

## ACCEPTED VERSION

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**Challenges in applying scientific evidence to width recommendations for riparian management in agricultural Australia**  
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# 1 **Summary**

2 Intact riparian zones maintain aquatic-terrestrial ecosystem function and ultimately, waterway  
3 health. Effective riparian management is a major step towards improving the condition of  
4 waterways and usually involves the creation of a ‘buffer’ by fencing off the stream and  
5 planting vegetation. Determination of buffer widths often reflects logistical constraints (e.g.  
6 private land ownership, existing infrastructure) of riparian and adjacent areas, rather than  
7 relying on rigorous science. We used published information to support riparian width  
8 recommendations for waterways in agricultural Victoria, Australia. We focused on different  
9 ecological management objectives (e.g. nutrient reduction or erosion control) and scrutinised  
10 the applicability of data across different environmental contexts (e.g. adjacent land use or  
11 geomorphology). Not surprisingly, the evidence supported variable ‘effective’ riparian  
12 widths, depending on the objective and environmental context. We used this information to  
13 develop a framework for determining riparian buffer widths to meet a variety of ecological  
14 objectives in south-east Australia. Widths for reducing nutrient inputs to waterways were  
15 most strongly supported with quantitative evidence, and varied between 20 and 38 m  
16 depending on environmental context. The environmental context was inconsistently reported,  
17 making it difficult to recommend appropriate widths, under different land use and  
18 physiographic scenarios. The evidence to guide width determination generally had high levels  
19 of uncertainty. Despite the considerable amount of published riparian research, there was  
20 insufficient evidence to demonstrate that implemented widths achieved ecological objectives.  
21 We emphasise the need for managers to clearly articulate the objectives of proposed riparian  
22 management and carefully consider the environmental context. Monitoring ecological  
23 responses associated with different riparian buffer widths is essential to support future  
24 management decisions.

25

## 26 **Introduction**

27

28 Riparian zones exert important influences on the waterways they adjoin by mediating the bi-  
29 directional flow of matter and energy between the water body and surrounding uplands  
30 (Naiman *et al.* 2005). Globally, riparian zones are generally in poor condition (Sweeney &  
31 Newbold 2014) due to widespread modification of catchments through clearing of vegetation  
32 for agriculture, horticulture, grazing of livestock, forestry and urbanisation (Norris *et al.*  
33 2001; Lake 2005; Burger *et al.* 2010). Riparian management is usually viewed as a  
34 practicable and cost-effective means of protecting waterways and enhancing ecological  
35 values in degraded landscapes. Governments and land managers spend millions of dollars on  
36 managing riparian zones on the assumption that intact riparian zones will alleviate or reverse  
37 the impacts of past and present disturbances (Hassett *et al.* 2005; Price *et al.* 2009).

38

39 Riparian management in agricultural systems involves fencing to exclude livestock,  
40 controlling weeds and planting of (usually) native vegetation (Correll 2005; Price *et al.* 2009;  
41 Buckley *et al.* 2012). The choice of where and how much riparian area to manage is usually  
42 constrained by associated costs, property boundaries, and the willingness of landholders to  
43 retire, donate, or lose productive land. The ‘ideal’ form of riparian management should target  
44 both banks, and ensure that the length and width of the area managed is sufficient to meet  
45 multiple restoration objectives (Weller *et al.* 1998; Mayer *et al.* 2007; Lake *et al.* 2007). As  
46 riparian land is usually divided longitudinally by property boundaries, affecting the  
47 practicability of continuous management along a waterway, width is generally the focus for  
48 determining the size of the management area (Lee *et al.* 2004).

49

50 We previously developed minimum width recommendations for riparian zones in Victoria  
51 (Hansen *et al.* 2010). Here, we investigate the evidence base riparian management, in order to  
52 emphasise broader principles and lessons for restoration. We focus on agricultural lands in  
53 south-eastern Australia, which are often highly degraded and therefore, the target for  
54 restoration. This review was not intended to be a meta-analysis to quantify effective riparian  
55 zone widths (which has been done elsewhere: e.g. Mayer *et al.* 2007; Sweeney & Newbold  
56 2014), but rather to identify the state of knowledge about riparian zone widths required to  
57 restore streams to meet different ecological objectives in different environmental contexts.  
58 The approach we adopted was to focus on ecological management objectives, not social or  
59 economic objectives. The rationale we used could equally apply urban or mining geographic  
60 locations. We outline research and monitoring priorities for Australian riparian systems, as  
61 well as opportunities to improve the science and practice of riparian restoration.

62

## 63 **Review method**

64

65 We reviewed riparian literature on width requirements for initiating or augmenting riparian  
66 zone function. Peer-reviewed and “grey” references up to 2014 were located using the  
67 keywords riparian, “riparian zone”, width, buffer and “vegetated filters” singly or combined,  
68 in search engines such as Scopus and Google Scholar. Studies containing primary width data  
69 were categorised according to riparian ecological function(s) (hereafter referred to as  
70 response(s)) and environmental context (see Supplementary Material online). Environmental  
71 contexts are modifying variables which influence riparian functions and include site-specific  
72 characteristics like vegetation type (e.g. forest versus grassland), vegetation extent (e.g. at the  
73 property scale), soil type, flow characteristics (surface versus subsurface), or slope of the

74 riparian zone. Other environmental contexts include landscape characteristics such as  
75 physiographic features, stream order or adjacent land use.

76

77 Six broad responses were identified:

78 (1) improved connectivity of riparian habitat (e.g. contiguity of vegetation);

79 (2) reduction of nutrient, contaminant and sediment to waterways (includes erosion control);

80 (3) moderation of stream temperatures through riparian shading;

81 (4) provision of habitat and/or input of resources for aquatic fauna (e.g. wood, leaves,  
82 insects);

83 (5) lateral extent, or maintenance of riparian vegetation diversity;

84 (6) terrestrial (riparian) habitat for fauna (invertebrates, birds, reptiles, amphibians and  
85 mammals).

86

87 Empirical data from single studies that represented different responses and / or environmental  
88 contexts were defined as separate cases. For example, nitrate removal of 50% from  
89 subsurface flows was achieved through herbaceous riparian zones averaging 13.8 m in width  
90 compared to 38 m through forested riparian zones (with different soil types) in Canada  
91 (Vidon & Hill 2004). This study was split into two cases, representing the different  
92 contextual variables that influenced riparian response.

93

94 Where primary width data applied to nutrient or sediment reduction, the width necessary to  
95 reduce  $\geq 75\%$  of non-point pollutants to streams was used (value derived from nitrogen  
96 attenuation: Mayer *et al.* 2007). Where comparisons were made between different widths

97 (e.g. organic matter inputs from clearcuts versus buffers of 10 m and 30 m: Kiffney &  
98 Richardson 2010) or between a control and treatment (e.g. effects on aquatic invertebrates of  
99 forested buffers versus clearcuts [Davies & Nelson 1994] or pasture [Lorian & Kennedy  
100 2009]), the minimum width for a significant difference was used. Several studies used a  
101 modelling approach, validated by field data, to determine a width at which a change or effect  
102 occurs (e.g. distance at which coarse wood from riparian tree fall originates: van Sickle &  
103 Gregory 1990). Widths were either reported as is (e.g. a 100 m buffer reduces logging  
104 impacts on lotic macroinvertebrates; Grown & Davis 1991) or as the average of a width  
105 range (e.g. 250-300 m to reduce disturbance impacts on breeding Blue Herons *Ardea*  
106 *herodias*; Vos *et al.* 1985).

107

108 We described primary width data using summary statistics (median, 25<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> percentiles),  
109 representing individual identifiable cases, to establish a width range for each response. We  
110 distinguished wetlands (includes off-stream water bodies and lowland floodplains) from other  
111 settings for a single response, improving water quality.

112

113 Where dominant land use adjacent to waterways was specified, widths for each response  
114 were further summarised by land use intensity, categorised using Australian literature on  
115 fertiliser application and stocking rates (see Appendix 1 for details). Studies on reducing non-  
116 point pollution to waterways and providing habitat for terrestrial fauna were numerous  
117 enough to distinguish widths under low, moderate and high intensity land uses. Some of these  
118 had insufficient information to clearly differentiate low from moderate, or moderate from  
119 high land use. Patterns in widths for different responses with soil type, buffer vegetation type,  
120 stream size, geomorphology were also explored.

121

122 **Width guidelines for management of Victorian riparian systems**

123 We focused on riparian systems in agricultural Victoria (temperate climate) to determine the  
124 applicability of width data to a specific region and across a variety of land use types (e.g.  
125 cropping, irrigated pasture, market gardens). Median values for each relevant riparian  
126 response were applied to four key management objectives, considered important for  
127 determining minimum widths in Victoria:

128 (A) improving water quality (controlling erosion and reducing nutrient and contaminant  
129 inputs to streams) – response 2;

130 (B) increasing shading and moderating stream temperatures – response 3;

131 (C) providing food and other resource inputs to the aquatic environment – response 4;

132 (D) improving terrestrial biodiversity (flora and fauna) – responses 5 & 6.

133

134 Using the median values for each response, a matrix of provisional width recommendations  
135 was produced for each of the four management objectives for common environmental  
136 contexts (excluding urban and nature reserve settings). These were (1) low intensity land use,  
137 (2) moderate intensity land use, (3) high intensity land use, (4) low order, steep catchments  
138 (partially or completely cleared), and (5) lowland floodplain / wetland systems (Appendix 1).

139 The width recommendation for a single management objective was set by the median value  
140 of the corresponding riparian response, and was increased by an amount corresponding to the  
141 25<sup>th</sup> percentile for each increase in land use intensity. This adjustment reflected the need for  
142 wider riparian zones to mitigate greater impacts and disturbances originating from the  
143 catchment (see Castelle *et al.* 1994). It also incorporated variable width riparian zones, which

144 often have a large range and may be more appropriate than fixed widths (Wissmar *et al.*  
145 2004; Mac Nally *et al.* 2008; Anderson & Poage 2014).

146

147 Most quantitative riparian research originated from other regions and countries and may not  
148 be directly applicable to Victoria. We assigned three levels of scientific certainty  
149 (confidence) to data from the literature:

150 *high* - there are many overseas studies (typically >>50), several equivalent studies have been  
151 conducted in temperate Australia in different contexts, and / or general principles should be  
152 largely transferable to Victorian systems;

153 *moderate* - there are some overseas studies (typically <30) , there is limited evidence from  
154 temperate Australian systems (usually several studies done in similar contexts) and / or  
155 general principles may have limited application to Victorian systems; and

156 *low* - there are some overseas studies (typically <30) , there is little or no data from  
157 Australian studies and / or general principles are unlikely to apply in Victorian systems.

158 These levels were used to describe the level of confidence (in terms of the availability and  
159 relevance of scientific evidence) of each width recommendation.

160

161 In some contexts (e.g. low order streams) there was inadequate information to distinguish  
162 between different responses. This greatly increased the uncertainty of width recommendation.  
163 We used general theoretical knowledge about changes in stream function with order and size  
164 to determine width recommendations in these cases, and the certainty levels described above  
165 to highlight our confidence in the transferability of this information.

166

167 **Results and discussion**

168

169 **Summary of evidence from riparian width studies**

170 Information pertaining to riparian widths existed for a wide range of riparian management  
171 objectives, but most empirical evidence was skewed toward improving water quality. This  
172 predominantly originated from North America and Europe (Table 1), with some different  
173 ecological processes to Australia (particularly terrestrial processes), increasing the  
174 uncertainty of applying this data to Victorian systems.

175

176 There were over 600 relevant references, with 162 containing suitable primary width data  
177 (representing 188 response and/or context cases). Over 40% of the primary width data studies  
178 related to the reduction of sediment, nutrient and contaminant input to waterways (i.e.  
179 improving water quality). These had the lowest median widths (and percentiles) of all  
180 responses (20.0 m, range: 2-107 m) (Table 1). Of these, 61 nutrient and sediment reduction  
181 studies explicitly stated whether widths related to surface (median=16.5, n=26) and / or  
182 subsurface (median=20.0, n=35) flows. Evidence for improving terrestrial faunal biodiversity  
183 was the next most numerous (Table 1), dominated by studies on Northern Hemisphere birds  
184 and then mammals. There was less evidence for other specific responses indicating that  
185 current implemented widths may be underestimated for a range of ecological objectives. Our  
186 recommendations of 20-38 m for reducing nutrient inputs to streams and controlling erosion  
187 reflected widths documented elsewhere (Abernethy & Rutherford 1999; Sweeney & Newbold  
188 2014)but larger widths were required for other responses (Lee *et al.* 2004; Table 2).

189

190 Generally, the environmental context of waterways was inconsistently reported, making it  
191 difficult to draw inferences about appropriate widths under different land use and

192 physiographic scenarios. Low intensity land uses were most readily distinguishable from  
193 other environmental contexts (75 studies), and reported widths averaged across these studies  
194 were lower than for moderate or high intensity land uses (Table 3). Differentiating between  
195 moderate and high intensity land uses was often more difficult due to ambiguous land use  
196 information. Thus, widths did not differ substantially between these intensity levels (Table 3).  
197 We concluded that the available evidence supported the premise that increasing land use  
198 intensity required greater riparian widths (see also *Castelle et al.* 1994; *Mayer et al.* 2007).  
199  
200 Recommended riparian widths varied with environmental contexts, often unpredictably.  
201 Forested buffer widths required for improving water quality were larger than grassy buffer  
202 widths (Figure 1); forested and wetland buffer widths were largest when providing terrestrial  
203 habitat for fauna like breeding amphibians and birds (e.g. *Hennings & Edge* 2003; *Semlitsch*  
204 *& Bodie* 2003). Relationships between between soil type and buffer effectiveness were  
205 difficult to discern, with 35 different soil types reported across 60 studies. Geomorphic  
206 context (i.e. stream order) was specified across different nutrient and sediment reduction  
207 studies: headwater / 1<sup>st</sup>-2<sup>nd</sup> order streams had median widths of 20.0 m (n=18) but higher  
208 order waterways (3<sup>rd</sup> order and above) were 78.3 m (n=4). This seemed counter-intuitive as  
209 we might expect the opposite pattern on the basis of catchment topography and surface flow  
210 runoff rates (*Nakamura & Yamada* 2005; *Kang & Lin* 2009). It demonstrated that there is  
211 relatively fewer data from high-order waterways.

212

213 **The importance of environmental contexts and objectives of riparian management in**  
214 **width setting**

215 Appropriateness of width recommendation depended strongly on the management objective  
216 (reflecting the desired buffer function: Castelle *et al.* 1992). A grassy riparian buffer designed  
217 to intercept sediment (Blanco-Canqui *et al.* 2004) will be inadequate for supporting stream-  
218 dwelling invertebrates (Lorion & Kennedy 2009). Similarly, a 10-30 m forested riparian strip  
219 may provide adequate woody inputs to sustain aquatic biota (McDade *et al.* 1990, Thompson  
220 *et al.* 2009; Bahuguna *et al.* 2010), but may fail to maintain amphibian and reptile  
221 populations (Semlitsch & Bodie 2003; Ficetola *et al.* 2008). Furthermore, biophysical gaps  
222 along its length may compromise the opportunity for terrestrial fauna to migrate into suitable  
223 habitat patches (Knopf & Samson 1994).

224

225 To manage for multiple objectives, quantification of the objective(s) with the greatest  
226 relevant width is required (see for example Castelle *et al.* 1994; Nakamura & Yamada 2005;  
227 Sweeney & Newbold 2014) to set the minimum width. This can reduce the impacts of the  
228 most intensive land use practice on the waterway. For example, soil and/or vegetation type  
229 may reduce the role of the riparian zone in reducing nutrient input to streams (e.g. where  
230 groundwater flows bypass the retentive influence of riparian vegetation: Kuglerová *et al.*  
231 2014). Managing for multiple objectives necessitates guidance on the most appropriate width  
232 - we used our review to outline how this may be achieved. Adopting a general approach of  
233 “more is better” will allow for landscapes where vegetation widths, and thus riparian widths,  
234 are longitudinally variable (i.e. where the topography is variable: Bren 1998; Polyakov *et al.*  
235 2005; Mac Nally *et al.* 2008).

236

237 **Where was the evidence lacking?**

238 Identifying riparian zone widths for floodplains and wetlands, and low order, steep  
239 catchments, was more challenging given the scarcity of consistent evidence. Stream order and  
240 river size were specified for many studies, but general patterns were difficult to discern.  
241 Furthermore, supporting data for low and high order streams for any given objective were  
242 highly variable. The riparian zone will typically be large, relative to the channel width in  
243 headwater streams, then narrows in the gorge / valley section, and increases in lowland areas  
244 where the rivers are relatively wide and the hydrological and geomorphic complexity of  
245 floodplains produces patches of riparian vegetation around channels, billabongs and other  
246 off-stream waterbodies (Ward *et al.* 2002). In lowland waterways, the riparian zone reflects  
247 the lateral extent of hydrological influence. For example, the floodplain vegetation  
248 community in the lower Murray River may extend up to 12 km from the river (Roberts 2004).  
249 To maintain floodplain function, widths must encapsulate the connection to floodplain  
250 components (Opperman *et al.* 2010) and could be derived from conservative floodplain  
251 mapping (e.g. 1 in 30 year flood level: Peake *et al.* 2011).

252

253 Most evidence comes from the Northern Hemisphere and while general physical processes  
254 are likely to be similar on most continents, some critical biotic processes are not comparable.  
255 Extrapolating nutrient and sediment interception studies to Victoria is justifiable, given  
256 nitrogen removal and sediment transport are broadly transferable (Drewry *et al.* 2006). Some  
257 dominant sources and forms of nutrients like phosphorus do however exhibit some  
258 differences; N and P exports are usually lower in Australia (Harris 2001). Stream shading and  
259 inputs of riparian material to aquatic environments relate to generally similar physical  
260 processes (e.g. continuity of riparian canopy cover: Rutherford *et al.* 2004; or height of  
261 vegetation and valley slope dictate stream shading in low order waterways: DeWalle 2008).  
262 However, some critical aspects of riparian resource provisioning to streams (riparian

263 subsidies) differ, depending on the ecology of riparian vegetation species and regional  
264 climate patterns (Francis & Sheldon 2002; Gawne *et al.* 2007). Northern hemisphere data  
265 relating riparian terrestrial biodiversity to buffer widths are unlikely to apply to many  
266 temperate Australian riparian systems due to the more unpredictable climate, and the  
267 idiosyncratic patterns in species abundance and distribution that often typify Australian fauna  
268 (Kingsford 2000; Woinarski *et al.* 2000). Our width recommendations for achieving  
269 terrestrial objectives had relatively high levels of uncertainty, illustrating the limitations of  
270 extrapolating research from other regions.

271

## 272 **Management considerations**

273 Our review demonstrated that greater widths were required to achieve objectives when  
274 adjacent land use intensity was high, or when the objective of management was improving  
275 terrestrial biodiversity (particularly fauna). This becomes problematic when intense land use  
276 practices occur on small properties, reducing the amount of riparian land that can  
277 economically be protected or targeted for management. Large widths recommendations may  
278 be impractical in these landscape settings. As the evidence originated predominantly from  
279 North American landscapes, the applicability of these data to south-eastern Australia may be  
280 limited. In order for practitioners to determine trade-offs between ecological and economic  
281 considerations, they require information on “functional effectiveness” of different widths  
282 under different land uses. This evidence is still broadly lacking, despite the considerable  
283 investment in riparian management. Decisions about appropriate riparian widths should be  
284 guided by strategic prioritisation of target areas within catchments (e.g. headwaters) that  
285 maximise ecological benefits (Parkyn *et al.* 2005; Craig *et al.* 2008; Stranko *et al.* 2012). For  
286 example, if we apply the evidence summarised here to a streamside property used for  
287 dairying in the lower Hunter River, New South Wales, a riparian zone width of 40 m may

288 achieve  $\geq 75\%$  reduction of nitrogen inputs to the river and reduce stream bank erosion,  
289 contributing to improved downstream water quality. However, the same investment in  
290 riparian set-aside in the upper reaches of the Hunter catchment may provide additional  
291 improvements to stream nutrient processing (Lowe & Likens 2005), aquatic biodiversity  
292 (Chessman *et al.* 1997) and bird diversity (Bennett *et al.* 2014).

293

294 Riparian width decisions should be underpinned by three important considerations: (1) clear  
295 definitions of the ecological objectives of management, (2) incorporation of the spatio-  
296 temporal context of the restoration effort into management, and (3) documentation of the  
297 success (or failure) of management, to inform future programs.

298

299 Over the last two decades of riparian management, the failure to adequately document  
300 successes or failures has hindered riparian restoration science (Reich *et al.* 2011; Morandi *et*  
301 *al.* 2014). Compared to investment in restoration implementation, investment in monitoring  
302 has been minimal. The collection of monitoring data, for a suite of key indicators, linked to  
303 clearly stated goals, should be integral to any restoration programme (Palmer *et al.* 1997).

304 Without these data, practitioners will continue to find it difficult to transfer the evidence from  
305 riparian research.

306

### 307 **Research and monitoring priorities**

308 We have focused on width recommendations, but for riparian management to be fully  
309 effective, interactive effects of other variables need to be understood. These are hydrology,  
310 climate, invasive species management, and longitudinal continuity of the riparian zone.

311 Hydrology and climate strongly influence riparian function (Ward *et al.* 2002) and the

312 effectiveness of the riparian zone as a buffer from disturbance, or as habitat for biota, may be  
313 different in non-perennial systems (Bond & Cottingham 2008).

314

315 Invasive species are widespread in riparian zones and weed control is usually required to  
316 reduce their impact on native vegetation survival and recruitment. Weed invasion into  
317 riparian zones may be pronounced when widths are small (Ferris *et al.* 2012). However, the  
318 extent to which invasive species positively or negatively interfere with management is not  
319 well understood, usually due to poor understanding of target ecological processes.

320

321 Evidence is accumulating that restoring longitudinal continuity of riparian zones should be a  
322 priority for management (e.g. Parkyn *et al.*, 2005). Continuous riparian zones are important  
323 as even small gaps can allow disturbance impacts originating from the catchment to  
324 compromise the efficacy of downstream management (Weller *et al.* 1998). However,  
325 knowledge about the relationship between width and length remains poor in relation to  
326 objectives, e.g. riparian habitat as faunal conduits versus breeding areas, nutrient interception  
327 in upland versus lowland systems.

328

329 We found that the environmental context was inconsistently reported across many riparian  
330 studies, making it difficult to infer appropriate widths under different land use and  
331 physiographic scenarios. Exploration of gradients across different environmental contexts  
332 (e.g. lowland floodplains or low-order streams subject to high intensity adjacent land uses), to  
333 test hypotheses about effective riparian widths, would address this knowledge gap (e.g.  
334 riparian widths required to support woodland bird breeding under different adjacent  
335 agricultural practices.

336

## 337 **Conclusions**

338

339 In devising guidelines for riparian land managers, we found that the effectiveness of managed  
340 riparian zones in achieving their stated ecological objective was often unquantified, probably  
341 because restoration may take years or even decades of monitoring to detect. By focusing on  
342 riparian zones in agricultural Victoria, we demonstrated that evidence to support management  
343 guidelines is difficult to apply beyond the study area, despite the generality of some  
344 responses and their biophysical processes. Furthermore, any attempt to develop such  
345 recommendations becomes plagued with uncertainty resulting from high variability in  
346 riparian ecological responses, as well as a lack of information about the effect of  
347 environmental context. This requires flexibility in widths applied, which may rely on a  
348 combination of flood level mapping and adoption of the general principle that, the greater the  
349 land use intensity, the wider the riparian zone required to buffer against catchment  
350 modifications and disturbances. Thus, where land use changes are proposed, riparian zones  
351 need to be adjusted to account for forecasted increases in disturbance impacts. Our  
352 understanding of the sources of variation in ecological responses to riparian management  
353 would be greatly improved if the appropriate and acknowledged ‘contextual’ information was  
354 gathered and documented.

355

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357

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362

363

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630 **Table 1.** Summary statistics for riparian width-related studies classified according to ecological  
631 function (or response) and geographic region. 25<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> percentiles are provided for comparison.  
632 No. cases = total number of width/response/context combinations across all studies. Nth Am. = North  
633 American, Eur. = Europe (and United Kingdom), AUS=Australasian. All widths are in metres.

634

Ecological function	Median width	25 <sup>th</sup> perc.	10 <sup>th</sup> perc.	Width range	No. cases	Nth Am.	Eur.	AUS	Other
Improving water quality	20.0	9.4	5.8	2-107	77	49	17	9	2
Improving water quality - wetlands	28.8	7.0	-	1-2250	4	2	1	1	0
Riparian inputs for aquatic fauna	30.0	20.0	11.4	10-100	21	14	1	6	0
Stream shading	27.5	18.1	10.3	10-83	11	11	0	1	0
Riparian vegetation	35.0	11.6	10.0	10-330	20†	9	2	8	1
Riparian habitat for fauna	78.5	30.0	15.0	5-900	53†	44	4	3	2
Connectivity for fauna	100.0	93.3	-	91-183	4	4	0	0	0
Total number of cases					188	136	25	28	5

635 † these responses share four cases where reported widths related to both riparian flora and fauna. Thus, total  
636 number of cases is four less than sum over all rows.

637

638 **Table 2.** Minimum width recommendations for riparian management in Victoria, developed on the  
 639 basis of existing primary width data. The level of confidence for each recommendation (high,  
 640 moderate and low) is written below the width. All widths are in metres.

Environmental context / Management Objective	Land Use Intensity Low	Land Use Intensity Moderate	Land Use Intensity High	Lowland floodplain /wetland systems	Steep catchments/ low order streams
Improve water quality	20 <b>high</b>	29 <b>high</b>	38 <b>high</b>	29 <i>moderate</i>	38 <i>moderate</i>
Moderate stream temperatures	28 <i>moderate</i>	46 <i>moderate</i>	64 <i>moderate</i>	28 † <i>moderate</i>	28 <i>moderate</i>
Provide food and resources	30 <i>moderate</i>	50 <i>moderate</i>	70 <i>moderate</i>	30 † <i>moderate</i>	30 <i>moderate</i>
Improve terrestrial biodiversity	50 low	80 low	110 low	110 † low	50 low

641 † Width will relate to the lateral extent of hydrological influences, and thus, the actual minimum should reflect  
 642 flood mapping (e.g. 1 in 30 year).

643

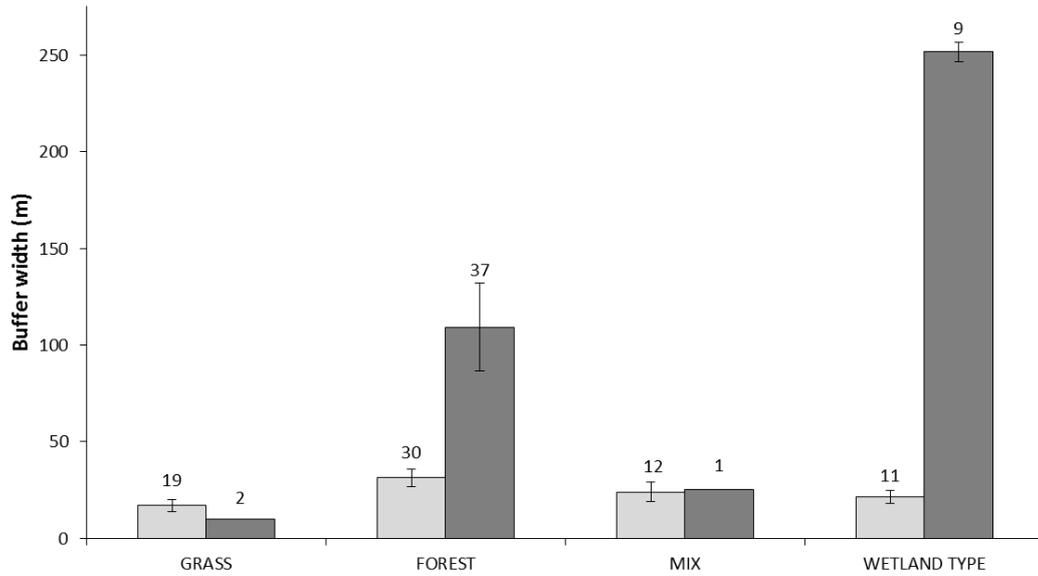
644 **Table 3.** Riparian buffer widths (m) for each ecological function (excluding studies with 4 cases or  
 645 less), averaged across low, moderate and high land use intensity categories. Standard errors are given  
 646 in parentheses. Where it was difficult to distinguish between low and moderate or moderate and high  
 647 land use intensity, the lowest intensity was selected for summary.

Ecological function	Land use intensity			No. cases
	Low	Moderate	High	
Improving water quality	20.6 (2.6)	31.8 (9.4)	26.4 (3.6)	68
Inputs for aquatic fauna	38.6 (9.6)	50.0 (na)	-	10
Shading	35.6 (8.5)	-	-	9
Terrestrial biodiversity (flora & fauna combined)	62.6 (30.5)	169.4 (105.6)	130.0 (57.2)	44

648

649

650 **Figure 1.** Riparian buffer width for two key responses (improving water quality – pale bars,  
651 and terrestrial fauna habitat – dark bars), averaged across major buffer vegetation types  
652 (where stated in each study). Mixed buffer types may be any combination of grass, trees, and  
653 / or shrubs. Wetland types include floodplain and wetland forests (as stated in given studies).  
654 Values above each bar provide number of studies. Error bars are  $\pm 1$  SE.



655

656

657 **Appendix 1.** Definitions of environmental contexts used in this review to reflect the majority  
 658 of land uses in south-eastern Australia.

High intensity land use	Dairy (high stocking rates >10 DSE/ha/annum <sup>1,2</sup> ) Irrigated dairy Dryland cropping (e.g. canola, wheat) Livestock grazing (stocking rates >15 DSE/ha/annum <sup>1,2</sup> ) Swine and poultry (CAFO) Market gardens (vegetable production) High fertilizer application rates (>15kg P/Ha/yr <sup>3</sup> or >110kg N/Ha/yr <sup>4,5</sup> ) Sealed roads within 30m
Moderate intensity land use	Dairy (all other stocking rates ≤ 10 DSE/ha/annum) Grazing (stocking rates 5-15 DSE/ha/annum) Other forms of dryland cropping (e.g. lucerne, clover) Orchards (including citrus) Other production crops including vines hops olives Medium-low fertilizer application rates (<15 kg P/Ha/yr or ≤110kg N/Ha/yr) Unsealed roads within 30m
Low intensity land use	Grazing (low stocking rates <5 DSE/ha/annum all stock) Pasture cropping Timber plantations Forestry operations Pesticide application (e.g. Endosulfan-containing insecticides, glyphosate, organophosphates, etc. <sup>6</sup> )
Steep catchments / low order streams	Highly incised waterways with slopes typically exceeding 30° <sup>7</sup> where adjacent land is cleared or partially cleared of woody vegetation Headwater systems and low order streams (1-4)
Lowland floodplain / wetland systems	Typically higher order waterways with complex geomorphological features like anabranches, oxbow lakes and billabongs, and paleo-channels, and where the lateral extent of floodplain vegetation is large but highly variable and usually subjected to seasonal inundation <sup>8</sup> Chain-of-ponds or lakes or similar that are connected at any time to flowing waters (which may resemble lowland floodplains)

659 Sources used for defining land use intensity levels and environmental contexts:

660 <sup>1</sup> adapted from Jansen & Robertson (2001) – horses considered equivalent to bulls DSE (dry sheep equivalents)  
 661 and deer equivalent to weaner calves (on the basis of relative size)

662 <sup>2</sup> adapted from Ridley *et al.* (2003)

663 <sup>3</sup> adapted from Johnston *et al.* (2003)

664 <sup>4</sup> adapted from Nash *et al.* (2013)

665 <sup>5</sup> 33<sup>rd</sup> percentile of N/NO<sub>3</sub>-N application rates reported in water quality studies investigated in this review (range  
 666 75-389kg N/ha)

667 <sup>6</sup> refer to Radcliffe (2002) for more information on pesticide use in Australia

668 <sup>7</sup> derived from Barling & Moore (1994), plus valley slope data determined in this review (Supplementary  
 669 material online)

670 <sup>8</sup> Ralph & Hesse (2010)

671

672

673

674

675

676 [BOX]

677 **Implications for managers**

- 678 • The effectiveness of managed riparian zones in achieving their stated ecological objective  
679 was often unquantified, probably because the restoration response may take years or even  
680 decades of monitoring to detect.
- 681 • Evidence to determine riparian zone widths for agricultural contexts in Victoria was  
682 frequently associated with high levels of uncertainty as many of the studies originated  
683 from the Northern Hemisphere
- 684 • The environmental context of waterways was often inconsistently reported, making it  
685 difficult to draw inferences about appropriate widths under different land use and  
686 physiographic scenarios
- 687 • The influence of hydrology, climate, invasive species management, and longitudinal  
688 continuity of the riparian zone on effective riparian zone widths should be targets for  
689 future investigation
- 690 • Generally, the greater the land use intensity, the wider the riparian zone needs to be to  
691 buffer against catchment modifications and disturbances.
- 692 • The collection of monitoring data, for a suite of key indicators and linked to clearly stated  
693 goals should be an integral part of any restoration program

694