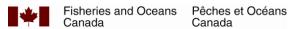
Quantifying shoreline modifications adjacent to eelgrass meadows in the Strait of Georgia Bioregion

John Cristiani, Katherine Bannar-Martin, Emily M. Rubidge

Fisheries and Oceans Canada Science Branch, Pacific Region **Pacific Biological Station** Nanaimo, British Columbia V9T 6N7

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Canadian Technical Report of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences ####





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¹Pacific Biological Station

Fisheries and Oceans Canada, 3190 Hammond Bay Road

Nanaimo, British Columbia, V9T 6N7, Canada

²Institute of Ocean Sciences

Fisheries and Oceans Canada, 9860 W Saanich Road

Sidney, British Columbia, V8L 4B2, Canada

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34 ABSTRACT

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43 **RÉSUMÉ**

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1 Introduction

The health and functioning of coastal marine ecosystems are under threat from a variety of human activities (Halpern et al. 2019). Coastal activities such as agriculture, industrial and 54 residential development, forestry, and shoreline hardening can create pressures on the marine 55 environment. A modified shoreline may alter levels of sedimentation, nutrient runoff, pollution, 56 and wave energy (Dethier et al. 2016; Todd et al. 2019). For coastal biogenic habitat in British 57 Columbia such as seagrass, these pressures may impact seagrass productivity and survival, and thus impact the community of species that rely on seagrass (lacarella et al. 2018; Nahirnick et al. 2019; Murphy et al. 2021). Therefore, knowing the presence of shoreline modifications adjacent to seagrass meadows would allow us to predict ecological impacts and understand seagrass 61 ecosystem dynamics in a broader seascape context. 62

Assessing human activities for an entire coastal region is generally done at broad spatial scales. For example, impact mapping and assessments for all of BC have been done with a 2 km+ spatial resolution (Clarke Murray et al. 2015), which exceeds the size of many seagrass meadows as well as the size of the shoreline region which may be locally impacting a meadow. In addition, many spatially distinct meadows may exist close together, where only a high resolution assessment of shoreline modifications could distinguish the potential impacts between them. Fine-scale assessments of impacts to seagrass exist for the BC coast, but these are typically done in detail for only a few meadows due to logistical constraints (lacarella et al. 2018; Nagel et al. 2020).

The objective of this study is to map and quantify the shoreline modifications adjacent to all known seagrass meadows in the Strait of Georgia Bioregion of British Columbia. Eelgrass 73 (Zostera marina, the dominant habitat-forming seagrass species) is a conservation priority in British Columbia (DFO 2019), and eelgrass meadows have been designated as Ecologically 75 and Biologically Significant Areas (EBSA) due to their productivity, sensitivity, and support for 76 biological diversity (Rubidge et al. 2020). Therefore, it is important to acquire information on human activities to predict impacts and categorize meadows by their degree of naturalness, as areas of high naturalness may be a priority for additional management and conservation 79 efforts (UN CBD 2008). While shoreline modifications do not represent all of the human 80 activities potentially threatening seagrass, a high resolution dataset is currently needed and 81 can complement other existing human impact data. 82

83 2 Methods

2.1 Seagrass spatial data

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Eelgrass (*Z. marina*) is the primary subtidal and intertidal meadow-forming seagrass in British Columbia. Meadows may also consist of the non-native seagrass, *Zostera japonica*, in the intertidal zone. Seagrass occurs to depths of 10 meters and can form meadows many km² in size (Murphy et al. 2021). We used a spatial dataset of seagrass in the Salish Sea compiled in Cristiani et al. (2021), which consists of surveyed and modeled data from a variety of government and non-governmental sources. Due to the combination of data with varying

collection methodologies and error, there is high uncertainty in the dataset, and it is best used for coarse estimates of extent. The dataset includes 685 spatially distinct meadows across the Strait of Georgia Bioregion as well as in the southern portions of the Northern Shelf Bioregion and Southern Shelf Bioregion (Figure 1).

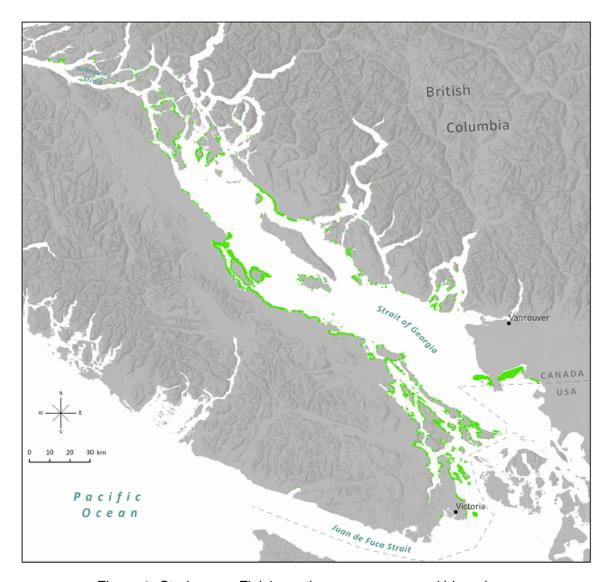


Figure 1. Study area. Finish caption on seagrass and bioregions.

5 2.2 Shoreline area adjacent to seagrass meadows

Past guidelines on the width of marine riparian buffer zones for protecting sensitive habitat typically range from 50-150 meters (Levings and Jamieson 2001; Lemieux et al. 2004). We followed the methodology in a similar study of anthropogenic impacts (lacarella et al. 2018) and examined shoreline modifications within 100 m of the coastline adjacent to each seagrass meadow. Quantifying modifications within a buffer zone requires generating consistent buffers from all meadows onto land. The perimeters of meadows, however, do not always exactly border

the shoreline due to variable mapping accuracies and errors, as well as some meadows only existing in the subtidal zone. This results in slighlty different buffer extents on to land. Aside from a few exceptions, the majority of meadows are in close proximity to a coastline, and therefore, to create consistent width buffers on land we first adjusted the perimeter of meadows to match the coastline using digitization tools in ArcGIS.

2.3 Shoreline modifications

To quantify shoreline modification adjacent to seagrass, we identified any structures
(e.g. buildings, houses) and areas de-vegetated from their natural state (e.g. lawns, logged areas,
agriculture, armoured shoreline) within the 100 meter buffer. De-vegetated areas can increase
nutrient run-off from agricultural areas and sewage outfalls potentially resulting in eutrophication
(Hauxwell et al. 2003; Vandermeulen 2005; Quiros et al. 2017). Hardened and de-vegated areas
may also increase the outflow of sedimentation resulting in decreased light levels in seagrass
meadows (Vandermeulen et al. 2012; Dethier et al. 2016; Todd et al. 2019).

Shoreline modifications were digitized from satellite and aerial imagery in Google Earth Pro. The most recent imagery available was used, but the dates of the imagery varied across the study area. The majority of roads were included using an existing provincial dataset (Province of British Columbia - Digital Road Atlas). This dataset consists of linear features which were buffered using the number of lanes and standard lane widths. Modifications were classified into six categories: road, residential, cropland, industrial, greenspace, unclear. Within each category, an additional descriptor was also listed (Table 1). Overwater structures (e.g. floathomes, docks, aquaculture) were not considered to be shoreline modifications as these are associated with a different suite of impacts (e.g. shading, boat traffic), and these features were captured in a separate study.

To quantify the overall level of shoreline modification we totaled the area of all modification types per buffered area and calculated the percent of the buffered area that is modified. The percent modified was then associated back with the adjacent seagrass meadow.

Table 1. Shoreline modification classifications and descriptors

Subcategory descriptors
paved; dirt; rail
house; RV; lighthouse
logging; airport; general development; parking; storage; marina; church; electrical; ferry; hospital; train yard; shipping
crop; fishfarm
cleared; campground; golf; park; recreation
unclear

3 Results

The spatial distribution of shoreline modifications varied across the region. Examples of the
extent and diversity of modifications are shown in Figure 2, and the full dataset is accessible
online (see Data availability section). As expected, the seagrass meadows with the highest
total levels of adjacent shoreline modification occurred near population centers (Figure 3). The
lowest levels of modification occurred near islands and in the northern part of the study area
(i.e. Johnstone Strait). The dominant modification type tended to vary by latitude. For example,
there is more coastal agriculture in the south and more logging in the north (Figure).

(TODO: make colors more bold in example figure.) (TODO: add cities and towns to overall figure)
(TODO: do a full page figure for the 5 types. If these come after the total one, then I could try to
fit them on one page.)



Figure 2. Shoreline modifications within 100 meter buffered areas. The six selected areas are shown for example and do not imply any significance over other areas.

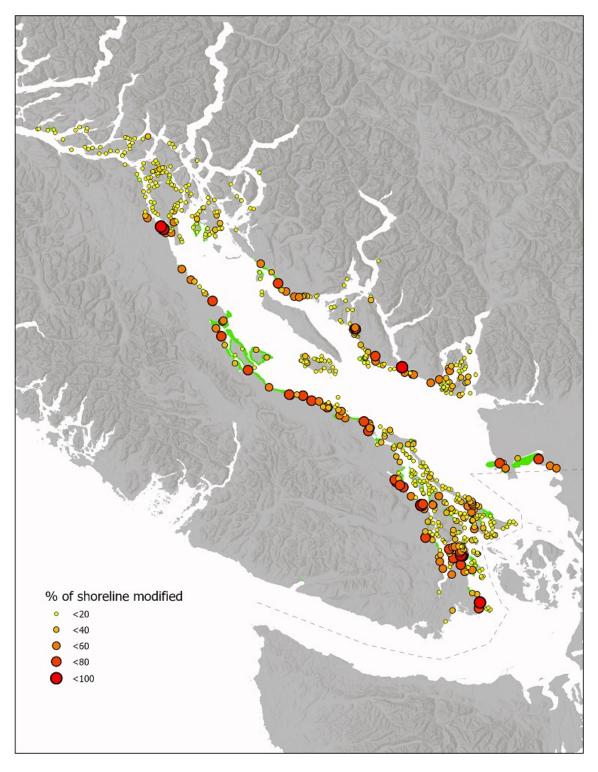


Figure 3. The percentage of the shoreline buffered area that is modified.

4 Discussion

By quantifying shoreline modifications adjacent to seagrass meadows, we've provided a novel high resolution dataset for documenting land use over a large spatial extent and predicting potential impacts to nearshore ecosystems. The variation in the distribution and patterns of modifications across the region illustrate the different threats that seagrass meadows face based on their location. If an area including a meadow is selected for management (e.g. an EBSA), then it's likely the shoreline modifications will have to be considered for possible mitigation of impacts. Knowing the spatial distribution of modifications is important because the management action will vary with the type of modification. While areas of naturalness are generally targeted for conservation over degraded areas (UN CBD 2008; Rubidge et al. 2020), other criteria such as biological diversity, productivity and connectivity may result in targeting meadows that are threatened by shoreline activities (Rubidge et al. 2020; Cristiani 2022).

This analysis could be strengthened by addressing some of its assumptions and limitations. We used a uniform buffer from the coast, but there is likely a distance-decay of the impacts from certain activities, such that subtidal meadows may experience impacts differently than intertidal meadows. In addition, a narrow buffer of vegetation on the edge of the coast could be enough to mitigate the effects of a certain modifications behind this buffer. Most importantly, it will be necessary to quantify the relative severity of each modification and the vulnerability of seagrass to different pressures. For example, runoff from agricultural areas may be more damaging than runoff from residential areas (Teck et al. 2010). Shoreline modifications are representative of only one type of threat to seagrass. However, by quantifying severity and vulnerability scores, this data could be incorporated into larger cumulative effects analyses in which the overall impact of many stressors is quantified (Clarke Murray et al. 2016, 2020; Murphy et al. 2022).

Our analysis emphasizes the importance of managing seagrass and the biodiversity it supports in the spatial context of the larger seascape and landscape. While eelgrass area is declining globally, it appears to be stable in the north Pacific (Dunic et al. 2021), and in the Washington state portion of the Salish Sea, eelgrass has been resilient despite an increase in human activities (Shelton et al. 2016). Understanding exactly which activities may be impacting eelgrass locally will likely require a more precise analysis of human activities, the stressors they generate, and the vulnerability of eelgrass to these stressors. Therefore, it will be important to continue to gather the high resolution spatial data that informs the initial stage of these analyses.

5 Data availability

70 Link to code in github repo

Link to dataset wherever it gets hosted

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