

# Catchment land use predicts benthic vegetation in small estuaries

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Many estuaries are becoming increasingly eutrophic from human activities within their catchments. Nutrient loads often are used to assess risk of eutrophication to estuaries, but such data are expensive and time consuming to obtain. We compared the percent of fertilized land within a catchment, dissolved inorganic nitrogen loads, catchment to estuary area ratio and flushing time as predictors of the proportion of macroalgae to total vegetation within 14 estuaries in south-eastern Australia. The percent of fertilized land within the catchment was the best predictor of the proportion of macroalgae within the estuaries studied. There was a transition to a dominance of macroalgae once the proportion of fertilized land in the catchment exceeded 24%, highlighting the sensitivity of estuaries to catchment land use.

1 **Catchment land use predicts benthic vegetation in small estuaries**

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20

**21 Abstract**

22

23 Many estuaries are becoming increasingly eutrophic from human activities within their  
24 catchments. Nutrient loads often are used to assess risk of eutrophication to estuaries, but such  
25 data are expensive and time consuming to obtain. We compared the percent of fertilized land  
26 within a catchment, dissolved inorganic nitrogen loads, catchment to estuary area ratio and  
27 flushing time as predictors of the proportion of macroalgae to total vegetation within 14 estuaries  
28 in south-eastern Australia. The percent of fertilized land within the catchment was the best  
29 predictor of the proportion of macroalgae within the estuaries studied. There was a dominance of  
30 macroalgae once the proportion of fertilized land in the catchment exceeded 24%, highlighting  
31 the sensitivity of estuaries to catchment land use.

32

### 33 **Introduction**

34 Estuaries are well recognized for their ecological and economic value, by supporting diverse  
35 natural communities, highly productive fisheries, and recreational amenity (McLusky & Elliott  
36 2004). Being at the terminus of drainage basins, estuaries are impacted by increased nutrient  
37 loads delivered to the coastal zone. Intensive monitoring of both catchments and estuaries has  
38 clearly and consistently implicated nutrient loads, in particular nitrogen, as the drivers of  
39 multiple adverse ecological responses, including initiation of algal blooms, hypoxia and  
40 alteration of secondary production (Hauxwell & Valiela 2004, Conley et al. 2009).  
41 Unfortunately, detailed time-series of nutrient-loading data are not readily available for most  
42 estuaries around the world, and a widely applicable and pragmatic approach is required to assess  
43 ecological risk and guide land use planning and management targets more generally.

44         Given that much of the change in nutrient loads is related to human land-use intensity, an  
45 alternative approach is to assess ecological risk in estuaries from land-use data, which typically  
46 are more readily available than nutrient data (Brinson et al. 2013). The effectiveness of land use  
47 data at acting as a proxy for risk to estuaries will depend on the level of detail of classification.  
48 Ideally land use should be classified into types of agriculture which have a wide range of nutrient  
49 emissions. In practice however, this level of detail is rarely available, and more broad  
50 classifications such as forest, urban areas and agriculture are more typically available. In addition  
51 to land use, it is important to consider other interacting variables such as estuary flushing time  
52 and catchment to estuary area ratio. Estuaries with a fast flushing rate are likely to be less  
53 impacted by activities in their catchment than ones with a low flushing rate. Similarly, large  
54 estuaries receiving inputs from a small catchment are less likely to be impacted than small  
55 estuaries receiving inputs from a larger catchment area.

56 To link land use to estuary ecological status requires an ecological indicator that is  
57 responsive to eutrophication and the identification of a plausible link between that indicator and  
58 measureable land-use characteristics. This indicator needs to be both sensitive to changes in  
59 nutrient loads and preferably easy to measure. Chlorophyll a (as a proxy for phytoplankton  
60 biomass) is a widely used measure of eutrophication that is relatively easy to obtain and strongly  
61 related to catchment land use (Meeuwig 1999). Despite this, phytoplankton dynamics are much  
62 influenced by local conditions within estuaries and the often pulsed nature of inputs, resulting in  
63 great spatial and temporal variability of chlorophyll a measurements (e.g., Cook et al. (2010)).  
64 Therefore, spatially and temporally intensive sampling in an estuary is required for  
65 representative and reliable quantification of chlorophyll a. Remote sensing may allow the  
66 integration of chlorophyll a concentrations both temporally and spatially, but the complex optical  
67 properties of coastal waters has hindered this approach, leading to limited success in relating  
68 remotely sensed estimates of chlorophyll a to land use (Le et al. 2015).

69 An alternative to chlorophyll a that is more stable over short times scales is the ratio of  
70 macroalgae area to seagrass area (or macroalgae to total vegetation, MA:TV ratio), which has  
71 been shown to increase globally with increased nutrient loading as fast growing macroalgae  
72 overgrow seagrass (Hauxwell & Valiela 2004, Woodland et al. 2015). The generality of the  
73 MA:TV ratio, which can be effectively monitored using ground-truthed aerial photographs,  
74 suggests that this ratio could provide a suitable proxy for relating remotely sensed land-use  
75 characteristics to estuarine eutrophication in shallow estuaries that is easier to obtain and more  
76 spatially representative than chlorophyll a.

77 The aim of this study was to investigate whether land use data available within a national  
78 Australian database (Stein et al. 2014) could be used to predict the ecological condition of

79 estuaries. Such information can provide land management agencies with a cost effective and  
80 rapid approach to assessing ecological risk to estuaries to enable better prioritization of resources  
81 for monitoring and restoration. To do this, we combined previously published data on nutrient  
82 loading and estuarine responses with land-use characteristics to compare the efficacy of nutrient  
83 load estimates, catchment to estuary area ratio, estuary flushing time and land use as predictors  
84 of eutrophication as indicated by the ratio of macroalgae to total vegetation (MA:TV ratio) and  
85 chlorophyll a within southern Australian estuaries.

86

## 87 **Materials and Methods**

88 The macroalgae to total vegetation (MA:TV) ratio and chlorophyll a data for 14 estuaries in the  
89 southeastern Australian state of Victoria are from Woodland et al. (2015). Methods describing  
90 field collections, data processing and calculations are described in detail there, so we only briefly  
91 outline them here. The estuaries were selected to represent a gradient across land use and nutrient  
92 loading, and be geographically representative of the Victorian coastline. Estuary selection also  
93 included considerations of total area and geomorphology to avoid scaling-effects arising from  
94 large-scale differences in hydrological conditions among estuaries. The MA:TV data represent  
95 snapshots in time based on areal photographs taken between January and February 2012 that  
96 were validated by underwater video footage. Video data were reviewed in the laboratory and  
97 bottom cover at each drop site was assigned to one or more of the following four primary habitat  
98 types: seagrass, macroalgae, bare sediment/unvegetated rocky reef, or channel habitat (>2 m  
99 depth). Seagrass and macroalgae habitats were further classified as having sparse–medium (<  
100 50%) or dense (50–100%) vegetation coverage. In the case of seagrass habitats with conspicuous  
101 epiphytic or intermingled macroalgae, the site was assigned to both habitat categories and each

102 category was assigned a density classification. Spatial mapping was carried out in ArcGIS by  
103 constructing habitat raster maps (cell size = 2 m<sup>2</sup>) based on visual reconciliation of site specific  
104 habitat classifications and photographic information from composite aerial images. Vegetated  
105 habitat areas were weighted by coverage classifications such that map cells assigned sparse or  
106 medium coverage were considered to contain 50% vegetation and dense coverage =100%  
107 vegetation. For example, a 10 m<sup>2</sup> patch of medium seagrass was designated as having 5 m<sup>2</sup> of  
108 seagrass habitat and 5 m<sup>2</sup> of bare sediment. Total areas of each estuary and each coverage  
109 weighted habitat class were calculated and exported for further analysis. Seagrass species were  
110 primarily composed of *Zostera* spp. (includes *Z. muelleri* and *Z. nigracaulis*) or *Ruppia* spp.  
111 Macroalgal communities included several genera (e.g., *Ulva*, *Enteromorpha*, *Hypnea*,  
112 *Gracilaria*) associated with eutrophication (McGlathery 2001).

113         Surface (c. 0.2–0.5m depth) chlorophyll concentrations ( $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) were monitored on two  
114 successive outgoing tidal cycles on three separate occasions in a subset of n = 8 estuaries.  
115 Sampling occurred once for each estuary during the spring (September–October), early summer  
116 (November–December) and late summer (January–February) of 2011–2012. Chlorophyll  
117 measurements were taken adjacent to the main channel of the estuary with a calibrated Hydrolab  
118 water quality sonde (model DSX5). Concentration values were averaged for each occasion (n=3–  
119 16 observations) and across each of the three seasons to yield an integrated mean chlorophyll  
120 concentration in the surface waters of each estuary.

121         For each estuary and upstream river catchment, potential predictors of variation in the  
122 MA:TV ratios were obtained from the National Environmental Stream Attributes database (Stein  
123 et al. (2014); v1.1.5, Geoscience Australia website: [www.ga.gov.au](http://www.ga.gov.au)). These predictors included  
124 four summaries of upstream river catchment land use: proportion modified by human

125 development, proportion with population density  $\geq 1$  person km<sup>-2</sup>, proportion urbanized, and  
126 proportion receiving or generating fertilizers (predominantly residential areas, grazing pasture,  
127 horticulture). We included several covariates that might affect the relationships between the  
128 responses and predictors: (1) estuary flushing time (days); (2) the measured areal loading rate of  
129 dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) to each estuary (tonnes DIN km<sup>-2</sup> of estuary yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Woodland  
130 et al. (2015); and (3) the catchment area to estuary area ratio (C:E). Nitrogen loads were  
131 measured based on stream flow and nutrient concentrations measured close to the head of the  
132 estuary (salinity = 0), and encompassed >90% of the catchment. River flow (ML d<sup>-1</sup>) from  
133 gauging stations and nutrient and concentration data (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) for each river system over the 13-  
134 yr interval from 2000 to 2012 were obtained by downloading archived data from the Department  
135 of Environment, Land, Water and Planning Water Measurement Information System website  
136 ([data.water.vic.gov.au/monitoring.htm](http://data.water.vic.gov.au/monitoring.htm)) or provided by Melbourne Water  
137 ([melbournewater.com.au](http://melbournewater.com.au)). We focused our analysis on total nitrogen (TN), oxidized dissolved  
138 forms of nitrogen (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, hereafter simply DIN). River flow was measured daily;  
139 whereas, nutrient sampling intervals ranged from approximately biweekly (n=23) to quarterly (n=  
140 3–4) with an average of n=12 samples per river system per year (i.e., monthly sampling). Data  
141 were assigned to a 01 June–31 May hydrologic year rather than a calendar year to reflect the  
142 annual flow–nutrient cycle responsible for primary production dynamics in Victorian estuaries  
143 during the austral summer (Cook & Holland 2012). Annual loads (Mg yr<sup>-1</sup>) of TN, DIN, TP and  
144 TSS were estimated from measured river flow and concentration data using a flow-stratified  
145 Kendall Ratio (Kendall et al. 1983) approach within a Monte-Carlo simulation-based spreadsheet  
146 routine (Tan et al. 2005). This method has previously been shown to give the same results as  
147 those independently published by the Victorian EPA (Cook & Holland 2012).

148           There were no sewage treatment plant inputs below the gauging station and atmospheric  
149 deposition in this region is negligible (<10%) compared to total loads in these small estuaries.  
150 The C:E ratio was included to account for small estuaries fed by a large catchment which would  
151 inflate areal nutrient loads and estuary flushing time was included to account for the well-known  
152 effect of residence time in modulating eutrophication. To place the gradient of catchment land  
153 use intensity within the broader context of the literature, we calculated nutrient export rates from  
154 upper and lower quartiles of fertilized catchments (corresponding to >85% and <10%  
155 fertilization, respectively) by dividing the total load from the catchment by the total land area of  
156 the catchments.

### 157 *Statistical analysis*

158 We first screened predictors for high collinearity. If there were sets of predictors with pair-wise  
159 correlations  $> 0.7$ , we eliminated all predictors bar one. The retained predictor was the one with  
160 the lowest sum of correlations with predictors other than those in the inter-correlated set. Land  
161 use and riverine DIN concentrations were highly correlated ( $r = 0.84$ ), so DIN concentration was  
162 excluded from the analysis because it is dependent upon land use. We scrutinized the  
163 distributions of the retained predictors. Several were extremely right-skewed, so these were log-  
164 transformed (designated by † in Table 1). Once the distributions were near normally or near  
165 uniformly distributed, we standardized (mean = 0, standard deviation = 1) the predictors to make  
166 the ranges of all predictors comparable and to assist in model convergence.

167           We used two approaches to identify the potentially important predictors and to identify  
168 the relative importance of these predictor variables. First, we used Bayesian variable selection  
169 using stochastic search (O'Hara & Sillanpää 2009). This method identifies those predictors that  
170 had high posterior probabilities of being included in the best models for explaining variation in

171 the MA:TV ratio. We used the posterior odds ratio framework to assess predictor importance  
 172 (Kass & Raftery 1995). A predictor is assigned an uninformative prior for being included in the  
 173 best model (a predictor is equally likely to be selected as not), which corresponds to a prior odds  
 174 ratio of 0.5 (included):0.5 (not included) = 1. If the posterior probability of inclusion, after  
 175 calculations, is (or exceeds) 0.75, then the posterior odds are 0.75 (included):0.25 (not included)  
 176 = 3. The ratio of the posterior odds to the prior odds is the posterior odds ratio (here 0.75:0.25 /  
 177 0.5:0.5 = 3), with values exceeding 3 being indicative of probable importance of a predictor in  
 178 explaining variation in the response variable (here MA:TV ratio). Models were calculated using  
 179 JAGS (Plummer 2003).

180 Second, we used hierarchical partitioning (HP) on the predictor variables to calculate the  
 181 relative proportions independently explained by each predictor. We used the hier.part (Walsh &  
 182 Mac Nally 2004) package in R (R Development Core Team 2011). HP complements Bayesian  
 183 model selection by quantifying the relative amounts of variation independently explained by  
 184 each predictor (Mac Nally 1996).

185 The %fertilized predictor proved to be important (Table 1) but we were concerned that its  
 186 effect might be moderated by the catchment to estuary (C:E) ratio or residence time of the  
 187 estuary (Tf). Therefore, we used Bayesian model selection and HP analyses for a full interaction  
 188 model involving these three predictors, notwithstanding that the C:E ratio and Tf were not  
 189 important from the analyses in Table 1. The full interaction model included the three predictors,  
 190 each pair of interactions, and the three-way interaction (see Table 2).

191 We fitted a change-point model for the relationship between MA:TV and %catchment  
 192 fertilization ( $F$ ). The model was:

$$193 \quad MA:TV_i \sim Normal(\mu_i, \sigma),$$

$$\mu_i = \alpha * \delta(F_i - \gamma) + \beta_1 * \delta(\gamma - F_i) * F_i + \beta_2 * \delta(F_i - \gamma) * F_i;$$

194 where:  $\delta$  is unity if the argument is non-negative and zero otherwise and  $\gamma$  is the change-point.  
195 The priors were:  $\alpha, \beta_i \sim Normal(0, \sigma = 2)$ , and  $\gamma \sim Uniform(0, 100)$ . The program JAGS  
196 (Plummer 2003), which uses a Gibbs sampler, was used to fit the relationship; there were 12,000  
197 iterations and 5000 ‘burns-in’ samples. We checked convergence using Gelman-Rubin methods  
198 (convergence of multiple independent chains).

199

200

## 201 **Results**

202

203 The proportion of fertilization within a catchment was the only important predictor of the  
204 MA:TV ratio within our set of estuaries (Table 1). There was little evidence that interactions  
205 between the proportion of fertilization and residence time or the ratio of the catchment area to  
206 estuary area were important (Table 2). Macroalgal dominance in estuaries was positively  
207 associated with an increasing proportion of the catchment receiving fertilizers (Fig. 1), with  
208 macroalgal cover dominating benthic vegetation in estuaries with catchments that had >20% of  
209 the catchment with fertilization. The change point model was a good fit to the data, with  $R^2 =$   
210 0.93 (Fig. 1). The change-point  $\gamma$  was estimated to be  $24.3 \pm 9.9$  SD (% catchment fertilization).  
211 The intercept,  $\alpha$ , was 0.675 for points above the change-point and 0 otherwise. The slopes were:  
212  $\beta_1 = 0.024$  (slope for points below the change-point) and  $\beta_2 = 0.002$  (points above the change-  
213 point). There was little evidence for a relationship between chlorophyll *a* and % catchment  
214 fertilization (linear regression,  $R^2 = 0.14$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ), although all estuaries with catchments >  
215 20% fertilized land had average chlorophyll *a* concentrations > 6  $\mu\text{g/L}$  during the late spring to  
216 late summer growth period. Similarly, there was little evidence for a relationship between the  
217 proportion of the estuary area covered by benthic vegetation and proportion of the catchment  
218 receiving fertilizers ( $R^2 = 0.17$ ,  $P > 0.05$ ). Total nitrogen (N) and dissolved inorganic nitrogen

219 (DIN) exports were 0.22 – 1.7 and 0.063 – 0.74 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup> respectively for the catchments in the  
220 lower quartile of fertilization (<10% area fertilized) and 1.9 – 6 and 0.7 – 3.1 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup> for the  
221 catchments in the upper quartile of fertilization (>80% area fertilized).

222

## 223 Discussion

### 224 *Land use as a predictor of shallow benthic vegetation*

225 The results show that land use is a strong predictor of the proportion of macroalgae to total  
226 vegetation within south-eastern Australian estuaries. Although the current analysis shows that  
227 land use is a stronger predictor than nitrogen loads, we do not interpret this to mean that nitrogen  
228 inputs to estuaries are not the key driver of changes to estuarine benthic vegetation. Rather we  
229 use these findings to shed light on the possible mechanisms through which nutrients drive change  
230 within estuaries and how catchment land use integrates this change.

231 The proportion of the catchment receiving fertilization was a better predictor of the  
232 MA:TV ratio than was areal dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) load, which we have previously  
233 suggested to be a better predictor of MA:TV in these estuaries than total nitrogen (TN) or total  
234 phosphorous (TP) loads (Woodland et al. 2015). This outcome arose because there was a  
235 relatively weak relationship between measured loads (both total and normalized to the estuary  
236 area) and the total area fertilized (km<sup>2</sup>) within catchments ( $R^2 = 0.33$ ). The lack of such a  
237 relationship is consistent with previous studies that have shown nitrogen attenuation factors can  
238 be highly variable (Elwan et al. 2015). Therefore, the relationship between land use and  
239 estuarine response is not just driven by a land-use–load relationship, as we had expected.

240 There was a strong non-linear relationship between DIN concentration in the rivers and  
241 the MA:TV ratio ( $R^2 = 0.78$ , when DIN concentration is log transformed) arising from the  
242 relationship between land use and DIN concentrations within the rivers (Woodland et al. 2015).  
243 However, we do not believe that the nutrient concentrations observed within the rivers are the  
244 primary driver of changes in the MA:TV ratio because these rivers drain into estuaries of greatly  
245 different sizes and hence dilution. Moreover, there was no relationship between DIN and the

246 MA:TV ratio when the nutrient concentration was normalized to estuary area. These results  
247 suggest that catchment land-use metrics ‘integrate’ factors affecting the amount and availability  
248 of nutrients within the estuary that control the MA:TV ratio, which are missed by instantaneous  
249 measurements of load. Catchment land-use metrics may incorporate: (1) the historical sequence  
250 of delivery of nitrogen (N) and total suspended solids that are trapped and recycled or re-  
251 suspended within the estuary; (2) increased bioavailability of particulate and dissolved organic N  
252 delivered to estuaries as fertilization increases (Seitzinger et al. 2002, Petrone et al. 2009); and  
253 (3) local groundwater inputs of N directly to tidal areas (Wong et al. 2014).

254 Our results suggest that estuarine vegetation structure can be substantially altered when  
255 agricultural land use constitutes as little as 24% of the catchment. Therefore, it is instructive to  
256 compare the nutrient loading and export rates measured here with previous studies to place the  
257 land-use intensity in this study in a wider context. The areal loading rates of N in these estuaries  
258 span the range reported globally for estuaries, ranging  $10^2$ - $10^5$  mmol N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> as total N  
259 (Woodland et al. 2015). The rates of N generation from the catchments in the lowest quartile of  
260 % fertilization averaged 0.9 and 0.25 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for TN and DIN respectively (Table 3), which  
261 are at the lower end of DIN exports of 0 to 10 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> reported in forested catchments  
262 (Bernal et al. 2005, Brookshire et al. 2012). Our undisturbed catchments have lower exports than  
263 forested catchments elsewhere in the world, highlighting the relatively oligotrophic state of  
264 estuaries fed by pristine catchments in Australia. For the most fertilized catchments (>80%  
265 fertilization), we saw average N generation rates of ~4.5 and 1.9 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for TN and DIN  
266 respectively, which are comparable with reported nutrient generation rates for mixed  
267 farming/rural land use in southeastern Australia (Drewry et al. 2006). Our N generation rates are  
268 at the lower end of reported nutrient generation rates of 4-14 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for TN in European and

269 North American systems (Howarth et al. 1996), highlighting that even small amounts of  
270 relatively low-intensity agriculture can lead to large changes in benthic vegetation in these  
271 naturally oligotrophic estuaries. Studies from other locations are needed to investigate whether  
272 the patterns observed here are globally applicable.

273

274 *The use of the macroalgae to total vegetation ratio as an indicator of estuarine condition*

275 It is virtually impossible to select an ecological indicator that represents all critical aspects of  
276 ecosystem function. Our choice of MA:TV was based on the requirement that we could easily  
277 obtain relevant data for large areas of the estuary. In shallow estuaries, such as those studied  
278 here, macroalgae is widely considered an indicator of eutrophication (Valiela et al. 1997). There  
279 are cascading ecological consequences from the increasing dominance of macroalgal biomass to  
280 food webs, from changes in consumer biodiversity, productivity and trophic relationships (e.g.,  
281 omnivory) to biogeochemical cycling and dissolved-oxygen dynamics (Sogard & Able 1991,  
282 Valiela et al. 1997). Consistent with this, we also saw that once catchment fertilization exceeded  
283 20%, and alongside a transition to macroalgal dominance of demersal vegetation, all chlorophyll  
284 a measurements were  $> 6 \mu\text{g/L}$ , which typically is regarded as eutrophic (Hakanson et al. 2007).

285         The ability to reliably predict MA:TV ratio using just one variable differs from previous  
286 studies that have shown that multiple predictors are needed to explain  $>50\%$  of the variation of  
287 other response variables (Li et al. 2007, Greene et al. 2015). One of the strongest relationships  
288 from previous reports has been between chlorophyll a and the area of agriculture land use in a  
289 catchment and estuary volume ( $R^2$  of 0.68) in 14 Canadian estuaries (Meeuwig 1999). This is not  
290 unexpected because a certain nutrient load will be diluted to different extents depending on  
291 estuary volume. Similarly, one would expect phytoplankton concentration to be sensitive to

292 estuarine residence time, which will lead to different wash-out rates (Nixon et al. 2001). We saw  
293 no clear relationship between chlorophyll a and percent fertilization in our data set, which was  
294 consistent with the need for other variables to describe the response of this parameter.

295         We found no important relationship between seagrass or total vegetation areal extent and  
296 land use. Elsewhere, a combination of land-use and physical factors, such as tidal range and  
297 mean wave height, were needed to describe seagrass areal extent (Li et al. 2007), illustrating the  
298 interplay of factors other than eutrophication in controlling seagrass distribution. By  
299 standardizing macroalgal extent as a proportion of total vegetation, our analysis reduces the  
300 influence of physical factors, such as sediment movement and hydrodynamics, that often limit  
301 the growth of benthic vegetation. The MA:TV measure also accounts for estuaries with different  
302 hypsometric profiles because the MA:TV ratio is functionally constrained to those areas where  
303 light penetration can support benthic vegetation. Change point analysis showed that the MA:TV  
304 ratio increased at a lower rate above a catchment fertilization of 24%. This probably suggests  
305 that any increase in biomass above this point may have manifested itself as increased thickness  
306 (as opposed to area). Alternatively, macroalgae became growth limited at high biomass due to  
307 limitation by other factors such as light and/or space. Therefore, a disadvantage of this approach  
308 is that it does not sensitively distinguish between moderate and high levels of disturbance.

309         The interaction model showed that estuary flushing time did not contribute much to  
310 explaining variation in the MA:TV response. The residence times used in our study are relatively  
311 short (0.6–4.2 days compared to months to years for lagoons), which may partially explain the  
312 lack of importance of residence time. However, macroalgae can assimilate N in several hours  
313 and, given the subsequent relatively slow turnover of N, residence time may not significantly  
314 affect the macroalgal response (Nixon et al. 2001). Lagoon systems, with much longer residence

315 times, are likely to respond differently to our estuaries because phytoplankton are more dominant  
316 in systems where water residence time exceeds phytoplankton turnover time (Hauxwell &  
317 Valiela 2004). As the catchment-estuary area ratio (C:E ratio) increased, we expected that  
318 nutrient inputs would be distributed over a smaller estuarine area and may render estuaries more  
319 sensitive to the proportion of fertilizing land uses in the catchment. The results of the interaction  
320 model, which included C:E ratio (Table 2), suggested that there was little evidence of an  
321 interaction of the C:E ratio with the proportion of fertilizing land uses in the catchment. As the  
322 C:E ratio increased, the transit time of loads delivered to the estuary decreased, leading to lower  
323 retention and exposure to nutrients within the system compared to estuaries with lower C:E  
324 ratios. Systems with low C:E ratios have the load spread over a larger area, but with a longer  
325 transit time, leading to higher retention and exposure to nutrients. Our results suggest that these  
326 opposing effects may largely cancel each other out, leading to the C:E ratio having no  
327 perceptible effect on MA:TV.

328

### 329 *Application to management*

330 Although nutrient loads are a critical management tool for receiving waters, the expense and  
331 long time frame required to collect and meaningfully interpret these data mean that such data are  
332 not always available. However, land-use information typically is much more readily available,  
333 and as has been illustrated here and previously (Meeuwig 1999, Meeuwig et al. 2000), can  
334 provide a good indicator of likely risk to estuaries. Once estuaries at risk have been identified,  
335 there should be a further assessment of ecological impact. The MA:TV ratio provides a relatively  
336 rapid and spatially representative indication of ecological response and condition. By way of an  
337 example case study, an Index of Estuary Condition (IEC) is being used to assist the prioritization

338 of estuary management investment thereby supporting the Victorian Waterway Management  
339 Program, Australia (DEPI 2013). Indicators that have demonstrated relationships with processes  
340 threatening estuaries (e.g. nutrient loading and land-use change) are essential if broad scale  
341 resource condition assessments are to be interpretable, ecologically meaningful and useful for  
342 management (Barbour et al. 2000, Stoddard et al. 2008). For these reasons the MA:TV index is  
343 being incorporated into the Victorian IEC.

344

### 345 **Conclusion**

346 The proportion of catchment fertilization is a strong predictor of the proportion of macroalgae  
347 relative to seagrass in small south-eastern Australian estuaries. Our results suggest that estuaries  
348 are sensitive to land-use change, and that conversion of as little as 20% of a catchment to  
349 fertilized land uses can substantially shift the dominance of benthic primary produces from  
350 seagrass to macroalgae. The use of simple land-use measures may provide a strong indicator of  
351 risk of estuarine eutrophication where other data are absent. Further studies across a wider  
352 geographic and climatic spread are required to investigate relationships between catchment land  
353 use and estuarine vegetation globally.

354

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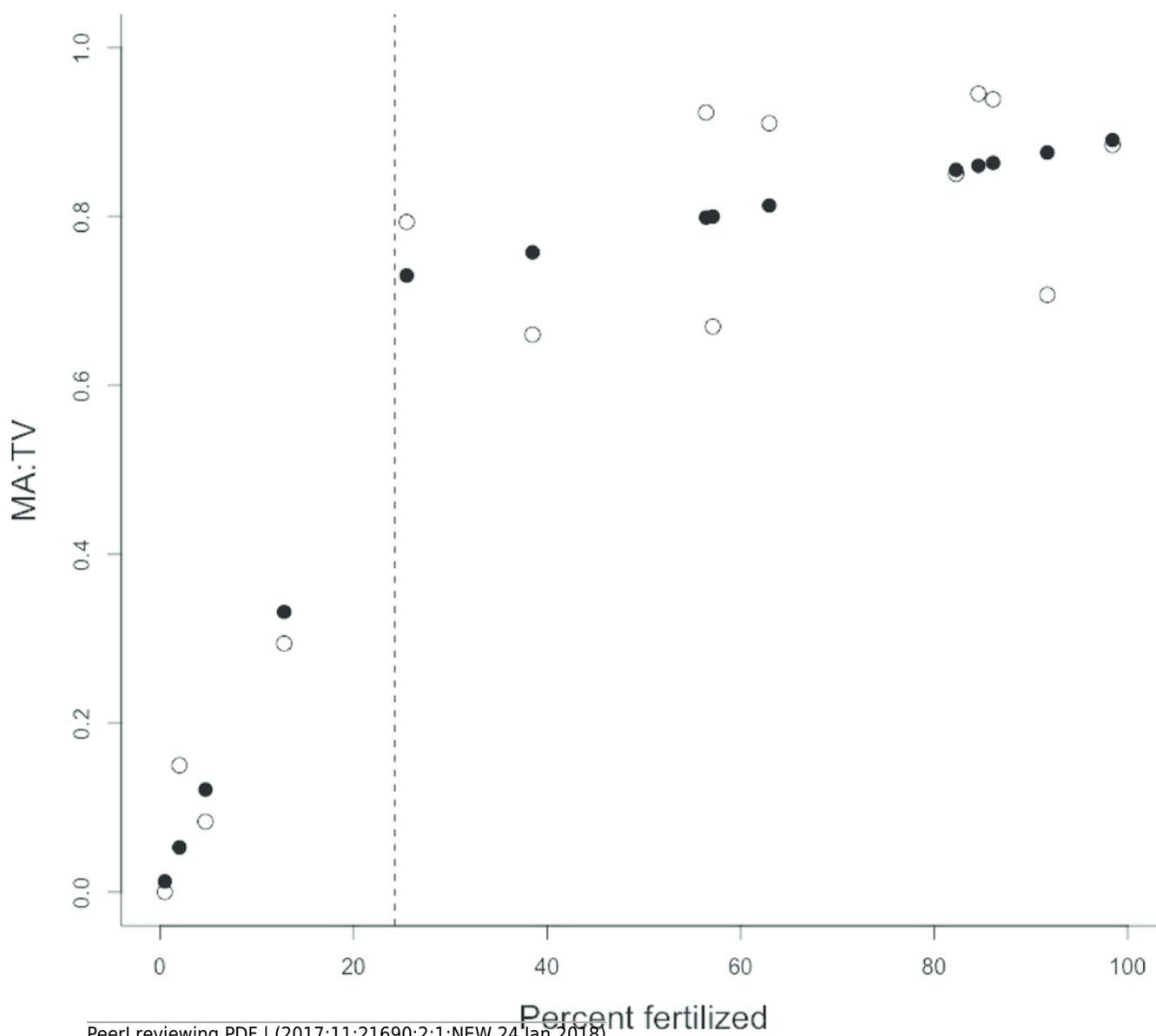
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456

# Figure 1

Plot of MA:TV vs % of catchment fertilised

The ratio of macroalgae to total vegetation (MA:TV) versus the % of the catchment receiving fertilizer inputs. Scatterplots show observed (open circles) and fitted (solid circles) for the change-point analysis, with the estimated position of the change-point shown by a dashed vertical line.



**Table 1** (on next page)

Results of Bayesian variable selection and hierarchical partitioning

Results of Bayesian variable selection and hierarchical partitioning, which show the predictor variables for the macroalgae to total vegetation (MA:TV) ratio, the posterior probability of inclusion predictor  $Pr(Inc)$ , the regression coefficient ( $\beta$ ), the standard deviation of beta  $SD(\beta)$  and the % of the variability independently explained by each variable. Predictors are abbreviated as follows: C:E ratio is the catchment area to estuary area ratio,  $T_f$  is the estuary flushing time,  $Pop\_Prop\_1$  is the proportion of the catchment with a human population  $>1$   $km^{-2}$ , % Modified is the proportion of the catchment modified by human development, % urbanized is the proportion of the catchment urbanized, % Fertilized the proportion of catchment likely to receive fertilizer inputs, and the Areal.DIN.load is the load of inorganic nitrogen to each estuary normalized to surface area.

Predictor Variable	Pr(Inc)*	$\beta$	SD( $\beta$ )	%indep.
†C:E ratio	0.04	0.01	0.03	6
Tf	0.02	<0.01	0.03	6
Pop_Prop_1	0.02	<0.01	0.02	8
% Modified	0.02	<0.01	0.02	5
†% Urbanized	0.03	<0.01	0.02	13
†% Fertilized	1.0	0.30	0.04	46
†Areal.DIN.load	0.03	<0.01	0.02	15

- Values > 0.75 are deemed to be statistically important
- †Ln-transformed

**Table 2** (on next page)

Results of Bayesian variable selection for potential interaction terms

Results of Bayesian variable selection for potential interaction terms showing the posterior probability of inclusion predictor  $\Pr(\text{Inc})$ , the regression coefficient ( $\beta$ ), the standard deviation of beta  $\text{SD}(\beta)$  and the % of the variability independently explained by each variable (as for Table 1) computed using hierarchical partitioning.

Interaction terms	Pr(Inc)	$\beta$	SD( $\beta$ )	% indep.
†C:E ratio	0.067	0.016	0.026	12
Tf	0.025	-0.004	0.019	6
†% Fertilized	1.0	0.294	0.042	52
†C:E ratio $\times$ Tf	0.016	0.002	0.016	3
†C:E ratio $\times$ † % Fertilized	0.068	-0.013	0.034	14
Tf $\times$ †% Fertilized	0.023	0.006	0.018	4
Tf $\times$ †C:E ratio $\times$ † % Fertilized	0.030	-0.008	0.019	9

- Values  $> 0.75$  are deemed statistically important
- †Ln-transformed

**Table 3**(on next page)

Nutrient export rates for total nitrogen (TN) and NO<sub>x</sub> for the catchments in this study

Comparisons for exports from forest and mixed farming are given for SE Australia. %

Fertilized exports from catchments are all given in kg ha<sup>-1</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>. Published export rates for Australian forest and mixed farming/rural land uses are from Drewry et al. (2006) .

<b>System</b>	<b>% Fertilized</b>	<b>NOx</b>	<b>TN</b>
Wingan River	0.49	0.06	1.7
Cann River	2.0	0.08	0.22
Genoa River	4.7	0.11	0.62
Aire River	13	0.74	1.0
Gellibrand River	25	1.3	3.1
Merriman Creek	35	0.38	1.1
Tarra River	38	1.6	2.5
Werribee River	56	0.11	0.35
Patterson River	57	0.33	1.2
Glenelg River	63	0.24	0.65
Kororoit Creek	82	0.28	0.56
Tarwin River	85	3.1	6.1
Curdies River	86	0.70	2.4
Bass River	92	3.1	7.7
Moyne River	98	0.79	1.9
Forest	-	-	0.9-2
Mixed farming/rural	-	4	0.5-4.5