



Understanding the State of the Ocean:

A Global Manual on Measuring SDG 14.1.1, SDG 14.2.1
and SDG 14.5.1

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ISBN No: 978-92-807-3786-8

Job No: DEW/2284/NA

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Suggested Citation

United Nations Environment Programme (2021). *Understanding the State of the Ocean: A Global Manual on Measuring SDG 14.1.1, SDG 14.2.1 and SDG 14.5.1*. Nairobi.

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Understanding the State of the Ocean:

A Global Manual on Measuring SDG 14.1.1, SDG 14.2.1 and SDG 14.5.1

Foreword



Healthy, well-managed oceans are central to sustainable development and the future of the planet. Covering almost three quarters of the Earth's surface, the ocean contains 97% of its water and supports every life form that inhabits it. The ocean produces over half of the oxygen in the atmosphere and regulates the Earth's climate. It is crucial to the global economy, supporting key industries such as fisheries, transport, trade and tourism.

Our impact on the ocean is immense and we need to urgently turn around its destruction. In order to sustainably manage and protect oceans, we need to better understand the oceans. What is the state of pollution, ecosystem health and biodiversity? How is pollution impacting ecosystems and where? Are our efforts to curb nutrient and plastic pollution working in the way that we would expect? Who are the winners and losers in terms of where pollution accumulates? How does pollution from one country impact other countries and the rest of the world? In order to answer these questions, there is a need for comparable data which allows analysis of the ocean as a complete system.

Unfortunately, there are major gaps in our knowledge when it comes to oceans. Due to the vast size of marine ecosystems and the lack of access to remote marine areas, marine research and data collection is expensive and logistically challenging.

Historically, gathering data on oceans could only be done by oceanographic research vessels. However, today, remote sensing, citizen science and advanced modelling techniques provide new opportunities for better understanding the oceans.

In 2015, the world agreed on an ambitious plan to secure our ability to develop in a sustainable way while safeguarding our planet's capacity to sustain us. A healthy ocean is a central element to this Agenda. It underpins much of our sustainable development efforts, including those to eliminate poverty, hunger and ensure health and well-being for all. The Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) framework recognizes the importance of monitoring oceans with a dedicated goal on oceans (SDG 14). This includes targets dedicated to coastal eutrophication and marine debris, marine area management and conservation.

This report aims to provide guidance on how to bring together traditional monitoring techniques with new technologies and data science in order to better monitor our oceans in the context of the SDGs. The report focuses on the SDG indicators where UNEP is the custodian and responsible for global monitoring, including SDG 14.1.1(a) on coastal eutrophication; SDG 14.1.1(b) on marine debris, SDG 14.2.1 on marine area management and SDG 14.5.1 on protected areas and conservation. We hope that this guide will not only support governments and other stakeholders to better monitor, but also to develop policies that improve the health of our oceans.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'J. Liu', written in a cursive style.

Jian Liu
Director, Science Division
United Nations Environment Programme

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Acknowledgements

Understanding the State of the Ocean: A Global Manual on Measuring SDG 14.1.1, SDG 14.2.1 and, SDG 14.5.1 has been jointly prepared by the UNEP and UNEP-WCMC.

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The core drafting team wishes to particularly thank the following colleagues from various affiliations for their valued contributions: from the Group on Earth Observations (GEO) Blue Planet Initiative and the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA): Emily Smail, Samuel Djavidnia, Sophie Seeyave, Keith VanGraafeiland, Sathyadev Ramachandran, Veronica Lance, Paul DiGiacomo, and Heng Gu; from the Nitrogen Management Expert Group: Wim Vries, Josette Garnier, Maryna Stokal and Mark Sutton; from the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO): Britta Denise Hardesty, TJ Lawson, and Tim Reid; from the Global Citizen Science movement: Jessie Oliver, Dilek Fraisl and Anne Bowser; Henrik Enevoldsen (IOC-UNESCO); Virginie Hart (Independent Consultant); Eric Chassignet (Florida State University), and Julius Francis (Western Indian Ocean Marine Science Association).

Collaborating Experts

The process of developing this Manual also involved consultations with a broad group of experts on environment statistics and ocean sciences, who provided advice on the methodology and on the operationalization of the indicators proposed herein. The authors wish to sincerely thank the following experts who provided their input through the Expert Consultations held on this subject, virtually through the Community of Practice (CoP) and through the peer-review process: Genki Terauchi (NOWPAP), Emilio Mayorga (University of Washington), Francois Galgani (French Research Institute for Exploitation of the Sea (IFREMER)), Isabelle Ansorge (University of Cape Town), Albert Fischer (IOC-UNESCO), Emma Heslop (IOC-UNESCO); Alexander Turra (Joint Group of Experts on the Scientific Aspects of Marine Environmental Protection (GESAMP)/University of Sao Paulo), Lex Bouwman (PBL), Arthur Beusen (PBL), Darryl Banjoo (Institute of Marine Affairs, Trinidad and Tobago), Ved Chirayath (NASA Ames Laboratory for Advances Sensing), John Harrison (Washington State University), Nikolai Maximenko (University of Hawaii), Rose Osinde Alabaster (GEO Blue Planet), Simon Felgendreher (Federal Statistical Office of Germany), Luisa Espinosa (Columbian Marine and Coastal Research Institute (INVEMAR)), Ramesh Ramachandran (National Centre For Sustainable Coastal Management, India), Tatjana Hema (Mediterranean Action Plan), Ghada El Serafy (Aquawatch, Deltares), Blake Schaeffer (Aquawatch, United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)), Merrie-Beth Neely (Aquawatch, Global Science and Technology), Liana McManus (Global Resource Information Database (GRID) -Arendal), Costas Velis (University of Leeds), Imanol Zabaleta (Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology), Joana Veiga (Deltares), Paolo Corradi (European Space Agency), Peter Kershaw (GESAMP), Kei Ohno Woodall (Secretariat of the Basel, Rotterdam and Stockholm Conventions), Nao Takeuchi (UN-Habitat), Pascal Peduzzi (UNEP/GRID-Geneva), Michael Bordt (United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific(UNESCAP)), Emil Ivanov (United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD)), Reena Shah (United Nations Statistics Division), Angelina Gutierrez (NOAA), Owen Rowe (Baltic Marine Environment Protection Commission - HELCOM), Andrew Fitzgibbon (World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF)), Linwood Pendleton (WWF), Jackie Thomas (WWF Pacific), Andrew Moss (Queensland Department of Environment and Science), Authur Beusen (PBL Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency), Douglas Cripe (Group on Earth Observations), Jacqueline McGlade (Independent Consultant), Blake Shaeffer (US Environmental Protection Agency), Takashi Ohmura (Institute for Global Environmental Strategies, Japan), and Stefan Simis (Plymouth Marine Laboratory).

Further acknowledgements

UNEP-WCMC gratefully acknowledges in kind support from ODYSSEA (<http://odysseaplatform.eu/>), a project funded by the European Union's (EU) Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme. The United Nations Environment Programme gratefully acknowledges funding from the Government of Norway, which contributed to this document through the development of National Source Inventories for marine litter. The authors also thank all those who answered an online survey circulated in 2017, in support of this work.

Section



List of acronyms

ASTER	Advanced Spaceborne Thermal Emission and Reflection Radiometer
AZE	Alliance for Zero Extinction
BOD	Biological oxygen demand
CAFF	Conservation of Arctic Flora and Fauna
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CCAMLR	Convention for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources
CEOS	Committee on Earth Observation Satellites
CMEMS	Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service
COD	Chemical oxygen demand
CoP	Community of Practice
CPPS	Commission for the South Pacific
CSIRO	Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation
CZCS	Coastal Zone Color Scanner
DIN	Dissolved inorganic nitrogen
DIP	Dissolved inorganic phosphorus
EBSA	Ecologically or Biologically Significant marine Areas
EEZ	Exclusive Economic Zone
EPA	United States Environmental Protection Agency
ESA	European Space Agency
EU	European Union
EUMETSAT	European Organisation for the Exploitation of Meteorological Satellites
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization (of the United Nations)
GCOM-C	Global Changing Observation Mission
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEF-TWAP	Global Environment Facility Transboundary Waters Assessment Programme
GEO	Group on Earth Observations
GESAMP	Joint Group of Experts on the Scientific Aspects of Marine Environmental Protection
GIS	Geographic information system
GRID	Global Resource Information Database
HELCOM	Baltic Marine Environment Protection Commission – Helsinki Commission
HYCOM	Hybrid Coordinate Ocean Model
IAEG-SDGs	Inter-agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators
IBA	Important Bird and Biodiversity Area
IBTS	International Bottom Trawl Surveys

ICC	International Coastal Clean-up
ICEP	Indicator for Coastal Eutrophication Potential
ICZM	Integrated Coastal Zone Management
IFREMER	French Research Institute for Exploitation of the Sea
IMO	International Maritime Organisation
INVEMAR	Colombian Marine and Coastal Research Institute
IOC-UNESCO	Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
JAMP	Joint Assessment and Monitoring Programme
JAXA	Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency
JRC	Joint Research Council (of the European Commission)
KBA	Key Biodiversity Area
LME	Large Marine Ecosystem
MAB	Man and Biosphere Reserves
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MERIS	Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer
MODIS	Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer
MPA	Marine Protected Area
MPW	mismanaged plastic waste
MSFD	Marine Strategy Framework Directive
MSP	Marine (or Maritime) Spatial Planning
MT	metric tons
NASA	National Aeronautics and Space Administration
NCODA	Navy Coupled Ocean Data Assimilation
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
NOWPAP	Northwest Pacific Action Plan
NUFER	Nutrient flows in Food chains, Environment and Resources use
OC_CCI	Ocean Colour Climate Change Initiative
OSPAR	Oslo Paris Convention for the Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic
OLCI	Ocean and Land Colour Instrument
PERSGA	Regional Organization for the Conservation of the Environment of the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden
PML	Plymouth Marine Laboratory
PNN	National Natural Parks (Colombia)
PSSA	Particularly Sensitive Sea Area
ROMPE	Regional organization for the Protection of the Marine Environment
RUNAP	Colombian National Register of Protected Areas (in Spanish: Registro Único de Áreas Protegidas)
SeaWiFS	Sea-Viewing Wide Field-of-View Sensor
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SEEA-EEA	System of Environmental Economic Accounting – Experimental Ecosystem Accounting
SPREP	Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environment Programme

TDN	total dissolved nitrogen
TDP	total dissolved phosphorus
TOC	Total organic carbon
TSS	Total Suspended Sediment
UAC	Coastal and Oceanic Environmental Unit (in Spanish: Unidad Ambiental Costera)
UN	United Nations
UNESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNEP-MAP	UNEP Mediterranean Action Plan (also Barcelona Convention)
UNEP-WCMC	UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNSD	United Nations Statistics Division
VIIRS	Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite
VME	Vulnerable Marine Ecosystem
WDPA	World Database on Protected Areas
WFD	Water Framework Directive
WHS	World Heritage Site
WWF	World Wildlife Fund for Nature

Section

LR

List of Regional Seas Programmes

Antarctic Sea	Commission for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR), Antarctic Treaty
Arctic Sea	Arctic Council, Ottawa Declaration
Baltic Sea	Helsinki Commission (HELCOM), Helsinki Convention
Black Sea	Black Sea Commission, Bucharest Convention
Caspian Sea	Caspian Environment Programme, Tehran Convention
East Asian Seas	East Asian Seas Action Plan
Mediterranean Sea	UNEP Mediterranean Action Plan (UNEP-MAP), Barcelona Convention
Northeast Atlantic	Oslo-Paris Convention (OSPAR) for the Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic
Northeast Pacific	Antigua Convention
Northwest Pacific	Northwest Pacific Action Plan (NOWPAP)
Pacific	Pacific Regional Environment Programme, Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environment Programme (SPREP), Noumea Convention
Red Sea and Gulf of Aden	Regional Organization for the Conservation of the Environment of the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden (PERSGA), Jeddah Convention
ROMPE Sea Area*	Regional organization for the Protection of the Marine Environment (ROMPE), Kuwait Convention <i>*(the ROMPE Sea Area refers to the marine and coastal areas of Bahrain, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates)</i>
Sargasso Sea	Hamilton Declaration
South Asian Seas	South Asia Cooperative Environment Programme, South Asian Seas Action Plan
Southeast Pacific	Permanent Commission for the South Pacific (CPPS), Lima Convention
West and Central Africa	Abidjan Convention
Western Indian Ocean	Nairobi Convention
Wider Caribbean	Caribbean Environment Programme, Cartagena Convention



Section

ES

Executive summary

Importance and challenge of monitoring the ocean

The ocean provides essential ecosystem services for human populations, from global climate regulation to local livelihoods and nutrition.

Monitoring is key to understanding the ocean: How is the state of the ocean changing? Who is benefiting from the change and who is losing out? What is causing the changes? How well are our efforts to address the changes working?

The ocean covers 70 percent of the surface of the Earth. Yet, compared to terrestrial systems, marine ecosystems and biodiversity are still poorly understood. The main reason for our limited understanding of the ocean is that most marine ecosystems are remote, vast in size and difficult to access, making marine research expensive and logistically challenging. Gathering data on marine biodiversity and ecosystem conditions requires advanced technologies and equipment, such as oceanographic research vessels, submersibles, remotely operated vehicles, specially designed sensors and remote sensing facilities. Moreover, the dynamic and connected nature of the marine environment present additional challenges: monitoring methodologies that work well in one location may not be suitable or relevant in another.

When monitoring the ocean, it is important to consider the high degree of connectivity that exists within the marine environment, but also between marine and terrestrial systems. Most of the changes in marine ecosystems are caused by activities on land. For example, nutrient run-off from agriculture is a main cause of eutrophication of coastal waters, and mismanaged plastic waste from coastal communities often ends up in the ocean. About 40 percent of the Earth's population lives on the coast, and approaches like Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM) have recognised the need for integrated marine and terrestrial management of these coastal zones. In this context, it is important to note that the agreed Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) 14 Indicators (and proposed indicators) relate to measuring the state and quality of the impacted ecosystems, rather than measuring the drivers and pressures underlying these. Hence, their purpose is to assess the success of measures put in place to prevent marine issues such as marine litter or eutrophication. Although this manual focuses on measuring the marine environment, it is important to use this information in conjunction with other information related to the terrestrial environment, freshwater, climate and the socio-economic situation

SDG 14 ‘Life below water’ and country-level perspectives

Sustainable Development Goal SDG 14 ‘Life below water’ sets the aim to conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources

for sustainable development. United Nations Programme (UNEP) is the custodian agency for the following indicators related to SDG 14:

14.1.1a Index of Coastal Eutrophication

14.1.1b Plastic debris density

14.2.1 Number of countries using ecosystem-based approaches to manage marine areas

14.5.1 Coverage of protected areas in relation to marine areas

The purpose of *Understanding the State of the Ocean: A Global Manual on Measuring SDG 14.1.1, SDG 14.2.1 and SDG 14.5.1* or simply referred to as the *Global Manual on Ocean Statistics* is to support countries in their efforts to track progress against the delivery of SDG 14, by providing a step-by-step guide for compiling the three indicators (14.1.1.a,

14.1.1.b and 14.2.1) under UNEP custodianship (see Table 1 for indicators and related SDG 14 Targets). This document provides a step-by-step structure of the indicator methodologies, which was thought to promote coherent approaches across and within countries.

Table 1: SDG 14 Targets for which UNEP is the custodian agency of the indicators.

SDG Target 14.1 is analogous to Aichi Target 81 of the UN Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2010-2020, for which global indicators are not yet available. SDG Target 14.5 is analogous to Aichi Target 112.

Target number	Target name	Indicator number	Indicator name	Custodian agency (and others involved)	Tier class
14.1	By 2025, prevent and significantly reduce marine pollution of all kinds, in particular from land-based activities, including marine debris and nutrient pollution	14.1.1a	Index of Coastal Eutrophication (ICEP)	UNEP (Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (IOC-UNESCO), Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO))	2
		14.1.1b	Plastic debris density	UNEP (IOC-UNESCO, FAO)	2
14.2	By 2020, sustainably manage and protect marine and coastal ecosystems to avoid significant adverse impacts, including by strengthening their resilience, and take action for their restoration in order to achieve healthy and productive oceans	14.2.1	Number of countries using ecosystem-based approaches to manage marine areas	UNEP (IOC-UNESCO, FAO)	2
14.5	By 2020, conserve at least 10 per cent of coastal and marine areas, consistent with national and international law and based on the best available scientific information	14.5.1	Coverage of protected areas in relation to marine areas	UNEP (UNEP World Conservation Monitoring Centre (UNEP-WCMC))	1

1 Aichi Target 8: *By 2020, pollution, including from excess nutrients, has been brought to levels that are not detrimental to ecosystem function and biodiversity.* For more information about the target: <https://www.cbd.int/aichi-targets/target/8>

2 Aichi Target 11: *By 2020, at least 17 per cent of terrestrial and inland water, and 10 per cent of coastal and marine areas, especially areas of particular importance for biodiversity and ecosystem services, are conserved through effectively and equitably managed, ecologically representative and well connected systems of protected areas and other effective area-based conservation measures, and integrated into the wider landscapes and seascapes.* For more information about the target: <https://www.cbd.int/aichi-targets/target/11>


For SDG Indicator 14.5.1, an internationally established methodology already exists and thus it is not extensively covered in this manual. Instead, the *Global Manual on Ocean Statistics* points towards the existing methodology for SDG Indicator 14.5.1 which is based on the World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA). The coverage of protected areas in relation to marine areas is calculated using the WDPA, based on national data which countries either submit into the WDPA, or approve.

The *Global Manual on Ocean Statistics* provides step-by-step methodologies for implementing the indicators for SDG Indicators 14.1.1a, 14.1.1b and 14.2.1. The methodologies are designed to be globally applicable approaches that provide the minimum data required to implement the SDG indicators at country-level. This is particularly relevant to countries with limited resources and technical capacities, notably countries with relatively large marine national waters such as “island nations”.



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**Context of Understanding
the *State of the
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SDG 14.1.1, SDG 14.2.1
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PART 1

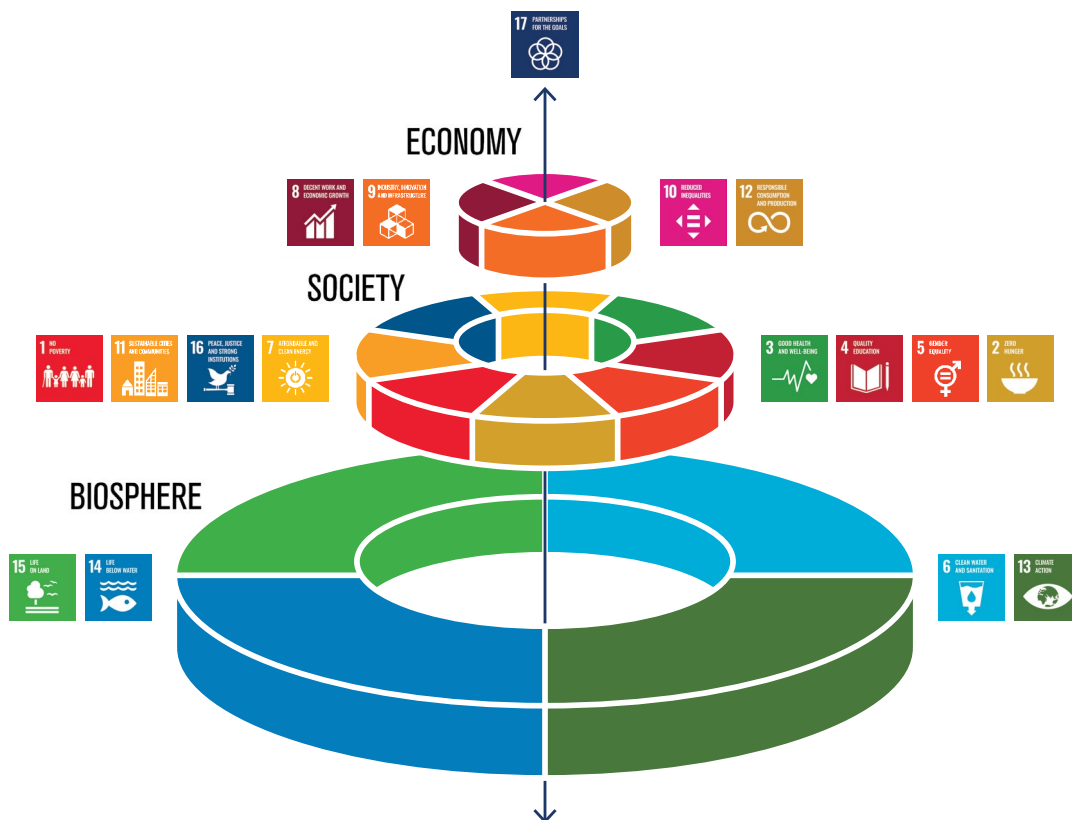
Context of *Understanding the State of the Ocean:*

A Global Manual on Measuring SDG 14.1.1, SDG 14.2.1 and SDG 14.5.1

Sustainable Development Goals and indicators

At the United Nations (UN) General Assembly in September 2015, Heads of States and Governments agreed on 17 SDGs as framework for the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The SDGs integrate the three dimensions of sustainable development (biosphere, society and economy, as illustrated in Figure 1) and aim

to foster action for people, planet, prosperity, peace and partnership. For each high-level goal, a number of specific targets have been agreed by the countries. (Further details on the individual SDGs and targets can be found at <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdgs>).



Source: Azote Images for Stockholm Resilience Center

Figure 1: *Illustration of the 17 SDGs across the three spheres of sustainable development: biosphere, society and economy.*

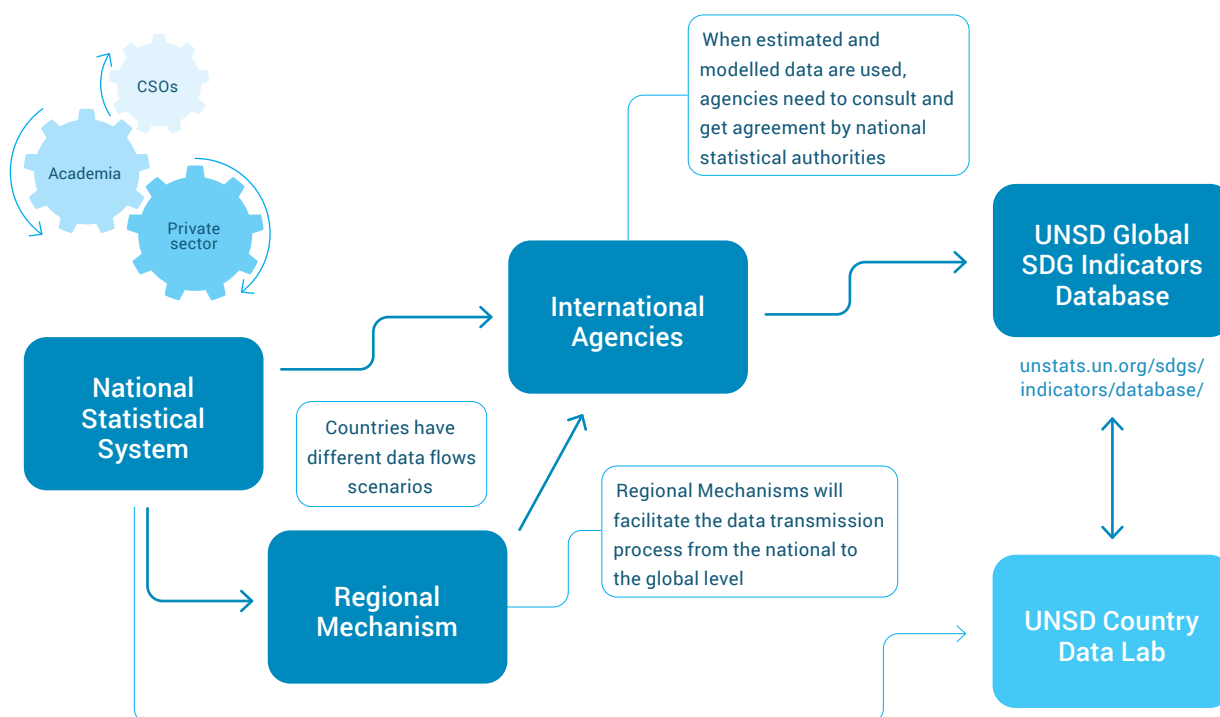
To keep track of progress against these global goals and associated targets, the Inter-agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators (IAEG-SDGs) developed a framework of over 200 indicators, which was adopted by the UN General Assembly in July 2017. Countries are leading on the delivery of the SDGs, on a voluntary basis, and are encouraged to use the framework of globally agreed indicators to report on

progress. This will require a significant level of capacity and resources from countries: many indicators do not currently have internationally established methodologies nor available data and/or associated monitoring schemes in place. Countries are encouraged to prioritise and develop their various monitoring schemes over time, in accordance to their national capacities.

Data and information flows for reporting on SDG indicators

Currently, there are few consistent approaches for data collection and reporting for global targets such as the SDGs, or the Aichi Targets of the UN Strategic Plan for Biodiversity (2010-2020). While social and economic data might be collected by National Statistics Offices in the countries, environmental and ecological data are often

collected by Non-Governmental Organisations and research institutes at country, regional or even global levels. To support the global reporting process for SDGs, the IAEG-SDGs is developing guidelines on data and information flows from national to global levels, as illustrated in Figure 2.



Source: Guidelines on data flows and global data reporting, 5th Meeting of the IAEG-SDGs, 30-31 March 2017, Ottawa

Figure 2: Anticipated Sustainable Development Goal data flow and reporting process.

According to the IAEG-SDGs reporting guidelines, the monitoring data underlying the indicators will be collected and processed at the national level by relevant public and private-sector institutions and brought together in reporting platforms by the National Statistics Office of the country. From here, the data and information will be transmitted to international agencies, either directly or through regional mechanisms such as the Regional Seas Programmes³. The international agencies will then aggregate the country-level data at regional and global levels and submit these aggregates, along with the country data, into the Global SDG Indicators Database, which is maintained by the UNSD⁴.

Each SDG indicator falls under the responsibility of a specific international agency which functions as custodian agency for the indicator. Custodian agencies are UN bodies and other international organisations, such as the UNEP-WCMC, that are responsible for facilitating the data and information flow from the national to the global level. The custodian agencies also have the responsibility to standardise SDG indicator methodologies and to support countries in strengthening national statistical capacity and reporting mechanisms.

Complexities of ocean monitoring and marine indicators

Note that there is a layer of complexity added by a multitude of different jurisdictions, or lack thereof, in the ocean. Depending on the country, territorial waters can extend to 12 nautical miles and exclusive economic zones (national waters) can reach out to 200 nautical miles. However, over 60 percent of the ocean surface and nearly 95 percent of the volume lie in areas beyond national jurisdiction, also called the high seas, where responsibilities for monitoring and reporting are not always straightforward.

In the high seas, monitoring often relies on international scientific cooperation efforts, due to the vast areas involved and the cost of accessing

remote marine environments, including the deep sea. One cost-effective method for accessing these areas, requiring low technological capacity, is through international remote sensing initiatives that use satellite telemetry to monitor large areas of the high seas over time. These remote sensing initiatives provide insight on physical, biological and biogeochemical ocean parameters. However, satellite sensors are less suitable for monitoring species and habitat biodiversity, or even pollutants such as marine plastics, for which *in situ* data collection is usually more appropriate. The issue here is that the cost of *in situ* monitoring and lack of national mandates in the high seas limit the options for such primary data collection.

3 For information about the Regional Seas Programmes: <http://web.unep.org/regionalseas/who-we-are/regional-seas-programmes>

4 <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>

About *Understanding the State of the Ocean: A Global Manual on Measuring SDG 14.1.1, SDG 14.2.1 and SDG 14.5*

The *Global Manual on Ocean Statistics* provides guidance for national governments and national institutions to support the country-level implementation of SDG Indicators 14.1.1a, 14.1.1b, 14.2.1 and 14.5.1 in their national waters.

Note that there are a number of challenges and limitations facing monitoring in the high seas. Particularly problematic are transboundary

marine issues such as ocean acidification or marine plastics. For such issues, the monitoring of national waters, which is the primary focus of the SDG indicators, only shows part of the picture. This manual focuses on national monitoring, but there is a need for additional research and support to measure the areas beyond national jurisdiction for analytical use, including for analysis of the SDGs

Progressive monitoring approach

Agenda 2030 is a country-led and country-owned process. The *Global Manual on Ocean Statistics* embraces this approach which places responsibility on countries to monitor and report data on all SDG indicators. The environmental dimension of the SDG indicators is relatively new compared to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and nationally derived environmental data has not often been captured before. With this in mind, the methodology proposed in this manual encourages the use of globally available environmental data to enhance country-derived data, filling data gaps and enabling countries to more rapidly make progress towards achieving SDG targets. For SDG 14.1.1, both coastal eutrophication and marine litter, a progressive monitoring approach is proposed which brings together globally modelled data and national data. This same approach has been adopted for other SDG indicator methodologies, such as Indicator 6.6.1 and 15.3.1.

This progressive monitoring approach means that countries can utilize both globally- and

nationally- derived data to report on Indicator 14.1.1. Where countries have the data and capacity to do so, they should aim to report on all aspects of Indicator 14.1.1. While it is beneficial to capture data on all aspects of the Indicator, it is recognised that not all countries may have all required data available to achieve this. Therefore, the progressive monitoring approach presented here encourages different levels of ambition, depending on a country's capacity.

The progressive monitoring approach uses 3 Levels. Level 1 data utilizes data which is already globally available and for which UNEP will produce data products. This allows to establish a foundation which can be strengthened by countries as they develop capacity and ability to report on Level 2 data and Level 3 data. Level 2 data is recommended for national data collection in all countries. Level 3 data is a list of supplementary information which is suggested that countries consider monitoring, but this manual does not go into detail on the Level 3 indicators. All globally available data

will be shared with national statistical offices and other relevant authorities for in-country validation. Since this global data is derived from

global algorithms, some countries may choose to provide their own data derived from regionally tuned algorithms as part of the Level 2 data.

Definitions

Eutrophication – excess nutrient loading into coastal environments from anthropogenic sources, resulting in excessive growth of aquatic plants, algae and phytoplankton.

Marine litter - any persistent, manufactured or processed solid material which is lost or discarded and ends up in the marine and coastal environment.

Coastal Zone – national Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) (200 nautical miles from the coast) as outlined by the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea.



2

**Step-by-step guides to
indicator implementation**

PART
2

Step-by-step guides to indicator implementation

Indicator 14.1.1a: Index of Coastal Eutrophication (including ICEP)



Target 14.1: By 2025, prevent and significantly reduce marine pollution of all kinds, in particular from land-based activities, including marine debris and nutrient pollution

Background

Coastal areas are areas of high productivity where inputs from land, sea, air and people converge. With over 40 percent of the human population residing in coastal areas, ecosystem degradation in these areas can have disproportionate effects on society (IGOS 2006). One of the largest pressures on coastal environments is eutrophication, resulting primarily from land-based nutrient input from agricultural runoff and domestic wastewater discharge. Coastal eutrophication can lead to serious damage to marine ecosystems, vital sea habitats, and can cause the spread of harmful algal blooms.

Target 14.1 aims to reduce the impacts of pollution through prevention and reduction of marine pollution of all kinds, in particular from land-based activities, including marine debris and nutrient pollution. Due to the significant amount of data

and resources required to calculate nutrient loading, a progressive methodology is proposed which promotes country-derived data collection to be complemented by other globally available datasets such as publicly available satellite remote sensing products that can be used as proxy indicators for eutrophication. Note that it is important to consider the sources of nitrogen in developing nitrogen related interventions.

Proposed indicators for SDG reporting

SDG Indicator 14.1.1a aims to measure the contribution to coastal eutrophication from countries and the state of coastal eutrophication. Therefore, two levels of indicators are recommended with an optional third level for relevant countries:

Level 1: Proposed global indicators

- Indicator for Coastal Eutrophication Potential (based on Nitrogen and Phosphate loadings)
- Chlorophyll-a deviations and anomalies

Level 2: Proposed national indicators

- Chlorophyll-A concentration
- National modelling of coastal eutrophication potential
- *In-situ* concentration of nitrogen, phosphate and silica

Level 3: Supplementary indicator

- Described in the below table for information. The *in-situ* indicators proposed below match with the methods presented in SDG 6.3.2: Proportion of bodies of water with good ambient water quality

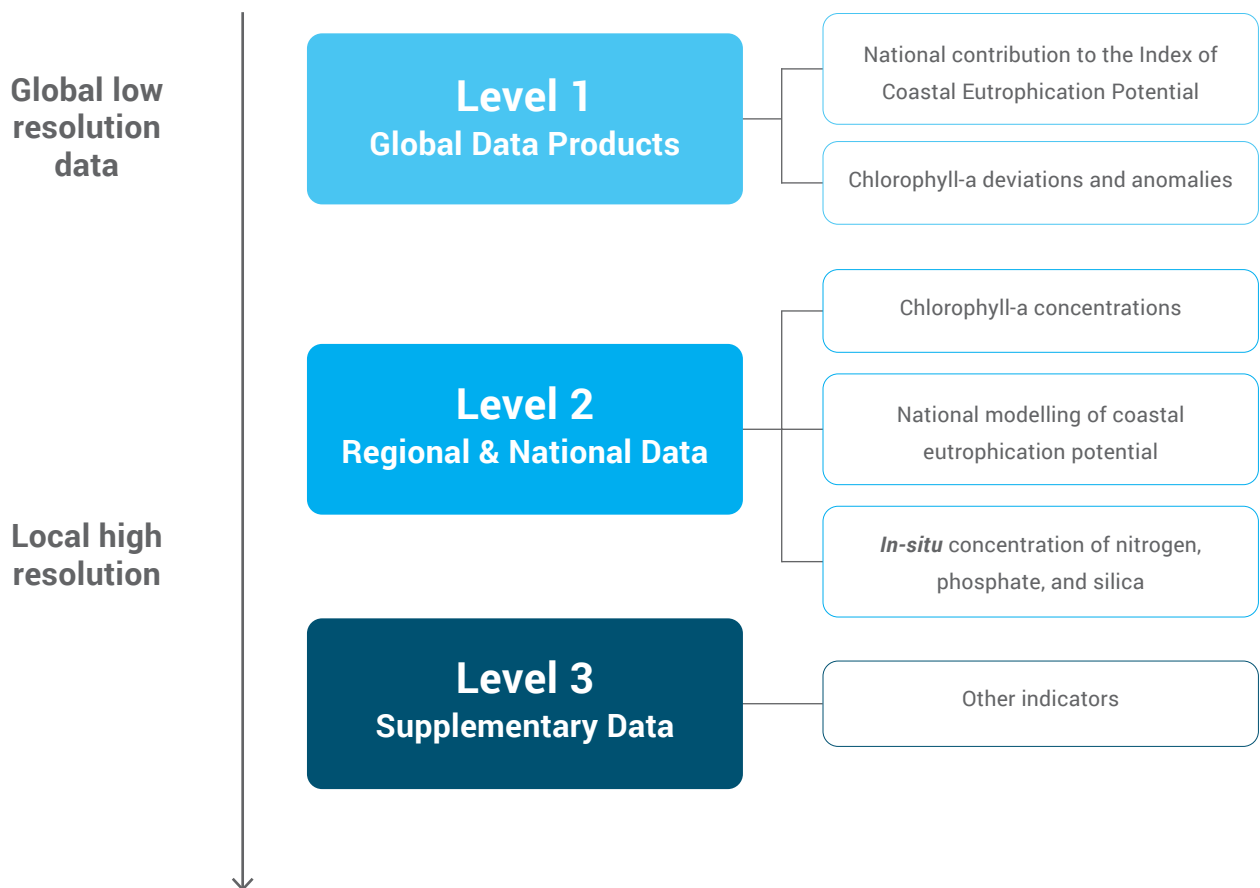


Figure 3: Summary of SDG 14.1.1a sub indicator levels

Table 2: Monitoring parameters for eutrophication to track progress against SDG Indicator 14.1.1a.

These indicators are marked as levels 1, 2 or 3, level 1 being global data or globally modelled, level 2 including national monitoring and level 3 describing supplementary/recommended indicators.

Monitoring parameters	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Indicator for Coastal Eutrophication Potential (N and P loading)	×		
Chlorophyll-a deviations (remote sensing)	×		
Chlorophyll-a concentration (<i>remote sensing and in situ</i>)		×	
National modelling of ICEP		×	
Total Nitrogen of DIN (dissolved inorganic nitrogen)		×	
Total Phosphorus or DIP (dissolved inorganic phosphorus)		×	
Total silica		×	
Dissolved oxygen			×
Biological/chemical oxygen demand (BOD/COD)			×
Total organic carbon (TOC)			×
Turbidity (remote sensing)			×
River parameters from SDG 6.3.2			×
Other water parameters (O ₂ % saturation, Secchi depth, river discharge, salinity, temperature, pH, alkalinity, organic carbon, toxic metals, persistent organic pollutants)			×
Microalgal growth, harmful algal blooms, submerged aquatic vegetation coverage, biodiversity and hypoxia			×

Step-by-step guide to implementing the indicator

Level 1: Indicator for coastal eutrophication potential

This indicator is based on loads and ratios of nitrogen, phosphorous and silica delivered by rivers to coastal waters (Garnier *et al.* 2010) which contribute to the ICEP. This indicator assumes that excess nitrogen or phosphorus relative to silica will result in increased growth of potentially harmful algae (ICEP>0). The basis for these loads is collected from land-based assessments of land use including fertilizer use, population density, socioeconomic factors and other contributors to nutrient pollution runoff. Given the land-based nature of the indicator, it provides a modelled number indicating the risk

of coastal eutrophication at a specific river mouth. The indicator can be further developed by incorporating *in situ* monitoring to evaluate the dispersion of concentrations of nitrogen, phosphorous and silica to ground-truth the index. The indicator assumes that excess concentrations of nitrogen or phosphorus relative to silica will result in increased growth of potentially harmful algae (ICEP>0). ICEP is expressed in kilograms of carbon (from algae biomass) per square kilometre of river basin area per day (kg C km⁻² day⁻¹).

The ICEP model is calculated using one of two equations depending on whether nitrogen or phosphorus is limiting. The equations (Billen and Garnier 2007) are

$$ICEP (N \text{ limiting}) = [NFlx/(14*16) - SiFlx/(28*20)] * 106 * 12$$

$$ICEP (P \text{ limiting}) = [PFlx/31 - SiFlx/(28*20)] * 106 * 12$$

Where PFlx, NFlx and SiFlx are respectively the mean specific values of total phosphorus, total nitrogen and dissolved silica delivered at the mouth of the river basin, expressed in kg P km⁻² day⁻¹, in kg N km⁻² day⁻¹ and in kg Si km⁻² day⁻¹.

In order to populate the variables in the ICEP, the values of total nitrogen, total phosphorus and dissolved silica delivered at the mouth of the river basin must be modelled. There are various methods that have been employed to model these values. The modelling is based on globally available data and data collected directly from countries. To quantify nutrient export by rivers, the information is needed for hydrology, socio-economic drivers, urbanization and nutrient

management. Hydrology can be derived from various global hydrological models. The socio-economic, urbanization and nutrient management data are available from different sources (e.g., FAO national statistics, global models such as IMAGE, MAgPIE, Globiom model), but vary greatly in spatial and temporal level of detail (e.g., national versus 0.5-degree cell). Examples of the required data to quantify nutrient export by rivers is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Examples of the data needed to quantify nutrient export by rivers that is used in ICEP estimates

Hydrology and retentions in rivers	Actual (“disturbed”) basin discharge
	Natural (“pristine”) basin discharge
	Fraction removed through consumptive water use
	Basin-wide dam retention factor for DIN
	Basin-wide dam retention factor for DIP
Socio-economic data	Basin-wide dam retention factor for Total Suspended Sediment (TSS)
	GDP, at market exchange rate
	GDP at purchasing power parity
	Population Density
	Urban Population Density
	Density of population connected to sewage system
	Raw total elemental N & P emission to watershed from human waste (excrement)
Land use data	Raw total phosphorus emission to watersheds from detergents (laundry + dishwasher)
	Removal efficiencies of N and P during treatment
	Wetland
Nutrient management data	Agricultural land (e.g., cropland, legumes, pasture)
	Total fertilizer inputs to land
	Animal manure inputs to land and to rivers
	Atmospheric N deposition on land
	Biological N fixation by crops and natural vegetation

The Global NEWS model (originated in Seitzinger and Mayorga (2010) and applied in Stokal *et al* (2016)) is the most used global level analysis of basin level nutrient exports to river-mouths. This model uses river input data which takes into account fertilizer use, livestock data and other information mentioned in the above table and combines it with information on land cover and run-off modelling. It includes *point* and *diffuse* sources of nutrients in rivers, both of these are functions of the total dissolved nitrogen (TDN) and total dissolved phosphorus (TDP). For example, variables for point sources of nutrients include direct discharges of animal manure to rivers and human sewage and variables for diffuse sources of nutrients include manure and synthetic fertilizers used in croplands, atmospheric N deposition, biological N fixation, leaching of organic matter, and P-weathering. The Global NEWS model measures the coastal eutrophication potential at the river mouth (i.e. the point when water flows into the ocean).

For SDG indicator 14.1.1a, further sub-basin level information is needed in order to nationalize the contribution of nutrients by countries to the ICEP. The MARINA (Stokal *et al* 2016) is a downscaled version of Global NEWS. MARINA calculates river export of nutrients at a sub-basin level (Global NEWS at a basin level). MARINA brings in additional information on point source inputs of manure and direct discharge of human waste into rivers. The MARINA model tracks the inputs of nutrients into rivers, the retention of nutrients in rivers (which impacts river water quality) and the potential release of nutrients into the ocean. An important difference of MARINA from Global NEWS is that MARINA is able to calculate the contribution of upstream, middle stream and downstream activities to the coastal water pollution (contributing to coastal eutrophication).

For SDG 14.1.1a, the MARINA model will be used as the source of information for modelling the nutrient exports (of Nitrogen and Phosphate). MARINA can provide nutrient export from sub-basins to the river mouth (coastal waters) for countries that have the river mouths (these countries directly discharge nutrients to the coastal waters). For other counties (do not discharge directly to the coastal waters), MARINA can provide the information on the nutrient export by sub-basin that drain through those countries.

Additionally, UNEP aims to work with partners to make geospatial data on the nutrient flows and the ICEP at river mouths available every 5 years.

Level 1: Chlorophyll-A deviation modelling

Satellite-based assessments of ocean colour began in 1978 with the launch of the Coastal Zone Color Scanner (CZCS) aboard the NASA Nimbus 7 satellite. Following a decade-long break in observations, there have been continuous satellite ocean colour measurements since 1997 with Sea-Viewing Wide Field-of-View Sensor (SeaWiFS), followed by Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MERIS), Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS), Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS), Ocean Land Colour Instrument (OLCI), Second Generation Global Imager (SGLI) and Ocean Color and Temperature Scanner (OCTS) with additional sensors in development.

Data gaps from individual sensors are common due to revisit cycles, cloud cover, and spurious retrievals resulting from a host of confounding atmospheric and aquatic conditions. Some of these issues have been addressed by combining

data from multiple sensors and creating a consistent, merged ocean colour product (e.g., surface ocean chlorophyll-a concentration). The ESA Ocean Colour CCI (OC-CCI) project, led by Plymouth Marine Laboratory (PML), has produced a consistent, merged chlorophyll-a product from SeaWiFS, MODIS, MERIS and VIIRS, spanning the years 1997 to 2019 (Sathyendranath et al., 2018). The merged multi-sensor product will be updated in both time and with data from additional sensors (e.g., OLCI) as part of the Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) and the Copernicus Marine Service (CMEMS) that will continue the time series on an operational basis. Future OC-CCI releases will also include algorithmic improvements developed under the CCI+ initiative.

Chlorophyll-a concentrations for this indicator are obtained from the global ocean, 4 km spatial

resolution per pixel monthly mean product of the OC-CCI project product⁵ for each pixel within a country’s EEZ.

For purposes of this sub-indicator, reporting year values are compared to a baseline of years 2000 to 2004. The baseline climatology was calculated as the mean of the 5 years of each month by pixel (e.g., mean of 5 years of January) resulting in a 5 year mean of each calendar month over the period 2000 to 2004. The processing steps are outlined below and in figure 4.

1. Calculate the positive percent difference of monthly pixel values from the baseline monthly pixel values

Using the monthly baseline averages, the percentage difference of the pixel value for the reporting period from the baseline value will be calculated as follows:

$$\text{Percent difference of pixel value from baseline} = [(\gamma - \beta) / \beta] \times 100 \text{ values } > 0$$

Where β = the average monthly pixel chlorophyll-a concentration for years 2000 to 2004

Where γ = the average monthly pixel chlorophyll-a concentration for the reporting year

2. Identify pixels with deviations

Pixels with differences from the baseline that are in the 90th percentile of values >0 across the cumulative global EEZ area as defined in World EEZ v11⁶.

3. Calculate the percentage of the EEZ with deviations

The percentage of pixels in a country’s EEZ that are identified as deviating from the baseline (falling in the 90th percentile) will be calculated for each national EEZ by month. The annual average of these monthly values is then calculated.

5 <https://catalogue.ceda.ac.uk/uuid/5400de38636d43de9808bfc0b500e863>

6 <https://www.marineregions.org/downloads.php>

Sub-indicator 1 Processing

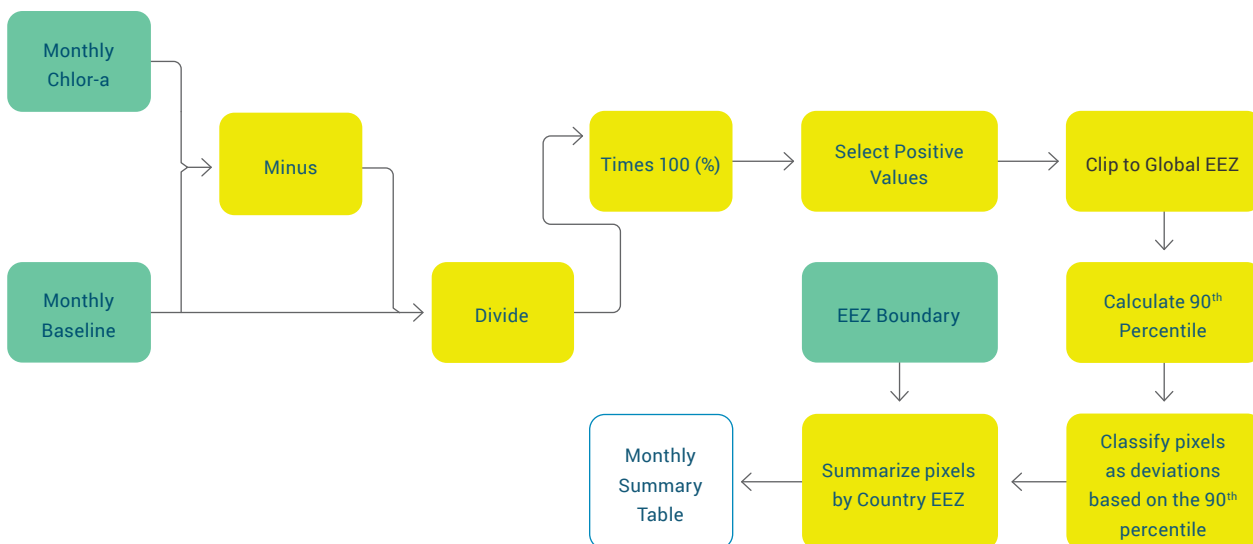


Figure 4: Process for Calculating the Annual Chlorophyll-a Deviations

Intra-annual EEZ chlorophyll-a anomalies

An additional sub-indicator will be provided to evaluate the intra-annual changes in chlorophyll-a concentration anomalies in each Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) using the NOAA VIIRS chlorophyll-a ratio anomaly product produced daily for the globe at 2 km spatial resolution. The daily global VIIRS chlorophyll-a concentrations are produced from the NOAA Multi-Sensor Level 1 to Level 2 (MSL12) processing of the VIIRS sensor on the Suomi SNPP satellite. [Wang et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2014] This anomaly product is defined as the daily chlorophyll-a concentration subtracted from a rolling 61-day mean baseline with a 15 day lag (based on Stumpf et al., 2003), then normalized to the rolling 61 day mean to create the proportional

difference anomaly ⁷. The processing steps are outlined below and in figure 5.

1. Classify and count pixels as moderate, high or extreme anomalies

For each day in the reporting year, pixels in the global EEZ area (as defined in World EEZ v11⁸) that are classified as:

- moderate (in the 90th percentile),
- high (in the 95th percentile) and
- extreme (in the 99th percentiles).

The number of days a given pixel is classified as moderate, high, or extreme within each month is then calculated. The number of days in each month where the pixel has valid data is also counted.

⁷ <ftp://ftp.star.nesdis.noaa.gov/pub/socd1/mecb/coastwatch/viirs/science/L3/global/chlora/anom/WW00/> (the proportional difference product is labelled as PDIF in the file, see <https://www.star.nesdis.noaa.gov/socd/mecb/color/notes.php> for processing notes.

⁸ <https://www.marineregions.org/downloads.php>

2. Calculating the monthly statistics

Because these anomalies are based on daily observations, data gaps are expected due to cloud cover, sun glint, high sensor zenith angle, high sun zenith angle, and other possible

algorithm flags. To avoid bias due to non-valid data retrievals, the frequencies are normalized using the number of days in the month with valid observations, as follows:

$$\text{Relative frequency of classified pixel chlorophyll-a anomalies} = \alpha_c / \epsilon$$

Where α = the number of days in the month with a classified (moderate, high or extreme anomaly) anomaly

Where c indicates the anomaly classification (moderate, high, or extreme anomaly)

Where ϵ = the number of days in the month with valid data

Finally, the monthly mean of the relative frequencies for each class is calculated for each EEZ, resulting in 3 monthly values, one value in each of the 3 classes for each country.

3. Calculating the annual statistics

The monthly statistics described above are also reported on an annualized basis by taking an average of the country's twelve monthly frequency values for the calendar year, for each EEZ.

Sub-indicator 2 Processing

STEP 1

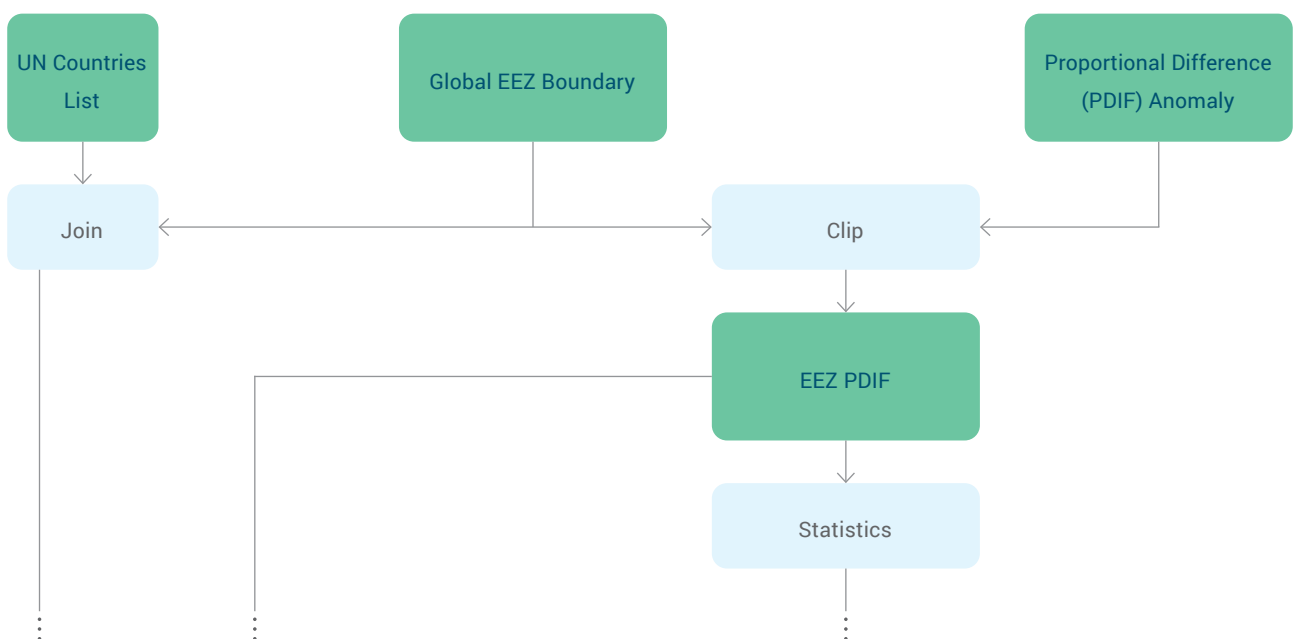
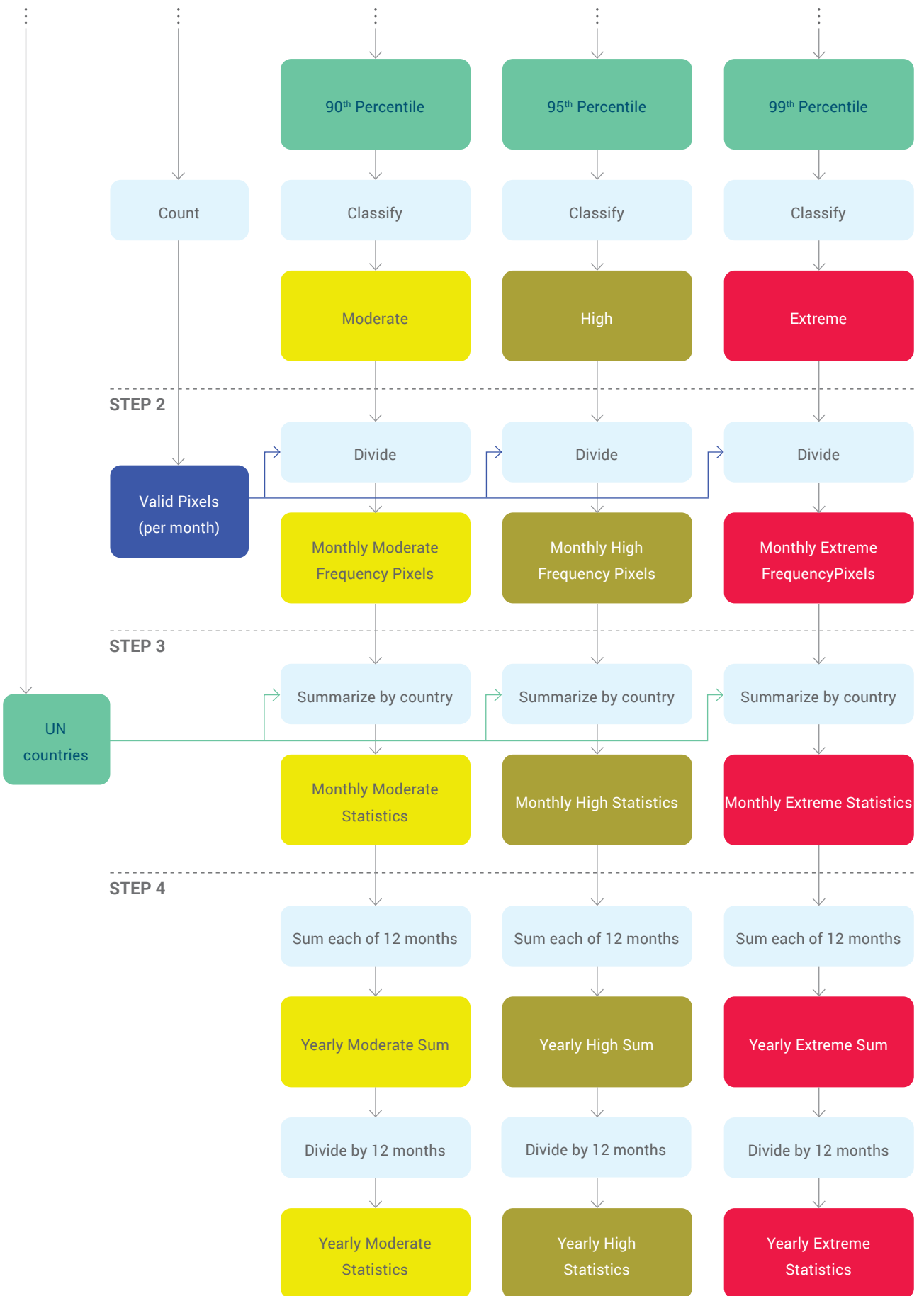


Figure 5: Process for Calculating the Intra-annual EEZ Chlorophyll-a Anomalies



Level 2: *In situ* monitoring of nutrients

Where national capacity to do so exists, *national level* measurements of Chlorophyll-a and other parameters (including nitrogen, phosphate and silica) (*in situ* or from remote sensing), should be used to complement and ground truth global remote sensing and modelled data and enable a more detailed assessment of eutrophication. In particular, monitoring of supplementary eutrophication parameters is advisable to determine whether an increase in Chlorophyll-a concentration is directly linked to an anthropogenic increase in nutrients. Please refer to Table 2 for parameters for monitoring eutrophication at the national level (Level 2).

Level 2: National ICEP modelling

Existing ICEP modelling at the national level is limited, but could be further developed following the model of a current study analysing basin level data in Chinese rivers (Strokal *et al* 2016). The study utilises Global NEWS – 2 (Nutrient Export from Watersheds) and Nutrient flows in Food chains, Environment and Resources use (NUFER) as models. The Global NEWS-2 model

is basin-scale and quantifies river export of various nutrients (nitrogen, phosphorus, carbon and silica) in multiple forms (dissolved inorganic, dissolved organic and particulate) as functions of human activities on land and basin characteristics (Strokal *et al* 2016). Furthermore, the model shows past and future trends. The NUFER model originally was established to quantify efficiencies in nutrient flows in the food chain and inform management options throughout the food chain. The study of Strokal *et al* (2016) develops the downscaled version (sub-basin scale) of Global NEWS. This level adds value because it can reveal nutrient issues in higher resolution, thus holding the potential to expose new hotspots. This could inform sub-basin-scale and innovative management approaches. In addition, the study couples these two models to better evaluate both point and diffuse nutrient sources.

Refining this same model at the national level could take into account more detailed information on livestock, fertilizer, sewage and various human activities. This would provide vital information to management approaches at a level that could implement action. Importantly, measuring and cataloguing the data from this model at a national level can further develop global understanding of nutrient pollution in oceans.

Indicator 14.1.1.b: Marine plastic debris

Background

Marine litter is found in all the world's oceans and seas. It constitutes an increasing risk to ecosystem health and biodiversity while entailing substantial economic costs through its impacts on public health, tourism, fishing and aquaculture. Marine plastics are of particular interest due to the fact that in the last 50 years, plastic production has increased more than 22-fold while the global recycling rate of plastics in 2015 was only an estimated 9%. This rise in plastic production and unmanaged plastic waste has resulted a growing threat to marine environments with an estimated 5-13 million tons of plastic from land-based sources ending up in marine environments.

Sources of plastics and microplastics to the ocean are many and varied, but the actual quantities involved remain largely unknown. Reliable quantitative comparisons between the input loads of macro and microplastics, their sources, originating sectors and users are not possible at present, and this represents a significant knowledge gap. Estimates of some sources, such as municipal solid waste, have been made. These are useful to focus attention, but the numbers should be treated with some caution due to the large uncertainties involved. How much of this material enters the ocean will be dependent largely on the extent and effectiveness of wastewater and solid waste collection and management.

There are large gaps in knowledge in terms of understanding marine plastics and microplastics: reliable figures for the volume of plastics entering the ocean, the accumulated volume of plastics in the marine environment, mapping of the source and sink location of plastics and basic data on microplastic are currently lacking. There is a need to use existing data from remote sensing, citizen science and *in situ* monitoring to better understand marine plastics and microplastics; however, much of the research in this field is at an initial stage and in many regions only data related to beach litter is available.

In the marine environment, as it relates to 14.1.1b, there are four fates for marine plastics and microplastics:

1. Washed onto beaches or shorelines (beach litter)
2. Floating on the water or in the water column
3. Deposited on the seafloor/seabed
4. Ingested by biota (e.g. sea birds).

The methodology for SDG 14.1.1b includes potential measurement of these four accumulation types; however, it is also important to note the importance of monitoring information on waste management and the sources of plastic pollution for understanding plastic pollution.

Proposed indicators for SDG reporting

The agreed indicator for marine plastic litter under SDG Target 14.1, as proposed by the IAEG-SDGs, is on marine plastic debris (14.1.1b). Based on the existing internationally agreed Group of Experts on the Scientific Aspects of Marine Environmental Protection (GESAMP)⁹ guidelines and the existing national data collections, it is recommended that the SDG reporting includes sub-indicators related to beach litter, floating plastic and plastic in the sea column, plastic on the sea floor and additional option indicators. Indicators on micro-litter may also be considered as optional. The proposed global indicators are based on feasibility and relevance. All indicators described below are consistent with the GESAMP guidelines on monitoring marine plastics which were published in 2019. The GESAMP 2019 is an internationally agreed standard which was launched in March 2019.¹⁰

Level 1: Proposed global indicators:

- Plastic patches greater than 10 meters (for Areas Beyond National Jurisdiction or Total Oceans)
- Beach litter originating from national land-based sources

Level 2: Proposed national indicators:

- Beach litter count per km² of coastline (surveys and citizen science data)
- Floating plastic debris density (visual observation, manta trawls)
- Water column plastic density (demersal trawls)
- Seafloor litter density (benthic trawls (e.g. fish survey trawls), divers, video/camera tows, submersibles, remotely operated vehicles)

Level 3: Supplementary indicators:

- These are listed in Table 6 for information, but are not described in detail in this manual.

9 More information on the UN Group of Experts on the Scientific Aspects of Marine Environmental Protection can be found here <http://www.gesamp.org/>. GESAMP is a collaboration of the UN System. The GESAMP working group 40 focuses on marine litter and then and involved experts on marine litter.

10 *Guidelines for the Monitoring and Assessment of Plastic Litter in the Ocean*, https://environmentlive.unep.org/media/docs/marine_plastics/une_science_division_gesamp_reports.pdf. The GESAMP 2019 was produced under working group 40

Table 6: Monitoring parameters for marine plastic litter to track progress against SDG Indicator 14.1.1b.

Monitoring parameters (and methods)	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Plastic patches greater than 10 meters*	×		
Beach litter originating from national land-based sources	×		
Beach litter (beach surveys)		×	
Floating plastics (visual observation, manta trawls)		×	
Water column plastics (demersal trawls)		×	
Seafloor litter (benthic trawls (e.g. fish survey trawls), divers, video/camera tows, submersibles, remotely operated vehicles)		×	
Beach litter microplastics (beach samples)			×
Floating microplastics (manta trawls, e.g. Continuous Plankton Recorder)			×
Water column microplastics (demersal plankton trawls)			×
Seafloor litter microplastics (sediment samples)			×
Plastic ingestion by biota (e.g. birds, turtles, fish)			×
Plastic litter in nests			×
Entanglement (e.g. marine mammals, birds)			×
Plastic pollution potential (based on the use and landfilling of plastics)			×
River litter			×
Other parameters related to plastic consumption and recycling			×
Health indicators (human health and ecosystem health)			×

* This indicator is most useful for areas beyond national jurisdiction or total ocean area, not for national monitoring. These indicators are marked as levels 1, 2 or 3, level 1 being global data or globally modelled, level 2 including national monitoring and level 3 describing supplementary/recommended indicators.

Step-by-step guide to implementing the indicator

Level 1: Plastic patches greater than 10 meters

Satellite-based global data products make up the statistics for this indicator. NASA and ESA both contribute satellite images to construct information on the plastic patches greater than 10 meters throughout the world’s oceans. Multi-spectral satellite remote sensing of plastic in the water column is currently only possible for larger elements (more than 10m) and under good atmospheric conditions (no clouds).

There are some promising methods looking at anomalies or particular signatures to identify ocean plastic. For example, ESA’s Sentinel-3 satellite has an ocean colour imager that is potentially detecting unique signatures or large agglomerations of plastic. However, this type of analysis is new. The applicability of this sub-indicator is considered within the scope of the SDG for discussion but is most relevant for areas beyond national jurisdiction and not to create national level indicators.

Level 1: Beach litter originating from national land-based sources

Modelling of litter movement through the oceans occurs through numerical models using inputs including ocean flow and marine plastic litter characteristics. UNEP and Florida State University are producing a global model of marine litter using OceanParcels v2.0, a state-of-the-art Lagrangian Ocean analysis framework to create customizable particle tracking simulation using outputs from ocean circulation models. The ocean circulation model outputs used here

are from the GOF3.1, a global ocean forecast system based on the Hybrid Coordinate Ocean Model (HYCOM) and the Navy Coupled Ocean Data Assimilation (NCODA). NCODA uses the 24-hour model forecast as a first guess in a 3D variational scheme and assimilates available satellite altimeter observations, satellite, and in-situ sea surface temperature as well as in-situ vertical temperature and salinity profiles from XBTs, Argo floats and moored buoys. Surface information is projected downward into the water column using Improved Synthetic Ocean Profiles (Helber *et al.* 2013). The horizontal resolution and output frequency for the GOF3.1 outputs are 8 km at the equator, 6 km at mid-latitudes and 3-hourly, respectively.

OceanParcels v2.0 is a Lagrangian ocean analysis framework designed to combine (1) a wide flexibility to model particles of different natures and (2) an efficient implementation in accordance with modern computing infrastructure. The latest version includes a set of interpolation schemes to read various types of discretized fields, from rectilinear to curvilinear grids in the horizontal direction, from z- to s- levels in the vertical and different variable distributions such as the Arakawa’s A-, B- and C- grids (Delandmeter and van Sebille, 2019).

The primary challenge of modelling the global displacement of marine litter is the large uncertainties associated with the amount and location of mismanaged plastic waste (MPW) entering the ocean. A zero-order estimate is provided by Jambeck *et al.* (2015) who estimated the total amount of plastic waste generated by 192 coastal countries to be 275 million metric tons (MT) of plastic waste, with 4.8 to 12.7 million

MT entering the ocean in 2010. This data was used to seed the model which is proposed for use for SDG 14.1.1b. This was used to estimate where plastics that would be found on the coast likely originated from. As a simple example, for Kenya, based on this model, of the plastic which ends up on beaches, 11% likely originated from Kenya, 60% likely came from countries in Africa and 29% likely came from outside the region. This model can be produced annually and updated as better waste emissions data becomes available for countries.

Level 2: Beach litter (average count of plastic items per km²)

METHODOLOGY: Beach litter surveys following the UNEP/Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (IOC-UNESCO) operational guidelines¹¹ (Cheshire *et al.* 2009) and GESAMP Guidelines (GESAMP 2019)

- **Step one:** Identify the national authority responsible for gathering data and reporting on marine pollution and the agency/organisation responsible for implementing beach litter surveys.
- **Step two:** Explore the use of existing data which is being collected by citizen science initiatives and beach clean ups.
- **Step three:** Conduct beach litter surveys following the UNEP/IOC-UNESCO operational guidelines, which are provided in Appendix 4 and using resources from the GESAMP Guidelines (GESAMP 2019).

National efforts to collect data on beach litter can be supported by campaigns to engage members of the public as volunteers in beach clean-ups (see for example the Ocean Conservancy’s International Coastal Clean-up (ICC) initiative¹²) or citizen science programmes (see for example NOAA’s Marine Debris Monitoring and Assessment Citizen Science Project¹³). Specific instructions on how to conduct citizen science beach surveys are included in the GESAMP Guidelines (GESAMP 2019). They provide resources on previous citizen science projects and guidance for ensuring sound data collection and management with citizen science.

Beyond the tools used to conduct beach litter monitoring, it is important to consider the timing of surveys in order to properly plan effective surveys. The GESAMP Guidelines explain two main types of surveying beaches including rapid assessment surveys and routine shoreline monitoring. Rapid assessment surveys are best conducted in response to natural disasters, to build a baseline for future surveys and/or to identify beach litter hotspots. Routine shoreline monitoring is also important because it provides insight to beach litter accumulation in a particular location. It is best to identify national needs and then define the approach to accommodate those needs (GESAMP 2019).

Beach litter is an important parameter that all countries should monitor and report on. Where in-country capacity or opportunities exist to conduct more extensive marine litter monitoring, countries can also conduct surveys of floating plastics, plastics on the seafloor or microplastics (as described below).

11 The UNEP/IOC-UNESCO methodology for comprehensive beach surveys has been developed with reference to a number of existing survey protocols, including OSPAR and NOWPAP protocols.

12 Ocean Conservancy International Coastal Clean-up initiative: <https://oceanconservancy.org/trash-free-seas/international-coastal-cleanup/>

13 NOAA Marine Debris Monitoring and Assessment Citizen Science Project: <https://marinedebris.noaa.gov/research/marine-debris-monitoring-and-assessment-project>

Level 2: Floating plastics (average count of plastic items per km²)

METHODOLOGY: GESAMP Guidelines (GESAMP 2019)

- **Step one:** Identify the national authority responsible for gathering data and reporting on marine pollution and the agency/organisation responsible for monitoring floating plastics.
- **Step two:** Work with planning authority to understand local needs and determine the best monitoring approach. Descriptions of various approaches from the GESAMP Guidelines are listed in Table 7 adapted from the GESAMP Guidelines.

Table 7: Monitoring methods for floating plastics

Method	Description	Advantages	Limitations	Examples of use
Net tows	Floating plastics can be sampled using a specific net with wings built to keep it on the surface.	Easily deployed from small to large vessels Underway sampling Use of flow meter to estimate volume	Weather dependant Prone to contamination Volume of water filtered can only be estimated with flow meter Towing speed and time are limited due to potential net clogging and under-sampling surface waters Materials smaller than the net mesh are lost	Viršek <i>et al</i> (2016) Lebreton <i>et al</i> (2018)
Mega net	Large net to capture larger litter than standard nets	Captures macro and meso litter	Weather dependent Due to the size, the requirements to use the net are great	Lebreton <i>et al</i> (2018)
Bulk water sample	Sampling large volume of water and volume reducing	Known volume sample It is possible to sample from vessels of opportunity	Litter fractions are small because the volume that can be processed is limited May be prone to contamination	Song <i>et al</i> (2014)

Method	Description	Advantages	Limitations	Examples of use
Visual observations from a ship	Surveyors identify floating marine litter from a vessel	Easy to do from vessels of opportunity	Limited in location because can only survey near the vessel	Ryan (2013)
	Use either fixed width transects (assuming all litter seen) or distance sampling (corrects for decrease in detection probability with distance from vessel)	Low cost and low equipment requirements	Biased based on what is easily visible Prone to error based on experience of the surveyor	
Photographic and aerial surveys	Visual survey of floating marine litter from an airplane or drone	Cover large areas Good for mega-litter	High cost and high equipment requirements Limited to macro and mega plastics Biased based on what is easily visible by the equipment	Lebreton <i>et al</i> (2018)

Level 2: Water column plastics (average count of plastic items per km³)

METHODOLOGY: GESAMP¹⁴ Guidelines (GESAMP 2019)

- **Step one:** Identify the national authority responsible for gathering data and reporting on marine pollution and the agency/organisation responsible for monitoring water column plastics.
- **Step two:** Work with planning authority to understand local needs and determine the best monitoring approach. Descriptions of various approaches from the GESAMP Guidelines are listed in Table 8 adapted from the GESAMP Guidelines.

14 GESAMP (2019). Guidelines on the monitoring and assessment of plastic litter and microplastics in the ocean (Kershaw P.J., Turra A. and Galgani F. editors), (IMO/FAO/UNESCO-IOC/UNIDO/WMO/IAEA/UN/UNEP/UNDP/ISA Joint Group of Experts on the Scientific Aspects of Marine Environmental Protection). Rep. Stud. GESAMP No. 99, 130p https://environmentlive.unep.org/media/docs/marine_plastics/une_science_division_gesamp_reports.pdf

Table 8: Monitoring methods for water column plastics

Method	Description	Advantages	Limitations	Examples of use
Bongo nets or horizontally hauled plankton nets	Nets used for surveying the mid-water region in samples	<p>Easily deployable from vessels</p> <p>Applicable at various depths</p> <p>Use of flow meter to estimate volume</p> <p>Not weather dependent</p> <p>Paired with other nets for multiple sampling</p>	<p>Prone to contamination, particularly in sample collection on the vessel</p> <p>Under identifies materials smaller than the mesh</p> <p>Vessel speed may be restricted</p>	Doyle <i>et al</i> (2011)
Underway pumps	Utilizing seawater intakes from vessels	<p>Ability to sample a known volume of water over a given time or distance</p> <p>Easily controls for contamination on vessel</p>	<p>The size range of litter identified is limited</p> <p>The sea state can impact results</p> <p>Prone to contamination from sampling apparatus</p>	<p>Desforges <i>et al</i> (2014)</p> <p>Lusher <i>et al</i> (2014)</p>
Submersible pumps	Deck pump lowered to a known depth	Known volume of water sampled	<p>The size range of litter identified is limited</p> <p>The vessel must be stationary</p>	Setälä <i>et al</i> (2016)
Bulk sample	Sampling large volume of water and volume reducing	Known volume of water sampled	Prone to contamination on deck	Song <i>et al</i> (2014)
CPR	<p>Continuous plankton recorder towed from ships underway</p> <p>In use since 1946</p>	<p>Ability to use for a large distance and from vessels of opportunity</p> <p>Ability to compare to archived samples</p>	Risk of underestimating larger particles due to intake size	Thompson <i>et al</i> (2004)
Fisheries observer	Ability to be opportunistic by capturing marine litter samples using pelagic fishing gear	<p>No equipment required</p> <p>Observing long line fisheries that capture mostly nets and line</p>	<p>Dependent on fisheries reporting litter</p> <p>Unsystematic and not specific to a selected area</p>	Uhrin (2018)

Level 2: Seafloor litter (average count of plastic items per km²)

METHODOLOGY: GESAMP Guidelines¹⁵
(GESAMP 2019)

- **Step one:** Identify the national authority responsible for gathering data and reporting on marine pollution and the agency/organisation responsible for monitoring seafloor litter.
- **Step two:** Work with planning authority to understand local needs and determine the best monitoring approach. Descriptions of various approaches from the GESAMP Guidelines are listed in Table 9 adapted from the GESAMP Guidelines.

Table 9: Monitoring methods for seafloor litter

Method	Description	Advantages	Limitations	Examples of use
Shallow water/ diving	Divers or snorkelers visually identify marine litter	Ability to be opportunistic by using ongoing biodiversity programmes or other existing surveys	Biased based on what is easily visible Limited locations and size of area sampled	Spengler and Costa (2008)
Trawling	Collection/ stratified sampling or fishing nets Collection/ Pole trawling	Good for deeper waters and large-scale evaluation Opportunity to use on-going fish stock assessments	Topography of seafloor may lead to underestimation Bottom trawling has a significant impact of benthic ecosystems	Spengler and Costa (2008)
ROVs	Remotely operated vehicles used to survey the seafloor	Good for continental slopes, uneven terrain and deep seafloor	High equipment costs Limited size of area sampled	Bergmann and Klages (2012) Miyake <i>et al</i> (2011) Tekman <i>et al</i> (2017) Chiba <i>et al</i> (2018)

15 GESAMP (2019). Guidelines on the monitoring and assessment of plastic litter and microplastics in the ocean (Kershaw P.J., Turra A. and Galgani F. editors), (IMO/FAO/UNESCO-IOC/UNIDO/WMO/IAEA/UN/UNEP/UNDP/ISA Joint Group of Experts on the Scientific Aspects of Marine Environmental Protection). Rep. Stud. GESAMP No. 99, 130p https://environmentlive.unep.org/media/docs/marine_plastics/une_science_division_gesamp_reports.pdf

Indicator 14.2.1: Number of countries using ecosystem-based approaches to manage marine areas



Target 14.2: By 2020, sustainably manage and protect marine and coastal ecosystems to avoid significant adverse impacts, including by strengthening their resilience, and take action for their restoration in order to achieve healthy and productive oceans

Background

From an ecological perspective, ecosystem approaches consider the connections between the living organisms, habitats, physical and chemical conditions within an ecosystem, focusing on the importance of ecological integrity, biodiversity and overall ecosystem health. From a management perspective, ecosystem-based approaches refer to integrated management strategies for socio-ecological systems that consider ecological, social and economic factors and apply principles of sustainable development. These different ways of interpreting the ‘ecosystem-based approach’ are reflected in existing indicators. A review of these indicators and their underlying methodologies shows two ways in which Regional Seas Programmes and other key intergovernmental, international or regional bodies are monitoring and assessing the implementation of ecosystem-based approaches.

Proposed indicators for SDG reporting

Regional Seas Coordinated Indicator 22 ‘Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM) is proposed as the primary indicator. For countries with Marine/Maritime Spatial Planning (MSP) in

place, these plans can be helpful to assess ICZM. For other countries, it is important to identify ways to measure existing plans and to build capacity for integrated planning. All data for this indicator will be based on country submissions to the Regional Seas Programme. As monitoring will not be done through globally derived products, no level 1 indicator is proposed; only level 2 and level 3 indicators are proposed.

In order to promote the use of the Regional Seas as part of the follow-up and review mechanism for the Regional Seas, UNEP drafted report on how Regional Seas data could be directly used for the SDGs.¹⁶

Level 2: Proposed national indicators:

- Number of countries using ecosystem-based approaches to manage marine areas (measured through ICZM, marine spatial plan or other area-based, integrated planning and management in place)

Level 3: Supplementary indicators:

- These are described in Table 10 for information, but this manual does not go into detail

¹⁶ https://wedocs.unep.org/bitstream/handle/20.500.11822/27295/ocean_SDG.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y

Table 10: Monitoring parameters for implementation of the ecosystem-approach to track progress against SDG Target 14.2.

These indicators are marked as levels 1, 2 or 3, level 1 being global data or globally modelled, level 2 including national monitoring and level 3 describing all other parameters.

Monitoring parameters	Level 2	Level 3
Number of countries using ecosystem-based approaches to manage marine areas (measured through ICZM, marine spatial plan or other area-based, integrated planning and management in place)	×	
Ecological parameters (e.g. state of biodiversity, water quality, habitat quality, ecosystem health)		×

Step-by-step guide to implementing the indicator

Level 2: Ecosystem-based approaches to manage marine areas in place

This indicator aims to capture ICZM and other area-based, integrated planning and management in place in waters under national jurisdiction, including exclusive economic zones (e.g. marine/maritime spatial planning, Marine Protected Areas (MPAs), marine zoning, sector specific management plans)

- **Step one:** Identify national authorities/agencies/organisations responsible for coastal and marine/maritime planning and management.
- **Step two:** Identify and spatially map the boundaries of ICZM plans or other plans at national, sub-national and local level. Coordinate with the national authorities/agencies/organisations responsible for

coastal and marine/maritime planning and management to complete a questionnaire on the ICZM plans (Shipman and Petit 2014).

- **Step three:** Determine the status of implementation of each plan, and categorise the spatial map according to implementation stages:
 1. Initial plan preparation
 2. Plan development
 3. Plan adoption/designation
 4. Implementation and adaptive management

Collect the questionnaire responses and document the answers to include with the spatial map as reporting for this indicator.

The spatial map showing the boundaries of relevant plans (produced in step two) could also be used to calculate the proportion of national waters, or national exclusive economic zone,

covered by relevant plans. This can be done by overlaying the spatial layer of relevant plans with a spatial layer of national waters, or of the exclusive economic zone, to identify where the two layers coincide (following a similar methodology to calculating MPA coverage for SDG Indicator 14.5.1 described in the relevant chapter).

Ideally, all countries should report on the spatial boundaries of their relevant plans, including the implementation stage. However, at a minimum information on if a plan is in place should be collected.

It is advised that all policy changes are reported on annually and, in addition, that a review of changes in laws be conducted as an assessment to provide context on the state of environmental reporting in a 5-10 year reporting cycle.

An additional tool for national planning for oceans includes ocean accounting (UN-ESCAP 2018). These would be an expansion of existing tools known as System of Environmental Economic Accounting – Experimental Ecosystem Accounting (SEEA-EEA) (SEEA 2017) and would

be compiled for national territories with the possibility to provide regional and global data for international waters/high seas. These accounts can also be compiled at the sub-national level for example at a specific coastline or bay. The components of oceans accounts include drivers, assets (including extent and condition), ocean services (including quantity and value) and governance (such as management practices) (UN-ESCAP 2018).

Level 3: Ecological parameters (e.g. state of biodiversity, water quality, habitat quality, ecosystem health)

Monitoring ecological parameters in addition to ecosystem-based management is useful to inform the effectiveness of management practices. Understanding the state of biodiversity, water quality, habitat quality, ecosystem health and other ecological parameters can reveal disturbances in ocean health that may have otherwise been overlooked. These disturbances can then be addressed in future management and planning.

Indicator 14.5.1: Coverage of protected areas in relation to marine areas



Target 14.5: By 2020, conserve at least 10 per cent of coastal and marine areas, consistent with national and international law and based on the best available scientific information

Background

The protection of marine areas is essential for protecting the oceans biodiversity and natural resources. The importance of protection was recognized in the MDGs and has been recognised in the SDGs. Due to the fact that the measurement of MPAs is well established, this section of the report will not go into detail on the measurement of MPAs, but will instead propose some additional aspects of target 14.5 which might be considered for monitoring.

Proposed indicators for SDG reporting

The agreed indicator for SDG Target 14.5, as proposed by the IAEG-SDGs, is ‘Coverage of protected areas in relation to marine areas’ (14.5.1). This indicator is classified as tier 1, meaning that data and methodology are internationally established and available globally. Many countries already collect and manage data on the coverage of coastal and marine areas by MPAs, including the underlying geographic datasets. These data are largely

curated by relevant Ministries (e.g. of the Environment) or National Park Agencies. The national data (including boundary data in a Geographic information system (GIS) format, along with associated ancillary information such as MPA name, reported surface area, name of the management authority, etc.) are reported by the relevant authorities to the World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA)¹⁷, a global authoritative database curated by UNEP-WCMC, with support from International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN). Using the information in the WDPA, national-level statistics can be produced on protected area coverage for every country and territory, on a monthly basis. A more detailed description of the concepts, methodology and data sources for the indicator is provided by the SDG 14.5.1 metadata¹⁸, available from the SDG indicators metadata repository¹⁹. As this cannot be monitored through global monitoring, level 1 and 2 are combined into a single level.

Level 1 / 2: Proposed global indicators:

- Coverage of marine and coastal areas by protected areas

17 UNEP-WCMC and IUCN 2018. Protected Planet: The World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA) [Online], Cambridge, UK: UNEP-WCMC and IUCN. Available at: www.protectedplanet.net

18 SDG Indicator 14.5.1 metadata: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-14-05-01.pdf>

19 SDG indicators metadata repository: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/>

Level 3: Proposed national indicators:

- Coverage, by protected areas, of areas of importance for biodiversity and derived ecosystem services
- Management effectiveness of protected areas
- Connectivity of protected areas
- Equity in protected area benefits and costs

Table 11: Monitoring parameters to track progress against SDG Target 14.5.

The list of parameters in this table is not exhaustive. These indicators are marked as levels 1, 2 or 3, level 1 being global data or globally modelled, level 2 including national monitoring and level 3 describing all other parameters.

Monitoring parameters	Level 2	Level 3
Coverage of marine and coastal areas by protected areas	×	
Coverage, by protected areas, of areas of importance for biodiversity and derived ecosystem services		×
Management effectiveness of protected areas		×
Connectivity of protected areas		×
Equity in protected area benefits and costs		×

Step-by-step guide to implementing the indicator

Level 1 / 2: Coverage of marine and coastal areas by protected areas

Countries that are already regularly reporting national data on MPAs to the WDPA do not need to take further action towards reporting against SDG Indicator 14.5.1. Using data reported by the relevant authorities, UNEP-WCMC calculates national-level statistics on the coverage of coastal and marine areas by MPAs, and makes the information available to the UN Statistics Division at their request. Countries can view the national-level statistics produced using the WDPA via the Protected Planet website²⁰, where details of the step-by-step methodology for calculating national protected area coverage can also be accessed²¹ (see also Text Box 1).

Countries that are not yet, or irregularly reporting their national data to the WDPA are encouraged to do so, according to the data submission guidelines available in the WDPA User Manual²². All countries, via the WDPA, should report on coverage of marine and coastal areas by protected areas as a key parameter. Where in-country capacity or opportunities exist, countries can also assess supplementary parameters to address other elements of SDG Target 14.5 (described in the following section). Please refer to Table 11 for parameters for monitoring progress towards SDG Target 14.5.

20 See: www.protectedplanet.net/c/unep-regions

21 WDPA methodology for calculating protected area coverage: www.protectedplanet.net/c/calculating-protected-area-coverage

22 See: www.wcmc.io/WDPA_Manual

Text box 1: Calculation of MPA coverage (WDPa methodology):

When calculating protected area coverage, answers to the following questions will have a major influence on the resulting coverage statistics:

1) What is a protected area?

When calculating protected area coverage, UNEP-WCMC only uses sites that have been reported as meeting the IUCN definition of protected area²³ and/or that of the Convention on Biological Diversity²⁴. For more information on protected areas, see the dedicated page on the Biodiversity a to z²⁵.

2) What protected areas data are used?

UNEP-WCMC does not include all sites in the WDPa in protected area coverage calculations. “Proposed” protected areas are excluded, as are sites submitted as points with no reported area. Currently UNESCO Man and Biosphere Reserves (MAB)²⁶ are excluded, on the basis that that the MAB sites currently in the WDPa include buffer and transition zones that in many cases are not protected areas (MAB Core areas usually coincide with protected areas designated at a national level and are therefore generally accounted for in the calculations). In cases where data providers request that their data are not shared, UNEP-WCMC uses these data to calculate coverage statistics, but does not make them available through the Protected Planet website.

3) Which base map (coastline) layer is used?

UNEP-WCMC uses a custom-designed dataset combining exclusive economic zones and terrestrial country boundaries, a simplified version of which has been published by Brooks et al. (2016)²⁷. This may differ from the more detailed national base layers used by countries to generate their own statistics. Therefore, there is an acknowledged potential for the results to differ slightly from those produced by countries.

23 IUCN definition of protected area: “a clearly defined geographical space, recognised, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values” (Dudley, N. (ed.) 2008. Guidelines for Applying Protected Area Management Categories. IUCN: Gland, Switzerland. p.8-9)

24 CBD definition of protected area: *a geographically defined area, which is designated or regulated and managed to achieve specific conservation objectives* (Art. 2 of the Convention on Biological Diversity)

25 Biodiversity a to z: protected areas: <http://www.biodiversitya-z.org/content/protected-area>

26 Protected Planet description of UNESCO Man and Biosphere Reserves: <https://www.protectedplanet.net/c/world-database-on-protected-areas/internationally-designated-protected-areas/man-and-the-biosphere-reserves>. Definition of UNESCO MAB sites: <https://en.unesco.org/mab>

27 Data from Brooks et al. 2016: <http://datadryad.org/resource/doi:10.5061/dryad.6gb90.2>

Level 3: Other elements of Target 14.5

Coverage, by protected areas, of areas of importance for biodiversity

Protected area coverage alone does not give a full indication of the importance of an area in terms of biodiversity (and derived ecosystem services), for example the diversity of species that have been protected or the number of people who are benefiting from the protected area (Gill *et al.* 2017). As such, a calculation of the relative coverage, by protected areas, of those marine areas which are of particular importance for biodiversity (and derived ecosystem services) is a useful approach to assess the comprehensiveness and value of an MPA network.

The first step, in such a calculation, is to determine which areas are of importance for biodiversity. A number of different attributes can be considered when defining areas of biodiversity importance. Table 12 presents the attributes included in some of the most widely used, internationally recognised prioritisation (via criteria) schemes for conservation. These schemes also offer spatial data layers to allow locating these areas on the ground. Countries may choose to select one or multiple schemes from this list, or they may define their own national criteria for biodiversity importance. Then and depending on available data, information and knowledge, a spatial layer can be created that shows areas considered to be important for biodiversity (and derived ecosystem services).

Table 12: A summary of attributes of biodiversity importance included in widely known and used prioritisation schemes for conservation.

	EBSA	VME	PSSA	WHS	Ramsar	IBA	KBA	Natura 2000	AZE Sites
Uniqueness or rarity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Special importance for life history stages of species	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Importance to threatened or endangered species	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Vulnerability, fragility, sensitivity or slow recovery	✓	✓	✓	✗	?	✗	✓	?	✗
Productivity	✓	✗	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	✗	✗
Biodiversity	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✗	?	✗	✗

	EBSA	VME	PSSA	WHS	Ramsar	IBA	KBA	Natura 2000	AZE Sites
Naturalness	✓	×	✓	✓	✓	×	✓	×	×
Structure	×	✓	✓	×	×	×	?	×	×
Historical geomorphological importance	×	×	×	✓	×	×	×	×	×

The Convention on Biological Diversity's Ecologically or Biologically Significant Areas: Origins, development, and current status (Dunn et al. 2014).

Acronyms – explanation and relevant policy instrument/organisation

EBSA	Ecologically or Biologically Significant marine Areas – Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)
VME	Vulnerable Marine Ecosystem –FAO
PSSA	Particularly Sensitive Sea Area – International Maritime Organisation (IMO)
WHS	World Heritage Site – UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)
Ramsar	Ramsar Sites (Wetlands of International Importance) – Convention on Wetlands of International Importance (Ramsar Convention)
IBA	Important Bird and Biodiversity Areas – BirdLife International
KBA	Key Biodiversity Areas –IUCN, BirdLife International, PlantLife International, Conservation International, Critical Ecosystem Partnership Fund and others (Note: KBAs include IBAs and AZE Sites)
Natura 2000	European network of protected sites under the European Habitats and Birds Directives – EU
AZE Sites	Alliance for Zero Extinction Sites – Alliance for Zero Extinction

The second step is to calculate the relative coverage, by protected areas, of areas of biodiversity importance. This is done by overlaying the spatial layer of areas of biodiversity importance with the spatial layer of protected areas, in the national waters of the country. The results can be represented on a map or as a graph showing trends in relative coverage over time. This approach is already being used, at the global scale, for tracking progress against Aichi Target 11 of the UN Strategic Plan for Biodiversity (2010-2020), using the indicator “Protected Area Coverage of Key Biodiversity Areas”²⁸.

Management effectiveness of protected areas

The designation of a protected area does not

necessarily ensure that conservation objectives are met, or that they have even been set and documented as part of a management plan. Effective management is essential to ensure that a protected area achieves the intended benefits for biodiversity and ecosystem services. A number of well-recognised mechanisms for assessing management effectiveness of protected areas exist, for example from IUCN (Hockings *et al.* 2006). One current approach to assess, at the global scale, the status and trends in effectiveness of management of protected areas is the Aichi 11 indicator “Protected Areas Management Effectiveness”²⁹, which records the number and area of assessments of management effectiveness completed by countries, and the overall management effectiveness score for each aspect of management.

Findings on the bigger picture of SDG 14 – from national implementation to global monitoring

Implementing SDG indicators at country level

The *Global Manual on Ocean Statistics* is intended to support countries in their efforts to implement indicators for tracking progress against SDG 14. The country missions to Fiji and Colombia highlighted that countries start off from different contexts, and face different challenges, in implementing the SDG indicators. Some countries, like Colombia, already have centralised data

gathering systems and/or national indicators in place that can be built on to implement the SDG indicators. In contrast, Fiji and other Pacific island nations are only just starting to address the SDG targets and indicators at country level; here, the SDG process is mainly being driven forward at the regional level by the Pacific Regional Seas Programme and other regional institutions. One common challenge that countries in both regions share is limited funds and capacity for monitoring programmes.

28 <https://www.bipindicators.net/indicators/protected-area-coverage-of-key-biodiversity-areas>. Note that information on the applicability of this approach in the context of the SDGs is available in the SDG 14.5.1 metadata (<https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-14-05-01.pdf>).

29 <https://www.bipindicators.net/indicators/protected-area-management-effectiveness>

The recommendation that can be drawn from these country insights is that, where possible, the implementation of indicators for SDG 14 should be aligned with, and build on, existing national and regional monitoring programmes and indicators, so as to optimise the use of limited available resources. The Regional Seas Programmes are well placed in supporting countries to identify these synergies and find efficient ways of implementing the SDG indicators.

Coordinated international monitoring of transboundary issues

As mentioned in the introduction to the *Global Manual on Ocean Statistics*, many issues remain to be resolved in order to achieve more complete global monitoring of transboundary marine issues, including in areas beyond national jurisdiction. This will require countries to work together in a coordinated effort using both satellite remote sensing and *in situ* international surveys, including shared data collection protocols, good data sharing practices, innovative and cost-effective sampling methodologies. The Regional Seas Programmes

are working towards coherent and coordinated monitoring approaches within, as well as across, regional seas, and could play an important role in facilitating coordinated international monitoring efforts.

Globally applicable methodologies to track global progress

Finally, the *Global Manual on Ocean Statistics* recognises that the agreed SDG and their indicators only capture part of the associated SDG targets. In the long-term, these limitations will have to be addressed to ensure that SDG 14 is fully met. In the meantime, however, it is important to focus on what can be realistically achieved by all countries, so that data can be meaningfully aggregated to give a global picture of progress towards SDG 14. The *Global Manual on Ocean Statistics* aims to support this effort by providing step-by-step indicator methodologies that require minimum resources and technical capacity, can be integrated with existing national and regional approaches, and provide the minimum parameters required to monitor progress against SDG Targets 14.1, 14.2 and 14.5.



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Section

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Appendices

Section

Appendix 1:

A1

Summary tables of existing indicator compilation (Regional Seas Programmes)

No	Category of Indicator	Possible regional Seas Coordinated Indicator	SDG 14 (plus SDG 1 SDG 2 others)	TWAP indicators	Desirability in RS
1	Total inputs of nitrogen and phosphorus from agriculture, sewage and atmospheric nitrogen	Chlorophyll a concentration as an indicator of phytoplankton biomass	14.1	Chlorophyll time series; DIN, DIP (modelled data) (both concentration and flux	Med / BS/ NOWPAP/ ROPME / SACEP / HELCOM / Nairobi
2	Inputs of marine chemical pollution Trends for selected priority chemicals	Trends for selected priority chemicals including POPs and heavy metals	14.1	POPS (Persistent Organic Pollutants) status	NOWPAP / Nairobi / BS/ CPPS
3	Overall levels of marine litter Quantification of beach litter items	Quantification and classification of beach litter items	14.1	Marine Plastic Litter	NOPAP / HELCOM/ PERSGA/Nairobi
4	Ocean warming	Annual mean sea surface temperature (25m below the surface)	14.2	Sea Surface Temperature (SST)	Agreed
5	Fish landings	Fish catches within EEZs (tonnes) – total capture production	14.4	Fish landings and Landed Value, Fishing effort, Fish stock status, Primary Production required, Marine Trophic Index, Fishing in Balance Index	FAO to provide inputs
6	Aquaculture	Application of risk assessment to account for pollution and biodiversity impacts	14.4	FAO to provide inputs	

No	Category of Indicator	Possible regional Seas Coordinated Indicator	SDG 14 (plus SDG 1 SDG 2 others)	TWAP indicators	Desirability in RS
7	Aquaculture	Destruction of habitat due to aquaculture	FAO to provide inputs		
8	Population pressure / urbanization	Length of coastal modification and km ² of coastal reclamation	14.2	Rural/ Urban population, %poor,	ROPME / MAP / NOWPAP/ SACEP
9	Eutrophication status	Locations and frequency of algal blooms reported	14.1	Index of coastal eutrophication	agreed
10	Pollution hot spots ³⁰	1. Concentration of Status of selected pollutant contamination in biota and sediments and temporal trends 2. Number of hotspots	14.1	Floating plastic debris	agreed
11	Ocean acidification	1. Aragonite saturation 2. pH 3. Alkalinity	14.3	Pteropods at risk	ROPME (pH)
12	Level of exploitation of commercial fisheries	FAO stock status: % stocks overfished compared to MSY	14.4	Catch Stock Status, Marine Trophic Index, Fishing in Balance Index	FAO to provide inputs
13	Species replacement as a consequence of capture fisheries	Marine trophic index	14.5	Marine Trophic Index	FAO to provide inputs
14	Endangered species	Distribution of Red List Index species	14.5		NOWPAP
15	Loss of critical habitat	Trends in critical habitat extent and condition	14.5	Mangrove status; Reefs at Risk Index; seagrass; salt marshes	NOWPAP / CPPS
16	National Action Plans to reduce input from LBS	% National action plans ratified / operational	14.1	Transboundary Legal Instruments	agreed

30 Actual pollution hotspot and source of hotspot

No	Category of Indicator	Possible regional Seas Coordinated Indicator	SDG 14 (plus SDG 1 SDG 2 others)	TWAP indicators	Desirability in RS
17	Waste water treatment facilities	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. % coastal urban population connected to sewage facilities 2. % of waste water facilities complying with adequate standards 3. % of untreated waste water 	14.1	NA	agreed
18	Incentive to reduce marine litter at source	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. % port waste reception facilities available 2. Incentives to reduce land based sources³¹ 3. Amount of recycled waste on land (%) 	14.1	NA	agreed
19	Climate change adaptation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. % national adaptation plans in place 2. Sector based national adaptation plans 3. Number of existing national and local coastal and marine plans incorporating climate change adaptation 	14.2	Transboundary Legal Instruments	agreed
20	Fish harvested within safe ecological limits	Fisheries measures in place (by-catch limits, area-based closures, recovery plans, capacity reduction measures) and multilateral/bilateral fisheries management arrangements	14.4	Catch Stock Status, Marine Trophic Index, Fishing in Balance Index; Fishery Production Potential of LMEs	FAO to provide inputs
21	Critical marine habitat under protection	% Marine protected areas designated	14.5	Change in Protected Area Coverage	agreed
22	National ICZM in place	National ICZM guidelines and enabling legislation adopted	14.2		agreed

31 In monetary terms

Section

A2

Appendix 2:

Summary of regional seas and other relevant data collection efforts

SDG Indicator 14.1.1a

A review of existing indicators and methodologies currently used by Regional Seas Programmes and other key intergovernmental, international or regional bodies highlights three main approaches for monitoring coastal eutrophication.

1. Indicators for the cause of eutrophication (nutrient input and concentrations): Coastal eutrophication is mainly caused by nutrient enrichment of coastal environments. Nutrient enrichment is a direct consequence of nutrient inputs from land-based (and atmospheric) sources, in particular phosphorous and nitrogen run-off from agricultural fertilisers, livestock waste and domestic wastewater. Five Regional Seas Programmes³², as well as the EU Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD, subsequently referred to as “Marine Directive”), include input and concentrations of nutrients (nitrogen and phosphorous) as indicators or assessment criteria for eutrophication. Nutrient concentrations are measured from *in situ* water samples using colorimetric, fluorometric and UV

spectrometric methods (for information about sampling and measuring methods for nutrients, see for example Oslo-Paris Convention (OSPAR)’s eutrophication monitoring guideline on nutrients (OSPAR 2013a)).

2. Indicators for the direct effects of eutrophication (e.g. Chlorophyll-a concentrations, biomass growth, water clarity/turbidity): Nutrient enrichment of coastal waters causes excessive growth of plants, algae and phytoplankton. This can be monitored by measuring the abundance of indicator species, the clarity or turbidity of the water, or Chlorophyll-a concentrations. Chlorophyll-a is a pigment contained in plants, algae and phytoplankton that can be used to measure biomass levels, thus providing an alternative indicator for eutrophication. Chlorophyll-a is the most frequently used indicator/assessment criterion for eutrophication (or primary productivity) across the 18 Regional Seas Programmes³³. In addition, the European Environment Agency, the EU Marine

32 Regional Seas Programmes that use input and concentrations of nutrients as indicator for eutrophication: OSPAR (Northeast Atlantic), HELCOM (Baltic Sea), UNEP-MAP (Mediterranean Sea), CPPS (Southeast Pacific) and NOWPAP (Northwest Pacific)

33 Regional Seas Programmes that use Chlorophyll-a as indicator for eutrophication: OSPAR (Northeast Atlantic), HELCOM (Baltic Sea), UNEP-MAP (Mediterranean Sea), Nairobi Convention (Western Indian Ocean), NOWPAP (Northwest Pacific), (ROMPE sea area), PERSGA (Red Sea and Gulf of Aden) and CPPS (Southeast Pacific)

Directive, the United States National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and the Global Environment Facility Transboundary Waters Assessment Programme (GEF-TWAP) also use Chlorophyll-a as indicator for eutrophication (or primary productivity).

Regional Seas Programmes use two methodological approaches for monitoring Chlorophyll-a:

1. *In situ* measurements, and
2. Remote sensing using satellite images.

In situ measurements can be obtained from ships carrying measuring devices (e.g. the Continuous Plankton Recorder³⁴), or from moorings, buoys and autonomous underwater vehicles equipped with sensors. Setting up Chlorophyll-a observatories, where these are not already in place, requires considerable technological and resource capacity. One way of reducing the costs of *in situ* measurements is to use ships of opportunity, such as commercial vessels or ferries. A less resource intensive alternative to *in situ* measurements is to monitor Chlorophyll-a using satellite remote sensing. Remote sensing also enables larger temporal and spatial coverage, compared to *in situ* methods, for example providing daily snapshots of an area of approximately 500 metres. Remote sensing

can also be coupled with modelling, allowing to fill gaps in satellite data that might be caused, for example, by cloud cover. An example of remote sensing technology applied is the Northwest Pacific Action Plan Eutrophication Assessment Tool (NEAT), which is a satellite imagery technique for detection of potential dead zones in the sea. The Regional Seas Programme's Northwest Pacific Action Plan will collaborate with Google and the Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency to test NEAT to monitor eutrophication by monitoring chlorophyll-a concentration levels and trends in oceans around the world with cloud computing (Liu 2019).

3. Indicators for the indirect effects of eutrophication (e.g. dissolved oxygen levels):

Lastly, four Regional Seas Programmes³⁵ and the EU Marine Directive use dissolved oxygen levels in the water as an additional indicator for eutrophication. Oxygen depletion (hypoxia or anoxia) is an indirect effect of nutrient enrichment caused by bacterial decomposition of large amounts of dead plants and algae. Dissolved oxygen levels can be determined from water samples using electrochemical or optical sensors (see for example OSPAR's eutrophication monitoring guideline for oxygen (OSPAR 2013b)).

The eutrophication indicators related to these methodologies are summarised in Table 13.

34 Continuous Plankton Recorder: <https://www.cprsurvey.org/services/the-continuous-plankton-recorder/>

35 Regional Seas Programmes that use dissolved oxygen levels as indicator for eutrophication: OSPAR (Northeast Atlantic), HELCOM (Baltic Sea), NOWPAP and CPPS (Southeast Pacific)

Table 13: Summary of eutrophication indicators and assessment criteria currently used by Regional Seas Programmes and other key intergovernmental, international or regional bodies

Regional Seas Programme/ Organisation	Indicator/assessment criteria
OSPAR	<p>Harmonised assessment criteria:</p> <p>Category I: Degree of nutrient enrichment</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Riverine inputs and direct discharges [nitrogen, phosphorous] 2. Nutrient concentrations [DIN and/or DIP] 3. N/P ratio <p>Category II: Direct effects of nutrient enrichment (during growing season)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Chlorophyll-a concentration (area specific) 2. Phytoplankton indicator species (area specific) 3. Macrophytes including macroalgae (area specific) <p>Category III: Indirect effects of nutrient enrichment (during growing season)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Oxygen deficiency 2. Zoobenthos and fish 3. Organic carbon/organic matter (area specific) <p>Category IV: Other possible effects of nutrient enrichment (during growing season)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Algal toxins
HELCOM	<p>Indicators for eutrophication:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Water clarity 2. Nitrogen/DIN 3. Total nitrogen 4. Chlorophyll-a concentration 5. Oxygen debt 6. Inputs of nutrients to the sub basins 7. Phosphorus/DIP 8. Total phosphorus 9. Cyanobacterial bloom index
UNEP-MAP	<p>Common Indicators under Ecological Objective 5 Eutrophication:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Common Indicator 13 Concentration of key nutrients in water column 2. Common Indicator 14 Chlorophyll-a concentration in water column
Nairobi Convention	<p><i>Chlorophyll-a concentration as indicator of phytoplankton primary productivity</i></p>
NOWPAP	<p>Common Procedures for Eutrophication Assessment (minimum required parameters):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Trend in chemical oxygen demand (DOD) or Total Organic Carbon (TOC) 2. Frequencies of red tide and hypoxia events 3. Level and trend in satellite derived Chlorophyll-a
ROMPE	<p><i>Chlorophyll-a concentration as indicator of phytoplankton biomass</i></p>

Regional Seas Programme/ Organisation	Indicator/assessment criteria
CPPS	Indicator 7 Water Quality Index, parameters include: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Phosphate 2. Nitrate 3. Dissolved oxygen 4. Chlorophyll-a
European Environment Agency	Indicator 23 Chlorophyll in transition, coastal and marine waters
EU MSFD (Marine Directive)	Descriptor 5 (Eutrophication) indicators: <p>Criteria 5.1 Nutrients levels:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5.1.1 Nutrients concentration in the water column. • 5.1.2 Nutrient ratios (silica, nitrogen and phosphorus), where appropriate. <p>Criteria 5.2 Impacts of litter on marine life:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5.2.1 Chlorophyll concentration in the water column. • 5.2.2 Water transparency related to increase in suspended algae, where relevant. • 5.2.3 Abundance of opportunistic macroalgae. • 5.2.4 Species shift in floristic composition such as diatom to flagellate ratio, benthic to pelagic shifts, as well as bloom events of nuisance/toxic algal blooms (e.g. cyanobacteria) caused by human activities. <p>Criteria 5.3 Indirect effects of nutrient enrichment:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 5.3.1 Abundance of perennial seaweeds and seagrasses (e.g. fucoids, eelgrass and Neptune grass) adversely impacted by decrease in water transparency. • 5.3.2 Dissolved oxygen, i.e. changes due to increased organic matter decomposition and size of the area concerned.
EU Water Framework Directive (WFD)	<i>Chlorophyll-a as phytoplankton parameter indicative of biomass</i>
UN Strategic Plan for Biodiversity (2010-2020)	Indicators for 'Trends in nutrient levels' (Aichi Target 8.4) include: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Trends in Nitrogen deposition 2. Trends in Loss of reactive nitrogen to the environment 3. Trends in Global surplus of nitrogen 4. Proportion of bodies of water with good ambient water quality 5. Proportion of wastewater safely treated
GEF-TWAP	<i>Chlorophyll-a concentrations and trends as indicator for productivity</i>
NOAA	Chlorophyll-a as indicator of primary eutrophication symptoms

Indicators in italics are not explicitly for eutrophication.

SDG Indicator 14.1.1.b

A review of existing indicators and methodologies used by Regional Seas Programmes and other key intergovernmental, international or regional bodies shows that marine plastic debris is currently monitored in four areas of the marine environment.

1. Plastic debris washed/deposited on beaches or shorelines (beach litter): Beach litter monitoring is done through beach surveys following standardised monitoring protocols or guidelines and can be completed in rapid assessment surveys or routine monitoring. Rapid assessment surveys are applied to understand the effects of a major natural disaster, to establish a baseline for routine monitoring and to locate accumulation ‘hot-spots’ for mitigation. The GESAMP completed *Guidelines for the Monitoring and Assessment of Plastic Litter in the Ocean* that detail various methods for beach surveys including by type of litter (macro and mega litter, buried macro-plastics, meso-litter and micro-litter). UNEP and IOC-UNESCO have jointly produced *Guidelines on Survey and Monitoring of Marine Litter* (Cheschire *et al.* 2009), which include operational guidelines

for beach litter surveys and are used as guidance by several Regional Seas Programmes. The European Commission’s Joint Research Centre also provides beach litter monitoring protocols in its *Guidance on Monitoring of Marine Litter in European Seas* (European Commission JRC 2013). Further available guidance documents and toolboxes for beach litter monitoring are listed in Table 14. Beach litter surveys often take place in connection with beach clean-ups involving the local public. For example, the Ocean Conservancy’s ICC initiative organises beach clean-ups around the world using standardised ICC data cards³⁶. The ICC data cards are used as protocols to collect beach litter data in the four NOWPAP (Northwest Pacific) countries as well as some of the Caribbean Member States of the Cartagena Convention. Another avenue for collecting beach litter data is through citizen science programmes, such as the Marine LitterWatch application and data viewer of the European Environment Agency, or NOAA’s Marine Debris Monitoring and Assessment Citizen Science Project³⁷.

36 Ocean Conservancy International Coastal Clean-up data card:

https://oceanconservancy.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/04/OC-DataCards_volunteerFINAL_ENG.pdf

37 NOAA Marine Debris Monitoring and Assessment Citizen Science Project:

<https://marinedebris.noaa.gov/research/marine-debris-monitoring-and-assessment-project>

Table 14: Available guidance material for beach litter monitoring produced by Regional Seas Programmes and other intergovernmental, international, regional bodies or national bodies

Regional Seas Programme/ Organisation	Monitoring protocols and guidelines	Available at:
Convention for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR) (Antarctic Sea)	The <i>Arctic Marine Strategic Plan 2015-2025</i> provides standard data forms and instructions for beach survey data collection (Arctic Council 2015)	https://oaarchive.arctic-council.org/handle/11374/413
European Commission Joint Research Centre (JRC)	<i>Guidance on Monitoring of Marine Litter in Europeans Seas</i> (European Commission JRC 2013)	https://ec.europa.eu/jrc/sites/jrcsh/files/lb-na-26113-en-n.pdf
NOAA	<i>NOOA Marine Debris Shoreline Survey Field Guide</i> (Opfer <i>et al.</i> 2012), and a monitoring toolbox with protocol documents and field data sheets	https://marinedebris.noaa.gov/sites/default/files/ShorelineFieldGuide2012.pdf
NOWPAP (Northwest Pacific)	<i>Guidelines for Monitoring Marine Litter on the Beaches and Shorelines of the Northwest Pacific Region</i> (NOWPAP CEARAC 2007)	http://www.cearac-project.org/RAP_MALI/monitoring%20guidelines.pdf
OSPAR (Northeast Atlantic)	<i>Guidelines for monitoring marine litter on the beaches in the OSPAR Maritime Area</i> (OSPAR 2010)	https://www.ospar.org/ospar-data/10-02e_beachlitter%20guideline_english%20only.pdf
UNEP and IOC-UNESCO	<i>UNEP/IOC Guidelines on Survey and Monitoring of Marine Litter</i> (Cheshire <i>et al.</i> 2009)	http://staging.unep.org/gpa/Documents/Publications/MarineLitterSurveyandMonitoringGuidelines.pdf
UNEP	<i>Marine plastic debris and microplastics – Global lessons and research to inspire action and guide policy change</i> (UNEP 2016b)	https://wedocs.unep.org/rest/bitstreams/11700/retrieve
GESAMP	<i>Guidelines for the Monitoring and Assessment of Plastic Litter in the Ocean</i>	https://environmentlive.unep.org/media/docs/marine_plastics/uneso-science_dvision_gesamp_reports.pdf

2. Plastic debris in the water column: Marine litter in the water column is monitored based on the identification goals, the type of litter targeted and the conditions of the sampling location. The GESAMP guidelines explain various methods based on the composition, size and location of the marine litter including considerations for the goals of the monitoring (GESAMP 2019). Methods include visual and/or photographic observations from ships or airplanes, bulk water samples, surface water and water column trawls and remote sensing. Visual observations and trawls usually make use of monitoring activities for other ecological variables (e.g. fish populations). HELCOM (Helsinki Commission, Baltic Sea), UNEP Mediterranean Action Plan (UNEP-MAP; Mediterranean Sea) and the South Asian Seas Action Plan have indicators and methodologies in place for monitoring marine litter in the water column. Methodologies for floating litter are also included in the guidelines from UNEP/IOC-UNESCO and the European Commission Joint Research Centre.

3. Plastic debris on the seafloor/seabed: Methodologies used to monitor litter on the seafloor include that used by Europe’s International Bottom Trawl Surveys (IBTS) and other fish bottom trawls, as well as visual observations by divers and snorkelers (shallow waters), submersibles, remotely operated vehicles and camera tows (shallow and deeper waters). Three European Regional Seas Programmes³⁸ currently have indicators and monitoring methodologies in place for seafloor litter. Guidance on seafloor litter monitoring methodologies is also included in the guidelines from GESAMP, UNEP/IOC-UNESCO and the European Commission Joint Research Centre (GESAMP 2019).

4. Plastic ingested by biota (e.g. sea birds): The GESAMP guidelines outline methods for monitoring plastic ingested by biota such as taking samples from dead organisms and sampling from live animals via regurgitated pellets, scat, nesting material or entangled litter. The guidelines also describe options for monitoring various biota groups including: phytoplankton, zooplankton, shellfish, other invertebrates and marine mammals, birds and fish (GESAMP 2019). OSPAR (Northeast Atlantic), UNEP-MAP (Mediterranean Sea) and the EU Marine Directive also include provisions for monitoring marine plastic litter through analysis of plastic ingested by stranded marine biota (mainly seabirds, turtles and fish). This approach is limited by the natural range of the indicator species and consistency of availability of stranded animals, as well as requiring the capacity to collect and analyse the animals. In addition to ingestion by marine biota, the EU Marine Directive, as well as the Convention for the Conservation of Antarctic Marine Living Resources (CCAMLR, Antarctic Sea), also consider marine plastic found in nests and seabird colonies and marine mammal entanglement.

The marine plastic debris indicators related to these methodologies are summarised in Table 6. While the monitoring methods described above focus largely on microplastics, some of the existing indicators also refer to microplastics. HELCOM (Baltic Sea) and the European Commission Joint Research Centre provide guidance on **monitoring methodologies for microplastic particles:** 1) manta trawls/plankton nets in the water column, and 2) sieving of sediment/sand samples from beaches or the seafloor. Further guidance on sampling and analysing of microplastics is provided by GESAMP, Working Group 40³⁹,

38 Regional Seas Programmes that are monitoring seafloor litter: OSPAR (Northeast Atlantic), HELCOM (Baltic Sea) and UNEP-MAP (Mediterranean Sea)

39 GESAMP Working Group 40 is led by IOC-UNESCO and UNEP.

which in 2016 produced a report on *Sources, Fate and Effects of Microplastics in the Marine*

Environment (GESAMP 2016) to inform the Second UNEP Assembly.

Table 15: Summary of marine plastic debris indicators currently used by Regional Seas Programmes and other key intergovernmental, international or regional bodies

Regional Seas Programme/ Organisation	Indicator/assessment criteria
OSPAR	Three marine litter indicators: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Beach litter 2. Plastic particles in Fulmars' stomachs 3. Seabed litter Indicators under development: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indicators using other biota • Indicators for microplastics
HELCOM	HELCOM indicators for marine litter: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Indicator on beach litter 2. Status of implementation of the HELCOM Regional Action Plan on Marine Litter Indicators under development: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Litter on the seafloor • Micro litter in the water column
UNEP-MAP	Common Indicators under Ecological Objective 10 Marine Litter: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Common Indicator 22: Trends in the amount of litter washed ashore and/or deposited on coastlines. • Common Indicator 23: Trends in the amount of litter in the water column including microplastics and on the seafloor. • Candidate Indicator 24: Trends in the amount of litter ingested by or entangling marine organisms focusing on selected mammals, marine birds, and marine turtles.
NOWPAP	Indicator for marine litter (Ecological Quality Objective 5) to be developed
UNEP	Beach litter as an indicator for floating plastic debris density
UN Strategic Plan for Biodiversity (2010-2020)	[...] Floating Plastic Debris Density (Aichi Target 8)
Ocean Conservancy	Ocean Trash Index: presence of litter items in five 'activity categories': <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Shoreline and recreational 2. Ocean and waterway 3. Smoking related 4. Dumping 5. Medical or personal hygiene

Regional Seas Programme/ Organisation	Indicator/assessment criteria
EU MSFD (Marine Directive)	<p>Descriptor 10 (Marine litter) indicators:</p> <p>Criteria 10.1 Characteristics of litter in the marine and coastal environment:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 10.1.1 Trends in the amount of litter washed ashore and/or deposited on coastlines, including analysis of its composition, spatial distribution and, where possible, source. • 10.1.2 Trends in the amount of litter in the water column (including floating at the surface) and deposited on the seafloor, including analysis of its composition, spatial distribution and, where possible, source • 10.1.3 Trends in the amount, distribution and, where possible, composition of microparticles (in particular microplastics). <p>Criteria 10.2 Impacts of litter on marine life:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 10.2.1 Trends in the amount and composition of litter ingested by marine animals (e.g. stomach analysis).

SDG Indicator 14.2.1

Indicator 14.2.1 refers to the management of exclusive economic zones using ecosystem-based approaches.

1. Ecological indicators for the quality of marine ecosystems: OSPAR (Northeast Atlantic) and UNEP-MAP (Mediterranean Sea) are using ecological indicators to monitor and assess the implementation of the ecosystem approach. The OSPAR indicators are in line with the descriptors of ‘good environmental status’ which are used to assess ecosystem-based marine management under the EU Marine Directive. The ecological indicator approach taken by OSPAR, UNEP-MAP and the EU requires the measurement and monitoring of a large number of biochemical parameters for an integrated assessment of the state of marine ecosystems and biodiversity. This implies high levels of resources and technical capacity for ecological monitoring. Moreover, as evidenced by experience in the OSPAR region (Northeast Atlantic), the applicability and relevance of ecological indicators and associated

methodologies may vary between different locations within one region.

2. Indicators for integrated management and planning strategies for socio-ecological systems: Other ecosystem approach indicators are based on the implementation status of marine area-based, integrated planning and management approaches, such as Marine/Maritime Spatial Planning (MSP) and/or Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM). HELCOM (Baltic Sea) has adopted the ecosystem approach as one of ten Baltic Sea Broad-Scale Maritime Spatial Planning Principles (HELCOM-VASAB 2010) and has identified *drawing up and application of maritime spatial plans throughout the Baltic Sea by 2020* as one of the HELCOM regional targets that will contribute towards the delivery of SDG 14.2 (HELCOM 2017). The HELCOM indicator for the delivery of this target is ‘*number of countries having maritime spatial plans coherent across borders and applying the ecosystem approach*’. Similarly, the Strategic Action Plan under the Nairobi Convention

(Western Indian Ocean Region) includes *'Integrated Coastal Zone Management policies, plans and/or legislation in place in all countries'* as one of the indicators for protection, restoration and sustainable management of critical coastal habitats (Nairobi Convention Secretariat 2009). The Nairobi Convention indicator is translated into a target with a baseline and short, medium and long-term outcomes against which progress can be measured. In comparison to ecological indicators, management-based indicators incur low implementation costs, as they do not require technical capacity or resources for ecological monitoring and can easily be applied at regional and national levels across the world.

The ecosystem approach indicators and assessment criteria described here are summarised in Table 16. Referring back to SDG 14, Target 14.2 calls for sustainable management and protection of marine and coastal ecosystems. Integrated planning and management approaches, such as Marine/Maritime Spatial Planning or Integrated Coastal Zone Management, have been identified as key tools for sustainable, ecosystem-based management (Ehler and Douvère 2009). Consequently, the implementation of these approaches can be considered as a valid indicator for ecosystem-based management.

Table 16: Summary of ecosystem approach indicators and assessment criteria currently used by Regional Seas Programmes and other key intergovernmental, international or regional bodies

Regional Seas Programme/ Organisation	Indicator/assessment criteria
OSPAR	Ecological indicators that are in line with MSDF Descriptors of good environmental status
HELCOM	HELCOM indicator for maritime spatial planning: Number of countries having maritime spatial plans coherent across borders and applying the ecosystem approach
UNEP-MAP	Common Indicators (ecological indicators)
EU MSFD (Marine Directive)	Descriptors of good environmental standard (ecological indicators)
NOWPAP	<p>Mid-Term Strategy 2018-2023 Objective: NOWPAP countries increasingly apply ecosystem-based approach to planning and management as a basis to achieve healthy and productive coastal and marine ecosystems.</p> <p>Outcomes/ Expected Accomplishments for this priority area:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NOWPAP member states are developing and applying ecosystem-based management policies, tools and practices to support sustainable development of coastal zones and the marine environment; • Planning and decision-making processes for ICZM and MSP by NOWPAP member states recognize inter-connectedness between the land and the sea and promote cross-sectoral cooperation; • 1.3. Planning mechanisms, including integrated water resources management, ICZM and MSP in NOWPAP member states contribute to reduced pressures on the coastal and marine environment.

SDG Indicator 14.5.1

A review of existing indicators and methodologies for monitoring the coverage of MPAs used by Regional Seas Programmes and other key intergovernmental, international or regional bodies shows that six Regional Seas Programmes currently have indicators, assessment criteria or reporting in place for MPA coverage, as does the Global Environment Facility Transboundary Waters Assessment Programme (GEF-TWAP).

Table 17 summarises the key criteria of the different approaches. The two most frequently assessed and reported criteria are ‘number of MPAs’ and ‘total (surface) area covered by MPAs (coverage in km²)’. Some Regional Seas Programmes also calculate ‘the percentage of total marine area covered by MPAs (percentage %)’ or ‘changes in coverage (in km² or percentage %)’.

Table 17: Key criteria of existing indicators, assessment criteria or reporting requirements related to MPAs that are currently used by Regional Seas Programmes and by GEF-TWAP.

	OSPAR	HELCOM	Bucharest Convention	NOWPAP	CPPS	Arctic Council	GEF-TWAP
Number of MPAs	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Total area covered by MPAs (km ²)	✓	×	✓	✓	×	✓	✓
Percentage of total marine area covered by MPAs (%)	✓	✓	×	✓	×	✓	×
Trends/changes in MPA coverage (km ² ; %)	×	×	✓	×	✓	✓	✓
Distribution across IUCN management categories	×	×	×	×	✓	✓	×
Management in place	✓	✓	×	×	×	×	×
Ecological coherence	✓	×	×	×	×	×	×
Geographic extent (in terms of global distribution of MPAs)	×	×	×	×	×	×	✓

	OSPAR	HELCOM	Bucharest Convention	NOWPAP	CPPS	Arctic Council	GEF-TWAP
Percentage of marine areas covered by MPAs in relation to Aichi Target 11 ⁴⁰	×	×	×	✓	×	×	×

Existing regional approaches to calculating MPA coverage require clear definitions of 1) what is considered as an MPA, and 2) the total (surface) area considered by the indicator. These are prerequisite for being able to calculate MPA coverage, and the proportion (percentage) of total marine area covered. Some Regional Seas Programmes, for example OSPAR (Northeast Atlantic) and HELCOM (Baltic Sea) have their own definitions of what they consider as an MPA.

Others use the protected area definition⁴¹ and management categories⁴² of the IUCN. CPPS (Southeast Pacific) and the Arctic Council (Arctic Sea), for example, report on the distribution of MPAs across IUCN management categories.

MPA coverage indicators and assessment criteria currently used by Regional Seas Programmes and other key intergovernmental, international or regional bodies are summarised in Table 18.

40 UN Strategic Plan for Biodiversity (2010-2020) – Aichi Target 11 *By 2020, at least 17 per cent of terrestrial and inland water areas and 10 per cent of coastal and marine areas, especially areas of particular importance for biodiversity and ecosystem services, are conserved through effectively and equitably managed, ecologically representative and well-connected systems of protected areas and other effective area-based conservation measures, and integrated into the wider landscape and seascape.* For more information about the target: <https://www.cbd.int/sp/targets/rationale/target-11/>

41 IUCN definition of protected area: *“a clearly defined geographical space, recognised, dedicated and managed, through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values”* (Dudley, N. (ed.) 2008. Guidelines for Applying Protected Area Management Categories. IUCN: Gland, Switzerland. p.8-9.)

42 IUCN protected area management categories: Ia Strict Nature Reserve, Ib Wilderness Area, II National Park, III Natural Monument or Feature, IV Habitat/Species Management Area, V Protected Landscape/Seascape, VI Protected area with sustainable use of natural resources. Online: <https://www.iucn.org/theme/protected-areas/about/protected-area-categories>

Table 18: Summary of MPA coverage indicators and assessment criteria currently used by Regional Seas Programmes and other key intergovernmental, international or regional bodies.

Regional Seas Programme/Organisation	Indicator/assessment criteria
OSPAR	<p>Criteria for assessing the ecological coherence of OSPAR MPAs:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Geographically well distributed (connectivity), 2. Cover at least 10% in area of all biogeographic provinces (representativeness), 3. Represent all EUNIS Level 3 habitat classes and OSPAR threatened and/or declining species and habitats (features and resilience).
HELCOM	<p>HELCOM indicators:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Coverage of protected areas in relation to marine areas, including in individual sub-basins of the Baltic Sea and exclusive economic zone 2. Percentage of HELCOM MPAs having management plans or measures in place
Bucharest Convention	<p>Indicator for Ecological Quality Objective 2b (Conserve coastal and marine habitats and landscapes): Number and total area of marine and coastal protected areas increased</p>
NOWPAP	<p>Reporting on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of MPAs • Area of MPAs in km² • Total regional coverage of MPAs in % of exclusive economic zone
CPPS	<p>Indicator 1: Marine and Coastal Protected Areas, reported as:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Number of marine and coastal protected areas per IUCN category 2. Total surface of marine and coastal protected areas per IUCN category (km²) 3. Marine and coastal surface area by country 4. Marine and coastal protected areas in the Southeast Pacific 5. Increase in surface area of marine and coastal protected areas by country 2004–2015 (km²) 6. Percentage of marine and coastal protected areas in relation to Aichi Target 11
Arctic Council	<p>Reporting on:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Number and area covered (% and km² of Arctic marine area), based on clear definitions of Arctic marine area boundaries (from the Conservation of Arctic Flora and Fauna (CAFF) working group) and of MPAs; 2. Trends in MPA coverage within the CAFF boundary 1900-2016 (in % of area covered) 3. Distribution of MPAs across each of the six IUCN Management Categories (in % of area covered) <p>Also reporting on number and area covered (% and km²) of other area-based measures of importance for Arctic marine biodiversity, including % within MPAs:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Areas of heightened ecological and cultural significance 2. Ecologically or Biologically Significant marine Areas (EBSAs) 3. Particularly Sensitive Sea Areas (PSSAs)

Regional Seas Programme/ Organisation

Indicator/assessment criteria

GEF-TWAP

Indicator: Change in protected area coverage within Large Marine Ecosystems (LMEs)

1. Number
2. Total area
3. Geographic extent
4. Index of percentage change (1982-2014) in total area covered by MPAs per LME
5. Cumulative area of MPAs in all LMEs



Section

A3

Appendix 3: Country case studies and examples

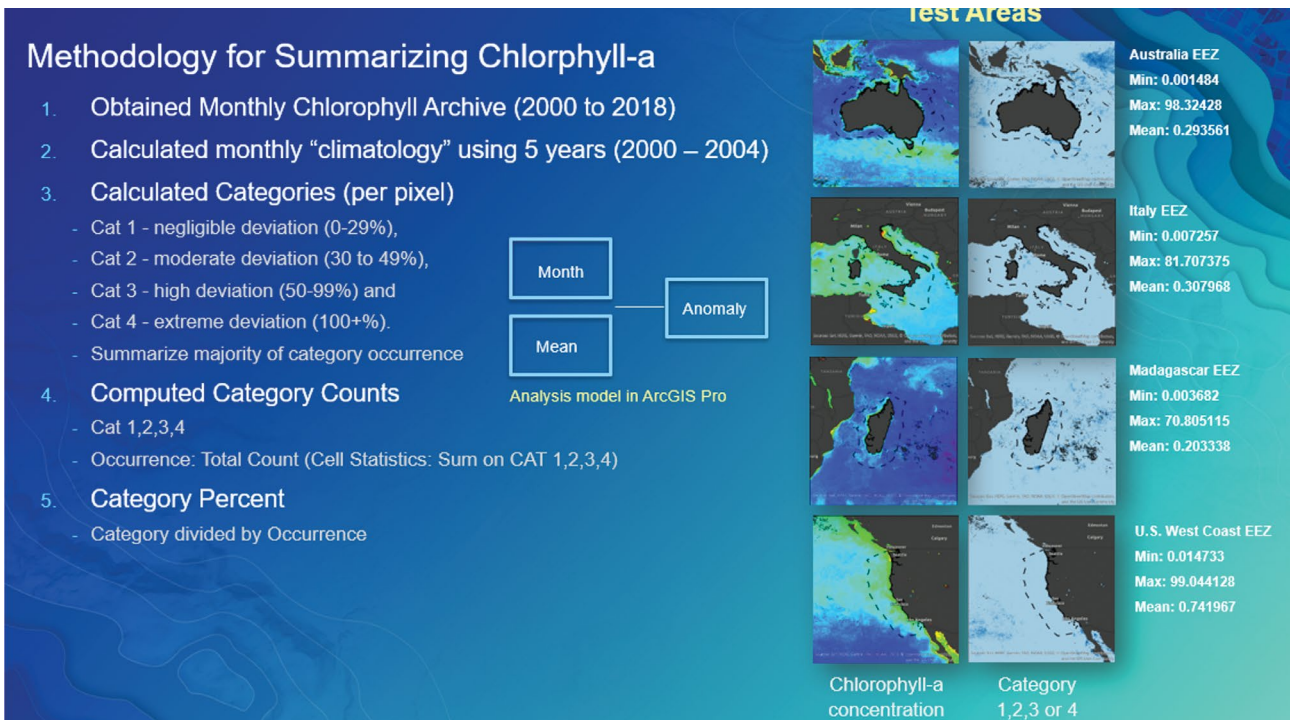
As mentioned, the approaches in this manual have been extensively testing in various Regional Seas Programmes. In addition, the experiences on specific indicators, the overall approach in this

manual was pilot testing in Colombia and Fiji. The country case studies in this section focuses on Fiji and Colombia while also bringing in some additional information and experiences.

SDG Indicator 14.1.1a

Deviations in chlorophyll-a for different thresholds was analysed in order to choose a threshold for anomalies. This approach was tested in Australia, Italy, Madagascar and the United States (including

the West Coast and the Gulf of Mexico). Based on this analysis, negligible and moderate deviations as defined below are relatively common whereas a cut of 50% represents an anomaly.



Text Box 2 summarises findings from the country missions to Fiji and Colombia on national monitoring programmes for eutrophication,

and national capacity for using satellite remote sensing to collect Chlorophyll-a data for tracking progress against SDG Target 14.1.

Text Box 2: Insights from the country missions on eutrophication monitoring using Chlorophyll-a

Fiji: Focus on regional scale and institutions

Fiji does not currently have a national monitoring programme for eutrophication. Using satellite remote sensing to provide Chlorophyll-a data for monitoring eutrophication was seen as a possible option by the government representatives consulted during the country mission. However, an issue of scale was noted: would satellite image resolutions be sufficiently fine for the monitoring of eutrophication around small islands? For Fiji and other small, multi-island states in the Pacific, satellite remote sensing of Chlorophyll-a might be more appropriate to monitor eutrophication at a regional scale than at country/island level.

In this context, it is worth noting that, for Fiji and other Pacific island states, regional institutions play an important role in data collection, indicator assessment, reporting and policy implementation. Key regional bodies are the Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environmental Programme (SPREP; i.e. the Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Seas Programme), and the Pacific Community, a regional intergovernmental organisation that supports the island states and has responsibility for data. This regional support is key as Pacific island states often lack the resources and capacity for large scale data collection and monitoring.

Of note is the fact that SDG Indicators 14.1.1a and 14.1.1b are not included in the 109 SDG indicators that the Pacific SDGs Taskforce and the Pacific Statistics Steering Committee has decided to take forward in the region. This could present a major issue for countries in the region, such as Fiji, given the major role that regional bodies play there in monitoring and reporting.

Colombia: Strong in-country capacity for national monitoring

Colombia is not currently monitoring eutrophication at national level. It is understood that data collected on dissolved oxygen, nutrients, Chlorophyll-a and microplastics feed into the national indicator on marine and coastal water quality.

For Chlorophyll-a, Colombia is using satellite observations from the NASA MODIS-Aqua mission, with daily temporal resolution, and spatial resolution of 1 km, as well as monthly composite images at 4 km. The Chlorophyll-a satellite data are calibrated with samples taken *in situ* and measured in the laboratory by spectrophotometry, using the Lorenzen method.

Colombia has in-country capacity for using satellite remote sensing to monitor Chlorophyll-a concentrations at national level. The country is currently planning a pilot study at sub-national level and developing a roadmap for monitoring Chlorophyll-a.

Text box 3 illustrates two examples of South African cities evaluating marine pollution and seeking to understand the impacts on the marine environment. These examples include

pollutants that could contribute to chlorophyll spikes and portray a need for collecting data to inform indicator 14.1.1a so that localities have the resources to respond to pollution events.

Text Box 3: Challenges in Monitoring Marine Outfall Sites in South Africa

Durban: Environmental Surveys in Outfall Regions

Researchers in Durban have developed a monitoring programme to study the effects of wastewater discharge into the marine environment (Newman 2019). Many coastal cities discharge their wastewater to the sea through deep water outfalls, but due to the changing composition of modern wastewater (as a result of shifts in household and industry waste), there is limited knowledge about the impacts of these outfalls on the marine environment.

The monitoring programme in Durban is managed by The Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) and it has lasted over 40 years, making it one of the longest continuous monitoring programmes in South Africa (Newman 2019). This monitoring programme is an example of how sub-national data collection is important. Information from this monitoring programme could build toward data collection for indicator 14.1.1a.

Cape Town: Responding to New Pollutants in Sewage Outfall Sites

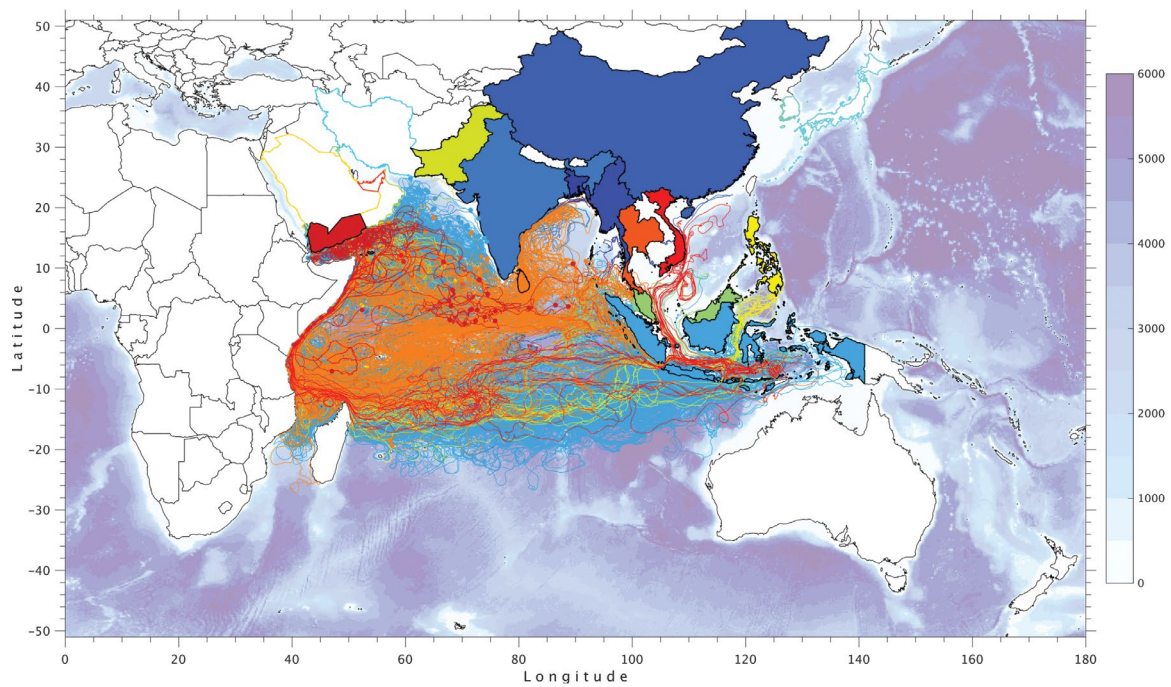
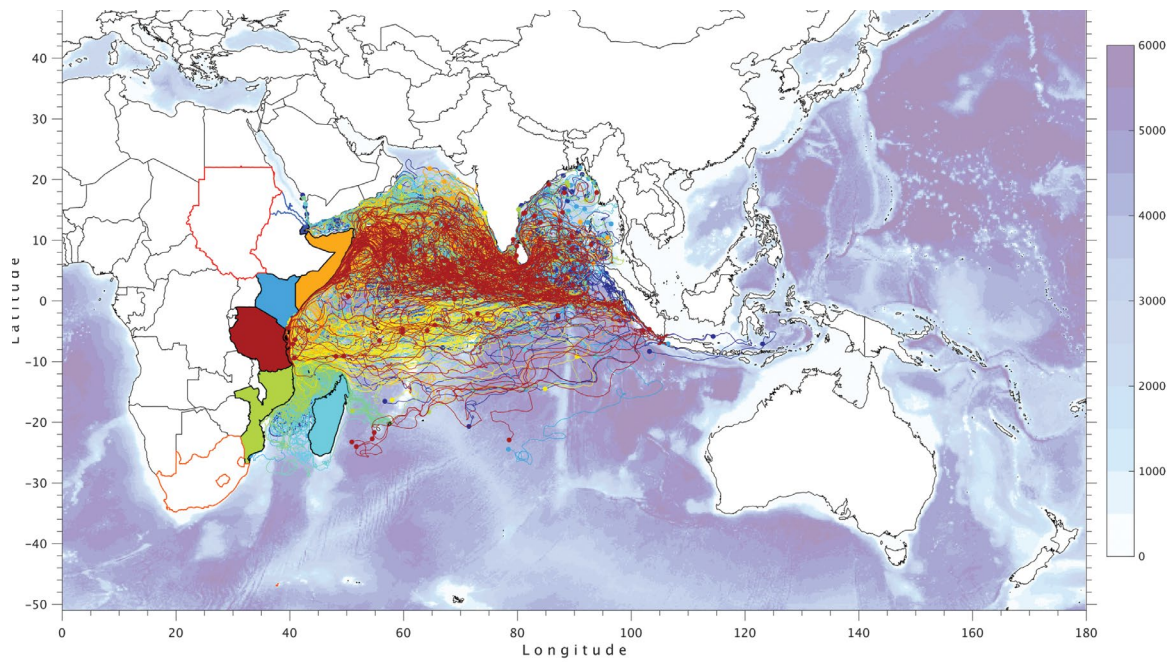
Cape Town needs to adapt wastewater treatment technologies in response to recent evidence that household pollutants are spiking in the marine environment (Petrik *et al* 2017). Following proposals to produce drinking water by desalination, this study examined the marine environment near sewage outfall sites to assess evidence of factors that could only have been sourced from human sewage. The findings confirm that seawater and beach water samples occasionally present health risks. Despite these findings, city officials failed to respond, with recent articles stating that the city did not publish water quality tests for two years and that chemicals from sewage outfall sites are accumulating on Cape Town beaches (Kretzmann 2019a; Kretzmann 2019b). This lack of data is a critical issue to approaching solutions; in response, researchers are calling for investigation into new treatment technologies.

Ongoing monitoring and data collection toward SDG 14.1.1a as recommended throughout this manual could support this issue with a knowledge base to inform past pollutants. This could assist in developing new technologies by providing proof that the new technologies are required to respond to the pollutants. Furthermore, the data nationally could build capacity and therefore help local governments with guidance to on how to react to marine pollution problems.

SDG Indicator 14.1.1b

For modelling of plastic flow, the below is the results of a simulation of particle accumulation in Kenya based Simulated particles that flow within 15-km of the Kenyan coastline from the eastern African countries (top panel) and from the Asian countries (bottom panel) during the 2-year

simulation. Colour-shaded countries have particles that reached Kenya coast. For legibility purpose, 1 out of 5 particles are shown for Comoros (618), Kenya (552), and Somalia (875); 1 out of 10 particles are shown for the United republic of Tanzania (1151) and for Indonesia (1073).



UNEP in collaboration with CSIRO pilot tested the methodology on collecting data. CSIRO has led pilots (or is in the process of finalizing a pilot) in the following countries: Bangladesh, China, Republic of Korea, Vietnam, Chile, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Nigeria, Brazil, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Peru, Philippines, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Thailand and the United States. More information on this piloting can be found at

<https://uneplive.unep.org/egm>, on the CSIRO website or in the GESAMP methodologies.

Text Box 4 summarises findings, from the country missions to Fiji and Colombia, on national monitoring programmes for marine plastics, and on using beach litter surveys for tracking progress against SDG Target 14.1.

Text Box 4: Insights from the country missions on marine plastics monitoring using beach litter

Fiji: Potential to capitalise on existing beach clean-ups

Fiji does not currently have a national monitoring programme for marine plastics. Beach clean-ups do take place in the country; however, these events tend to be organised locally and data are not generally collected. **A future national monitoring programme could build on these local beach clean-ups by integrating them into the step-by-step methodology for the beach litter SDG indicator.**

Some national and regional data are also available for microplastic concentrations in surface waters, sediments and organisms. These microplastics data are gathered using NOAA methodologies for marine samples.

As already noted for eutrophication monitoring (see Text Box 1), regional bodies play a key role in Fiji and other Pacific island states with regard to data collection, indicator assessment, reporting and policy implementation. As noted earlier, SDG Indicators 14.1.1a and 14.1.1b are not included in the 109 SDG indicators that the Pacific SDGs Taskforce and the Pacific Statistics Steering Committee decided to take forward in the region.

Colombia: Focus on microplastics

Colombia is not currently monitoring marine plastics at the national level. However, microplastics data are being collected in six pilot stations from *in situ* sediment, water and fish samples. These data are understood to feed into the national marine and coastal water quality indicator.

SDG Indicator 14.2.1

Text Box 5 summarises findings from the country missions to Fiji and Colombia on national efforts towards monitoring the implementation

of ecosystem-based approaches and using ICZM plans for tracking progress against SDG Target 14.2.

Text box 5: Insights from the country missions on monitoring the implementation of ecosystem-based approach using ICZM

Fiji: Awaiting a national marine spatial planning framework

Fiji is committed to implementing marine spatial planning across its entire national waters, including the Exclusive Economic Zone. One way for Fiji to realise this commitment might be to adopt a similar approach to that taken in Colombia, which has developed its own tailored ICZM approach, based on UNESCO’s *Methodological Guide to Integrated Coastal Zone Management* (Henocque and Denis 2001). This way forward was noted by participants consulted during the in-country mission. However, a national framework for marine spatial planning or ICZM in Fiji is not yet in place. Consequently, there is currently no clear plan for the implementation of SDG Indicator 14.2.1 or its ICZM indicator. A possible option noted during the country mission would be for Fiji to assess the implementation of ecosystem-based management in its waters through Locally Managed Marine Areas, which are taking an ecosystem-based approach.

Colombia: A national indicator on ICZM implementation

Colombia is already implementing its own national indicator for SDG Indicator 14.2.1. The national indicator ‘*progress in the implementation of planning instruments for marine and coastal zones*’ provides information on the existence, and state of implementation progress of ICZM in geographically defined coastal zone areas, which are referred to as *Coastal and Oceanic Environmental Units* (UAC in Spanish). The indicator measures the number of UACs that are making progress towards the implementation of ICZM and specifies what stage of the ICZM implementation process each UAC is at. It is calculated using the following formula:

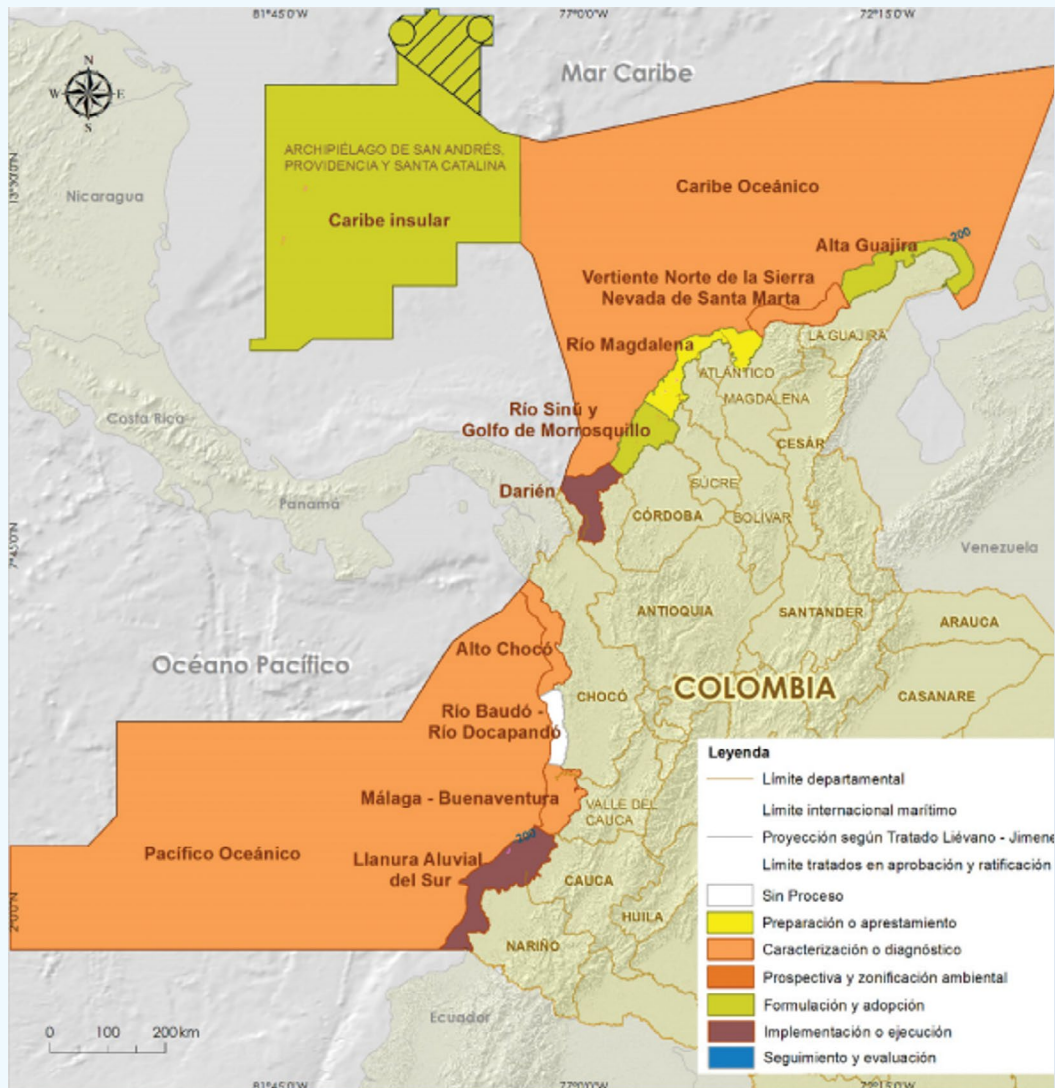
$$\frac{\text{\# UAC with progress in N stage from the ICZM methodology} \times 100}{\text{\# Total of UAC in coastal zones}}$$

Where ‘N’ refers to one the following stages:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Preparation | 6. Formulation |
| 2. Characterization | 7. Adoption |
| 3. Diagnostic | 8. Implementation/Execution |
| 4. Foresight and environmental zoning | 9. Monitoring and evaluation |
| 5. Guidelines | |

The indicator results are spatially presented as a map, onto which the UACs are colour-coded depending on their ICZM implementation stages (see Figure 6). The Colombian indicator currently focuses on coastal areas but has the potential to be adapted to include the country’s Exclusive Economic Zone.

Colombia’s national indicator approach is very similar to the step-by-step methodology for the ‘ICZM protocol’ indicator presented in the *Global Manual*. The Colombian formula to calculate ICZM implementation progress could provide an alternative option to the step-by-step methodology for countries to implement the indicator for SDG Target 14.2.



The colours refer to the different implementation stages: White: no progress; Yellow: preparation; Orange: characterization; Red: foresight and environmental zoning; Green: formulation and adoption; Brown: implementation/execution; Blue: monitoring and evaluation. (Source: INVEMAR 2015)

Figure 6: Spatial distribution of progress in the implementation of ICZM for the period of 1999-2014 in Colombia

Text box 6 provides an overview of examples where ICZM is currently implemented in different Regional Seas Programmes. All examples were adapted from the informational document on the

Regional Seas Indicator 22: National Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM) guidelines and enabling legislation are adopted (see Annex 2).

Text Box 6: Examples of ICZM in Practice

Mediterranean Sea:

Beginning in 2008, this ICZM protocol was the first adopted at the supranational level, and as a result, there was call for capacity building to implement the ICZM. With the intent to establish a knowledge base of ICZM capacities in the region and assess institutional integration, a comprehensive questionnaire (mentioned in step two of ICZM implementation) was developed and circulated. Since, the questionnaire was adapted to update existing information and a core set of 15 indicators for the Regional Seas to measure effectiveness of implementation of ICZM policies and programmes. They include: (1) added value per sector; (2) area of built-up space; (3) bathing water quality; (4) commercial fish stocks; (5) coastal and marine litter; (6) economic production; (7) employment; (8) erosion and instability; (9) natural capital; (10) hypoxia; (11) number of enterprises; (12) population size and density; (13) sea level rise; and (14) water efficiency index.

Black Sea:

While an earlier plan for the Black Sea Integrated Coastal and Shelf Zone Monitoring and Modeling Program was existing in 1999, it is unclear what the program achieved. Later, the Black Sea followed the Mediterranean ICZM Protocol and participated in a similar stock taking survey using the questionnaire (with results published in 2015). Finally, the Black Sea Regional ICZM Guidelines were written and accepted.

Wider Caribbean:

The Caribbean Environment Programme (CEP) serves as the Convention Secretariat for the Cartagena Convention which was adopted in 1983 and entered into force in 1986. By 1990, CEP identified a regional programme on Integrated Planning and Institutional Development for the Management of Marine and Coastal resources (IPD) in order to pilot ICZM and to establish a regional methodological framework document. Shortly after, to strengthen national competence and develop region-wide ICZM approaches, the Guidelines for Integrated Planning and Management of Coastal and Marine Areas in the Wider Caribbean Region were published. Currently, Integrating Water, and Ecosystems Management in Caribbean SIDs (GEF-IWECO) is being implemented to reduce pollution and improve land management.

Northwest Pacific:

NOWPAP was adopted in 1994 and since, the Pollution Monitoring Regional Activity Centre (POMRAC) established the Integrated Coastal and River Basin Management (ICARM) Working Group in 2007. Following the Working Group, several publications were developed to establish an overview of management, present experiences and lessons learned in member countries and build guidelines for users in the NOWPAP

region. Respectively they include: the 2010 report, Regional Overview on Integrated Coastal and River Basin Management (ICRAM); Part 1 of the 2015 technical report on Integrated Coastal Planning and Ecosystem-based Management in the Northwest Pacific Region and Part 2 of the technical report.

ROPME Sea Area:

ROPME was established through the Kuwait Convention in 1979 and published its Guidelines on Integrated Coastal Areas Management in 2000. There has not been much evidence for action and successful implementation of ICZM within ROPME. National efforts are vital to integrate ICZM into planning and management at the national scale first in order to support ICZM development at the regional scale. Unfortunately, low reporting on ICZM at the national scale causes issues in understanding and supporting ICZM implementation at the regional scale.

Baltic Sea:

Within this region, there is no existing ICZM documentation, but there is information compiled on Maritime Spatial Planning (MSP) throughout the region. This information includes maps and documentation of the sea areas, national laws and regulations, governance, contact information, existing spatial plans and plans in development, and other relevant information for MSP. In 2016, the Guideline for the Implementation of Ecosystem-based Approach in Maritime Spatial Planning (MSP) in the Baltic Sea area was published and adopted by HELCOM. Prior to publication, a Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) was conducted including public consultation and transparent information. This represents how the MSP process can feed into ICZM, being a broader process than ICZM, and can provide a tool to make target areas and interventions spatially explicit.

SDG Target 14.2 is broad and encompasses three objectives for marine and coastal ecosystems: 1) sustainable management and protection, 2) resilience, and 3) restoration. SDG Indicator 14.2.1 addresses the first objective: ecosystem-based approaches are a key element of sustainable management and encompass marine and coastal protection. The latter is further covered by SDG Target 14.5⁴³. This overlap between SDG Targets 14.2 and 14.5 was noted during the country mission, by government representatives from Fiji, as a possible challenge for implementing the related SDG indicators.

As the Fiji government representatives explained, it is not always clear whether conservation efforts are part of sustainable management or marine protection, and thus whether they should be counted towards SDG Target 14.2 or 14.5.2.

The objectives of resilience and restoration are not covered by SDG Indicator 14.2.1. Resilience and restoration are partially covered by ecological indicators and ecosystem-based monitoring programmes, like those under OSPAR (Northeast Atlantic), UNEP-MAP (Mediterranean Sea) and the EU Marine Directive, which provide information

43 SDG Target 14.5 *By 2020, conserve at least 10 per cent of coastal and marine areas, consistent with national and international law and based on the best available scientific information*

about the status and trends of marine and coastal ecosystems.

Other existing indicators for resilience and restoration tend to focus on individual marine and coastal habitats, such as coral reefs, seagrass, saltmarsh and mangroves. These individual indicators cannot be easily aggregated, making it difficult to develop a standardised indicator and methodology for resilience or restoration

of marine ecosystems. One possible solution is to focus on a set number of regionally relevant critical habitats, for example the four ‘critical habitats’ identified by NOWPAP (Northwest Pacific) and CPPS (Southeast Pacific): mangroves, reefs, seagrass and saltmarsh. Once a small number of critical habitats is selected, countries could be encouraged to monitor and report on the status and trends of those habitats that happen to occur in their jurisdiction.



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SDG Indicator 14.5.1

Text Box 7 summarises findings from the country missions to Fiji and Colombia on national efforts

towards monitoring and reporting on MPA coverage to track progress against SDG Target 14.5.

Text box 7: Insights from the country missions on MPA coverage

Fiji: An ambitious national target

According to Protected Planet, 0.92% of Fiji’s national waters are currently covered by protected areas: 11,953km² of a total marine area of 1,293,035km² (UNEP-WCMC 2018a). During the country mission, it was noted that data on Fiji’s MPAs are submitted to the WDPA by the National Trust of Fiji, with plans for the Fiji Locally Managed Marine Areas, the Ministry of Environment and the Secretariat of the Pacific Regional Environment Programme to contribute information in the future.

Fiji has set itself an ambitious target to put 30% of its national waters under protection by 2020.

Colombia: A National Register of Protected Areas

In Colombia, the National Natural Parks (PNN in Spanish) is the national administrative body responsible for coordinating the national system of protected areas; collated data on protected areas are submitted to the WDPA. According to Protected Planet, 10.45% of Colombia’s national waters are currently covered by protected areas: 76,392km² of a total marine area of 730,742km² (UNEP-WCMC 2018b).

All information related to protected area coverage is also made available by PNN on the National Register of Protected Areas (RUNAP in Spanish)⁴⁴. RUNAP is a centralised protected area database on which Colombian environmental authorities can register protected areas under their jurisdiction, and upload information about these sites. PNN staff provide technical support and training where required to facilitate this process. The information uploaded into RUNAP includes metadata, geographic data and related images. RUNAP has an in-built validation and quality control process to ensure that all metadata and geographical data are accurate before being uploaded into the system. All data on protected area coverage are made freely available on the RUNAP website a month after a protected area has been declared. Data users can download geographic data in GIS (Geographic Information System) format (shapefile) and metadata as PDF (Portable Document Format).

44 Colombia’s National Register of Protected Areas (RUNAP): <http://runap.parquesnacionales.gov.co/>

Pilot testing acknowledgements

A special note of gratitude is extended to the governments of the Republic of Fiji, the Republic of Colombia, the Republic of Kenya, and the Republic of Seychelles for their involvement in the pilot testing of this Manual. The participants at workshops in each country provided valuable feedback which contributed to the improvement of the methodologies herein.

For the pilot testing in Fiji, we wish to thank the following individuals for their valued input: Epeli Waqavonovono, Litia Kurisaqila, Eleni Tokaduadua, Aisake Batibasaga, Leilani Kotobalavu, Richard Veeran, Nanise Kuridrani, Ribanataake Awira, Jeremy Hills, Philipp Gassner, Tommy Moore, Herman Timmermans, Paul Anderson, Amanda Wheatley, Anthony Talouli, Vainuupo Jungblut, Warren Lee Long, Malakai Vakautawale, Molly Powers-Tora, Jeremy Hills, Marta Ferreira, Cherie Morris, Sanjesh Naidu, Sangeeta Mangubhai, Yashika Nand, Jone Tamanitoakula, Rusila Savou, and Clare Postlethwaite.

For the pilot testing in Colombia, we wish to thank the following individuals for their valued input: Diana Nova Laverde, Juan Camilo Barbosa, Carolina Cacino, Gloria Lucia Vargas Briceno, Francisco Arias, Diana Isabel Gomez, Carolina Garcia, Paula Sierra, Anna Maria Gonzales Delgado, Constanza Ricaurte Villota, Carlos Arturo, Tania A. Romero, Johana Andrea Martinez Cuesta, Santiago Arango Botero, Diana Marcela Moreno Barco, Andres Ochoa, Oscar Fagua, Ana Maria Gonzalez, Kelly Moreno, Zoraida Jimenez, Paula Bueno Martinez, Marta Diaz, Laura Camacho, Margarita Roza, Jorge Duarte, Nidia Mayorga, Maria Claudia Vasquez, Laura Juliana Arciniegas Rojas, Sonia Angelica Jurado Caicedo, Paula Andrea Zapata Ramirez, Jackson Reina, and Argirio De Jesus Ramirez.

For the pilot testing in Kenya, we wish to thank the following individuals for their valued input: Catherine Mbaisi, Antony Mwangi, Caroline Muriuki, Charles Lange, Edith Kalo, Issak Elmi, James Kamula, Jojina Minis, Maureen Njeri, Maymuna Abdinasir, Njoki Mukiri, Protus Musawa, Ruth Ndentu, Sherry Saiva, Sophie Mutemi, Stephen Katua, Moses Mburu, Siasa Juma, Saadia Mohamed, Sylvester Maithia, Dan Ashitiva, Senewa Messopir, Mercy Amai, Nuru Mohamed, Sief Landi, Sidi Kadzitsu, Rogers Wangila, Marcel Otieno, Mohamed Ali Hirey, Abdulahi Omar, Mohamed Sagara, Haji Shibu, Patricia Akinyi K'Omudho, Eric Okuku, Mary Chiphatsi, Gilbert Owato Omondi, Catherine Mwalugha, Linet Kiteresi Imbayi, Anne Tek, Ayub Macharia, Joseph Chege, Nafialy Mutuma, Betty Ojuka, Lilian Machocho, Betterman Simidi, Nancy Ogonje, Daniel Letoiye, Edward Mwamuye, David Olendo, Edward Kimakwa, Zachary Maritim, Karen Njue, Julie Myra Alego, Griffins Ochieng, Dorothy Otieno, Sharon Okwany, Irene Westra, Walter von Opzeeland, Joel Amisi, Angela Kimaru, Lilian Mulupi, Leah Ambani, Winnie Awuor, Adegbile Oyeronke, Kofi Agbogah, Refilwe Mofokeng, and Peter Ryan.

For the pilot testing in Seychelles, we wish to thank the following individuals for their valued input: Alain de Comarmond, Nanette Laure, Fredrick Kinloch, Flavien Joubert, Julio Moustache, Marvis Keddy Estico, Francisca Veronica Hollanda, Patrick Dubois, Dainise Lyne Quatre, Amina Giselle Furneau, Ricky Nigel Simeon, Marie-Antoinette Micock, Ronny Joseph, Jude Moustache, Ryley Barbe, Marcus Moumou, Camilla Labonte, Farida Moncherry, Alison Lucas, and Victoria Alis.



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