

Living England 2022-23: Technical User Guide

A satellite derived national classification of England's broad habitats

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Executive summary

Living England 2022-23 is a satellite-derived national habitat map showing the extent and distribution of England's diverse habitats. This dataset provides an assessment of the likely broad habitats present across England aligned to the UK Biodiversity Action Plan (UKBAP) habitat classification framework. This is the first publication using a standardised workflow, which is intended for use in future years enabling future assessment of habitat change. Future iterations of Living England will be published every two years informed by up-to-date datasets and updated habitat ground data.

The Living England 2022-23 dataset has been developed using satellite imagery, environmental datasets and machine learning techniques, informed by a programme of national-scale field data collection, designed to record habitats based on their appearance from above to align with satellite views. Living England uses a bespoke spatial framework derived from seasonal imagery mosaics using image segmentation and an object-based image classification approach to map habitats across England. Habitat data was collated through targeted field surveys as well as additional available ground data records to train a machine learning model, which assess the relationships of broad habitats against a range of environmental predictors including; Sentinel-1 (S1) SAR and Sentinel-2 (S2) Optical data, LiDAR (Light Detection and Ranging) topographic data, computed S1 coherence, backscatter and LiDAR texture indices, proximity distances to OS features, climatic data, and soil data. Where existing good quality data is already available for specific habitats (e.g. Rural Payments Agency (RPA)'s Crop Map of England (CROME) detailing arable habitats), these habitats were assigned directly from these datasets (specifically for urban and arable habitats). Where bespoke methods are more suitable (e.g. areas of bare ground and saltmarsh), these have been developed specifically for Living England. The habitat data layers were then combined with the modelled outputs to produce the final map. Alongside the predicted habitats, a novel reliability metric indicating the confidence in the habitat assignment for each segment is provided based on the underlying data sources and data validation.

Living England 2022-23 provides national coverage of broad habitats and now includes a mapped spatial extent of Solar Farms (0.1% of England's land cover). Living England 2022-23 reports an overall accuracy for modelled habitats of 87%, with a class-wise balanced accuracy of 90%. This varies between classes and regions across England. The reliability metric indicates 90% of England's area is mapped with a score of very high to medium reliability.

This technical user guide summarises the data and methodologies used to create the Living England 2022-23 product and highlights how data attributes can be used to inform use of the data. This guide accompanies the data release under an Open Government Licence (OGL).

Contents

1. Introduction

1.1 Purpose and Scope

This Technical User Guide defines the product specification for the Living England 2022- 23 national habitat map. It details the updated methodology used to derive the 2022-23 dataset, which will be applied for future iterations and replaces the methodology used for previous versions. The key updates to the methodology include new additional attributes such as the reliability metric, the removal of unclassified segments resulting in full national coverage with no unclassified segments, improved urban and water mapping, the inclusion of solar farms as a separate class, improvements to the model methodology resulting in improved accuracy especially for rarer habitats, and the integration of LiDAR data and summer mosaics. This guide also highlights key use cases and limitations to help users make informed decisions when applying this dataset to their own work. It provides a brief overview of the data inputs, modelling approach, output map, data formats and licensing information.

1.2 The Living England Project

High quality national-scale evidence is vital in assessing the state of our natural capital assets. National-scale habitat ground monitoring surveys are expensive, and data collection can be restricted due to accessibility and spatial coverage. Thus, there is a requirement for open, freely available data at scale to inform habitat assessments delivered in a reproducible, robust manner to inform policy and land management decisions. With policies such as the Environmental Land Management schemes (ELMs) and the England Tree Action Plan (ETAP) set to implement changes on our landscapes across England, it is more important than ever to have updatable, representative and reliable evidence of habitat extent and distribution over time.

The Living England project started in 2016 and is a multi-year project which produces a national habitat map of England using satellite imagery, field collected data and machine learning (Kilcoyne et al., 2017, 2022). The project is funded by the Department for the Environment, Farming and Rural Affairs (Defra) through the Natural Capital and Ecosystem Assessment (NCEA) programme, and Environmental Land Management schemes (ELMs). Living England is an integral part of the NCEA, delivering a nationwide survey of England's land, coast, and seas: mapping the location, extent and condition of our ecosystems and the benefits they provide. Through comprehensive monitoring, innovative measurement and the development of tools and guidance, the programme is providing insights on how and why our environment is changing and the impact of this, so that it can be better protected and managed.

The Living England project brings together expertise from ecology, Earth observation and data science to integrate knowledge of how habitats and dominant species appear on the ground. The project generates national-scale analysis-ready data, exploiting open-source European Space Agency (ESA) Sentinel imagery, used to produce Living England. Alongside in-house analysis and modelling, the project also runs national-scale ground

data collection, trained and supported by field surveyors using bespoke tools for data collection. This will provide robust, reliable ground data throughout the longevity of the project for training and validating outputs.

The project plans to use the methodology set out in this guide in future years to produce updated iterations Living England every two years. These will be informed using the latest ground data collected and up-to-date satellite imagery. The project will continue to develop and optimise the approach to improve identification of habitats using Earth observation data, whilst limiting significant changes to the methodology.

1.3 Living England 2022-23

Living England 2022-23 [\(Figure 1\)](#page-8-0) describes the extent and distribution of England's broad habitat types using input data from 2022-23. The resulting map describes England's broad habitats detected using 10 m Sentinel 2 (S2) satellite imagery. These categories are predominantly aligned with the UK Biodiversity Action Plan (UKBAP) broad habitats (JNCC, 2011). UKBAP is a terrestrial habitat classification system commonly used across England. The data represents predicted habitats from 2022-23 providing an assessment of natural capital assets.

Living England 2022-23

Figure 1: Living England Habitat Map 2022-23

Living England 2022-23 relates to imagery captured from Autumn 2022 and Spring and Summer 2023. Living England is projected using British National Grid (BNG) coordinate reference system (ESPG:27700) and covers England's terrestrial habitats up to Mean High-Water Springs (MHWS), as defined by the Ordnance Survey (Ordnance Survey,

2023a). The boundary of the whole Living England dataset extends up to the OS England boundary line (2023a) in order to capture the full extent of the coastal saltmarsh habitat, which extends beyond MHWS to the edge of the intertidal zone.

1.2.1 Data Format

Living England 2022-23 is freely available under an Open Government Licence (OGL).

The Living England dataset is provided as a geopackage representing spatial polygons, using a bespoke spatial framework, described in Section [3.3 Image Segmentation.](#page-20-0) The polygons are created using S2 imagery with a spatial resolution of 10 m, and a Minimum Mapping Unit (MMU) of 3 pixels (300 m2).

The data is available to view on:

- [Defra's MAGIC Platform](https://magic.defra.gov.uk/) (MAGIC, 2024)
- [Natural England Open data portal](https://naturalengland-defra.opendata.arcgis.com/) (Natural England, 2024)
- [Defra Data Services Platform](https://environment.data.gov.uk/) (Defra, 2024)

The data are available to download via data.gov.uk as a geopackage (.gpkg) GIS file. Due to the size of the dataset, splitting of larger geographical areas may be required.

The dataset is also available as a 10 m raster layer, please contact livingenglandenquiries@naturalengland.org.uk for access to this data.

1.2.2 Data Attributes

For each segment within the Living England habitat map, a series of data attributes are provided. [Table 1](#page-9-0) shows the name, data type and a description of the attributes associated with each segment.

Table 1: Descriptions of the data attributes in the Living England Habitat map 2022-23

2. Data Sources

To create the Living England 2022-23 habitat map, data are collected, representing the habitat types and locations on the ground, during extensive field surveys. This is used alongside Earth observation data and a range of environmental data layers to indicate physical, chemical, and biological properties of the range of broad habitats across England.

Data sources include:

(a) Ground data points

- Living England national field survey data.
- Natural England active field data campaigns: including the Long-Term Monitoring Network, England Peat Map and Sites of Special Scientific Interest (SSSI) Protected Sites Monitoring.
- Other habitat surveys shared with the project, including from the National Plant Monitoring Scheme and Wetland annex 1 surveys.
- **(b) Geospatial data**
- European Space Agency (ESA) Sentinel imagery: Sentinel-1 (S1) radar imagery & Sentinel-2 (S2) optical imagery.
- Topographic data: Environment Agencies (EA's) National LiDAR Programme collected between 2017 – 2022.
- Climatic data: Met Office's HadUK gridded climate product.
- Geology & soils datasets: BGS geology and soil parent material, Cranfield NATMAP soilscapes.
- Specific feature and habitat datasets: Ordnance Survey Mastermap (OSMM) Topographic layer, EA's Saltmarsh Extent and Zonation, Rural Payment Agencies (RPA) Crop Map of England (CROME).

A comprehensive list of all datasets used to create Living England 2022-23 and how they have been used can be found in [Appendix 2.](#page-59-0)

3. Methodology

An overview of the processing steps used to create the Living England (LE) habitat map 2022-23 are outlined in [Figure 2.](#page-12-1) Further details for each step are described throughout Section 3.

Figure 2: A summary of the key stages of the Living England workflow: field survey data, earth observation data, machine learning modelling, and production of the habitat probability map.

3.1 Field Data collection and preparation

3.1.1 Field data collection

Living England is supported by a national-scale field data collection programme, collecting data specifically for the purpose of informing Earth observation models. This allows for direct targeting of data collection, where field data is lacking, or model confidence is low and warrants further investigation in the field. This targeted collection has vastly improved the modelled approach and the data available to validate the Living England maps.

The Living England field survey data are collected via externally contracted field surveys as well as training of internal Natural England field surveyors according to the Living England field protocols.

Field data collection consists of targeting specific habitats and gaining access permission to survey a site. Once obtained, the surveyor will locate a targeted segment and collect a central data point, recording the percentage cover of habitats present. The habitat within the segment should be homogenous, covering >60% of the segment, to be recorded as a distinct broad habitat class. To facilitate easy and consistent data recording, a bespoke ESRI Field Maps application (ESRI, 2024) has been specifically developed for collecting data aligned to the Living England spatial framework.

3.1.2 Additional habitat survey data

To supplement field data collection for the project, survey data from ongoing and past national surveys within Natural England is also collated, as well as habitat survey data collated from partner organisations, including Forest Research's National Forest Inventory (NFI, 2023), data from the Environment Agency's coastal surveys (EA, 2018, 2022), and the National Plant Monitoring Scheme (NPMS, 2023). The data go through several cleaning and quality assurance (QA) steps and have been translated into the Living England habitat classification framework (Holmes et al., 2024) through an automated reproducible process, utilising a Living England habitat translation database. This database brings together knowledge from the correspondences between different habitat classifications (JNCC, 2008; Mountford and Strachan, 2022) and is supplemented by specialist knowledge from the team ecologists, to automate the translation of survey data collected using different habitat classifications in the field, into the Living England classes consistently [\(see Appendix 1\)](#page-48-0).

3.1.3 Field data quality assurance

The combined field dataset consisting of the Living England surveys and existing surveys were collated, totalling 116,915 data points. The data went through an automated quality assurance process in R (version 4.2.3, R Core Team, 2023), to ensure the data are representative of the habitats identified.

The process included the following two checks:

- 1. **Data duplicates** removal of duplicate data points where the same class has been identified multiple times for the same segment.
- 2. **Spectral outliers** removal of data points which do not meet expected spectral reflectance value ranges, indicating this may no longer be representative of the habitat present in the latest imagery mosaics.

Data duplicates are removed through a 'one-per-segment process' which involves selecting unique Segment ID and broad habitat class combinations, retaining the data point with the latest survey date recorded. This process retains data points where multiple habitat classes have been identified in the same segment; however, these must meet the filter for spectral outliers for both habitats. A total of 17, duplicates were removed at this stage.

Spectral outliers are identified through comparisons with a subset of data where high confidence suggest it is representative of the current habitat state. The data subset is created with the current ongoing field surveys from Natural England, shown in [Table 2](#page-13-0) where data has been collected in the last 3 years (between 1st January 2021 - 12th December 2023). The subset of high confidence data also underwent a quality assurance step to flag any outliers in the data. Where data points were flagged as an outlier in any of the S2 bands minimum or maximum ranges across all three seasons, the points were removed. This resulted in 110 points being removed from the "high confidence" data subset.

For each habitat class in the data subset, the minimum and maximum S2 spectral reflectance values and S1 backscatter values are calculated for each image band to give an expected habitat spectral range (refer to Section [3.2 Geospatial Data Processing\)](#page-14-0). The spectral ranges are used to filter the remaining habitat data, with a data point removed if it is flagged as an outlier in any image band. Outliers within the high confidence datasets were flagged based on statistical inter quartile range thresholds, whereas outliers for other datasets were flagged where points fell above or below the values set by the high confidence data subset. Where the data references a segment covered by cloud in all three Spring, Summer and Autumn S2 mosaics, the data point is removed, however, no points were identified during this step. If it only has cloud cover across one or two of the seasonal image mosaics, but still sits within the habitat spectral range, the data point is retained. There were 818 points flagged with cloud in either one or two seasonal mosaics which were retained.

After removing any duplicates (17,294), cloud (0) and spectral outliers (27,692) of which the majority were from old data which were no longer representative of the habitat present, a total of 71,929 habitat data points remained and were used in the workflow for training and validation. Of this total, 69,069 data points were used to inform the habitat classification. In addition to these, an additional 418 hedgerow points were digitised by the Living England team based on the seasonal mosaics and segmentation, totalling 69,549 ground points to inform the modelled habitats [\(3.4 Model-Based Classification\)](#page-21-0). This excludes points relating to non-modelled habitats where bespoke methods were used to map extent (Section [3.5 Specific Habitat Classification\)](#page-26-0), with points used to evaluate and validate the bespoke map outputs.

3.2 Geospatial Data Processing

3.2.1 Biogeographic Zones

To accommodate the acquisition of cloud-free seasonal image mosaics, and accounting for phenological and habitat variations across England in the classification model, England was split into 13 Biogeographic Zones (Biogeographic Zones Living England, 2019) (BGZs). These are pictured in Figure 3 with a generalised description of the zones. The BGZs were derived by merging the National Character Areas (Natural England, 2021),

which are distinct areas each with a unique 'sense of place', in accordance with satellite orbits.

Figure 3: Living England Biogeographical Zones (BGZs): generalised regions describing areas of shared phenological and habitat characteristics

3.2.2 Sentinel-2 Cloud and Cloud Shadow Masking

Sentinel-2 (S2) is a wide swath, high-resolution, multispectral imager with 13 spectral bands including visible, near-infrared and short-wave infrared satellite part of the European Space Agency (ESA) and European Union (EU) Copernicus programme (ESA, 2012). S2 provides imagery of the Earth's surface at a spatial resolution varying from 10 m to 60 m. As an optical satellite, the land surface is often obscured by cloud, and modified in appearance by cloud shadow, both of which reduce the quality of the imagery used as input for habitat modelling. Cloud and cloud shadow must therefore be removed prior to modelling to produce cloud free mosaic images of the land surface for use in modelling.

The methodology for the identification of clouds, and subsequently cloud shadow, is based on the S2 cloudless cloud probability product (Gorelick et al., 2017, Copernicus Sentinel data, 2023) The S2 cloudless cloud probability layer is used to identify cloudy pixels, using a threshold cloud probability of greater or equal to 50%, following the testing of a range of potential threshold values, to ensure that as much cloud as possible was removed from

imagery. Higher values often resulted in thin wispy clouds remaining and so a lower threshold was selected to ensure these clouds were removed as the inclusion of cloud was deemed more harmful to modelling, than the exclusion of valid imagery**.** Additional cloud was added to this mask using pixels identified as cirrus clouds by the S2 Scene Classification Layer (SCL).

Imagery, and accompanying cloud masks, captured on the same day were subsequently mosaicked together before the identification of cloud shadow. This was carried out to account for clouds on the edges of tiles, which depending on the solar azimuth may cast shadows onto different tiles. If images on the same day were not mosaicked together, such shadows would be undetected as they rest on a different tile to the parent cloud.

Cloud shadow was identified using a directional transform methodology (Braaten, 2024). Potential cloud shadow was identified by projecting areas detected as cloud along the solar azimuth for 10 km, a distance which was found to be sufficient in capturing cloud shadows across the latitudinal range being covered. This was repeated four times: at solar azimuth (AZ), AZ minus 10 degrees, AZ plus 10 degrees, and AZ plus 20 degrees, to account for variation in cloud height which modifies the projection angle of the cloud shadow in respect to the solar azimuth. Within this potential cloud zone, true cloud shadow was then identified by selecting pixels with a Near Infrared Red (NIR) value below a threshold of 0.15, to identify true cloud shadow from all potential cloud shadow areas. This threshold value was determined through iteratively testing a range of values and looking across multiple scenes to balance cloud shadow omission and commission errors. Water bodies including rivers and lakes are identified using a combination of the rivers layer as provided by OSMM, and the Normalised Difference Water Index (NDWI), and added back after cloud shadow masking, which often misidentifies water as cloud shadow. The S2 SCL was used to identify and mask oversaturated, ice and snow covered pixels. This was achieved by creating binary pixelwise masks using the flags within the SCL bitmask for oversaturated, ice and snow-covered pixels and combining these masks with the cloud, and cloud shadow mask. Small cloud and cloud shadow fragments less than 400 m² in area were removed as visual assessments highlighted that these were often erroneous. The final cloud and cloud shadow mask were then buffered using a 40 m circular kernel to smooth out the masks.

3.2.3 Sentinel-2 Image Mosaicking

As the width of S2's swath (290 km) (ESA, 2012) is less than the width of England, the whole area cannot be captured in a single pass by the satellite and so multiple scenes, which may have been captured at different times, need to be combined to create continuous national image cover. In addition, the masking of cloud and cloud shadow results in gaps in images, which require filling where possible, with cloud free imagery of the same area captured as close in time as possible.

Spatially continuous image mosaics were created for Autumn 2022, and Spring and Summer 2023. Images for each season were created by first collecting all available imagery within the date ranges listed in [Table 3.](#page-17-0) The capture window for the Autumn and Spring seasons were one month greater than the two-month capture window for the Summer season, to enable greater cloud-free image availability.

Image Mosaic	Date range	Year	Number of scenes within date range
Autumn	$1st$ August – $31st$ October	2022	832
Spring	$1st$ March - $30th$ May	2023	578
Summer	$1st$ June $-31st$ July	2023	465

Table 3: Sentinel-2 Imagery capture dates for Living England 2022-23 and the number of scenes captured within each date range

All cloud and cloud shadow within these images were removed, and any satellite scenes collected on the same day were spatially joined as previously detailed. The image within each season with the lowest percentage of cloud cover was identified using the S2 metadata (averaged across each image mosaic captured on the same day) and used as the primary image for the purposes of mosaicking. The time difference between the primary image capture and all other images within the season was calculated and used to stack these in order of those closest in date to the primary image.

The image stack was mosaicked together using a "Swiss Cheese" methodology (Kilcoyne et al., 2022), with areas not covered by the primary image, or holes in the primary image being filled with the next image in the image stack with imagery in that area. The "Swiss Cheese" methodology is summarised visually in [Figure 4.](#page-18-0)

to the primary image

Figure 4: A summary of the "Swiss Cheese" methodology for creating the Sentinel-2 seasonal image mosaics. This describes how imagery dates are stacked within a season and used to gap-fill over areas of cloud and cloud shadow.

3.2.4 Sentinel-1 Backscatter and Coherence

S1 is also part of the ESA/Copernicus initiative equipped with a C-band Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) sensor. SAR operates at wavelengths which are not impeded by cloud cover or low illumination, and therefore can be acquired day or night and all-weather conditions providing additional information to the S2 data. As well as S1 backscatter, the Living England workflow also uses coherence maps derived from the S1 data, which provide a comparison of both phase and amplitude between a group of pixels from two images. This indicates the consistency of the Earth's surface and can provide valuable information on changes in surface properties such as height and type of vegetation, aiding identification of habitat type.

Acquisition dates for the S1 datasets were chosen to coincide with likely cloud-free S2 imagery and were screened to reduce the chance of heavy rainfall or snow; both of which influence the dielectric properties of the ground surface modifying coherence (Zwieback et al., 2015, Palmisano et al., 2019, Souza et al., 2022). These were screened using ERA-5 atmospheric model data from the ESA Climate Data Store (CDS) accessed via the API (Hersbach et al., 2023). This applies threshold ranges for rainfall, snowfall and wind speed across multiple time periods, to remove any image dates likely to be substantially impacted by weather effects. The thresholds were established through testing across a range of image years, and then applied across 6-day intervals. The resulting thresholds were 10 m/s for windspeed, 15 mm/day for rainfall and 1 mm/day for snowfall. The screened dates used are described in Table 4.

S1 backscatter mosaics were created using Google Earth Engine (GEE) (ESA, 2023, Gorelick et al., 2017), with the image capture dates shown in [Table 3,](#page-17-0) aligned to the date ranges for the S2 mosaics. The median pixel value was extracted from 4-week collections to reduce radar speckle. Both vertical-vertical (VV) and vertical-horizontal (VH) polarisations were extracted from the ascending and descending acquisition modes to produce temporally averaged S1 backscatter layers with reduced image speckle.

Table 4 Sentinel-1 SLC Imagery capture dates for Living England 2022-23 and the number of scenes captured within each date range, after extreme weather screening was applied.

The average seasonal coherence maps were created using a processing chain in Python, version 3.7 (2018) using the ESA Sentinel Applications Platform (SNAP) software version 9.0 (2022). Coherence images were created using both ascending and descending orbit directions and VV and VH polarisations, utilising a seamless 30 m Digital Terrain Model (DTM) derived from merging the EA LiDAR data, Integrated Height Model (IHM) DTM, and SRTM DTM to capture the extent required (Environment Agency, 2023a, Bluesky International Ltd 2022, NASA SRTM 2013) for back geocoding and range-doppler terrain correction. Coherence image pairs were then geo-coded, and the mean average taken, such that each temporal baseline (6-day, 12-day, 18-day, 24-day) were equally weighted.

3.2.5 LiDAR National Programme

The EA's National LiDAR Programme provides high spatial resolution (1 m) topographic data in the form of Digital Surface Models (DSMs) and DTMs (Environment Agency, 2023a). The DSMs are derived from the first return LiDAR pulses and therefore provide valuable height data for objects above ground level such as buildings, trees and other vegetation. DTMs have these elements stripped out to give a smoother model of the bare surface of the Earth. Complete national LiDAR coverage was made available for the first time in 2023. For Living England 2022-23, LiDAR data captured between 2016 and 2023 was used to provide topographic characteristics of habitats and land surface features.

The LiDAR products were resampled to 10 m resolutions and have been used to derive slope and aspect layers and Topographic Wetness Index (TWI) layers for use in Living England, generated using tools within ArcGIS Pro (Esri, 2022). Canopy Height Models (CHM) were also generated by subtracting the DTMs from the DSMs for the whole of England. Once generated, the CHMs were subjected to spatial analysis using the 'Focal Statistics' tool in ArcGIS, producing a layer of spatial variability in canopy height (Esri, 2022).

3.2.6 Proximity to feature layers

Several other geospatial layers were used within the Living England methodology, including those characterising climatic, topographic and soil characteristics. Alongside these, three proximity layers were created to provide spatial constraints and describe three relationships:

- Proximity to water bodies, having removed those with areas <300 m2 to align with the Minimum Mapping Unit (MMU),
- Proximity to urban habitats,
- Proximity to the coast.

The OSMM Topography Layer (2023b), contains over 500 million features representing objects in the physical environment, such as buildings, roads and water bodies, at a scale between 1:1250 to 1:10,000. For this iteration of Living England, the March 2023 release of OSMM was used. This was used to inform the image segmentation (section [3.3 Image](#page-20-0) [Segmentation](#page-20-0) and to derive the proximity to water bodies layer, as well as informing the 'Built-up areas and gardens' class (section 3.5.1 [Urban and Water.](#page-27-0) The OS Urban Area Extent (Ordnance Survey, 2023c) was used to derive the proximity to urban habitats layer was not resampled to the MMU, as the dataset is more generalised and reduces the computational demand for national-scale analysis. The proximity to the coastline layer was generated using the broader MHWS boundaries (Ordnance Survey, 2023a) and did not require resampling to the MMU. The proximity layers were all generated in ArcGIS Pro (Esri, 2022) calculating the accumulative distance to the closest source feature.

3.3 Image Segmentation

The Living England habitat map is generated using an object-based classification. Objects or 'segments' describe discrete spatial areas which make up the spatial framework used to classify and map different habitat types. Object-based Image Analysis (OBIA) has been adopted by Living England as although there are advantages and disadvantages with both OBIA and pixel-based approaches, the use of classifying objects allows our analysis to reflect meaningful features in the landscape by grouping spectrally similar pixels (Smith and Morton, 2010, Barber and Robinson, 2023). The use of objects also allows the model to see complementary contextual information to improve accuracy and greatly reduces within-class variation or 'salt-and-pepper' effects typically found with pixel-based classifications (Liu and Xia, 2010, Whiteside et al., 2011, Tewkesbury et al., 2015). This is particularly important in designing a methodology where advances in the resolutions of satellite-derived imagery are leading to smaller pixel sizes where this effect is likely to increase. However, OBIA approaches also have limitations and resulting segments often represent mixed habitats and can result in fuzzy boundaries for example around field edges. An OBIA approach was used for Living England as pixel-based approaches using S2 data with 10 m also consist of mixed habitats and testing of the segmentation parameters was undertaken through desktop approaches and with field surveyors to ensure as close alignment of the segmentation with ground features as possible.

The Living England segmentation process is conducted using a series of algorithms within the Trimble Geospatial (2023) eCognition software (Version 10.3) including multiresolution, chessboard, and spectral difference segmentation. This process identifies and groups image pixels into areas of similar spectral reflectance characteristics based on how homogenous their characteristics are. This uses multiple homogeneity criteria to generate segments, including colour, shape, smoothness and compactness. For Living England 2022-23, the segmentation has been generated using:

- (a) S2 seasonal image mosaics from Autumn 2022, Spring 2023 and Summer 2023.
- (b) LiDAR-derived CHM and focal texture layers.
- (c) OSMM Topography urban and water features (see section 3.5.1 [Urban and Water\)](#page-27-0).

All raster layer inputs are 10 m resolution, either natively or resampled using bilinear interpolation. Separate processing loops are first run for urban and water regions, using the OSMM features. This allows for refined segmentation parameters enabling better representation of these habitat feature boundaries. The remaining segments are then run through a final segmentation to fully segment all regions. To ensure there are sufficient pixels within each segment to inform meaningful classification, a MMU of 3 pixels (300 m2) is established within the segmentation, however, this can result in urban fringes being removed and potential undermapping. This results in the Living England 2022-23 product containing approximately 13.1 million segments.

3.4 Model-Based Classification

3.4.1 Model variables

To inform the model classification, training data was compiled from habitat labels as described in Section [3.1 Field Data collection and preparation](#page-12-0) and combined with variables used to define the relationship between environmental and contextual characteristics, and the presence of habitats. The predictor variables were extracted from the data using a reproducible automated process deployed in R (R Core Team, 2023). This included calculating the zonal statistics within each segment for each variable (minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation). The predictors at this stage included:

- 10 S2 bands for each of the Autumn, Spring, and Summer mosaics (excluding band 1 aerosols and band 9 water vapor from the harmonised level 2A product),
- 2 band indices derived from the S2 seasonal mosaics: Normalised Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) and Normalised Difference Wetness Index (NDWI),
- 2 bands for S1 backscatter for each of the Autumn, Spring, and Summer mosaics,
- 4 bands from S1 coherence product for each of the Autumn, Spring, and Summer mosaics,
- LiDAR topographic data layers: DTM, Slope, Aspect, Topographic Wetness Index, CHM and focal statistics,
- Climatic annual and seasonal average rainfall, and minimum, maximum and mean temperature for 2-year and 20-year periods,
- Proximity layers to coastal, urban and water OS features,
- Soil and geology datasets including; soil parent material carbonate content, grain size, European Soil Bureau (ESB) group, soil texture, soil thickness; soilscapes and wetness; and bedrock geology.

A total of 386 variables were fed into the modelling stage with 69,549 quality assured ground data points.

3.4.2 Model approach

Living England predicts most habitat classes using a Random Forest (RF) modelling framework deployed in R (R core team, 2023). The model is trained on the field habitat data, satellite imagery, and predictor variables as described in [section 3.4.1.](#page-21-1)

Spectral data from remote sensing sources is represented as the radiance measured between different wavelength ranges called bands. These bands are often highly correlated with each other due to atmospheric and patterns in the objects, which reflect light and can influence multiple bands in a similar fashion. Although RF models are often assumed to be resilient to multicollinearity**,** removal of very highly correlated variables prior to training reduces redundancy in the model and is considered good practice in machine learning (ML), (Darst et al., 2018). Highly collinear variables were identified by calculating the correlation between all variables. For each variable pair with a correlation coefficient greater than 0.9, the average correlation of each variable in the pair across all other pairs was calculated and the variable with the highest value removed. Correlations between all pairs were then recalculated, and this process repeated until all pairwise correlation coefficients were less than 0.9. A total of 214 highly colinear variables were identified and removed by this process, leaving 148 variables for model building.

Following removal of the highly correlated variables, the RF model was trained on 80% of the field dataset while the remaining 20% was retained separately for validation and not used during the modelling process to ensure independent evaluation of model performance. Both training and validation subsets were balanced, so they each contained the same proportions of each habitat class.

Models can be influenced by key data points, that substantially influence the resulting model when included in either the training or validation set. To account for this, a k-fold approach was implemented whereby the 80/20 split of data was systematically rotated to ensure that all field data points were used to both train the model, and asses its performance (Hastie et al., 2009). A visual representation of the data splitting is shown in [Figure 5.](#page-23-0)

Figure 5: Visual representation of k-fold data partitioning used for training the distributed random forest model. By splitting the data in this manner, each k-fold had an independent training and testing set, allowing for all the training data points to be in both the training and validation datasets. The best fold model was then selected and evaluated against the independent test dataset.

The presence of highly influential field data points having a detrimental impact on model performance can be detected by the presence of large variations in model performance across the folds. The performance on each of the fold-models has been reported [\(Appendix 4\)](#page-68-0) and the variation across all fold models analysed to make inferences regarding the generalisability of the model.

For each fold, a Distributed Random Forest (DRF) model was trained, and validated using the training and validation sets, respectively, for that fold. The model hyperparameters and the number of trees were optimised using the entire dataset, and subsequently used across all folds. The DRF was implemented using the H20ai library (H20.ai, 2022) due to its capacity to cope with segments with missing data, which allows the generation of predictions where data gaps exist due to cloud/cloud shadow. Missing values are interpreted as containing information, rather than being missing at random, which allows decision trees to be built that optimise performance in the case where data is missing, treating the absence of data as a decision point itself. This consequently allows predictions to be made in the absence of data.

Following training, each fold model was evaluated on the independent validation dataset and performance metrics are calculated including the confusion matrix, accuracy, balanced accuracy, and F1 score. Each of these are extracted at the class level (definitions in Table 5). The fold model with the highest balanced accuracy averaged across all classes was selected as the final model. Balanced accuracy provides a reliable measure of performance, considering both positive and negative, or presence and absence, prediction ability, and is independent of the relative frequency of each class due

to it being standardised in its formulation. Thus, the use of balanced accuracy removes potential bias towards the largest classes and provides a better comparative metric across all classes regardless of extent or rarity for the purpose of selecting the best model. This model was then used to calculate validation and predict across all segments.

Term	Definition
One vs all	To access the performance of a multiclass classification system, we access performance for each class individually using a one-vs- all approach where the current class is defined as the positive (or presence) class, and all other classes as the negative (or absence) class.
True Positive	After applying a one-vs-all approach, the model predicts positive (presence), and the ground data also shows positive (presence) for the class being evaluated.
True Negative	After applying a one-vs-all approach, the model predicts negative (absence), and the ground data also shows negative (absence) for the class being evaluated.
False Positive	After applying a one-vs-all approach, the model predicts positive (presence), but the ground data shows negative (absence) for the class being evaluated.
False Negative	After applying a one-vs-all approach, the model predicts negative (absence), but the ground data shows positive (presence) for the class being evaluated.
Accuracy	$\bm{\mathsf{A}}$ measure of the model's overall performance across all classes. Calculated as the number of times the model correctly predicts the class (as determined by the ground data for each segment), divided by the total number of predictions made
Balanced accuracy	Accuracy due to its formulation is weighted more heavily towards the larger classes. Balanced accuracy normalises the contribution of each class to the average, so each class contributes equally to the final average.
F1 Score	Similar to balanced accuracy but gives more weight to whether segments are correctly identified. This contrasts with balanced accuracy, which gives equal weight to correct and incorrectly predicted classes.

Table 5: Metrics and definitions used to evaluate model performance.

3.4.3 Model results and validation

The final model had an overall accuracy of 0.87 or 87%. Examining balanced accuracy between classes (a measure of performance independent of the class frequency), reveals that performance across all the classes is good with the highest score being 0.96 (Broadleaved Mixed and Yew Woodlands) and the lowest 0.80 (Scrub). Broadleaved Mixed and Yew Woodlands, Coastal Sand Dunes and Conifer Woodlands have the highest balanced accuracy, while Scrub, and Improved and Semi-Improved Grasslands are the lowest performing classes. Table 6 details model performance for each class.

Coniferous woodland 0.82 0.92 0.95

Dwarf shrub heath 0.84 0.80 0.89

Fen marsh swamp $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline \textbf{688} & \textbf{0.69} & \textbf{0.84} \hline \end{array}$

3.5 Specific Habitat Classification

Several habitats are classified outside of the model-based classification, where there is reliable data detailing the extent of the habitat class already available. This is referred to as the vector approach in Table 1 and ensures consistency with other habitat data products published by the Defra Group and partners, such as the EA Saltmarsh Extent and Zonation dataset and the RPA's Crop Map of England (CROME). Automated workflows have been developed to ensure consistency with the modelled habitats and allow for quality checks to be undertaken when transposing the data into the Living England spatial framework.

[Table 7](#page-26-1) provides a summary of the broad habitats and features classified in this way and the datasets and methods applied. The table also lists the layer hierarchy, describing the order in which the derived vector layers are then added in when merging the final Living England classification dataset.

Table 7. Summary of Living England Habitat classes/features not assigned through the modelled approach and how these have been derived.

3.5.1 Urban and Water

The following feature attributes within OSMM Topography Layer were selected to identify the Living England classes of 'Built-up Areas and Gardens' and 'Water' (Ordnance Survey, 2023b):

- Built-up Areas and Gardens:
	- o Class identified where OSMM features are classed as "Manmade" or "Multiple" in the MADE attribute field.
	- o Removed from this class are OSMM features that contain "Water" or "Landform" in the DESCRIPTIVE GROUP column, or "Mineral Workings" or "Spoil Heap" within the DESCRIPTIVE TERM attribute field.
- Water:
	- o Class identified where OSMM features as classed as "Water" in the THEME attribute.

OSMM provides a higher level of spatial detail than is visible from the S2 imagery. As a result, it is necessary to pre-process the OSMM features to better align them with the Living England spatial framework. This alignment comprises the following steps, with a before/after alignment comparison provided in Figure 6:

• Feature aggregation to generalise and disaggregate any multipolygon features,

- Removal of any features below the LE MMU (300 $m²$) and any holes within features,
- Dilute and expand features to help remove any long thin features where the width is unlikely to be visible at the S2 image resolution. This is carried out through iterative buffering to remove empty features where a negative buffer is applied – 3 m for water and –7 m for urban features. The positive buffer is then applied to return features to their original shape (3 m for urban and 7 m for water).
- Alignment of features to S2 pixels (10 m)
- Further removal of features below MMU (300 $m²$) and any holes within features.

Figure 6: Comparison between raw OSMM data (left) and the processed segments used in Living England 2022-23 (right) to inform 'Built-up Areas and Gardens' in black and the 'Water' in blue.

Through assessment of the urban data, it was noted that allotments and caravan parks were notable features missing from the dataset. Caravan parks were manually selected through later quality assurance of the final draft dataset, to ensure these developed features were incorporated into the Built-up Areas and Gardens class. Data showing the location of allotments were obtained from OpenStreetMap using an API call through the R package 'osmdata', version 0.2.5 (Padgham et al., 2023). The allotment data was overlaid with the segmentation with a 1% overlap rule intended to be a lenient threshold to capture all the areas intersecting with allotment features and disturbed land use.

3.5.2 Coastal Saltmarsh

The EA Saltmarsh Extent and Zonation dataset (2023b) is a widely used product mapping the extent of saltmarsh from interpreted aerial imagery and ground surveys. The previous use of this dataset in Living England found some saltmarsh areas experiencing change due to expanding or declining extent, were not fully captured when compared with our latest satellite imagery. As a result, a new methodology was developed alongside JBA Consulting Ltd to ensure saltmarsh detection is aligned to the S2 mosaics used in Living England 2022-23, as well as still allowing interoperability with the existing EA data product.

The JBA approach (Cunningham and Cutts, 2023) uses elevation data and a rule-based approach to identify tidal stages around the coastline and constrain saltmarsh to the intertidal zone from Mean High-Water Neap (MHWN) to MHWS tidal levels. This utilised open datasets including the EA Coastal Flood Boundary dataset and LiDAR DTM resampled to 2 m and 10 m resolutions (EA, 2023a, 2023c), OS VectorMap District (2023d) and openly available tools in GDAL/OGL (v.3.5.1, 2024) and SAGA (v7.8.2, Conrad et al., 2015), Once the intertidal zone was delineated, a threshold approach was applied based on the NDVI (see Equations), Median VH backscatter, slope and Normalised Difference Infrared Index (NDII). Thresholds were iterated to ensure the best possible capture of saltmarsh extent and assessed for each zone. The thresholds used were slope <5°, tidal stages >1, autumn NDVI >0.2, spring NDVI >0.15, autumn S1 ascending <26 and autumn NDII <-0.18. This resulted in a single binary output of saltmarsh presence or absence. The method was run for each zone separately prior to collating on a national scale. A summary of the workflow is presented in Figure 7 below.

Figure 7: A diagram summarising the 'JBA approach' workflow developed by JBA Consulting Ltd and the Living England team to map England's saltmarsh extent and integrate results with the Living England spatial framework. Source: Cunningham and Cutts, 2023.

The outputs of the two saltmarsh extent datasets were then overlaid with the Living England spatial framework and where segments met an overlapping threshold of >50% these segments were assigned to the 'Coastal Saltmarsh' class. The results were then combined and then visually examined to quality assure the data for inclusion. Segments were checked through comparisons with the Living England S2 seasonal mosaics, Living England saltmarsh ground data, and high resolution APGB imagery (Bluesky International Ltd., 2023). Through this assessment, additional areas of saltmarsh not detected in either dataset were also flagged for inclusion, totalling an area of 27.93 km2. Where two or more assessors agreed on the presence of saltmarsh in an identified segment, these included within the saltmarsh class.

3.5.3 Arable and Horticultural

The Crop Map of England (CROME) 2022, produced by the Rural Payments Agency (RPA) (2023), provides a modelled output of detailed crop types across England. This product maps multiple types of agriculture, including areas of pasture and grazing and permanent grassland, which don't directly align with Living England's definition of arable and horticultural. Therefore, the data is subset to selected classes to meet the definition, described in [Appendix 3.](#page-69-0) These classes were overlaid with the Living England segments and where >1% area overlaps, the segments are mapped as arable and horticultural. The threshold for this class is more lenient than others due to the hexagonal spatial framework used in CROME and is therefore smaller and less representative of arable fields compared to the Living England segments. This helped reduce overmapping of the arable classes.

During the quality checks, some segments were flagged in upland areas, which did not align with the Living England class definition of arable. Therefore, an additional step was included to extract the Provisional Agricultural Land Classification (ALC) grade for each segment, which describes the possible agriculture activity given climatic, site and soil characteristics present (Natural England, 2023). Where a segment fell within a ALC grade 5 area, this was removed from the Living England arable and horticultural class, as this indicated poor quality agricultural land more likely to contain rough grazing and pasture activity more closely aligned to Living England's improved and semi-improved grassland class.

3.5.2 Bare ground

Bare ground encompasses a variety of features, which can have variable appearances in the satellite imagery. For Living England, bare ground refers to bare soil, peat and rock, large enough to meet the MMU of 300 m^2 , with consistent unvegetated cover across the seasonal mosaics. This includes features such as quarries, with large areas of aggregate rock and soil persistent on the land, as well as degraded peatland areas with large patches of bare peat, and shingle beaches. Where ground data on inland rock is available, these have been included within the bare ground mapping; however, some bare ground sites are not captured well by the ground data and a hybrid method was developed using OSMM features and spectral analysis to identify additional segments.

Quarry features were identified using the OSMM Topography Layer (2023b) where the **DESCRIPTIVE TERM** attribute field is recorded as active "Mineral Workings" or "Spoil Heap". These were aligned to the Living England spatial framework, and where a segment met a 50% overlap in addition to NDVI values <0.2 indicating segments were bare in all three seasons (Remote Sensing Phenology, 2018), these were classed as Bare Ground.

To capture additional areas of bare soil and peat, a Bare Soil Index (BSI) was calculated from the Autumn, Spring, and Summer imagery mosaics (see [Equations\)](#page-41-1). The thresholds were selected based on visual assessments against the images. Where segments met

threshold values of 0.1 for the Spring BSI and 0.2 for the summer and autumn BSI, these were also assigned to the Bare Ground class.

3.5.4 Solar Farms

Although not a broad habitat, solar farms were mapped as a separate class due to their distinct appearance in the landscape, impeding assessments of the underlying habitat and to remove confusion with other habitat classes.

The Department for Energy Security and Net Zero collate the Renewable Energy Planning Database (REPD, 2024) to track renewable electricity projects across the UK. This point location data from January 2024 was used to inform a visual assessment and manual digitisation of solar farms. The solar farms were manually digitised across England based on the S2 seasonal mosaics, where solar farms were present in any image. These were overlapped with the LE segments and were assigned to the "Solar Farm" class where they met a 40% overlap threshold.

3.6 Habitat Map Collation

3.6.1 Combining habitat mapping approaches

The habitats classified outside of the model were first assigned to the spatial framework, combining these in the hierarchical order shown in Table 7, with water being merged in first, followed by built-up areas and gardens, coastal saltmarsh, solar farms, arable and horticultural, and bare ground respectively. The modelled habitats were then assigned to the remaining segments, taking the habitat class with the highest probability (A prob) for each segment as the 'Primary Habitat' (A pred). Where secondary probabilities (B prob) for a segment were within 30% of the primary habitat predicted probability, these were flagged as 'Probable' mixed segments.

The modelled hedgerow and scrub classes were combined for the final habitat map due to the uncertainty associated with distinguishing hedgerow features at the S2 spatial resolution. The modelled bare ground and individual habitat mapping layers were also combined into a single 'Bare Ground' class, with the source attribute denoting where this has been derived from for each segment.

The Living England spatial framework extends to the OS England boundary (Ordnance Survey, 2023a). All habitat classifications were clipped to the MHWS boundary line, with the exceptions of bare sand where this intersects with the MHWS boundary, or coastal saltmarsh where the whole intertidal extent is mapped.

3.6.2 Quality Assurance

Several quality assurance checks were carried out throughout the workflow to ensure that data going into each stage of the workflow met a high-quality standard. The modelled habitats and specific habitat classification vector layers were visually interrogated before combining into the final habitat map. After the habitat map layers were combined, a series of desktop assessments were carried out to identify any data quality issues and assess how well particular habitats classes were being mapped. This included:

- 1. A qualitative assessment of each BGZ and each habitat class by multiple assessors comparing to the S2 seasonal mosaics.
- 2. Targeted assessments of selected habitat features and habitats of concern using ecological knowledge of habitat feasibility, e.g. coastal habitats, bracken and bog on specific soil types, Isles of Scilly and Isle of Wight, solar farms and segments where mixed ground data is available.
- 3. Peer review of a draft data version with Defra group stakeholders and collation of feedback.

As a result, the classes of some segments were manually adjusted where they were found to be incorrect or it was noted certain features were missing in third party data. These are detailed within the data attributes noted in the 'SourceReason' attribute for transparency (Table 1). The attribute identifies the quality assurance check where the Living England team or external partners identified an adjustment was required. Model accuracies presented in [Table 6](#page-25-0) were calculated before manual adjustment took place.

3.7 Reliability Metric

Each segment in Living England is attributed with a primary habitat prediction, a list of modelled habitats (Model probs, >0.1 threshold) and the model probability scores (primary habitat probability) for each segment, giving an indication of the accuracy of these predictions. Alongside this, a reliability score has been developed to provide an indicative measure of how reliable the prediction is. This method provides an easy-to-interpret metric sitting alongside the habitat map, describing the confidence in the habitat class predictions based on the model quality and data sources these have been derived from. The reliability scores are described in Table 8 below:

Table 8: A table describing the Living England 2022-23 Reliability score descriptions. This is a categorised measure of how reliable the primary habitat prediction is considered to be. A trusted source indicates the reliability of the specific habitat classifications rather than

RF modelled habitat and level of alignment with the LE segmentation and classification framework compared to the original dataset.

Communicating uncertainty in the data is particularly important where data has been sourced from modelled outputs and third-party data, where these have inherent biases from the approaches used to derive these, which are often overlooked when using the data in practice to inform land management and policy decisions.

3.7.1 Reliability for modelled habitats

The reliability of predictive models is seldom considered beyond the overall accuracy metrics generated by the model, and without calibration. To aid data users and policy makers in using the dataset, an additional metric has been derived to describe the level of reliability for each modelled habitat prediction.

The reliability scores for the modelled habitats, were calculated by first extracting the modelled probability for each segment (Model_probs) output by the RF model. However, the modelled probabilities are only relative to each other and do not indicate the probability of a segment being correctly predicted. To align the modelled probabilities to the likelihood of a segment being correctly identified, the model probabilities are calibrated against the

event rate (how often the ground data is correctly being predicted by the model). For example, if a modelled probability score of 0.7 was only being correctly predicted 40% of the time based on the ground data, the new calibrated score would be 0.4. This better represents the level of confidence the model has in the prediction made being correct. Model probabilities were calibrated separately for each broad habitat class.

This method of calibration improved the interpretability of the RF model probabilities and was found to be statistically significant for all habitat classes through the calculation of Briers scores. The calibrated model scores were then converted to a categorical reliability score (very low to very high) using Table 9. The reliability score relates to the primary habitat being predicted. A higher reliability score thus indicates higher confidence in the prediction being correct based on the ground data, while a lower indicates a lower confidence.

Table 9: A table describing the calibrated model score ranges used to convert data into categorical reliability scores for modelled habitats in the Living England 2022-23 map.

3.7.3 Reliability for specific habitat classification

Reliability was developed for each of the specific habitat classifications based on the data sources and methodological approaches outlined in Section [3.5 Specific Habitat](#page-26-0) [Classification.](#page-26-0) These were assigned by:

- **Water** OSMM is a highly accurate data and up-to-date source for water bodies and as this was directly used to create the LE spatial framework, this was deemed to be "Very High" reliability across all water classified segments.
- **Urban** OSMM is a highly accurate data source for built-up areas and relatively up-to-date and was directly used to create the LE spatial framework. As this is a highly dynamic habitat experiencing a lot of change, this was deemed to be "High" reliability, acknowledging that timing of updates to the dataset and our imagery capture dates may cause some slight inaccuracies.
- **Arable** Arable segments were selected from the RPA CROME dataset using a subset of the crop classes and assessed against the ALC classification map. As the original data format is a modelled output using a hexagonal spatial framework, the segments are assigned "Medium" reliability, due to inherent limitations of the underlying data and conversion into the LE spatial framework and habitat classes.
- **Bare ground** This was deemed "Medium" reliability due to the combination of a mix of data sources and a highly dynamic habitat class. Bare ground is difficult to interpret over the 2-year LE capture period in part due to the seasonal variability.
- **Solar farms** These have been manually digitised and assessed by multiple assessors against the S2 seasonal mosaics, and so were deemed "High" reliability across all segments.
- **Coastal Saltmarsh** The reliability score was assigned based on the agreed presence of saltmarsh between both the EA saltmarsh dataset and the JBA methodology derived dataset and how many assessors' agreed saltmarsh was present when assessing. This was assigned the classes as indicated in Table 10.

Table 10. A table describing the reliability scoring applied to the Coastal Saltmarsh segments, where data were compared from two separate datasets (EA saltmarsh dataset and JBA approach dataset), and then visually quality assured by three assessors.

3.7.4 Reliability Adjustment

The reliability scores were further assessed through comparisons with our quality assured ground data. Two rules were applied to adjust the reliability scores:
- Where a ground data point was captured within a segment and the habitat recorded correctly matched the Primary Habitat assigned, this is given a "Very High" reliability score,
- Where a ground data point was captured within a segment and the habitat recorded indicates a different habitat to the Primary Habitat assigned, this is given a "Very Low" reliability score and is flagged for further investigation.

3.7.5 Reliability Results

Figure 8 shows the mapped reliability scores across England. At a national level, 47% of England's area cover is predicted with high to very high reliability. Only 10% of cover, was regarded as having low to very low confidence in the results and have been highlighted as areas to focus on future improvement and to target further field investigations.

Figure 8 A map showing the reliability scores of the Living England 2022-23 predicted habitats, ranging from very high to very low.

The reliability scores are highly variable between habitat classes, with the lowest reliability scores reflecting the issues identified through visual assessments of multiple assessors. For example, the classes with the greatest proportion of very low reliability scores are bare

sand (42.49% total bare sand area mapped), bare ground (41.16% total bare ground mapped) and coastal sand dunes (39.37% of total CSD area mapped). This reflects known issues identified through difficulty surveying these habitats and collecting sufficient ground data within each BGZ, and separability with other habitat classes. Of the modelled habitats, bog and coniferous woodland have the highest proportion of area classed as very high reliability, with 72.01% of bog and 69.20% of coniferous woodland mapped with very high reliability. This reflects the model's ability to predict these habitats with confidence and correlates to assessor checks.

4. Known Data Issues and Limitations

Disclaimer:

Living England is derived from a machine learning model; thus, it represents the most likely habitat present in a particular area based on the input variables. As with any modelling process, it is not 100% accurate and should be used with caution alongside other data sources when informing further environmental applications or land management decision making. With the 2022-23 map, a reliability metric has been provided (see Section [3.7 Reliability Metric\)](#page-32-0) to indicate the level of confidence in the data present across the national-scale map.

For Living England 2022-23, the method has been standardised and will be used for creating future iterations of Living England, subject to technological advances and significant developments. As a result, there have been numerous changes made to the methodology compared to the previously published Living England Phase IV dataset (Kilcoyne et al., 2022). **Direct comparisons therefore cannot be drawn between the two products due to methodological differences** and will not provide a true assessment of habitat change.

Further considerations when using Living England 2022-23 include:

- Living England is an object-based classification and thus will group similar pixels together to represent real-world objects. This approach may have some resultant over- or under-segmenting of features on the ground, as well as generalises segments to a single habitat class where habitats in reality are often mixed mosaics or in transition. A new attribute has been included titled 'Mixed_Seg' to flag where a segment is more likely to be impure with a mix of broad habitat classes present.
- Living England is based on the UKBAP broad habitat classification but modified for the habitats detectable using an Earth observation approach. This collates priority habitats into broad classes as described in the habitat descriptions [\(Appendix](#page-48-0) [1\)](#page-48-0).Some habitat sub-classes within a broad class may differ spectrally and in their characteristic relationships to others, and therefore lead to confusion when mapped through the modelling approach. Where it is not possible to reliably and robustly classify to UKBAP broad level these have been aggregated, as is the case with unimproved grassland combining acid, calcareous and neutral grasslands, and bare ground inclusive of inland rock and bare soil/silt/peat. These will be targeted by the Living England team for future development and ground data collection.
- As the Living England approach is based on satellite-derived data, this is restricted by what is visible from above. Therefore, overhanging vegetation will restrict the view of the habitats below and cause some underestimation, for example in riparian habitats.
- Living England is informed by ground data collected through national field surveys and repurposing of other national ground survey data. This covers a range of capture dates and therefore will not necessarily represent data captured during our reporting window; however, this has gone through our quality assurance processes outlined in Section [3.1.3 Field data quality assurance](#page-13-0)

Through quality assurance of the Living England 2022-23 dataset, several known habitat mapping issues have been identified. Many of these issues are identified within segments with a reported low or very low reliability score. These include:

- Confusion between improved & semi-improved grassland and unimproved grassland due to the similar spectral responses and appearance in the satellite imagery. This is an area where the team will continually improve and target field data collection to further refine in future.
- Hedgerow features are not consistently detected through the segmentation model due to the spatial resolution of the imagery used in Living England; however, due to refinement of this process some large hedgerow objects are being detected. Hedgerow segments are included as a separate class in the random forest model and later merged to the scrub class due to the uncertainty associated with this class definition. As open data becomes available through the Defra group for hedgerows, this will be further refined.
- Scrub habitats are noting as overmapping across particularly arable fields where these have been missed in the bespoke mapping methodology. This is particularly visible in the Northwest of England in BGZ01 around Carlisle, Silloth and Egremont.
- Urban fringes and small urban segments within developed areas are sometimes missed where these were missing in the OSMM dataset. Similarly due to the spatial resolution of the data and visibility in the satellite imagery, road networks are often not fully connected due to overhanging vegetation along verges and segment size limitations.
- Specific features where land is heavily modified such as golf courses, caravan parks and allotments often are misclassified and flagged as a mixed segment. Similarly, polytunnel features are not all detected as arable habitats.
- There is some misclassification of coastal sand dunes particularly with higher successional dune segments, for example in BGZ03. Some further refinement has looked to correct this; however, there is still some confusion particularly with scrub and improved grassland habitats with similar appearances. Bare ground is a highly generalised class and is currently undermapping, further work will investigate refining the approach used and the ground data feeding into this class in future.
- Arable habitat mapping in some locations demonstrate some misclassification, with some inherent inaccuracy brought in from the use of third-party data and transferred to the Living England spatial framework. As a result, there is some misclassification where arable fields and hedgerows are underrepresented. This is particularly prominent in BGZ13 where these habitats are misclassified as Fen, Marsh and Swamp habitats. The Living England team are working closely with the RPA to improve this for future iterations and improve the accuracy of arable habitat capture.

5. Use cases

Living England should be carefully considered if it is the most suitable data for individual use cases. Generally, Living England can be used for:

- Broad-scale habitat (national/regional) extent metrics,
- National habitat extent and connectivity assessments for targeting nature recovery,
- Environmental policy decision making,
- Assessment of large-scale natural capital assets,
- Ecosystem service modelling,
- Updating the evidence base for key policy areas such as ELM.

Living England should not be used for:

- Living England is a broad habitat map rather than a land cover or land use map and therefore should only be used to determine extent and presence of broad habitats and not to inform on presence/absence of specific species.
- Change-detection or comparisons of habitat change between Phase IV and LE 2022-23 due to methodological differences. Separate outputs are planned to publish change detection using the LE workflow in the future taking the various methodological implications into account.
- Living England is a predictive map. Note that accuracy is variable across habitats and biogeographic zones.
- Living England is a broad habitat map with a minimum mapping unit of 300 m^2 and should not be used to assess higher level details within segments.
- Condition assessments Living England is not designed to inform on the condition of the mapped habitats and is only designed to map extent and presence/absence.

Since the release of LE Phase IV in March 2022, this has been used to inform:

- 25 Year Environment Plan D1 Indicator: Quantity, Quality and Connectivity of **Habitats**
- Environment Land Management schemes (ELMs) Data science and modelling e.g. Environmental value modelling
- NCEA projects including integration for analysis and validation with England Peat Map, Green Infrastructure, Priority Habitat Inventory, Local Nature Recovery Network portal etc.
- Commercial organisations assessing Biodiversity Net Gain and Net Zero.

Existing use cases should look to use the updated dataset in relation to the reliability metric to assess validity of existing analyses and to understand the caveats and limitations.

6. Contact

For any queries or further technical detail, please contact the Living England team at [livingenglandenquiries@naturalengland.org.uk.](mailto:livingenglandenquiries@naturalengland.org.uk)

The code used to create Living England will be publicly available on the [Natural England](https://github.com/naturalengland) [Github pages.](https://github.com/naturalengland) The Living England code repository comprises of R, Python and Google Earth Engine scripts that have been used to create this product and are subject to licence conditions.

Equations

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Appendix 1 – Habitat description tables

The tables below describe what is included and excluded in each of the LE broad habitat classes and how these translate to UKBAP broad and priority habitats. These have been compiled specifically for the purpose of assessing habitats with Earth observation data and how data is collected on the ground, using knowledge from our ecological expertise and existing habitat classification sources (JNCC 2011). Please contact the Living England team if you have any questions. Note that some cells have been left deliberately blank.

Appendix 2 – Data Sources for Living England 2022-23

Appendix 3 - Modelled metrics

This table shows the overall accuracy, balanced accuracy, and mean F1 scores for each of the k-folded datasets variants of the dataset. Each K-fold splits the overall dataset into a 20% validation set used to test the model trained on the remaining 80%. The splits are rotated systematically so that each data point has an opportunity to be used both in training and in testing. K-folding allows us to investigate the sensitivity of the model to the data that it is trained on by examining the variability in accuracy metrics across different training/validation subsets. If each of the k-folds shows highly variable performance, then it indicates that the model performance is dependent on the presence/absence of certain influential data points for training/validation, and thus is not a robust model. Looking below at the results of this we can see that the performance of the model for all 3 metrics, and across all folds is extremely similar. Similar performance across all models, despite differences in the data used to test and validate indicates that the performance of the model is not reliant on any particular data point and thus the performance can be considered robust.

Appendix 4 - CROME arable class alignment with Living England 2022-23

This table describes the inclusion of classes from the Rural Payments Agency's Crop Map of England (CROME) to inform the arable class mapping in Living England. Some classes have not been included due to these classes not aligning to the Living England habitat classification description for Arable habitats. This includes the mapping of non-arable habitats and fallow, Ryegrass and cover crop classes, which closer align to Living England's proved grassland habitat description.

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