in any of
280 these metrics (Figure 4).

281 **Discussion**

282 Our results demonstrate that the definition of biodiversity remains notably narrower in
283 commonly-used offsetting metrics compared with metrics used in the broader fields of
284 conservation and ecology (Figure 2), which is concerning given how widely offsets are now
285 applied (Bull and Strange, 2018; Gordon et al., 2011). The primary implication of our research
286 is that current offset metrics are likely to be limited in their capacity to capture all the
287 biodiversity values that are generally of interest in offsets. This was particularly clear when
288 comparing offsetting papers on modelling and methodology, which lean heavily on simple
289 habitat and area metrics, to those which assess offset outcomes, where the attention is more
290 targeted towards population and species level impacts (Figure 4). This result might indicate
291 that biodiversity metrics which assess populations and species are seen as more useful than
292 habitat and area attributes alone for measuring the outcomes of offset activities. However, this
293 is not reflected in the planning and methodology phases of offsetting. The metrics used to
294 assess and approve developments and offsets prior to impacts are different to those used to
295 evaluate the performance of offsets, illustrating a disconnect between the two stages. This
296 may go some way to explaining the paucity of documented successful offsets in the academic
297 literature (zu Ermgassen et al., 2019). It also indicates that, even within the offsetting literature,
298 the currently used habitat and area-based metrics are not considered as adequate to report
299 on all the biodiversity objectives important to managers and society.

300 The prevalence of simple habitat and area based metrics within the offsetting literature
301 probably reflects, at least in part, the greater availability of data on landscape or habitat
302 patterns, and the relative ease with which these measures can be collected and analysed,
303 compared with complex ecological or population processes (Dorrough et al., 2019; Ferrier and
304 Drielsma, 2010; Fleishman et al., 2006; Goetz et al., 2009). While ecological or species-level
305 inferences can be drawn from data on landscape and habitat pattern, this is almost never
306 attempted in the offsetting literature (Figure 2). In comparison, the ecological literature, and to
307 a lesser extent the conservation planning literature, showed a higher occurrence of metrics
308 that are more directly based on ecological and species population processes such as species
309 diversity, abundance, density and connectivity, or in some cases species and population
310 persistence (Figure 2). Including such metrics in biodiversity offsets could capture the

311 ecological processes driving biodiversity patterns, and better reflect the social objectives
312 behind offsets (Budiharta et al., 2018; Griffiths et al., 2019; Maron et al., 2018).

313 Finding the right combination of sophistication and ease of use, while avoiding an overly
314 complicated metric is a huge challenge in biodiversity offsetting (Goncalves et al., 2015;
315 Maseyk et al., 2016), but it is essential to ensure that offsets meet their no net loss targets.
316 Whilst not all the biodiversity metric categories assessed in this review would be useful or
317 feasible within offsetting, some may offer insights into how current offsetting metrics may be
318 improved. For example, diversity and richness metrics, which were common in the ecological
319 and conservation planning literature, capture a suite of species at once and could be used to
320 complement impact assessments and compare proposed offset sites and activities (Gallardo
321 et al., 2011; Oliver et al., 2014; Perring et al., 2015). Diversity metrics, such as functional and
322 phylogenetic diversity, are increasingly used for validating restoration success (Khalil et al.,
323 2017; Spake et al., 2015) and could be useful for assessing offset outcomes (Sonter et al.,
324 2016). The caveat is that diversity and richness metrics still measure patterns of biodiversity
325 in the landscape without capturing the ecological processes driving them (Fleishman et al.,
326 2006; Gascón et al., 2009). As summary metrics they also come with the risk of concealed
327 trades, particularly for species that naturally occur in environments of low richness and
328 diversity (Kujala et al. 2015a), and do not capture the social preferences for conserving rare
329 and threatened species (Ainsworth et al., 2018). Species richness and diversity metrics have
330 been incorporated into some offset policies already (Gibbons et al., 2018; The State of Victoria
331 Department of Environment, Land, 2017b), but it remains unclear whether these policy
332 changes have improved offset outcomes for species in practice.

333 Species-specific metrics, which were infrequent in the offsetting literature but pervasive in the
334 conservation planning and ecological literature (Figure 2), may be the next obvious place to
335 start improving offset metrics. Abundance and density metrics provide a direct measure of
336 benefits to the species managers are aiming to conserve, unlike habitat attributes that are
337 assumed to affect them (Cristescu et al., 2013; Hanford et al., 2016). Since abundance and
338 density are influenced by changes in demography, metapopulation structure and ecosystem
339 processes (Otto et al., 2014; Yoccoz et al., 2001), their use in biodiversity offsetting allows
340 biological processes influencing species and populations to be accounted for. These metrics
341 may become more feasible as abundance and demographic data is more routinely collected
342 and shared between researchers and land-managers, allowing better estimates of the long-
343 term outcomes of offsets on species and the likelihood of the species persisting (Andrello et
344 al., 2014; Bedward et al., 2009).

345 Whilst improving offset metrics to better promote the long-term persistence of threatened flora
346 and fauna is essential, it is also important to consider the current constraints influencing metric
347 choice. On-ground practices may necessitate more simplistic habitat-based metrics (Birkeland
348 and Knight-Ienihan, 2016; Maseyk et al., 2016). Complicated ecosystem assessments or
349 abundance surveys are often considered too time-consuming to carry out within the
350 development and assessment time constraints (Kiesecker et al., 2009). This should not mean
351 lowering the burden of proof for developers (Birkeland and Knight-Ienihan, 2016); however, it
352 may require that policy stipulated targets are made more explicit so to ensure that offset
353 assessments can be carried out, and the metrics chosen in a manner that work towards these
354 targets (Bull and Brownlie, 2015; Maron et al., 2018). The proliferation of offset related policies
355 on various jurisdictional levels has resulted in diverse and often vague definitions of no net
356 loss, and often developments trigger impact-specific offset policies that target only a narrow
357 set of specific habitats and species (Maron et al. 2018). In addition, the different stages of
358 impact assessment, offset design and monitoring are often regulated by several policies that
359 do not share their definitions of biodiversity or requirements for metric use. Lack of consistency
360 between the different stages make it difficult to determine the long-term effectiveness of
361 biodiversity metrics used during offset exchanges (Miller et al., 2015; Thorn et al., 2018).
362 Together these may, to some extent, explain the inconsistent use of biodiversity metrics
363 observed between implementation and assessment of offset outcomes (Figure 4).

364 Despite the challenges, we see several avenues forward. Firstly, metrics should be made
365 consistent through the offsetting procedure from impact assessment to monitoring, otherwise
366 it is not possible to track how effectively offset gains are delivered. This requires that e.g.,
367 features included in the metric are also automatically monitored (Jacob et al., 2016).
368 Consistent use of metrics allows better comparison of alternative offset activities and a more
369 informed starting point for further metric development (Bezombes et al., 2019; Carver and
370 Sullivan, 2017). Secondly, metrics used must be transparently linked to the features of interest.
371 Ideally, offset metrics would directly measure the target features (e.g., number of individuals
372 of a threatened species). But where surrogates are used (e.g., large trees used as a surrogate
373 for hollow-dependent species), there must be documented estimates, preferably supported by
374 evidence, on how the selected surrogate translates into gains for the target features, in
375 addition to which the no net loss of target features themselves should still be monitored
376 (Travers et al., 2018).

377 Thirdly, metrics should be selected to meet the targets of the policy under which offsetting is
378 done. Since many policies have vague targets, the selected metric, its expected benefits and
379 how these work towards achieving overarching policy targets should be explicitly stated
380 (Maron et al., 2018; May et al., 2016b). This would provide clarity on metric choice and usage

381 under different policies and force proponents to think more about the metrics they choose.
382 Ultimately, requiring explicit statements of how specific metrics built towards policy targets will
383 increase pressure to change these policies to be more explicit about their objectives.

384 Lastly, any offset metrics must ensure the long-term persistence of the feature in question.
385 Assessing persistence is not trivial and may require novel approaches for offset design and
386 assessment. Quantitative tools such as species distribution modelling, population viability
387 analysis, back- and forecasting, and spatial prioritisations (Bezombes et al., 2019; Budiharta
388 et al., 2018; Kujala et al., 2015b; Peterson et al., 2018) may help improve our ability to predict
389 the long-term outcomes of offsets, and to ensure that the delivered outcomes match policy
390 and society aspirations. Equally important is the need to review existing offset-triggering
391 policies to ensure they do not restrict metric choice in a manner that prevents more accurate
392 and comprehensive measuring of biodiversity. Understanding how offset metric choice
393 influence biodiversity at the landscape level and in the long-term should be one of the research
394 priorities to inform future offset policies.

395 Although our review strived to be as comprehensive as possible, there are inevitable biases
396 stemming from uneven geographic distribution of peer-reviewed literature (Figure 1), choice
397 of key words, search criteria and human error that may have resulted in the loss of some
398 publications from our sample, or the mis-categorisation of publications and metric use.
399 Particularly, it is important to acknowledge that documentation of many offset projects is only
400 available in the grey literature and thus were not included here. We chose to exclude the grey
401 literature on biodiversity offsets as it has been shown to results in large variations in data
402 quality, particularly between regions (Bull and Strange, 2018; Theis et al., 2019; zu Ermgassen
403 et al., 2019), and because obtaining comparable samples from all three fields of science was
404 not feasible. Based on initial exploration of both scientific and non-scientific literature, we do
405 not believe our results to be particularly sensitive to the exclusion of grey literature, but that
406 the peer-reviewed literature adequately represents the prevalence of different offset metrics
407 in practice. Nevertheless, some nuances might not be captured in our review.

408 **Conclusion**

409 Despite the increasing use of biodiversity offsets worldwide there remains little quantitative
410 evidence to support they deliver their claimed benefits. Achieving no net loss of biodiversity
411 depends strongly on how biodiversity is defined and measured. We found that within the
412 offsetting literature the definition of biodiversity remains much narrower, in terms of the
413 complexity and breadth of biodiversity features measured, than in the closely related fields of
414 ecology and conservation planning. We also observe a disconnect between the metrics used
415 to plan for offsets and those used to measure their outcomes, the role of which in explaining

416 some of the inconsistencies in offset success warrants further exploration. Ultimately
417 understanding how we can equate what is lost during development to what we are aiming to
418 compensate is essential for slowing the rate of biodiversity declines globally. In order for
419 offsets to deliver desirable conservation outcomes, offset metrics need to be consistent across
420 the various stages of impact assessment, implementation and monitoring, build towards
421 explicit policy targets, and capture the critical biodiversity values and processes which are
422 most important to ensure species persistence. The ecological and conservation planning
423 literature provides insights into how offsetting metrics could be improved to better represent
424 and support the components of biodiversity that offset policies set out to protect and maintain.

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641 **Figures and tables**

Category	Sub-Category
Abundance	Species Abundance
	Taxonomic abundance
Area	Area
Habitat	Habitat attributes
	Distributions
Connectivity	Connectivity indices
	Landscape metrics
Density	Population density
	Biomass
Distinctiveness	Phylogenetic distinctiveness
	Functional distinctiveness
Diversity	Diversity Indices
	Functional Diversity
	Genetic diversity
	Phylogenetic diversity
Richness	Species Richness
	Taxonomic Richness
Other	Complementarity
	Disturbance
	Threat/risk
	Rarity/irreplaceability
	Uncertainty
	Persistence
	None/Other

642 Table 1: Final categories and sub categories selected

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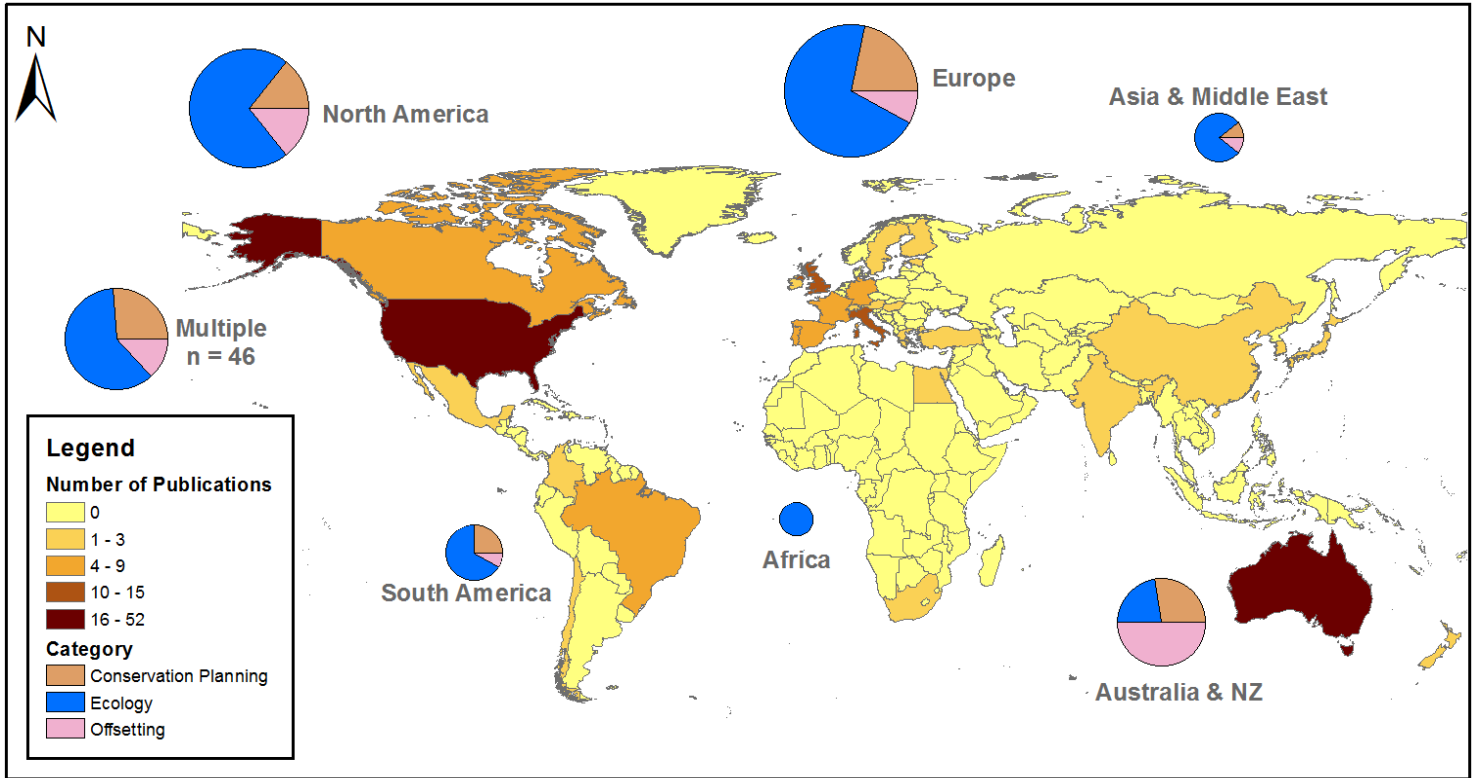


Figure 1: Number of publications sampled across countries. Yellow to red shading shows the number of publications by country, while the pie charts give the breakdown of sampled publications across the three literature disciplines for each continent. The size of the pie charts reflects the number of publications examined in each continent. A 'Multiple' category (n=46) was used to characterise papers which did not have a set geographic origin and had sites in multiple regions or authors from several countries.

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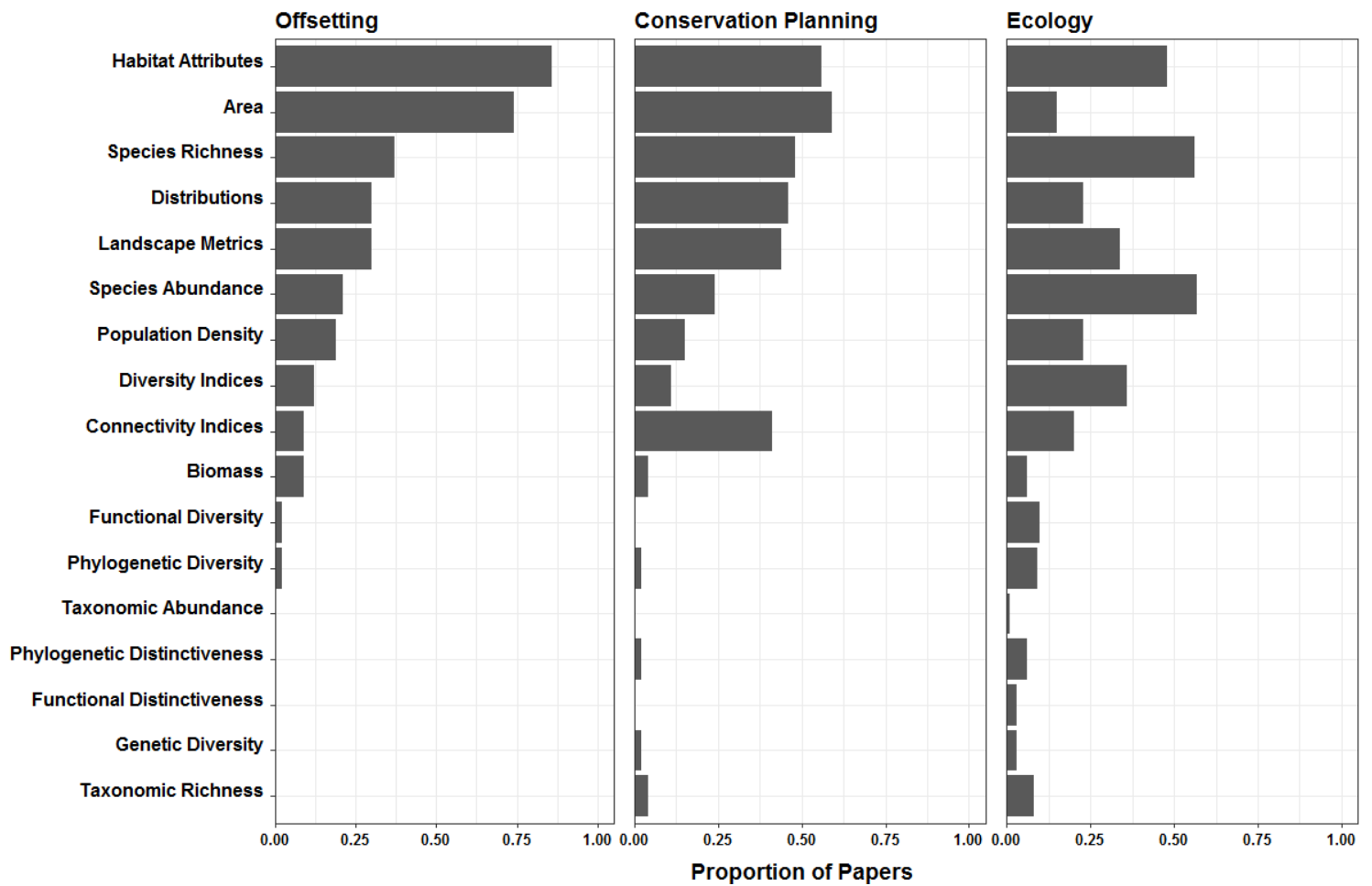


Figure 2: Proportion of papers (x-axis) within offsetting (n=43), conservation planning (n=54) and ecology (n=158; three panels) which measured or used the listed metrics (y-axis). Definitions of each category and their sub-categories is given Table A.2.

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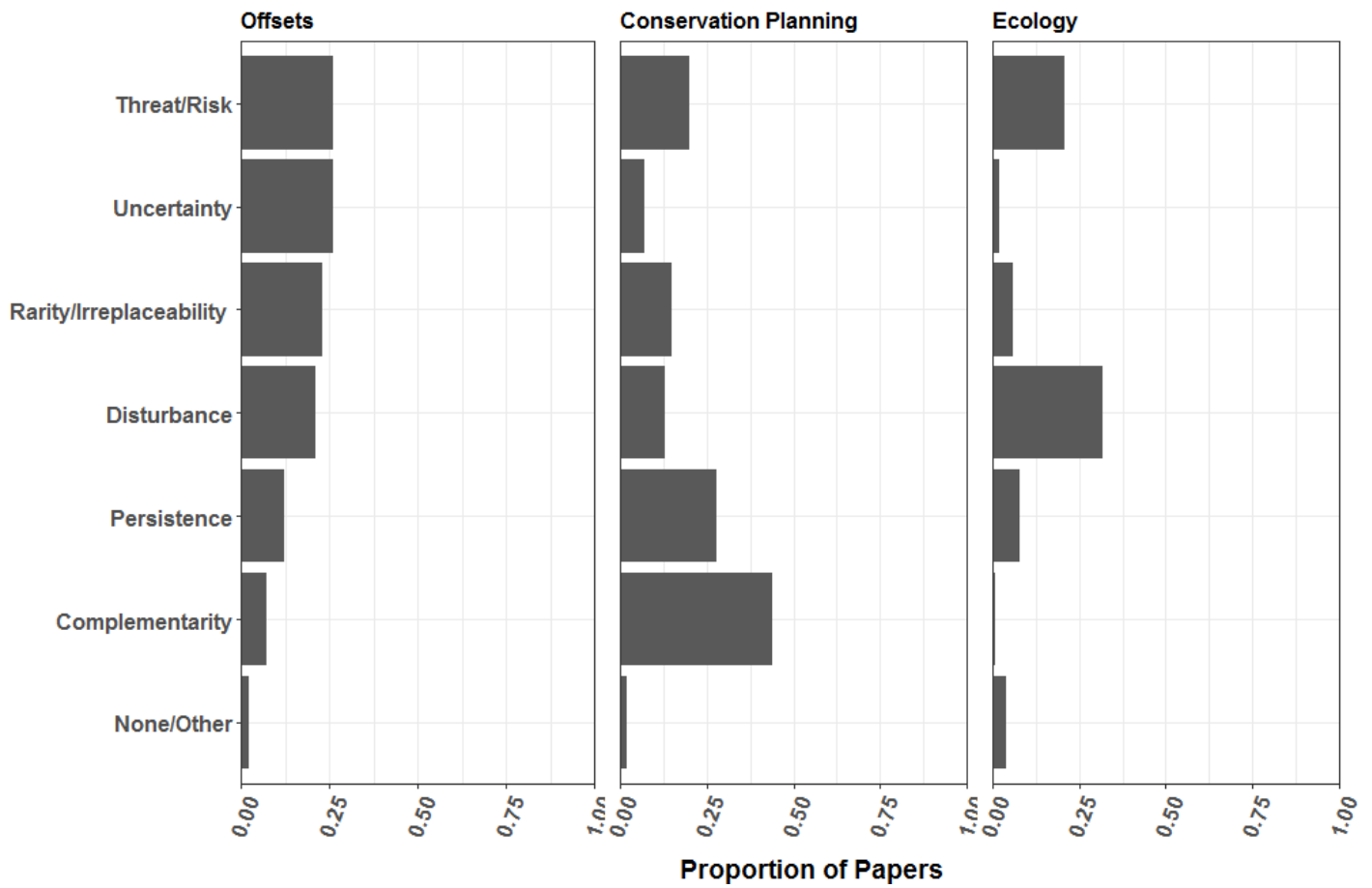


Figure 3: Proportional occurrence of metrics in the 'Other' category considered in this review.

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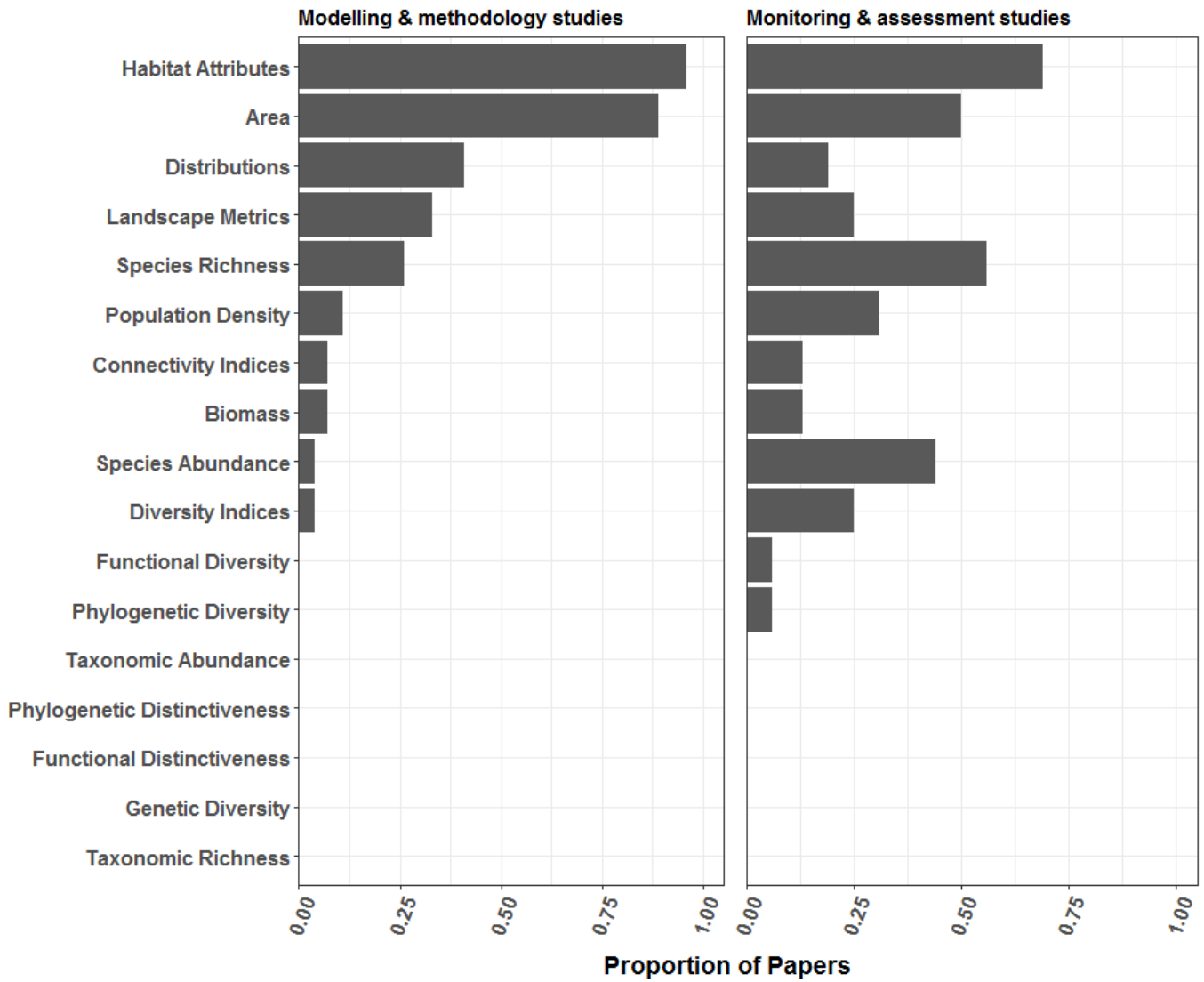


Figure 4: Proportion of papers (x axis) within two broad classes of the offsetting literature (n=43), modelling and methodology (n=27) and monitoring and assessment (n=16), which measured or used the listed metrics (y-axis). Definitions of each category and their sub-categories is given Table A.2.