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Zoogeomorphological behaviours in fish and the potential impact of benthic feeding on bed material mobility in fluvial landscapes

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17 **ABSTRACT**

18 Foraging by benthivorous fish can affect bed material mobility and sediment flux. This
19 paper collates evidence of benthic feeding effects at local scales and evaluates the
20 possibility that large numbers of foraging fish, each of which accomplishes a small
21 amount of geomorphic work when feeding, may have a cumulative effect across river
22 systems. A first synthesis of research from several disciplines provides a deeper
23 understanding of how fish disturb and condition bed materials with implications for
24 sediment mobility. To evaluate the spatial extent of benthic feeding and therefore the
25 potential for it to have a large-scale effect, the distribution of benthivorous fish is
26 established across a large river network. After quality control, the dataset yields a
27 comprehensive set of fish community information based on over 61,000 individuals
28 and 30 species at 176 sites. The factors that are likely to mediate foraging and its
29 geomorphological effectiveness are considered. A novel scoring system that
30 incorporates three key controls (fish feeding behaviour, fish abundance and fish body
31 size) is then applied across the river network to provide the first prediction of where
32 geomorphologically effective benthic feeding is feasible and its possible relative
33 magnitude. Our results demonstrate that the potential for zoogeomorphic impacts is
34 widespread but variable in space as a function of community composition and the
35 abundance of key benthivores. A preliminary calibration against measured field
36 impacts suggests that benthic feeding may cause measurable geomorphological
37 disturbance at more than 90% of sites. Together, previous work and this unique
38 analysis suggest that benthic feeding is sufficiently effective and extensive to warrant
39 additional research. Investigating the role of benthivorous fish in fluvial geomorphology
40 is important because it may yield results that challenge the assumption that biota are

41 irrelevant sources of energy in geomorphological systems. Key research questions
42 and a roadmap to facilitate progress are identified.

43 KEYWORDS: fish, zoogeomorphology, sediment transport, foraging,
44 biogeomorphology

45

46

47 **BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE**

48 Along with microbial life and vegetation (biogeomorphology: Viles, 1988), animals can
49 affect sediment fluxes and moderate landform development, a process regime referred
50 to as zoogeomorphology (Butler, 1995; Hall and Lamont, 2003; Butler and Sawyer,
51 2012; Holtmeier, 2015). Intricate ecogeomorphological feedbacks can affect the
52 responsible organism or wider community (Naiman *et al.*, 2000; Wheaton *et al.*, 2011;
53 Beschta and Ripple, 2012), in which case the geomorphological effect is a form of
54 ecosystem engineering (Jones *et al.*, 1994; Wright and Jones, 2006; Moore, 2006;
55 Jones, 2012). Zoogeomorphological contributions to ecosystem engineering are
56 therefore part of the *evolutionary* process that entwines the biotic and abiotic elements
57 of the Earth's surface in the co-development of life and landscape (Meysman *et al.*,
58 2006, Corenblit *et al.*, 2007; Steiger and Corenblit 2012). In addition,
59 zoogeomorphological processes can present significant socio-economic risks. For
60 example, burrowing of levees on the Secchia River in Italy, possibly by den-building
61 porcupines, contributed to a single structural failure that caused flood damage
62 estimated to be greater than \$500 million (Orlandini *et al.*, 2015).

63 Zoogeomorphological investigations in rivers have predominantly focused on iconic
64 species that have impressive visual impacts; for example, on beaver (*Castor spp.*)
65 where impacts on sediment transfer, hydromorphology and floodplain formation
66 through dam building and meadow construction are plain to see and widely
67 acknowledged (Butler & Malanson, 1995; Gurnell, 1998; Polvi and Wohl, 2012; Giritat
68 *et al.* 2016). There has also been some focus on the geomorphological impact of
69 prolific invasive species (Butler, 2006) because they have the potential to disturb
70 landscapes that have not evolved to be resilient to them; for example, non-native
71 crayfish that affect bank stability, sediment recruitment and the mobility of coarse and

72 fine sediment particles (Statzner *et al.*, 2000, 2003; Harvey *et al.*, 2011; Johnson, 2011;
73 Harvey *et al.*, 2014; Rice *et al.*, 2016; Faller *et al.*, 2016). Other research has
74 considered the impact of less celebrated, somewhat hidden fluvial zoogeomorphic
75 agents (“Cinderella” species, Rice *et al.*, 2012) where the impacts are not apparent to
76 the casual observer but may nevertheless be important; for example, silk-spinning
77 caddis fly larvae that increase bed particle stability (Statzner *et al.*, 1999; Cardinale *et*
78 *al.*, 2004; Johnson *et al.* 2009; Albertson *et al.*, 2014).

79 Almost all this work has demonstrated the impact of river organisms on fluvial
80 processes at small scales, often via relatively limited field observation programmes or
81 in necessarily small *ex-situ* (and rarely, *in-situ*) experiments (see reviews in Statzner,
82 2012; Rice *et al.* 2012; Albertson and Allen, 2014; Atkinson *et al.*, 2017). There are
83 only a few exceptions, including an estimation of beaver impacts on continental
84 sediment yield (Butler and Malanson, 2005) and studies showing the importance,
85 relative to flooding, of salmonid activity for coarse bedload movement (Hassan *et al.*,
86 2008) and of signal crayfish (*Pacifastacus leniusculus* (Dana)) activity for fine
87 sediment entrainment (Rice *et al.*, 2016). In general, the results of small-scale
88 experiments and local observations have not been scaled up. New technologies,
89 including eDNA, are making it easier to establish the distribution of zoogeomorphic
90 agents, and thence their potential to have impacts, over large scales, (Larsen *et al.*,
91 2017). However, in the absence of evidence demonstrating the impact of river
92 organisms across larger spatial and temporal scales, a pervasive assumption remains
93 that zoogeomorphic effects are inconsequential relative to geophysical forcing for
94 fluvial sediment fluxes and landscape development.

95 However, biological energy expenditure by large numbers of individual organisms,
96 each of which accomplishes a small amount of geomorphic work, may yield significant

97 cumulative impacts at larger scales (Philips, 2009; Rice *et al.*, 2016). This idea is not
98 new. Supported by measurements made over several decades, Darwin (1881)
99 quantified the impact of casting by earthworms on downslope soil displacement and
100 estimated that the activity could move as much as $0.057 \text{ kg m}^{-1} \text{ a}^{-1}$ (5.7 tonnes km^{-1} in
101 100 years) across gentle valley slopes in southern England, smoothing topography
102 and contributing to continental denudation. Different species of earthworm in
103 contrasting environments may have different effects, for example reducing soil erosion
104 in some tropical highlands (Jouquet *et al.*, 2008). In fluvial geomorphology the
105 likelihood of an effect equivalent to that of earthworms has not been demonstrated
106 even though there may be many capable zoogeomorphic agents in river ecosystems
107 (Statzner, 2012; Rice *et al.*, 2012).

108 In this paper we examine a common fish behaviour, foraging in coarse fluvial
109 substrates for food (benthic feeding), and ask whether it could have a large-scale
110 geomorphological impact in rivers, in much the same way that earthworms have an
111 imperceptible but significant impact on terrestrial sediment fluxes and morphology
112 (Darwin, 1881, *et seq.*). Fish utilise fluvial sediments in several ways. Most fish
113 research has focused on redd construction by salmonids (DeVries, 2012)
114 demonstrating that salmon (*Salmo spp.*) spawning can affect bed material
115 characteristics (Kondolf *et al.*, 1993; Montgomery *et al.*, 1996), bed permeability and
116 hyporheic exchange (Buxton *et al.*, 2015a), topographic drag (Montgomery *et al.*,
117 1996), bed material stability (Gottesfeld *et al.*, 2004; Buxton *et al.*, 2015b; Hassan *et*
118 *al.*, 2015), bed load flux (Hassan *et al.*, 2008) and bedform generation (Field-Dodgson,
119 1987, Gottesfeld *et al.*, 2008). A welcome extension to this focus on local effects is
120 found in Fremier *et al.*'s (2018) attempt to understand the impact of salmonid dispersal
121 and bed destabilisation on long-term fluvial erosion and landscape evolution using a

122 numerical modelling approach. The physical impacts of nest building by species other
123 than salmonids have also been investigated. Although most of this work has an
124 ecological focus without explicit geomorphological aims, the ecological literature
125 includes the description of nests that are constructed from, or in, river bed sediment
126 by fish including Arctic lamprey (*Lethenteron camtschaticum*), smallmouth bass
127 (*Micropterus dolomi* (Lacepède)), three-spined sticklebacks (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*
128 (L.)), stoneroller (*Campostoma anomalum* (Rafinesque)) and chub (*Nocomis spp.*),
129 with *N. micropogin* (Cope) building spectacular dome-shaped nests that might
130 comprise 10000 individual gravel particles (Lachner, 1952; Winemiller and Taylor,
131 1982; Thorpe, 1988; Sabaj *et al.*, 2000; Rushbrook and Barber, 2008; Shirakawa *et*
132 *al.*, 2013; Peoples *et al.* 2016).

133 In comparison to spawning and nesting behaviours, the zoogeomorphic relevance of
134 fish feeding from river bed sediments has not been widely studied (Statzner *et al.*,
135 2003; Stazner and Sagnes 2008; Fortino, 2006). One strand of ecological research
136 has investigated how foraging of fine organic and mineral sediments on river beds
137 affect benthic resource availability (Power, 1990; Flecker, 1996; 1997; Pringle and
138 Hamazaki, 1998; Gido and Matthews, 2001; Flecker and Taylor, 2004; Cross *et al.*,
139 2008), but the primary motivation has been to understand the implications for
140 ecological community structure and functioning, not sediment dynamics.

141 Foraging is an interesting behaviour to consider because of this lack of attention by
142 geomorphologists, but also because a small body of work has demonstrated that
143 benthic feeding can be an effective local zoogeomorphic process. If, in addition,
144 foraging is widespread and persistent across river networks, then it is possible that
145 foraging is an important, large-scale influence in fluvial geomorphology. This
146 supposition is investigated in three steps. First, we review research on benthic foraging

147 and its geomorphological impact, including discussion of those factors that might
148 mediate the presence of foraging behaviours and geomorphological effectiveness at
149 individual sites (e.g. fish community composition, fish body size, fish abundance).
150 Second, based on a classification of UK freshwater fish by feeding behaviour, we
151 examine the distribution of benthic feeding fish across a large river network in the UK.
152 Finally, we use a simple modelling tool that incorporates these factors to provide a
153 first-order prediction of the likelihood that foraging has geomorphological impacts
154 across the same UK river network.

155

156 **2. BENTHIC FORAGING, GEOMORPHIC IMPACTS AND FORAGING CONTROLS**

157 *Foraging by fish in coarse-grained river beds*

158 Foraging involves the acquisition of food through searching and represents a key
159 determinant of fitness, survival and reproduction in animals (Danchin *et al.*, 2008).
160 Benthic foragers interact with bed sediments in a variety of ways determined by fish
161 size, species, and the environmental setting (Pledger *et al.*, 2014; 2016; 2017). For
162 example, small fish with small mouths may be restricted to feeding within the surface
163 layer, adjusting grain orientations or flipping clasts, whereas large-bodied or highly
164 adapted foragers, may cause whole-grain displacements by digging holes or
165 bulldozing sediments. Fish with large mouths relative to the size of sediment, may also
166 suck in and process particles before depositing them in new positions on the bed.
167 Videos of some of these activities for a selection of UK freshwater fish are included in
168 supplementary material (Supp. 1). Regardless of feeding habitat, foraging fish tend to
169 orientate upstream against the flow (Pledger *et al.* 2014; 2017), offering hydrodynamic
170 benefits and increased locomotive control. Flow therefore regulates the nature of

171 foraging behaviour in rivers, meaning the geomorphic impact of lotic vs lentic fishes
172 are likely to be different.

173 Most behavioural studies (e.g. Janssen, 1976, 1978; Sibbing, 1991) consider the food
174 capture, processing and ingestion mechanisms of fish, with little regard for their
175 geomorphic implications. Pledger *et al.* (2014) therefore developed a classification
176 scheme to describe the manner in which barbel (*Barbus barbus* (L)) and other *cyprinid*
177 fishes interact with bed sediments and the specific feeding modes utilised whilst
178 foraging (Figure 1). Behaviours include swim + gulping, gulping, push + gulping and
179 bite + spit (see Pledger *et al.* (2014) for behaviour descriptions). In a laboratory flume,
180 juvenile barbel foraged water-worked river gravels for chironomid larvae, a natural
181 prey, using push + gulping, gulping and swim + gulping feeding styles, spending 62,
182 37 and 1% percent of their time, respectively, utilising each behaviour (Pledger *et al.*,
183 2014; Figure 2a). In the River Idle, underwater video of juvenile chub (*Leuciscus*
184 *cephalus* (L)) foraging 0.5 x 0.5 m patches of river gravels for natural prey recorded
185 the feeding preferences of an unconstrained wild fish community. Analysis was based
186 on a 30% subsample of five, 4-hour-long underwater video recordings. Twenty-four
187 discrete feed events were observed; 6 and 18 corresponded to the swim + gulping and
188 gulping feeding styles, respectively (Figure 2b). The fish were too small to utilise push
189 + gulping and bite + spit feeding styles. Feed events were short-lived, lasting only 1
190 second on average, and there were four such events per hour, on average.

191 Little is known about the scale of bed disturbance caused by individual feeding events.
192 An *ex-situ* laboratory flume experiment (Pledger *et al.* 2014) quantified the spatial
193 extent of foraging by juvenile barbel (0.0195 ± 0.009 m long), when feeding across
194 0.138 m^2 beds composed of 5.6 – 1.6 mm gravels. On average, individual fish
195 searching for bloodworm (chironomidae) fed six times per hour and disturbed 0.05 m^2

196 (36.9%) of the bed in each 4-hour observation period. This corresponds to a mean
197 disturbance rate of 0.002 m² per feed event, equivalent to the hourly disturbance of a
198 circular patch of substrate 50.4 mm in diameter, which is approximately ten times the
199 maximum experimental particle diameter. In the field, observations of foraged bed
200 surfaces in the River Idle, UK, revealed distinctive scars (Figure 3) created by fish,
201 predominately adult barbel. The size of individual scars varied, but lengths ranged
202 between 87 and 168 mm, and widths between 52 and 140 mm. Further field
203 observations demonstrated that mature fish displaced 64-90 mm clasts during these
204 events. These data provide some evidence that the spatial extent of individual feeding
205 events is relatively small and scales with fish size. This implies that cumulative
206 foraging extent is at least partly controlled by the size and number of foraging fish in
207 an area, as the latter affects number of feeding events.

208

209 *Foraging and coarse sediment dynamics*

210 Foraging has the potential to indirectly affect coarse sediment transport in several
211 ways (Figure 4). First foraging can compromise water-worked structures, dismantling
212 grain-scale fabrics like imbrication, that develop during the waning stages of flood
213 flows and subsequent sub-critical flows, and that stabilise bed materials (Komar and
214 Li, 1986; Clifford *et al.*, 1992; Church *et al.*, 1998; Church, 2010). After foraging, grains
215 are left in less mechanically stable positions with greater degrees of protrusion, more
216 random fabrics and reduced imbrication, all of which have the potential to increase
217 drag, reduce critical entrainment stresses and therefore promote the movement of
218 individual particles under subsequent high flows.

219 In small (0.2 m-wide) outdoor channels, Stazner *et al.* (2003) quantified the impact of
220 juvenile barbel on the topography and mobility of randomly arranged, fine gravel beds.
221 Foraging had a significant impact on bed surface topography and the authors
222 observed fish pushing gravel into piles, which they supposed resulted in looser bed
223 sediments with more grains resting in elevated positions, projecting above the
224 surrounding bed. As the number of fish was increased from zero to eight, Stazner *et*
225 *al.* (2003) observed a decrease in the critical shear stress for gravel entrainment of
226 ~45%. Pledger *et al.* (2014) extended this work by considering water-worked gravelly
227 sediments. In a 0.3 x 10 m laboratory flume, they quantified the effects of feeding
228 juvenile barbel on particle displacements, bed sediment structures and surface
229 topography. For foraged and unforaged substrates, gravel entrainment and transport
230 fluxes were measured under a moderate transport regime. On average, barbel
231 modified approximately 37% of the bed area during a four-hour period. Whole-grain
232 displacements and adjustments of grain orientations resulted in increased
233 microtopographic roughness, reduced structure and so, increased sediment mobility.
234 Specifically, grain disturbance increased bedload flux and the number of entrained
235 grains by 60% and 82%, respectively, when comparing transport data from foraged
236 and unforaged beds.

237 Laboratory experiments were extended to a field situation (River Idle, UK) where the
238 effects of foraging fish, primarily rheophilic *cyprinids*, on gravel structures, surface
239 topography, grain-size distributions and bedload transport, were assessed (Pledger *et*
240 *al.*, 2017). Large (0.5 x 0.5 x 0.1 m) trays of gravel, water-worked under ambient flows
241 and seeded with food (hempseed, *cannabis sativa*), were either exposed to foraging
242 fish or not by deploying exclusionary cages. Sections of experimental trays were
243 retrieved from the field and exposed to an entrainment flow in a laboratory flume to

244 quantify changes in sediment mobility after foraging. Benthic feeding fish disturbed,
245 on average, 74 % of the substrate during a twelve-hour period, displacing particle sizes
246 up to and including 90 mm clasts, increasing bed surface microtopography and grain
247 protrusion, coarsening substrates and loosening surface structures (Pledger *et al.*,
248 2017). These changes caused significant reductions in sediment mobility from the
249 experimental trays, with declines in sediment flux and total transported mass detected
250 from foraged substrates. This result contrasts with *ex-situ* experiments (cf. Pledger *et*
251 *al.* 2014, 2016) where foraging increased sediment transport and reflects
252 displacement of finer grains by fish to leave a coarser lag within the experimental trays.
253 It is likely that entrainment from the surrounding bed, where fine grains were deposited
254 by fish and left in relatively unstable positions, would be enhanced.

255 In addition to changing clast arrangements and undoing stabilising structures, foraging
256 can affect local grain size characteristics with potential consequences for sediment
257 transport. During the *in-situ* experiment, Pledger *et al.* (2017) detected significant
258 changes in the size distribution of experimental tray substrates with foraging resulting
259 in better sorted and coarser sediments, as indicated by increases in all grain-size
260 percentiles. Benthic foragers preferentially displaced finer particle sizes from
261 experimental trays which caused a statistically significant, 2.8 kg (33%) decrease in
262 the total mass of sediment remaining in foraged trays. Observations of grain
263 displacements showed that large clasts were consistently pushed upstream, typically
264 by barbel utilising the push + gulping behaviour. However, fine sediments tended to
265 be deposited downstream of their original locations because fish feeding using the
266 gulp + spit behaviour, collected and processed sediments then drifted downstream to
267 conserve energy, before ejecting particles from their mouths onto the bed surface.
268 These behaviours, which sort sediment locally, are important because they may

269 increase sediment patchiness, which is known to affect sediment mobility and
270 transport (Wiberg and Smith, 1987; Kirchner *et al.*, 1990; Buffington and Montgomery,
271 1997; Ferguson, 2003). Furthermore, finer grains deposited on the sediment surface
272 downstream of their origin, in relatively exposed positions without the structural
273 stability of water-worked counterparts, are likely to be relatively more susceptible to
274 entrainment.

275 A third way in which foraging may affect bedload mobility is via near bed hydraulics.
276 This has not been assessed, but in the same way that Montgomery *et al.* (1996)
277 suggest that redd construction might affect topographic drag, foraging probably affects
278 grain drag. In particular, increases in surface protrusion, rugosity and the
279 microtopography associated with grain rearrangement and feeding scars may
280 increase grain roughness resulting in increased drag and lower near-bed velocities
281 and shear. Such an affect would reduce grain mobility by lowering bed shear stress.

282 Figure 4 also highlights the potential for impacts on bed material transport to feed back
283 to the environmental, predator and prey factors that determine foraging intensity and
284 extent. For example, transport might affect bed material grain size distribution and so
285 the ease with which prey can be found and habitat suitability for prey.

286 *Field observations of foraging at reach scales*

287 At 12 sites (covering approximately 600 m²) along a reach of the River Idle, Pledger
288 *et al.* (2017) quantified the local rate of foraging impact on riffles and considered the
289 nature and spatial distribution of the foraging disturbance. This was achieved by
290 installing disturbance indicators (spray-painted steel washers; 38 x 2 mm) across
291 feeding riffles, at an approximate density of one per square meter, and assessing their
292 displacement over a 24-hour period in the absence of any hydraulic changes. Each

293 riffle recorded some disturbance, implying the impact of foraging was widespread, but
294 the number of washers disturbed varied between riffles, ranging between 3.3 and
295 56.7% (representing between 0.8 and 39.7 m² of bed area). During each 24-hour
296 period, an average of 26.1% of washers were disturbed, equivalent to 13.6 m² per riffle.
297 Disturbance was not patchy, but evenly distributed across riffles, reflecting the way in
298 which fish foraged systematically, combing entire riffles for prey. These findings
299 highlight the potential importance of benthic foraging as a widespread and temporally
300 persistent geomorphic activity in some rivers.

301

302 *Controls of foraging intensity*

303 Published studies of the controls of foraging have focused on species, species
304 interactions, temperature and fish size. The joint impacts of barbel, gudgeon (*Gobio*
305 *gobio* (L)) and the spinycheek crayfish (*Faxonius limosus* (Rafinesque)), in two-
306 species pairings, on the condition and mobility of fine-grained sediments were
307 investigated by Stazner and Sagnes (2008). Exposure to each species resulted in
308 greater sediment mobility, but their net effects when paired were generally less than
309 the sum of the individual impacts. This suggests that interactions between the species
310 in a local community are an important control on foraging behaviour. Canal *et al.* (2015)
311 demonstrated that disturbance rates amongst species including stone loach
312 (*Barbatula barbatula* (L)) and the South-west European nase (*Parachondrostoma*
313 *toxostoma* (Vallot)) are partly controlled by ambient water temperature. Surface
314 sediment disturbance by these species increased by 200-300% for an increase in
315 water temperature from 10 to 20°C. Fish are ectothermic and are unable to regulate
316 corporal temperature with metabolic heat, so they rely on ambient water temperature
317 to drive metabolism. The result of lower water temperatures is therefore reduced

318 activity, including reduced feeding (Lemons and Crawshaw, 1985). It is likely that as
319 energy requirements and foraging activity vary through the year as a function of
320 temperature, so zoogeomorphic activity may vary seasonally.

321 In *ex-situ* flume experiments, Pledger *et al.* (2016) examined the role of fish size and
322 species as controls of sediment disturbance using four size classes of barbel (4-5", 5-
323 6", 6-8", 8-10" in length) and one of chub (8-10"). The area of disturbed substrate,
324 foraging depth, microtopographic roughness, bedload flux and total transported
325 bedload all increased with fish size, whereas sediment structure (measured by
326 imbrication) decreased. With regard to species effects, 8-10" barbel foraged a larger
327 area of the riverbed than chub and had a greater impact on microtopographic
328 roughness and sediment structure. Structural and topographic changes by both
329 species were associated with increased sediment mobility, but the bed load flux and
330 total transported mass after foraging by barbel was 150% and 98% greater,
331 respectively, than that after foraging by chub.

332 In addition to these factors, foraging extent and intensity, and therefore the cumulative
333 zoogeomorphic impact of foraging, is likely to be influenced by a broader set of biotic
334 and abiotic factors that moderate the relationship between energy gains and costs
335 during foraging. These factors are neither fully defined nor understood. Flow and bed
336 material characteristics are likely to be important as these affect the energy
337 expenditure required to move between sites and manipulate clasts to expose and
338 consume prey. Meteorological factors including barometric air pressure and air
339 temperature have been shown to influence catch rates (which are indicative of feeding
340 rates) in recreational fisheries (Margenau *et al.*, 2003; Stoner *et al.*, 2004). The ratio
341 of prey availability to predator abundance is also likely to be important as this affects
342 the intensity with which individuals must forage to successfully gain sustenance in

343 competition with other individuals. Characteristics of the fish community, including
344 some species traits are also likely to be important. For example, research has found
345 that shoal-feeding fish are less timid, will spend less time exhibiting vigilant behaviour
346 and will forage for longer when feeding (Pitcher & Parrish, 1993). Shoaling behaviour
347 may therefore increase the zoogeomorphic impact of gregarious fish species such as
348 *B. barbatus*. Finally, there may be anthropogenic controls on foraging, including the role
349 of anglers in encouraging benthic foraging by deploying ground baits. Pledger (2015)
350 completed a field experiment that examined how bait density and type (hemp seed,
351 fishmeal pellets) affected foraging behaviour. Feeding styles were different when fish
352 foraged for natural prey versus bait, suggesting that heavily fished river reaches may
353 experience different degrees of bed disturbance.

354

355 **THE EXTENT AND POTENTIAL ZOOGEOMORPHIC IMPACT OF BENTHIC** 356 **FORAGING AT CATCHMENT SCALES**

357 Given the small-scale impact of individual fish, any large-scale cumulative impacts
358 must be dependent on the distribution of benthivorous fish across river networks and
359 the moderation of individual geomorphic efficacy by biotic and abiotic controls on
360 foraging intensity. It is therefore reasonable to suppose that the potential for a large-
361 scale zoogeomorphic impact increases with the spatial distribution of benthivorous fish
362 and, based on the evidence presented above, with intensity factors including the
363 abundance and size of those fish.

364 To evaluate the potential for large-scale geomorphological effects we use fisheries
365 data from a large UK river network as a case study, to investigate the distribution of
366 benthic feeding fish in space and determine how widespread they are. In turn, we use

367 a simple modelling tool that incorporates measures of feeding behaviour, fish size and
368 abundance, which are the three key biotic controls of ecosystem engineering potential
369 (Moore, 2006), to provide a first-order prediction of the likelihood that benthic feeding
370 has geomorphological impacts across that UK river network.

371

372 *Study Area and Methods*

373 The River Trent (10,452 km²) rises in the Pennines and the low hills of the western
374 Midland Plain around Birmingham and flows east and north through the English
375 Midlands and ultimately into the Humber estuary (Figure 5a). Millstone Grit and
376 Carboniferous Limestone sequences in the Pennines give way to Triassic Mercian
377 Mudstones and sandstones through the majority of the catchment, with local
378 anomalies including the Charnwood Precambrian volcanics in Leicestershire and
379 Jurassic limestones in Lincolnshire. Annual rainfall varies between approximately
380 2000 mm in the northern uplands, at elevations around 630m a.s.l., to 550 mm in the
381 distal eastern areas. At North Muskham, where the catchment area is 8,231 km² (79%)
382 mean daily discharge is 89.5 m³ s⁻¹, the mean annual flood (2-year return period) is
383 434.3 m³ s⁻¹ and the largest flood on record (since 1961) is 1000.2 m³ s⁻¹. Land-use is
384 predominantly agricultural (42% grassland, 30% arable) with 18% urban cover, 7%
385 woodland and 3% mountain heath and bog. The Trent provides a useful case study
386 because of its scale and environmental diversity, which encompasses a range of river
387 types including rain- and groundwater-fed gravel-bed rivers in the dramatic valleys of
388 the Peak District (e.g. R. Dove), lower gradient gravel-bed rivers draining north across
389 the Midland Plain (e.g. R. Mease) and the Trent itself, which flows in a broad low-
390 gradient valley through finer alluvium as it approaches the Humber.

391 Between 2013 and 2015, the Environment Agency of England surveyed fish
392 populations at 238 sites across the Trent catchment and we used this data in our
393 analysis. At some sites, samples were collected in multiple years and in these cases
394 the most recent data were selected. Samples were collected using several different
395 methods. To ensure data consistency and quality, we retained only electrofishing
396 samples collected in wadable watercourses where stop nets were deployed at both
397 ends of the sampled reach (n=176). Some samples were collected by electrofishing
398 the survey reach once (n=111), and others included 2 (n=49) or 3 (n=16) passes. The
399 different number of passes might have introduced differences in the quality of
400 individual samples, because more passes may have caught more fish or sampled
401 more species. However, there is no relation between fish catch or species richness
402 and the number of electrofishing passes in the dataset and we therefore assume that,
403 for our purposes, all samples are of equivalent quality. The final dataset provided
404 reasonable spatial coverage of the river network, but excluded deeper channels
405 including most of the mainstem Trent where standard fish sampling methods cannot
406 routinely be deployed (Figure 5b).

407 The final dataset contained a total of 61,055 individual fish comprising 30 species
408 (Table 1), caught in reaches that were on average 110.6 m long (SD = 25.0 m) and
409 5.9 m wide (SD = 3.4 m). Maitland (2004) lists 57 established fish species for Britain's
410 fresh waters, including introduced species and marine fish that are occasionally found
411 inland. The 30 taxa recorded in the Trent samples therefore represent 53% of possible
412 UK species.

413 To assess the potential for geomorphic work at any given survey site, a benthic impact
414 score (BIS) was calculated for each species that was present as:

415 $BIS = FBS \times MS \times (n/A)$

416 where FBS is a feeding behaviour score for the species, mass score (MS) is a score
417 for the average adult mass of the species, n is fish abundance at the site and A is
418 survey area. BIS weights each of the component parts equally, in the absence of any
419 evidence to suggest a more appropriate alternative weighting. Feeding behaviour
420 scores differentiate between the dominant feeding mechanism of each fish species at
421 the adult stage. It is recognised that feeding behaviour in fishes is complex and
422 dependent on a range of variables, but for the purposes of assessing potential
423 geomorphic impact a simple nominal classification establishes if species do or do not
424 affect the bed when feeding. Taxa were assigned benthic feeding scores FBS, based
425 on their dominant feeding mechanisms (Table 1): piscivorous and parasitic = 0;
426 opportunistic = 1; benthic = 2. Opportunistic species feed from the bed some of the
427 time (e.g. chub) and benthic species are obligate benthic feeders, evolved and
428 physiologically adapted to benthic foraging (e.g. barbel). Atlantic Salmon were
429 assigned a score of 0 because negligible feeding is expected amongst returning adults.

430 Fish size has been shown to influence geomorphic impact (e.g. Pledger *et al.*, 2016),
431 and we incorporated that in BIS by assuming that the force a fish is able to exert on
432 the bed when foraging is proportional to its mass. Length ranges for each adult species
433 were taken from Maitland (2004) and an average length calculated. An average mass
434 for each species was subsequently calculated using the Environment Agency's in-
435 house length-mass calculator (National Fish Population Database), which is routinely
436 used to convert length observations for a species into mass because direct mass
437 measurements in the field are time-consuming. Mass scores were then assigned
438 based on natural breaks in the distribution when average adult masses for all taxa
439 were sorted by magnitude: 0 – 13g = 0; 14 – 99g = 1; 100 – 499g = 2; 500 – 1499g =

440 3 and; 1500 – 4000g = 4 (Table 1). The decision to score fish lighter than 14g at zero
441 may be conservative, because small fish can disturb sands and detritus, but it reflects
442 what we know about impact on bed material mobility based on the smallest barbel
443 used by Pledger *et al.*, (2014). In those experiments, the smallest group of barbel used
444 had an average mass of 14 g and rearranged gravels between 5.6 and 16mm in
445 diameter, with an impact on subsequent bedload transport.

446 Finally, BIS includes a measure of abundance because we assume that the number
447 of feeding events increases with the number of individuals that are present (Statzner
448 *et al.*, 2003). Abundance was normalised by sample area to account for differences in
449 the length and width of the reaches that were electrofished at different sampling sites.
450 BIS therefore includes the three key drivers identified by Moore (2006) as
451 determinants of impactful ecosystem engineers in streams: behaviour, body size and
452 density. At each site, the BIS scores for each species present were calculated, then
453 added together to yield a single index of potential geomorphological impact for that
454 site, $\sum \text{BIS}_{\text{site}}$. For each species, across all sites, the sum of BIS scores, $\sum \text{BIS}_{\text{species}}$,
455 indicates the sum magnitude of that species potential geomorphic impact via foraging.

456

457 *Distribution and abundance of benthivorous fish*

458 Of 30 species recorded, 13 are benthic specialists and 12 are opportunistic benthic
459 feeders (Table 1). The total number of individuals in these two groups accounted for
460 52.6% (32,118 fish) and 46.2% (28,185 fish) of the total catch, respectively. Benthic
461 feeding fish therefore are abundant and dominated the overall sample (98.8%). This
462 abundance is matched by broad spatial distribution, such that benthic feeding fish are
463 ubiquitous in the Trent catchment (Figure 6). Of the 25 benthic and opportunistic

464 species, six have small average adult body masses below 14 g. This group of small
465 fish were abundant, comprising 29,704 individuals; notably with 20,557 minnows.
466 Therefore, almost half of all benthivorous fish (49.3%) were assigned $MS = 0$ and so
467 are not predicted to have any impact on sediment disturbance. In the absence of the
468 necessary research to establish whether fish this small affect bed sediments, this is
469 appropriate.

470 There were 19 species of benthivorous fish with an average adult mass more than 14
471 g, and therefore predicted to have an individual effect on bed materials ($FBS \times MS >$
472 0 ; Table 2). The total abundance of these fish was 30,599 (50.1% of the total catch)
473 and the number of sites where these 19 species were found increased approximately
474 as the square root of their abundance (Figure 7). Notably, the most abundant and
475 widespread species tended to have lower MS and FBS , and are therefore less likely
476 to be effective *individual* geomorphic agents (Figure 7). For example, 21,800 bullhead
477 (*Cottus gobio*) were found at 147 sites (Figure 8a). Although these are aggressive
478 benthic feeders they are small fish (10-15cm long, 28g average adult weight) and so
479 unlikely to disturb large particles, scoring $FBS \times MS = 2$. In contrast, 23 barbel and 80
480 common bream (*Abramis brama*), which are large fish (average adult weights of 1451
481 g and 1231 g) that are known to disturb gravelly and silty substrates ($FBS \times MS = 6$),
482 were found at 14 sites (Figure 8b).

483

484 *Benthic Impact Scores*

485 Across the catchment, 174 of the 176 sites had $\Sigma BIS_{site} > 0$, suggesting that the
486 potential for geomorphic foraging impact is widespread (Figure 9). The distribution of
487 scores was strongly positively skewed: 86% of sites had scores between 0 and 1 and

488 the mean score was 0.76, but the maximum score for a single site was 13.47. There
489 are two sites in the database on the River Idle that fall within the study area used by
490 Pledger *et al.* (2017). These two sites have $\Sigma\text{BIS}_{\text{site}} = 0.138$ and 0.253, respectively,
491 equivalent to the 3rd and 10th percentiles of all site scores; that is, between 90 and 97%
492 of sites have higher $\Sigma\text{BIS}_{\text{site}}$ scores. Given that the fish communities at the Idle sites
493 were effective in disturbing bed materials sufficiently to affect bed mobility (Pledger *et*
494 *al.*, 2017), this comparison provides a limited qualitative calibration of the scoring
495 system. It suggests, albeit very crudely, that the $\Sigma\text{BIS}_{\text{site}}$ scores recorded at 90% of
496 sites could be associated with measurable geomorphic work.

497 High $\Sigma\text{BIS}_{\text{site}}$ scores tend to be in the northern and western parts of the catchment,
498 specifically the upper Trent, River Sow, those tributaries (the Dove particularly) that
499 drain the upland areas of the Peak District and the River Mease (Figure 9). The greater
500 potential for zoogeomorphic work in these rivers reflects differences in the community
501 composition. There is an unsurprising association between $\Sigma\text{BIS}_{\text{site}}$ and bullhead
502 abundance, with large numbers of bullhead on the Sow, Mease and upper Trent
503 (Figure 8a) responsible for higher scores on those rivers. High scores in the Dove and
504 Derwent catchments are again associated with bullhead, but also with brown trout.
505 Values of $\Sigma\text{BIS}_{\text{species}}$ show that bullhead and brown trout contribute most to the
506 aggregate potential of all species to do geomorphic work (Figure 10), being
507 responsible for 75.3% and 8.8%, respectively, of the total score across all species.

508

509 **DISCUSSION AND ROUTE MAP**

510 The purpose of this paper is to evaluate whether foraging by fish is a viable influence
511 of bedload sediment flux across fluvial landscapes. The research reviewed above
512 confirms that foraging fish can disturb coarse bed sediments, with implications for local
513 sediment sorting, bed material fabric and structure, and bed load transport, but the
514 body of evidence is small and there are many knowledge gaps. A key gateway
515 question, affecting the perceived value of investigating these gaps, is whether benthic
516 feeding is sufficiently common and widespread to have a potential cumulative impact
517 on bed material condition and bedload fluxes at catchment scales.

518 Our analysis of benthivorous fish in the River Trent network provides a first ever
519 attempt to address this question by establishing a scoring system that uses fish data
520 to identify sites where the river bed is prone to be disturbed and conditioned by benthic
521 feeding fish. It is important to emphasize that BIS scores indicate the potential for
522 benthic foraging to accomplish geomorphic work; they are not a measure of that effect.
523 BIS is based on Moore's (2006) criteria for effective ecosystem engineering in rivers
524 – organism abundance, size and behaviour. Although these three criteria are proven
525 to be relevant at local scales by the work of Pledger *et al.* (2016, 2017) and others,
526 the nature of the relations between these factors and geomorphic work is largely
527 unknown. In addition, other biotic and abiotic factors that are likely to affect the
528 geomorphic work done by benthivorous fish (Figure 4) are not included; for example,
529 bed-material grain size distribution. Furthermore, although we have made some
530 attempt to calibrate the scores against known zoogeomorphic impacts on the River
531 Idle, we cannot easily translate the scores into meaningful geomorphological
532 expression. Although the scoring system is relatively unsophisticated and untested, it
533 is an appropriate, low-cost, high-level index for a first attempt to establish the extent
534 of site and species potentials.

535 In this context, calculated BIS scores indicate that the potential for zoogeomorphic
536 impacts is widespread (benthic feeding fish are widespread and abundant) and
537 variable in space as a function of community composition and the abundance of key
538 benthivorous species. We do not make any greater claims, but suggest that this
539 analysis, alongside previous research reviewed above, provide sufficient evidence to
540 warrant additional investigation of the role of benthivorous fish in fluvial
541 geomorphology. The case for redd-building impacts has been established over a long
542 period but is now yielding large-scale assessments of the impacts that salmonids
543 might have on millennial timescales and orogenic spatial scales (Fremier *et al.*, 2018).
544 The aim of investigating foraging impacts is similar; to establish the detailed
545 understanding of processes necessary to develop local and basin scale transport
546 models that incorporate foraging effects. There are three key elements of the problem
547 that together define a roadmap for future research in this area.

548 (1) Quantify the impact of benthic feeding by common freshwater fishes, individually
549 and in typical community structures, including an understanding of the role of key biotic
550 and abiotic controls (Figure 4). This could be addressed using controlled flume
551 experiments to establish which common, benthivorous, fish species are capable of
552 conditioning river bed sediments (altering size characteristics and structural
553 organisation). The same experiments could investigate the impact of this conditioning
554 on transport mechanics and sediment fluxes, and establish general relations in which
555 the mechanistic impact is parameterised using generalisable parameters. Key abiotic
556 factors (e.g. flow rate, bed material characteristics) and biotic factors (fish size, prey
557 characteristics, inter-species competition) should be manipulated to understand and
558 quantify their effect on bed conditioning and particle mobility.

559 (2) Develop predictive models of this disturbance effect based on fish community
560 characteristics and the spatiotemporal distribution of relevant foraging behaviours in
561 rivers. Establish typical rates of benthic bed disturbance and the extent to which
562 ecological factors (e.g. community composition, demography, abundance, life stage)
563 and environmental factors (e.g. substrate type, flow regime) control the magnitude and
564 spatiotemporal distribution of bed-conditioning activity. Simple devices like washer
565 disturbance indicators would be valuable for gathering such information. In addition,
566 field experiments (*sensu* Pledger *et al.*, 2017) could investigate the extent of substrate
567 conditioning by wild fish communities.

568 (3) Estimate the cumulative impact of benthic feeding for river-scale sediment fluxes.
569 With a fuller understanding of which species and fish communities disrupt bed
570 materials and how abiotic and biotic factors mediate their effects, a feasible goal
571 becomes the development of a generic model for predicting the impact of foraging on
572 sediment flux. This could, for example, be built using a spatially-explicit numerical
573 sediment routing model, applied with Shields' values that have been adjusted to reflect
574 the change in bed stability caused by foraging disturbance.

575 Why is this important? Because, despite seminal work (Darwin, 1881), growing
576 theoretical understanding (Steiger and Corenblit 2012), strong empirical evidence
577 (Philips, 2009; Rice *et al.*, 2016), technological innovations (Larsen *et al.*, 2017) and
578 societal implications (Orlandini *et al.*, 2015), geomorphologists have not fully assessed
579 or incorporated the role of biological energy in models of geomorphological processes.
580 The relative exclusion of biological processes from geomorphological thinking may
581 have happened for a complex mixture of reasons, including historic accident, lack of
582 conceptual frameworks and the inertia of conventional thought (Johnson, 2002).
583 Nevertheless, it is possible that the failure to assess the potential geomorphic impact

584 of common river fauna is a constraint on our understanding of fluvial sediment
585 dynamics and landscape change (National Research Council, 2010; Atkinson *et al.*,
586 2017) and is therefore an omission worthy of greater attention.

587

588

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600

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876

877 Table 1. Fish species recorded in the River Trent catchment and their respective
 878 behaviour, weight and benthic impact scores. See methods for details of how the
 879 scores were assigned. Feeding Behaviour score (FBS): piscivorous and parasitic =
 880 0; opportunistic = 1; obligate benthic = 2. Mass score, MS: 0 – 15 g = 0; 16 – 99 g =
 881 1; 100 – 499 g = 2; 500 – 1499 g = 3 and; 1500 – 4000 g = 4.

882

Latin name	Common name	Feeding Behaviour score (FBS)	Mass score (MS)	FBS*MS
<i>Salmo salar</i>	Atlantic salmon	0	4	0
<i>Lampetra planeri</i>	Brook lamprey	1	0	0
<i>Phoxinus phoxinus</i>	Minnow	1	0	0
<i>Pungitius pungitius</i>	Nine-spined stickleback	1	0	0
<i>Perca fluviatilis</i>	Perch	0	2	0
<i>Esox lucius</i>	Pike	0	4	0
<i>Lampetra fluviatilis</i>	River lamprey	0	1	0
<i>Petromyzon marinus</i>	Sea lamprey	0	2	0
<i>Cobitis taenia</i>	Spined loach	2	0	0
<i>Barbatula barbatula</i>	Stone loach	2	0	0
<i>Gasterosteus aculeatus</i>	Three-spined stickleback	1	0	0
<i>Alburnus alburnus</i>	Bleak	1	1	1
<i>Salmo trutta</i>	Brown / Sea trout	1	2	2
<i>Cottus gobio</i>	Bullhead	2	1	2
<i>Leuciscus leuciscus</i>	Dace	1	2	2
<i>Carassius auratus</i>	Goldfish	1	2	2
<i>Thymallus thymallus</i>	Grayling	1	2	2
<i>Gobio gobio</i>	Gudgeon	2	1	2
<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	Rainbow trout	1	2	2
<i>Rutilus rutilus</i>	Roach	1	2	2
<i>Scardinius erythrophthalmus</i>	Rudd	1	2	2
<i>Gymnocephalus cernuus</i>	Ruffe	2	1	2
<i>Leuciscus cephalus</i>	Chub	1	3	3
<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	European eel	1	3	3
<i>Platichthys flesus</i>	European flounder	2	2	4
<i>Blicca bjoerkna</i>	Silver bream	2	2	4
<i>Tinca tinca</i>	Tench	2	2	4
<i>Barbus barbus</i>	Barbel	2	3	6
<i>Abramis brama</i>	Common bream	2	3	6
<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	Common carp	2	4	8

883

884

885 Table 2. Abundance and extent of 19 fish species scoring FBS x MS > 0. Fish were
 886 sampled at 176 sites.

887

	FBS*MS	Abundance	Percent of scoring fish	Number of sites	Percent of sites
Bleak	1	26	0.085	2	1.1
Goldfish	2	1	0.003	1	0.6
Rudd	2	5	0.016	3	1.7
Ruffe	2	9	0.029	3	1.7
Rainbow Trout	2	123	0.402	6	3.4
Grayling	2	159	0.520	23	13.1
Dace	2	807	2.637	52	29.5
Gudgeon	2	1181	3.860	62	35.2
Roach	2	1976	6.458	64	36.4
Brown/Sea Trout	2	3059	9.997	91	51.7
Bullhead	2	21800	71.244	147	83.5
Eel	3	335	1.095	26	14.8
Chub	3	985	3.219	66	37.5
Flounder	4	3	0.010	3	1.7
Silver Bream	4	11	0.036	2	1.1
Tench	4	14	0.046	8	4.5
Barbel	6	23	0.075	7	4.0
Common Bream	6	80	0.261	8	4.5
Carp	8	2	0.007	1	0.6
<i>Sum</i>		<i>30599</i>			

888

List of Figures

Figure 1. Common cyprinid feeding behaviours and their impacts on riverbed sediment condition. Grey and black arrows indicate typical magnitudes and directions of fish movements and grain displacements, respectively. Flow direction from right to left. (Credit: Matt Johnson).

Figure 2. The prevalence of different foraging behaviours for a) juvenile Barbel during an ex-situ experiment ($n = 5$) (adapted from Pledger *et al.* (2014)). and b) juvenile Chub during an in-situ experiment in the River Idle ($n = 4$). Values represent means \pm SE.

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Figure 7. Abundance across 176 sites within the Trent catchment and number of sites occupied by 19 fish species that have $FBS \times MS > 0$. Circle diameter is proportional to $FBS \times MS$ such that larger circles indicate a greater likelihood that foraging by an individual will have a geomorphological impact.

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Figure 10. Cumulative benthic impact score ($\Sigma\text{BIS}_{\text{species}}$) for all sites across the Trent catchment. Circle diameter is proportional to $\Sigma\text{BIS}_{\text{species}}$ and indicates the possible cumulative geomorphic impact of foraging by that species, taking into account site-by-site density (m^{-2}), feeding behaviour and average adult mass. Numbers beside the species labels are the percentage of the sum score for all species.

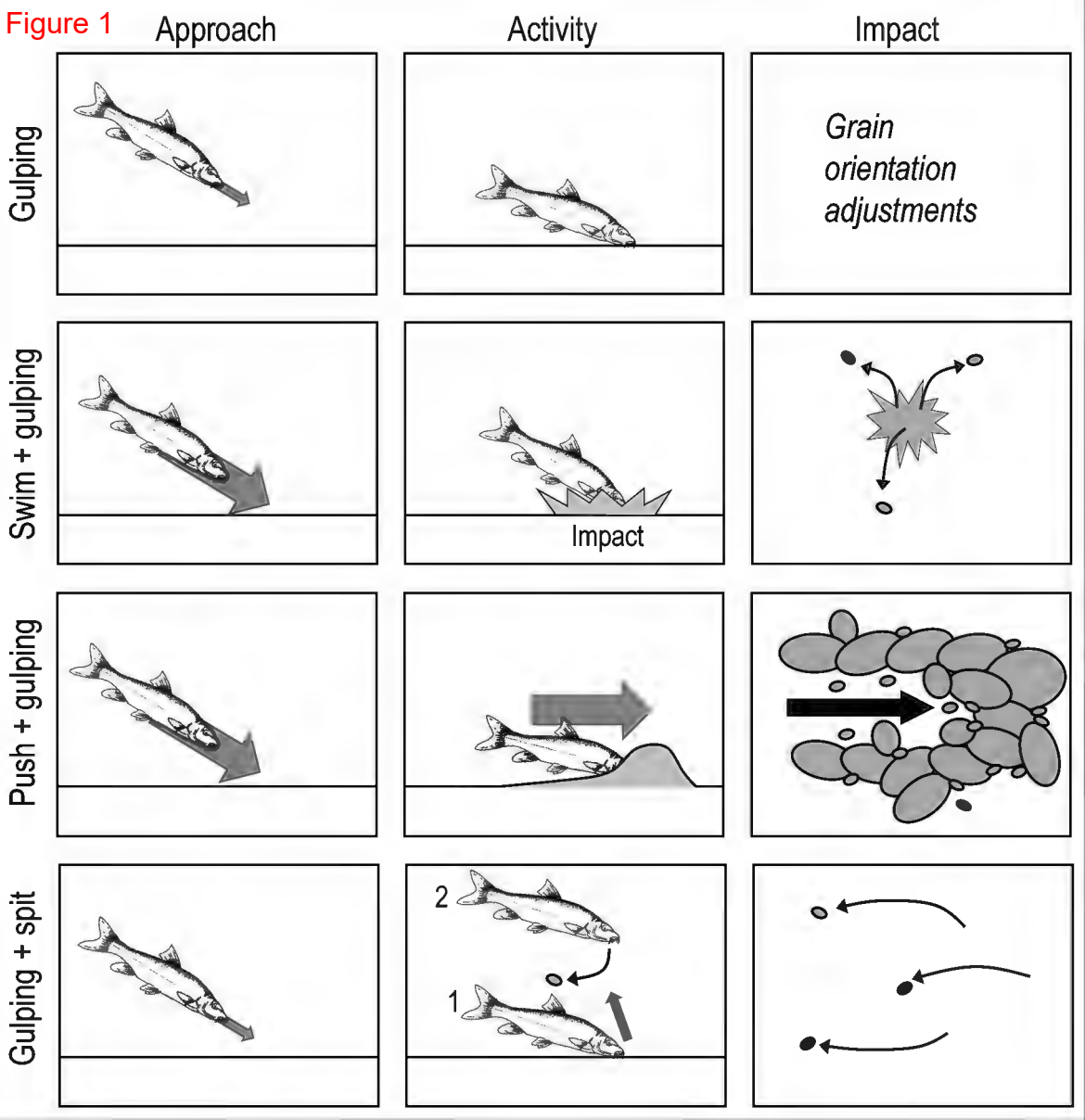


Figure 2

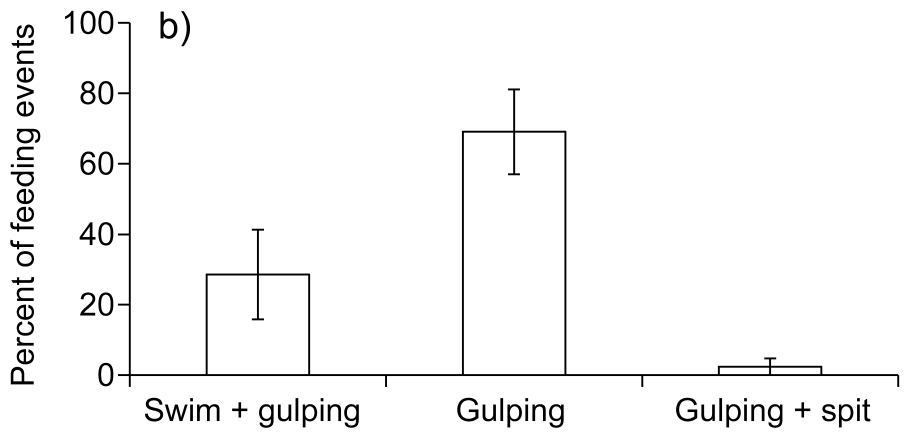
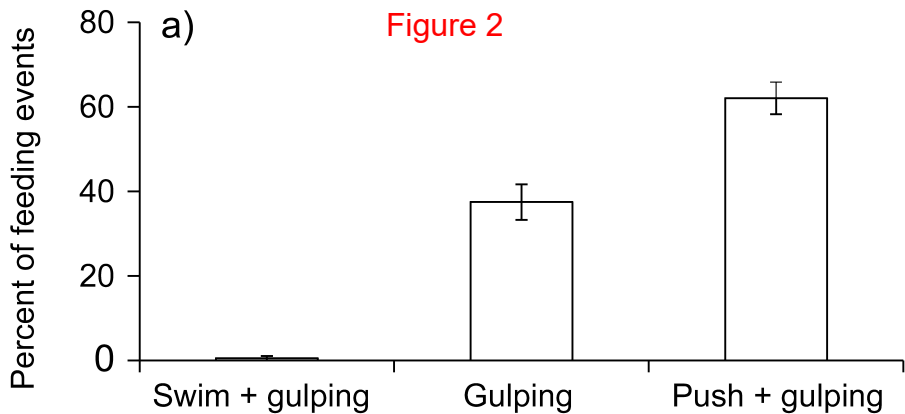
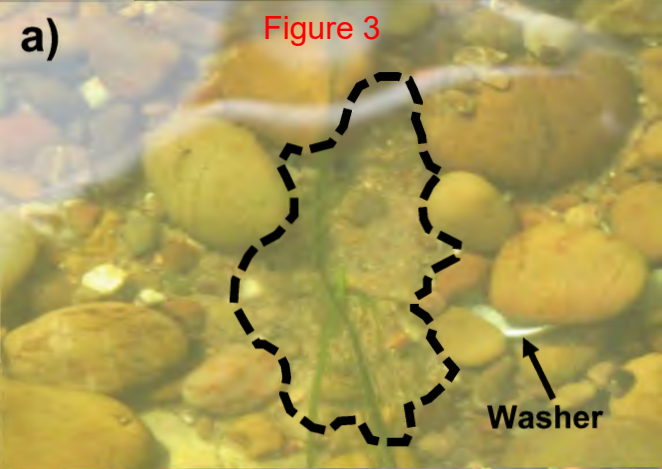


Figure 3

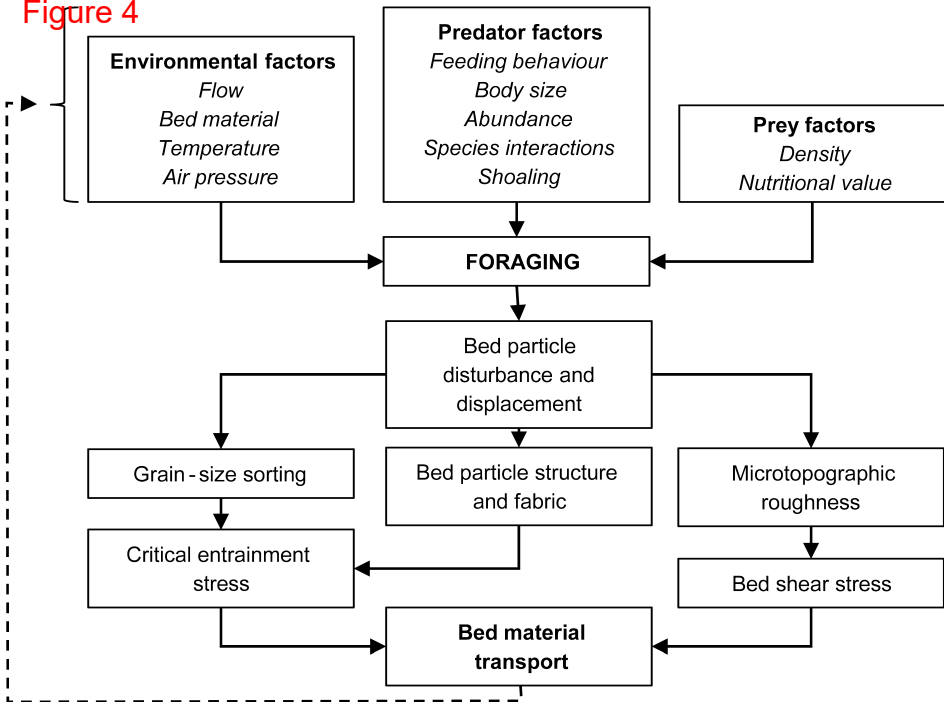
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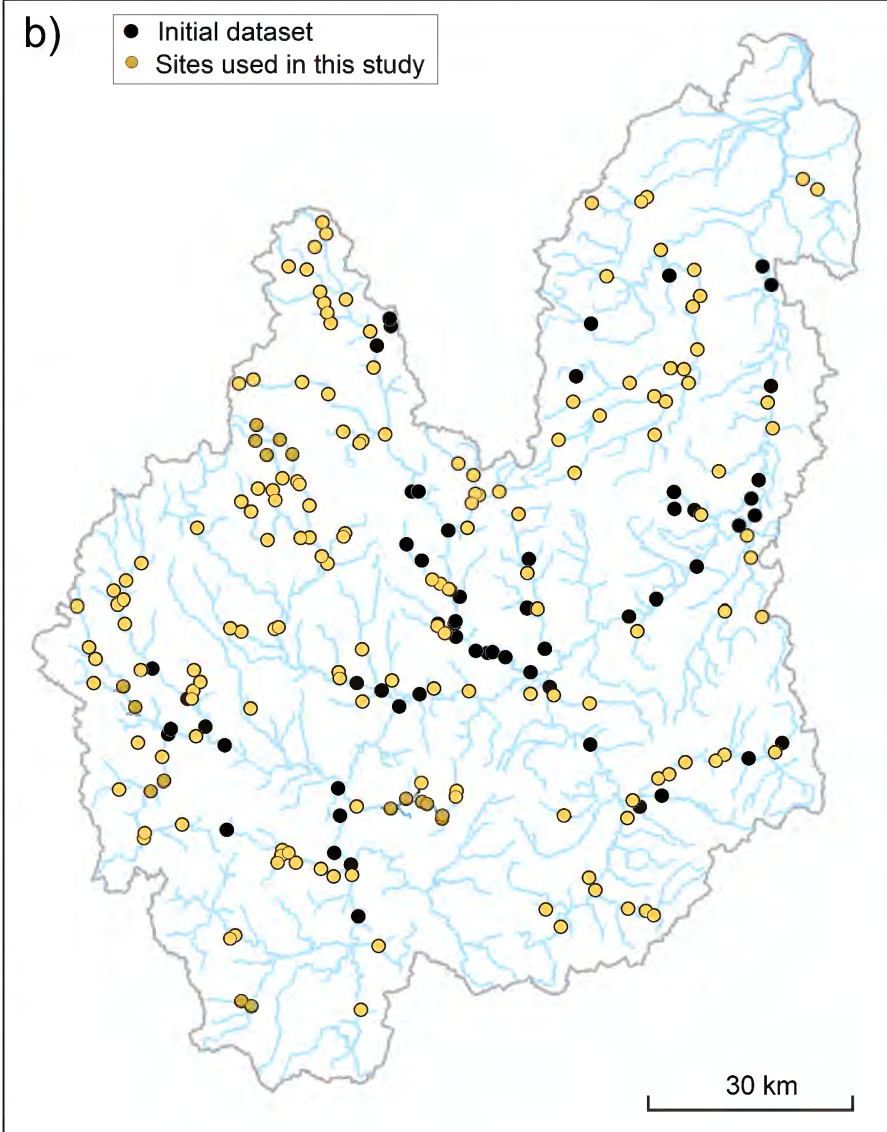
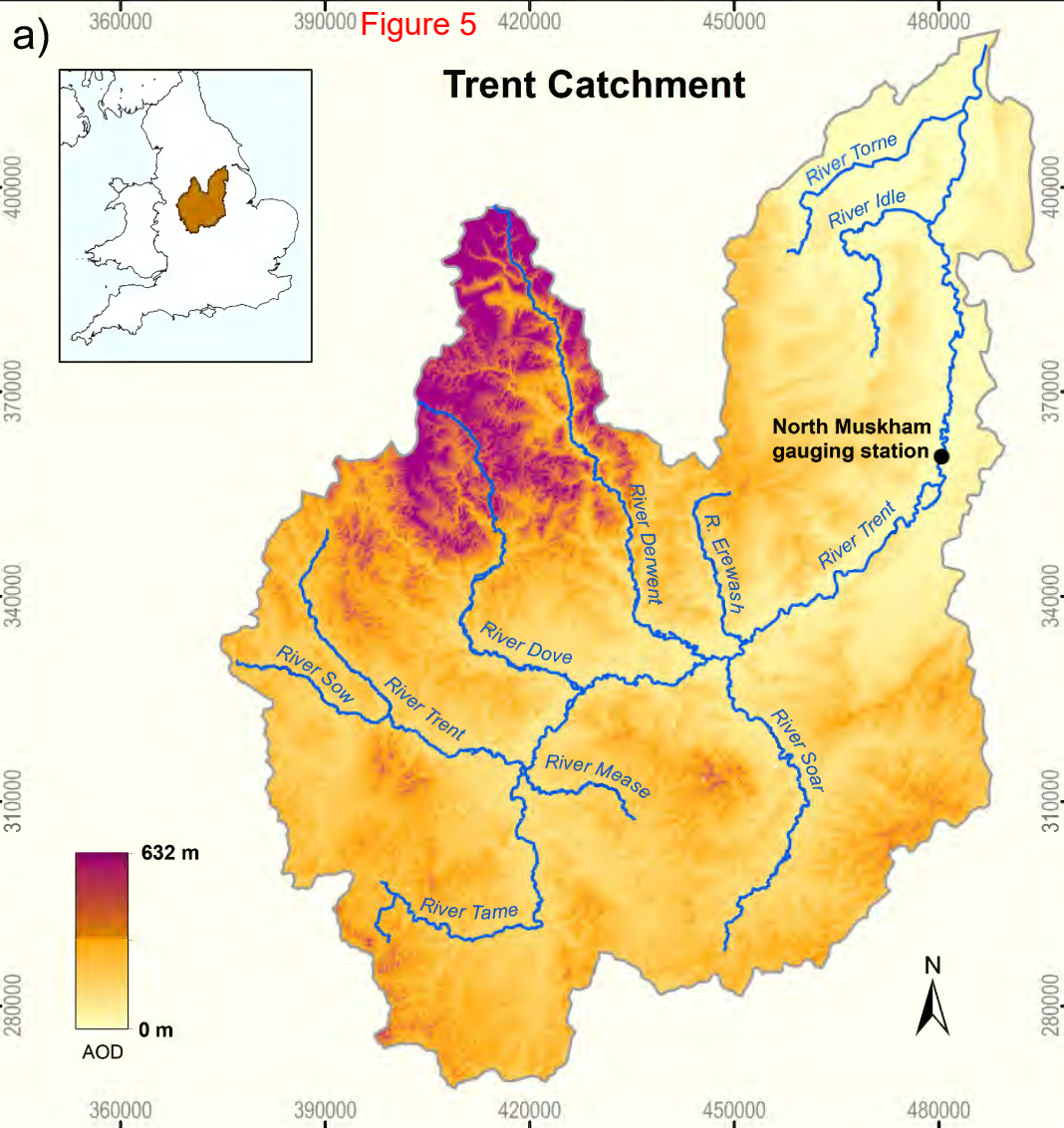


b)



Figure 4





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Feeding mechanism




-  Benthic
-  Opportunistic
-  Piscivorous

Figure 6

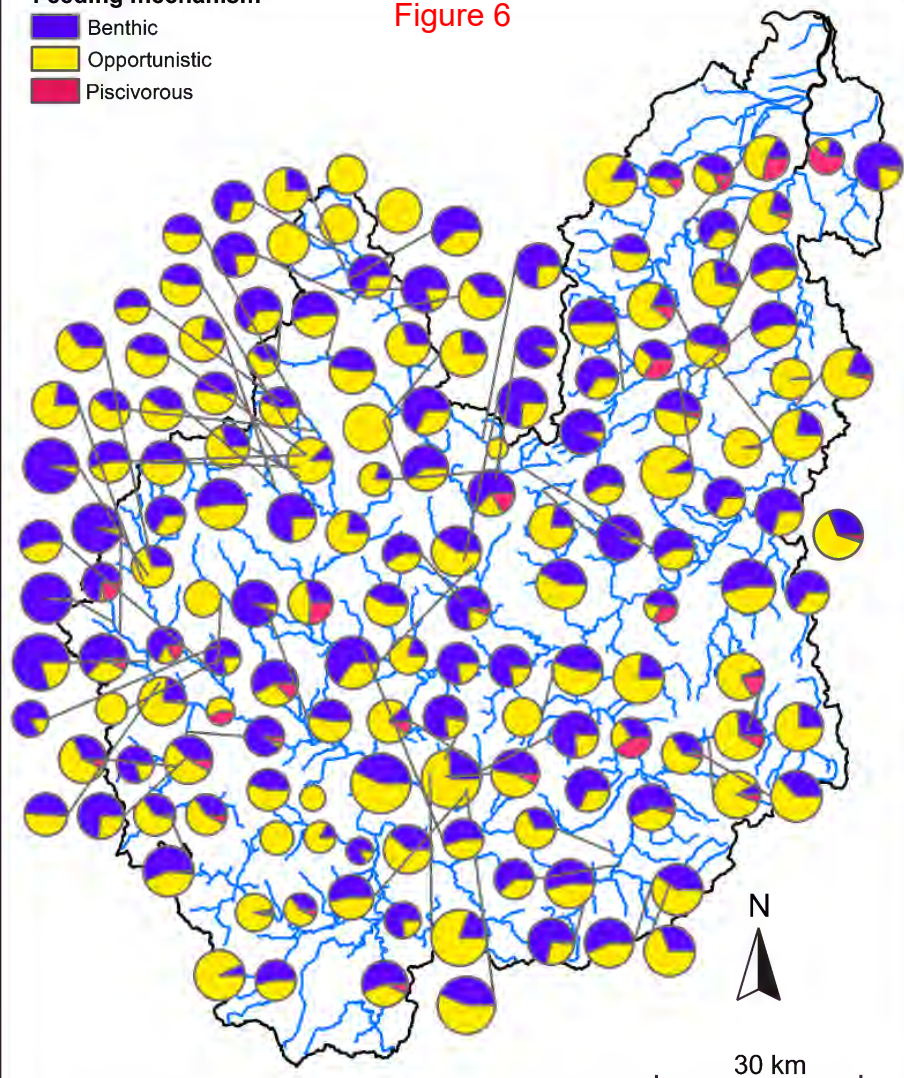
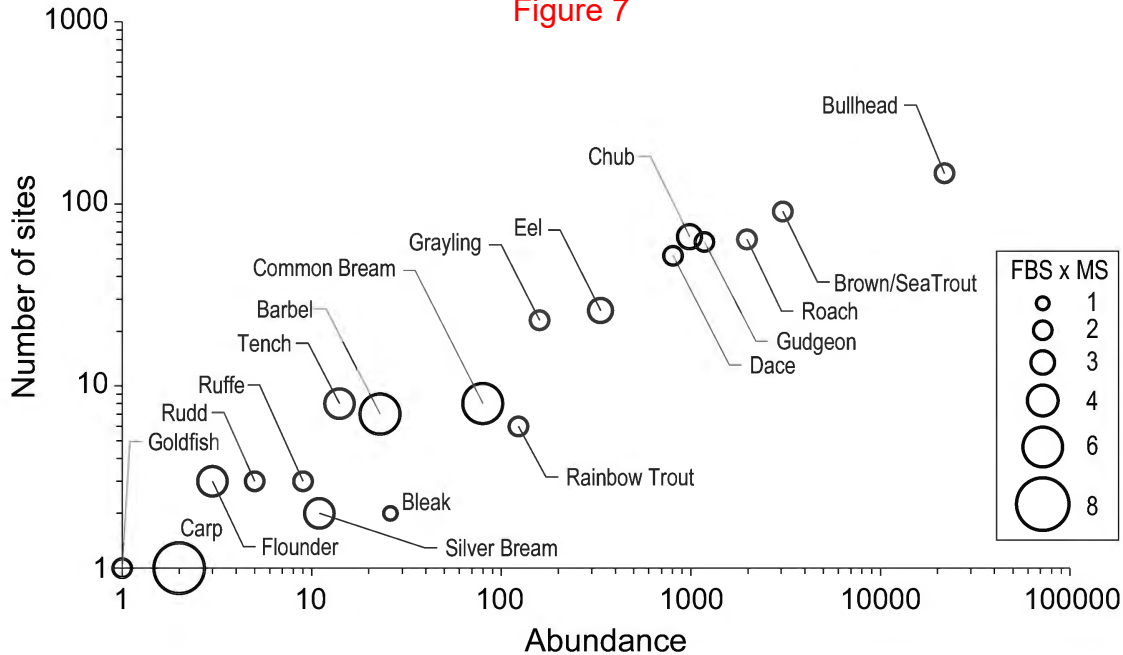


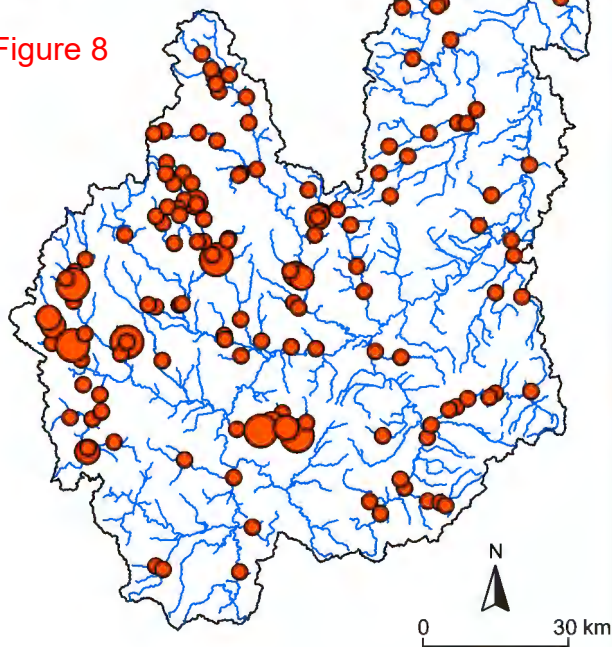
Figure 7



a) Bullhead



Figure 8



b) Barbel & bream

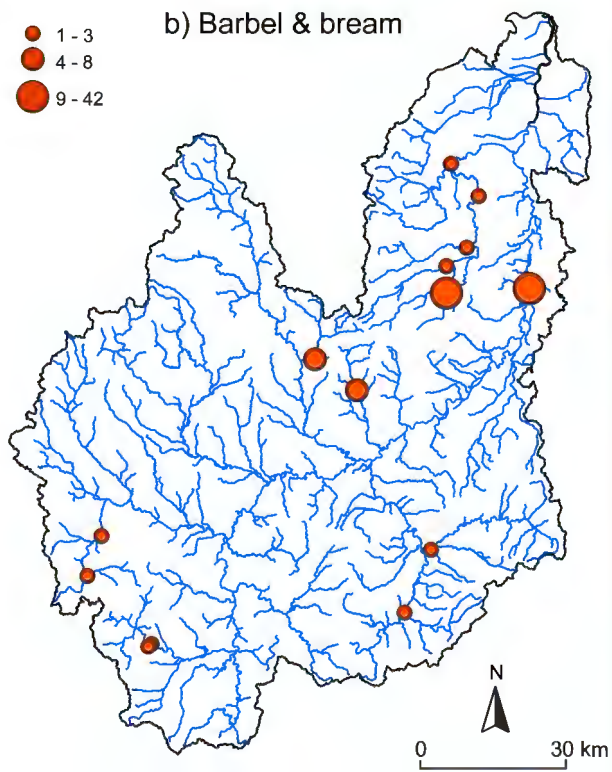


Figure 9

Benthic Impact Score

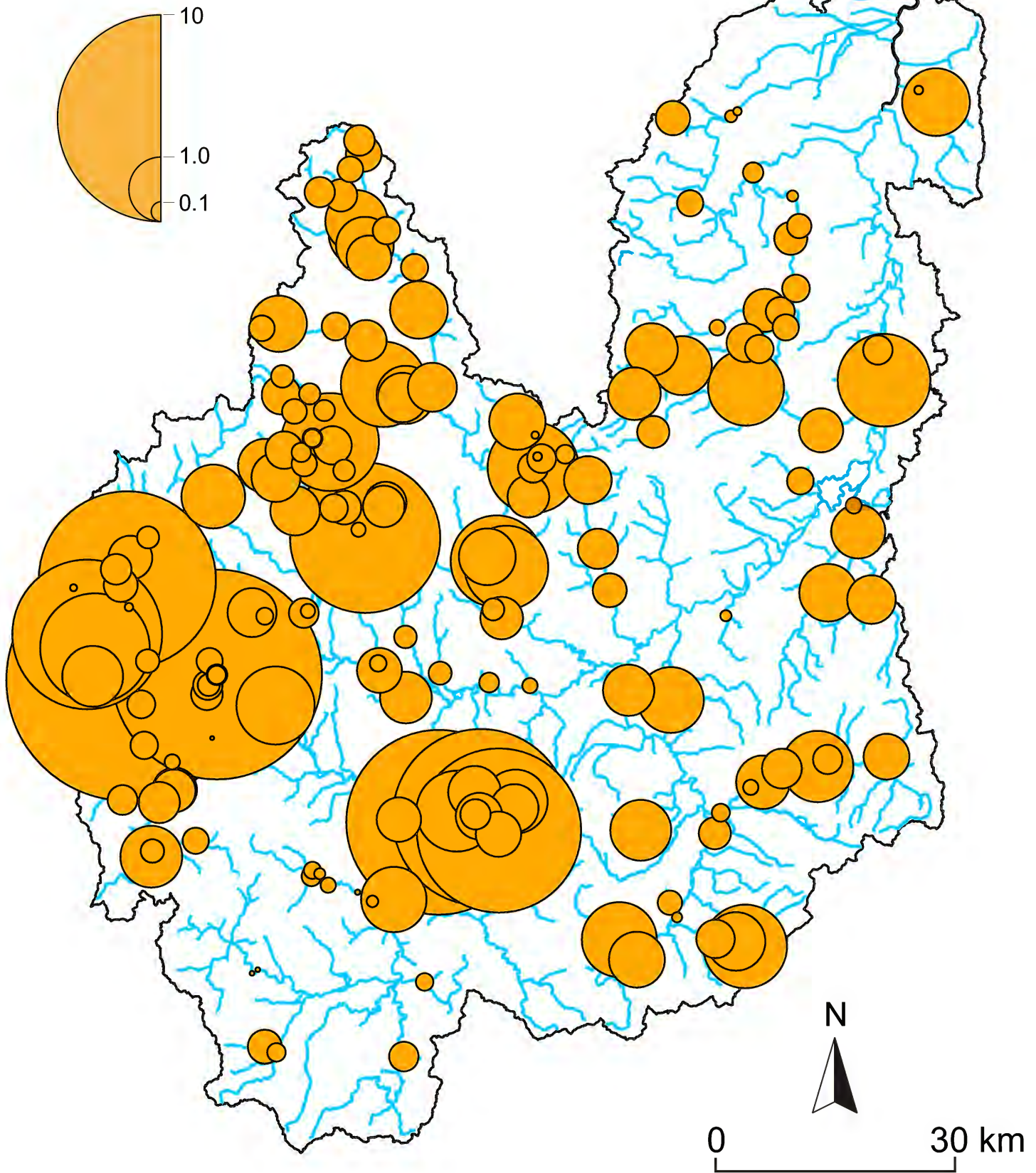


Figure 10

