



Fluvial Life: the Ecology of Flowing Water

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Water in, on, and above the Earth

- Liquid fresh water
- Freshwater lakes and rivers

Howard Perlman, USGS Jack Cook, Adam Nieman Data: Igor Shiklomanov, 1993

Where is Earth's Water? Atmosphere Living things Surface/other freshwater 1.3% Freshwater 2.5% 0.22% 0.22% Rivers 0.46% Other saline Ground-Swamps, Water 1.0% water Lakes marshes 20.1% 30.1% 2.5% Soil moisture 3.5% Oceans. Ice 96.5% and Glaciers snow and 73.1% ice caps 68.6%

Freshwater

Source: Igor Shiklomanov's chapter "World fresh water resources" in Peter H. Gleick (editor), 1993, Water in Crisis: A Guide to the World's Fresh Water Resources. (Numbers are rounded).

Surface water and

other freshwater

Spheres showing:

- (1) All water (sphere over western U.S., 860 miles in diameter)
- (2) Fresh liquid water in the ground, lakes, swamps, and rivers (sphere over Kentucky, 169.5 miles in diameter)

Total global

water

(3) Fresh-water lakes and rivers (sphere over Georgia, 34.9 miles in diameter).

General Differences Between Streams and Lakes

Streams (Lotic) v	s Lakes (Lentic)
One direction of flow, upstream to downstream	Various flows, no particular direction
Normally oxygen rich	Oxygen depletion exists at times in deeper water
Shallower	Deeper
Narrower and longer	Wider and shorter
Various effects from different terrestrial environments along the stream's course. The shoreline has more potential to affect water quality because a larger portion of the water body is near shore.	Terrestrial environment similar all around the lake shore. A smaller portion of the water is in close proximity to the shore.
Stream continually cuts into the channel, making it longer, wider, and deeper	Lakes become shallower over time from depositing sediments
Age progression of a stream goes from young stream, narrow and shallow, to mature stream, wider and deeper	Age progression of a lake or pond goes from lake to marsh or swamp to land
Shorter retention time for water	Longer retention time for water
Top and bottom waters generally have the same temperature	May have different temperatures from the top to

bottom

Flowing Water vs. Nonflowing Water Lotic vs. Lentic



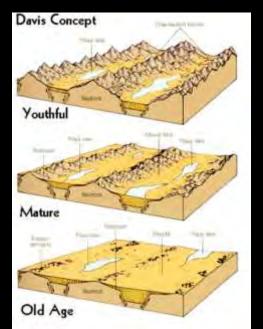


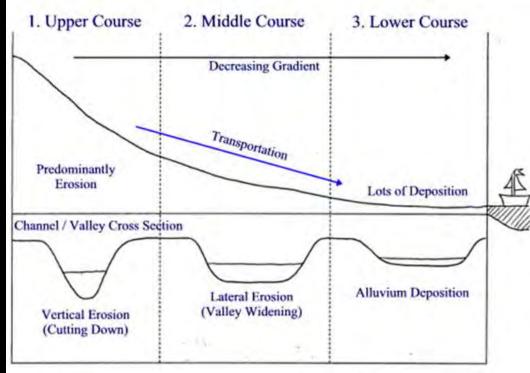
The Life of a River – Physical Geography - Abiotic

William Morris Davis "viewed the river system as having a life of its own.

- Its <u>youthful headwaters</u> are <u>steep and rugged</u>. It rushes toward the sea, <u>eroding bed and bank on its way</u>.
- In its central part, it is <u>mature</u>, <u>winding sedately through wide valleys</u> adjusted to its <u>duty of transporting water and sediment</u>.
- Near its mouth it has reached, in its <u>old age</u>, a nearly level plain through which it wanders in <u>a somewhat aimless course toward final extinction</u> as it joins the ocean that had provided the sustaining waters through its whole life span."

Luna Leopold "A Reverence for Rivers" 1977



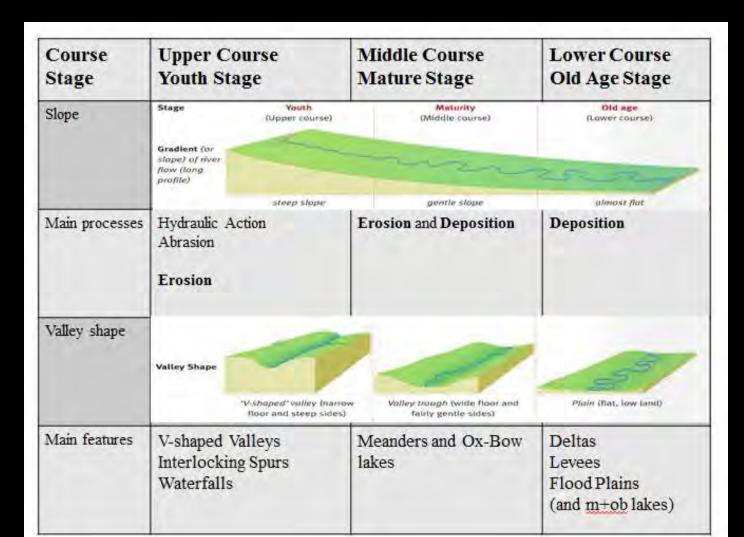




(1850 - 1934)

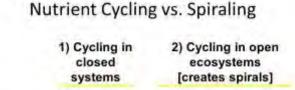
A Fluvial Life and Physical Geography – Waterway Ecosystem The Upper Course: steep and rugged The Middle Course: winding sedately through wide valleys

The Lower Course: a somewhat aimless course toward final extinction



Terrestrial Ecology vs. Fluvial Ecology Nutrient Cycles and Nutrient Spiraling

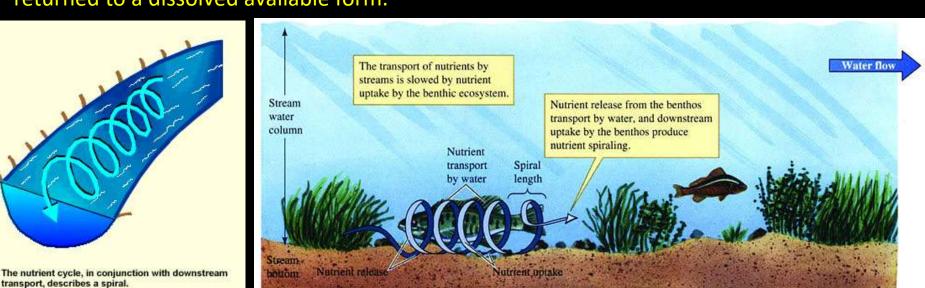
- <u>Nutrient cycles</u> describe changes in nutrient states through time and usually do not consider a spatial component
- But water in streams have a strong spatial component.
- Because these nutrient cycles occur simultaneously with downstream transport, nutrient transformations in streams are conceptualized as "spiraling"
- The <u>spiraling length</u> represents the distance over which the average nutrient atom travels as it completes one cycle of utilization from a dissolved available form, passes through one or more metabolic transformations and is returned to a dissolved available form.



Longitudinal Distance

Inorganic forms

Organic forms



Freshwater Ecology - Food Webs

Freshwater ecosystems begin with the consumption of living or dead plant material



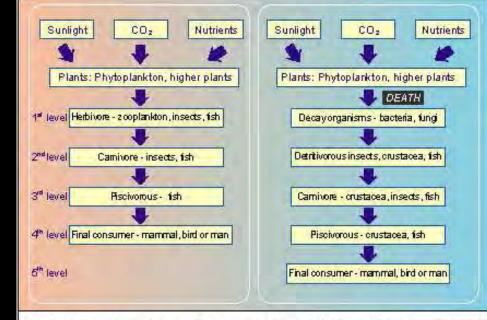


Figure: Alternative pathways for energy and nutrient flow among river organism.



Fluvial Transportation Water, Sediment, and Organic Material

- Rivers transport <u>three main materials downstream</u> water, sediment, and organic material.
- The <u>abiotic components</u> water and sediment most directly affect the shape of the river channel [Fluvial Geomorphology].
- The <u>biotic components</u> of a river's transported load range from <u>dissolved organic matter</u> to <u>large woody</u> <u>debris</u>.







Dissolved Organic Matter (DOM)

- <u>Very small particles (<0.5 microns in diameter) but the fundamental component of the organic material in rivers.</u>
- <u>Sources</u>: some of it enters via subsurface drainage and originates from terrestrial decomposition processes - other sources are detrital leaching and exudates and excreta from aquatic organisms. [Everything Poops!]
- <u>DOM tends to increase in concentration downstream</u>. The highest levels occur in blackwater rivers, especially those draining peat swamps, which are rich in humic substances that color the water.
- DOM is <u>taken up directly by microorganisms</u> especially bacteria in biofilms , and can be flocculated into larger particles by mechanical forces such as turbulence whereupon they become available to animals.

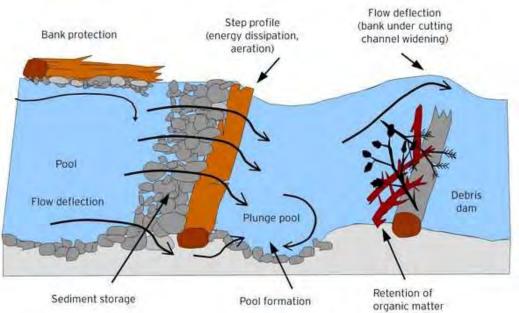


- Large Organic Matter Woody Debris
- Trees and tree limbs that fall into streams and rivers increase habitat heterogeneity.
- Submerged woody debris persists for long periods in streams and rivers.

Woody debris can -

- stabilize river beds,
- modify erosion and deposition,
- create essential fish habitat,
- help form pools that retain organic matter.







The River Continuum Concept [RCC] An Ecological Model

The <u>River Continuum Concept</u> is a model that tries to explain how the physical and biological characteristics of a river change in a downstream direction.

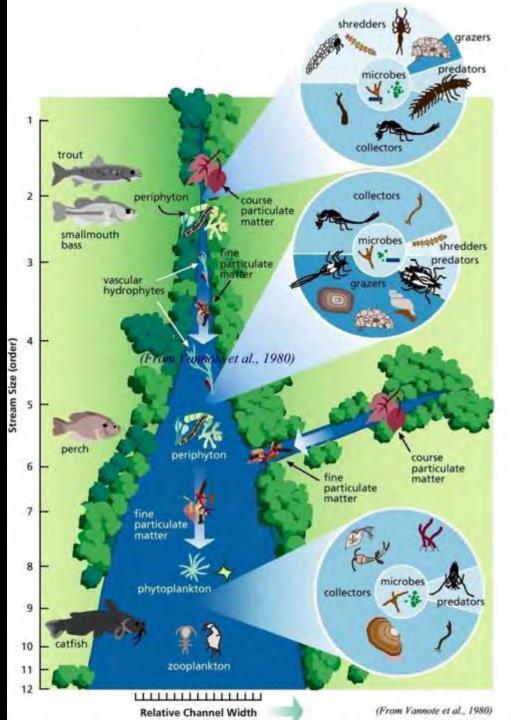
The foundation concept of the RCC states that rivers have <u>physical gradients</u> which are influenced by the <u>surrounding environment</u>, <u>natural disturbance regime</u>, <u>local hydrology</u>, and <u>upstream conditions</u>.

They in turn impact and define the biological components of the stream within the river <u>as the river increases in size and moves</u> <u>downstream</u>.

The RCC largely focuses on <u>the interaction of</u> <u>stream invertebrates with their habitat and</u> <u>food resources</u>.

Developed by Dr. Robin Vannote The Stroud Water Research Center Avondale, Pennsylvania





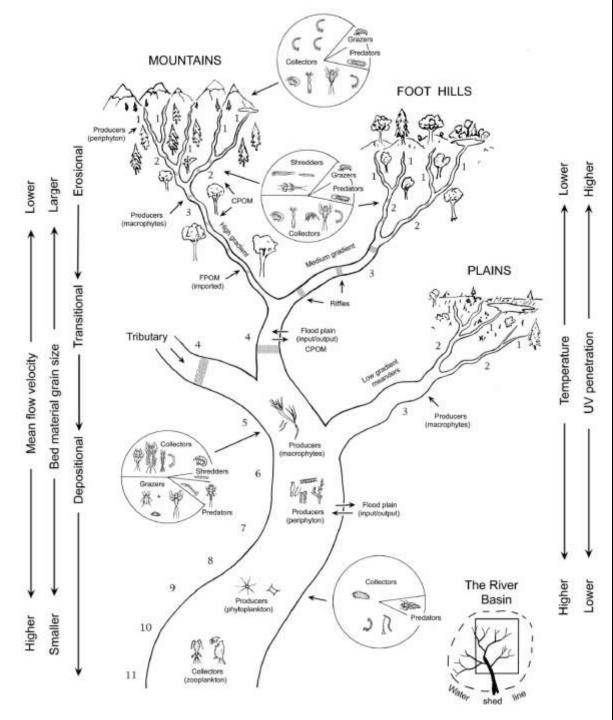
The River Continuum Concept (RCC)

Throughout the continuum of the river, the proportion of the four major organism types change -

- shredders
- collectors
- grazers (scrapers)
- predators

With the exception of the predators, all these organisms feed directly from plant material





Biological Types and Food Types

Predators are organisms that eat each other and the following organisms -

<u>Shredders</u> are organisms that feed off of <u>coarse particulate organic material</u> (CPOM) such as small sections of leaves. They ingest the organic matter along with volunteer organisms (fungi, microorganisms) attached to the source. The preferred size of the CPOM is about one millimeter, therefore shredders must break it up into a finer particulate. In the process of shredding, much of the now <u>fine particulate organic matter</u> (FPOM) is left in the system, making its way further downstream. Some common shredders of North American waters include the mayfly and stone fly larvae

<u>Collectors</u> are designated by their use of traps or other adaptive features to filter and catch organic matter. The preferred particle size for collectors lies between 0.5 and 50 micrometers (UPOM = <u>Ultrafine particulate organic matter</u> and FPOM). This group includes fly larvae, nematodes, and many other animal groups.

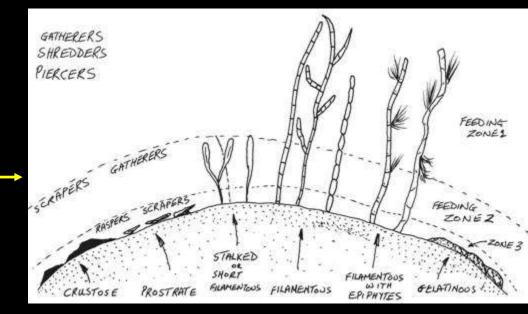
<u>Grazers</u> (scrapers) feed off of periphyton that accumulates on larger structures such as stones, wood or large aquatic plants. These include snails, caddisflies, and other organisms.



Surface Habitat

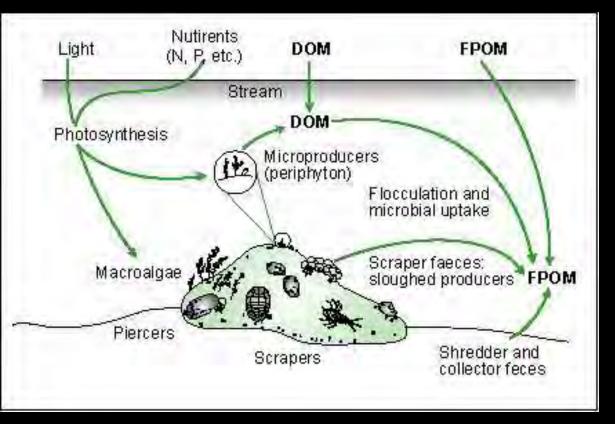
<u>Periphyton</u> is a complex mixture of algae, cyanobacteria, and detritus that are attached to submerged surfaces in most aquatic ecosystems.

- The three zones of Periphyton on stones -
- Zones relate to the ability of the animals to consume the material





Surface Habitat



By a variety of mechanisms, the periphyton-bacteria-organic microlayer on substrate surfaces is scraped or browsed.

<u>Diatoms</u> are a prominent constituent of this matrix. Small Trichoptera larvae (Hydroptilitae) pierce the cell walls of macroalgea and suck out cell fluids.





Subsurface Habitat

The Hyporheic Zone

Streams exchange water, nutrients, and organisms with surrounding aquifers.

The interstitial, water-filled space beneath river beds, where most active aquifer-river water exchange occurs, is termed the hyporheic zone, and is an important habitat for a number of aquatic organisms and for fish spawning.

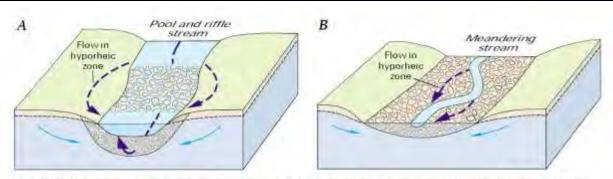
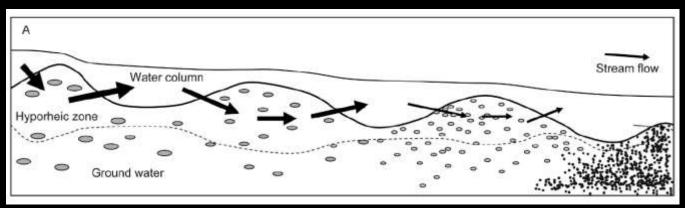




Figure 14. Surface-water exchange with ground water in the hyporhetic zone is associated with abrupt changes in streambed slope (A) and with stream meanders (B).

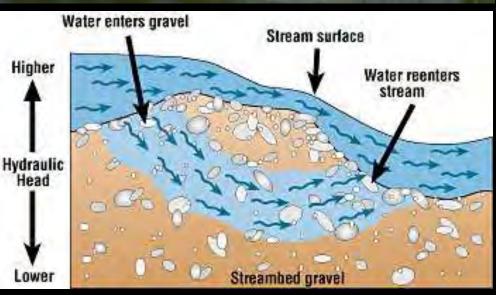




The Hyporheic Zone







The Hyporheic Zone Research at Hornsby Bend







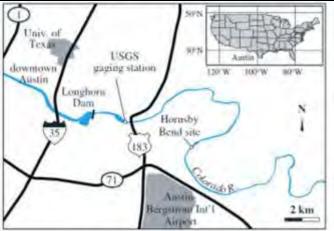


Figure 1. Location of study site on the Colorado River in relation to Austin, Texas, USA, USGS gaging station 08158000 is 2 km downstream from Longborn dam, and the study site is another 13 km downstream

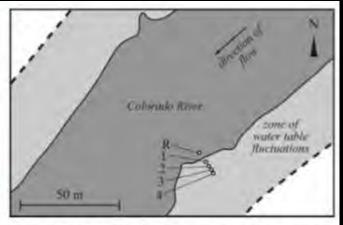
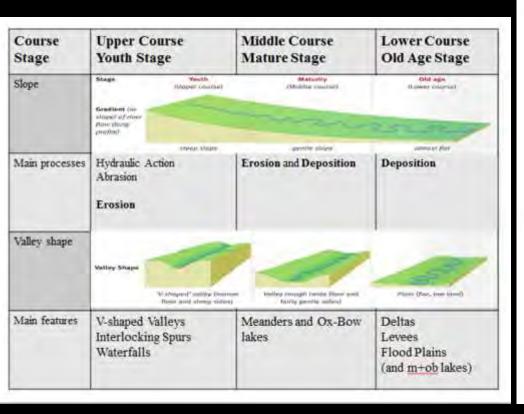


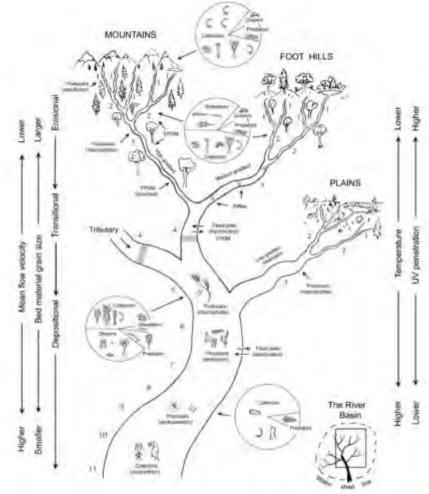
Figure 2 Map of Hornsby Bend piezometer transect. Bank piezometers are numbered in order of distance from the river, and the river stage recorder is denoted as (R). Dashed lines indicate the estimated extent of dam influence on the water table





The Life of a River The Geography of Fluvial Life





The Upper Course - Youthful Headwaters



Upper Course - Source



- River sources are usually <u>small</u> and, in the case of mountain streams, steep and erosional.
- In temperate environments, small streams tend to be <u>shaded by an</u> <u>interlocking, overhead tree canopy</u>.
- Such conditions result in <u>cool, well-oxygenated streams</u> that are abundantly supplied with <u>a food base of leaves</u>.
- Fine particles of organic matter are released as the leaves are broken down by biological communities in the streams

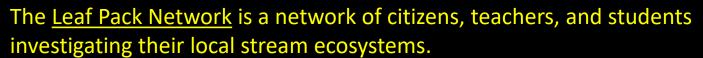




Upper Course Food Web

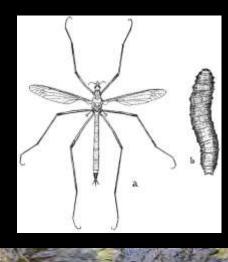
Leaf fall from the forest canopy in small streams are used by <u>Shredders</u> who get nutrition primarily from the fungi and bacteria that colonize the <u>leaf surface</u>. Craneflies, stoneflies, caddisflies and aquatic sow bugs are important members of this group.

Small fragments of leaves and feces from shredders are captured by another group of macroinvertebrates called <u>Collectors</u> - Netspinning caddisflies and blackflies are examples of this group.



- Create an artificial leaf pack and place it in a stream for 3-4 weeks.
- Collect and examine the packs in the classroom.
- Discover aquatic insects that indicate stream health, showing the connection between trees and streams.
- Share data through the network.









Leaf Pack Network

The Upper Course – Rapids and Roughness

<u>Rapids</u> are most commonly found in the upper course of the river and form as a result of the river cutting down rapidly in a localized section of the river.

The main characteristics of rapids are <u>distinctly</u> <u>steeper gradients marked by steps in the</u> <u>channel and high turbulence</u>, which is the result of <u>large bedload in the channel</u>.

Due to the <u>roughness of the channel</u>, flow is turbulent and known as whitewater.

The velocity of the river is noticeably faster at rapids but <u>not efficient</u> in its flow.







Upper Course – Rapids and Pools

Macroinvertebrate communities in rapids are typically more diverse than communities in pools.

The pattern in <u>fish</u> communities is <u>reversed</u>, with pool fish communities tending to be more diverse than those in rapids.



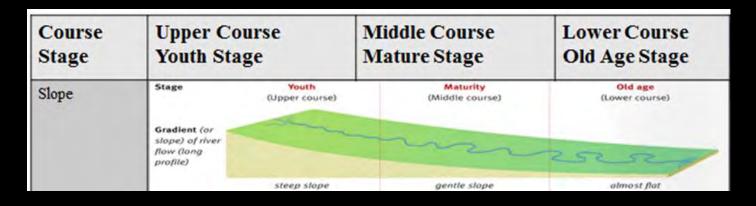
Brook trout – state fish of PA and Laurel Run, Perry County, PA

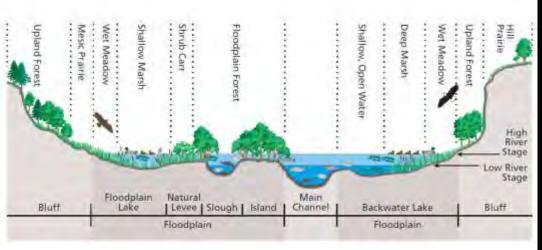




The Middle Course: Life in the Meander Belt

Habitat Diversity







The Middle Course

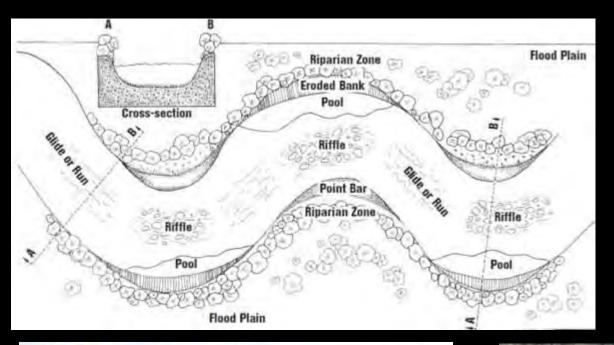
Wider Channel = More Solar Energy

- At some point along their path to the sea, rivers have typically gained enough water and width <u>to preclude</u> <u>interlocking tree canopies</u>.
- Streams at this point are <u>warmer</u> and less abundantly supplied with <u>leaves</u> than was the case upstream.
- Open canopy, and fairly shallow water, means that <u>light can reach the</u> <u>river benthos</u>, increasing in-stream primary productivity.

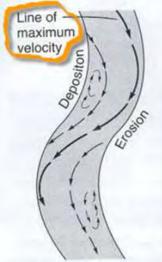


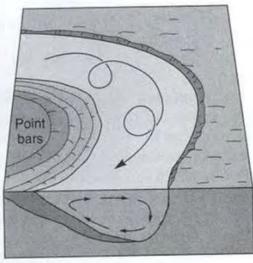


Aquatic Life Worlds: Erosional Zone and Depositional Zone











Helical flow in a meander.

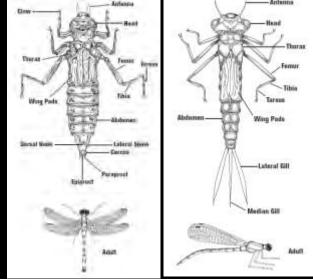
Erosional and Depositional Zone – Pools

A pool is relatively <u>deep and wide with slow-moving water</u> compared to riffle, run, or glide areas. Pools often contain <u>large</u> <u>eddies with widely varying directions of flow</u> compared to riffles, glides, and runs, where flow is nearly all downstream.

<u>Deposition</u> - Reduced velocity allows suspended materials to settle to the bottom. <u>Sediment</u> in most pooled areas of streams and rivers is composed of sand, silt, clay, and organic matter, compared to the coarser sediment of riffles, runs, and glides.

The <u>slower-moving water</u> supports organisms similar to those found in lakes and pond systems (dragonflies, damselflies, water striders) and shelter fish out of the strong downstream flow.







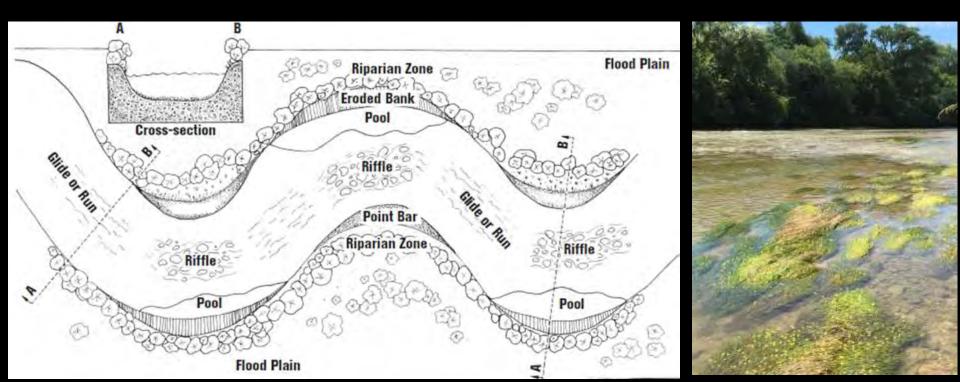


Erosional Zone – Riffles

<u>Riffles</u> are the shallow portions of a stream characterized by relatively fast-moving, turbulent water with bottom materials composed of cobble, gravel, or bedrock.

Riffle areas of streams are important habitats for many aquatic insects and small fish <u>that require</u> <u>flowing water for feeding and high oxygen levels</u>

<u>Few plants grow in the fast-moving water of a stream</u>, but some may be adapted for living in the current of smaller streams. Riffle areas commonly support those organisms adapted to life in fast-moving waters, such as algae, plants, and invertebrates that can <u>anchor themselves to rocks</u>, logs, and other stream debris. (mayflies, caddisflies, riffle beetles, water pennies)

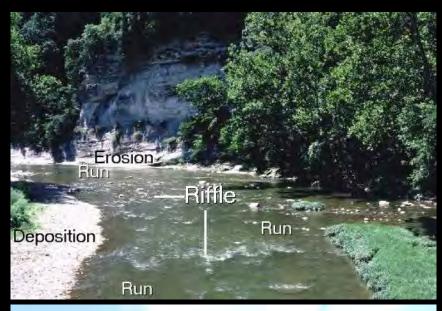


Erosional Zone – Runs and Glides

Some fish prefer the fastest part of a stream (darters). Many fish spawn in the riffles of streams.



- Glides and runs are intermediate habitat types that fall between riffles and pools.
- A <u>glide</u> is an area where the flow is characterized by <u>slow-moving</u>, <u>nonturbulent flow referred to</u> <u>as laminar</u>, similar to that in a shallow canal. A glide is too shallow to be a pool, but the water velocity is too slow to be a run.
- A <u>run</u> is a relatively shallow portion of a stream characterized by relatively fast-moving, nonturbulent flow.

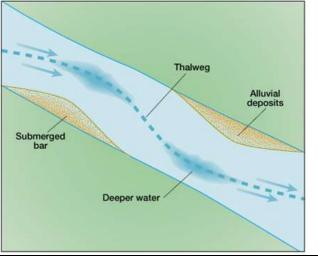


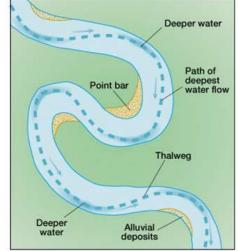


Depositional Zone – Gravel Bars

- The depositional zone refers to the <u>inner</u> bank of a stream where velocity is at a <u>minimum</u>.
- The slower velocities allow for the deposition of suspended sediment and <u>bed materials (gravel, pebbles), which</u> <u>form bars</u>.
- These <u>bars</u> often support emergent aquatic vegetation and, as the bars grow larger, they are colonized by terrestrial plants and trees, to form islands.

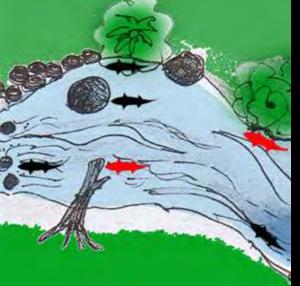








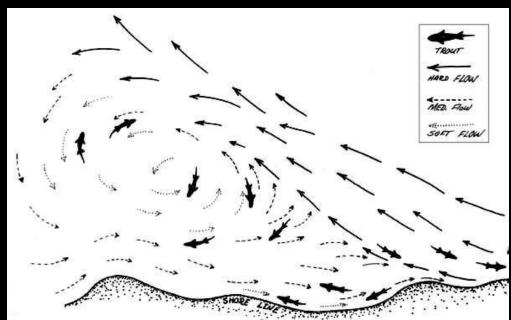
Run or Glide Lies



Eddies are currents that move in a direction other than downstream, usually in a circular motion.







Aquatic Stream Habitats

General Aquatic Habitat Types	Characteristics	Description
Lotic–erosional	Flow	Relatively shallow area of a stream. Three areas defined by flow: Riffle–fast-moving, turbulent water Run–fast-moving, nonturbulent water Glide–slow-moving water
	Sediment	Coarse sediment comprised of cobble, pebble, and gravel
	Aquatic plants (macrophytes)	Plants typically grow on or in coarse sediment (pondweed)
	Aquatic animals	Aquatic insects and small fish that require high oxygen levels, flowing water for feeding, and are adapted to living in swift water through the ability to swim or cling to rocks in riffle areas
	Organic materials (detritus)	Comprised of leaf litter, twigs, and other coarse particulate matter, usually trapped in stream riffles behind large rocks or logs; also known as <i>leaf packs</i>
Lotic-depositional	Flow	Relatively deep and wide with slow moving water compared to riffles, runs, or glides
	Sediment	 Primarily found in pools and backwater areas of streams Fine sediment comprised of sand and silt
	Aquatic plants (macrophytes)	Submergent vegetation growing in fine sediment (Hydrilla, Potamogeton)
Aquatic animals	Aquatic animals	 Organisms similar to those found in lakes and pond systems (dragonflies, damselflies, water striders) Many fish use the deeper water of the pools and areas along the banks for cover and find food easier to catch in slower moving water
	Organic materials (detritus)	Comprised of leaf litter and other particulate matter found at the bottom of pools and backwater areas of streams

Adapted from Merritt and Cummins, 1995.

Diversity of Life in The Middle Course



















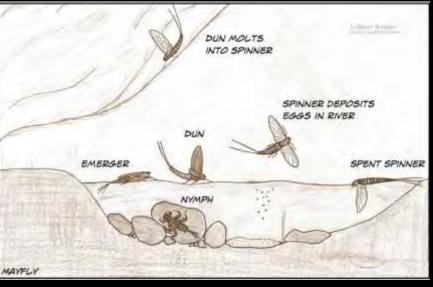




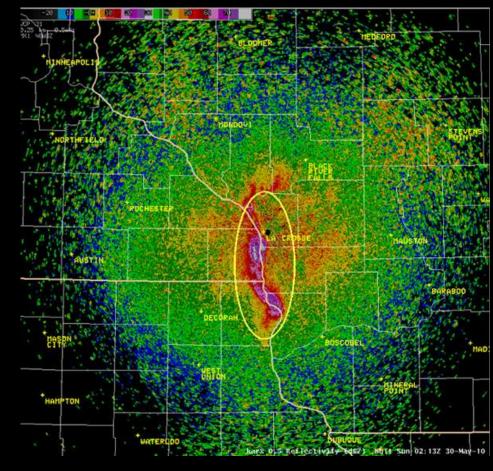




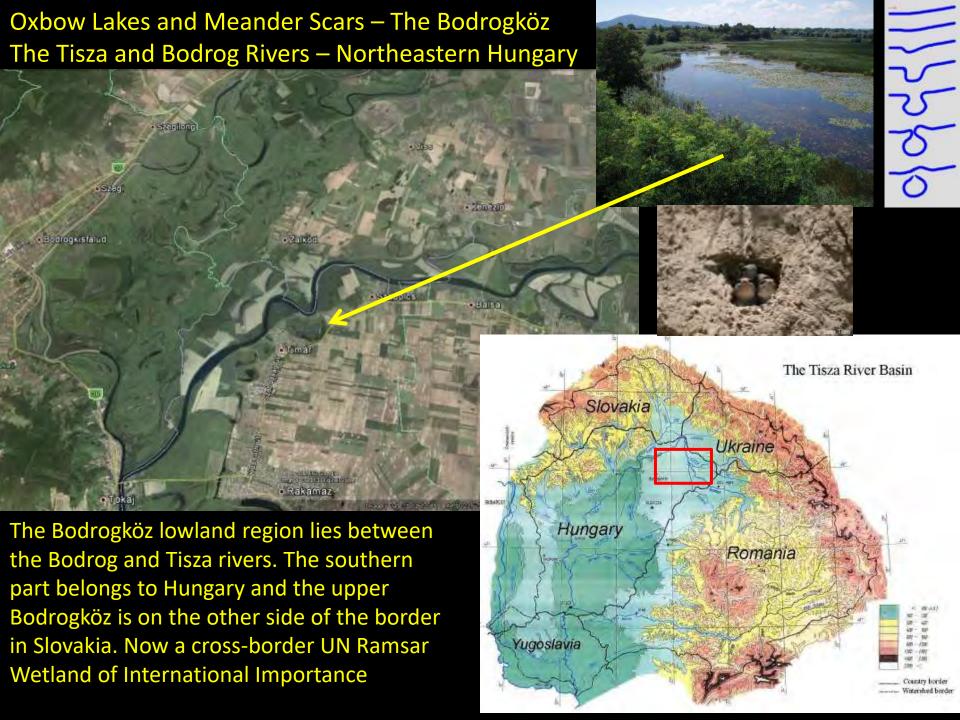








A mayfly mass emergence or hatch from the Mississippi river captured by the National Weather Service Doppler radar in La Crosse Wisconsin (USA) in May 2010 The adult mayflies in flight are represented by the bright pink, purple, and white.



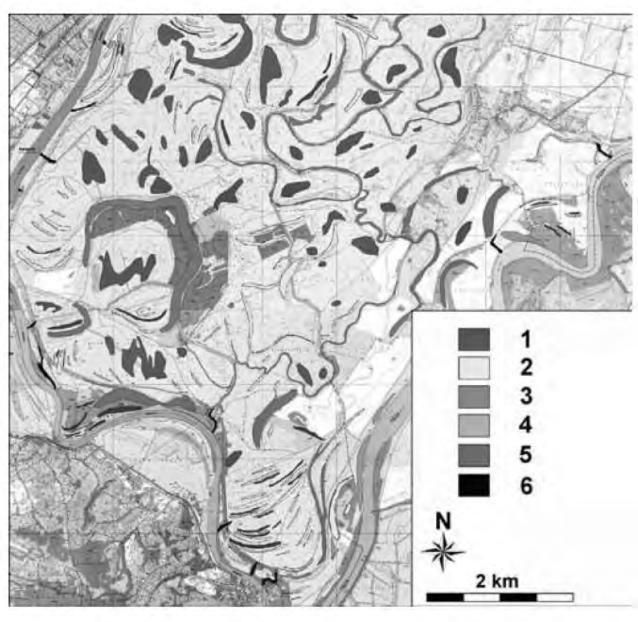
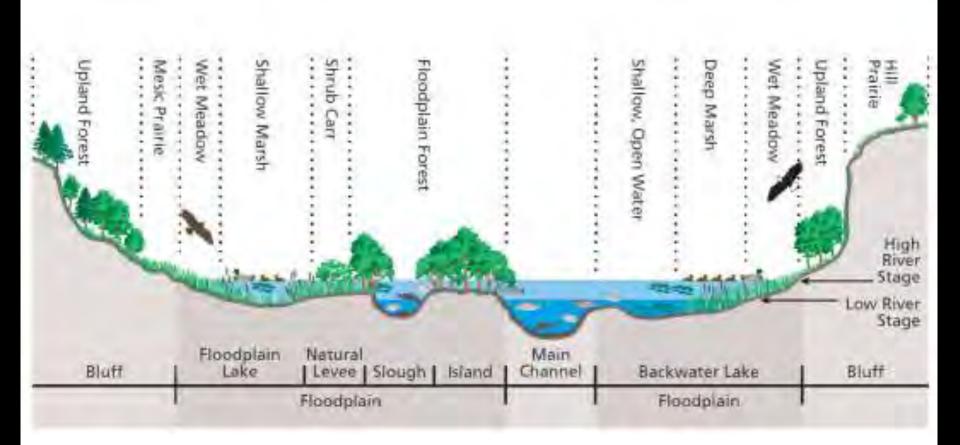


FIG. 2 - Landforms of the SW Bodrogköz (In: Szabó & alii, 2004). 1: fluvial ridge, 2: swale, 3: abandoned cut-offs, 4: present natural levee, 5: backswamps, 6: (remnants of) one-time flood-plain ditches.



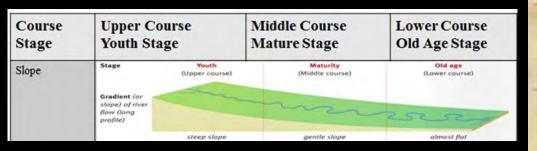
The Middle Course: Life in the Meander Belt

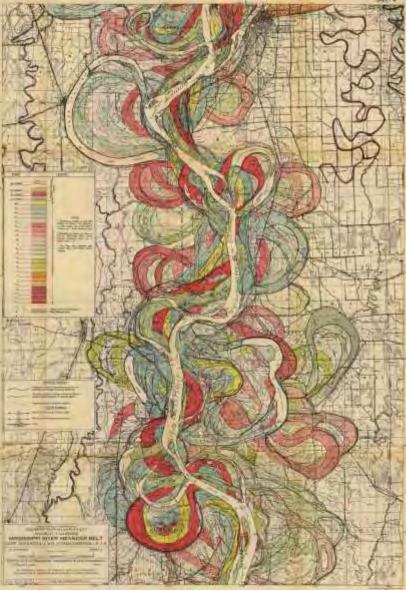
Habitat Diversity = Biodiversity

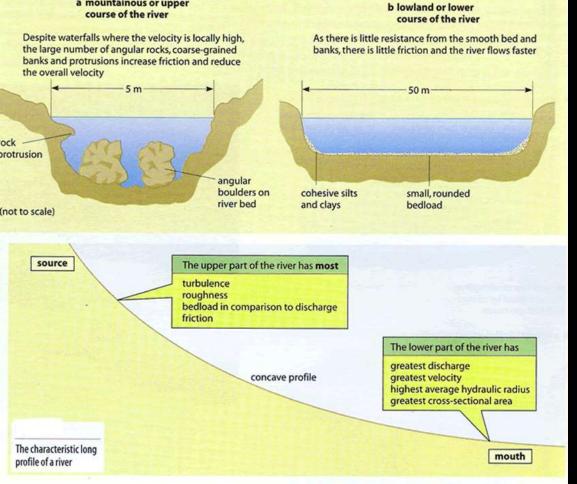


The Lower Course: From River to Sea Old Age and Final Extinction

- Very large rivers are usually <u>low gradient and</u> <u>very wide</u>, resulting in <u>negligible influence of</u> <u>riparian canopy</u> in terms of shading and leaflitter input.
- Water currents keep <u>fine solids in suspension</u>, <u>reducing light penetration</u> to the benthos.
- Organic matter in suspension is by far the largest food base in these very large rivers.
- Larger alluvial rivers in their natural state are <u>diverse habitats</u> with side channels, sand and gravel bars, and islands that are formed and reformed on a regular basis.







	DISCHARGE
	OCCUPIED CHANNEL WIDTH
	CHANNEL DEPTH
	MEAN VELOCITY
	VOLUME OF LOAD
LOAD PARTICLE SIZE	
CHANNEL BED ROUGHNESS	
GRADIENT	

Apparent vs. Mean Velocity Competence vs. Capacity

"Downstream Change of Velocity in Rivers" Luna Leopold American Journal of Science, VOL. 251, August 1953

Because river slope generally decreases in a downstream direction, it is <u>generally supposed</u> that <u>velocity</u> <u>of flow also decreases downstream</u>.

Analysis of some of the large number of velocity measurements made at stream-gaging stations demonstrates that <u>mean velocity</u> generally tends to <u>increase downstream</u>.

Near the streambed, <u>shear in the</u> <u>vertical profile of velocity</u> (rate of decrease of velocity with depth) tends to decrease downstream.

This downvalley decrease of shear implies <u>decreasing competence</u> downstream.

Delta - The Lena River, some 2,800 miles (4,400 km) long, is one of the largest rivers in the world.

- At the end of the Lena River there is a large delta that extends 100 km into the Laptev Sea and is about 400 km (250 mi) wide.
- The delta is frozen tundra for about 7 months of the year, but in May transforms the region into a lush wetland for the next few months.
- The Lena Delta Reserve is the most extensive protected wilderness area in Russia. It is an important refuge and breeding ground for many species of Siberian wildlife.

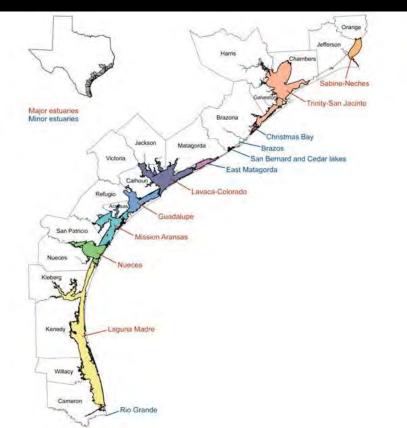


Estuary - An estuary is fresh water meets salt water and in Texas is a <u>partly</u> <u>enclosed coastal body of brackish water</u> with one or more rivers or streams flowing into it, and with a free connection to the open sea.

Estuaries form a transition zone between river environments and maritime environments and are subject to both marine influences, such as tides, waves, and the influx of saline water; and riverine influences, such as flows of fresh water and sediment. The inflows of both sea water and fresh water provide high levels of nutrients in both the water column and sediment, making estuaries among the most productive natural habitats in the world

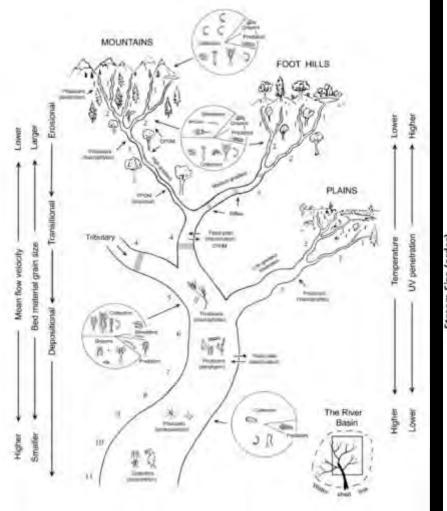
Freshwater Inflows to Texas Bays and Estuaries

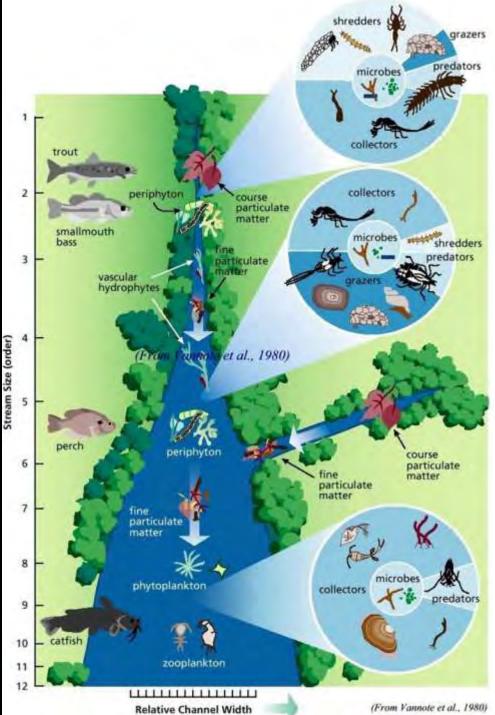




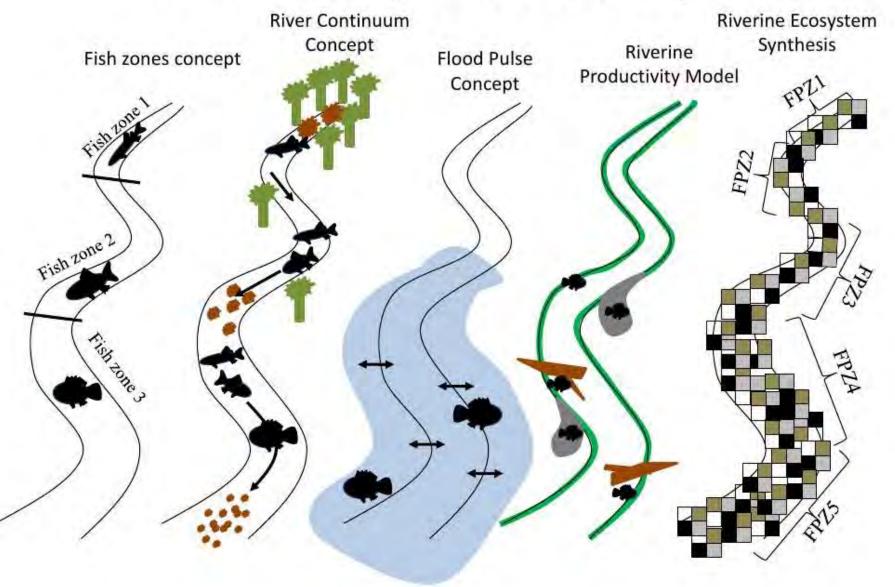


The River Continuum Concept [RCC]





River ecosystem concepts



- The Serial Discontinuity Concept
- The RCC is a model that might apply to <u>pristine rivers</u>, but few rivers remain unchanged or unaffected by human activities.
- <u>Dams</u> are certain to have an impact on the organization of aquatic communities, since the flow is blocked and the longitudinal transition of conditions along the river is altered.
- The dam creates a <u>'serial discontinuity'</u> in the river because the gradual downstream transition in conditions is disrupted, and the longitudinal transfer of material is prevented.
- Suspended sediments are <u>deposited behind the dam</u>.
- Water released from the dam will <u>pick up a 'normal' sediment</u> <u>load downstream</u> where it may erode the riverbed and banks.







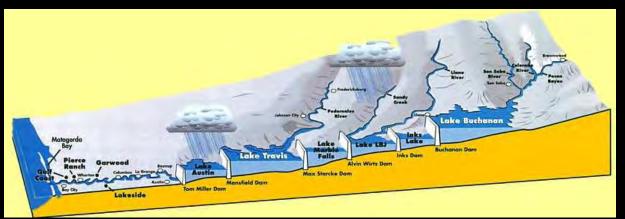
• The downstream transition of <u>water temperature is altered</u>, and water released from the dam may be either warmer (if it is taken from the surface) or cooler (if it is taken from the depths) than natural conditions. Concentrations of <u>dissolved oxygen</u> <u>may be changed also</u>.

• <u>Phytoplankton that develops behind the dam may be</u> <u>released downstream</u> providing a food resource for filterfeeders that would be unavailable under natural conditions.

• The <u>seasonal patterns of flow will be altered</u>, especially if the function of the dam is to provide water for irrigation (in which case dry-season flows downstream will be reduced) or to control flooding (in which case wet-season flows and floodplain inundation will change).

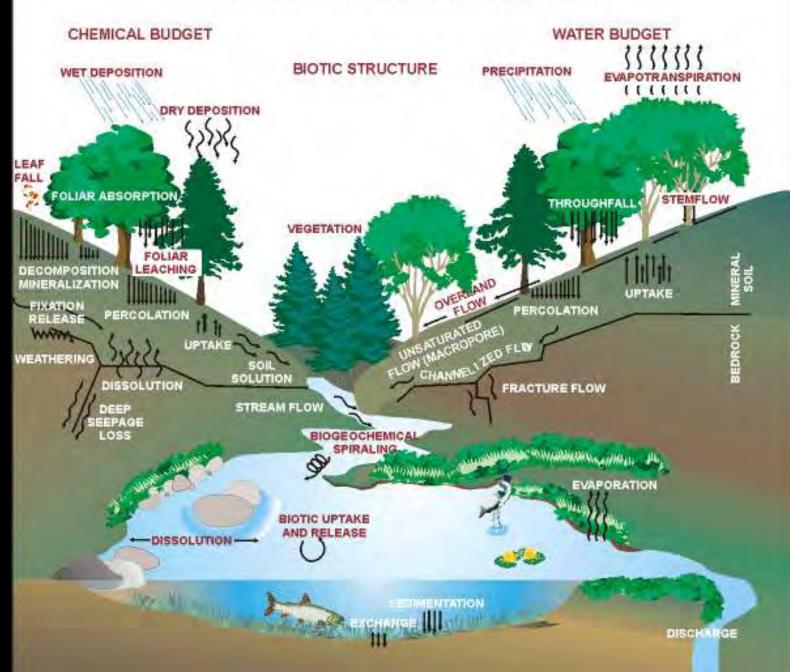


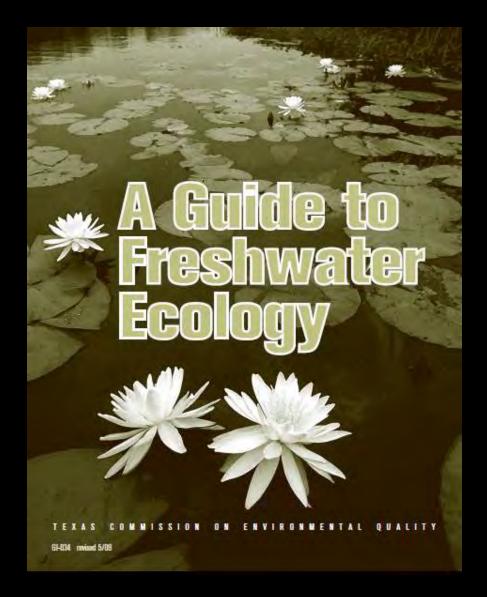






WATERSHED ECOSYSTEM DYNAMICS





The Physical Geography of Flowing Water

January - Fluvial Process: Streams and Hydrology

February - Fluvial Life: the Ecology of Flowing Water

March – Riparia: Life at the Edge

April – Bottomland: Life on the Floodplain

