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The assessment of shear stress and bed stability in stream ecology

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The assessment of shear stress and bed stability in stream ecology

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Summary

1. Substratum stability and shear stress exerted by flowing water can have a strong influence on the structure of benthic communities. Bed stability can be characterised in a variety of ways, e.g. flow competence, threshold of particle entrainment, measures of erosion and deposition, particle transport distance, abrasion and bedload transport rate. This paper reviews methods for the quantification of bed stability and shear stress in streams and rivers that are relevant for the examination of the relationships between stream biota and bed stability.
2. The most suitable method for a research project depends mainly on the objectives. The targeted group of biota, spatial and temporal scale of investigation, as well as hydraulic conditions and substratum characteristics at the study site(s) determine the choice of a technique for the assessment of bed stability.
3. Indirect measurement of shear stress can be more accurate than calculations based on the DuBoys equation. However, the latter is preferred for reach-wide applications within the limits imposed by hydraulic conditions. The entrainment of the substratum is most effectively assessed using a combination of shear stress and competence equations, but the latter require careful parameterisation. At the patch-scale, direct measurement of entrainment force is a valid alternative.
4. Morphometric budgeting is the most comprehensive and least invasive technique for the assessment of rates of erosion and deposition. The transport of substratum particles is efficiently monitored with *in situ* marked or active tracer particles which allow for rapid and non-invasive identification and high recovery rate. As the assessment of bedload transport rate by formulae can be inaccurate, direct measurement is preferred. However, bedload traps interfere with the substratum and continuity of measurement with samplers is limited. Thus developments in the sector of acoustic and piezoelectric devices offer a potential alternative.
5. The abrasive forces by suspended sediments on stream biota are effectively evaluated with artificial blocks that are fixed on the stream bed. Descriptive surveys that assess bed stability offer an alternative to direct measurement and calculations. They are straightforward and non-invasive but can be observer-biased. If single methods do not provide useful links with biological data this may be improved by the application of a multivariate approach.
6. Many of the methods assessed have not yet been applied in research on benthic communities, but these hydraulic and geomorphologic techniques offer considerable potential for the assessment of bed stability in stream ecology.

Introduction

Floods are an important controlling force on lotic ecosystems (Death, 2008) and influence the composition of benthic communities (Resh *et al.*, 1988; Reice, Wissmar & Naiman, 1990; Lake, 2000). Most stream ecologists agree that discharges exceeding some threshold act as a disturbance to benthic communities, although determining those values can be problematic (Poff, 1992; Death & Winterbourn, 1994).

Under low water velocity and shear stress sediment is not entrained and the impact on benthic organisms is limited to shear force (drag and lift) exerted by flowing water. This alone may cause the patchy distribution of benthic organisms and can lead to downstream displacement of macrophytes (Biggs *et al.*, 2001), periphyton (Biggs, Smith & Duncan, 1999; Suren & Duncan, 1999) and invertebrates (Lancaster & Hildrew, 1993a; Bond & Downes, 2000; Bond & Downes, 2003). As velocity and shear stress increase, phase-I bedload transport occurs when fine sediments may be winnowed (washed out) and rolled over a mostly stable coarser bed. This can lead to an additional impact on stream biota by abrasion (Downes *et al.*, 1998; Bond & Downes, 2003). At a critical flow velocity, the movement of larger particles is initiated (phase-II bedload transport). This usually involves disruption of any armour layer (see Appendix A for definitions) at the bed surface and can result in patchy areas of scour and deposition (Powell, 1998; Matthaei, Peacock & Townsend, 1999b). In more extreme events, the whole bed may be mobilised, altering the habitat structure dramatically. This can lead to displacement of plants and invertebrates (Giberson & Caissie, 1998; Matthaei, Arbuckle & Townsend, 2000; Bond & Downes, 2003) and mortality of invertebrates crushed by rolling stones. Thus floods which induce bedload transport are often associated with the most dramatic changes in the composition, density and biomass of benthic invertebrate communities (Holomuzki & Biggs, 2000; Death, 2008) and periphyton (Biggs *et al.*, 1999).

To examine the relationship between benthic biota and bed stability it is essential to quantify the latter accurately (Gordon, McMahon & Finlayson, 1992). There have been numerous attempts to do so, but most of the methods developed for stream hydraulics and fluvial geomorphology have yet to be adopted by stream ecologists. Furthermore, recent technological advances (e.g. acoustic and electronic sensors, active tracer particles and topographic survey methods) offer considerable potential for improving the measurement of bed movement for the study of stability-biota relationships.

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This review presents methods that are used to assess different aspects of bed stability at different spatial and temporal scales, including: 1) shear stress, 2) entrainment, 3) erosion and deposition, 4) bedload transport and 5) abrasion. The techniques are evaluated not only for their potential to predict shear force and sediment movement *per se*, but also for their ability to explain biota-substratum stability relations.

Characteristics of bed stability

Shear stress

When stream flow lacks sufficient energy to move bedload (non competent discharges), or where the bed is armoured or substratum particles are locked together (imbricated), the shear stress exerted on benthic biota by increased flows may be sufficient to alter the composition of benthic communities (Lancaster & Hildrew, 1993a; Bond & Downes, 2000; Bond & Downes, 2003). Shear forces exerted on organisms depend on their morphometry as well as kinematic viscosity and fluid velocity. Hence, the measurement of the latter can be used to determine shear stress. However, measurement of the velocity that affects small benthic organisms is difficult due to the steep velocity gradient in the boundary layer. Consequently indirect methods, like exposure to the flow of particles of known weight and/ or size, are employed to estimate the shear stress exerted at the channel bottom.

DuBoys equation

In stream ecology it is common to use the DuBoys equation (1) to gain an estimate of the mean boundary shear stress τ_o at the reach level (e.g. Statzner, Gore & Resh, 1988; Matthaei *et al.*, 1996; Duncan, Suren & Brown, 1999; Matthaei *et al.*, 1999b).

$$\tau_o = \rho_f g R S_f \quad (1)$$

The friction slope S_f (see Appendix B for symbol annotation) differs from the bed slope S_b and the water surface slope S_w , because flow resistance is responsible for energy losses (Robert, 1990). S_f can be calculated using a backwater calculation if flow data and channel geometry are available. However, the observed differences between S_f and S_w are often slight, especially under conditions of high discharge (Powell & Ashworth, 1995; Milan *et al.*, 2001). Thus, the more easily measured S_w is an acceptable first-order approximation for S_f (Baker & Ritter, 1975; Lorang & Hauer, 2003). When the width-depth ratio of the channel is high (>16.9 according to Giberson & Caissie, 1998), which is common in coarse bedload transporting streams, mean flow depth h may be substituted for the hydraulic radius R (Baker

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2 & Ritter, 1975; Powell & Ashworth, 1995; Downes, Glaister & Lake, 1997; Giberson &
3 Caissie, 1998). The use of local bed slope and depth instead of R and S_f in (1) might be
4 preferable for the estimation of stream stability at the patch-scale, although actual shear stress
5 is underestimated (Lorang & Hauer, 2003). Furthermore, it should be remembered that fluid
6 density ρ_f is usually higher than the $1000 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ typically used because of suspended
7 material, particularly during floods (Giberson & Caissie, 1998).

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14 The DuBoys equation is strictly applicable only under uniform flow conditions
15 (implying even bed topography and regular channel geometry) in wide channels ($W/h > 20$)
16 (Gordon *et al.*, 1992; Gore, 1996). Three-dimensional flow effects (Milan *et al.*, 2001),
17 bedform structures (e.g. pebble clusters and imbrication) (Carson & Griffiths, 1987) and the
18 exposure to the thalweg (main thread of maximum velocity flow) are not accounted for. The
19 values derived are high compared with local shear stress calculated from velocity profiles
20 (Robert, 1990), but tend to underestimate the effective shear force (Carson & Griffiths, 1987).

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27 The theoretical assessment of mean boundary shear stress is mostly based on the
28 DuBoys equation. The choice of the parameters determines scale and accuracy of the
29 calculation (Table 1). As the flow in natural rivers (especially shallow high gradient boulder-
30 and gravel-bed rivers) is usually not uniform, the explanatory power of equations assuming
31 the latter is limited (Campbell & Sidle, 1985). This may be enhanced by the inclusion of
32 parameters like flow resistance, channel geometry and the energy slope (Lorang & Hauer,
33 2003). Thus shear stress estimations based on the DuBoys formula apply best under
34 conditions of increased relative depth ($R/D_{84} > 4$ (Hey, 1979)), e.g. during high discharges,
35 when flow is approximately uniform (Bhowmik, 1982; Milan *et al.*, 2001). However, mean
36 boundary shear stress from the DuBoys equation has been linked with the distribution of
37 benthic invertebrates in several studies under various discharges (Statzner *et al.*, 1988;
38 Matthaei *et al.*, 1996). The equation provides a useful tool for reach-wide investigations of
39 shear stress biota relationships.

40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 *FST-hemispheres*

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53 Calibrated FliesswasserStammtisch (FST) hemispheres of different densities offer a measure
54 of actual near-bed shear stress at a particular point in time (Statzner & Muller, 1989; Statzner,
55 Kohmann & Hildrew, 1991). Despite some debate about the usefulness of FST-hemispheres
56 for assessment of near-bed shear stress (Frutiger & Schib, 1993; Statzner, 1993; Dittrich &
57 Schmedtje, 1995) they performed consistently well as indicators of ecologically relevant
58 near-bed shear forces in hydraulically rough stream beds (Lancaster & Hildrew, 1993b;
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Scarsbrook & Townsend, 1993; Dittrich & Schmedtje, 1995; Hardison & Layzer, 2001; Merigoux & Doledec, 2004). However, Frutiger & Schib (1993) reported that only 50% of their benthic invertebrate taxa showed a relation between abundance and FST data. Statistical models based on FST measurements allow long-term characterisation of shear stress variability (Lamouroux *et al.*, 1992) that can be linked with variation in the density of invertebrate taxa in different hydraulic microhabitats (Doledec *et al.*, 2007). FST-hemispheres are a useful tool for investigating the spatial distribution of stream biota at base flow (Table 1). However, at higher discharges application is limited due to interference from bedload (impacts from saltating particles) and safety reasons (but see Gore *et al.*, 1994).

Near-bed flow velocity

Local shear stress can be estimated from measurements of flow velocity (e.g. single near-bed, vertical profile). Often a semi-logarithmic relationship between depth and velocity is assumed which is violated in reaches with high relative roughness (e.g. $h/D_{84} < 3$ (Bray, 1980)). Wiberg & Smith (1991) found that local shear stress calculated from depth averaged velocity derived from a profile was accurate for $h/D_{84} > 1$. In comparison, single point near-bed measurement allows a calculation of shear stress for the widest range of conditions, but is not as accurate as the depth averaged method. Estimations of boundary shear stress based on the relation of v and $\ln(1-h)$ in velocity profiles (e.g. Bhowmik, 1982) are the least accurate and apply in the most restricted flow conditions but require no estimate of bed roughness (Wilcock, 1996).

Effenberger *et al.* (2006) found a strong relationship between point measurements of near-bed flow velocity and the spatial distribution of invertebrates. Death & Winterbourn (1994) also found a strong positive correlation between the variability of near-bed flow velocity and the movement of marked stones.

Locally, indirect measurement of shear stress can provide more accurate results than the DuBoys approach. It may also give an indication of the impact of shear stress on stream biota (Table 1) although the small spatial and temporal extent of the measurements limits the use for larger reaches and/or long-term studies.

Substratum entrainment

Relationship between substratum grain size and tractive force

The proximal equality between mean boundary shear stress, calculated by the DuBoys

equation, and the maximum diameter of entrained particles (rounded, non-cohesive, > 0.05 m) (Lane, 1955) has been widely exploited to define critical particle size for entrainment (Newbury, 1984; Death & Winterbourn, 1994; Muotka & Virtanen, 1995; Giberson & Caissie, 1998). Even for non-rounded particles comparable relationships have been developed (Newbury, 1984). Although this relationship can provide a good indication of habitat stability amongst sites within a stream (Giberson & Caissie, 1998), it can overestimate particle movement in steep or narrow rivers ($W/h < 16.5$) as well as underestimate it in wide and shallow channels ($W/h > 36.9$) (Hallisey & Belt, 1996). This approach is subject to the same constraints as the DuBoys equation and does not account for potential equal mobility due to hiding and protrusion of particles. Thus the applicability of this concept is constrained to rivers with a high relative depth ($h \gg D_{50}$) (approx. 6-7 (Newbury, 1984), >10 (Duncan *et al.*, 1999)) and bed slopes less than 0.01, conditions which are more likely to be met in lowland rivers.

Not surprisingly, therefore, several authors found no significant relationship with other measures of bed stability when they applied this approach in steep and shallow streams (Death & Winterbourn, 1994; Duncan *et al.*, 1999). In contrast Cobb, Galloway & Flannagan (1992), Scarsbrook & Townsend (1993) and Muotka & Virtanen (1995) found a link between critical tractive force and the distribution of invertebrates and bryophytes. However, the relationship between tractive force and critical particle diameter cannot predict entrainment of the substratum consistently and applies in a limited range of rivers with gentle slope and high relative depth.

Shields equation

The Shields equation (2) (Shields, 1936) relates boundary shear stress to particle entrainment. It estimates the critical shear stress for a substratum grain size D_i at the point of incipient motion.

$$\tau_{\text{crit}} = \theta_{\text{crit}} (\gamma_s - \gamma_f) D_i \quad (2)$$

The Shields coefficient θ_{crit} is a non-dimensional variable dependent on particle shape, substratum particle size distribution, exposure and other packing factors (Lorang & Hauer, 2003). It reaches a constant value for non-cohesive materials larger than 6 mm (Lorang & Hauer, 2003) for hydraulically rough beds (boundary $Re > 100$). θ_{crit} varies coarsely between 0.02 and 0.08, but more extreme values have been reported (Ashworth & Ferguson, 1989; Buffington & Montgomery, 1997; Shvidchenko, Pender & Hoey, 2001). Increasing channel slope (related to relative flow depth (h/D_{50})), decreasing relative size (D_i/D_{50}) and substratum

heterogeneity (size distribution) increases the Shields coefficient systematically (Bathurst, Graf & Cao, 1987; Buffington & Montgomery, 1997; Shvidchenko *et al.*, 2001). Furthermore, the definition of incipient motion (e.g. reference- or visual observation-based), grain shape, orientation, hiding effects (e.g. sheltering of smaller particles by larger), as well as discharge and bank vegetation influence θ_{crit} (Andrews, 1984). Values for θ_{crit} derived from visual-based studies (typically around 0.045) are recommended for analyses of incipient motion in discrete bed surface patches. In contrast, the usually higher reference-based θ_{crit} may give a better estimate of entrainment on a reach-average level because of its derivation from bedload transport measures and thus the integration of differential bed patch mobility (Buffington & Montgomery, 1997). Compared with the original Shields coefficient of 0.06, in gravel bed streams with a heterogeneous substratum, a lower θ_{crit} is expected, for instance down to 0.02 in high gradient rivers ($S_w > 0.002$), where $D_{Max}/D_{50} > 22$ (Lorang & Hauer, 2003) and the effects of form roughness and form drag resistance are considerable. A value of 0.045 for θ_{crit} has been used in many studies and is widely accepted for beds with coarse particles and high boundary Reynolds numbers (Miller, McCave & Komar, 1977; Yalin & Karahan, 1979; Komar, 1989; Duncan *et al.*, 1999).

There have been several attempts to improve the Shields equation and to widen its range of use (e.g. Komar, 1987; Thompson & Croke, 2008). Formulae such as Equation (3) incorporate the effects of hiding and heterogeneous beds in the Shields equation (Komar, 1989):

$$\tau_{crit} = 0.0045 (\gamma_s - \gamma_f) D_{50}^{0.65} D_i^{0.35} \quad (3).$$

Duncan *et al.* (1999) also applied corrections to allow for small relative depths ($h/D < 2.5$) and high water surface slopes. Thompson & Croke (2008) incorporated the effects of bed form, microtopography and bed packing into the Shields equation. Lorang & Hauer (2003) found that critical shear stress calculated with a modified Shields equation overestimated the actual value for large cobble- and boulder-bed rivers by as much as an order of magnitude.

Andrews (1983) (cf. Parker, Klingeman & McLean, 1982) proposed the following relationship to calculate θ_{crit} for $0.3 < D_{isurface}/D_{50subsurface} < 4.2$:

$$\theta_{crit} = 0.0834 (D_{isurface}/D_{50subsurface})^{-0.872} \quad (4).$$

This highlights the fact that critical shear stress is influenced more by relative grain size than absolute grain size (Ferguson, 1994; Shvidchenko *et al.*, 2001). With the typical ratio of $D_{50surface}/D_{50subsurface} = 2.5$ for gravel bed rivers (Parker *et al.*, 1982) θ_{crit} can be estimated. However, in other studies the value for the first factor in (4) lies between 0.019 and 0.087,

whilst the exponent ranges from -0.32 to -1.25 (Buffington & Montgomery, 1997) and the values differ between riffles and pools (Sear, 1996).

A comparison between mean boundary shear stress (1) and critical shear stress for a particular grain size has been used to indicate zones of entrainment (Milan *et al.*, 2001), calculate the critical size of substratum particles moved (Duncan *et al.*, 1999) and define critical depth (Fuller *et al.*, 2002). Predictions of entrainment were well correlated with measurements of morphological change in most areas of a gravel bed stream (Milan *et al.*, 2001) and entrainment of *in situ* tagged particles (Biggs *et al.*, 2001). Bed stability measurements derived from a combination of (1) and (3) showed a strong relationship with the composition of bryophyte communities (Duncan *et al.*, 1999) and periphyton biomass (Biggs *et al.*, 2001) (Table 2).

Given the difficulties of selecting the most suitable parameters for empirical equations or the Shields coefficient, the calculation of the critical shear stress for entrainment is not straightforward, especially when a wide range of streams is being examined. However, for reach-scale investigations of the relationship between biota and bed stability a combination of the DuBoys formula and an advanced Shields equation (e.g. Duncan *et al.* 1999) may be useful.

Empirical equations of critical shear stress

Several studies have produced empirical entrainment equations of the type $\tau_{crit} = a D^b$ (Thompson & Croke, 2008), where *a* and *b* range from 26.6 to 110 and 0.38 to 1.21 respectively. The large range in parameter values is due to the difference in substratum assemblage between sites and differing methods used to define parameters (Lorang & Hauer, 2003). These empirical entrainment equations are thus too stream-specific to allow a general application of this approach.

Spring balance

Downes *et al.* (1997) used spring balances to measure the force necessary to initiate motion of particles in streams. This cannot be related directly to the critical shear stress but high forces will generally equate with high shear stresses as long as selective entrainment occurs (Downes *et al.*, 1997). This is a labour intensive methodology for reach-scale studies and the choice of particles can be subjective, but it will reflect actual shear stress to entrain particles better than indirect measurements.

Erosion and deposition

Scour chains and other buried devices

In both ecology and hydrology the deployment of metal scour chains is a common method for measuring scour and deposition of bed materials (Laronne & Duncan, 1992; Laronne *et al.*, 1992; Palmer, Bely & Berg, 1992; Matthaei *et al.*, 1999b; Matthaei, Guggelberger & Huber, 2003; Effenberger *et al.*, 2006). It allows quantification of the height of fill and the depth of scour with an accuracy ranging from $<D_{25}$ to D_{84} (Laronne *et al.*, 1994; Matthaei *et al.*, 2003) on a patch-scale systematic grid. Installation is relatively rapid (33 chains per person per day (Matthaei *et al.*, 1999b)) and causes little damage to sediment structure. Effenberger *et al.* (2006) observed no long-term effects on the invertebrate community. The chains proved to be resistant to dislocation and can be relocated after floods with the help of coloured ropes or magnetic tracers. However, the assessment of temporal variation of scour and fill during bed moving events is limited and relocation is required after each event that is likely to result in substratum movement (Laronne *et al.*, 1994). As (phase-I) bedload transport occurs in patches in gravel bed rivers the suggested resolution of measurement is higher than one observation per square metre (Matthaei *et al.*, 1999b; Laronne, Garcia & Reid, 2001).

Scour chains were employed for the identification of stable bed patches which can serve as local refugia for benthic organisms during floods (Matthaei *et al.*, 1999b). Measures of scour and fill using scour chains have been related to density and vertical distribution of invertebrates (Palmer *et al.*, 1992; Effenberger *et al.*, 2006) as well as to the spatial distribution of benthic algae (Matthaei *et al.*, 2003) (Table 3).

Alternatively, metal scour plates, buried at fixed depths can serve as measurement of scour depth and in sandy streams columns of dyed sand inserted in the top layer of the bed can replace scour chains (Palmer *et al.*, 1992). Wilcock (1997) measured the depth of entrainment with buried painted gravels. But both installation and retrieval require a disturbance of the substratum. Hence these methods are not appropriate for studies targeting benthic biota or for armoured and imbricated streambeds. Pressure pillows inserted into the surface of an artificial stream bed were used by Kurashige (2002) to measure sedimentation rates continuously but the construction was susceptible to damage during high bedload discharges.

Morphometric sediment budget models

Movement of the substratum is reflected in changes of the morphology of the channel (Leopold, 1992). These changes can be assessed with repeated airborne surveys using digital

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3 photogrammetry or laser altimetry (e.g. Lane, 2001; Westaway, Lane & Hicks, 2001) or
4 ground surveys employing tacheometry or photogrammetry (e.g. Ferguson & Ashworth, 1992;
5 Lane, Chandler & Richards, 1994; Fuller *et al.*, 2002; Heritage & Milan, 2004).
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9 Ground surveys have been conducted with a theodolite-EDM system (Chappell *et al.*,
10 2003; Fuller, Large & Milan, 2003b; Fuller *et al.*, 2005) but more recently also with Real
11 Time Kinematic differential-GPS (RTK-dGPS) (Brasington, Rumsby & McVey, 2000; Fuller
12 & Hutchinson, 2007). The difference in altitude of cross-sections or digital elevation models
13 (DEM) between surveys is used to determine areas of quantified deposition or erosion
14 (DEM) between surveys is used to determine areas of quantified deposition or erosion
15 (Brasington *et al.*, 2000; Brewer & Passmore, 2002). The calculation with DEMs is
16 preferable because sediment budgets derived from planform and cross-section measurement
17 underestimate the magnitude of volumetric change compared with DEM subtraction, nor do
18 they permit identification of the spatial pattern of volumetric change (Fuller *et al.*, 2003a).
19 Altitude measurements with RTK-dGPS or a theodolite-EDM system are, within the limits
20 imposed by surface roughness (e.g. D_{50}) highly accurate and more than 2000 points with high
21 spatial resolution can be obtained per day (Brasington *et al.*, 2000). The use of a GPS system
22 is, however, limited at closed canopy sites and in deep valleys where satellite reception is
23 critical.
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28 Brasington, Langham & Rumsby (2003) indicate that ground surveys are much more
29 precise than remote survey methods (especially at submerged zones; cf. Westaway, Lane &
30 Hicks, 2000) and thus preferable for morphometric budgeting. However, for very wide river
31 beds or reaches of more than a few hundred metres in length, the use of photogrammetry
32 should be considered (Lane, Westaway & Hicks, 2003).
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43 Morphometric budgeting has the advantage over scour chains to be less invasive and
44 the ability to monitor an entire reach. However, scour chains may integrate effects of scour-
45 fill compensation during single events. Both techniques give a lower bound estimate of the
46 sediment flux because they do not account for substratum that is transported completely
47 through the reach (Fuller *et al.*, 2003a). According to Martin & Church (1995) the
48 morphometric approach provides information of a quality comparable or superior to that of
49 direct measurements of transport, yet requires less field effort. Its application is restricted to
50 gravel- and cobble-bed rivers. To the best of our knowledge these measures have not been
51 used in connection with biological data.
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Bed load transport

Bedload is the sediment component that moves downstream by rolling or saltation. In rivers and streams where hydraulic conditions are generally unsteady (Lisle *et al.*, 2000) and spatial substratum grain size variability is high (Dollar, 2002), transport rate is highly variable in space and time (Gomez, 1991; Batalla, 1997; Ferguson, 2003; Vericat & Batalla, 2007). Bedload discharge also depends on the supply of sediments within the catchment and lateral and longitudinal connectivity of the river (Dietrich *et al.*, 1989; Hooke, 2003; Fryirs *et al.*, 2007). The transport of substratum can be expressed as volumetric change in sediment budgets, transport rate at a point, cross-sectional discharge or distance travelled by individual particles. Techniques for measuring bedload transport are ideally non-intrusive, flexible and representative for different types of transport (Ergenzinger & de Jong, 2003). To date most stream ecologists have only been interested in qualitative measures of bed stability. At the single particle-scale, qualitative assessment might be sufficient, but for whole reaches bedload transport occurs on a continuous graduation. For stream ecologists, quantitative measures of bedload transport can act as a superior indicator for the level of bed stability, particularly if only partial mobilisation of the bed occurs.

Tracer particles

Tracers are well suited for the stochastic and spatially variable nature of bedload transport because they reflect the movement of individual particles of known characteristics (Wilcock, 1997). Marked or tagged natural particles and artificial tracers are used to assess step length of movement (e.g. Habersack, 2001), proportion of the bed surface entrained (e.g. Laronne & Duncan, 1992), transport behaviour (e.g. Gottesfeld & Tunnicliffe, 2003) and transport rate (e.g. Ergenzinger & Conrady, 1982), or as an indicator of bed stability (e.g. Death & Winterbourn, 1994). Further they could facilitate the measurement of recolonisation periods of individual particles.

Stones coated with ordinary paint or fluorescent dye placed on the riverbed are often employed by ecologists and hydrologists (Death & Winterbourn, 1994; Townsend, Scarsbrook & Doledec, 1997; Ferguson & Wathen, 1998; Death, 2002; Ergenzinger & de Jong, 2003; Death & Zimmermann, 2005), but they have the disadvantage of a low recovery rate due to burial (Table 4). To overcome this, metal bars (Laronne *et al.*, 1992; Schmidt & Ergenzinger, 1992) or magnets (Hassan, Church & Schick, 1991; Laronne & Duncan, 1992; Bunte, 1996; Ferguson & Wathen, 1998) can be inserted into the particles and they are detected using a metal detector or a magnetometer respectively. Magnetic tracers usually

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3 have a larger detection range (McEwan, Habersack & Heald, 2001) than metal tracers. An
4 easier but less durable alternative to the insertion of metal is the wrapping of stones with
5 aluminium foil (Sear *et al.*, 2003). The transport rate and transport behaviour of particles
6 marked with magnets or stones containing magnetic minerals can be monitored with a bar
7 equipped with electromagnetic coils across the stream (Ergenzinger, 1985; Carling *et al.*,
8 1998; Froehlich, 2003) or with a longitudinal line of “Bed Movement Detectors” (Gottesfeld
9 & Tunnicliffe, 2003). The overpassing of a magnetic particle induces an electric signal which
10 is stored with high temporal resolution. The calculation of bedload discharge is possible using
11 dispersion models (Sear *et al.*, 2000b).
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19 Marking of tracer particles has been further advanced via insertion of radio transmitters
20 into a particle. A signal is transmitted either continuously, at a programmed interval or when
21 the particle is turned 180° (Ergenzinger, Schmidt & Busskamp, 1989; Schmidt & Ergenzinger,
22 1992; Busskamp & Hasholt, 1996; Habersack, 2001). The tagged stones can be tracked from
23 the banks with a set of antennae but application is restricted to shallow water and low
24 conductivity (Ergenzinger & de Jong, 2003). Battery capacity (size) is a trade-off between
25 life span and lower size boundary of particles (Habersack, 2003). These tags enable the
26 monitoring of step length and transport behaviour as well as initiation of motion.
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34 Radioactive tracers (e.g. ^{137}Cs) are an alternative to tags because they do not change
35 density or centre of gravity (e.g. Bartnik, Madeyski & Michalik, 1992). However, they are no
36 longer widely applied due to environmental issues (Ergenzinger & de Jong, 2003). The
37 employment of tracers of differing lithology from the natural substratum (Mosley, 1978;
38 Kondolf & Matthews, 1986) provides an effective and easy measure for event-based
39 distribution of transport length, although recovery rate is low.
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45 For the *in situ* marking of substratum particles Downes *et al.* (1998) and Matthaei,
46 Peacock & Townsend (1999a) used chisels and drills with long drill bit extensions, but
47 relocation is difficult and embeddedness may be disturbed during the marking process. Thus
48 this method is more suitable for the qualitative measurement of entrainment. Barquin &
49 Death (2006) used dyed quick curing concrete mix to mark embedded stones.
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54 Artificial stones provide an alternative to natural particles and also give the opportunity
55 to examine the influence of shape on transport length (Schmidt & Ergenzinger, 1992). The
56 use of cast aluminium forms avoids the insertion of metal bars in pebbles (Sear *et al.*, 2003).
57 The collection of complex information about particle transport is also possible with artificial
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3 boulders like the DUMPLING (Ergenzinger & de Jong, 2003), although its size and weight
4 restricts its application to bouldery streams.
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7 The measurement of bedload transport with tracers provides comparable results to
8 direct measures but requires less effort and avoids large-scale intervention in the stream bed.
9 For low transport rates, tracers are likely to be more accurate (Wilcock, 1997). However, the
10 dominating influence of bed structure and channel morphology on the distribution of tracer
11 stones and the weak relationship with stream power (Kondolf & Matthews, 1986; Hassan,
12 Church & Ashworth, 1992) suggests that short-term studies with tracers are not sufficient to
13 compute rates of bedload transport. In contrast, shorter-term studies are more suitable for
14 investigating the movement of surface particles because the transport rate of tracer particles
15 decreases due to vertical mixing (burial) and storage in less active zones of the system (e.g.
16 floodplain, bars) (Ferguson *et al.*, 2002). If particles have to be removed from the stream for
17 marking, bed structures and imbrication are destroyed and tracer particles placed on the bed
18 surface may not represent the size characteristics of the substratum (Downes *et al.*, 1998;
19 Biggs *et al.*, 1999). Longer-term studies can account for this, but they do not provide
20 information about the frequency and magnitude of single disturbance events. The subjective
21 choice and the shape of particles, as well as their number, may bias the results of tracer
22 experiments (Schmidt & Gintz, 1995; Duncan *et al.*, 1999; Warburton & Demir, 2000;
23 Ferguson & Hoey, 2002).
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37 Nevertheless, a stability index derived from tracer experiments showed a strong
38 negative relationship with invertebrate diversity and periphyton biomass (Death &
39 Winterbourn, 1995; Death, 2002; Death & Zimmermann, 2005) (Table 4). *In situ* marked
40 stones were also used to identify stable stones that can serve as refugia during floods
41 (Matthaei *et al.*, 2000). They relate the shear forces to the local substratum and consequently
42 give a better estimate of bed stability than unembedded tracers (Downes *et al.*, 1998;
43 Matthaei *et al.*, 1999a). In combination with a non-invasive detection technique, *in situ*
44 marked particles may be highly appropriate for ecological studies. Along with the objectives
45 of a study, selection of an optimal tracer technique should consider representation of the
46 substratum, tracer recoverability, longevity, durability, possibility of explicit identification of
47 particles as well as labour and cost efficiency (Sear *et al.*, 2000b).
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56 *Bedload transport sampler and traps*

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58 The rate of bedload transport can be assessed with samplers and traps at various scales
59 (Table 5). The most common handheld bedload transport samplers are of the pressure-
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3 difference type (Helley-Smith-, VUV- and Arnhem sampler) with orifices up to 0.05 m²
4 (Leopold, 1992; Hoey, Cudden & Shvidchenko, 2001; Hardardottir & Snorrason, 2003).
5
6 Their sampling efficiency usually varies between 30% and 70%, but can be up to 100%
7 (Helley-Smith sampler) (Gomez, 1991). A common constraint of these samplers is that the
8 opening area needs calibration for hydraulic and substratum conditions (Gomez, 1991) but,
9
10 much more critically, the sampling scheme should be sufficient to account for the cross-
11 sectional substratum variability of the reach and the temporal variability in bedload transport
12 (Ergenzinger & de Jong, 2003). This requires adjustment of the sampling period and may
13 result in large sampling efforts in wide rivers. Therefore, predictions of bedload transport
14 based on sampler measurements are often not very accurate (uncertainty of $\pm 50\%$) (Wilcock,
15 2001). In conditions encountered in mountain streams (e.g. local high flow velocities and
16 high surface roughness) bedload transport samplers are less applicable (Mizuyama, Fujita &
17 Nonaka, 2003). Here portable net traps fixed to platforms on the stream bed may be used,
18 delivering similar results to pit traps (Wilcock, 2001; Bunte & Abt, 2003; Bunte *et al.*, 2004).
19
20 Bedload samplers are not frequently employed by stream ecologists perhaps because of the
21 mentioned constraints and inaccuracy. However, for small-scale, event-based studies they
22 constitute a potentially valid option for direct measurement of bedload transport rate.
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33 Slot traps of various dimensions, inserted into the river bed, are used in many parts of
34 the world (Salehi, Lagace & Pesant, 1997; Martin-Vide *et al.*, 1999; Hassan & Church, 2001;
35 Sear *et al.*, 2003; Bond, 2004). They range from small sized pit traps, without continuous
36 measurement, to Birkbeck samplers and large, stream-wide constructions for continuous
37 monitoring. The latter is achieved with the employment of a weighing device (pressure
38 cushion, load cell) below the sampling box or outside the channel (vortex tube, pump,
39 conveyor belt) (Gomez, 1991; Sear *et al.*, 2000a; Ergenzinger & de Jong, 2003; Sear, 2003).
40 Load cell systems are more reliable than pressure cushion devices because they are less
41 susceptible to damage (e.g. puncture of pressure pillows) (Lewis, 1991). Smaller pit traps
42 may fill rapidly during large events but are generally more accurate than handheld bedload
43 transport samplers (Wilcock, 2001). Sampling efficiency for pit traps is up to 100%,
44 decreasing with increasing fill (Laronne *et al.*, 2003). In particular at base flow, bedload
45 transport traps may also sample suspended sediments (Batalla, 1997). The installation and
46 maintenance of a bedload trap is expensive and involves a serious disturbance of the stream
47 bed and biota. For this reason, bedload traps have not been used for investigations of benthic
48 biota but for long-term projects they offer a useful tool for the assessment of ecologically
49 relevant bedload discharge. As an alternative, monitoring of sediment volume accumulated in
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3 natural traps (basins), reservoirs or retention and diversion devices provides an opportunity to
4 assess bedload transport rate, but calibration to exclude suspended sediments is difficult
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6 (Gomez, 1991).
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8 *Acoustic sensors*

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10 Acoustic sensors can be used to assess bedload transport intensity and the onset and cessation
11 of movement (Ergenzinger & de Jong, 2003). In addition, estimates of transport rate using
12 acoustic energy and estimates of transported particle size using the emitted frequency can be
13 obtained (Bogen & Moen, 2003; Downing *et al.*, 2003; Froehlich, 2003; Mizuyama *et al.*,
14 2003). Hydrophones must be calibrated against actual bedload samples at each site. The
15 sensor consists of a plate fixed horizontally on the bed (Bogen & Moen, 2003), a vertical
16 pressure plate (Downing *et al.*, 2003) or horizontal steel pipes across the stream bed
17 (Froehlich, 2003; Mizuyama *et al.*, 2003). Calibration limits the application at numerous sites,
18 but the accuracy can be similar to a bedload trap. Acoustic Doppler Current Profiling (ADCP)
19 allows the combined measurement of multi dimensional flow and velocity of bedload and
20 suspended load (Rennie & Millar, 2004). Limitations of this technique include problems with
21 the differentiation between near-bed suspension, bedload and fine grained bottom sediments
22 as well as varying sensitivity to different particle sizes (Kostaschuk *et al.*, 2005).
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34 *Other sensors*

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36 Richardson, Benson & Carling (2003) presented an electronic sensor that allows detection of
37 the momentum of impacting particles in bedrock channels. It gives a relative measure of
38 bedload transport but needs to be calibrated. The latter can create some difficulties because
39 the sensor measures a combination of grain mass and speed.
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44 The piezoelectric bedload impact sensor employed by Rickenmann & McArdell (2007)
45 can measure impacts of transported grains larger than 10 – 30 mm. These sensors are placed
46 in an array over the whole stream width in a concrete bar. The measure is a reliable and
47 continuous indicator of total bedload transport, but it needs to be calibrated and has limited
48 accuracy for single events or small bedload volumes. Further it gives no information about
49 the grain size distribution of the overpassing sediments (Rickenmann & McArdell, 2007).
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55 *Bedload transport formulae*

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57 Bedload transport formulae (e.g. Schoklitsch-type equation (5)) are generally based on four
58 principal approaches: shear stress, stream discharge, stream power and a stochastic function
59 for sediment transport (Gomez & Church, 1989).
60

$$q_b = X' S_f (q - q_{cr}) \quad (5)$$

In this example, bedload discharge q_b depends on excess water discharge and a sediment coefficient X' . Most bedload transport formulae originate from physical principles but their precision has been improved by the use of empirical datasets from flumes and streams. The formulae are consistent in that they employ in most instances the same hydraulic parameters (energy gradient, flow velocity, depth and discharge) which are in part intercorrelated (Gomez & Church, 1989; Martin & Church, 2000). Most formulae are well suited and parameterised for the dataset of their development, but fail when applied to other conditions (Knighton, 2008). They are based on limited basic assumptions which vary between streams and even within streams (e.g. selective entrainment). Characteristics like armouring, exposure to flow, equal mobility, variable sediment supply and pulsing cannot be fully accounted for, although some approaches try to incorporate these points (Parker, 1990; Duan & Scott, 2007; Thompson & Croke, 2008). Furthermore, the spatial variability within a stream is ignored because of the one-dimensional nature of the formulae (Hoey *et al.*, 2001; Ferguson, 2003; Martin & Ham, 2005). The result of comparative studies with bedload samplers/ traps (Gomez & Church, 1989; Batalla, 1997; Martin-Vide *et al.*, 1999; Habersack & Laronne, 2002; Barry, 2004) and morphologic budgeting (Martin & Ham, 2005) show clearly that bedload transport formulae perform inconsistently (but see Bartnik *et al.*, 1992). Thus, bedload transport formulae need to be carefully selected according to the conditions for which they were developed, for instance turbulent and shallow mountain streams require other types of models than gravel-bed rivers (Biggs *et al.*, 2001; Mizuyama *et al.*, 2003; Ancy *et al.*, 2008). Additionally, empirical parameters and the entrainment threshold have to be determined to suit a new dataset, which is a difficult task (Wilcock, 2001; Habersack & Laronne, 2002). Thus the application of direct measurements of bedload transport is preferable to the use of bedload transport formulae (Gomez, 1991; Laronne *et al.*, 1992).

Abrasion by suspended sediments

Abrasion is an often neglected form of disturbance which can affect benthic flora and fauna. At normal flows the stream biota may be subjected to constant *in situ* abrasion by small suspended particles, which may represent a significant disturbance at higher discharges (Biggs, 1996; Peterson, 1996). It is unclear if sandblasting affects invertebrates (Rosenberg & Wiens, 1978; Culp, Wrona & Davies, 1986; Bond & Downes, 2003) but the effect on benthic algae is clearly recognised (Biggs *et al.*, 1999; Webb *et al.*, 2006).

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3 The exposure of natural or artificial tracers to abrasion is an obvious opportunity for
4 quantification (Table 6). The use of natural rocks that are cut in cubes or artificial blocks
5 improves the visual monitoring of abrasion because the loss of edges and corners is simply
6 detected. Furthermore, impact marks on the cube faces are subject to easy distinction and aide
7 the interpretation of bedload moving events (Brewer, Leeks & Lewin, 1992). Blocks that are
8 of the same lithology as the river sediments have the advantage that they provide a better
9 estimation of the actual abrasion in the channel. However, for the quantification of the impact
10 on biota a measure of relative abrasion is sufficient. Thus ecologists prefer to use artificial
11 tracers, like autoclaved lightweight aerated concrete blocks (Webb *et al.*, 2006). The latter
12 have standardised material properties and abrade consistently proportional to the physical
13 work performed on their surface. Moreover the abrasion rate is high enough to allow short
14 deployment times (e.g. 2 months) which minimises mass loss by dissolution. Abrasion blocks
15 need to be protected from the impact of bedload transport to gain a pure measure of abrasion
16 by suspended particles. There is also the choice between blocks fixed on the stream bed or on
17 bedrock, semi-mobile tethered blocks as well as loose tracer particles of known weight and
18 size (Stott & Sawyer, 2000). For measurements relevant to stream invertebrates or periphyton
19 it is preferable to place the blocks on the stream bed. Although fixed or tethered blocks may
20 split and get lost or buried by sediments, the recovery rate can be high (Brewer *et al.*, 1992).
21 These methods do not allow distinction between effects of sandblasting, overpassing bed
22 materials and the physical impingement of fast flowing water. However, the practical
23 consequences for ecologists are small because, in the field, biota are usually exposed to a
24 combination of these effects (Webb *et al.*, 2006).
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42 Abrasion coefficients derived from laboratory experiments are an easy alternative to
43 field measurements but they generally underestimate the actual abrasion in rivers (Lewin &
44 Brewer, 2002). Sklar & Dietrich (2004) presented a model to predict bedrock abrasion by
45 saltating particles but it has not yet been applied in context with stream biota.
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52 **Descriptive surveys of substratum stability and multivariate approaches**

53 *Pfankuch Stability Index*

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56 The Pfankuch Stability Index is a qualitative measure that describes the probability of
57 occurrence of substratum-moving discharges (Pfankuch, 1975). It consists of 15 variables
58 representing properties of the upper and lower banks and the stream bed. Despite its
59 subjectivity it shows a strong positive relation with the entrainment of painted stones
60

(Townsend *et al.*, 1997), but not when the painted stones are used as an indicator of tractive force over time (Death & Winterbourn, 1994). If just the stream bottom component of the Pfankuch Index is employed, the relationship with other stability measures is considerably higher (Death & Winterbourn, 1994; McIntosh, 2000) and the assessment of stability at finer spatial scales might be possible (Winterbourn & Collier, 1987).

Descriptive approaches for the assessment of stream bed stability provide an easily applicable tool which has been widely exploited for investigations of biota in streams. Their major problem is the propensity to be observer-biased (Duncan *et al.*, 1999). Additionally, large temporal variation in scores can occur between surveys of the same reach by the same observer (A. C. Schwendel, unpublished data). Nevertheless, relations between bed stability assessed with the stream bed component of the Pfankuch Index and biological data have been established (Table 7).

Multivariate approaches

Approaches that combine more than one measure of bed stability can have a stronger relationship with biological data because they can incorporate different aspects of substratum stability. Death & Winterbourn (1994) showed that a multivariate instability score consisting of hydraulic parameters (patch-scale), the movement of painted stones, water temperature and the bottom component of the Pfankuch index (reach-scale) had a stronger positive linear relationship with invertebrate species richness than with any of the constituent single variables.

Conclusions

The composition of benthic communities is a function of habitat and biotic interactions. Habitat stability in rivers is primarily determined by the forces of flowing water exerted on biota and substratum. Hence measurement of shear stress and substratum stability can indicate the distribution of benthic stream organisms, but they differ in precision and the aspect of bed stability they describe. Clearly there is no single technique suitable for all applications. Thus the selection of an appropriate method is subject to: (1) targeted fauna (mobility and range of activity), (2) spatial and (3) temporal scale of investigation (flood event-based or long-term), (4) hydraulic and (5) substratum conditions, and (6) research question of the study (e.g. range of flow, aspect of bed stability).

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3 Most of the methods presented have been developed for research into stream hydraulics
4 and fluvial geomorphology. Despite recent technological advances and development of new
5 techniques only a few of them have been applied in ecological studies. Given the importance
6 of bed stability for the biota of many streams and rivers and the multitude of ways to
7 characterise that stability, we would like to encourage stream ecologists to consider also the
8 potential of alternative techniques highlighted in this review for examining the links between
9 stream stability and biota.
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20 comments on earlier versions of this manuscript.
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Table 1: Methods for the assessment of shear stress (for annotations see Appendix B)

Method	Scale	Constraints	Interference with substratum	Accuracy/ Relation to biological data
Du Boys equation	reach	uniform flow, $W/h > 20$	low (measurement of parameters)	overestimation of local shear stress (Robert, 1990) but underestimation of mean shear stress (Carson & Griffiths, 1987), recommended to assess the spatial distribution of invertebrates (Statzner <i>et al.</i> , 1988)
DuBoys equation (using h and S_b)	patch	uniform flow	low (measurement of parameters)	underestimation of local shear stress (Lorang & Hauer, 2003)
FST-hemispheres	patch to reach, short-term	usually normal flow conditions	low	related to invertebrate distribution (Dittrich & Schmedtje, 1995; Merigoux & Doledec, 2004), negative linear relationship with invertebrate taxon richness (Merigoux & Doledec, 2004) and with mussel density (Hardison & Layzer, 2001)
Point near-bed flow velocity	patch	$h/D_{84} > 3$	low	related to invertebrate distribution (Effenberger <i>et al.</i> , 2006)
Depth averaged near-bed flow velocity	patch	simple flow geometry, logarithmic velocity profile	low	3 times more accurate than point measurement (Wilcock, 1996)
Velocity profile	patch	simple flow geometry, logarithmic velocity profile	low	profiles least accurate compared to point and depth-averaged velocity, but no knowledge of bed roughness necessary (Wilcock, 1996)

Table 2: Methods for the assessment of critical shear stress and flow competence (for annotations see Appendix B)

Method	Scale	Constraints	Interference with substratum	Accuracy/ Relation to biological data
Critical shear stress				
$\tau_{crit} \approx D$ (Lane, 1955)	reach	$h \gg D_{50}$, $S_w < 0.01$, uniform flow, unarmoured bed	low (measurement of D)	weak relationship with other measurers of bed stability or bryophyte cover (Death & Winterbourn, 1994; Duncan <i>et al.</i> , 1999), linked to bryophyte (Muotka & Virtanen, 1995) and invertebrate distribution (Cobb <i>et al.</i> , 1992), negative linear to number of invertebrates (Death & Winterbourn, 1995)
$\tau_{crit} = \theta_{crit} * (\gamma_s - \gamma_f) * D_i$	patch	uniform flow, uniform bed, low h/D_i , low S	low (measurement of parameters)	depending on choice of θ_{crit}
$\tau_{crit} = \theta_{crit} * (\gamma_s - \gamma_f) * D_{50}^c * D_i^d$	patch	uniform flow, low h/D_i , low S	low (measurement of parameters)	depending on choice of c, d, θ_{crit}
Combination of Shields equation and DuBoys equation (+ corrections (Duncan <i>et al.</i> , 1999))	reach	uniform flow, unarmoured bed	D, R, S	related to actual entrainment (Milan <i>et al.</i> , 2001), negative linear relationship with bryophyte cover (Duncan <i>et al.</i> , 1999), related to periphyton biomass (Biggs <i>et al.</i> , 1999)
$\tau_{crit} = a * D^b$	patch	site specific	low (measurement of D)	depending on parameters a, b
Spring balance	patch	subjectivity of particle choice	high	(Downes <i>et al.</i> , 1997)

Table 3: Methods for the assessment of erosion and deposition

Method	Scale	Constraints	Interference with substratum	Accuracy/ Relation to biological data
Scour chains	patch/ reach, event-based	substratum < boulders	intermediate during installation	related to distribution of algae (Matthaei <i>et al.</i> , 2003) and invertebrate taxa (Palmer <i>et al.</i> , 1992; Effenberger <i>et al.</i> , 2006)
Scour plates	patch, event-based	substratum < boulders	high	related to vertical invertebrate distribution (Palmer <i>et al.</i> , 1992)
Dyed sand columns/ painted gravel	patch, event-based	substratum size	high	related to vertical invertebrate distribution (Palmer <i>et al.</i> , 1992)
Pressure pillows	patch, continuous	substratum < boulders	high during installation	(Kurashige, 2002)
Morphometric budgeting	reach, event-based	gravel/ cobble substratum	low	accuracy depends on surface roughness (Brasington <i>et al.</i> , 2000)

Table 4: Methods for reach-scale tracking of tracer particles

Method	Constraints	detection depth	recovery rate	Relation to biological data and comments
Tracking of initially unembedded particles				
painted tracer (visual)	armour layer, burial	surface	15-60%	negative with periphyton biomass (Death & Zimmermann, 2005), negative linear with invertebrate species number and species richness (Death & Winterbourn, 1995; Death, 2002; Death & Zimmermann, 2005), quadratic with invertebrate taxon number (Townsend <i>et al.</i> , 1997)
metal tracer (passive)	armour layer, particle size	0.5-1 m	50-90%	
stones wrapped in aluminium foil (passive)	armour layer	0.25 m		
magnetic tracer (passive)	armour layer, particle size	0.5-1 m, usually higher than with metal tracer	50-90%	
transmitters (active)	armour layer, particle size, battery*, low conductivity	shallow water	up to 100%	* life span: a few weeks to 10 months (size 0.01 m to 0.08 m respectively)
radioactive tracer (passive)	armour layer, environmental issues		ca. 5%	
different lithology (visual)	armour, burial	surface	5-30%	
artificial tracer (visual/passive)	armour layer, representativeness of substratum	variable	ca. 35%	
DUMPLING (active)	size (0.3 m), weight (37 kg)		100%	
Tracking of initially embedded particles				
chiselled stones (visual)	particle choice	low	low	
dyed quick concrete mix (visual)	particle choice	surface		distribution of invertebrates (Barquin & Death, 2006)

Table 5: Methods for the assessment of bedload transport

Method	Scale	Constraints	Interference with substratum	Accuracy/ Relation to biological data
pressure-difference sampler	patch, short-term	orifice area (up to 0.05 m ²), upscaling to stream width	low	sampling efficiency usually 30 – 70%, can reach up to 100%, small volume
Birkbeck slot sampler	patch/ reach	slot width, upscaling to stream width	high for installation	continuous during smaller floods
sediment trap	cross-section, continuous		high for installation	sampling efficiency up to 100%
acoustic sensors	patch/ reach	calibration	low – high for installation	comparable accuracy as bedload traps (Downing <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
ADCP	patch/ reach	sandy substratum, high suspended load	non	
electronic momentum sensor	patch	calibration	low	measures a combination of particle size and speed (Richardson <i>et al.</i> , 2003)
piezoelectric sensors	reach, long-term	calibration	low (installation)	limited accuracy for single events (Rickenmann & McArdell, 2007)
bedload transport formulae	reach	calibration site specific	low (measurement of parameters)	inaccurate for general application

Table 6: Methods for the assessment of abrasion by suspended sediments

Method	Scale	Constraints	Interference with substratum	Accuracy/ Relation to biological data
Stone blocks	patch	absolute	low	actual abrasion of sediment
Artificial blocks	patch/ months	dissolution, high bedload transport	low	only relative measurement
Abrasion coefficients	reach/ patch	calibration	none	underestimation of actual abrasion (Lewin & Brewer, 2002)

Table 7: Descriptive surveys for the estimation of bed stability on a reach-scale

Method	Constraints	Interference with substratum	Accuracy/ Relation to biological data
Pfankuch Index	subjectivity of perception	none	related to other measures of bed stability, negative linear relationship with invertebrate taxon number (Townsend <i>et al.</i> , 1997)
Pfankuch Index bottom component	subjectivity of perception	none	positively related to other measures of bed stability (Death & Winterbourn, 1994), negative linear relationship with bryophyte cover (Suren, 1996; Duncan <i>et al.</i> , 1999), negative linear relation to invertebrate species richness, number and density (Death & Winterbourn, 1995; Death, 2002)

Appendix A: Definitions

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6	Armour layer	Coarse surface layer in streams that inhibits the entrainment of
7		underlying finer material
8		
9	Bed roughness	Relief of roughness elements on the channel boundary, normally a
10		function of grain size and flow depth
11		
12	Energy gradient	Difference in potential and kinetic energy per horizontal distance
13		between two points in a stream
14		
15	Flow competence	Ability of a stream velocity to move particles of a particular size as
16		bedload
17		
18	Imbrication	Overlapping and interlocking of particles
19		
20	Incipient motion	Beginning of (grain) movement
21		
22	Laser altimetry	Approach to obtain measurements of surface elevation with laser
23		scanning techniques
24		
25	Pebble cluster	Feature developed by stream flow over alluvial beds consisting of a
26		group of particles
27		
28	Photogrammetry	Approach to obtain measurements by means of photography
29		
30	Reynolds number	Nondimensional parameter of fluid motion which determines the
31		extent to which viscosity modifies flow
32		
33	Stream power	Index for the erosive capacity of stream, defined as energy dissipation
34		per unit area, stream length or mass of water.
35		
36	Tacheometry	Survey technique that produces rapid measurements of direction,
37		elevation and distance using a kind of theodolite
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39	Thalweg	Deepest continuous longitudinal line along a river
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Appendix B: Symbol annotation

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4	τ_o	mean boundary shear stress (N m^{-2})
5		
6	τ_{crit}	critical shear stress at incipient motion (N m^{-2})
7		
8	ρ_f	density of the fluid (for pure water approx. 1000 kg m^{-3})
9	g	gravity acceleration (9.81 m s^{-2})
10		
11	R	Hydraulic radius ($= A P^{-1}$) (m)
12		
13	A	cross-sectional area (m^2)
14	P	Wetted Perimeter at a cross-section (m)
15		
16	S_f	Friction slope (dimensionless)
17		
18	S_w	Slope of water surface (m m^{-1})
19		
20	S_b	Slope of stream bed surface (m m^{-1})
21	h	water depth (m)
22		
23	D_{50}	substratum grain size for which 50% are finer (mm)
24		
25	D_{84}	substratum grain size for which 84% are finer (mm)
26		
27	D_i	substratum grain size for which $i\%$ are finer (mm)
28	D	substratum grain size (mm)
29		
30	γ	specific weight ($= \rho g$) ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-2}$)
31	s	sediment
32		
33	f	fluid
34		
35	θ_{crit}	Shields coefficient or dimensionless critical shear stress
36	v	flow velocity (m s^{-1})
37		
38	W	stream width (m)
39		
40	Re	Reynolds number
41	a, b, c, d	empirical factors in entrainment formulae
42		
43	q_b	bedload discharge
44		
45	q	water discharge ($\text{m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$)
46		
47	q_{cr}	critical discharge ($\text{m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$)
48	X'	sediment coefficient
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